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Palatable Shades of Gender: Status Processes at the Intersections of Race, Gender, and Team Formation

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“Palatable Shades of Gender: Status Processes at the Intersections of Race, Gender, and Team Formation.”

by

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DEDICATION

I dedicate this dissertation to my family, friends, loved ones and all black lives in the struggle. With a grateful heart, I dedicate this work to my mother, Beverly Hill-Bailey whose love and constant prayer keeps me grounded and my steps ordered. I also dedicate this dissertation to the loving memory of my honorary mother, the late Dr. Sally Caldwell, for instilling in me a love for statistics, politics, and all things intellectual.

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ABSTRACT

This dissertation addresses the importance of studying how race and gender influence partner selection processes of team formation. Stratified social systems influence the choice and decision-making behaviors that shape group and team formation (Hechter 1978). By testing Skvoretz's and Bailey's (2016) formal theory of team formation choice processes derived from expectation states theory, the dissertation aims to understand how race and gender influence a person's choice and decision-making with respect to forming a group of problem-solving teammates. Through a quasi-experimental research design, subjects participate in simulated interactive environments in which they can select and personalize self-represented avatars and then choose potential team members from a pool of racially and gender diverse avatars. Moreover, through content analysis, this study qualitatively examines how participants justify their selections without knowing each avatar's competency.

The critical examination of race and gender in this study challenges and extends conventional social psychological literature that does not sufficiently consider the importance of race, along with its intersections with gender, as vital structural forces on group processes and interpersonal stratification (Hunt et al 2013). Three prominent findings emerge from the study. First, contrary to the theoretical predictions by Skvoretz and Bailey (2016), race differences in choice of teammate are common, gender differences are rare, but intersectional effects exist. Second, statistical analyses support an alternative interpretation of the status structure of the problem in which women rather than men are assigned the high state on the gender dimension when it comes to choosing teammates. Third, the qualitative findings show racial and gendered

stereotypes are implicitly integrated into ideas about how appearance shapes competence and teamwork. The data show that stereotyping is not simply an attributional process of traits, but also a process of attributing narrative stories to a person based on demeanor and affect.

1. INTRODUCTION

The 2016 United States Presidential election was an historical event. The most politically experienced candidate to ever run for Office of President lost the general election to arguably the most politically inexperienced person to ever run for Office of President. Politicians, scholars, journalists, and commentators speculated that gender played a key role in Secretary Hillary Clinton's lost; given the fact that Barack Obama, a black man, with relatively little political experience, was elected president for two terms, eight years prior. As a result, many people claim that gender has a more detrimental status impact than race. Except for few notable studies on race, much of the social psychological literature on status inequality almost exclusively focuses on gender. However, there is limited research on how gender, race, and their mutual intersections, influence the distribution of choice patterns and decision-making behaviors among and between members of society. According to Hunt and colleagues (2013), social psychological studies on race are rare, and research on its intersections with gender are virtually non-existent. Thus, two major questions arise: are frameworks that lack a critical racial analysis of gender inequality, contextually colorblind? On the other hand, is research that exclusively examines racial-inequality, gender-blind?

This study fills this gap by exploring how group members of different racial and gender demographics select collaborative partners for group work and become chosen by others as teammates for such interaction. In other words, this research investigates how the race and gender of my participants influence how they choose team members for a collectively oriented task. Additionally, I examine how people justify their partner selections solely based on race and

gender? Moreover, I introduce a new concept, "status-identities," such as identifying and being identified as a black woman, that impacts team formation and shapes one's likelihood of choosing or being chosen as a group member for a task for which teamwork and taskwork as essential components to success. I theoretically ground my study, on one hand, in research that highlights the structural basis of racial and gender inequality, and, on the other hand, in the social-psychological literature on group processes (specifically the expectation states research program) which examines how status differences or the societal rankings of one's group, structure interaction in collectively oriented task groups.

By focusing on team formation rather than group interaction, this project makes a key contribution to studies of inequality. Essentially this study examines who is invited to sit at the table, rather than who eats what at the table. The examination of potential collaborative opportunities stemming from partner choice, bridges macro and micro literatures by analyzing how status and identity in the wider society impact the formation of teams within which social-psychological processes serve to reproduce existing status beliefs and associated behaviors. In the next section, I outline expectation states theory, which is a social psychological framework that attends to how status beliefs and structural inequality influence social actors' decision-making behaviors within collectively-oriented task settings.

EXPECTATION STATES THEORY

Expectation states theory focuses on the uneven distribution of power and prestige (i.e. deference or respect) in problem solving groups working on *collectively oriented tasks*. For a task to be collectively-oriented each team or group member must consider "it is necessary and legitimate to take the behavior of the other into account in order to achieve the success outcome" (Berger,

Fişek, and Freese 1976:47). In other words, collectively-oriented teams consist of members who will put their "best foot forward" all for the sake of team success. Put yet another way, members of these groups are not motivated by individual or personal success but by a wish to see their group be successful.

Expectation states theory posits that there is an underlying structure of expectations that guides people in social interaction (Berger, Fişek, and Freese 1976). The underlying structure is a key component in the group process of social interaction that influences social actors' evaluations and performance expectations of others (Fararo 1972). The process produces a structure of unequal relational states of being, called an expectation states structure, which in turn produces unequal states of action in the power-prestige order (Correll and Ridgeway 2006). This type of inequality is indicative of status. Status is a symbolic representation of a social actor's location, positional worth, or rank in a socially stratified society (Balkwell 1994).

Additionally, status refers to the honor or prestige associated with a social actor's position or location in society (Bothner, Godart, and Lee 2009). According to Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch (1972), status is a social fact, and as such, status significantly influences how social actors evaluate group members as well as a social actor's performance expectations for group members. As a symbolic representation, status provides a socially and categorically defined description about the social actor relative to her or his location or position within a stratified society. Status operates as a source of knowledge to ground one's beliefs about social differences and/or similarities. These beliefs are called *status beliefs* (Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch 1972). Specifically, status beliefs are cultural assessments that ascribe a favorable state of worth and proficiency solely based on salient status characteristics, which are socially significant attributes such as race, gender, occupation, abled-bodiedness, age, and/or sexuality that social actors use as

the basis for their status beliefs (Ridgeway and Kricheli-Katz 2013; Berger, Wagner and Zelditch 1983).

Status beliefs prime an inequitable process in social interaction whereby individual social actors, who are collectively oriented, accept or recognize a social evaluation that considers one group member better than another or their own (Ridgeway 2001). In other words, the favoring of one group over another is a function of *status information* which is composed of cultural assumptions and stereotypical beliefs associated with the attributes of a particular social group or more specifically, a status group[1]. Thus, collectively oriented members of an interracial team may favor whites over nonwhites when resolving a task. Similarly, in mixed-sex teams, the interaction may favor men over women. Additionally, status beliefs allow for the recognition and the acknowledgement of these types of social evaluations, although, one may or may not agree with them (Ridgeway and Correll 2004). As a result, status characteristics are often used to shape inclusionary or exclusionary social practices, influence, evaluation, and the prediction of the quality of one's impending performance (Berger and Fişek 2006; Correll and Ridgeway 2006).

There are two types of status characteristics, namely *specific* status characteristic and *diffuse* status characteristic (Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch 1972). Both characteristics accompany various valuations and states with their own set of performance expectations and relative degrees of honor, prestige, and a popular consensus of social worth (Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch 1972). Both specific and diffuse status characteristics are associated with performance expectations (positive and negative). However, the primary concern for this study is diffuse status characteristics. *Diffuse status characteristics* pertain to cultural and stereotypical beliefs

[1] According to Weber ([1946] 1953), a status group is normally considered a community. The people in a status group all share the same status. Social status in this context refers to the honor or prestige associated with person's position in a society's social order

commonly shared by most members of a society about the level of competence (or lack thereof) regarding members belonging to certain status groups (Berger, Ridgeway, and Zelditch 2002).

Although, diffuse status characteristics are utilized in multiple and various ways in society, this study addresses two ways: (1) they are used to explain actions and/or outcomes and (2) they are used as heuristic evidence to anticipate and predict performances and/or outcomes. The second usage is of the most concern to the expectation states framework on inequality. The theory asserts that in teams composed of people who are collectively oriented there will be structural inequality, or social inequality that reflects the social order of a society. Additionally it suggests that the inequalities that emerge in interactions are due to expectations that arise from status information, associated with diffuse status characteristics, which people carry with them into a group setting.

For example, if strangers work together as a team on a task and furthermore are collectively oriented to that task, the theory states that in the absence of other information, the team of strangers will utilize the status information associated with each member's diffuse status characteristics to predict how well they will perform on the task. The prediction represents the person's expectations or pre-judgments for each teammate's anticipated performance. In other words, the prediction represents a person's *expectation state*[2] for their teammates anticipated performance (Ridgeway 2001b, 2000; Foschi 1972). It is a positive or negative prediction regarding the expected performance of each group member. The stereotypical expectations or pre-judgments (e.g. expectation states) that arise from status information assist members in "sizing-up" their teammates.

[2] Fundamental to expectation states theory are the concepts states and expectations. States are various characterizations that describe the quality of a particular mode of being or belief (Webster and Rashotte 2010; Berger and Webster 2006; Balkwell 1991; Rosenholtz and Cohen 1984; Cook 1975; Foschi 1972). Expectations are beliefs about how a being or an object with a given state or characteristic will behave or operate in an appropriate situation (Ridgeway 2000; Ridgeway 2001b; Foschi 1972).

The stereotypes associated with diffuse status characteristics influence the "sizing-up" of teammates. Stereotypical assumptions about the group task and stereotypical beliefs about teammates' diffuse status characteristics guide the interaction and allows interactional inequality to emerge and reflect the general standing of teammates in the wider social order. Therefore, group members use status information from a diffuse status characteristic to anticipate and decide which teammate or partners will likely be more competent at the task and hence should receive more chances to contribute, whose contributions will likely be more highly regarded, and whose opinion will likely be more influential.

Studies involving mixed-sex work groups, where gender is the diffuse status characteristic (Ridgeway 2011, Berger, and Fişek 2006; Ridgeway and Correll 2004; Lucas 2003; Ridgeway 1991; Foschi and Buchan 1990) illustrates this process. These studies convincingly demonstrate structural inequality as it relates to gender. They show how performances expectations vary by one's gender (i.e. female or male). These studies show that performance expectations relating to gender disproportionately favor males as being more competent and intelligent than females (Berger and Fişek 2006; Brown and Josephs 1999). Furthermore, expectation states scholars note that status beliefs or information (i.e. stereotypical beliefs and cultural assumptions) is not just invoked for "gender specific tasks," but for all tasks regardless of gender (Meeker and Elliott 1996). Studies have shown that race is no exception (Manago, Sell, and Goar 2018; Thye and Harrell 2017; Biagas and Bianchi 2015; Goar, Sell, Manago, Melero, and Reidinger 2013; Thomas-Hunt and Phillips 2010; Goar and Sell 2005; Unnever and Hembroff 1988; Cohen 1982; Webster and Driskell 1978). However, a question remains—how do status beliefs form? This question is answered by status construction theory.

Status construction theory stems from social constructionism and expectations states theory (Berger, Ridgeway, and Zelditch 2002). According to status construction theory, status norms are a consequence from the reification of status beliefs, which are constructed and subsequently, maintained within the *local contexts of action* (Ridgeway 2000). The local contexts "in which people routinely encounter those who differ from the Other, in some socially recognized way are social 'factories' in which status beliefs can be created, spread, interrupted or maintained" (Ridgeway 2018). Thus, local contexts of action, refers to a collectively oriented group setting where status beliefs (i.e. stereotypes) associated with status characteristics undergo a construction and reification process through routine group interaction. Moreover, structural conditions frame the local contexts of action, that is, the systemic distribution of resources that advantages one group over the other grounds the construction and maintenance of status beliefs (Bowles and Babcock 2013).

For example, numerous studies illustrate that in the U.S. Whites have more material wealth than people of color (Addo and Lichter 2013; Kaba 2011; NcKernan et al 2013; Miller 2011; Shapiro, Meschede, and Osoro 2014; Taylor et al 2011). Therefore, social structural conditions provide more meaning to the status differentiation in the local contexts of action (Berger and Fişek 2006; Correll and Ridgeway 2006; Clay-Warner 1994). In this sense, expectation states theory resembles a Marxist argument that asserts that "It is not the consciousness of men that determines their being, but, on the contrary, their *social being that determines their consciousness*" (Marx 1904:11-12). In other words, status beliefs do not determine status characteristics, but it is status characteristics that determine status beliefs – as interactive processes construct status information.

Lastly, status construction theory posits that status beliefs form through and by inter-categorical encounters (Ridgeway 2000). These encounters socialize the interactants to accept the status beliefs until the next inter-categorical encounter. However, the interactants diffuses their newly acquired status belief to their next encounter in order to make sense and predict the behaviors of the other status actors. After several encounters that confirm the applicable status beliefs the diffusion process subsides (Berger and Fisek 2006).

Thus a diffuse status belief emerges. A *diffuse status belief* is the consensual belief between high status actors and low status actors that those with high statuses have higher social worth and are more competent that those who are of low status (Bowles and Babcock 2013). The theory argues that low status actors subscribe to this diffuse status belief even when it disadvantages their own status group. Consequently, in inter-categorical interaction high status group members participate more, receive more opportunities to participate, and have the power to influence or reject the opinions or suggestions made by their low status counterparts.

Status beliefs and diffuse status beliefs are usually attached to human behavior in interaction. Often times, status beliefs, as well as diffuse status beliefs, are used to categorize and legitimize a group member's response style to a particular status group (Berger, Ridgeway and Zelditch 2002). Thus how one responds in inter-categorical or doubly dissimilar encounters can be used to ascribe or confirm a particular status category to the group member in question. Many studies have been used to test this theory, ranging from quantitative simulations studies to experimental designs (Feinman 1984;Fararo et al 1993; Duguid et al 2012; Dippong 2012). The unit of analysis of this theory is the situation in which people are interacting as a group (Fararo 1972).

As such, most of the studies examine the emergence of status hierarchies in intergroup interactions as an effect. The subjects in these studies were typically racially identified as White. However, the subjects did vary in terms of their sex classification. The theory implies that its model applies to all high status and low status groups within any society. However, most studies have tested the theory using one racial group – Whites with subjects who hold various sex categories (Bradley 1980). In doing so, these studies adopt implicitly an assumption that the formation of status beliefs or diffuse status beliefs of racialized others in inter-categorical or doubly dissimilar encounters is relatively similar or even identical to their White counterparts. In sum, expectation states theory posits that diffuse status characteristics laden with diffuse status beliefs (stereotypes) shape group dynamics and interaction in such a way that this interaction routinely reflects structural inequality at the societal level. However, work in expectation states theory is not without its limitations.

THEORETICAL LIMITATIONS

In this section, I address two limitations of the theory. First, the theory assumes that the idea of teamwork motivates people who consider it as a vital component in achieving a successful collectively oriented task outcome. Thus, low status actors who are collectively oriented, will comply with the stereotypical beliefs to guide their interaction. Some studies note that these group members may or may not agree with the stereotypes, but they will comply with the beliefs for the sake of the team. However, given the particular racial history of the US, I question the empirical validity of the claim that in collectively oriented interactions in the US when race is activated, compliance is forthcoming for the sake of team solidarity and success.

The fact of the matter is that most of the work in expectation states scholarship focuses on gender, with little to no specific research on race [3]. The overwhelming focus on gender in empirical research on expectation states indicates that gender is more convenient to study than race. Consequently, knowledge is limited about how race works as a status characteristic and if it works the same way as gender. In particular, do lower status actors on race truly comply with the beliefs about their relative lack of competence for the sake of the team or are their other motives at work? Moreover, and from an intersectional perspective, do lower status actors on race and gender comply differently with beliefs based exclusively on race or gender?

The theory makes the simplifying assumption that all relevant status characteristics (i.e. race, gender, class, disability, and/or sexuality, etc.…) operate identically during group interaction. This means that the effect of status information (i.e. cultural assumptions and stereotypical beliefs) on group members' performance expectations of one other produces the same implicit agreement on the part of low status actors with the stereotypical beliefs regardless of the particular diffuse status characteristic differentiating actors. However, I contend that a lack of research attention to race means that this simplifying assumption is worth empirical examination. Furthermore, it may be the case that an empirically grounded understanding of race as a diffuse status characteristic will yield a better understanding of the impact of other diffuse status characteristics (like gender) particularly when multiple characteristics differentiate interaction partners.

The second limitation of the work concerns the typical research design followed by expectation states researchers. In the standard experimental situation of expectation states

[3] For a more comprehensive assessment of the various diffuse status characteristics examined in expectation states studies see Berger, Wagner, and Webster (2014). I suggest doing a word frequency count or search for both "gender" and "race" as a means to illustrate the overwhelming volume of studies focusing on gender relative to race.

research, the subjects of the study do not have the opportunity to choose their partners. Typically, the assignment of subjects to a group with strangers occurs first, and then, the group receives instructions to solve a task as a team. This procedure mimics, for instance, the process by which the formation of some student teams in college classrooms. Juries are another example where strangers are brought together to complete some group task. A final example would be review panels assembled by government funding agencies to evaluate grant proposals submitted for a specific interdisciplinary call.

However, not all teams are formed in this assigned fashion. In other cases, there may be an element of choice on the part of team members regarding with whom they would wish to work. The absence of attention to how stereotypes associated with social categories may influence the formation of teams or problem-solving groups constitutes a missed opportunity for the expectation states research program in at least two ways. First, it offers another opportunity for research into the effects of various status information (e.g. stereotypes) associated with different diffuse status characteristics, a venue that allows for the collection of high-quality data from relatively complex combinations of status-identities. Second, it provides another avenue by which to understand the replication of lower status members' expectations across generations, and so, contribute to a full picture of the status construction process.

Finally, and more pointedly, the idea that the lower status actors simply accept the beliefs that denigrate their competence and abilities so that the group might succeed seems naïve. Imagine an African-American walking into a situation populated predominantly by unfamiliar white Americans. Given the U.S. history of racism and enslavement, it is reasonable to think that the African-American might have some anxiety being in a space that is full of strangers and might find it racially intimidating. Would it make a difference if some white person (the

experimenter) told the African-American to work as a team with that particular group to solve a task? Would it ease his or her anxiety? Would any hint of racial intimidation be removed and would lower expectations be gladly accepted?

Given this scenario, how would the African-American interact with others in the group? Without addressing any arguments regarding fairness, would it be accurate to describe the task related behaviors of the African-American as representing a complicit acceptance of the stereotypical beliefs about African-Americans? Could it be possible that the task related behavior of the African-American represents a racial etiquette unaccounted for by expectation states theory? These critical questions speak to a more pointed limitation of the theory -- its ability to address how social domination, the space of the social situation, and group formation contribute to the persistence and emergence of structural inequality in problem-solving teams. A social psychological analysis of team formation via partner-selection processes, is one way to address these limitations.

PROJECT DESCRIPTION

This study uses concepts and methods from expectation states theory and models to address how status affects the choice and decision-making behaviors regarding partner-selection for an anticipated collectively oriented task. It broadens current research by exploring a rarely explored area in studies of group processes: partner choice. The idea that status information (i.e. stereotypes) along with associated diffuse status characteristics influence the formation of collectively oriented work groups (teams) has precedent in the research literature despite its absence from the expectation states research program.

For example, Ruef, Aldrich, and Carter (2003) examine the formation of entrepreneurial teams[4]. The authors advance several hypotheses about the composition of such teams. One hypothesis in particular uses ideas from expectation states thinking and proposes that "organizational founding teams composed only of high-status persons (e.g., males, members of the ethnic majority, professionals) will be more common than those created entirely from other statuses" (201). The logic is straightforward – high status actors are expected to be more generally competent than low status actors (e.g., white females, racial minorities, blue-collar employees) and so both high status actors and low status actors will prefer and so select other high status actors to be team members in the task context of forming a "startup" business. Such businesses clearly qualify as task focused and collectively oriented groups.

However, the authors, in fact, find little support for this hypothesis once controlling for other factors such as geographic region and industry type. From this one result, it is difficult to know if status considerations simply do not enter into partner choice in the formation of these collectively oriented task groups or whether other effects present in a natural setting mask their impact. An investigation in a more controlled environment is one way to advance an understanding of this issue. Thus an ex post facto experimental design is, furthermore, squarely within expectation states research and can borrow heavily from existing protocols.

Through this quasi-experimental focus I explore two substantive issues regarding expectation states theory. The first issue is whether or not all diffuse status characteristics operate similarly and thus examine if race and gender can be used interchangeably. Ridgeway and Kricheli-Katz (2013), note that the status dimension of gender, race, and their intersections

[4] Using data from the Panel Study of Entrepreneurial Dynamics (PSED) conducted between July 1998 and January 2000 when a total of 64,622 individuals in the United States were contacted by telephone using a random-digit dialing process to identify those in the process of starting a business ("nascent entrepreneurs").

may have very different behavioral consequences and social-psychological effects. Thus, they are consistent with arguments made by many scholars outside expectation states scholarship that these dimensions are not interchangeable and hence, should not be conflated (Hill-Collins 2012, 2000). The second issue is the substantive basis for the performance of low status actors – is it driven by collective orientation or by a desire to avoid confrontation?

In the first case, low status actors adopt and comply with stereotypical beliefs about their lack of competence and inability to perform relative to high status actors. In the second, their performance is an avoidance reaction to stereotype threat. Studies outside the expectation states literature suggest that performances by low status actors that convey compliance to stereotypes may not necessarily be motivated by collective orientation in order to achieve group success. Their performances may indeed express a type of resistance to stereotypes or adverse status information, as well as, a protective strategy to prevent sanctioning by other members of the group (particularly from high status members) for not accepting or complying with, their low status treatment.

ORGANIZATION OF THE DISSERTATION

There are six chapters in this dissertation. In the first chapter, which is the current chapter, I discussed the aims and research questions of the study. Additionally, I provided a brief background on expectation states theory, as well as, address some of its taken for granted assumptions, regarding the equivalence of various status characteristics (including of special interest for the research, race and gender) in how they determine position in task groups' power and prestige orders. Following the introductory chapter is chapter two —the literature review. In this chapter, I review two complementary literatures. The first outlines studies regarding the

sociology of choice and decision-making behaviors. The second section draws on sociology of choice and decision-making as a framework to illustrate the social psychological aspects of team formation as a decision-making process. The third chapter explicates Skvoretz's and Bailey's (2016) expectation states informed arguments regarding self-organizing team formation via partner-selection. The fourth chapter describes the methods, data, and analyses, by which hypotheses are posited and research questions empirically evaluated. The fifth chapter presents examines the data in light of two grand overarching hypotheses derived from expectation states theory. The first asserts that different demographic groups will choose partners in essentially the same way, that is, favoring the higher status alternatives, The second asserts that higher status on gender have the same advantage as higher status on race and vice-versa. The sixth chapter estimates and tests the specific choice models of Skvoretz and Bailey (2016), showing that a revised stipulation of the gender status ordering provides better fits to the choice data, In chapter seven, a qualitative analysis of the rationales subjects gave for their choices is developed and presented, In the last chapter, chapter eight, I discuss and contextualize the study's findings, as well as, address its limitations and my security precautions associated with my data collection method.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This review outlines the literature on choice and decision-making behaviors and the social psychological aspects of self-organizing team formation. The primary question focusing this review concentrates on how status characteristics, as noted by expectation states theory, influence people's choice association rates and decision-making behaviors. This review is thematically organized. It starts with a brief introduction addressing the sociological approach to choice and decision-making behavior. The next section addresses the literature focusing on the effects of stereotypes and expectations on decision-making groups and individuals in task settings. The third section reviews the group formation process as a consequence of people's choice and decision-making behaviors.

SOCIOLOGY OF CHOICE AND DECISION-MAKING BEHAVIORS

Tallman and Gray (1990) review how choice and decision-making behaviors are influenced by historical, social (structural), and cultural forces. These forces, in turn contribute to meaningful outcomes in social interaction and provide understanding with respect to people's choice and decision-making behaviors. Choices represent predictions or speculations about routine courses of action that will produce a particular result. In situations involving choice (i.e. choice situations), there can be known and unknown probable outcomes.

In contrast, decisions are deliberative actions, typically used in non-routine situations requiring information processing and definitive judgment. According to Tallman and Gray (1990), "choices may be either conscious or unconscious; decisions on the other hand, because

they are deliberative and require some level of deduction, are always conscious" (423). Tallman (2010) states that "human behavior is oriented toward survival; that all choices, including decisions, take into account three critical variables: benefits, costs and probability of outcomes" (175). These variables are combined in the Satisfaction Balance Model developed by Gray and Tallman (1984). This model is a decision-making framework that postulates, social actors confronted with alternative choices will want to maximize satisfactions by considering (in ratio terms) the choices available by anticipating which choice will lead to satisfactions against those likely to lead to dissatisfaction

Facilitating effective individual and group decision-making processes requires a clearer understanding of factors that influence the decision process. Many studies have shown that structural and cultural forces affect problem-solving behavior/styles.[5] Stereotypes, along with expectations, play a vital role in the choice behaviors of decision-making groups in task-oriented settings (Foddy, Platow, and Yamagishi 2009). The following studies have demonstrated that stereotypical gendered expectations and beliefs influence the interaction in mixed-sex, collectively-oriented task groups.

DECISION-MAKING GROUPS

In this section, I review the literature on choice and decision-making behaviors influenced by stereotypes, and expectations of individuals and group members. Studies have shown that stereotypes, along with expectations, play a vital role in the choice behaviors of decision-making groups in task-oriented settings (Foddy, Platow, and Yamagishi 2009). Given the salience of race and gender in our society, and the stereotypes related to competency that connect to both status

[5] I use style here to denote that decisions/choices can be expressed overtly, covertly, explicitly, implicitly, or by omission and commission.

dimensions, is likely that these status characteristics can play a role in group processes. This research builds on the findings of previous studies that have demonstrated that stereotypical gendered expectations and beliefs influence the interaction in mixed-sex, collectively-oriented task groups.

Foschi and Valenzuela (2008) use expectation states and social identity theory to examine how gender influences the decision-making process for hiring potential job applicants. Social identity theory, counters expectation states theory regarding the influence of status on decision-making behaviors. It argues that although people may use stereotype-based information to form impressions and make sense of ambiguous social situations, the information that is typically derived is contingent upon their own experiences and thus may not conform to the societal stereotypes relevant to gender. Thus, people's impressions of others are more or less associated with traditional stereotypical beliefs (Hogg et al 2006).

Foschi and Valenzuela (2008) investigate if gender influences the choice decisions of job applicant evaluators between pairs of job candidates, specifically pertaining to ratings of competence and suitability for the job in question. Thus, they examine how the gender of those evaluating job applicants, the gender of the applicants, as well as, their self-presentation styles influence-hiring decisions. Self-presentation style operates as a status cue for performance level. Thus, if gender is viewed as a diffuse status characteristic, "a man who is self-promoting about his abilities and a woman who is modest about hers constitute a consistent situation, as their self-presentation styles reinforce the expected status-order based on gender" (1023). Their findings suggest that there is not a gender bias that adversely affects female applicants because there were no significant differences between the selection of male and female applicants.

Unnever and Hembroff (1985)[6] use an expectation states approach to examine the decision-making process of criminal sentencing by judges. They suggest that diffuse status characteristics such as race or/and ethnicity and other case-related attributes influence a judge's sentencing decisions. Case-related attributes or performance characteristic sets are prescriptions relative to a generalized performance characteristic. Case related attributes are incorporated into the criminal history of the defendants. Unnever and Hembroff (1985) note, that when defendants' case-related attributes were inconsistent with their criminal charge, judges experience dispositional uncertainty or cognitive dissonance regarding the verdict. In other words, the incongruence between the case-related attributes and criminal charges created an ambiguous situation that inhibited judges' decision-making abilities. Forsyth and Burnette (2010) note, "When people find themselves in ambiguous situations, conventional sources of information do not provide enough information to erase their doubts and apprehensions" (502). Consequently, judges are more likely to take racial and/or ethnic diffuse status characteristics into consideration as a means to reconcile the dissonance.

Conversely, using an institutional approach to decision-making behavior, Yamagishi, Hashimoto, and Schug (2008) explain the cultural differences in choice and decision behaviors that are adaptive strategies that people perform in ambiguous social situations. They note that an institution "is a self-sustaining system of beliefs, behaviors, and incentives that are shared among individuals. In an institution, an individual's behaviors are guided by incentives, or the individual's beliefs about others' responses to his or her actions" (579). Thus, the choice and decision behaviors that people exhibit are culturally contingent strategies that are enacted by

[6] Foschi and Valenzuela (2008), and Unnever and Hembroff (1985), studies implicitly illustrates that individual's choice-decision behavior indicative of the "I" – "me" relation to the self as posited in Mead's symbolic interactionism.

one's own understanding of the situations. Yamagishi, Hashimoto, and Schug (2008) framework regarding the cultural contingency of choice and decision behaviors puts into question expectation states theory's assumption that all members of a collectively-oriented task group will share the same motivations concerning the group's goal and respectively (and implicitly) ascribed to, and enact a choice-decision behavior indicative of an activated status characteristic.

FROM GROUP FORMATION TO TEAM FORMATION

Similarly Hechter (1978) suggest that Social actor's choice and decision-making behaviors are not only culturally contingent but are also be shaped by cultural divisions of labor that complement the class and status hierarchies of a stratification system. Cultural divisions of labor consist of the occupational stratification of ethnoracial groups and contribute to educational and residential housing segmentation. For example, studies show that the U.S. has a dual labor market, where ethnoracial minorities are segmented into secondary employment and receive fewer earnings than their white counterparts for the same work (Browne and Misra 2003; Olive and Shapiro 1995). The stratification system is based on a group of people "having differential ownership of or access to resources" that are historically, culturally, politically, and socially contingent (Hechter 1978:297). Groups form as a consequence of shared common interests. These interests are subsequently divided into privileged and non-privileged groups. As Hechter (1978) eloquently notes:

> Therefore among a set of stratified individuals group formation can also occur reactively: a boundary emerges between sets of privileged and non-privileged individuals. Further, since interaction across this border heightens the perception of stratification, it is more apt to stimulate hostility than mutual accommodation (LeVine and Cambell 1972, p. 29). Among equally privileged individuals interaction promotes an inclusive corporate identification, whereas, among differentially privileged individual, it spurs conflict and leads to the formation of two or more antagonistic groups (297).

Thus, group formation among equally ranked members is a product of interaction rates that are consequently affected by the spatial factors (i.e. the socio-geographic organization) and the cultural diversity of the collective. Although, Hechter (1978) finds that spatial aspects of structural inequality influence the formation of groups. He does not attend to team formation. According to Ruef, Aldrich, and Carter (2003), group formation is not the same as team formation; nevertheless both are social constructions and share some of the same social psychological mechanisms. Therefore, it is likely that the selection patterns of team formation may import boundaries of privileged and disadvantaged common in a society through self-organizing practices that support social inclusion of the privileged and social exclusion of the disadvantaged. The next section overviews the literature on the social psychological aspects of team formation.

THE SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF TEAM FORMATION

The ubiquity of teams in the modern workplace cannot be denied, as Curseu, Kenis, and Raab (2009:30) note, "team formation is a challenge in modern organizations as most of them use teams to perform a variety of organizational tasks." How teams form is, therefore, a question of much practical interest. Although there are many studies on team formation, this review of the literature exclusively focuses on research examining the partner-selection process of self-organizing teams. Self-organizing teams are work groups that emerge because of spontaneous order or self-organization. They also have a relative degree of assembly autonomy, which "refers to the amount of liberty teams retain over the process of formation" (Wax 2015: 5-6). In other words, the formation of self-organizing teams involves a high degree of autonomy, uninhibited

by managerial authority, over such things as team member selection, team composition[7], and decision-making outcomes (Li and Zhou 2009; Heckman, Crowston, and Misiolek 2007; Manz & Sims 1987).

Hence, the formation of self-organizing teams can occur in organizational contexts, such as the workplace, and in unstructured virtual settings, such as in Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Games (MMORPGs). In the organizational context, for example, a faculty search committee would be considered a self-organizing team, as chairs only provide an organizational context or environment conducive for the committee's functionality. Committee assembly is typically ad hoc and voluntary. Similarly, in non-organizational or unstructured settings, such as Free/Libre Open Source Software (e.g. "R" or "R-Project for Statistical Computing") people across boundaries voluntarily form collaborative online teams for virtual projects. However, in these unstructured digital environments, the assembly of self-organizing teams are not guided or managed by an organizational agent.

In agreement with the literature, I consider the team member selection process "as a multi-criteria decision-making problem that involves assessing trade-offs between conflicting tangible and intangible criteria and stating preferences based on incomplete or non-available information" (Crispim and Pinho de Sousa 2008:684). As a multi-criteria decision-making process, team formation via partner selection highlights the social psychological factors relevant to interpersonal interaction, factors such as competence, stereotypes, homophily, prejudice, familiarity, and affect serve as either interpersonal criteria or data that enter into the process of assessing and selecting the best member(s) for a team while under various constraints and

[7] It must be noted that team composition differs from team formation, as it refers to the relative degree of heterogeneity or homogeneity within a fully formed team (Kozlowski and Bell 2003).

pressures. In other words, these factors are the social psychological mechanisms that frame the partner-selection process of team formation as a qualification assessment activity.

Thus, they are used to qualify (or disqualify) the selection of individuals as team members. Furthermore, the decision-making process for selecting team members is a structural phenomenon (Skvoretz and Bailey 2016). As an activity driven by social psychological mechanisms, team formation decisions are structural outcomes whereby stratification and inequality emerge as a condition of the exclusionary aspects of partner selection. As a result, it illustrates a structural phenomenon that differentiates privileged individuals from presumptively unqualified others during the decision-making process.

In this review, I aim to show how contributions from social psychology have informed research on team formation. Thus, two research questions guide this review: What are the mechanisms of team formation via partner selection for self-organizing teams? In what ways, can these studies advance scholarship focusing on the social psychology of inequality? To establish a foundation for understanding the various studies on team formation, I begin with a general overview on how team and team formation has been conceptualized. Next, I examine the social psychological research on team formation via partner selection. In doing so, I note the importance given to the four major mechanisms of team formation emerging from the literature: competence, homophily, familiarity, and affect. Lastly, I conclude the review with a discussion addressing the research questions guiding this review and suggest opportunities for social psychologists to consider for future team formation studies.

Conceptualizations of Team and Team Formation

Primarily, scholars conceptualize a team as “a collection of individuals who share responsibility for an outcome” (Bercovitz and Feldman 2011:82). Researchers have classified teams in a variety of ways depending on the specific context under study. For instance, Eftekhar, Ronaghi, Saberi (2015), examine student teams in an online learning environment and use the terms organic and algorithmic to describe the types of teams that can be formed in that environment. Organic teams are self-organizing and may change in size and membership throughout the duration of a class project; the instructor designs algorithmic teams are consistent in size and membership throughout the length of a class project. While the definitions of these types are context specific, they derive from two general ways that teams form, through a process of self-selection and self-organization or through a process of authoritative appointment.

Studies also classify self-organizing teams on the basis of contextually related outcomes, such as organizational teams, entrepreneurial teams, and project teams. An organizational team is a work group that typically represents an organization. Kozlowski and Bell (2003), note that this type of team features multiple members who are responsible for organizational tasks, display task interdependence, exhibit teamwork, and share common and mutually agreed upon objectives. Additionally, these members also "maintain and manage boundaries, and are embedded in an organizational context that sets boundaries, constrains the team, and influences exchanges with other units in the broader entity" (334). Entrepreneurial teams, on the other hand, are non-organizational individuals banding together to form a new venture. Project teams are temporary self-assembled, ad hoc work groups composed of different people each having a unique attribute necessary for project completion (Zhu, Huang, and Contractor 2013). However, after the completion of the project, the team becomes obsolete, and members disband. Moreover,

the literature notes that project teams are also: voluntary collaborative project teams, self-governing groups, and project groups.

Similar to the term team, scholars use different terms, such as team assembly, team configuration, team design, and team development as descriptors of team formation. Nevertheless, researchers primarily define team formation as a social process involving organizational and/or individual decision-making behaviors (Phillips, Weisbuch, and Ambady 2014; Pinto 2008). This process requires a collection of people to bond and work together to complete a task. Kozlowski and Bell (2003), imply that team formation is indicative of team development—a type of socialization process whereby potential members join the group, but the group does not gain legitimacy as a team until all members have accepted their assigned role on the team.

Pinto (2008) outlines two ways in which team formation occurs. First, teams can form by self-selection, which is typically the way organic and some project teams develop. Second, teams form when a decision maker selects individuals as team members within an organizational context. The ways in which teams form, whether by self-selection or by a decision maker, impacts team structure. Hackman (1987) asserts that there are three types of team structures – manager-lead work teams, self-managing work groups, and self-designing work groups. Manager-led work teams monitor and direct team membership and performance. In self-managing work groups, group members are solely accountable for monitoring and overseeing their own performance processes. Lastly, team members in self-designing work groups mutually design or structure the team. Thus, management of team formation is exclusively amongst group members. Hackman's third type of team structure is an example of the kind of team I are interested —self-organizing teams.

The Mechanisms of Team Formation

The literature on team formation identifies four primary mechanisms that are important to understanding the partner-selection process associated with the formation of self-organized teams. These mechanisms are competence, homophily, familiarity, and affect. Competence refers to the knowledge, skills, and abilities of potential teammates for the purpose of team formation via partner selection (Skvoretz and Bailey 2016). Homophily pertains to the formation of pairs based on seemingly common or similar attributes. Familiarity is the state of knowing a potential teammate's work ethic through a previous work-related relationship. Finally, affect refers to using one's affinity or aversion toward a potential teammate as criteria for selection (Casciaro and Lobo 2008). Hinds, Carley, Krackhardt, and Wholey (2000) note that these mechanisms reduce uncertainty and increase predictability of intra-team dynamics in future task-oriented settings. In this section, I outline the research examining these four mechanisms of team formation. I consider how scholars measure the mechanisms, as well as, how their research confirms or disconfirms each other's findings.

Competence

In the literature, competence as a mechanism for team formation is an individual attribute predicated on status expectations or reputational information. Competence based on status characteristics stems from expectation states theory. Expectation states theory focuses on the uneven distribution of power and prestige (i.e. deference or respect) in problem-solving groups working on collectively oriented tasks. The theory asserts that even in teams composed of people who are collectively oriented there will be structural inequality, or social inequality that reflects

the social order of a society. For example, collectively oriented members of an interracial team may favor whites over nonwhites when resolving a task (Goar, Sell, Manago, Melero, and Reidinger 2013; Thomas-Hunt and Phillips 2010; Goar and Sell 2005; Unnever and Hembroff 1988; Cohen 1982; Webster and Driskell 1978). Similarly, in mixed-sex teams, the interaction may favor men over women (Ridgeway 2011, Berger, and Fişek 2006; Ridgeway and Correll 2004; Lucas 2003; Brown and Josephs 1999; Ridgeway 1991; Foschi and Buchan 1990).

The favoring of one group over another is a function of attributional information which is composed of cultural assumptions and stereotypical beliefs associated with an ascribed or achieved status characteristic. Achieved status characteristics are specific status characteristics, which refer to a certain capability or technological skill relevant to a particular social situation and social role (Knottnerus and Greenstein 1981). Diffuse status characteristics, on the other hand, pertain to cultural and stereotypical beliefs shared by most members of a society about the level of competence (or lack thereof) regarding members belonging to certain status groups (Berger, Ridgeway, and Zelditch 2002). Both characteristics accompany various valuations and states with their own set of performance expectations and relative degrees of honor, prestige, and a popular consensus of social worth (Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch 1972).

An expectation states approach to team formation is conditionally specific. The specified conditions note that activated status characteristics are task oriented. In other words, when a status characteristic serves as a basis for partner selection, it is forcefully associated with the collective task outcome regardless of its applicability (or inapplicability) to the task. Although studies have not explicitly examined how specific status characteristics influence the partner-selection process of team formation, there are notable studies that examine diffuse status characteristics on team member selection processes.

In a classic study, Ruef, Aldrich, and Carter (2003) examine partner-selection processes of self-organizing entrepreneurial teams. The authors primarily attend to the multiple and simultaneous mechanisms of team composition to investigate the selection process of team membership. As it pertains to the mechanism of competence, they test gender as a diffuse status characteristic for attributional competence. Their rationale to examine the diffuse characteristic of gender as in indicator of competence supports numerous studies that show how performance expectations relating to gender favor males as being disproportionately more competent and intelligent than females (Berger and Fişek 2006; Brown and Josephs 1999).

Using a nationally representative sample of 816 nascent entrepreneurs from the Entrepreneurial Research Consortium's panel and structural event analysis, the authors hypothesize that individuals with high status characteristics (i.e. males) are more likely to be sought after compared to their low status (i.e. female) counterparts. Therefore, the most common teams will likely be those that only have male members. Interestingly, Ruef, Aldrich, and Carter (2003) find no support for the hypothesis. Male entrepreneurs are less likely to form teams with other males compared to their female counterparts.

Similarly, Skvoretz and Bailey (2016) also use diffuse status characteristics as an indicator of competence to understand the partner-selection process of self-organizing team formation. However, instead of focusing on multiple mechanisms, they develop a testable theoretical framework that exclusively focuses on the diffuse status effects of partner selection. Their framework presents two proposals addressing how status influences partner choice when the only information choosers have to judge potential team members/partners are (diffuse) status attributions of competence. The first proposal, the one-by-one selection model, refers to an individualized sequential selection process in which the first chosen team member is selected

from the entire pool of candidates or alternatives. Then the second team member is chosen from the remaining alternatives.

Regarding the other proposal, the package selection model, this model refers to a package non-sequential selection process in which the selection of team members consists of a single choice of individuals grouped together as a cohort among a set of alternative cohorts. In the absence of choice data, to explore the empirical implications of their model, they use hiring recommendation data with the plausible interpretation that subjects are choosing whom to recommend as if they were selecting someone to join their corporate team. Both models were successful in illustrating the impact of status differences on probabilities of choice behaviors in the absence of other factors (like homophily) which I discuss shortly.

Although research suggest diffuse status characteristics can operate as stereotypical attributions of competence, other scholars suggest reputational information works as a social cue of competence during the selection process (Hinds, Carley, Krackhardt, and Wholey 2000). Within an organizational context, reputational information refers to "hearsay competence," whereby seekers gather information about a potential teammate's task competence from other people. Consequently, reputations "form as people search for indicators as to others' abilities and signal their own competence by alerting others to organizational accomplishments" (230).

Using data from four different surveys and a sample size of 33 student project groups composed of three to seven members over a period of four years. The display students' overall grade point average and individual scores on course assignments and exams served as external attributes of reputational information. The authors hypothesize that "good performance in these courses becomes socially shared information as people signal their own value and search for indications of others' competence" was supported (233). Therefore, illustrating how reputational

information serves as an attribute of competence for the formation of self-designed and -organized project teams.

Homophily

Another dominant mechanism influencing the partner-selection process of self-organized teams is homophily. Unlike, competence, which is an individual assessment, homophily is a dyadic assessment. Thus, the focus is on the characteristics or attributes of a relationship, not on a person. Additionally, describes the statistically significant relationships that disproportionately develop between similar others, who share particular attributes or characteristics, relative to dissimilar individuals in the ordinary course of events (Skvoretz 2013; McPherson, Smith-Lovin, and Cook 2001; Blau 1977). As a dyadic concept, people are not homophilous, but their *choice associations* can be.

Moreover, homophily could be an outcome the similarity-attraction theory, which is a framework within social psychology positing, "that given the opportunity to select another member to interact within a group, individuals have a proclivity to select persons who are similar to themselves" Horwitz and Horwitz (2007: 990). A social psychological approach to homophily shows how the "similarity of individuals disposes them toward a greater level of interpersonal attraction, trust, and understanding" (Ruef, Aldrich, and Carter 2003:119). Additionally, this approach attends to the socially constructed perceptions of similarity in attitudes, abilities, beliefs, and aspirations driving nonrandom choice associations (McPherson, Smith-Lovin, and Cook 2001).

In the context of team formation, a number of studies, but not all, have documented homophily. Ruef, Aldrich, and Carter (2003) found that gender homophily influences the

partner-selection process of entrepreneurial team formation. As a result, the formation mix-gender entrepreneurial teams are less likely to occur relative to all-female and all-male entrepreneurial teams. Additionally, the homophily effect illustrated both ascribe and achieve attributes relative to gender, ethnicity, and occupation. Thus, entrepreneurial partnerships tend to be homogeneous with respect to race and ethnicity. The homogeneity of entrepreneurial partnerships may "reflect the influence of patterns of association in which people are embedded within families, friendship circles, workplaces, and residential areas" (217).

Furthermore, Hinds et al. (2000) add, "homophily increases the ease of communication and improves the predictability of behaviors and values" (229). Thus, they hypothesized that the teammate selection patterns of organizational agents would disproportionately favor the choosing of similar others as a means to confidently predict intra-team dynamics. Their findings illustrate racial homophily has a strong and lasting effect on how people choose future teammates. Additionally, they argue that these agents may sacrifice a degree of certainty regarding communication and performance for assurance in skill coverage. That is, people will choose others with complementary skills instead of same or identical skills. This hypothesis of a heterophilous effect along skill is unsupported.

Likewise, Eftekhar, Ronaghi, and Saberi (2015) find demographically based homophilous relationships pertaining to student team formation in online learning environments – Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs). Students' partner selections, and consequently their self-organizing teams, illustrate homophily relative to age, distance, education level, and time zone. While on one hand, these online teammate selections were homophilous in terms of demographic attributes, as they were also heterophilous in terms of each student's instrumental skill sets. This

finding suggests that homophily may partially account for the partner-selection process of team formation.

Finally, there is a recent study that finds no support in homophily as a mechanism of team formation via the partner-selection process (Johnson, Xu, Zhao, Ducheneaut, Yee, Tita, and Hui 2009). In their study, they Johnson and colleagues compare how self-organizing teams form in virtual (online) situations against the formation of teams in real world (offline or face-to-face) circumstances. In doing so, the authors' show how offline gangs and online guilds recruit team members. They develop and test a team formation model that posits (066117-7):

> "(i) teams tend to recruit members to cover a spectrum of attributes; (ii) agent joins a team by assessing his potential contribution to the team; (iii) agent joining a team only sees an average of the attributes of a team; (iv) team accepts new member by assessing his potential contribution; (v) agent leaves a team when there are many members with similar attributes; (vi) agent always looks for better teams where he could contribute more; (vii) team tends to expand by mergers when its membership becomes stable"

They juxtapose their eight-step team formation model against a "kinship model." The kinship model describes team formation as a consequence of homophily. Their findings illustrate that despite the distinct settings and behavioral activities of each group, there is an underlying mechanism common in both groups—teams recruit members and individuals seek out teams based on corresponding attributes. The authors note that "collective human behaviors…. might be driven by common endogenous features rather than setting-specific exogenous details" (066117-10). Furthermore, this standard endogenous feature they claim reflects birds of different feathers flocking together, rather than birds of the same feather (homophily–kinship).

Familiarity

In addition to homophily, familiarity is another prominent mechanism of team formation via partner selection. Overwhelmingly the literature notes that familiarity is a social network and social psychological feature of the team formation process. Additionally, preexisting social ties and past interpersonal experiences are common measures used to understand how familiarity influences the decision-making process of team member selection. Bercovitz and Feldman (2011) suggest, the components driving familiarity (i.e. experience and embeddedness) "provide means to meld a set of diverse individuals into a coherent and productive team" (91).

According to Hinds et al. (2000), familiarity is a structural variable indicative of how the structure of task necessitates the selection of additional members. Additionally, it refers to casual awareness of former acquaintances' personalities and work ethic. Moreover, this awareness stems from past co-work experiences with former associates. Thus, the quality of past organizational task-interactions with potential team members drives the decision-making process of self-organized team formation. To test this mechanism, Hinds et al. (2000) conduct a four-year study examining the role of familiarity on the team formation process of undergraduates (i.e. juniors and seniors) taking a two-year course. During the first year of the course, instructors randomly assigned students in their junior year to a group project. At the end of their junior year, the students were allowed to form future self-organizing teams by selecting up to five classmates to be their prospective teammates for the course's second-year group project assignment.

The authors note two measures of "structural familiarity" — the frequency of intragroup participation and interaction for three months of first task project. The students rating of their teammates and the overall score of the project served as a measure of team satisfaction. Hinds and colleagues (2000) hypothesized that if familiarity governs the partner-selection process for these students, then the soon to be seniors would only request their previous partners as future teammates if the intragroup interaction yielded positive results for the first-year project. Their findings partially support the hypothesis. The overall outcome of the group project does not influence the selection of familiar others as future teammates. Additionally, familiarity as a structural variable is not a factor in and of itself, driving the selection of former associates as future teammates. However, familiarity is both structural and relational. Thus, in addition to being former teammates, students also choose familiar others as future teammates because of the strong working relationships previously developed during the course of the first project.

Similarly, the research by Lungeanu, Huang, and Contractor (2014) also illustrates how the structural and relational (i.e. prior collaboration and citation relationships) properties of familiarity influence the collaborative process relative to the self-organization of interdisciplinary team formation, for NSF grant proposals. The authors find that researchers' network structure and prior relations, in terms of interdisciplinary co-authorships and citations, reveal that scientists "who co-authored or cited each other previously are more likely to collaborate on interdisciplinary grant proposals" (14).

Additionally, Ruef, Aldrich, and Carter (2003) note that network constraints are another measure of the familiarity mechanism of the partner-selection process of team formation. In this study, partner selection is contingent on the structural constraints of preexisting social ties such as ties with family, friends, and associates. These preexisting social ties of familiarity influence

the partner-selection process, as collegiality or previous professional relationship influenced how individual chose their team members. The authors' findings show that partner selections due to familiarity are likely to form teams that lack occupational diversity, which consequently blocks or constrains access to functional competencies of others. Ruef, Aldrich, and Carter suggest, "founders of organizations appear more concerned with trust and familiarity, at this early stage, than with functional competence, leading to a 'competency discount' in founder recruitment" (2003: 217). Consequently, they find homophily and network constraints (familiarity as measured by previous strong ties) are more important than competence.

Affect

Unlike familiarity, where team formation through self-organizing partner-selection is based on previous co-work experiences with former associates, "interpersonal affect" refers to team member selection based on an instant and often superficial, emotional reaction of favorability or dis-favorability toward others when direct social interaction is absent (Casciaro and Lobo 2008). An example of interpersonal affect, although not centered on team formation, is the instant emotional reaction mobile dating app users feel before selecting or rejection dating prospects on digital apps such as Tinder, Happn, and OkCupid.

Casciaro and Lobo (2008) argue negative "interpersonal affect" renders competence less applicable to the partner-selection process of self-organizing team formation. In other words, the ascription of competence is dependent on the type of affect held with respect to a potential partner. The authors conduct three studies across various organizational networks to demonstrate how interpersonal affect is an influential mechanism of the teammate selection for task-related interactions. The authors' examination of interpersonal affect on team formation focuses on self-

organizing work groups (i.e. teams) from three organizations – an entrepreneurial computer technology company, personnel at an academic institution, and an information technology corporation (Casciaro and Lobo 2008).

Across all three organizational networks, their findings show that interpersonal affect does influence how people choose partners, construct working relationships, and thus form teams for task interaction. Additionally, Casciaro and Lobo (2008), find positives and negative sentiments about people in the organization strongly influenced opportunities for task collaboration or team formation. Specifically, their data show a negative interpersonal affect or disliking organizational actors, renders task-related competence irrelevant despite the status of the actor in question. A positive interpersonal affect, on the other hand, exaggerates the potential partner's task-related competence and increases their probability of selection.

In brief, Lynn, Simpson, Walker, and Peterson (2016) experimentally illustrate how popularity creates positive affect towards potential teammates and selection of those teammates can be biased toward the more popular rather than the qualified candidates because of the positive affect generated by popularity. Informed by Status Characteristic Theory (SCT), the authors argue that nominations are a sociometric measure of choice status, that is, one's relative position or rank in terms of popularity. Nominations are sociometric cues that signal status, as operationalized by a summary index of how much attention garnered from local actors. For example, crowd-sourced reviews on local business, as demonstrated on mobile apps such as Yelp, TripAdvisor, and Angie's List, represent a type of sociometric cue for choice status.

With a sample size of 200, Lynn and colleagues (2016) find that high choice status level (i.e. popularity) produces a halo effect to the degree that high choice status candidate (e.g. the highly popular or in-demand candidate) who is less qualified (e.g. having a high school or

equivalent education level) is selected to be a team member more frequently than the low choice status candidate (e.g. the less popular or least demanded candidate) who is more qualified (e.g. having a graduate degree). In terms of affective perception, the highly popular candidate with less education is affectively perceived as more amicable than low choice status but highly educated candidate. In other words, their findings suggest that the more highly educated, but moderately popular candidate "was actually perceived as being harder to get along with compared to the [highly popular] candidate with no post-secondary degree" (252).

CONCLUSION

To conclude, teams are like microcosmic societies. They represent a process of social cohesion through interaction. Additionally, they can be organic, mechanical, homogeneous, and heterogeneous. In other words, teams are structural and cultural artifacts of societies. Members of society through interaction create these "social artifacts," which may consist of hierarchically organizing sets of individuals into a group, or multiple groups, relative to power and status dimensions. In this review, I addressed the importance of investigating team formation for social psychological researchers, particularly for researchers who study the emergence of structural inequality in social interaction. Two major questions guided this review: (1) what are the mechanisms of team formation via partner selection for self-organized teams? (2) In what ways, can these studies advance scholarship focusing on the social psychology of inequality?

For the first question, this review illustrates four primary mechanisms of team formation via partner recruitment: competence, homophily, familiarity, and affect. The perception of competence is a mechanism of team formation that is people use to recruit teammates for a group task. Studies show that people use diffuse status characteristics and reputational information as

social cues to indicate competence (Skvoretz and Bailey 2016; Hinds et al 2000). Homophily is another mechanism of team formation. Scholars note that homophilous ties in self-organized work groups show that the perception of similarity due to a shared social identity influences the selection of team members (Ruef, Aldrich, and Carter 2003).

The third mechanism of team formation is familiarity. Research suggests that individuals are more likely to form a team with people whom they already know, than with strangers (Bercovitz and Feldman 2011; Hinds et al 2000). Lastly, affect is the fourth mechanism of team formation. Studies on affect illustrates that supportive and unsupportive sentiments about potential teammates strongly influence team member selection patterns (Lynn et al 2016; Casciaro and Lobo 2008). In sum, all four mechanisms attend to both the individual attributes (e.g. status characteristics) and the relational aspects (e.g. choice associations) relevant to actors' decision-making behaviors. However, it is the theoretical framework proposed by Skvoretz and Bailey (2016) that will be tested in this study.

3. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

This chapter outlines the quantitative theoretical framework guiding the study's research questions and analysis. The primary question focusing this review concentrates on how status characteristics, as noted by expectation states theory, influence people's choice association rates and decision-making behaviors. This review is thematically organized. It starts with a brief introduction addressing the sociological approach to choice and decision-making behavior. The next section addresses the literature focusing on the effects of stereotypes and expectations on decision-making groups and individuals in task settings. The third section reviews the group formation process as a consequence of people's choice and decision-making behaviors.

MATHEMATICAL FORMULATIONS OF EXPECTATION STATES THEORY

Expectations states theory is a theoretical program whose roots developed within the group processes (GP) sub-field of social-psychology (Rohall, Milkie and Lucas 2013). The GP orientation focuses on how social processes operate within group situations (Rohall, Milkie, Lucas 2013). In this orientation, a group consists of a collection of two or more persons. Social psychologists of the GP perspective examine the regular social patterns that take place within relationships (Siegel, Dubrovsky, Kiesler, and McGuire 1986). They investigate how these patterns create and distribute attributions, as well as, form a stable structure (Webster and Whitmeyer 2001; Berger 1992). Research in this area typically focuses on status, power, and justice processes pertaining to how group members evaluate their contributions towards task-oriented objectives (Meeker 1994).

Expectation states theory posits that there is an underlying structure of expectations that guides people in social interaction (Berger, Fisek, and Freese 1976). The underlying structure is a key component of social interaction that influences social actors' performances and evaluation of self and others (Fararo 1972). The scope of the theory focuses on a group context where the social actors are collectively and task oriented on problem (Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch 1972). Task orientation is a type of motivation that based on a social actor's desire to bring about resolution to a problem or concern (Correll and Ridgeway 2006). A group's members are collectively oriented if they are focused on the group doing as well as possible on the task (rather than on them individually performing well) and they believe it is legitimate to take into account one another's opinions and ideas for completing a group task (Correll and Ridgeway 2006; Berger, Cohen, and Zelditch 1972). A group composed of task and collectively oriented members is called a task-oriented group. Task-oriented groups are assigned valued tasks, which pertain to solving problems or concerns where the correct solution fosters a sense of victory and accompanies a reward, and an incorrect solution fosters a sense of defeat and loss (Ridgeway 1978).

According to Berger, Wagner and Zelditch (1985), expectation states theory is not a theory, but rather a program or an approach composed of interrelated theories: performance expectations theory, status characteristics and expectation states or status characteristic theory, second order performance expectation states and a host of others. Particularly relevant in the current context is status characteristic theory.

Status characteristics theory (SCT) of the expectation states program extends the classical expectations states theory from focusing solely on homogenous groups to including heterogeneous groups (Berger, Wagner, and Zelditch 1985). As a result, SCT addresses how the

emergence of a power-prestige order occurs in a heterogeneous group of actors holding various standings on diffuse status characteristics. Moreover, Correll and Ridgeway (2003: 34) note that: "status characteristics theory is ultimately a theory of behavior, not thought. The emphasis on behavior, not thought, allows the theory to explain how status generalization [organizing] processes can occur pervasively in a society and not just among individuals with strong conscious prejudices."

Table 1. The Five Key Assumptions of Status Characteristics Theory

Assumption Name	Description
Salience	A status characteristic becomes salient to group members if it differentiates them into dissimilar categories or if it is believed that the characteristic is relevant to the task assigned to the group (Berger and Fişek 2006).
Burden of Proof	Salient status characteristics that differentiate group members will be regarded as relevant to the task in the absence of any information to the contrary (Correll and Ridgeway 2003). The term "burden of proof" refers to the idea that to have group members ignore differentiating status information entails convincing then via "proofs" that a salient status characteristic should be excluded in the development of performance expectations (Berger, Rosenholtz, and Zelditch 1980).
Sequencing	The entry of new actors into a group situation does not disturb the structure of expectations built up by the existing group members, rather the overall structure develops sequentially according salience and burden of proof to include the new members. For an existing group member "his or her previously completed structures remain as long as the actor is in the given task situation" (Berger, Fişek, and Norman 1989: 105)
Aggregation	Group members combine all relevant information into a single aggregated expectation state for performance by separately aggregating information that leads to positive expectations for task performance and information that leads to negative expectations for task performance.
Behavior	Behavior displays of task related behavior, such as, performance outputs, evaluation of performance outputs, and acceptance of influence, are direct functions of a group members aggregated expectation advantage or disadvantage (Berger Fişek, Norman, and Zelditch 1977).

Table 1 lists the five key assumptions underlying SCT (Correll Ridgeway and 2003; Berger, Rosenholtz and Zelditch 1980). Figure 1 presents the basic graph model that represents the process described by the five assumptions.

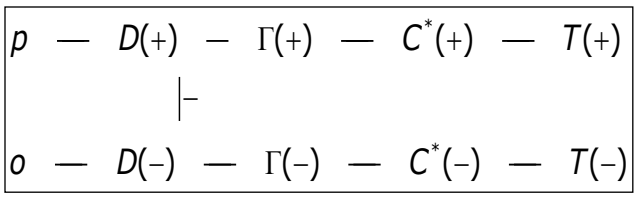


Figure 1 Graph-Theoretic Formulation of Status Generalization

Figure 1 depicts a situation in which p and o are members of a two-person group and p and o are differentiated on a diffuse status characteristic D. If D were race then in contemporary American society the high or positive state of the D, namely D (+), would be "white" and the low or negatively signed state of D, namely D (-), would be "nonwhite." As depicted therefore p is white and o is nonwhite. Each state of a diffuse status characteristic is associated with a state of a generalized expectation state, the content which is that someone who displays the positively signed value of D expected to be generally competent at most tasks while someone who displays the negatively signed value of D is not expected to be generally competent at most tasks. These generalized expectation states are denoted by Γ (+) and Γ (-). The burden of proof process then creates a link between a generalized expectation state and the similarly signed state of the task ability presumed to be instrumental to positive task outcomes. These last two entities are denoted C* and T, and they have both positively signed and negatively signed states indicating high and low task instrumental ability and better and worse task outcomes.

The theory asserts that actors in the group, such as p and o will accept their status positions and the associated status beliefs about general competence whether they agree with them or not in some abstract context. If the diffuse status characteristic is not previously dissociated from the requirements to execute the group-oriented task, the group members will inevitably infer and act as though the inequitable generalized states are relevant to the performance expectation states of the specific ability characteristic pertinent to the group task

C*, and "these in turn will be seen to imply success or failure outcomes at the group task, T(±)" (Berger, Fişek, Norman, and Zelditch 1977:109).

Additionally, Figure 1 represents the status generalization process of SCT, which sequentially begins with salient status characteristics that are activated and then goes through the "paths of relevance" which in turn initiates the burden of proof process for the collectively oriented-task in question (Berger, Fişek, Norman, and Zelditch 1977). Paths of relevance are strong mental linkages that explain how one's salient status characteristic is connected to performance expectation states and the evaluation of performance output (Meeker 1994; Berger, Rosenholtz, and Zelditch 1980). Correll and Ridgeway (2003: 35) explain that the power of status generalization depends on the lengths and signs of paths of relevance "shorter paths have a greater impact on the magnitude of the expectation … as paths become longer it becomes harder for an actor to reason from the path to the task outcome." Thus, in Figure 1, p has one path of length 4 to the positive task outcome and that path is itself positive (there being no negative sign on any of the links). Also p has one path of length 5 to the negative task outcome but that path is negative (there is one link that is negative) so the overall contribution of the path is positive – p does not have the state D that would link him or her to negative task outcomes. Conversely, o has a positive path of length four to the negative task outcomes, for an overall negative effect on expectations for o and o also has a negative path of length five to the positive task outcomes for another overall negative effect on expectations

The aggregation assumption first combines the positive paths to compute the aggregate expectation for the positive subset and the negative paths to compute the aggregate expectation for the negative subset. The following formulas apply where $f(i)$ is the weight of a path of length *i*:

$$e_p^+ = \left\{1-\left(1-f\left(i_+\right)\right)\ldots\left(1-f\left(n_+\right)\right)\right\}$$
$$e_p^- = \left\{1-\left(1-f\left(i_-\right)\right)\ldots\left(1-f\left(n_-\right)\right)\right\} \quad (1)$$

The final aggregate expectation state for *p* is the difference between positive and negative expectations, namely,

$$e_p = e_p^+ - e_p^- = \left\{1-\left(1-f\left(i_+\right)\right)\ldots\left(1-f\left(n_+\right)\right)\right\} - \left\{1-\left(1-f\left(i_-\right)\right)\ldots\left(1-f\left(n_-\right)\right)\right\} \quad (2)$$

Similarly, the aggregate expectation state for *o* is given by:

$$e_o = e_o^+ - e_o^- = \left\{1-\left(1-f\left(i_+\right)\right)\ldots\left(1-f\left(n_+\right)\right)\right\} - \left\{1-\left(1-f\left(i_-\right)\right)\ldots\left(1-f\left(n_-\right)\right)\right\} \quad (3)$$

and the difference between *p*'s aggregate state and o's aggregate state, $e_p - e_o$ is actor p's expectation advantage.

The path weights are a matter for empirical determination subject to the intuitive constraint that longer paths have less weight in the formation of an aggregate expectation state because the cognitive processing load is greater for longer paths. Berger, Fişek, Norman, and Zelditch (1977) provide empirically based estimates for the weights and Fişek, Norman, and Nelson-Kilger (1992) provide a functional form for them with fits well existing data. That form is given by the equation:

$$f\left(i\right) = 1 - e^{-\left(2.618^{2-i}\right)} \quad (4)$$

which implies the following values for the weights:

$$f\left(3\right) = 0.3175 \quad f\left(4\right) = 0.1358 \quad f\left(5\right) = 0.0542 \quad f\left(6\right) = 0.0211 \quad (5)$$

This specification implies that that for the status situation depicted in Figure 1:

$$\begin{aligned} e_p &= 0.1826 \\ e_o &= -0.1826 \\ e_p - e_o &= 0.3652 \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

The final assumption states that aggregate expectations will influence task behavior such that actors with expectation advantage will rank higher in the groups' power and prestige order than actors with expectation disadvantage. The relative advantage of the aggregate performance expectation of *p* over *o*, the more likely *p* "will be to receive opportunities to act, the more likely she will be to accept the opportunity to act, the more positive will be the evaluation of her action, and the more likely she will be to reject influence when the two actors disagree" (Correll and Ridgeway 2003: 34).

Many empirical studies have confirmed these expectations with most of them focused on the influence predictions as tested in the standard experimental situation. In this situation, influence is measured as the probability that an actor will reject influence efforts from a task partner or the probability of a "stay-response" (Berger, Fişek, Norman, and Zelditch 1977), that is, the probability the actor stays with their first response when given a chance to change it and feedback that a partner has made a different response. The basic prediction equation for the key dependent variable denoted $P(S)$ is the following:

$$P(S) = m + q(e_p - e_o) \tag{7}$$

The constant in the equation, *m* (the intercept), "refers to a baseline propensity to reject influence attempts, *q* (the slope) refers to a parameter that captures idiosyncrasies of the manipulation and other systematic effects" (Melamed 2013: 222). In other words, *m* represents an overall measure regarding the general population's overall tendency to reject influential behaviors. As an overall population measure, *m* is an "all inclusive" feature of the equation that incorporates the propensity differences of sub-populations; *q*, on the other hand, measures the importance of specific sub-population differences to changes a population's propensity to reject influence attempts. The equation asserts that the greater *p*'s expectation advantage is over o, the greater is

the probability than p rejects influence attempts by *o*. The standard experimental situation involves manipulating the expectations of *p*, the subject, relative to *o*, a putative partner, and measuring the relative frequency with which *p* does not change her judgment to *o*'s for her final answer when on a series of rounds their initial judgments disagree.

Balkwell (1991) illustrates a connection between aggregate expectation states and behavior. Balkwell contends that it is frequencies of behavior that are the basic dependent variables for expectation states researchers and he uses $Y(t)$ to denote an actor's frequency of some specified behavior in a time interval of length t. In the context of the standard expectation states experiment, influence is the outcome of interest and $Y(t)$ refers to the number of stay-responses made by the subject, where a stay-response is defined as one's final response being the same as one's initial response despite learning that one's partner has selected a different response initial response. Thus a stay-response indicates a rejection of influence and a change-response, in which one changes one's initial response to agree with the initial response of the partner as one's final response, indicates an acceptance of influence.

Balkwell then uses $B(t)$ denote the expected value of $Y(t)$ and the value of $B(t)$ may depend not only on time but also on the actor's expectations for self and other (i.e. their aggregate expectation state). Hence, a general assumption is made—the rate of change in behavioral output is a function of the change in the aggregate expectation state of actor *i*, which is proportional to the current level of behavioral output for all actors *i*. Put in terms of an equation:

$$\frac{\partial B(t)}{\partial e_i} = q_i B(t) \quad i = 1,2,\ldots,k \tag{8}$$

where e_i is the focal actor's aggregated expectation state for the i[th] group member and q_i is a constant of proportionality associated with the i[th] group member. Balkwell (1991: 358) notes "each q_i is thus an index of the impact of its associated expectation state value upon the focal actor's production … of the behavior in question. Depending upon the specifics of the substantive application, that impact could be large or small, positive or negative." For example, if the focal behavior is staying with one's first response even knowing it disagrees with a partner's response, intuition tells us the focal actor's expectation for self will impact positively the production of this behavior.

In this domain of application, the focal actor's expectation for self would not be relevant unless the choice to put someone on a team is between the focal actor himself or herself and another individual and in that case the focal actor's expectation for self will impact positively self-selection (holding constant the focal actor's expectation for the other individual). However, in the more typical cases, where the choice of the focal actor is between two other individuals, say o_1 and o_2, there is an intuitive expectation that the focal actor's expectation for o_1 to impact positively the choice of o_1 as a team member (holding constant the focal actor's expectations for the other candidates) and similarly for the choice of o_2.

The initial conditions are defined by the equation:

$$B(t) = \mu t \quad if\ e_i = 0 \text{ for all i} \tag{9}$$

which stipulates that when aggregated expectation states for all group members equal 0, the amount of output simply depends on the length of the interval and a "baseline" rate of behavior production, denoted by μ.[8] With this specification of initial condition and the rate of change

[8] An aggregated expectation state is zero if for every positive path of length ℓ there is a negative path of length ℓ. This pattern would occur, for example, for two persons with different profiles on two diffuse status characteristics such that the first person was $D_1(+)$ and $D_2(-)$ while the second was $D_1(-)$ and $D_2(+)$. Note that if the two are diffuse

equation, Balkwell arrives at the unique solution to how behavioral output is related to aggregate expectation states:

$$B(t) = \mu t \exp\left[\sum_{i=1}^{k} q_i e_i\right] \tag{10}$$

To apply this equation, Balkwell's translation function, to the problem of team member/partner choice, Skvoretz and Bailey (2016) note three points. First, in the standard experimental setting, there are multiple occasions in which an initial opinion of the focal actor differs from that of his/her partner and thus multiple occasions in which he/she can choose to stay or change. The actual slides differ on each occasion, of course, but the occasions are equivalent with respect to the fact that there is disagreement with someone who has a constant expectation state advantage or disadvantage relative to the subject. The parallel in this application to team member/partner choice is multiple occasions for choice which vary in the specific individuals presented to a subject but which are equivalent with respect to the status profiles instantiated by the specific individuals.

For example, subjects may be asked to make a series of decisions in which each pair consists of representatives of the "white female" and the "white male" categories. The second point is that there may be idiosyncratic factors that influence the selection of a particular potential team member/partner (as a representative of a specific status profile) regardless of how his or her status profile compares with alternatives. These factors can effectively be taken into account in the baseline rate parameter of Balkwell's (1991) translation function model. For illustrations, however, an underlying assumption of Skvoretz's and Bailey's (2016) partner-

status equals on both dimensions, neither dimension is activated generating no paths to task outcomes. In that case, the aggregated expectation state of either actor is undefined although it is reasonable to stipulate that its value is also zero.

choice theorem, is that these idiosyncratic factors are equal across alternatives.[9] Third, because the focal behavior of interest is an actor's choice of a team member or partner (or two) from a pool of alternatives, the operative expectation states that impact selection are the states of the other actors and not any aggregate expectation state that may be assigned to the focal actor.[10]

In the next section of this chapter, I review Skvoretz's and Bailey's (2016) partner-choice theorem of status characteristics theory. An overview of the theorem is simple to state. When faced with a pool of candidates from which to select teammates to interact with in a future collectively oriented and task focused situation, individuals will be motivated to select as team members or partners those they believe will be most likely to contribute to successful task outcomes and so contribute to the team's collective success. This assumption is predicated on the collective orientation presumed to apply to the chooser's framing of the choice. That is, the chooser is focused on team success rather than personal success and understands that team success depends on a willingness to consider and evaluate the contributions of others. So the essential problem for the chooser when faced with a pool of candidates is to use all available information to decide who is more likely to contribute to successful task outcomes and who is less likely to do so. Candidates may be alike on a number of different dimensions and differ on others.

For instance, they could be all the same age and the same educational level, but of different gender and of different ethno-racial groups. There may be information on the specific

[9] Under this specification for the purposes of illustration, when all alternatives have aggregated expectation states valued at 0, each alternative is equally likely to be selected and the exact probability is a simple function of the number of alternatives.

[10] One could imagine a scenario in which the focal actor is asked to choose between putting himself or herself on a team versus selecting another candidate for the position. As noted above, in that case, the aggregate expectation state held by the focal actor for self would be relevant and the theory developed in this paper would apply if the scope condition of collective orientation framing the choice could be satisfied.

abilities of candidates and that information may or may not differentiate candidates. The theory holds that under such circumstances, when candidates differ on diffuse status characteristics, such differences will be used to form performance expectations and that choice of who to put on a team or who to select for one's own team will be driven (probabilistically) by these performance expectations. It is intended that theory applies both to cases where a third party makes the selection of team members and to cases where a person is selecting potential members for their own team.

In either case, it is important that the selection is motivated by a focus on the team doing as well as possible on the task rather than on the chooser doing well individually and irrespectively of team success, in other words, that the main thing the chooser cares about is the team's collective success (either because he or she is member of the team or because he or she will be held accountable for the group's achievements). Under this scope condition, just as in the standard application of expectation states theory to behavior in collectively oriented task groups, the theory proposes that a status generalization process occurs but now with respect to the choice of team members. That is, if a diffuse status characteristic differentiates potential team members, it will be activated, generalized expectations for performance will be invoked and applied to judgments about relative specific ability for the task and therefore who is more likely to contribute positively to task outcomes. These expectations in turn will influence the probability that particular others are selected from a pool of alternatives.

The choice model proposed in Skvoretz and Bailey (2016) expresses the probability of choosing one person, denoted $P(B_{O_i})$, to be on a team out of *n* alternatives, $\Omega = \{o_1, o_2, ..., o_n\}$, by the following equation:

$$P\left(B_{o_i}\right)=\frac{m_{in}\exp\left[q\left(e_i-e_n\right)\right]}{\sum_{k=1}^{n}m_{kn}\exp\left[q\left(e_k-e_n\right)\right]}$$

In this equation e_k is the value of the aggregate expectation state of alternative o_k, q is the effect of a difference in aggregate expectation states on selection and m_{kn} is intended to capture any consistent preference for alternative o_k over alternative o_n independent of the status differences between them. Absent any such preference or under the assumption that all such differences offset each other, $m_{kn}=1$ for all o_k and so a simplified version of the basic equation follows:

$$P\left(B_{o_i}\right)=\frac{\exp\left[q\left(e_i-e_n\right)\right]}{\sum_{k=1}^{n}\exp\left[q\left(e_k-e_n\right)\right]}$$

This completes the first phase of theorem– the formation of a general expression for the probability that a particular alternative is selected from a set of alternatives based on that alternative's aggregated expectation state as compared to the aggregated expectation states of all other possibilities (as perceived by the chooser) and taking into account any idiosyncratic features that make one alternative more or less attractive compared to any (and all) other alternatives. When the task is the choice of *k* out of *n* alternatives, Skvoretz and Bailey (2016) introduce a second component of the theorem, which offers two alternative models, a sequential choice model and a package choice model. In other words, this second component considers the question of how the selection of a subset of alternatives from a larger subset depends on aggregated expectation states.

The sequential and package models can be similarly simplified as illustrated in the first component. Under the assumption of no consistent preferences independent of status differences, *the sequential choice model* is expressed by the equation:

$$P\left(B_{\omega_i}\right)=\sum_{Perm\{i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_k\}}\left[\begin{array}{l}\dfrac{\exp\left[q\left(e_{i_1}-e_{n(\Omega)}\right)\right]}{\sum_{x\in\Omega}^{n(\Omega)}\exp\left[q\left(e_x-e_{n(\Omega)}\right)\right]}\times\dfrac{\exp\left[q\left(e_{i_2}-e_{n(\Omega-i_1)}\right)\right]}{\sum_{x\in\Omega-i_1}^{n(\Omega-i_1)}\exp\left[q\left(e_x-e_{n(\Omega-i_1)}\right)\right]}\times\ldots \\ \times\dfrac{\exp\left[q\left(e_{i_k}-e_{n\left(\Omega-\{i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_{k-1}\}\right)}\right)\right]}{\sum_{x\in\Omega-\{i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_{k-1}\}}^{n\left(\Omega-\{i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_{k-1}\}\right)}\exp\left[q\left(e_x-e_{n\left(\Omega-\{i_1,i_2,\ldots,i_{k-1}\}\right)}\right)\right]}\end{array}\right]$$

In this equation. Ω is the set of all n alternatives and $\{i_1, i_2, \ldots, i_k\}$ denotes a particular selection set of size *k*. Hence, this model conceptualizes the selection process as sequential: the first team member is chosen from the full set of alternatives, the second team member is then chosen from the *n*-1 remaining alternatives and so on until all *k* team members have been chosen. In other words, teammates are sequentially selected, that is, one-by-one.

For example, in a simple choice situation in which a subject is asked to choose two persons from a set of three alternatives for a team working collaboratively on a collectively oriented task. Suppose further that three alternatives are differentiated by standing on two diffuse status characteristics, say, race and gender, so that the alternatives are a white male (WM), a white female (WF) and a non-white (black) male (BM). Assume the alternatives are equated on all other diffuse status characteristics that may be perceived as relevant to the selection process and are equally qualified on other dimensions relevant to the task.

There may also be idiosyncratic features that make one alternative more or less attractive as compared to any (and all) other alternatives. The question, now, is to express the probabilities that various pairs are selected to be teammates or partners. There are three probabilities at issue, one for each of the pairs {WM,WF}, {WM,BM}, and {WF,BM}. In the choose two out of three example, a selection of the pair {WM,BM} can occur if the first choice is WM out of the alternatives {WM,WF,BM} and the second choice is BM out of the alternatives {WF,BM} or if

the first choice is BM out of the alternatives {WM,WF,BM} and the second choice is WM out of the alternatives {WM,WF}. Note that in the second branch the choice of the second teammate is between individuals differentiated only by gender. However, the theory assumes that the operative aggregated expectation states that determine this choice include the paths created by the activation of race since race is a differentiating diffuse status characteristic in the initial three-person group.

On the other hand, the second model, the *package selection model* is expressed by the equation:

$$P\left(B_{\omega_i}\right) = \frac{\exp\left[q\left(e_i - e_{\binom{n}{k}}\right)\right]}{\sum_{x=1}^{\binom{n}{k}} \exp\left[q\left(e_x - e_{\binom{n}{k}}\right)\right]}$$

In this equation, each package of size *k* must be analyzed for its aggregate expectation state value as a package, rather than the previous model's assumption that this value is a function of the aggregate expectation states of the individuals composing the package. Hence, the package model conceptualizes the selection process as a non-sequential single choice among the different possible groups ("packages") that could be chosen, each group having an aggregated expectation state based on the paths through activated diffuse status characteristics associated with its members. The probability that one group is chosen over another then depends on the relative size of each group's aggregated expectation state.

For example, there are three two-person groups that could be selected from the set of three alternatives: {WM,WF], {WM,BM}, and {WF,BM}. Each of these groups is associated with an aggregated expectation state that is computed in exactly the same way as aggregated

expectation states are for individuals – by a count of the number of positive paths of various lengths to task outcomes, weighted by length of path, and a count of the number of negative paths of various lengths to task outcomes, weighted by length of path. Note that while internally a particular group may not be differentiated by one of the diffuse status characteristics, for example, {WM,BM} is not differentiated by gender, paths from that group to task outcomes through the equated status dimension are still relevant to the calculation if that dimension differentiates the full set of alternative partners and so would be activated according to one of the main postulates of expectation states theory.

4. DATA COLLECTION AND CASE SELECTION

Although experimental methodology is the conventional research method for studies in expectation states theory (Jackson and Cox 2013), this study utilizes a causal-comparative (ex post facto) research design to evaluate predictions posited by the partner choice theorem. The causal-comparative (ex post facto) research design is useful for measuring the possibility of a cause and effect relationship between variables that already exist (Campbell and Stanley 1963). Specifically, for this project race and gender are the independent or attribute variables, which cannot be manipulated. Moreover, the causal-comparative (ex post facto) research design is useful for this project as it focuses on group comparison between two or more groups. I embed the causal-comparative (ex post facto) research method into a survey instrument, the core phase of which asks subjects to select partners for a future teamwork-based task (See Appendix B to review the survey). The survey instrument is developed using Qualtrics software. After Institutional Review Board (IRB) approval (see Appendix A), I administer the final instrument through the Qualtrics organization who recruits respondents from the specific subpopulations needed for the research, namely, white males (WM) and females (WF), and nonwhite males (BM) and females (BF)[11].

[11] Before the final survey was administered, I conducted a pilot survey which contained avatars appearing to be non-black people of color, black, and white. For this pilot survey, I sampled of approximately 450 participants from different racial and ethnic backgrounds.

PROCEDURE

The selections of individuals in demographic groups formed by the cross-classification of race and gender constitutes the outcomes of interests. Selection behavior hypotheses relate to differences and similarities in the behavior of individuals in these groups with respect to partner choice. Consequently, membership in the relevant demographic groups WM, WF, BM, and BF functions as an independent variable. The demographic portion of the survey instrument gathers this membership information. Other independent variables include the type of choice situation, the status characteristic mix of the pool of potential partners, and the size of the pool.

There are two types of choice situations: single-partner choice situation and two-partner choice situation. The single-partner choice situation is a choice situation in which the participant (i.e. subject or the focal actor) must select one potential teammate from a set of alternatives. The two-partner choice situation is a choice situation in which the focal actor must choose two partners out of a set of three alternatives. There are two versions of the one-partner choice situation, selection from a set of two alternatives and selection from a set of three alternatives. These two versions are the minimum number needed to assess the generality of the partner choice theorem.

The main *dependent variables* are observed rates of choice when presented with sets of two or three alternatives and asked to select one or two partners. Other outcome variables of interest include responses to questionnaire items that seek to probe the reasons and justifications for respondent choices, specifically, the extent to which there is "unintentional" or structurally

latent racism and/or sexism in the rationale for choice decisions relative to diffuse status characteristics.

There were four phases to the survey. In the *first phase*, participants were asked to read and sign an informed consent form. The subjects were informed about the experiment and consent was requested. In the *second phase*, participants answered a questionnaire asking for their demographic information. Included in this demographic survey, participants were required select one out of forty avatars that best represents her or him. Pictures of avatars ranging over various gender and racial backgrounds were presented for selection[12].

All participants had the opportunity to select one avatar from a pool of eight virtual avatars sharing the exact standing on the diffuse status characteristics of race and gender as the participant/subject. Studies show that many people tend to be influenced by their gender and racial background in creating (or selecting) an avatar to represent themselves in the digital world (Martey and Consalvo 2011; Grasmuck, Martin, and Zhao 2009; Groom, Bailenson, and Nass 2009). In the final analysis, the sample demographics consisted of self-identified white female, black female, white male, and black male participants. The restriction to white and black racial categories with male and female gender simplifies testing of the theory. Left for future is research is a protocol using more diverse set of categories of ethnicity, sexuality or gender with which subjects could identify.

In the *third phase* of the study, participants took the "Contrast Sensitivity" task. The point of this phase was to give the subjects an experiential basis for the idea that, in a later session, they would be working together as a team on a similar task. In this task, respondents viewed slides divided into two areas and were asked to identify which area has more white than black

[12] All images of avatars presented in this chapter and in the survey (see Appendix F) were purchased as 'royalty free' stock photos and licensed for reproduction via 123RF.com.

space. Before an image appears on the screen, subjects were informed that they have five (5) seconds to view and determine which area has more white space. A total of 20 slides were presented. By design, there was no right or wrong answer to this task. However, to ensure the priming for competence, participants were told that the more correct answers they get the more opportunities of being selected in a $100.00 Amazon gift card raffle. The purpose of the contrast sensitivity task was to prime the subject to seriously think about the need for competent team members during the fourth phase of the study.

In the *fourth phase* of the study, subjects were told that researchers anticipate future studies on how well teams do on the contrast sensitivity task. They were told that in this future research, it is the team score that would count and bring rewards to all team members. They were then be told that they can select teammates for this future task. Subjects were asked to make a selection several times because "it can be difficult to match everyone's choices and some groups may consist of two persons and some of three persons." They were then presented with a series of choice situations in which they are asked to pick one partner from two alternatives, one partner from three alternatives, or two partners from three alternatives. Subjects were told that potential partners are represented by the avatars of other participants who have agreed to participate in the future team-oriented contrast sensitivity task. At the end of this phase, participates were asked if they would like to be participate in the future study, and thus, include their self-represented avatar in the pool of potential teammate candidates.

SAMPLE

Similar to the online sampling technique in the study by Barratt, Ferris, and Lenton (2015), I used purposive sampling to gather the sample, specifically white males, white females, black

males, and black females born in the United States. The purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling technique that is useful in studying historical and culturally segmented populations (Guarte and Barrios 2006; Tongco 2007; Barratt, Farris, and Lenton 2015). It is an effective sampling technique for qualitative, quantitative, and mixed-methods studies. Additionally, it allows the researcher to gather "the most information on the characteristic of interest" (Guarte and Barrios 2006:278). However, there are limitations relative to conventional research that gives primacy to randomization and external validity. Nevertheless, Etikan, Musa, Alkassim (2015), argue that rather than privileging randomization, nonprobability sampling finds value in subjective methods are used to parsimoniously test and identify data associated with the unit of analysis. Although there are critiques regarding that question the external validity of the technique, scholars note that its methodological bias "contributes to its efficiency, and the method stays robust even when tested against random probability sampling" (Tongco 2007:147).

DATA COLLECTION OUTCOMES

Data collection for the study is undertaken by Qualtrics's Panel service. This is a for-profit service with the goal of recruiting respondents for online surveys. The application of research funds totaling $3,700 from the University of South Florida pays the fee for Qualtrics Panel data collection service. This service recruits individuals who have express an interest in completing the study. Qualtrics contacts these via email from their panel roster. The email invitation is simple and generic. It contains a brief description of the survey, which informs participants its duration and participant qualifications. The eligibility requirements include an age limitation (18 years of age or older), self-identify as a white male, white female, black male or a black female, and U.S. born.

Recruitment consist of a total of 431 eligible participants based on their race, gender, age[13], and national origin. Table 4.1 illustrates, of the 431 participants, 110 self-identify as white males, 110 self-identify as white females, 110 self-identify as black females, and 101 self-identify as black males. The recruitment email contains a hyperlink which takes the user to the study's website, if the participant clicks on it. All participants sign a consent form before taking part in the study. To ensure the receipt of quality data, the survey contains attention screening questions to flag participants who are not taking the study seriously, such as "straight-liners" or "speeders." Additionally, participants obtain a unique access code, which monitors their completion of the survey and prohibits additional attempts by the same participant.

Table 4.1 Initial Race and Gender Demographics of Sample

Race & Gender Background	Total
White Males	110
White Females	110
Black Females	110
Black Males	101
Total	431

CASE SELECTION: SCOPE CONDITIONS

Expectation states theory focuses on the uneven distribution of power and prestige (i.e. deference or respect) in problem solving groups working on *collectively oriented tasks*. For a task to be collectively-oriented each team or group member must consider "it is necessary and legitimate to take the behavior of the other into account in order to achieve the success outcome" (Berger, Fişek, and Freese 1976:47). In other words, collectively-oriented teams consist of members who put their "best foot forward" all for the sake of team success. Put yet another way, members of these groups are not motivated by individual or personal success but by a wish to see their group

[13] Since age is not the focus of the study, it is not present in table 4.1.

be successful. In the Standardized Expectation-States Experiment (SES), collective orientation is a necessary scope condition for the examination of status processes and performance expectations in experimental settings. Foschi (2008) outlines how scholars operationally defined collective orientation and checked its manipulation.

Generally, expectation states researchers operationalized collective orientation by repeatedly emphasizing to subjects/participants that the "utilization of advice and information from others [team members] was both legitimate and crucial" and that all member decisions contributed equally to the task outcome (Berger, Conner, and McKeown 1968:16; Berger et al 1977). To assess or "check" participants' collective orientation, researchers have participants complete a post-experimental questionnaire in addition to an exit interview. However, most scholars do not cite studies testing the construct validity of this assessment. Although, Driskell and colleagues (1992; 1997; 2010) develop a collective orientation Likert-scaled questionnaire, most expectation states studies do not cite them when discussing the collective orientation scope condition. Moreover, Dippong (2012) notes, "[W]hile many researchers report the measures of task orientation and collective orientation they employ, ….much of the research published in this tradition makes no mention of how scope conditions are measured, or of any participants who fail to meet these important criteria (359).

In conventional expectation states studies, collective orientation is typically assessed during the exit interview of an experimental study. However, due to this study's causal-comparative (ex post facto), quasi-experimental research design, assessment of participants' collective orientation attends to two of the nine item Likert-scale items developed by Driskell, Salas, and Hughes (2010). This method of assessment has precedence in studies by Foschi and Valenzuela (2012, 2008). Similar to the collective orientation measurements in the works by

Foschi and Valenzuela, this study uses the following two out of the nine Likert-scale items by Driskell and colleagues (1992; 1997; 2010), to best describe participants' relative degree of collective orientation.

1. If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice.
2. I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully.

The framing of these two statements allows respondents to imagine themselves as qualified participants engaging in a collectively oriented activity requiring teamwork. Participants chose one out of six ordinal-level response categories, which indicated their strong disagreement (coded as 1) to strong agreement (coded as 6) with the two Likert-scale items measuring self-evaluative statements of collective orientation.

Respondents who indicated any disagreement with either or both items were dropped from the analysis. Thus, the conditions for identifying collectively oriented participants is the requirement that their relative agreement, not disagreement, with the two items that measure individual's degree of collective orientation. Table 4.2 presents a crosstab analysis illustrating the frequency distribution regarding the 431 respondents' answers to the two Likert-scale items measuring collective orientation. The cells highlighted in green contain the number of people who meet the conditions for collective orientation. 80% or 343 of the participants were collective oriented. The cells highlighted in red and yellow contain the number of people who did not meet the conditions for collective orientation. 19 or 4% of the participants (highlighted in red) were not collectively oriented as their responses indicated disagreement for both items. 69 or 16% of the participants (highlighted in yellow) were not collectively oriented as their responses indicated disagreement for one item and agreement for the other. Of the 431 eligible participants, 88

respondents lack a sufficient self-evaluation score collective orientation, thus limiting the analysis to 343 collectively oriented participants (see Table 4.3).

Table 4.2 Collective Orientation Initial Results

		I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully.						
		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice.	Strongly Disagree	5	1	2	2	1	5	16
	Disagree	0	4	1	7	9	1	22
	Somewhat Disagree	2	0	4	15	16	1	38
	Somewhat Agree	1	1	5	31	42	12	92
	Agree	0	2	2	17	85	40	146
	Strongly Agree	0	0	1	5	32	79	117
Total		8	8	15	77	185	138	431

Table 4.3 Collective Orientation Final Results

		I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully.			
		Somewhat Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree	Total
If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice.	Somewhat Agree	31	42	12	85
	Agree	17	85	40	142
	Strongly Agree	5	32	79	116
Total		53	159	131	343

Table 4.3 presents the final results of participants who meet the criterial of collective orientation. Of the 343 collectively oriented sample, 31 participants responded that they "somewhat agreed" with both items of the collective orientation scale: (1) I think while working as a team on the

contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully; and (2) If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice. 17 of the participants responded that they "somewhat agreed" to the first item, 'I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully;' and "agreed" to the second item, 'If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice." Five (5) of the participants responded that they "somewhat agreed" to the first item, 'I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully;' and "strongly agreed" to the second item, 'If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice."

42 participants responded that they "agreed" to the first item, 'I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully;' and "somewhat agreed" to the second item, 'If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice." 85 participants responded that they "agreed" with both items of the collective orientation scale, 'I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully;' and 'If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice.' 32 participants responded that they "agreed" with the first item, 'I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully;' and "strongly agreed" with the second item, 'If I participate in a

future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice."

12 participants responded that they "strongly agreed" with the first item, 'I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully;' and "somewhat agreed" with the second item, 'If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice." 40 participants responded that they "strongly agreed" with the first item, 'I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully;' and "agreed" with the second item, 'If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice." 79 participants responded that they "agreed" with both items of the collective orientation scale, 'I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully;' and 'If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice.'

The participants' race and gender were recorded in tables 4.4 – 4.6 below.

Table 4.4 Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Gender	Male	163	47.5%	47.5%	47.5%
	Female	180	52.5%	52.5%	100.0%
	Total	343	100.0%	100.0%	

Controlling for race, 47.5% (or 163) of the people in this sample are male. 52.5% (or 180) of the people in this sample are female.

Table 4.5 Race

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Race	White	178	51.9%	51.9%	51.9%
	Black	165	48.1%	48.1%	100.0%
	Total	343	100.0%	100.0%	

Controlling for gender, 51.9% (or 178) of the people in this sample are white. 48.1% (or 165) of the people in this sample are black.

Table 4.6 Race & Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Race & Gender	White Males	88	25.7%	25.7%	25.7%
	White Females	90	26.2%	26.2%	51.9%
	Black Males	75	21.9%	21.9%	73.8%
	Black Females	90	26.2%	26.2%	100.0%
	Total	343	100.0%	100.0%	

There were 88 white males in this study, which composed 25.7% of the sample. There were 90 white females in this study, which composed 26.2% of the sample. There were 75 black males in this study, which composed 21.9% of the sample. There were 90 black females in this study, which composed 26.2% of the sample.

<u>Is there a significant difference between the remaining cases and the dropped cases by demographic category?</u>

Tables 4.7 – 4.9 respectively explore whether there is a significant difference between the Keep and the Dropped cases by demographic group – gender (see Table 4.7), race (see Table 4.8), and the intersections of race and gender (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.7 Keep v Dropped by Gender

GENDER	KEEP	DROPPED	Row Total
Males	163	48	211
	.144	.562	
	77.3%	22.7%	49.0%
	47.5%	54.5%	
	37.8%	11.1%	
Females	180	40	220
	.138	.539	
	81.8%	18.2%	51.0%
	52.5%	45.5%	
	41.8%	9.3%	
Column Total	343	88	431
	79.6%	20.4%	

Pearson's Chi-squared test: χ^2 =1.38 d.f. =1 p =.24

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction: χ^2 =1.12 d.f. =1 p =.29

Table 4.7 is a 2X2 contingency table that explores whether or not the keep population significantly differs from the population by gender. Excluding the marginal totals, the cells of each column contains the following in subsequent order: the number of people identifying with a particular gender, the numerical amount contributing to the chi-square value, the percentage of people identifying with a particular gender, the percentage of people in the given category, the percentage of people associated with the entire sample. The marginal totals in this 2X2 contingence table illustrates the following: There are 211 (49%) self-identifying males and 220 (51%) self-identifying females in the entire sample (both keep and dropped categories combined). There are 343 people in the keep column, which encompasses 79.6% of the 431 people in the entire sample. There are 88 people in the dropped column, which encompasses 20.4% of the 431 people in the entire sample.

The following contains the descriptive statistics for the *keep column* of the 2X2 contingency table. 163 people identify as male in the keep column. The males in the keep column contribute .144 to the chi-square value. 77.3% of the people in the keep column identify

as male. 47.5% of the 343 people in the keep category are males. 37.8% of the 431 people in the entire sample are males in the keep column. 180 people identify as female in the keep column. The females in the keep column contribute .138 to the chi-square value. 81.8% of the people in the keep column identify as female. 52.5% of the 343 people in the keep category are females. 41.8% of the 431 people in the entire sample are females in the keep column.

The following contains the descriptive statistics for the *dropped column* of the 2X2 contingency table. 48 people identify as male in the dropped column. The males in the dropped column contribute .562 to the chi-square value. 22.7% of the people in the dropped column identify as male. 54.5% of the 88 people in the dropped category are males. 11.1% of the 431 people in the entire sample are males in the dropped column. 40 people identify as female in the dropped column. The females in the dropped column contribute .539 to the chi-square value. 18.2% of the people in the dropped column identify as female. 45.5% of the 88 people in the dropped category are females. 9.3% of the 431 people in the entire sample are females in the dropped column.

Chi-Square Results:

A chi-square test was conducted to assess whether gender (males and females) of the "keep category" were significantly different than gender (males and females) of the "dropped category" The results were not statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, χ^2 (1, n = 431) = 1.38, $p > .05$. Even with the Yate's continuity correction, there is still no statistically significant association between gender in the keep category and gender in the dropped category.

Table 4.8 Keep v Dropped by Race

RACE	KEEP	DROPPED	Row Total
Whites	178	42	220
	.049	.190	
	80.9%	19.1%	51.0%
	51.9%	47.7%	
	41.3%	9.7%	
Blacks	165	46	211
	.051	.198	
	78.2%	21.8%	49.0%
	48.1%	52.3%	
	38.3%	10.7%	
Column Total	343	88	431
	79.6%	20.4%	

Pearson's Chi-squared test: χ^2 =0.49, d.f. =1 p =.49
Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction: χ^2 =0.33 d.f. =1 p =0.56

Table 4.8 is a 2X2 contingency table that explores whether or not the keep population significantly differs from the population by race. Excluding the marginal totals, the cells of each column contains the following in subsequent order: the number of people identifying with a particular race, the numerical amount contributing to the chi-square value, the percentage of people identifying with a particular race, the percentage of people in the given category, the percentage of people associated with the entire sample. The marginal totals in this 2X2 contingence table illustrates the following: There are 220 (51%) self-identifying whites and 211 (49%) self-identifying blacks in the entire sample (both keep and dropped categories combined).

There are 343 people in the keep column, which encompasses 79.6% of the 431 people in the entire sample. There are 88 people in the dropped column, which encompasses 20.4% of the 431 people in the entire sample. The following contains the descriptive statistics for the *keep column* of the 2X2 contingency table. 178 people identify as white in the keep column. Whites in the keep column contribute .049 to the chi-square value. 80.9% of the people in the keep column identify as white. 51.9% of the 343 people in the keep category are white. 41.3% of the 431

people in the entire sample are white in the keep column. 165 people identify as black in the keep column. Blacks in the keep column contribute .051 to the chi-square value. 78.2% of the people in the keep column identify as black. 48.1% of the 343 people in the keep category are blacks. 38.3% of the 431 people in the entire sample are blacks in the keep column.

The following contains the descriptive statistics for the *dropped column* of the 2X2 contingency table. 42 people self-identify as white in the dropped column. Whites in the dropped column contribute .190 to the chi-square value. 19.1% of the people in the dropped column identify as white. 47.7% of the 88 people in the dropped category are males. 9.7% of the 431 people in the entire sample are males in the dropped column. 46 people identify as black in the dropped column. Blacks in the dropped column contribute .198 to the chi-square value. 21.8% of the people in the dropped column identify as black. 52.3% of the 88 people in the dropped category are black. 10.7% of the 431 people in the entire sample are blacks in the dropped column.

Chi-Square Results:

A chi-square test was conducted to assess whether race (whites and blacks) of the "keep category" were significantly different than race (whites and blacks) of the "dropped category" The results were not statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, χ^2 (1, n = 431) = .49, $p > .05$. Even with the Yate's continuity correction, there is still no statistically significant association between race in the keep category and race in the dropped category.

Table 4.9 Keep v Dropped by Race & Gender

RACE & GENDER	KEEP	DROPPED	Row Total
White Males	88	22	110
	0.002	0.009	
	80.0%	20.0%	25.5%
	25.7%	25.0%	
	20.4%	5.1%	
White Females	90	20	110
	.069	.269	
	81.8%	18.2%	25.5%
	26.2%	22.7%	
	20.9%	4.6%	
Black Males	75	26	101
	.360	1.403	
	74.3%	25.7%	23.4%
	21.9%	29.5%	
	17.4%	6.0%	
Black Females	90	20	110
	.069	.269	
	81.8%	18.2%	25.5%
	26.2%	22.7%	
	20.9%	4.6%	
Column Total	343	88	431
	79.6%	20.4%	

Pearson's Chi-squared test: $\chi^2 = 2.46$ *d.f. = 3* $p = 0.48$

Table 4.9 is a 4X2 contingency table that explores whether or not the keep population significantly differs from the population by both race and gender. Excluding the marginal totals, the cells of each column contains the following in subsequent order: the number of people identifying with a particular race and gender, the numerical amount contributing to the chi-square value, the percentage of people identifying with a particular race and gender, the percentage of people in the given category, the percentage of people associated with the entire sample. The marginal totals in this 4X2 contingency table illustrates the following: There are 110 (25.5%) self-identifying white males, 110 (25.5%) self-identifying white females, 101 (23.4%) self-identifying black males, and 110 (25.5%) self-identifying black females in the entire sample

(both keep and dropped categories combined). There are 343 people in the keep column, which encompasses 79.6% of the 431 people in the entire sample. There are 88 people in the dropped column, which encompasses 20.4% of the 431 people in the entire sample.

The following contains the descriptive statistics for the *keep column* of the 2X2 contingency table. 88 people identify as a white male in the keep column. White males in the keep column contribute .002 to the chi-square value. 80% of the people in the keep column identify as a white male. 25.7% of the 343 people in the keep category are white males. 20.4% of the 431 people in the entire sample are white in the keep column. 90 people identify as a white female in the keep column. White females in the keep column contribute .069 to the chi-square value. 81.8% of the people in the keep column identify as a white female. 26.2% of the 343 people in the keep category are white males. 20.9% of the 431 people in the entire sample are white in the keep column. 75 people identify as a black male in the keep column. Black males in the keep column contribute .36 to the chi-square value. 74.3% of the people in the keep column identify as a black male. 21.9% of the 343 people in the keep category are black males. 17.4% of the 431 people in the entire sample are black males in the keep column. 90 people identify as a black female in the keep column. Black females in the keep column contribute .069 to the chi-square value. 81.8% of the people in the keep column identify as a black female. 26.2% of the 343 people in the keep category are black females. 20.9% of the 431 people in the entire sample are black females in the keep column.

The following contains the descriptive statistics for the *dropped column* of the 2X2 contingency table. 22 people self-identify as a white male in the dropped column. White males in the dropped column contribute .009 to the chi-square value. 20% of the people in the dropped column identify as a white male. 25% of the 88 people in the dropped category are white males.

5.1% of the 431 people in the entire sample are males in the dropped column. 20 people self-identify as a white female in the dropped column. White females in the dropped column contribute .269 to the chi-square value. 18.2% of the people in the dropped column identify as a white female. 22.7% of the 88 people in the dropped category are white females. 4.6% of the 431 people in the entire sample are white females in the dropped column. 26 people identify as a black male in the dropped column. Black males in the dropped column contribute .143 to the chi-square value. 25.7% of the people in the dropped column identify as a black male. 29.5% of the 88 people in the dropped category are black males. 6.0% of the 431 people in the entire sample are blacks in the dropped column. 20 people identify as a black female in the dropped column. Black females in the dropped column contribute .269 to the chi-square value. 18.2% of the people in the dropped column identify as a black female. 22.7% of the 88 people in the dropped category are black females. 4.6% of the 431 people in the entire sample are black females in the dropped column.

Chi-Square Results:

A chi-square test was conducted to assess whether race and gender (white males and females and black males and females) of the "keep category" were significantly different than race and gender (white males and females and black males and females) of the "dropped category" The results were not statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, χ^2 (3, n = 431) = 2.45, $p > .05$.

In sum, the chi-square results in the tables above suggest that there is not a significant difference between the keep population and dropped population by demographic categories. Thus, the dropping of cases that fail to meet the collective orientation criteria did not

significantly skew the distribution of the data. That is, gender, race, and their intersections are not overrepresented or underrepresented in the 343 collectively oriented cases.

Profile Pools & Choice Situations

Participants select team members from 15 types of "profile pools". These profile pools are grouped into three types of "choice-situations:" (1) select one team member from a profile pool of two candidates, (2) select one team member from a profile pool of three candidates, (3) select two team members from a profile pool of three candidates – for a future collectively oriented problem-solving task.

For the first choice-situation, six profile pools require participants to select one team member out of a pool of two. The six different pools arise from the possible combinations of two alternatives from the four status profiles of White Male (WM), White Female (WF), Black Male (BM) and Black Female (BF).[14] For the second and third choice situations there are four different pools that arise from the possible combinations of three alternatives from the four status profiles.

Choice situations contain various instantiations in which a status profile is represented by a named avatar. The avatars and the names vary from instantiation to instantiation. For example, Figure 2 presents two panel examples of the choice between white female and black female status profiles[15]. In the first panel in Figure 2 the choice is between "Katherine" and "Jada." In the second panel, the choice is between "Aaliyah" and "Mariana.

[14] There is a seventh situation of type 1 to prime respondents, and that is a choice between two white males.

[15] All images of avatars presented in this chapter and in the survey (see Appendix F) were purchased as 'royalty free' stock photos and licensed for reproduction via 123RF.com

Figure 2 Examples of Choice Situation: One

Danilo Sanino has copyright ownership of the avatars presented in Figures 2 and 3 (https://www.123rf.com/profile_ddraw). Monique Duplechain modified the black male avatars (moniquemonchelle.com). Avatars presented in this chapter and in the survey (see Appendix F) were purchased as 'royalty free' stock photos and licensed for reproduction via 123RF.com

Figure 3 also presents two panel examples, however in this figure the first and second panels display choice situations two and three, respectively[16]. Both panels display the choice among white female, black female, and black male status profiles. The first panel of Figure 3 (e.g. choice situation two) is the choice among– "Maria," "Deja," and "Trevon." In this example, respondents select only one avatar for team membership out of the three candidates (i.e. Maria, Deja, or Trevon). On the other hand, in the second panel respondents must select two avatars for team membership out of the three candidates (i.e. Destiny, and/or Caitlin, and/or Jalen).

[16] Danilo Sanino has copyright ownership of the avatars presented in Figures 2 and 3 (https://www.123rf.com/profile_ddraw). All images of avatars presented in this chapter and in the survey (see Appendix F) were purchased as 'royalty free' stock photos and licensed for reproduction via 123RF.com

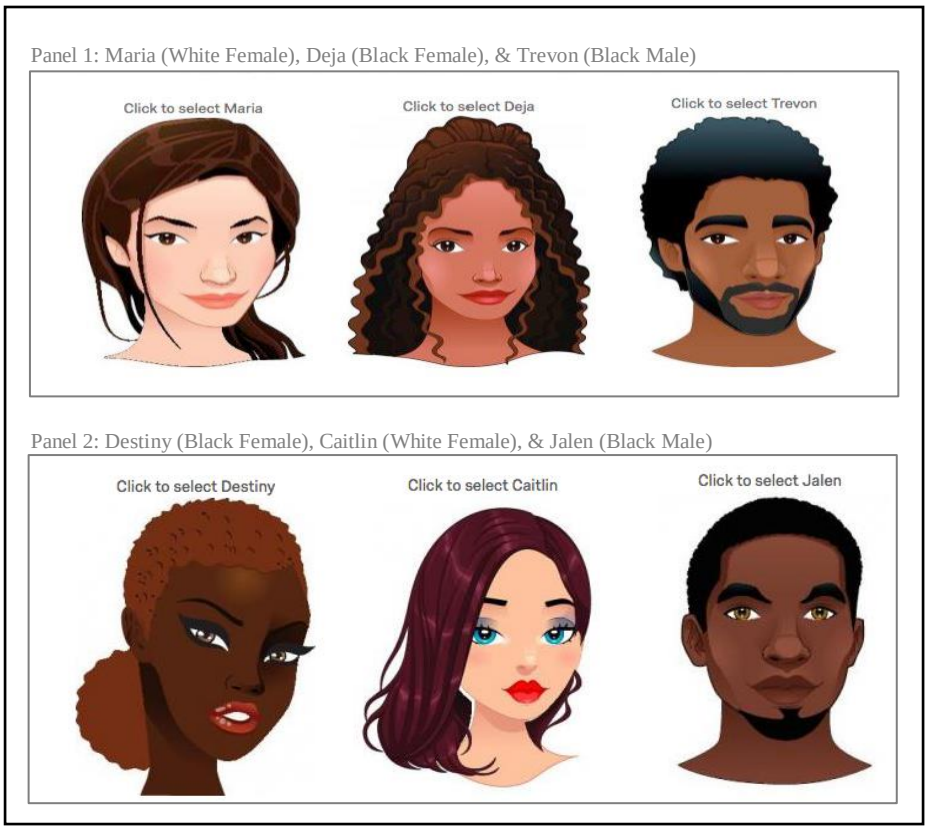


Figure 3 Examples of Choice Situation: Two & Three

Danilo Sanino has copyright ownership of the avatars presented in Figures 2 and 3 (https://www.123rf.com/profile_ddraw). Monique Duplechain modified the black male avatars (moniquemonchelle.com). Avatars presented in this chapter and in the survey (see Appendix F) were purchased as 'royalty free' stock photos and licensed for reproduction via 123RF.com

The results from the data analysis later illustrate an aggregation of the profile pools of each respective choice situation. Thus, instead of names, candidates of a given aggregated profile pool are identified by their profile of diffuse status characteristics. However, the disaggregated results are located in Appendix C.

In sum, I collected data from participants who selected potential team members from profile pools grouped into three "choice-situations." The profile pools were composed of three types of candidates (i.e. potential team members), represented as avatars. Excluding the baseline profile pool, avatars (i.e. candidates) within a given profile pool embodied different racial and

gender categories in the U.S. Participants were asked to make a series of partner-choices given the various profile pools. I present the results from this data in the next chapter.

5. "IT'S A WHITE MAN'S WORLD?" TESTING AN EST APPROACH TO TEAM FORMATION VIA PARTNER-SELECTION

In this chapter I analyze the data to see if it supports the general hypotheses from the expectation states framework about the effects of diffuse status on partner choice. The examination uses the basic statistical technique of Chi-Square (χ^2) test of independence to report and compare the observed frequencies of participants' partner-selection practices by their race, gender, and race-gender status identities, with the frequencies that would be expected if there were no association between partner-selection and the status identities of the participants. I start with a general formulation of the choice patterns expected from the general expectation state framework. Following the statement of each master-null hypothesis, I provide specific examples that instantiate its relevance to this study's focus on race and gender. These more specific claims address the influence of racial and gender diffuse status characteristics (i.e. status profiles) on partner-choice situations, guided by an anticipation of a collectively oriented task.

RESEARCH QUESTION AND SPECIFIC AIMS

The expectation state framework makes two general claims about the choice patterns to be expected from respondents with different status identities. The first general claim is that respondents with different status identities will have the same tendencies to choose one person over another based on the differences in the diffuse status profiles of the alternatives. That is, regardless of identity, white males, white females, black males, and black females will assign the same importance to a difference in expectation states and choose partners accordingly.

Therefore, for example when faced with a choice between a white male and black female, all status groups should choose the higher status person over the lower status person to be a teammate at exactly the same rate. So, if white males choose the white male 80% of the time and the black female 20% of the time so too should all the other respondents with different status identities.

The second general claim is that with respect to the status profiles of potential partners, race and gender are treated as equally important sources of expectation. That is, for all respondent groups, an expectation difference based on race has the same importance one based on gender. Therefore, for example, if the choice is between a white male and a white female and the white male is chosen 70% of the time, then if a choice between white female and a black female should be made in favor of the white female also 70% of the time. Note that, for the sake of illustration, I am assuming here the hegemonic framework that on the diffuse status characteristic of gender, male is the high and female the low state, and on the diffuse status characteristic of race, white is the higher and black the low state.

Put in the traditional form of a null hypothesis, the first prediction is about the rates at which partners of different status profiles will be selected and the second, about how differences in the status profiles of choosers will affect their rates of choice of partners of different status profiles. Thus, I formulate two null hypotheses. The first null hypothesis states:

> H_a: The selection rates at which partners of different status-identities will be chosen from a set of alternative team member candidates of varying status characteristics will be identical regardless of the diffuse status dimension creating the difference in profiles.

In other words, the observed rates of choice of which partners will be chosen from some set of available partners will not depend on exactly which diffuse dimension creates the difference between profiles. This claim follows from the graph-theoretic based calculation of expectation

advantage or disadvantage which takes account of only whether a person occupies a high or low state of some diffuse status dimension. Hence, there is nothing special about gender or race per se that would change how advantage is calculated. The following list gives some examples of patterns in choice rates consistent with this hypothesis:

(a) The rate at which the black male will be chosen if the choice is between a black male and a white male will be no different from the rate at which a white female is chosen if the choice is between a white male and a white female.

(b) The rate at which the black female will be chosen if the choice is between a black male and a black female will be no different from the rate at which a white female is chosen if the choice is between a white male and a white female.

(c) The rate at which the white male will be chosen if the choice is between a white male and a black male will be no different from the rate at which a white female is chosen if the choice is between a white female and a black female.

Note that these examples highlight the fact that the models treat substantively different diffuse status characteristics as having the same formal consequences on partner choice.

The second null hypothesis refers to how differences in the status-identities of choosers will affect their rates of choice of partners of different status profiles. It states:

H_b: Status-identities of choosers will not affect the selection rates at which they choose partners of a particular status profile from a set of candidates of varying status characteristics.

In other words, the observed rates of choice of which partners will be chosen from some set of available partners will not depend on exactly which diffuse dimension creates the difference between profiles. The following list gives some examples of patterns in choice rates consistent with this hypothesis. For example, what this means is the following:

(a) White male choosers and Black male choosers will select Black males as partners at the same rate from any set of varying by race and/or gender.

(b) White male choosers and Black male choosers will select Black females as partners at the same rate from any set of varying by race and/or gender.

(c) White male choosers and Black male choosers will select White females as partners at the same rate from any set of varying by race and/or gender.

It must be noted that the same pattern under this particular null hypothesis will hold for all other combinations of the chooser's status-identities and candidates' status profiles.

χ^2 DATA ANALYSIS: BY GENDER, RACE, AND THE INTERSECTIONS OF BOTH RACE & GENDER

In this section, I use contingency tables to present all possible combinations of collaborative partner choice by the demographic category of the respondent for each profile pools. Thus, there are three sub-sections that present the results by respondents' gender, race, and race and gender. Additionally, for each table, I conduct a chi-square test of independence to test "H_a"—that there is no association between team member selection patterns and respondents' status-identities. In other words, choice of candidate does not differ by respondents' gender, race, or race and gender of the chooser.

Additionally, I present the choice pattern distributions by demographic category in terms of odds ratios (OR). An odds ratio (OR) is the ratio of (a) the odds that one status identity category of choosers picks a candidate or candidates to the odds that a reference status identity category of picks a candidate or candidates. For gender, female is the reference category, for race black, and for race-gender, it is black female. If hypothesis Ha holds, then all these odds ratios should 1.0. An odds ratio less than one means that the status identity category under selects a particular alternative as compared to the reference status identity category. An odds ratio greater

than one means that it over selects, that is, chooses a particular alternative with greater probability. I begin with discussing the results relevant to gender.

χ^2 Test of Independence Choice Situation Contingency Tables by Gender

In this section, I present my statistically significant findings relating to the following question: do team member selections differ by the respondents' gender? The null hypothesis (H_a) argues that team member selections do not differ by the respondents' gender. I test this hypothesis using the chi-square test of independence. The test measures if gender is significantly associated with team member selection. Additionally, I illustrate the corresponding OR values to measure the strength of the association. Of the three choice situations, choice situation two illustrated the only significant findings relating to gender. Thus, I begin and focus on the results relevant to choice situation two.

Table 5.1 χ2 Results By Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #2: Select One of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Gender	White Female	White Male	Black Female	Row Total
Males	197 218	131 110	161 161	489
Females	261 240	101 122	178 178	540
Column Total	458	232	339	1029

Pearson's Chi-squared test

$\chi^2 = 11.17$ *d.f.* = 2 $p = .01$

Table 5.1 shows a chi-square test contingency table that assesses if there is a significant association between gender (males and females) with team member selection. The result is statistically significant at the .05 level, χ^2 (*df* =2, n = 1029) = 11.17, $p < .01$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of male participants (across race) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of male participants (across race) selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of male participants (across race) selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *approximately the same* as the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of female participants (across race) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of female participants (across race) selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of female participants (across race) selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *approximately the same* as the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is an association between gender (males and females) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate. It appears that gender may influence the selection a team member differing by race and gender. In other words, gender is having a

significant impact on people's selection patterns for this profile pool's instantiation. Thus, the differences between the observed and expected frequencies are significantly large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.2 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #2: By Gender

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Male					
	Males	1.434	.035	1.025	2.006
	Females	0[b]			
White Female					
	Males	.834	.209	.629	1.107
	Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.2 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a white male or white female over a black female by gender of the respondent. The results show that the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black female or white female candidate is 1.43 times higher for males compared to females. The strength of this measurement is significant at the .05 alpha level. The results also show that the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black female is .834 times lower for males compared to females. However, the strength for this particular measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level.

Table 5.3 χ2 Results By Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #2: Select One of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Gender	Black Male	Black Female	White Female	Row Total
Males	112 107	153 181	224 201	489
Females	113 118	227 199	200 223	540
Column Total	225	380	424	1029

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 13.28$ *d.f.* = 2 p = .001

Table 5.3 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between gender (males and females) with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, χ^2 (*df* =2, n = 1029) = 13.28, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of male participants (across race) selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of male participants (across race) selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of male participants (across race) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of female participants (across race) selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of female participants (across race) selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of female participants (across race) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is an association between gender (males and females) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate. It appears that gender may not influence the selection a team member differing by race and gender. In other words, gender is having a significant impact on people's selection patterns for this profile pool's instantiation. Thus, the differences between the observed and expected frequencies are significantly large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.4 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #2: By Gender

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Black Male					
	Males	.885	.459	.640	1.223
	Females	0[b]			
Black Female					
	Males	.602	.000	.455	.796
	Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: White Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.4 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a black male or black female over a white female by gender of the respondent. The reference category is the white female candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a white female candidate is .885 times lower for males compared to females. The strength for this particular measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level. Additionally, the odds for selecting a black female candidate over a white female candidate is .602 times lower for males compared to females. Furthermore, the strength for this measurement is significant at the .001 alpha level.

The summary table below, Table 5.5, summarizes the status effects for each profile pool per choice situation, by respondents' gender. There are only two statistically significant profile pools showing a gender effect. For both of these pools, respondents choose one candidate out of three alternatives. Finally, my results show for all pools in two of three choice situations, gender does not have a statistically significant effect.

Table 5.5 Measures of Association Summary by Gender

MEASURES OF ASSOCIATION TABLE SUMMARY					
Choices by Gender of Respondent					
Choice Situation	**Profile Pool**	**χ^2**	**n**	**df**	**Comments/Notes**
I.	White Male & White Male (baseline)	4.58*	343	1	N/A
	White Male & White Female	0.28	686	1	Not Significant
	White Male & Black Male	0.00	686	1	Not Significant
	White Male & Black Female	2.23	686	1	Not Significant
	White Female & Black Male	0.88	686	1	Not Significant
	White Female & Black Female	0.02	686	1	Not Significant
	Black Male & Black Female	3.58	686	1	Not Significant
II.	White Male, White Female, & Black Male	2.85	1029	2	Not Significant
	White Female, White Male, & Black Female	11.17**	1029	2	Relative to females, males are 1.43 times more likely to select a white male for team membership over a black female.
	Black Male, Black Female, & White Male	1.21	1029	2	Not Significant
	Black Female, Black Male, & White Female	13.28***	1029	2	Relative to females, males are .6 times less likely to select the black female for team membership over a white female candidate.
III.	White Female, Black Female, & Black Male	4.58	1029	2	Not Significant
	White Male, Black Male, & Black Female	2.63	1029	2	Not Significant
	White Male, White Female, & Black Female	1.99	1029	2	Not Significant
	White Male, White Female, & Black Male	4.42	1014	2	Not Significant

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

χ^2 Test of Independence Choice Situation Contingency Tables by Race

In this section, I conduct a chi-square test of independence to test H_a— that there is no association between collaborative partnership choices and the social-identity of race. In other words, team member selections do not differ by the respondents' racial category. I use contingency tables to present results focusing on all possible combinations of partnership choice by race for only the statistically significant and relevant profile pools. Additionally, I illustrate the corresponding OR for these particular profile pools. Thus, I address 12 out of the 15 profile pools applicable to H_a. Of these 12, I begin with the profile pools in choice situation one. Next, I address the results for choice situation two. Lastly, I attend to the results for choice situation three. At the end of the section I summarize the results for all profile pools within each choice situation.

Choice Situation One

In this section, I conduct a chi-square test of independence to test H_a— that there is no association between collaborative partnership choices and the social-identity of race. In other words, team member selections do not differ by the respondents' racial category. If they do differ, the null hypothesis attributes the difference to chance or randomness. I begin with choice situation one, which address seven out of the 15 profile pools. The first profile pool I test, contains two distinct white males, or the "baseline profile pool" cross-tabbed by race. The second profile pool I test, contains a white male and a white female cross-tabbed by race. The

third profile pool I test, contains a white male and a black male cross-tabbed by race. The fourth profile pool I test, contains a white male and a black female cross-tabbed by race. The fifth profile pool I test, contains a white female and a black male cross-tabbed by race. The sixth profile pool I test, contains a white female and a black female cross-tabbed by race. The last profile pool I test from choice situation one, contains a black male and a black female cross-tabbed by race.

Table 5.6 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #1: Select One of Two for Team Membership		
Race	White Male1	White Male2	Row Total
Whites	104 92	74 86	178
Blacks	73 85	92 80	165
Column Total	177	166	343

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 7.00$ *d.f.* = 1 p = .01
Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction
$\chi^2 = 6.34$ *d.f.* = 1 p = .01

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.6 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .01, χ^2 (*df* =1, n = 686) = 7.0, $p < .01$. Even with the Yate's continuity correction, the results remain significant.

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.7 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #1: By Race

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Male1					
	Whites	1.771	.009	1.154	2.717
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: White Male2.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.7 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of "white male1" over "white male2" by race of the respondent. The reference category is the white male2 candidate. The results show the odds for selecting white male1 candidate over white male2 candidate is 1.771 times higher for whites compared to blacks. The strength of this measurement is significant at the .05 alpha level.

Table 5.8 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #1: Select One of Two Candidates for Team Membership		
Race	White Male	Black Male	Row Total
Whites	144 109	212 247	356
Blacks	67 102	263 228	330
Column Total	211	475	686

Pearson's Chi-squared test

$\chi^2 = 32.64$ *d.f.* = 1 p = .001

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction

$\chi^2 = 31.70$ *d.f.* = 1 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.8 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, χ^2 (*df* =1, n = 686) = 32.64, $p < .001$. Even with the Yate's continuity correction, the results remain significant.

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.9 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #1: By Race

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Male					
	Whites	2.666	.000	1.895	3.752
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Male.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.9 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a white male over a black male by race of the respondent. The reference category is the black male candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black male candidate is 2.67 times higher for whites compared to blacks. Furthermore, the strength of this measurement is significant at the .001 alpha level.

Table 5.10 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #1: Select One of Two candidates for Team Membership		
Race	White Male	Black Female	Row Total
Whites	181 136	175 220	356
Blacks	81 126	249 204	330
Column Total	262	424	686

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 50.17$ *d.f.* = 1 p = .001
Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction
$\chi^2 = 49.10$ *d.f.* = 1 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.10 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black female candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, χ^2 (*df* =1, n = 686) = 50.17, $p < .001$. Even with the Yate's continuity correction, the results remain significant.

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate and as a team member was *greater t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black female candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection of team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.11 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #1: By Race

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Male					
	Whites	3.179	.000	2.296	4.403
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.11 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a white male over a black female by race of the respondent. The reference category is the black

female candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black female candidate is 3.18 times higher for whites compared to blacks. Furthermore, the strength of this measurement is significant at the .001 alpha level.

Table 5.12 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #1: Select One of Two Candidates for Team Membership		
Race	White Female	Black Male	Row Total
Whites	280 245	76 111	356
Blacks	192 227	138 103	330
Column Total	472	214	686

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 33.43$ *d.f.* = 1 p = .001
Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction
$\chi^2 = 32.49$ *d.f.* = 1 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.12 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black male candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =1, n = 686) = 33.43, $p < .001$. Even with the Yate's continuity correction, the results remain significant.

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate as a team

member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black male candidate as team members was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is an association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black male candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.13 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #1: By Race

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Female	Whites	2.648	.000	1.895	3.701
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Male.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.13 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a white female over a black male by race of the respondent. The reference category is the black male candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black male candidate is 2.65 times higher for whites compared to blacks. Furthermore, the strength of this measurement is significant at the .001 alpha level.

Table 5.14 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #1: Select One of Two for Team Membership		
Race	White Female	Black Female	Row Total
Whites	242 187	114 169	356
Blacks	118 173	212 157	330
Column Total	360	326	686

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 71.29$ *d.f.* = 1 p = .001
Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction
$\chi^2 = 70.00$ *d.f.* = 1 p = .001

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #1: Select One of Two for Team Membership		
Race	White Female	Black Female	Row Total
Whites	242 186.822	114 169.178	356
Blacks	118 173.178	212 156.822	330
Column Total	360	326	686

Pearson's Chi-squared test
Chi^2 = 71.28821 d.f. = 1 p = 3.08674e-17

Pearson's Chi-squared test with Yates' continuity correction
Chi^2 = 70.0021 d.f. = 1 p = 5.924145e-17

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.14 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black female candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =1, n = 686) = 71.29, $p < .001$. Even with the Yate's continuity correction, the results remain significant.

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate as team members was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is an association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black female candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.15 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #1: By Race

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Female	Whites	3.814	.000	2.779	5.234
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.15 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a white female over a black female by race of the respondent. The reference category is the black female candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black female candidate is 3.81 times higher for whites compared to blacks. Furthermore, the strength of this measurement is significant at the .05 alpha level.

The chi-square and OR results, illustrated in Tables 5.6 – 5.15 above were drastically different from the choice situation results by gender. The summary table below, Table 5.16, summarizes the status effects for each profile pool per choice situation, by respondents' race.

Table 5.16 Measure of Association Summary by Race

MEASURES OF ASSOCIATION TABLE SUMMARY						
Choices by Race of Respondent						
Choice Situation	**Profile Pool**	χ^2	**N**	**df**	**V**	**Comments/Notes**
I.	White Male & White Male (baseline)	6.90**	343	1	0.14**	N/A
	White Male & White Female	0.03	686	1	0.01	Not Significant
	White Male & Black Male	32.64***	686	1	0.22***	Relative black respondents, The odds for selecting white male over black male for team membership is 166.6% times greater for white respondents relative to black respondents
	White Male & Black Female	50.17***	686	1	0.27***	Relative black respondents, The odds for selecting white male over black female for team membership is 217.9% times greater for white respondents relative to black respondents
	White Female & Black Male	33.43***	686	1	0.22***	Relative black respondents, The odds for selecting white female over black male for team membership is 164.8% times greater for white respondents relative to black respondents
	White Female & Black Female	71.29**	686	1	0.32***	Relative black respondents, The odds for selecting white female over black female for team membership is 281.4% times greater for white respondents relative to black respondents
	Black Male & Black Female	1.21	686	1	0.04	Not Significant

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

The partner selection patterns from profile pool three of choice situation one, which is composed of white male and black male candidates, were significantly associated with respondents' race at the .001 alpha level. When given a choice to select a white male or a black male for team membership, white respondents were likely to choose a white male over black male for team membership. Black respondents, however, were likely to choose a black male over a white male for team membership. Whites under selected black male candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. Conversely, blacks under selected white male candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. The power of this effect shows a 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis.

The partner selection patterns from profile pool four of choice situation one, which is composed of white male and black female candidates, were significantly associated with respondents' race at the .001 alpha level. When given a choice to select a white male or a black female for team membership, white respondents were likely to choose a white male over black female for team membership. Black respondents, however, were likely to choose a black female over a white male for team membership. Whites under selected black female candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. Likewise, blacks under selected white male candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. The power of this effect shows a 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis.

The partner selection patterns from profile pool five of choice situation one, which is composed of white female and black male candidates, were significantly associated with respondents' race at the .001 alpha level. When given a choice to select a white female or a black male for team membership, white respondents were likely to choose a white female over black male for team membership. Black respondents, however, were likely to choose a black male over

a white female for team membership. Whites under selected black male candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. Similarly, blacks under selected white female candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. The power of this effect shows a 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis.

The partner selection patterns from profile pool six of choice situation one, which is composed of white female and black female candidates, were significantly associated with respondents' race at the .001 alpha level. When given a choice to select a white female or a black female for team membership, white respondents were likely to choose a white female over black female for team membership. Black respondents, however, were likely to choose a black female over a white female for team membership. Whites under selected black female candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. Conversely, blacks under selected white female candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. The power of this effect shows a 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis.

The results, for partner selection patterns from profile pool seven of choice situation one, which is composed of black male and black female candidates, differs at the level of significance compared to the previous four profile pools. The selection patterns for profile pool seven were significantly associated with respondents' race at the .01 alpha level. When given a choice to select a black female or a black male for team membership, white respondents were likely to choose a black female over black male for team membership. Black respondents, however, were likely to choose a black male over a black female for team membership. Whites under selected black male candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. Similarly, blacks under selected black female candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. The power of this effect shows a 74.1% chance of rejecting the

null hypothesis. Our of all the profile pools, the second profile pool in this choice situation, shows no statistically significant result by race of the respondent.

Choice Situation Two

In this section, I address the results for four profile pools from choice situation two by race. The first profile pool I test in this choice situation, contains a white male, a white female, and a black male cross-tabbed by race. The second profile pool I test, contains a white female, a white male, and a black female cross-tabbed by race. The third profile pool I test, contains a black male, a black female, and a white male cross-tabbed by race. The last profile pool I test from choice situation two, contains a black male, a black female, and a white female cross-tabbed by race.

Table 5.17 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #2: Select One of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Row Total
Whites	108 92	317 281	109 161	534
Blacks	69 85	225 261	201 149	495
Column Total	177	542	310	1029

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 50.11$ *d.f.* = 2 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.17 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate.

The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =2, n = 1029) = 50.11, $p <$ .001.

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* (than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting and the black male candidate as team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection

team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.18 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #2: By Race

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Male	Whites	2.886	.000	1.971	4.227
	Blacks	0[b]			
White Female	Whites	2.598	.000	1.946	3.469
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Male.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.18 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a white male or white female over a black male by race of the respondent. The reference category is the black male candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black male candidate is 2.89 times higher for whites compared to blacks. Additionally, the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black male candidate is 2.60 times higher for whites compared to blacks. Moreover, the strength for both measurements is significant at the .001 alpha level.

Table 5.19 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #2: Select One of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race	White Female	White Male	Black Female	Row Total
Whites	147 120	288 238	99 176	534
Blacks	85 112	170 220	240 163	495
Column Total	232	458	339	1029

Pearson's Chi-squared test
χ^2= 104.29 *d.f.* = 2 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.19 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =2, n = 1029) = 104.29, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *greater* (than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the black female candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* as the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.20 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #2: By Race

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Male					
	Whites	4.193	.000	2.939	5.980
	Blacks	0[b]			
White Female					
	Whites	4.107	.000	3.039	5.551
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.20 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a white male or white female over a black female by race of the respondent. The reference category is the black female candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black female candidate is 4.19 times higher for whites compared to blacks. Additionally, the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black female is 4.11 times higher for whites compared to blacks. Moreover, the strength for this particular measurement is significant at the .001 alpha level.

Table 5.21 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #2: Select One of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race	Black Male	Black Female	White Male	Row Total
Whites	152 157	178 202	204 175	534
Blacks	151 146	211 187	133 162	495
Column Total	303	389	337	1029

Pearson's Chi-squared test

$\chi^2 = 16.31$ *d.f.* = 2 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.21 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (df =2, n = 1029) = 16.31, $p <$ .001.

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black

female candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.22 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #2: By Race

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Black Male					
	Whites	.656	.009	.480	.898
	Blacks	0[b]			
Black Female					
	Whites	.550	.000	.409	.739
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: White Male.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.22 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a black male or black female over a white male by race of the respondent. The reference category is white male. The results show that the odds for selecting a black male over a white male

candidate is .656 times lower for whites compared to blacks. The strength for this measurement is significant at the .01 alpha level. Additionally, the results show that the odds for selecting a black female candidate over white male candidate is .550 times lower for whites compared to blacks. The strength for this measurement is significant at the .001 alpha level.

Table 5.23 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #2: Select One of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race	Black Male	Black Female	White Female	Row Total
Whites	101 117	149 197	284 220	534
Blacks	124 108	231 183	140 204	495
Column Total	225	380	424	1029

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 67.57$ *d.f.* = 2 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.23 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =2, n = 1029) = 67.57, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the

black male candidate as a team member was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *greater t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.24 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #2: By Race

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Black Male					
	Whites	.402	.000	.288	.559
	Blacks	0[b]			
Black Female					
	Whites	.318	.000	.238	.424
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: White Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.24 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a black male or black female over a white female by race of the respondent. The reference category is the white female candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a white female candidate is .402 times lower for whites compared to blacks. Additionally, the odds for selecting a black female candidate over a white female candidate is .318 times lower for whites compared to blacks. Furthermore, the strength for both measurements is significant at the .001 alpha level.

The chi-square and OR results, illustrated in Tables 5.17 – 5.24 above, regarding the association of team member selection patterns by race of the respondent were drastically different from the results by race. The summary table below, Table 5.25, summarizes the status effects the profile pools by respondents' race.

Table 5.25 Measure of Association Summary by Race

MEASURES OF ASSOCIATION TABLE SUMMARY						
Choices by Race of Respondent						
Choice Situation	**Profile Pool**	χ^2	**n**	**df**	**V**	**Comments/Notes**
II.						
	White Male, White Female, & Black Male	50.12^{***}	1029	2	0.221^{***}	The odds for selecting the white male for team membership rather than the black male candidate is 188.6% times higher for white respondents relative to black respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting the white female for team membership rather than the black male candidate is 159.8% times higher for white respondents relative to black respondents.
	White Female, White Male, & Black Female	104.29^{***}	1029	2	0.318^{***}	The odds for selecting the white male for team membership rather than the black female candidate is 319.3% times higher for white respondents relative to black respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting the white female for team membership rather than the black female candidate is 310.7% times higher for white respondents relative to black respondents.
	Black Male, Black Female, & White Male	16.31^{***}	1029	2	0.126^{***}	The odds for selecting the black male for team membership rather than the white male candidate is 34.4% times lesser for white respondents relative to black respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting the black female for team membership rather than the white male candidate is 45.0% times lesser for white respondents relative to black respondents.
	Black Female, Black Male, & White Female	67.57^{***}	1029	2	0.256^{***}	The odds for selecting the black male for team membership rather than the white female candidate is 59.8% times lesser for white respondents relative to black respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting the black female for team membership rather than the white female candidate is 68.3% times lesser for white respondents relative to black respondents.

$^{*}p < .05$
$^{**}p < .01$
$^{***}p < .001$

Table 5.25 displays the results for choice situation two by respondents' race. All four profile pools in this choice situation were statistically significant at the .001 alpha level. The statistical power of race on the partner-selection patterns relevant to profile pool one, which is composed of a white male, a white female, and a black male, of this choice situation, shows a 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. Whites' selection patterns in this pool greatly favor white female candidates over male candidates (across race). Whites were least likely to choose black male candidates when white male, and white female candidates were also in the pool. Blacks' selection patterns in this pool greatly favor black male candidates over whites (across gender). Blacks were least likely to choose white male candidates when white female, and black male candidates are also in the pool.

The statistical power of race on the partner-selection patterns relevant to profile pool two, which is composed of a white female, a white male, and a black female, of choice situation two, shows a 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. Whites' selection patterns in this pool greatly favor white male candidates over female candidates (across race). Whites were least likely to choose black female candidates when white male, and white female candidates were also in the pool. Blacks' selection patterns in this pool greatly favor black female candidates over whites (across gender). Although the selection of white candidates (across gender) were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, Blacks were least likely to choose white male candidates when white female and black female candidates were also in the pool. The third profile pool associated with choice situation two includes a black male, a black female, and a white female. The statistical power of race on the partner-selection patterns relevant to profile pool three shows a 96% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. Whites' selection patterns in this pool greatly favor white male candidates over black candidates (across gender). Although the

selection of black candidates (across gender) were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, whites were least likely to choose black female candidates when white male, and black male candidates were also in the pool. Blacks' selection patterns in this pool greatly favor black female candidates over males (across race). Blacks were least likely to choose white male candidates when black female, and black male candidates are also in the pool.

The last statistically significant profile pool of choice situation two, includes a black female, a black male, and a white female. The statistical power of race on the partner-selection patterns relevant to this pool shows a 100% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. Whites' selection patterns in this pool greatly favor white female candidates over black candidates (across gender). Although the selection of black candidates (across gender) were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, whites were least likely to choose black female candidates when white female and black male candidates were also in the pool. Blacks' selection patterns for this pool greatly favor black female candidates over black male and white female candidates. Blacks were least likely to choose white female candidates when black female and black male candidates were also in the pool.

Choice Situation Three

In this section, I examine the four profile pools for choice situation three by race. The first profile pool I test in this choice situation, contains a white female, a black female, and a black male cross-tabbed by race. The second profile pool I test, contains a white male, a black male, and a black female cross-tabbed by race. The third profile pool I test, contains a white male, a white female, and a black female cross-tabbed by race. The last profile pool I test from choice situation three, contains a white male, a white female, and a black male cross-tabbed by race.

Table 5.26 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #3: Select Two of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race	White Female & Black Male (Team HiLo)	White Female & Black Female (Team Female)	Black Male & Black Female (Team Black)	Row Total
Whites	158 139	259 244	116 150	533
Blacks	110 129	210 225	173 139	493
Column Total	268	469	289	1026

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 23.43$ *d.f.* = 2 p = .001

Chi-Square Results

Table 5.26 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." "Team HiLo" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates have one high and one low status characteristic. "Team Female" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black female candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to gender (female). The reference category, "Team Black," represents the selection of a black female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to race (black).The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (df =2, n = 1026) = 23.43, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *greater* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black

female candidate, and one black male candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.27 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #3: By Race

Selected Candidates[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Team HiLo (WF&BM)	Whites	2.142	.000	1.527	3.005
	Blacks	0[b]			
Team Female	Whites	1.839	.000	1.366	2.476
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Team Black.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.27 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member when male and female respondents are given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate for team membership. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team HiLo" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates have one high and one low status characteristic. "Team Female" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black female candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to gender (female). The reference category, "Team Black," represents the selection of a black female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to race (black). The results show that the odds for selecting Team HiLo (a white female and a black male) over Team Black (a black

female and black male candidate) is 2.14 times higher for whites compared to blacks. The odds for selecting Team Female (a white female candidate and a black female candidate) over Team Black, however, is 1.84 times higher for whites compared to blacks. Furthermore, the strength for both measurements is significant at the .001 alpha level.

Table 5.28 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #3: Select Two of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race	White Male & Black Male (Team Male)	White Male & Black Female (Team Intersectional)	Black Male & Black Female (Team Black)	Row Total
Whites	205 166	151 159	178 209	534
Blacks	115 154	155 147	225 194	495
Column Total	320	306	403	1029

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 29.41$ *d.f.* = 2 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.28 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team Male" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (masculinity). "Team Intersectional" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black female candidate, as one candidate has two high status

characteristics and the other has two low status characteristics relevant to both race and gender (Intersectionality). "Team Black," represents the selection of a black female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to race (black). The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =2, n = 1026) = 29.41, $p <$ .001.

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.29 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #3: By Race

Selected Candidates[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Team Male (WM&BM)	Whites	2.253	.000	1.667	3.046
	Blacks	0[b]			
Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Whites	1.231	.171	.914	1.659
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Team Black.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.29 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member when male and female respondents are given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate for team membership. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team Male" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (masculinity). "Team Intersectional" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black female candidate,

as one candidate has two high status characteristics and the other has two low status characteristics relevant to both race and gender (Intersectionality). The reference category, "Team Black," represents the selection of a black female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to race (black). The results show that the odds for selecting Team Male (a white male and a black male) over Team Black (a black female and black male candidate) is 2.25 times higher for whites compared to blacks. Furthermore, the strength for this particular measurement is significant at the .001 alpha level. The odds for selecting Team Intersectional (a white male candidate and a black female candidate) over Team Black, however, is 1.23 times higher for whites compared to blacks. However, the strength for this measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level.

Table 5.30 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #3: Select Two of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race	White Male & White Female (Team White)	White Male & Black Female (Team Intersectional)	White Female & Black Female (Team Female)	Row Total
Whites	199 145	123 136	212 253	534
Blacks	81 135	139 126	275 234	495
Column Total	280	262	487	1029

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 57.46$ *d.f.* = 2 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.30 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team White" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a white female candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (white). "Team Intersectional" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black female candidate, as one candidate has two high status characteristics and the other has two low status characteristics relevant to both race and gender (Intersectionality). "Team Female" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black female candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to gender (female).The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (df =2, n = 1026) = 57.46, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed

frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate and the white female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the black female candidate and the white female candidate as team members was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.31 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #3: By Race

Selected Candidates[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Team White (WM&WF)	Whites	3.187	.000	2.327	4.364
	Blacks	0[b]			
Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Whites	1.148	.370	.849	1.552
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Team Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.31 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member when male and female respondents are given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black female candidate for team membership. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team White" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a white female candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (white). "Team Intersectional" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black female candidate, as one candidate has two high status characteristics and the other has two low status characteristics relevant to both race and gender (Intersectionality). The reference category, "Team Female" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black female candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to gender (female). The results show that the odds for selecting Team White (a white male and a white female) over Team Female (a white female and black female candidate) is 3.19 times higher for whites compared to blacks. The strength for this particular measurement is significant at the .001 alpha level. The odds for selecting Team Intersectional (a white male candidate and a black female

candidate) over Team Female, however, is 1.15 times higher for whites compared to blacks. Nevertheless, the strength for this measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level.

Table 5.32 χ2 Results By Race

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #3: Select Two of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race	White Male & White Female (Team White)	White Male & Black Male (Team Male)	White Female & Black Male (Team HiLo)	Row Total
Whites	247 200	82 95	198 233	527
Blacks	137 184	100 87	250 215	487
Column Total	384	182	448	1014

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 37.81$ *d.f.* = 2 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.32 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race (whites and blacks) in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black male candidate. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team White" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a white female candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (white). "Team Male" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (masculinity). "Team HiLo" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates have one high and one low

status characteristic. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, χ^2 (*df* =2, n = 1014) = 37.81, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *greater* as the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white male candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *higher than the* hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black participants (across gender) selecting the white female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *greater t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race (whites and blacks) and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black male candidate. It appears that race may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race is having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.33 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #3: By Race

Selected Candidates[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Team White (WM&WF)	Whites	2.276	.000	1.721	3.012
	Blacks	0[b]			
Team Male (WM&BM)	Whites	1.035	.844	.732	1.464
	Blacks	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Team HiLo (WF&BM).
b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.33 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member when male and female respondents are given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate for team membership. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team White" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a white female candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (white). "Team Male" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (masculinity). The reference

category, “Team HiLo” represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates have one high and one low status characteristic. The results show that the odds for selecting Team White (a white male and a white female) over Team HiLo (a white female and black male candidate) is 2.28 times higher for whites compared to blacks. The strength for this particular measurement is significant at the .001 alpha level. Further, the odds for selecting Team Male (a white male candidate and a black male candidate) over Team HiLo, however, is 1.04 times higher for whites compared to blacks. However, the strength for this measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level.

The chi-square and OR results, illustrated in Tables 5.26 – 5.33 above, regarding the association of team member selection patterns by race of the respondent were drastically different from the results by race. The summary table below, Table 5.34, summarizes the status effects for the profile pools by respondents’ race.

Table 5.34 Measures of Association Summary for Choice Situation I by Race

MEASURES OF ASSOCIATION TABLE SUMMARY						
Choices by Race of Respondent						
Choice Situation	**Profile Pool**	**χ^2**	**n**	**df**	**V**	**Comments/Notes**
III.						
	White Female, Black Female, & Black Male	23.44***	1026	2	0.151***	The odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a black male (Team HiLo) over a team consisting of a black female and a black male (Team Black) is 214.2% times higher for white respondents relative to black respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a black female (Team Female) over a team consisting of a black female and a black male (Team Black) 83.9% times higher for white respondents relative to black respondents.
	White Male, Black Male, & Black Female	29.41***	1029	2	0.169***	The odds for selecting a team consisting of a white male and a black male (Team Male) over a team consisting of a black male and a black female (Team Black) is 125.3% times higher for white respondents relative to black respondents.
	White Male, White Female, & Black Female	57.46***	1029	2	0.236***	The odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a white male (Team White) over a team consisting of a black female and a white female (Team Female) is 218.7% times higher for white respondents relative to black respondents.
	White Male, White Female, & Black Male	37.81***	1014	2	0.193***	The odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a white male (Team White) over a team consisting of a black male and a white female (Team HiLo) is 127.6% times higher for white respondents relative to black respondents.

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

Similarly, to the profile pools in choice situation two, the profile pools of choice situation three, in Table 5.34 above, were statistically significant at the .001 alpha level. The statistical power of race on the partner-selection patterns relevant to the first profile pool of this choice situation shows 99.4% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. Whites' selection patterns in this pool greatly favor joining white female and black male candidates as teammates over other combinations from a pool that includes a white female, a black female, and a black male candidate. Whites were least likely to form a team by choosing a black female and a black male candidate as teammates compared to alternative combinations. Black respondents' selection patterns, on the other hand, greatly favor joining black female and black male candidates as teammates over other combinations from a profile pool that includes a white female, a black female, and a black male candidate. Although the selection of two racially different female candidates, or one white female candidate and one black male candidate, as teammates were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, black respondents were least likely to select a white female and a black male candidate as teammates compared to alternative combinations from profile pool one.

The statistical power of race on the partner-selection patterns relevant to the second profile pool of choice situation three shows 99.9% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. This profile pool includes a white male, a black male, and a black female candidate, from which respondents must select two as teammates. Whites' selection patterns in this pool greatly favor joining white male and black male candidates as teammates over other candidate combinations. Although the selection of two black candidates with respective gender differences, as well as the selection of a white male candidate and one black female candidate, as teammates were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, whites were least likely to form a team by

choosing a black female and a black male candidates as teammates compared to alternative combinations. Black respondents' selection patterns, on the other hand, greatly favor joining black female and black male candidates as teammates over other combinations from a profile pool that includes a white male, a black female, and a black male candidate. Black respondents were least likely to select a white male and a black male candidate as teammates compared to alternative candidate combinations.

The statistical power of race on the partner-selection patterns relevant to the third profile pool of choice situation three shows 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. This profile pool includes a white male, a white female, and a black female candidate, from which respondents must select two as teammates. Whites' selection patterns in this pool greatly favor joining white male and white female candidates as teammates over other candidate combinations. Although the selection of two racially different female candidates, as well as, the selection of one white male candidate and one black female candidate as teammates were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, whites were least likely to form a team by choosing a black female and a white female candidates as teammates compared to alternative combinations. Black respondents' selection patterns, on the other hand, greatly favor joining white female and black female candidates as teammates over alternative combinations from a profile pool that includes a white male, a black female, and a black male candidate. Black respondents were least likely to select a white male and a white female candidate as teammates compared to alternative candidate combinations.

The last statistically significant profile pool of choice situation three, includes a white male, a white female, and a black male. The statistical power of race on the partner-selection patterns relevant to this pool shows a 100% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. Whites'

selection patterns in this pool greatly favor joining white male and white female candidates as teammates over other candidate combinations. Although the selection of two racially different male candidates, as well as, the selection of one white female candidate and one black male candidate as teammates were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, whites were least likely to form a team by choosing a black male and a white female candidate as teammates compared to alternative combinations. Black respondents' selection patterns, on the other hand, greatly favor joining white female and black male candidates as teammates over alternative combinations from a profile pool that includes a white male, a white female, and a black male candidate. Black respondents were least likely to select a white male and a white female candidate as teammates compared to alternative candidate combinations.

χ2 Test of Independence Choice Situation Contingency Tables By Race & Gender

In this last section, I conduct a chi-square test of independence to test H_a— that there is no association between collaborative partnership choices and the social-identity of race and gender. In other words, team member selections do not differ by the respondents' racial-gender category. I use contingency tables to present results focusing on all possible combinations of partnership choice by race and gender for only the statistically significant and relevant profile pools. Additionally, I illustrate the corresponding OR for these particular profile pools. Thus, I address 13 out of the 15 profile pools applicable to H_a. Of these 13, I begin with the profile pools in choice situation one. Next, I address the results for choice situation two. Lastly, I attend to the results for choice situation three. At the end of the section I summarize the results for all profile pools within each choice situation.

Choice Situation One

I begin with choice situation one, which address six out of the 15 profile pools. The first profile pool I test, contains a white male and a white female cross-tabbed by race and gender. The second profile pool I test, contains a white male and a black male cross-tabbed by race and gender. The third profile pool I test, contains a white male and a black female cross-tabbed by race and gender. The fourth profile pool I test, contains a white female and a black male cross-tabbed by race and gender. The fifth profile pool I test, contains a white female and a black female cross-tabbed by race and gender. The last profile pool I test from choice situation one, contains a black male and a black female cross-tabbed by race and gender. I present the results in Tables 5.35 – 5.46, below.

Table 5.35 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #1: Select One of Two Candidates for Team Membership		
Race & Gender	White Male	Black Male	Row Total
White Males	75 54	101 122	176
White Females	69 55	111 125	180
Black Males	25 46	125 104	150
Black Females	42 55	138 125	180
Column Total	211	475	686

$\chi^2 = 35.11$ *d.f.* = 3 p = .001

Chi-Square Results

Table 5.35 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =3, n = 686) = 35.11, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black male candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race and gender are having an impact on people's

partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.36 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #1: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Male					
	White Males	2.440	.000	1.545	3.852
	White Females	2.042	.002	1.292	3.228
	Black Males	.657	.135	.379	1.140
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Male.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.36 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a white male over a black male by race and gender of the respondent. The reference category is the black male candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black male candidate is 2.44 times higher for white males compared to white females, black males, and black females. The comparative odds ratios for white males and white females are both significant at the .001 alpha level. For white females, the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black male candidate is 2.04 times higher than the odds of black males, and black females. The comparative odds ratios for white males and white females are both significant at the .01 alpha level. Finally, the results show black male respondents' odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black male candidate are .657 times lower than black females. However, the strength of this particular measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level.

Table 5.37 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #1: Select One of Two Candidates for Team Membership		
Race & Gender	White Male	Black Female	Row Total
White Males	96 67	80 109	176
White Females	85 69	95 111	180
Black Males	38 57	112 93	150
Black Females	43 69	137 111	180
Column Total	262	424	686

$\chi^2 = 52.26$ *d.f.* = 3 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.37 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black female candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =3, n = 686) = 52.26, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white male candidate and as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white male candidate and as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate and one black female candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race and gender are having an impact on

people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.38 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #1: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Male					
	White Males	3.823	.000	2.430	6.015
	White Females	2.851	.000	1.817	4.473
	Black Males	1.081	.761	.654	1.787
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.38 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a white male over a black female by race and gender of the respondent. The reference category is the black female candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black female candidate is 3.82 times higher for white males compared to white females, black males, and black females. For white females, the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black female candidate is 2.851 times higher than the odds of black males and black females. The comparative odds ratios for white males and white females are both significant at the .001 alpha level. Finally, for black males, the results show the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black female candidate is 1.08 times higher than all other respondents segmented by race and gender. However, the strength of this particular measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level.

Table 5.39 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #1: Select One of Two Candidates for Team Membership		
Race & Gender	White Female	Black Male	Row Total
White Males	136 121	40 55	176
White Females	144 124	36 56	180
Black Males	94 103	56 47	150
Black Females	98 124	82 56	180
Column Total	472	214	686

$\chi^2 = 36.32$ *d.f.* = 3 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.39 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black male candidate. The result is not statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =3, n = 686) = 36.32, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is an association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black male candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race and gender are having an impact on

people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.40 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #1: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Female					
	White Males	2.845	.000	1.798	4.500
	White Females	3.347	.000	2.095	5.347
	Black Males	1.405	.132	.903	2.186
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Male.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.40 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a white female over a black male by race and gender of the respondent. The reference category is the black male candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black male candidate is 2.85 times higher for white males compared to black males, and black females. For white females, however, the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black male candidate is 3.35 times higher than the odds of white males, black males, and black females. The strength of both odds is significant at the .001 alpha level. Finally, for black males, the results show the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black male candidate is 1.41 times higher than black females. However, the strength of this measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level.

Table 5.41 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #1: Select One of Two for Team Membership		
Race & Gender	White Female	Black Female	Row Total
White Male	114 92	62 84	176
White Female	128 94	52 86	180
Black Male	58 79	92 71	150
Black Female	60 94	120 86	180
Column Total	360	326	686

Pearson's Chi-squared test
$\chi^2 = 73.65$ *d.f.* = 3 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.41 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black female candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =3, n = 686) = 73.65, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is an association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate and one black male candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, both race and gender are having an

impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.42 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #1: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Female					
	White Males	3.677	.000	2.374	5.698
	White Females	4.923	.000	3.148	7.699
	Black Males	1.261	.314	.803	1.981
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.42 presents the odds ratios for the selection of a white female over a black female by race and gender of the respondent. The reference status identity category is the black female respondents. The results show that the odds for a white male to select a white female candidate over a black female candidate are 3.68 times the odds that a black female selects the white female over the black female. The odds for a white female selecting a white female over a black female is 4.92 times the odds of a black female to select a white female over a black female. The strength of both odds ratios is significant at the .001 alpha level. Finally, for black males, the results show the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black female candidate are 1.26 times the odds that ta black female selects the white female over the black female. However, the strength of this measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level.

Table 5.43 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #1: Select One of Two Candidates for Team Membership		
Race & Gender	Black Male	Black Female	Row Total
White Males	69 71	107 105	176
White Females	57 72	123 108	180
Black Males	72 60	78 90	150
Black Females	77 72	103 108	180
Column Total	275	411	686

$\chi^2 = 9.82$ *d.f.* = 3 p = .05

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.43 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of two candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate and one black female candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .05, χ^2 (*df* =3, n = 686) = 9.82, $p < .05$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of two team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of two potential team members from a profile pool containing one black female candidate and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is an association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three team members from a profile pool one black male candidate and one black female candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race and gender are having an impact on people's

partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.44 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #1: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Black Male					
	White Males	1.589	.034	1.035	2.438
	White Females	1.103	.659	.715	1.701
	Black Males	1.265	.306	.806	1.984
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.44 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a black male over a black female by race and gender of the respondent. The reference category is the black female candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a black female candidate is 1.59 times higher for white males compared to white females, black males, and black females. The strength of this measurement is significant at the .05 alpha level. For white females, the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a black female candidate is 1.103 times higher than the odds of black females Finally, for black males, the results show the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a black female candidate is 1.265 times higher than white females and black females. However, the comparative odds ratios for white females and black males were not significant at the .05 alpha level.

The chi-square and OR results, illustrated in Table 5.35 - 5.44 above, regarding the association of team member selection patterns by the intersections of race and gender of the respondent were similar to the results by race. The summary table below, Table 5.45, summarizes the status effects for the profile pools by respondents' race and gender.

Table 5.45 Measures of Association Summary by Race & Gender

MEASURES OF ASSOCIATION TABLE SUMMARY						
Choices by Race & Gender of Respondent						
Choice Situation	**Profile Pool**	χ^2	**n**	**df**	**V**	**Comments/Notes**
I.	White Male & White Male (baseline)*	11.132*	343	3	0.180*	The odds for selecting "white male 1" over "white male 2" for team membership is 175.8% times higher for white male respondents relative to black female respondents
	White Male & White Female	0.592	686	3	0.029	Not significant
	White Male & Black Male	35.110***	686	3	0.226***	The odds for selecting white male over black male for team membership is 144.0% times higher for white respondents relative to black female respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting white male over black male for team membership is 104.2% times higher for white female respondents relative to black female respondents.
	White Male & Black Female***	52.264***	686	3	0.276***	The odds for selecting white male over black female for team membership is 282.3% times higher for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting white male over black female for team membership is 185.1% times higher for white female respondents relative to black female respondents.
	White Female & Black Male***	36.317***	686	3	0.230***	The odds for selecting the white female candidate over the black male for team membership is 184.5% times higher for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting the white female candidate over black male for team membership is 234.7% times higher for white female respondents relative to black female respondents.
	White Female & Black Female	73.655***	686	3	0.328***	The odds for selecting the white female candidate over the black female for team membership is 267.7% times higher for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting the white female candidate over black female for team membership is 392.3% times higher for white female respondents relative to black female respondents.
	Black Male & Black Female	11.131*	686	3	0.086	The odds for selecting the black male candidate over the black female for team membership is 58.9% times higher for white male respondents relative to black female respondents.

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

The partner selection patterns from profile pool three of choice situation one, which is composed of white male and black male candidates, were significantly associated with respondents' race and gender at the .001 alpha level. When given a choice to select a white male or a black male for team membership, white male respondents were likely to choose a white male over black male for team membership. White female respondents were also likely to choose a white male over a black male for team membership. Black male respondents, however, were likely to choose a black male over a white male for team membership. Black female respondents were also likely to choose a black male over a white male for team membership White males and females under selected black male candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. Conversely, black males and females under selected white male candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. The power of this effect shows a 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis.

The partner selection patterns from profile pool four of choice situation one, which is composed of white male and black female candidates, were significantly associated with respondents' race and gender at the .001 alpha level. When given a choice to select a white male or a black female for team membership, white male respondents were likely to choose a white male over black female for team membership. White female respondents were also likely to choose a white male over a black female for team membership. Black male respondents, however, were likely to choose a black female over a white male for team membership. Black female respondents were also likely to choose a black female over a white male for team membership White males and females under selected black female candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. Conversely, black males and females under

selected white male candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. The power of this effect shows a 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis.

The partner selection patterns from profile pool five of choice situation one, which is composed of white female and black male candidates, were significantly associated with respondents' race and gender at the .001 alpha level. When given a choice to select a white female or a black male for team membership, white male respondents were likely to choose a white female over black male for team membership. White female respondents were also likely to choose a white female over a black male for team membership. Black male respondents, however, were likely to choose a black male over a white female for team membership. Black female respondents were also likely to choose a black male over a white female for team membership White males and females under selected black male candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. Conversely, black males and females under selected white female candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. The power of this effect shows a 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis.

The partner selection patterns from profile pool six of choice situation one, which is composed of white female and black female candidates, were significantly associated with respondents' race and gender at the .001 alpha level. When given a choice to select a white female or a black female for team membership, white male respondents were likely to choose a white female over black female for team membership. White female respondents were also likely to choose a white female over a black female for team membership. Black male respondents, however, were likely to choose a black female over a white female for team membership. Black female respondents were also likely to choose a black female over a white female for team

membership White males and females under selected black female candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis.

Conversely, black males and females under selected white male candidates relative to the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis. The power of this effect shows a 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. Similar to the results by respondent's race, partner selection patterns from profile pool seven of choice situation one, which is composed of black male and black female candidates, differs at the level of significance compared to the previous four profile pools. The selection patterns for profile pool seven were significantly associated with respondents' race and gender at the .01 alpha level. The power of this effect shows a 75.3% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. Similar to the results associated with the partner choices by gender and race, respectively, the second profile pool in choice situation one, also shows no statistically significant result by race and gender of the respondent.

Choice Situation Two

In this section, I address the four profile pools associated with choice situation two. The first profile pool I test in this choice situation, contains a white male, a white female, and a black male cross-tabbed by race and gender. The second profile pool I test, contains a white female, a white male, and a black female cross-tabbed by race and gender. The third profile pool I test, contains a black male, a black female, and a white male cross-tabbed by race and gender. The last profile pool I test from choice situation two, contains a black male, a black female, and a white female cross-tabbed by race and gender.

Table 5.46 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #2: Select One of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race & Gender	White Male	White Female	Black Male	Row Total
White Males	58 45	156 139	50 80	264
White Females	50 46	161 142	59 81	270
Black Males	28 39	112 119	85 68	225
Black Females	41 46	113 142	116 81	270
Column Total	177	542	310	1029

$\chi^2 = 54.51$ *d.f.* = 6 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.46 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =6, n = 1029) = 54.51, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *greater* (than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting and the black male candidate as team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed

frequency) number of black female participants selecting and the black male candidate as team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, both race and gender having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.47 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #2: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Male					
	White Males	3.282	.000	1.952	5.518
	White Females	2.398	.001	1.428	4.027
	Black Males	.932	.804	.534	1.625
	Black Females	0[b]			
White Female					
	White Males	3.203	.000	2.124	4.829
	White Females	2.801	.000	1.887	4.158
	Black Males	1.353	.122	.922	1.984
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Male.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.47 illustrates the odds ratio for selection of the white male over the black male and the white female over the black male by race and gender of the respondent. The results show that the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black male candidate is 3.28 times higher for white males compared to black females. For white females, the odds for selecting a

white male candidate over a black male candidate is 2.40 times higher than the odds of for black females. The strength of both odds, white males' and white females', are significant at the .001 alpha level, respectively. Finally, for black males, the results show the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black male candidate is .932 times lower than the odds for black females. However, the strength of this measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level. Additionally, the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black male candidate is 3.20 times higher for white males compared to black females. For white females, the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black male candidate are, interestingly, 2.80 times higher than for black females.. Additionally, the strength of these measurements is significant at the .001 alpha level. Finally, for black males, the results show the odds of selecting a white female candidate over a black male candidate is 1.35 times higher than for black females. However, the strength for this particular measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level.

Table 5.48 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #2: Select One of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race & Gender	White Female	White Male	Black Female	Row Total
White Males	86 60	122 118	56 87	264
White Females	61 61	166 120	43 89	270
Black Males	45 51	75 100	105 74	225
Black Females	40 61	95 120	135 89	270
Column Total	232	458	339	1029

$\chi^2 = 120.29$ *d.f.* = 6 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.48 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =6, n = 1029) = 120.29, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *approximately the same* as the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting

the white female candidate and the black female candidate as a team member was *greater t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as a team member was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* as the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white male candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* as the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one white

male candidate, and one black female candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, both race and gender having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.49 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #2: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
White Male					
	White Males	5.183	.000	3.183	8.440
	White Females	4.788	.000	2.829	8.103
	Black Males	1.446	.145	.880	2.376
	Black Females	0[b]			
White Female					
	White Males	3.096	.000	2.052	4.670
	White Females	5.486	.000	3.583	8.399
	Black Males	1.015	.941	.683	1.508
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Black Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.49 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member selection of a white male or white female over a black female by race and gender of the respondent. The reference category is the black female candidate. The results show that the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black female candidate is 5.18 times higher for white males compared to white females, black males, and black females. For white females, the odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black female candidate is 4.79 times higher than the odds of black males and black females. The strength of both odds for white males and white females are significant at the .001 alpha level, respectively. Finally, for black males, the results show the

odds for selecting a white male candidate over a black female candidate is 1.45 times higher than black females. However, the strength of this measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level.

Additionally, the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black female candidate is 3.10 times higher for white males compared to black males and black females. For white females, the odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black female candidate are 5.49 times higher than the odds of white males, black males, and black females. Additionally, the strength of these measurements is significant at the .05 alpha level. Finally, for black males, the results show their odds for selecting a white female candidate over a black female candidate is 1.02 times higher than black females. However, the strength for this particular measurement is not significant at the .05 alpha level.

Table 5.50 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #2: Select One of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race & Gender	Black Male	Black Female	White Male	Row Total
White Males	74 78	79 100	111 86	264
White Females	78 80	99 102	93 88	270
Black Males	71 66	98 85	56 74	225
Black Females	80 80	113 102	77 88	270
Column Total	303	389	337	1029

$\chi^2 = 21.04$ *d.f.* = 6 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.50 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (df =6, n = 1029) = 21.04, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed

frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *greater*) than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *greater* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *approximately the same* as the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *greater t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence

the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, both race and gender having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.51 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #2: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Black Male					
	White Males	.642	.043	.418	.986
	White Females	.807	.334	.523	1.246
	Black Males	1.220	.406	.763	1.952
	Black Females	0[b]			
Black Female					
	White Males	.485	.001	.322	.730
	White Females	.725	.120	.484	1.088
	Black Males	1.192	.431	.770	1.848
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: White Male.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.51 illustrates the odds ratio (OR) measurement for the team member selection of a black male or black female over a white male by race and gender of the respondent. The base category is the white male candidate. The parameter for black females is set to zero because they are the reference group against which the odd ratios of the other groups' selection patterns are measured. Thus, this odds ratio table shows how similar the selection patterns of white males, white females, and black males are to black females' selection patterns –respectively. The closer a group's OR value is to one (1.00), the more similar their selection pattern is to the reference group – black females.

The results show that the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a white male candidate is .642 times lower for white males compared to black females. For white females, the

OR for selecting a black male candidate over a white candidate is .807 times lower than black females. Finally, for black males, the results show the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a white candidate is .220 times higher than black females.

When comparing the ORs of these three groups against the black females, the OR value for white male's selection patterns is significantly less similar to the selection patterns of black females. The selection patterns of white females and black males are not significantly different than the reference group selections compared to white males. Thus, when given the option of selecting a black male, a black female, or a white male candidate, white male respondents' partner selection patterns are not only significantly less likely to resemble the selection patterns of black females, they also reflect a type of racial and gender aversion against the black candidates.

Table 5.52 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #2: Select One of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race & Gender	Black Male	Black Female	White Female	Row Total
White Males	55 58	59 97	150 109	264
White Females	46 59	90 100	134 111	270
Black Males	57 49	94 83	74 93	225
Black Females	67 59	137 100	66 111	270
Column Total	225	380	424	1029

$\chi^2 = 79.29$ *d.f.* = 6 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.52 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring

participants to select one out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =6, n = 1029) = 79.29, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *greater t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black male candidate as a team member was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black female candidate as a team member was *greater t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white female candidate as a team member was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select one out of three team members from a profile pool containing one black male candidate, one black female candidate, and one white female candidate. In other words, both race and gender are having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.53 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #2: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidate[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Black Male					
	White Males	.361	.000	.228	.572
	White Females	.338	.000	.210	.545
	Black Males	.759	.264	.467	1.232
	Black Females	0[b]			
Black Female					
	White Males	.189	.000	.124	.289
	White Females	.324	.000	.218	.481
	Black Males	.612	.023	.401	.934
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: White Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.53 illustrates the odds ratio (OR) measurement for the team member selection of a black male or black female over a white male by race and gender of the respondent. The base category is the white male candidate. The parameter for black females is set to zero because they are the reference group against which the odd ratios of the other groups' selection patterns are measured. Thus, this odds ratio table shows how similar the selection patterns of white males, white females, and black males are to black females' selection patterns –respectively. The closer a group's OR value is to one (1.00), the more similar their selection pattern is to the reference group – black females.

The results show that the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a white female candidate is .361 times lower for white males compared to black females. For white females, the OR for selecting a black male candidate over a white female candidate is .338 times lower than black females. Finally, for black males, the results show the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a white female candidate is .759 times lower than black females.

When comparing the ORs of these three groups against the black females, the OR value for white male's selection patterns is significantly less similar to the selection patterns of black females. The selection patterns of white females and black males are not significantly different than the reference group selections compared to white males. Thus, when given the option of selecting a black male, a black female, or a white female candidate, white male respondents' partner selection patterns are not only significantly less likely to resemble the selection patterns of black females, they also reflect a type of racial and gender aversion against the black candidates. Additionally, the results show that the odds for selecting a black female candidate over a white female candidate is .189 times lower for white males compared to black females. For white females, the OR for selecting a black female candidate over a white female candidate is .324 times lower than black females. Finally, for black males, the results show the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a white female candidate is .612 times lower than black females. When comparing the ORs of these three groups against the black females, the OR value for all three groups is statistically significant. Thus, when given the opportunity to select a black female over a white female for a problem-solving team, white males, white females, and black males are significantly less likely to do so compared to black women. In addition to the racial aversive decision-making behaviors by whites, this result suggests that an intersectional status effect whereby the status profile of being a black female adversely impacts black males' perceptions of black women's everyday competence. The chi-square and OR results, illustrated in Table 5.46 - 5.53 above, regarding the association of team member selection patterns by the intersections of race and gender of the respondent were similar to the results by race. The summary table below, Table 5.54, summarizes the status effects for the profile pools by respondents' race and gender.

Table 5.54 Measures of Association Summary for Choice Situation II by Race and Gender

MEASURES OF ASSOCIATION TABLE SUMMARY						
Choices by Race & Gender of Respondent						
Choice Situation	**Profile Pool**	χ^2	**n**	**df**	**V**	**Comments/Notes**
II.	White Male, White Female, & Black Male	54.509^{***}	1029	6	0.163^{***}	The odds for selecting the white male for team membership rather than the black male candidate is 282.2% times higher for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting the white male for team membership rather than the black male candidate is139.8% times higher for white female respondents relative to black female respondents. The odds for selecting the white female for team membership rather than the black male candidate, however, is 220.3% times higher for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Further, the odds for selecting the white female for team membership rather than the black male candidate is180.1% times higher for white female respondents relative to black female respondents.
	White Female, White Male, & Black Female	120.285^{***}	1029	6	0.242^{***}	The odds for selecting the white male for team membership rather than the black female candidate is 418.3% times higher for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting the white male for team membership rather than the black female candidate is 378.8% times higher for white female respondents relative to black female respondents. The odds for selecting the white female for team membership rather than the black female candidate, however, is 209.6% times higher for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Further, the odds for selecting the white female for team membership rather than the black female candidate is 448.6% times higher for white female respondents relative to black female respondents.
	Black Male, Black Female, & White Male	21.042^{***}	1029	6	0.101^{**}	The odds for selecting the black male for team membership rather than the white male candidate is 51.5% times lesser for white male respondents relative to black female respondents.

$^{*}p < .05$

$^{**}p < .01$

$^{***}p < .001$

Table 5.55 (Continued) Measures of Association Summary for Choice Situation II by Race and Gender

MEASURES OF ASSOCIATION TABLE SUMMARY						
Choices by Race & Gender of Respondent						
Choice Situation	**Profile Pool**	**χ^2**	**n**	**df**	**V**	**Comments/Notes**
II.	Black Female, Black Male, & White Female	79.295***	1029	6	0.196***	The odds for selecting the black male for team membership rather than the white female candidate is 63.9% times lesser for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting the black male for team membership rather than the white male candidate is 66.2% times lesser for white female respondents relative to black female respondents. The odds for selecting the black female for team membership rather than the white female candidate, however, is 81.1% times lesser for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Further, the odds for selecting the black female for team membership rather than the white female candidate is 67.6% times lesser for white female respondents relative to black female respondents. Lastly, the odds for selecting the black female for team membership rather than the white female candidate is 38.8% times lesser for black male respondents relative to black female respondents.

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

Table 5.54 displays the statistical results for choice situation two by respondents' race and gender. In this condition, one out of the four profile pools were statistically significant at the .05 alpha level, the remaining three profile pools were statistically significant at the .001 alpha level. The partner selection patterns from the first profile pool of choice situation two, which is composed of a white male, a white female, and a black male, were significantly associated with respondents' race and gender at the .001 alpha level. The statistical power of race and gender on the partner-selection patterns relevant to this pool, shows a 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis.

White male selection patterns in this pool greatly favor white female candidates over male candidates (across race). White males were least likely to choose black male candidates when white male, and white female candidates were also in the pool. White female selection patterns in this pool also greatly favor white female candidates over male candidates (across race). White females were least likely to choose black male candidates when white male, and white female candidates were also in the pool. Black male selection patterns in this pool greatly favor black male candidates over whites (across gender). Black males were least likely to choose white male candidates when white female, and black male candidates are also in the pool. Likewise, black female selection patterns in this pool greatly favor black male candidates over whites (across gender). Black females were also least likely to choose white male candidates when white female, and black male candidates are also in the pool.

The partner selection patterns from the second profile pool of choice situation two, which is composed of a white female, a white male, and a black female, were significantly associated with respondents' race and gender at the .001 alpha level. The statistical power of race and gender on the partner-selection patterns relevant to this pool, also shows a 100.00% chance of

rejecting the null hypothesis. White male selection patterns in this pool greatly favor white female candidates over white male or black female candidates. White males were least likely to choose black female candidates when white male and white female candidates were also in the pool. White female selection patterns in this pool greatly favor white female candidates over white male or black female candidates.

Similarly, to white males, white female respondents were least likely to choose black female candidates when white male and white female candidates were also in the pool. Conversely, black male selection patterns in this pool greatly favor black female candidates over white candidates (across gender). Although the selection of white candidates (across gender) were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, black males were least likely to choose white male candidates when female candidates (across race) were also in the pool.

The partner selection patterns from the third profile pool of choice situation two, which is composed of a black male, a black female, and a white male, were significantly associated with respondents' race and gender at the .01 alpha level. The statistical power of race and gender on the partner-selection patterns relevant to profile pool three shows a 95.2% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. White male selection patterns in this pool greatly favor white male candidates over black candidates (across gender). Although the selection of black candidates (across gender) were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, white male respondents were least likely to choose black female candidates when male candidates (across race) were also in the pool. White female selection patterns in this pool greatly favor white male candidates over black candidates (across gender).

Although the selection of black candidates (across gender) were marginally under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, white female respondents were least likely to

choose black female candidates when male candidates (across race) were also in the pool. Black male selection patterns in this pool greatly favor black female candidates over males (across race). Black male respondents were least likely to choose white male candidates when black candidates (across gender) were also in the pool.

The last statistically significant profile pool of choice situation two, at the .001 alpha level, includes a black female, a black male, and a white female. The statistical power of race and gender on the partner-selection patterns relevant to this pool shows a 100% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. White male selection patterns in this pool greatly favor white female candidates over black candidates (across gender). Although the selection of black candidates (across gender) were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, white male respondents were least likely to choose black female candidates when white female and black male candidates were also in the pool. White female selection patterns in this pool greatly favor white female candidates over black candidates (across gender).

Although the selection of black candidates (across gender) were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, white female respondents were least likely to choose black male candidates when white female and black female candidates were also in the pool. Conversely, black male selection patterns for this pool greatly favor black female candidates over black male and white female candidates. Black males were least likely to choose white female candidates when black female and black male candidates were also in the pool. Likewise, black female selection patterns for this pool greatly favor black female candidates over black male and white female candidates. Black females were also least likely to choose white female candidates when black female and black male candidates were also in the pool.

Choice Situation Three

In this section, I examine the four profile pools belonging to choice situation three. The first profile pool I test in this choice situation, contains a white female, a black female, and a black male cross-tabbed by race and gender. The second profile pool I test, contains a white male, a black male, and a black female cross-tabbed by race and gender. The third profile pool I test, contains a white male, a white female, and a black female cross-tabbed by race and gender. The last profile pool I test from choice situation three, contains a white male, a white female, and a black male cross-tabbed by race and gender.

Table 5.56 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #3: Select Two of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race & Gender	White Female & Black Male (Team HiLo)	White Female & Black Female (Team Female)	Black Male & Black Female (Team Black)	Row Total
White Males	71 69	131 120	61 74	263
White Females	87 71	128 123	55 76	270
Black Males	55 58	106 102	62 63	223
Black Females	55 71	104 123	111 76	270
Column Total	268	469	289	1026

$\chi^2 = 36.09$ *d.f.* = 6 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.55 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing

one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." "Team HiLo" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates have one high and one low status characteristic. "Team Female" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black female candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to gender (female). The reference category, "Team Black," represents the selection of a black female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to race (black).The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (df =6, n = 1026) = 36.09, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white female candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female

participants selecting the white female candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white female candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *approximately the same* as the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white female candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black female candidate and the

black male candidate as team members was *greater*) than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is an association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race and gender are having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.57 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #3: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidates[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Team HiLo (WF&BM)	White Males	2.349	.000	1.467	3.761
	White Females	3.192	.000	2.000	5.094
	Black Males	1.790	.019	1.101	2.911
	Black Females	0[b]			
Team Female					
	White Males	2.292	.000	1.529	3.436
	White Females	2.484	.000	1.642	3.758
	Black Males	1.825	.004	1.209	2.755
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Team Black.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.56 illustrates the odds ratio (OR) measurement for the team member selection when respondents are given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team HiLo" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both

candidates have one high and one low status characteristic. “Team Female” represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black female candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to gender (female). The reference category, “Team Black,” represents the selection of a black female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to race (black). The results show that the odds for selecting Team HiLo (a white female and a black male) over Team Black (a black female and black male candidate) is for white males 2.349 times the odds for black females. The odds for selecting Team Female over Team Black, however, is for white males 2.292 times higher for white males compared to black females.

The odds for selecting Team HiLo (a white female and a black male) over Team Black (a black female and black male candidate) is 2.192 times higher for white females compared to black females. The odds for selecting Team Female (a white female candidate and a black female candidate) over Team Black, however, is 1.484 times higher for white females compared to black females. Lastly, the odds for selecting Team HiLo (a white female and a black male) over Team Black (a black female and black male candidate) is .790 times higher for black males compared to black females. The odds for selecting Team Female (a white female candidate and a black female candidate) over Team Black, however, is 1.825 times higher for black males compared to black females. Furthermore, the strength for all the OR measurements is significant.

The results show that the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a white female candidate is .361 times lower for white males compared to black females. For white females, the OR for selecting a black male candidate over a white female candidate is .338 times lower than

black females. Finally, for black males, the results show the odds for selecting a black male candidate over a white female candidate is .759 times lower than black females.

When comparing the ORs of these three groups against the black females, the OR value for white male's selection patterns is significantly higher than the selection patterns of black females. The selection patterns of white females and black males are also significantly higher than the partner-choice patterns of black females. Thus, when given the option of selecting "Team HiLo" over "Team Black," white males, white females, and black males are significantly more likely to select "Team HiLo" over "Team Black" relative to black females' partner-choice patterns. Similar to the results in Table 5.54, there appears to be an intersectional status effect that negatively impacts the status profile of black female, as well, as well as, blackness across gender categories.

Table 5.58 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #3: Select Two of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race & Gender	White Male & Black Male (Team Male)	White Male & Black Female (Team Intersectional)	Black Male & Black Female (Team Black)	Row Total
White Males	107 82	76 79	81 103	264
White Females	98 84	75 80	97 106	270
Black Males	57 70	63 67	105 88	225
Black Females	58 84	92 80	120 106	270
Column Total	320	306	403	1029

$\chi^2 = 33.43$ *d.f.* = 6 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.57 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team Male" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (masculinity). "Team Intersectional" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black female candidate, as one candidate has two high status characteristics and the other has two low status characteristics relevant to both race and gender (Intersectionality). "Team Black," represents the selection of a black female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to race (black). The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (df =6, n = 1029) = 33.43, $p <$ .001.

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white male candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male

participants selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white male candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white male candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *greater t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white male candidate

and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *greater t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black female candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there **is** a significant association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race and gender are having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.59 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #3: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidates[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Team Male (WM&BM)	White Males	2.733	.000	1.785	4.185
	White Females	2.090	.001	1.372	3.184
	Black Males	1.123	.613	.716	1.761
	Black Females	0[b]			
Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	White Males	1.224	.339	.809	1.852
	White Females	1.009	.967	.672	1.513
	Black Males	.783	.246	.517	1.184
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Team Black.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.58 illustrates the odds ratio measurement for the team member when respondents are given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate for team membership. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team Male" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (masculinity). "Team Intersectional" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black female candidate, as one candidate has two high status characteristics and the other has two low status characteristics relevant to both race and gender (Intersectionality). The reference category, "Team Black," represents the selection of a black female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to race (black). The results show that the odds for selecting Team Male (a white male and a black male) over Team Black (a black female and black male candidate) is 1.733 times higher for white male respondents compared to black female respondents.

Furthermore, the strength for this particular measurement is significant at the .001 alpha level. Similar to the white male respondents, white females 1.090 more likely than black females to select "Team Male" over "Team Black." The strength for this particular measurement is also significant at the .001 alpha level. Interestingly, the odds for selecting Team Intersectional (a white male candidate and a black female candidate) over Team Black, however, is not significant across all three demographic categories relative to black females' partner choice patterns. These results continue to echo previous findings, white respondents' decision-making behaviors, regardless of gender identity, consistently reflect a type of racial aversion against the black candidates.

Table 5.60 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #3: Select Two of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race & Gender	White Male & White Female (Team White)	White Male & Black Female (Team Intersectional)	White Female & Black Female (Team Female)	Row Total
White Males	104 72	56 67	104 125	264
White Females	95 73	67 69	108 128	270
Black Males	35 61	59 57	131 106	225
Black Females	46 73	80 69	144 128	270
Column Total	280	262	487	1029

$\chi^2 = 60.30$ *d.f.* = 6 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.59 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black female candidate. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team White" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a white female candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (white). "Team Intersectional" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black female candidate, as one candidate has two high status characteristics and the other has two low status characteristics relevant to both race and gender (Intersectionality). The reference category, "Team Female" represents the selection of a white

female candidate, and a black female candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to gender (female).

Additionally, the dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team White" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a white female candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (white). "Team Intersectional" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black female candidate, as one candidate has two high status characteristics and the other has two low status characteristics relevant to both race and gender (Intersectionality). "Team Female" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black female candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to gender (female). The result is not statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (df =6, n = 1029) = 60.30, $p < .001$.

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white female candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white female candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white

female candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white female candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white female candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white female candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black female candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white male candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white male candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black

female participants selecting the white female candidate and the black female candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is an association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one white male candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race and gender are having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.61 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #3: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidates[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Team White (WM&WF)	White Males	3.130	.000	2.038	4.808
	White Females	2.754	.000	1.789	4.239
	Black Males	.836	.483	.508	1.378
	Black Females	0[b]			
Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	White Males	.969	.885	.634	1.482
	White Females	1.117	.597	.742	1.682
	Black Males	.811	.317	.537	1.223
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Team Female.

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.60 illustrates the odds ratio (OR) measurement for the team member respondents are given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black female candidate for team membership. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team White" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a white female candidate, as both

candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (white). "Team Intersectional" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black female candidate, as one candidate has two high status characteristics and the other has two low status characteristics relevant to both race and gender (Intersectionality). The reference category, "Team Female" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black female candidate, as both candidates share a low status characteristic relevant to gender (female).

The results show that the odds for selecting Team White (a white male and a white female) over Team Female (a white female and black female candidate) is 3.13 times higher for white male respondents compared to black female respondents. The strength for this particular measurement is significant at the .001 alpha level. Similar to the white male respondents, white females 2.75 times more likely than black females to select "Team White" over "Team Female." The strength for this particular measurement is also significant at the .001 alpha level. Interestingly, the odds for selecting Team Intersectional (a white male candidate and a black female candidate) over Team Female, however, is not significant across all three demographic categories relative to black females' partner choice patterns. These results continue to echo previous findings, white male and female respondents' decision-making behaviors, consistently reflect a type of racial aversion against the black candidates. Moreover, the intersectional status effect is also clear – white respondents' racial aversion extends to gender to the extent that the status profile of black women significantly reduces selection opportunities for team membership.

Table 5.62 χ2 Results By Race & Gender

	Profile Pool For Choice Situation #3: Select Two of Three Candidates for Team Membership			
Race & Gender	White Male & White Female (Team White)	White Male & Black Male (Team Male)	White Female & Black Male (Team HiLo)	Row Total
White Males	118 99	47 47	96 115	261
White Females	129 101	35 48	102 118	266
Black Males	49 84	42 40	131 98	222
Black Females	88 100	58 48	119 117	265
Column Total	384	182	448	1014

$\chi^2 = 49.97$ *d.f.* = 6 p = .001

Chi-Square Results:

Table 5.61 shows a chi-square test that assesses if there is a significant association between race and gender in the "keep category," with team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three candidates as team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate. The dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team White" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a white female candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (white). "Team Male" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (masculinity). "Team HiLo" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates have one high and one low status characteristic. The result is statistically significant at an alpha level of .001, χ^2 (*df* =6, n = 1014) = 49.97, $p <$ .001.

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white female candidate, one black female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white female candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the white male candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *approximately the same* as the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white male participants selecting the black male candidate and the white female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white female candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the white male candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of white female participants selecting the black male candidate and the white female candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white female candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *lower* than the hypothesized number

(expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the white male candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *higher* than the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black male participants selecting the black male candidate and the white female candidate as team members was *greater* (than the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

When given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate, the (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white female candidate and the white male candidate as team members was *lower t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the white male candidate and the black male candidate as team members was *greater t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency). The (observed frequency) number of black female participants selecting the black male candidate and the white female candidate as team members was *greater t*han the hypothesized number (expected frequency).

The Chi-square results suggest that there is an association between race-gender intersections and team member selection in choice situations requiring participants to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate. It appears that race and gender may influence the selection of two team members differing by race and gender. In other words, race and gender are having an impact on people's partner selection patterns. The differences between the observed and expected frequencies are large enough to reject the null hypothesis.

Table 5.63 Odds Ratios For Choice Situation #3: By Race & Gender

Selected Candidates[a]		OR Value	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval for OR Value	
				Lower	Upper
Team White (WM&WF)	White Males	1.662	.010	1.131	2.444
	White Females	1.710	.005	1.171	2.497
	Black Males	.506	.002	.330	.776
	Black Females	0[b]			
Team Male (WM&BM)	White Males	1.004	.985	.628	1.606
	White Females	.704	.165	.429	1.156
	Black Males	.658	.080	.412	1.051
	Black Females	0[b]			

a. The reference category is: Team HiLo (WF&BM).

b. This parameter is set to zero because it is redundant.

Table 5.62 illustrates the odds ratio (OR) measurement for the team member when respondents are given the opportunity to select two out of three team members from a profile pool containing one white male candidate, one white female candidate, and one black male candidate for team membership. Additionally, the dual selection of candidates is coded as "teams." Thus, "Team White" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a white female candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (white). "Team Male" represents the selection of a white male candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates share a high status characteristic relevant to race (masculinity). The reference category, "Team HiLo" represents the selection of a white female candidate, and a black male candidate, as both candidates have one high and one low status characteristic.

The results show that the odds for selecting Team White (a white male and a white female) over Team HiLo (a white female and black male candidate) is 1.662 times higher for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Similar to the white male respondents, white females are 1.710 times more likely than black females to select "Team

White" over "Team Female." However, unlike white male and female respondents, black male respondents are .506 times less likely to select Team White over Team HiLo relative to the decision-making behaviors of black females. The OR measurement strength for all three demographic groups are significant at the .01 alpha level. Interestingly, the results show that the odds for selecting Team Male (a white male and a black male) over Team HiLo (a white female and black male candidate) is not significant across demographic groups. The chi-square and OR results, illustrated in Table 5.55 - 5.62 above, regarding the association of team member selection patterns by the intersections of race and gender of the respondent were similar to the results by race. The summary table below, Table 5.63, summarizes the status effects for the profile pools by respondents' race and gender.

Table 5.64 Measures of Association Summary by Race & Gender

MEASURES OF ASSOCIATION TABLE SUMMARY						
Choices by Race & Gender of Respondent						
Choice Situation	**Profile Pool**	**χ^2**	**n**	**df**	**V**	**Comments/Notes**
III.	White Female, Black Female, & Black Male	36.086***	1026	6	0.133***	The odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a black male (Team HiLo) over a team consisting of a black female and a black male (Team Black) is 134.9% times greater for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. The odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a black male (Team HiLo) over a team consisting of a black female and a black male (Team Black), however, is 219.2% times greater for white female respondents relative to black female respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a black male (Team HiLo) over a team consisting of a black female and a black male (Team Black) is 79.0% times greater for black male respondents relative to black female respondents. The odds ratio for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a black female (Team Female) over a team consisting of a black female and a black male (Team Black) 129.2% times greater for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Additionally, the odds ratio for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a black female (Team Female) over a team consisting of a black female and a black male (Team Black) is 148.4% times greater for white female respondents relative to black female respondents. Lastly, the odds ratio for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a black female (Team Female) over a team consisting of a black female and a black male (Team Black) is 82.5% times greater for black male respondents relative to black female respondents.
	White Male, Black Male, & Black Female	33.426***	1029	6	0.127***	The odds for selecting a team consisting of a white male and a black male (Team Male) over a team consisting of a black male and a black female (Team Black) is 173.3% times greater for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting a team consisting of a white male and a black male (Team Male) over a team consisting of a black male and a black female (Team Black) is 190.0% times greater for white female respondents relative to black female respondents.

*$p < .05$

**$p < .01$

***$p < .001$

Table 5.65 (Continued) Measures of Association Summary for Choice Situation III by Race & Gender

MEASURES OF ASSOCIATION TABLE SUMMARY						
Choices by Race & Gender of Respondent						
Choice Situation	**Profile Pool**	χ^2	**n**	**df**	**V**	**Comments/Notes**
III.	White Male, White Female, & Black Female	60.298***	1029	6	0.171***	The odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a white male (Team White) over a team consisting of a black female and a white female (Team Female) is 213.0% times greater for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. Additionally, the odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a white male (Team White) over a team consisting of a black female and a white female (Team Female) is 175.4% times greater for white female respondents relative to black female respondents.
	White Male, White Female, & Black Male	49.969***	1014	6	0.157***	The odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a white male (Team White) over a team consisting of a black male and a white female (Team HiLo) is 66.2% times greater for white male respondents relative to black female respondents. The odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a white male (Team White) over a team consisting of a black male and a white female (Team HiLo), however, is 71.0% times greater for white female respondents relative to black female respondents. Lastly, the odds for selecting a team consisting of a white female and a white male (Team White) over a team consisting of a black male and a white female (Team HiLo) is 49.4% times lesser for black male respondents relative to black female respondents.

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

Table 5.63 illustrates the statistical results for profile pools of choice situation three by respondents' race and gender. Similar to Table 5.54, the results for each profile pool were also statistically significant at the .001 alpha level. The statistical power of race and gender on the partner-selection patterns relevant to the first profile pool of this choice situation shows 99.9% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. White male selection patterns in this pool greatly favor joining white female and black female candidates as teammates over other combinations from a pool that includes a white female, a black female, and a black male candidate. White males were least likely to form a team by choosing a black female and a black male candidate as teammates compared to alternative combinations. White female selection patterns in this pool greatly favor joining white female and black male candidates as teammates over other combinations from a pool consisting of a white female, a black female, and a black male candidate. Similarly to white males, white females were least likely to form a team by choosing a black female and a black male candidate as teammates compared to alternative combinations.

Like white males, black male selection patterns, greatly favor joining white female and black female candidates as teammates over other combinations from a profile pool that includes a white female, a black female, and a black male candidate. Black male respondents were least likely to select a white female and a black male candidate as teammates compared to alternative combinations from profile pool one. Black female selection patterns, however, greatly favor joining black candidates (across gender) as teammates over other combinations from a profile pool that includes a white female, a black female, and a black male candidate. Although the selection of two racially different female candidates, as well as, the selection of one white female candidate and one black male candidate as teammates were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, black female respondents were least likely to select a white female and a

black female candidate as teammates compared to alternative combinations from profile pool one.

The statistical power of race and gender on the partner-selection patterns relevant to the second profile pool of choice situation three shows 99.7% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. This profile pool includes a white male, a black male, and a black female candidate, from which respondents must select two as teammates. White male selection patterns in this pool greatly favor joining white male and black male candidates as teammates over other candidate combinations. Although the selection of two black candidates (across gender), as well as the selection of a white male candidate and one black female candidate, as teammates were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, white male respondents were least likely to form a team by choosing a black female and a black male candidates as teammates compared to alternative combinations. Similar to white males, white female selection patterns in this pool greatly favor joining white male and black male candidates as teammates over other candidate combinations.

Although the selection of two black candidates (across gender), as well as the selection of a white male candidate and one black female candidate, as teammates were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, white female respondents were least likely to form a team by choosing a black female and a black male candidates as teammates compared to alternative combinations within this particular profile pool. Black male respondent selection patterns, on the other hand, greatly favor joining black female and black male candidates as teammates over other combinations from a profile pool that includes a white male, a black female, and a black male candidate. Although the selection of two male candidates (across race), as well as, the selection of a white male candidate and a black female candidate as teammates

were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, black males were least likely to select a white male and a black male candidate as teammates compared to alternative candidate combinations within a particular profile pool. Similarly, black female selection patterns greatly favor joining black female and black male candidates as teammates over other combinations from a profile pool that includes a white male, a black female, and a black male candidate. Black females were least likely to select a white male and a black male candidate as teammates compared to alternative candidate combinations within this profile pool.

The statistical power of race and gender on the partner-selection patterns relevant to the third profile pool of choice situation three shows 100.00% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. This profile pool includes a white male, a white female, and a black female candidate, from which respondents must select two as teammates. White male selection patterns in this pool greatly favor joining white male and white female candidates as teammates over other candidate combinations. Although the selection of two racially different female candidates, as well as, the selection of one white male candidate and one black female candidate as teammates were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, white male respondents were least likely to form a team by choosing a black female and a white female candidates as teammates compared to alternative combinations. Similarly, white female selection patterns in this pool greatly favor joining white male and white female candidates as teammates over other candidate combinations.

Although the selection of two racially different female candidates, as well as, the selection of one white male candidate and one black female candidate as teammates were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, white female respondents were least likely to form a team by choosing a black female and a white female candidates as teammates

compared to alternative combinations. Black male respondents' selection patterns, on the other hand, greatly favor joining white female and black female candidates as teammates over alternative combinations from a profile pool that includes a white male, a white female, and a black female candidate. Black males were least likely to select a white candidate (across gender) as teammates compared to alternative candidate combinations. Similarly to black males, black female respondents' selection patterns, on the other hand, greatly favor joining white female and black female candidates as teammates over alternative combinations from a profile pool that includes a white male, a white female, and a black female candidate. Black females were also least likely to select a white candidate (across gender) as teammates compared to alternative candidate combinations.

The last statistically significant profile pool of choice situation three, includes a white male, a white female, and a black male. The statistical power of race and gender on the partner-selection patterns relevant to this pool shows a 100% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis. White male selection patterns in this pool, once again, greatly favor joining white male and white female candidates as teammates over other candidate combinations. White males were least likely to form a team by choosing a black male and a white female candidate as teammates compared to alternative combinations. Similarly to white males, white female selection patterns in this pool also greatly favor joining white male and white female candidates as teammates over other candidate combinations.

Although the selection of two racially different male candidates, as well as, the selection of one white female candidate and one black male candidate as teammates were under the expected frequency posited by the null hypothesis, white female respondents were least likely to form a team by choosing a black male and a white female candidate as teammates compared to

alternative combinations. Black male selection patterns, on the other hand, greatly favor joining white female and black male candidates as teammates over alternative combinations from a profile pool that includes a white male, a white female, and a black male candidate. Black male respondents were least likely to select white candidates (across gender) as teammates compared to alternative candidate combinations. However, the selection patterns of black females, greatly favor joining white male and black male candidates as teammates over alternative combinations from a profile pool that includes a white male, a white female, and a black male candidate. Similarly to black males, black female respondents were least likely to select white candidates (across gender) as teammates compared to alternative candidate combinations.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I used an expectation states theoretical approach to examined two research questions: (1) do people in different demographic groups (i.e. status-identity groups) choose teammates differently? In particular, do the race and gender of choosers impact the choices they make; (2) Are the selections of candidates (or avatars) with different status profiles based on the same status generalization process regardless of the diffuse status dimension creating the difference in profiles? In particular, are race and gender (or status profiles based on race and gender) treated as equally important sources of performance expectations in selecting candidates for team membership? Using chi-square test of independence and odds ratios, I test two expectation states' informed null hypotheses answering the research questions. Overall, my data did not support these null hypotheses. Specifically, I found the majority of the profile pools (67%) illustrated significant differences by respondents' status-identity group. I found that only 3 out of the 15 (20%) profile pools illustrated significant differences by respondents' gender. With

regard to race, I found that 13 out of the 15 (87%) profile pools illustrated significant differences by respondents' race. When the intersection of respondents' race and gender is considered, the results reveal similar patterns. I found that 14 out of the 15 (93%) profile pools illustrated significant differences at the intersection of respondents' race and gender.

In sum, my findings primarily illustrated significant differences in how status-identity groups, based on respondents' race and the intersection of their race with gender, distribute their choices of partners over alternatives. That is, respondents in different demographic groups, based on status and identity, do choose teammates differently. Regarding the second research question and expectation states inform hypothesis, my findings illustrated that in absence of task relevant information, high states on different status characteristics do not have the same expectation advantage and the low states the same expectation disadvantage. In other words, race and gender, as exhibited by the status profiles of avatars, are not treated as equally important sources of performance expectations in the status generalization process of self-organizing team formation.

6. IT'S A WHITE WOMAN'S WORLD? EVALUATION OF THE SKVORETZ AND BAILEY'S (2016) PARTNER-CHOICE THEOREM

In chapter 3, I discussed the status generalization process of Skvoretz and Bailey's (2016) Partner-choice Theorem. To recall, this theorem offers a general set of equations that specify the probability of choosing one partner from a set of n alternative partners based on the values of the aggregate expectation states of the alternatives. An extension of this theorem to the choice of a subset of partners from a set of alternatives proposes two possibilities, one in which the subset is chosen sequentially and one in which the subset is chosen as a "package." In these two versions, aggregate expectation states remain the key factor that determines the chance of selection, but the two versions conceptualize differently how these aggregate expectation states are calculated. Furthermore, these models allow for other effects than that of aggregate expectation states, effects that are related to non-status attributes that vary over the alternatives. This simplest model assumes that the alternatives are equivalent on all such attributes and so the only effects on choice are from aggregate expectations states. More complex models allow for attribute effects in addition to aggregate expectation state effects.

These models fit into the hypotheses of the previous chapter in the following way. The first hypothesis that all demographic groups view the diffuse status characteristics in the same way corresponds to the models' assumption that the effect of an expectation advantage, captured by the *q* coefficient of the models, does not vary over subgroups. The second hypothesis, that different status dimensions have the same weight in determining an aggregate expectation state, is captured in how these states are calculated from the status completion diagrams and the

specification of the characteristics that are activated. Evaluation of the models must assume the validity of how these states are calculated but estimations can be used to evaluate the specific version of the first grand hypothesis captured in the models. To be precise, the models can be estimated allowing for each demographic group to have its own value of q (or for subsets of groups to have a common value) and the question answered whether the fit is better than a model with a single coefficient for all groups.

In this chapter, I evaluate these models. I begin with the exact form the models take for the specific choice situations for which data were collected. I then briefly explain how the models are estimated using maximum likelihood methods. I then present the results of estimations starting with the simplest models that estimate only a status expectations effect and following with a series of models that introduced effects of particular attributes unrelated to status profiles of the alternatives. As the reader will see, in nearly all estimations, the status effect coefficient has a sign that is the complete opposite of what is expected given the calculation of status expectations under the assumption that for race, white is the high or advantageous state and black the low or disadvantageous state, and for gender, male is the high or advantageous state and female the low or advantageous state. This observation raises the possibility that in the context of team formation this identification is in error and I therefore explore an alternative identification in which female is the high or advantageous state on gender and male is the low or disadvantageous state. The chapter ends with a report on the estimation of the same models under this identification.

MODELS

The general model equations simplify to the equations in Table 6.0 when it is assumed that alternatives are equivalent in non-status attributes. The equations show that only one parameter needs to be estimated and that is q, the effect of an aggregate expectation advantage or disadvantage on the probability of being selected. Recall that e_i is the aggregate expectation state value for alternative i and this value is calculated from the status generalization diagram that applies given the alternatives. Because there are two versions of the choice equation for the two of three situations, there are two models to be estimated. Both models use the same probability expressions for the first two types of choice situations (one of two and one of three) but the first model (called A in the following tables) uses the sequential version and the second model (called B in the following tables) uses the package version to express the probabilities of choice for the pick two of three choice situation It is important to note that the likelihood equations do not control for alternative specific effects, that is, they assume participants' selections are not influenced by non-status attributes of alternative candidates.

Table 6.0 Model Equations under the Assumption of Equal Non-status Attributes

Choice Situation	Equation
Choose one of two	$$P(B_{o_1}) = \frac{\exp[q(e_1 - e_2)]}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_2)] + 1}$$ $$P(B_{o_2}) = \frac{1}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_2)] + 1}$$
Choose one of three	$$P(B_{o_1}) = \frac{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)]}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}$$ $$P(B_{o_2}) = \frac{\exp[q(e_2 - e_3)]}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}$$ $$P(B_{o_3}) = \frac{1}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}$$
Choose two of three (sequential)	$$P(B_{o_2o_3}) = \left(\frac{\exp[q(e_2 - e_3)]}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + 1}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_2)] + 1}\right)$$ $$P(B_{o_1o_2}) = \left(\frac{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)]}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{\exp[q(e_2 - e_3)]}{\exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right) + \left(\frac{\exp[q(e_2 - e_3)]}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)]}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + 1}\right)$$ $$P(B_{o_1o_3}) = \left(\frac{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)]}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{\exp[q(e_1 - e_2)]}{\exp[q(e_1 - e_2)] + 1}\right)$$

Table 6.0 (Contunied) Model Equations under the Assumption of Equal Non-status Attributes

Choose two of three (package)	$P\left(B_{o_1 o_2}\right)=\frac{\exp\left[q\left(e_{12}-e_{23}\right)\right]}{\exp\left[q\left(e_{12}-e_{23}\right)\right]+\exp\left[q\left(e_{13}-e_{23}\right)\right]+1}$ $P\left(B_{o_1 o_3}\right)=\frac{\exp\left[q\left(e_{13}-e_{23}\right)\right]}{\exp\left[q\left(e_{12}-e_{23}\right)\right]+\exp\left[q\left(e_{13}-e_{23}\right)\right]+1}$ $P\left(B_{o_2 o_3}\right)=\frac{1}{\exp\left[q\left(e_{12}-e_{23}\right)\right]+\exp\left[q\left(e_{13}-e_{23}\right)\right]+1}$

To reiterate, the models predict that *q*, the effect of a difference in aggregate expectation states will be positive and significantly different from zero, hence a one tailed test is appropriate. They also predict that respondents from different demographic groups will not differ in their value of *q* and to test this claim I examine whether a model with group specific *q* coefficients fits better than the simpler model with a common *q* coefficient. The test statistic is the difference in likelihood ratio chi-square fit which is distributed chi-square with degrees of freedom equal to the difference in the number of coefficients estimated.

The models are estimated using maximum likelihood estimation (MLE). MLE finds the parameter estimates or estimates of hypothesized effects that provide the highest chance for the observed empirical data to occur (Kline 2011). In other words, the overall probability of the data is expressed in terms of the product of the probabilities of the specific outcomes given a specific formula for those probabilities, each of which depends on some unknown parameters whose values we want to estimate. In effect, MLE tries out various combinations of values to find that combination that maximizes the overall probability of the data. The goodness of fit of the model to the data is given by a statistic denoted G^2, which basically expresses how close predicted choice probabilities are to the observed probabilities. It is also called the residual deviance and

can be compared to the null deviance (the difference between observed probabilities and prediction probabilities of equal likelihood) for a sense of how much fit is improved over a null model. For the specific data under analysis, using criteria for good model fit proposed by expectation states researchers[17], a residual deviance equal to 2494.16 or lower, indicates a good fit.

Estimation Results I

The following tables present the parameter estimates of *q*, which measure status impact, and G^2 fit for Model A, which uses the sequential-choice equation to specify the probabilities for the choose two of three situations, and for Model B, which uses the package-selection equation. Furthermore, three different versions are estimated. Version one estimates a single parameter for all demographic groups of respondents. Version two estimates a common parameter for the two white demographic groups and a common parameter for the two black demographic groups, allowing a test of the possibility that that racial identity impacts the value of the status effect coefficient. Version three estimates a separate *q* coefficient for each of the four demographic groups, allowing for a test of "intersectionality," that is, that the status effect coefficient differs by the joint race and gender category of a respondent. The tables' bottom two rows present the results of tests of the improvement in fit of each version relative to simpler versions. **Note that no version is estimated which stipulates a common coefficient for the two male groups and a common coefficient for the two female groups based on the finding in the previous chapter that gender of a respondent rarely has a significant effect on choice.**

[17] Expectation states researchers such as, Balkwell (1991) and Fişek et al (2002), calculate this statistic by subtracting the model specific χ^2 of average from the dataset's χ^2 goodness of fit statistic, then dividing the difference by the same model specific χ^2 of average. If the result provides a quotient (i.e. the G^2) that is .9 or higher, then the model is a good fit.

Table 6.1 Models A and B: Estimates and Fit, No Avatar Specific Attributes

		A		B	
Version	Demographics	*q*	G^2	*q*	G^2
I	All	-0.210***	2559.66	-0.907***	2195.59
II	WMWF BMBF	0.109* -0.543***	2491.16	-0.124* -1.815***	1868.21
III	WM WF BM BF	0.227** -0.005ns -0.483*** -0.592***	2485.78	0.082ns -0.325*** -1.805*** -1.823***	1857.72
Fit Improvement		χ^2	*df*	χ^2	*df*
III over 1		73.88***	3	337.87***	3
II over I		68.5***	1	327.38***	1
III over II		5.38ns	2	10.49*	2

· p<.05
*p<.01
**p<.001
***p<.0001

Table 6.1 displays the MLE and G^2 results for Model A (i.e. sequential-choice) and Model B (i.e. package-selection), regardless of attributes that code for non-status features of avatars. These results assess the expectation states stipulation of Skvoretz's and Bailey's (2016) partner-choice models that white males have the most positive expectation advantage in all choice situations and black females have most negative expectation disadvantage during the partner-selection process. The results do not support the stipulation that status-identities of respondents will not affect the selection rates at which they choose partners of a particular status profile from a set of candidates of varying status characteristics, for both models. The theorem predicts positive differences from the hegemonic assumption that in a multi-characteristic diffuse status situation, where respondents activate both race and gender, the racial category of white, relative to black, is the more valued state of race and the valued state on gender would be male identity, relative to female. Thus, the value of *q*, which measures status impact, would be positive. However, in

version one, when the status impact does not differ by demographic group or diffuse status characteristic, the value of q is significantly negative in both models, Model A (-.210), and Model B (-.907). Therefore, positive expectations difference in favor of alternative o_i (i.e. white identity, and/or male identity) are associated with lower probabilities of selection (i.e. black identity, and/or female identity). If the hegemonic assumption is incorrect for the respondent population, then the aggregate expectation states calculated based on this assumption incorrectly represent the expectations respondents' hold for alternatives.

In version two, the value of q partially supports the hegemonic assumption that white identity and male identity, are the advantaged states on operative diffuse status characteristics of race and gender for Model A, but not for Model B, but only for the white racial identity groups. The q coefficient for whites in Model A is significantly positive (.109). However contrary to prediction, the q coefficients, for blacks in Model A, and for both racial categories in Model B, are negative. These findings suggest that hegemonic assumption is supported only with respect to whites' sequential style of partner-selection. However, the partner-choice estimates in Model B indicate that compliance to status norms is not racially relevant to the partner-selection patterns of both black and white respondents.

Moreover, in the last version (version three), the data further disconfirm the hegemonic assumption. Unlike version two, the coefficient of q in this version varies significantly by gendered racial categories (i.e. white males, white females, black males, and black females). I find that out of the four gendered racial groups in both models, only the q coefficients for white males are positive. However, their q coefficient is only significantly positive under the sequential model.

Conversely, although the *q* coefficients of the remaining groups are negative, the negative *q* coefficient for white females in the sequential model is not significant. In other words, the coefficient for white males is positive and significant at the .05 level (one-tail test). For white females, the coefficient is not significantly different from zero. These findings suggest that the partner-choice practices of blacks, across genders and model type, are not shaped by the presumed status norms regardless of which model of choice is used. On the other hand, for whites, the findings depend on model choice although clearly the effects are less negative and more positive particularly for white male respondents.

Additionally, the G^2 score for both models decreases as each version progresses via demographic disaggregation. The G^2 for version one under the sequential choice model is more than 2494.16. Thus, the data for this model fits poorly. However, I find that separate estimation of *q* based on the four gendered racial groups significantly improves overall fit in both models. The overall best fitting model, in terms of the smallest G^2 score, is the package model.

The general pattern in Table 6.1 is clear: teammate choice is a racialized process whereby the decision-making behaviors of white and black respondents are distinguished by the color line. Thus, black respondents' large negative *q* coefficient, disconfirms the stipulation that regardless of respondents' demographic category, the presumption that white identity and male identity, are the advantaged states on operative diffuse status characteristics of race and gender, respectively, will govern the partner-selection process of team formation.

The color line's distinction indicates a decisive contrast in how status beliefs of white and black respondents influence their partner selection patterns. For black respondents, their large negative *q* coefficient, suggest a refutation of normative status beliefs regarding racial categories

and gender categories. Hence, for this group, negative expectation advantage means a greater likelihood of selection.

Controlling for Avatar Attributes. Both models in Table 6.1 show a negative status impact effect, meaning that status advantage, as calculated assuming white is the high or advantageous state of race and male the high or advantageous state of gender, has a significant negative effect on the chance of being selected. The overall findings did not support the theorem's stipulation that the demographic categories or the status-identities of choosers will not affect the selection rates at which they choose partners of a particular status profile from a set of candidates of varying status characteristics, for both the sequential choice and package selection models. However, an additional research question emerges: do avatar attributes not related to the status dimensions influence the findings presented in Table 6.1? Thus, I present alternative analyses that examine how the models compare against the prediction, when incorporating avatar attributes. I recoded the avatars and reanalyzed the data with models incorporating avatar specific attributes. A total of eight avatar specific attributes emerged from the data: eye size, makeup style, skin tone, hair color hairstyle, facial hair, smile, and teeth.

Of these eight attributes, I present findings for four: eye size, makeup style, skin tone, and hair color. Eye size refers to the height of the lateral and medial angle of the avatars' eyes. Makeup refers to the female avatars' cosmetic application style (i.e. lite or heavy). Skin tone refers to the black avatars' shade of skin color (i.e. light, medium, or dark). Lastly, hair color refers to the shade of the avatars' hair color (light or dark). I selected these four attributes for two reasons, (1) of the eight avatar specific attributes, eye shape, makeup style, skin tone, and hair color had the best model fit scores. (2) These four attributes represent, physical aesthetic features

associated with, what I term, socio-appearance cues. These cues signal status latent metrics of beauty and attraction across race, gender, and their intersections. Additionally, they can be socially perceived as aesthetic idiosyncratic preferences.

Reanalysis I: Modeling Idiosyncratic Aesthetic Attributes

In what follows, I provide a reanalysis using alternative models that incorporate additional physical aesthetic features about the candidates. In this reanalysis, the assumption that $m_{kn} = 1$ for all o_k and o_n (see Ch.3 pg. 48) is dropped for more detailed models that allow for the estimation of attribute effects. In Skvoretz and Bailey's (2016) original specification each $m_{kn}$is a function of two parameters denoted $\mu_k$and μ_n, specifically, $m_{kn} = {\mu_k}/{\mu_n}$ where each parameter captures idiosyncratic features that make a specific alternative candidate an attractive choice. The "partner-choice model equations of appearance" in Table 6.2 outlines the mathematical formulas estimating the "controlling effects" of a particular value associated with an idiosyncratic aesthetic attribute on the q coefficient. The four choice situations formulae are expressed as follows:

Table 6.2 Partner-Choice Model Equations of Appearance Controlling for Non-Status Idiosyncratic Aesthetic Attributes

Choice Situation	Equation
Choose one of two	$$P(B_{o_1}) = \frac{\mu_1/\mu_2 \exp[q(e_1 - e_2)]}{\mu_1/\mu_2 \exp[q(e_1 - e_2)] + 1}$$ $$P(B_{o_2}) = \frac{1}{\mu_1/\mu_2 \exp[q(e_1 - e_2)] + 1}$$
Choose one of three	$$P(B_{o_1}) = \frac{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)]}{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}$$ $$P(B_{o_2}) = \frac{\mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)]}{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}$$ $$P(B_{o_3}) = \frac{1}{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}$$
Choose two of three (sequential)	$$P(B_{o_1o_2}) = \left(\frac{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)]}{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{\mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)]}{\mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right) + \left(\frac{\mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)]}{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)]}{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + 1}\right)$$ $$P(B_{o_1o_3}) = \left(\frac{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)]}{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{\mu_1/\mu_2 \exp[q(e_1 - e_2)]}{\mu_1/\mu_2 \exp[q(e_1 - e_2)] + 1}\right)$$ $$P(B_{o_2o_3}) = \left(\frac{\mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)]}{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + 1}\right) + \left(\frac{1}{\mu_1/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_1 - e_3)] + \mu_2/\mu_3 \exp[q(e_2 - e_3)] + 1}\right)\left(\frac{1}{\mu_1/\mu_2 \exp[q(e_1 - e_2)] + 1}\right)$$

Table 6.3 (Continued) Partner-Choice Model Equations of Appearance Controlling for Non-Status Idiosyncratic Aesthetic Attributes

Choose two of three (package[18])	$P(B_{o_1o_2}) = \frac{\mu_{12}/\mu_{23} \exp[q(e_{12} - e_{13})]}{\mu_{12}/\mu_{23} \exp[q(e_{12} - e_{13})] + \mu_{13}/\mu_{23} \exp[q(e_{13} - e_{13})] + 1}$ $P(B_{o_1o_2}) = \frac{\mu_{13}/\mu_{23} \exp[q(e_{13} - e_{13})]}{\mu_{12}/\mu_{23} \exp[q(e_{12} - e_{13})] + \mu_{13}/\mu_{23} \exp[q(e_{13} - e_{13})] + 1}$ $P(B_{o_1o_1}) = \frac{1}{\mu_{12}/\mu_{23} \exp[q(e_{12} - e_{13})] + \mu_{13}/\mu_{23} \exp[q(e_{13} - e_{13})] + 1}$

In the sequential-choice and package-selection equation models, two estimations are made: the first claims that all respondents have the same value for *q*, the status effect coefficient, the second allows different demographic groups of respondents to have different values of *q*. Again each of the two estimations has two forms depending on whether the "choose two of three" situation is modeled in sequential form or in package form.

Estimation Results II

Similar to the information presented in Table 6.1, Tables 6.3 – 6.6 display the parameter estimates of *q*, which measure status impact, and G^2 fit for Model A, which uses the sequential-

[18] In the package model, the alternative specific effects apply to sets of alternatives rather than individuals. Thus, for example, if a respondent is asked to choose two of three alternatives, there is a specific effect for the o_1o_2 pair, the o_1o_3 pair, and the o_2o_3 pair. The alternative specific coefficients are ratios of these pair specific effects as in $m_{12,23} = \mu_{12}/\mu_{23}$ for example.

choice equation to specify the probabilities for the choose two of three situation, and for Model B, which uses the package- choice selection equation. Furthermore, three different versions are estimated. Version one estimates a single parameter that for all demographic groups of respondents. Version two estimates a common parameter for the two white demographic groups and a common parameter for the two black demographic groups, allowing a test of the possibility that that racial identity impacts the value of the status effect coefficient. Version three estimates a separate q coefficient for each of the four demographic groups, allowing for a test of "intersectionality," that is, that the status effect coefficient differs by the joint race and gender category of a respondent. The tables' bottom two rows present the results of tests of the improvement in fit of each version relative to simpler versions. Note that no version is estimated which stipulates a common coefficient for the two male groups and a common coefficient for the two female groups based on the finding in the previous chapter that gender of a respondent rarely has a significant effect on choice.

Table 6.4 Models A and B: Estimates and Fit, Controlling for Eye Size Attribute

		A		B	
Version	Demographics	*q*	G^2	*q*	G^2
I	All	-0.033ns	2427.1	-0.628***	1909.04
II	WMWF	0.293***	2357.49	0.185**	1572.44
	BMBF	-0.371***		-1.555***	
III	WM	0.411***	2352.08	0.397***	1561.66
	WF	0.176*		-0.022ns	
	BM	-0.311***		-1.545***	
	BF	-0.420***		-1.563***	
Fit Improvement		χ^2	*df*	χ^2	*df*
III over 1		75.02***	3	347.38***	3
II over I		69.61***	3	336.60***	3
III over II		5.41ns	3	10.78*	3

***p<.0001
**p<.001
*p<.01
·p<.05

Even when controlling for the eye size attribute, the overall pattern in Table 6.3 is the same the one in Table 6.1. The major differences between the two tables are the positive and significant *q* estimates in both models for white respondents, as a racial group, and for white males, as a gendered racial group. Interestingly, the *q* estimates for white females change from a not significant negative coefficient in Model A, to a positive and significant coefficient. This slight change in the findings suggest that by controlling for eye size, as a non-status idiosyncratic aesthetic attribute, the influence of status norms on partner-selection patterns now become racially relevant to white respondents in Model B. Similarly to the G^2 scores illustrated in Table 6.1, the scores in Table 6.3 for both models decreases as each version progresses via demographic disaggregation. Therefore, the separate estimation of *q* based on the four gendered racial groups significantly improves overall fit in both models. The overall best fitting model, in

terms of the smallest G^2 score, is the package model. The next attribute examined is makeup application style. Controlling for the avatar specific effect of makeup style, may provide another avenue for improving the model, as it is not just a gendered phenomenon, but a racial one as well. Results for this attribute control are presented in Table 6.4.

Table 6.5 Models A and B: Estimates and Fit, Controlling for Makeup Application Style Attribute

		A		B	
Version	Demographics	*q*	G^2	*q*	G^2
I	All	0.223***	2424.74	0.007ns	1620.27
II	WMWF BMBF	0.547*** -0.111*	2355.26	0.824*** -0.921***	1282.78
III	WM WF BM BF	0.663*** 0.433*** -0.053ns -0.159*	2350.01	1.037*** 0.616*** -0.911*** -0.928***	1271.94
Fit Improvement		χ^2	*df*	χ^2	*df*
III over 1		74.73***	3	348.33***	3
II over I		69.48***	1	337.49***	1
III over II		5.25ns	2	10.84**	2

***p<.0001
**p<.001
*p<.01
· p<.05

Interestingly, the findings in Table 6.4 present a few differences in terms of the *q* coefficients from the previous tables. First, in version one the value of *q* is positive in both models but significant in Model A (.223). This is a stark difference from version one in the tables previously discussed. The change in findings suggests that when controlling for the perception of lite or heavy the makeup application on female candidates, status norms shape partner selection practices for all demographic populations. Second, in version two, the partner-choice patterns echo the results in tables 6.1 and 6.3. That is, there are significant racial differences for the *q*

estimates in Table 6.4. The *q* coefficients for white respondents in both models are positive and significant. While the *q* values in both models remain negative and significant for black respondents.

However, version three of the sequential model in this table, presents an interesting note of departure for black males' *q* coefficient. Relative to the *q* estimates of their respective group in tables 6.1 and 6.2, the negative *q* value for black males in this model, is no longer significant. The change in significance suggest that similar to whites, black males' partner-selection practices can be influenced by status norms after controlling for the application style of cosmetic makeup. These findings suggest two things: (1) there is a racial and gendered element when controlling for cosmetic makeup application style in the choice patterns of white male, white female, and black male respondents. (2) The fact that the direction and significance of black females' *q* coefficient remains unaffected, suggest that even controlling for makeup application style, black females significantly reject the status belief that privileges white identity over black identity, and male identity over female identity when selecting partners for team membership. In other words, controlling for cosmetic application style is not sufficient enough reduce to black females' likelihood of selecting status disadvantaged candidates over status advantaged candidates.

Again, the G^2 scores in Table 6.4 echoes the previous tables. The scores decrease as each version progresses via demographic disaggregation in both models. Therefore, the separate estimation of *q* based on the four gendered racial groups significantly improves the fit of each model. Overall, the best fitting model in terms of the smallest G^2 score, is still package model. The last two tables, Tables 6.5 & 6.6, in this section presents version specific findings of *q* estimates that slightly differ from the results previously discussed.

The next attribute examined is hair color. Controlling for the avatar specific effect of hair color, may also provide another avenue for improving the model, as it is a phenotypical feature of racial identity. Results for controlling this non-status idiosyncratic aesthetic attribute are presented in Table 6.5.

Table 6.6 Models A and B: Estimates and Fit, Controlling for Hair Color Attribute

		A		B	
Version	Demographics	q	G^2	q	G^2
I	All	-0.390***	2450.02	-1.118***	2061.7
II	WMWF BMBF	-0.069ns -0.727***	2380.28	-0.335*** -2.027***	1734.1
III	WM WF BM BF	0.050ns -0.184*** -0.670*** -0.775***	2374.94	-0.128ns -0.538*** -2.018*** -2.035***	1723.6
Fit Improvement		χ^2	*df*	χ^2	*df*
III over 1		75.08***	3	338.10***	3
II over I		69.74***	1	327.57***	1
III over II		5.34ns	2	10.53**	2

***p<.0001
**p<.001
*p<.01
· p<.05

Similar to the results presented in Table 6.1, regardless of model choice, the findings shown in Table 6.5 do not support the theorem's stipulation. In version one, after controlling for hair color, the value of *q* is negative and significant in both models sequential (-.390), and package (-1.118). Even when controlling hair color, as a non-status idiosyncratic aesthetic attribute, the overall pattern of partner selection remains similar to Table 6.1. However, the findings in both models, presents three interesting notes of departure from the rest of the tables aforementioned. First, in version two, the *q* coefficients for white respondents are negative in both models, but only

significant in one—Model B (-.335). The white respondents' *q* coefficient in Model A is not significantly different from zero. The second point of departure from the findings previously discussed is the consistently negative *q* estimates for all demographic groups with at least one expectation disadvantaged state on a diffuse status characteristic. For these groups, their *q* coefficients are negative and significant in both models. Lastly, the *q* values for white male respondents in version three, are not significantly different from zero in both models. These findings suggest that controlling for avatar specific effects of hair color, such has having a light or dark hair color, eliminates the probability of whites, across genders, to select candidates on the basis status norms, privileging white identity and male identity when race and gender are activated as diffuse status characteristics.

Similarly to the aforementioned results, the G^2 scores presented in Table 6.5, for both models, decrease as each version progresses via demographic disaggregation. Therefore, the separate estimation of *q* based on the four gendered racial groups significantly improves overall fit in both models. The overall best fitting model, in terms of the smallest G^2 score, is the package model.

The next attribute examined is skin tone. Controlling for the avatar specific effect of skin tone, may also provide another avenue for improving the model, as it is a phenotypical feature of racial identity. Results for controlling this non-status idiosyncratic aesthetic attribute are presented in Table 6.6.

Table 6.7 Models A and B: Estimates and Fit, Controlling for Skin Tone Attribute

		A		B	
Version	Demographics	*q*	G^2	*q*	G^2
I	All	-0.607***	2393.02	-1.517***	1822.9
II	WMWF	-0.283***	2321.35	-0.726***	1486.59
	BMBF	-0.953***		-2.464***	
III	WM	-0.165*	2316.08	-0.516***	1475.87
	WF	-0.398***		-0.932***	
	BM	-0.896***		-2.454***	
	BF	-1.000***		-2.472***	
Fit Improvement		χ^2	*df*	χ^2	*df*
III over 1		76.94***	3	347.03***	3
II over I		71.67***	1	336.31***	1
III over II		5.27ns	2	10.72**	2

***p<.0001
**p<.001
*p<.01
· p<.05

Table 6.6 presents unequivocal results disconfirming the claims stipulated by the theorem. After controlling for skin tone, the data show the *q* coefficients are all negative and significant, regardless of version or model type. These findings drastically depart from the results in the previous tables. They suggest that skin tone appears to be the most influential non-status idiosyncratic aesthetic attribute contributing to whites' compliance to the status norms of partner-selection. In other words, when skin tone is not controlled, the q coefficient for white respondents is positive. Thus, their acceptance of the status norms privileging white identity over black identity and male identity over female identity may be due to skin tone differences rather than a demographic category. Nevertheless, controlling for the idiosyncratic aesthetic attribute of skin tone, shapes the partner-choice patterns of all four gendered racial categories to the extent that negative expectation advantage means a greater likelihood of selection, regardless of model

type. Finally, the G^2 scores illustrated in Table 6.6, for both models, decrease as each version progresses via demographic disaggregation. Therefore, the separate estimation of q based on the four gendered racial groups significantly improves overall fit in both models. The overall best fitting model, in terms of the smallest G^2 score, continues to be the package model.

Estimation Results III

Reanalysis II: "It's a White Woman's World!" Re-specifying the Models with White Women on Top

The MLE data analysis above suggests a need for an alternative specification of the diffuse status activation assumptions: both race and gender are salient but only race engenders a path to positive task outcomes through attributions of taskwork competence. Attributions of taskwork refers to attributing general competence relevant to a certain team-centered task. In terms of race in this case, whites, relative to nonwhites, particularly blacks, are ascribed the more favorable state of competence.

Conversely, gender, generates a path to positive task outcomes through the attribution of teamwork capability. Attributions of teamwork refers to the general ability to perform the role of team player. Therefore, in the case of gender, females relative to males (in particular), are ascribed the more "cherished" state of teamwork ability. Thus the combination of white and female gives the most favorable expectation advantage while the combination of black and male gives the most unfavorable expectation advantage in partner-selection process of team formation.

Table 6.7 presents a parallel analysis to Table 6.1 in which status advantage is calculated on the basis of the stipulation that white identity and female identity are the positive or advantaged states on the diffuse status characteristics of race and gender, in a teammate selection

situation. Tables 6.7 – 6.11 illustrate the re-specification results for both models, relevant to the alternative high-status profile – white female identity.

Table 6.8 Re-specified Models A and B: Estimates and Fit, No Avatar Specific Attributes

		A		B	
Version	Demographics	q	G^2	q	G^2
I	All	0.438***	2462.53	0.921***	2184.07
II	WMWF	0.687***	2418.61	1.583***	1976.9
	BMBF	0.166**		0.245***	
III	WM	0.610***	2410.56	1.483***	1971.73
	WF	0.762***		1.683***	
	BM	0.319***		0.368***	
	BF	0.037ns		0.143ns	
Fit Improvement		χ^2	*df*	χ^2	*df*
III over 1		51.97***	3	212.34***	3
II over I		43.92***	1	207.17***	1
III over II		8.05***	2	5.17ns	2

***p<.0001
**p<.001
*p<.01
· p<.05

Table 6.7 presents results that are a stark contrast from Table 6.1, in that all demographic groups, for both models, have positive *status effect* coefficients (*q*). Although most of the *q* estimates were positive and significant, the *q* values for black females across models were positive but not significantly different from zero. These finding suggest two things: (1) for all demographic groups, except for black females, the racial category of white is granted a positive expectation advantage for taskwork competence, relative to black. Additionally, gender is an activated diffuse status characteristic, whereby females, relative to males, hold the positive expectation advantage regarding teamwork ability. (2) For black female respondents, the stipulation that garners white femininity positive expectation advantage over the other three

gendered racial categories is not a salient feature shaping their partner-selection patterns. Additionally, the overall fits (G^2) of the four parameter models under the stipulation that female is the positive state of the gender characteristic are more impressive than the overall fits of the same models under the stipulation that male is the positive state. Moreover, the overall best fitting model, in terms of the smallest G^2 score, is the re-specified package model.

Estimation Results IV

Reanalysis III: Re-specified Modeling, Controlling for Non-Status Idiosyncratic Aesthetic Attributes

Similarly to the first reanalysis shown in tables 6.3 – 6.6, I provide another analysis that builds on the findings presented in Table 6.7. In this section, I examine how controlling for idiosyncratic aesthetic attributes—such as eye size, hair color, makeup application style, and skin tone—effect the *q* estimates under the re-specification stipulating white identity and female identity are the positive or advantageous states in teammate selection situations. The results in tables 6.8 – 6.11, shows how controlling for avatar specific features changes the q coefficients associated with the re-specified models. The eye size attribute is the first idiosyncratic aesthetic attribute examined in this section. Controlling for the avatar specific effect of eye size, may provide another avenue for improving the model re-analysis, as it is not just a gendered phenomenon, but a racial one as well. Results after controlling this attribute are presented in Table 6.7.

Table 6.9 Re-Specified Models A and B: Estimates and Fit, Controlling for Eye Size Attribute

		A		B	
Version	Demographics	q	G^2	q	G^2
I	All	0.339***	2357.05	0.714***	1841.3
II	WMWF	0.588***	2312.67	1.376***	1633.7
	BMBF	0.064ns		0.035ns	
III	WM	0.512***	2304.72	1.275***	1628.5
	WF	0.663***		1.477***	
	BM	0.216**		0.158ns	
	BF	-0.064ns		-0.067ns	
Fit Improvement		χ^2	*df*	χ^2	*df*
III over 1		52.33***	3	212.79***	3
II over I		44.38***	1	207.61***	1
III over II		7.95***	2	5.18ns	2

***p<.0001
**p<.001
*p<.01
· p<.05

After controlling for the eye size attribute, the overall pattern in Table 6.8 changes from the pattern shown in Table 6.7. The major differences between the two tables are found in the q estimates for versions two and three. Compared to the black respondents in of Table 6.7, the q coefficients for black respondents in version two of Table 6.8, are not significantly different from zero. However, these values remain positive. In version three, black males' q estimate in Table 6.8, relative to Table 6.7, is positive but not significant from zero in Model B. Interestingly, although the q estimates for black females in this table remain not significant from zero, the direction has reversed relative to their q value in Table 6.7. These findings suggest that by controlling for eye size, as a non-status avatar specific attribute, the re-specified status stipulation reduces its power to influence the partner-selection practices of black respondents. In other

words, black respondents are less likely to choose partners on the ascription of white identity and female identity as advantageous states on the diffuse status characteristics of race and gender.

Conversely, these finding suggest that controlling for the avatar specific effect of eye size may be activated for white respondents during their partner-choice practices. Thus, unlike the black respondents in this study, white respondents are more likely to select potential team members having a positive expectation advantaged associated with being white and female. Finally, the lower G^2 scores presented in Table 6.8 indicates that it has the better fitting models under the re-specification analysis, where white identity is the positive expectation advantaged state on the diffuse status characteristic of race, and female identity is the positive expectation advantaged state on the diffuse status characteristic of gender. Moreover, the overall best fitting model, in terms of the smallest G^2 score, is the re-specified package model.

The next attribute examined is makeup application style. Controlling for the avatar specific effect of makeup application style, may provide another avenue for improving the model, as it is not just a gendered phenomenon, but a racial one as well. Results for this attribute control are presented in Table 6.9.

Table 6.10 Re-Specified Models A and B: Estimates and Fit, Controlling for Makeup Application Style Attribute

		A		B	
Version	Demographics	q	G^2	q	G^2
I	All	0.274***	2416.45	0.052ns	1619.64
II	WMWF	0.524***	2372.53	0.722***	1408.98
	BMBF	0.003ns		-0.639***	
III	WM	0.447***	2364.39	0.619***	1403.73
	WF	0.600***		0.823***	
	BM	0.157*		-0.515***	
	BF	-0.127ns		-0.743***	
Fit Improvement		χ^2	*df*	χ^2	*df*
III over 1		52.06***	3	215.91***	3
II over I		43.92***	1	210.66***	1
III over II		8.14*	2	5.25ns	2

***p<.0001
**p<.001
*p<.01
· p<.05

In comparison to the results in Table 6.7, when idiosyncratic aesthetic attributes are not controlled, the findings in Table 6.9 practically parallel the results in Table 6.8. That is, when controlling for cosmetic application style of female candidates, the lower q estimates indicate that respondents' partner-choice patterns are less likely to comply with the re-specified stipulation. The points of departure include the positive, but not significantly different from zero, q estimate in version one of Model B and for black respondents in version two of Model A. However, the q coefficients for black respondents in Model B, regardless of gender, are negative and significant.

These findings continue to suggest that the decision-making practice of partner-selection for team formation, is a racialized process whereby the decision-making behaviors of white and black respondents are distinguished by the color line, not simply by diffuse status characteristics. Based on the results above, white's patterns of partner selection continue to favor the re-

specified stipulation even after controlling for cosmetic makeup application style. Moreover, the findings in version three for Model A, suggest two things: (1) there is a racial and gendered element when controlling for cosmetic makeup application style in the choice patterns of white male, white female, and black male respondents. (2) Although, the q estimate for black female respondents is not significantly different form zero, the inverse direction of the *q* coefficient, suggest that even controlling for makeup application style, black females reject the status belief that exclusively privileges white identity over black identity, and female identity over male identity when selecting partners for team membership. Finally, and similar to Table 6.7, the lower G^2 scores presented in Table 6.9 indicate that the quality of fit progresses as the demographic categories respectively disaggregate in both models. Moreover, the overall best fitting model, in terms of the smallest G^2 score, is the re-specified package model.

The next attribute examined is hair color. Controlling for the avatar specific effect of hair color, may also provide another avenue for improving the re-specified model, as it is a phenotypical feature of racial identity. Results for this non-status attribute are presented in Table 6.10.

Table 6.11 Re-Specified Models A and B: Estimates and Fit, Controlling for Hair Color Attribute

		A		B	
Version	Demographics	q	G^2	q	G^2
I	All	0.403***	2460.83	1.209***	2095.70
II	WMWF	0.651***	2416.85	1.869***	1889.30
	BMBF	0.130*		0.535***	
III	WM	0.574***	2408.79	1.769***	1884.10
	WF	0.727***		1.968***	
	BM	0.283***		0.657***	
	BF	0.001ns		0.433***	
Fit Improvement		χ^2	*df*	χ^2	*df*
III over 1		52.04***	3	211.65***	3
II over I		43.98***	1	206.49***	1
III over II		8.059*	2	5.160ns	2

***p<.0001
**p<.001
*p<.01
· p<.05

Interestingly, Table 6.10 practically confirms the re-specified stipulation. With the exception of black females in Model A, the table displays positive and significant results for all demographic groups, regardless of model choice. Thus, these findings suggest that when the hair color attribute is controlled, the status presumption that white identity and female identity, as advantaged states will govern the partner-selection process of team formation, when race and gender, as diffuse status characteristics, are activated.

Lastly, and similar to Table 6.7, the lower G^2 scores presented in Table 6.10 indicate that the quality of model fit progresses as the demographic categories respectively disaggregate in both models. Moreover, the overall best fitting model, in terms of the smallest G^2 score, is the re-specified package model.

The final attribute examined is skin tone. Controlling for the avatar specific effect of skin tone, may also provide another avenue for improving the re-specified model, as it is a phenotypical feature of racial identity. Results for this non-status avatar specific feature are presented in Table 6.11.

Table 6.12 Re-Specified Models A and B: Estimates and Fit, Controlling for Skin Tone Attribute

		A		B	
Version	Demographics	q	G^2	q	G^2
I	All	0.654***	2412.73	1.787***	1816.20
II	WMWF	0.902***	2368.76	2.467***	1605.70
	BMBF	0.380***		1.107***	
III	WM	0.826***	2360.69	2.365***	1600.40
	WF	0.977***		2.568***	
	BM	0.534***		1.232***	
	BF	0.251***		1.003***	
Fit Improvement		χ^2	*df*	χ^2	*df*
III over 1		52.04***	3	215.76***	3
II over I		43.97***	1	210.51***	1
III over II		8.07*	2	5.25ns	2

***p<.0001
**p<.001
*p<.01
· p<.05

Unlike the previous tables in this section, the results in Table 6.11 definitively confirms the re-specified stipulation. The table displays positive and significant q coefficients for all demographic groups, regardless of version type and model choice. These findings drastically depart from the results in the previous tables. They suggest that when the skin tone attribute is controlled, the status presumption that white identity and female identity, as advantaged states will govern the partner-selection process of team formation, when race and gender, as diffuse

status characteristics, are activated. Furthermore, these findings also suggest that skin tone is the most influential non-status idiosyncratic aesthetic attribute contributing to respondents' compliance to the status norms of partner-selection. Thus, their acceptance of the re-specified status stipulation, which privileges white identity over black identity and female identity over male identity may be due to skin tone differences rather than a demographic category.

Nevertheless, controlling for the idiosyncratic aesthetic attribute of skin tone, shapes the partner-choice patterns of all four gendered racial categories to the extent that positive expectation advantage means a greater likelihood of selection, regardless of model type. To conclude, the G^2 scores illustrated in Table 6.11, for both models, decrease as each version progresses via demographic disaggregation. Therefore, the separate estimation of q based on the four gendered racial groups significantly improves overall fit in both models. Moreover, the overall best fitting model, in terms of the smallest G^2 score, is the re-specified package model.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I conducted a detailed analysis, using maximum likelihood estimation, on my data, as well as, on the formal models of partner choice proposed by Skvoretz and Bailey's (2016) expectation states' partner-choice theorem. Thus I used maximum likelihood estimation on the choice data to test how well Skvoretz and Bailey's formal models predict the probability of a particular choice of partner from a pool of candidates distinguished only by their states on diffuse status characteristics. The prediction equation models associated with Skvoretz and Bailey's partner-choice theorem refines the two expectation states informed null hypotheses using numerical parameter q, which determines the effect of expectation advantage or disadvantage on choice. Overall, my data did not support the refined hypotheses. With regard to

the first refined hypothesis, I found that the parameter q is only occasionally positive and often negative at levels of analysis of the entire respondent pool (sample), subgroups defined by race, and subgroups defined by race and gender. For the second, I found that the parameter q varies over different demographic groups in most choice situations. The results confirm the findings in the previous chapter, chapter six.

As it pertains to how well Skvoretz and Bailey's formal models predict the probabilities of choice for a particular partner, I found the exact probabilities of choice are not predicted well by Skvoretz and Bailey's partner choice equation model. In sum, my findings echo the results outlined in chapter six. Respondents in different demographic groups choose partners differently. Additionally, I found that when expectation advantage is based on the specification that white is the high state of the diffuse status characteristic race and male, the high state of the diffuse status characteristic gender, candidates with status profiles exemplifying white identity and/or male identity had a lower chance of being selected as a partner, compared to status profiles exemplifying female identity and/or black identity. These findings suggest that white as the high state on race and male as the high state on gender are not treated equally important sources of performance expectations in the status generalization process of self-organizing team formation.

7. "BEYOND FACE VALUE:" THE COLOR-BLIND AND GENDER-BLIND STORYLINES OF TEAM FORMATION

In 2018, a white female who was accompanying her son on a college campus tour called the police to report two Native American tour participants whom she perceived as suspicious interlopers[19]. In another news story, a black Oregon state legislature was canvassing her district for reelection when police officers showed up after a white female resident reported that an unfamiliar "African-American" female whose hair was "up in a bun" had been weirdly walking through the neighborhood from house to house[20]. In a similar and widely publicized incident, George Zimmerman, a white Hispanic male, reported the following before killing Travon Martin, an African-American boy: "Hey we've had some break-ins in my neighborhood, and there's a real suspicious guy, uh, [near] Retreat View Circle…. This guy looks like he's up to no good, or he's on drugs, or something" (Mother Jones 2012)[21].

[19] She stated the following to the police dispatcher: "There are two young men that joined our tour that weren't a part of our tour. They're not, definitely not a part of the tour. And their behavior is just really odd, and I've never called, ever, about anybody, but they joined our tour. They won't give their names and when I asked them what they were wanting to study, like everything they're saying isn't ... they were lying the whole time. And they're just wearing like very ... they just really stand out. ... Like their clothing has dark stuff on it, like dark things" (Coloradoan 2018).

[20] The caller stated the following to the police dispatcher: "Hi, I just wanted to inform you that we have this lady that's been walking up from Mather and like for no apparent reason is walking from house to house, and she's not in like any business or have any badge or anything….and the weird thing …. she just knocks on the door and then if somebody is there or not, she'll stop at the end of the driveway and enter something into her phone. And then it takes a couple minutes per house…."The dispatcher asks: "Is she a white female?" The caller replied: "No, she's African-American. Her hair's up in a bun."

[21] During the month of February 2012, George Zimmerman accosted and fatally shot unarmed Travon Martin in their Sanford, Florida neighborhood. On that rainy night, Trayvon was wearing a hoodie while walking home after purchasing a package of Skittles and a can of Arizona Watermelon Fruit Juice Cocktail from a nearby corner store. Although Zimmerman was criminally charged for murdering Trayvon, he was later acquitted on grounds of self-defense (Stern 2013; Benedictus 2013; CNN Wire Staff 2012).

The characterizations illustrated in these 'eye-witness reports' speak to the aim of this study—examining how race and gender shape impressions of social actors in personal accounts relevant to decisions. While the comparison of criminal suspicion is not a perfect comparison, it does expose the ways that gendered and racialized bodies are differentially assessed and treated. The examples cited above are most relevant to the criminal justice system, but they have social psychological origins and implications. This study examines how race and gender shape personal accounts of team formation. Personal accounts in this context refer to partner-choice justifications, or partner-choice accounts, that explain participants' selection of particular candidates for team membership, over others.

Two research questions guide the analysis of my study:

(1) How do respondents frame their partner-choice justifications?

(2) To what extent do race and gender shape the framing of partner-choice accounts of team formation?

I organize this chapter into three major sections. First, I review the qualitative frameworks that ground the analysis of the study. Second, I outline the methods and data collection. Lastly, I discuss the chapter findings. I conclude the chapter by summarizing my findings relative to the three research questions guiding the study.

7.1 QUALITATIVE FRAMEWORKS

Two major research paradigms inform the qualitative findings of this study: interpretivism and critical theory. Interpretivism is a perspective that focuses on understanding how humans construct, interpret, and understand meaning, using qualitative research methods

(Orlikowski & Baroudi 1991). It assumes that objective reality is a fallacy and that reality is constructed and understood by negotiated intersubjectivity during interaction. Critical theory, on the other hand, is a research paradigm that uses qualitative and quantitative methods to examine power relations as composed of dominant and oppressed actors, ideologies, reification, exploitation, and alienation (Agger 1991). A key assumption of the paradigm is that objective reality is grounded in the material conditions of social life and as a result, shape the inter-subjective meaning of experience (Alvesson and Deetz 2006). In what follows, I outline two interpretivist theories—symbolic interactionism and dramaturgy. Then I discuss two critical theories—critical race theory and feminist theory.

7.1.1 Interpretive Theories:

Symbolic interactionism (SI) aims to understand how people use language and identity to socially express and make meaning of their social realities in everyday life (Arendell 1997). Kotarba and colleagues (2013; 2014; 2015) demonstrate how (SI) can be used to uncover the meaning-making process of team formation. They note that a symbolic interactionist perspective understands teams to be socio-cognitive schemata "for assembling and managing *relationships* among otherwise disparate individuals with [common] vested interest" (Kotarba et al 2015:01). Under this perspective, team, as a concept, is not a group of collectively-oriented individuals collaborating on a task. Instead, a team is a socio-cognitive construct that generates ideas, which may lead to a successful collectively-oriented task outcome.

Kotarba (2014) argues that one primary function of the team construct is to generate an idea regarding how to form and organize collaborative relationships among collectively-oriented individuals for a group task. Through language, such as people's narratives or accounts, a

generated idea may illustrate an economy of cultural qualifications for team membership. Cultural qualifications are *significant symbols (i.e. signifiers)*, as they illustrate common "words, images, phrases, or ideas [in various narratives or accounts] that serve to define what an organization is, who the members are, what activities take place there, and what are the core values that guide those activities" (09). In other words, signifiers are verbal and non-verbal cultural cues that people perceive and account for when forming a team. I integrate this framework to analyze how assumptions of "perceived" qualifications impact impression formation and ultimately shape respondents' partner-choice accounts.

In order to understand how signifiers shape partner-choice accounts, I incorporate Goffman's (1974) dramaturgy with the symbolic interactionist perspective (Low 2012; Scott 2009; Johnson-Cartee and Copeland 2005). Dramaturgy explains social interaction as a theatrical performance (e.g. a play), whereby individuals are actors who ritually enact and stage social roles to an audience. As a performance, social interaction is symbolic communication, which scholars empirically examine through frame analysis (Sannicolas 1997). Frame analysis is an analytic tool that is used to explore how actors frame a situation (Goffman 1974). When actors frame a situation, they "select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation" (Entman 1993:52).

Frame analysis holds descriptive and explanatory value (Gehards 1995; Turner 1986). Through the examination of interaction as meaningful language, it can show how a picture 'frames' a scene, how a journalist frames a news story, how narratives frame talk, and the sociological frames contextualizing personal-accounts (Shuman 2017; Kitzinger 2007, Goffman 1974). Both SI and dramaturgy focus on the language as a symbolic representation of everyday

life (Smith 2013; Low 2012; Scott 2009; Manning 2007). Together these frameworks describe and explain how significant symbols shape the framing of partner-choice accounts.

7.1.2 Critical Theories:

Critical race theory (CRT) is a theoretical perspective that unabashedly problematizes the racial hierarchy in the United States (U.S.) (Delgado and Stefancic 2001). CRT's objective is to expose implicit or covert racism in societies that only acknowledges overt racism as racist (Appadurai, 1993; Anderson, 1990). Scholars estimate five major tenets used to classify CRT (Delgado and Stefancic 2001; Brown 2003):

(1) The first tenet states that racism embeds the social structure of everyday life.

(2) The second tenet states that white supremacy affects the psychological and material conditions of U.S. American society. White supremacy allows whites, in a post-racial society, to acknowledge acts of overt racism as racist, while repudiating implicit racist practices as acts of racism (Bonilla-Silva 2002; Bonilla-Silva & Forman 2000).

(3) The third tenet states that race is a social construct. It is not a biological phenomenon.

(4) The fourth tenet states that since perspectives and voices of color have been suppressed and oppressed by white domination, these perspectives and voices need to be heard and legitimized in social and scholarly discourse. Thus, experiential knowledge or counternarratives that articulate these perspectives and voices are an acceptable scholarly practice.

(5) The last tenet states, CRT is a political activist scholarship that aims for the advancement of all people.

These five tenets inform studies on race relations in societies and groups perpetuating the belief that racism is nonexistent in contemporary society. Sociologists have used the CRT framework

to explain racist phenomenon embedded in contemporary institutions and the social interactions of everyday life (Essed 1991). For example, Bonilla-Silva's (2006) applies CRT to construct a structural theory of colorblind racism. He argues that racism underlies societies that partially assign people's economic, social, political, and ideological positions based on their ascribed racial category or status. The structurally embedded practices of racism (i.e. 'new racism') are a function of a society's racialized social system, which reproduces racial inequality through interpersonal and interinstitutional interactions across time and space (Golash-Boza 2019). Feminist theory (FT) is a theoretical framework grounded in feminism, which advocates for gender or sex equality in terms of social, political, and economic rights (Ackerly & True 2010; Delmar 1986; Harding 1986). It is a framework that examines the power dynamics of gender relations (Haraway 1998). FT's objective is to expose sexism in patriarchal societies, as such it examines the cultural and structural perpetuation of gender oppression from practices that subordinate women to men (hooks 2007). Moreover, it asserts that sexism underlies the social structure of everyday life; and that patriarchy and misogyny affects the psychological and material conditions of women (Harsock 1983). Scholars note that sexism in many Western societies has relatively evolved from conventional or old-fashioned sexism to modern sexism (Naryan 1997).

Modern sexism refers to the assertion of individualistic and egalitarian values to convey the belief that misogyny, sex segregation and gender discrimination are no longer problems in contemporary society (Simas & Bumgardner 2017; Swim et. al. 1995; Benokraitis and Feagin 1995). Glick & Fiske (1996) note that Modern sexism includes practices of hostile sexism (i.e.

misogyny), benevolent sexism[22], and ambivalent sexism, which refers to views representing both hostile and benevolent sexism. Research suggests that it is through an ideology of modern sexism, conventional gender stereotypes emerge and go un-scrutinized in social interaction (Archer and Loyd 2002).

Scholars of FT and CRT have examined the ideological discursive frames associated with modern sexism and new racism. In the following sub-sections, I explicate two critical frameworks that respectively focus on frames of color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism in societies espousing color-blind racist and gender-blind sexist ideologies.

7.1.2a Frames of Color-blind Racism

Beyond simply noting that color-blind racism exists, Bonilla-Silva (2006) uses CRT to construct a framing theory grounded in discursive counter-narratives that articulate the perspectives and voices of racially oppressed groups. His theory posits four discursive frames of colorblind racism: (1.) *Abstract Liberalism* is found in ideas such as "equal opportunity," or "individual choice" to explain and sustain the racial status quo. For example, an abstract liberalism statement is: "I don't care if you are black, white, yellow, green, or in-between, anyone who wants to be on my team, can freely join." (2.) *Naturalization* is a racist frame maintaining that racial inequality occurs because people prefer to interact with and congregate with others who are "like" themselves, so that it is "natural" for the races to stay with their own. For example, a naturalization statement is: "racial segregation is simply due to homophily." (3.) *Cultural Racism* has to do with stereotypes and assumptions about a particular culture, ideas like

[22] Benevolent sexism refers to a set of interrelated practices "toward women that are sexist in terms of viewing women stereotypically and in restricted roles but that are subjectively positive in feeling tone (for the perceiver) and also tend to elicit behaviors typically categorized as prosocial or intimacy-seeking" (Glick & Fiske 1996:491).

"Hispanics are family oriented" or "Asians love eating rice." (4.) *Minimization of racism* is a frame that suggests that race is no longer a significant obstacle to getting a job as a result of civil rights laws and policies passed to prevent this. These discursive frames provide a useful framework that allows researchers to identify and deconstruct how people (mainly, but not exclusively white people) discuss or avoid discussing racism in a "post-racial" society. For all the ways that this framework opens avenues to understand the rhetorical strategies of new racism, it provides little insight into the way that gender shapes this process.

7.1.2b Frames of Gender-blind Sexism:

Stroll, Lilley, and Pinter (2017) develop four frames of gender-blind sexism as an extension of Bonilla-Silva's (2006) critical race frames of colorblind racism. Gender-blind sexism is a type of modern sexism in a patriarchal society publicly ascribed as "post-gender." Although in this society overt sexism is taboo, gender inequality persists through taken for granted sexist ideologies, covert practices and disparate policies (Benokraitis & Feagin 1986). Identical to the frames of colorblind racism, the frames of gender-blind sexism include: abstract liberalism, cultural sexism, naturalization, and minimization. The *abstract liberalism* framework of gender-blind sexism connotes an ahistorical and "post-feminist" perspective that uncritically espouses ideas of gender indifference and equal opportunity. In using this framework, individuals justify the gender status quo by reframing protective legislation for minority genders as inherently discriminatory and unjust.

The *naturalization* framework refers to an explanation of gender inequality based on

essentialism and biological processes[23]. For example, an evaluative statement such as "the female brain is wired to be 'cattier' than males" is indicative of the naturalization framework of gender-blind sexism. The third frame, *cultural sexism*, refers to a dependence on conventional gender roles and social processes guided by patriarchal standards for femininity[24]. This frame exemplifies hetero-normative statements such as "Females like to dress sexy for male attention." Lastly, the *minimization* frame scapegoats gender inequality to other factors that are not directly related, or prominently linked to overt sexism. In other words, gender inequality is a consequence of 'gender differences' based on individual preferences, not sexism. Sexism is not a significant problem in contemporary society. For example, an evaluative statement such as the most politically experienced person to ever run for the U.S. presidency, lost to Real Estate Mogul, Donald J Trump, because of her emails —not sexism is indicative of the minimization frame.

The frameworks of color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism complement each other in the sense that they expose the fallacies of a post-racial and post-gender society. Additionally, they show how these fallacies are ideological in origins. That is, they stem from a racial ideology, which is a system of racial beliefs and views "used by actors to explain and justify (dominant race) or challenge (subordinate race or races) the racial status quo" of a racialized social system (Bonilla-Silva 2003:65); or a gender-blind ideology, which serve to explain/justify women's subordination and gender inequality

[23] Stroll et al (2017) note, "in the case of gender (as opposed to race…), there tends to be far less stigma for privileging biological explanations of social differences" (30).

[24] Adichie (2014) notes, in a patriarchal society, females, relative to males, are expected to aspire to hetero-normative marriage and keep in mind that marriage is the most important thing while making life choices.

through a system of gender-blind beliefs and views that reflect a "patriarchal social system conducive to rape and sexual assault" (Stroll et al. 2017:29).

However, both conceptual frameworks have a common limitation—they lack intersectionality. That is, they do not address the ideological frames attending to the intersections of race and gender. Bonilla-Silva's (2006) theory of color-blind racism does not account for gender shapes the way people use the four frames. In other words, it does not address questions relating to how gender shapes the frames of color-blind racism. For example, do males use certain frames more than females or non-binary genders? Additionally, the theory does not account for inequality at the intersections of race and gender. For example, how are the frames of color-blind racism used to explain wage inequality between white females and black males[25]? In other words, the theory does not address gendered racism[26].

Stroll, Lilley, and Pinter's (2017) theory of gender-blind sexism, on the other hand, does not account for how race shapes the way people use the frames. In other words, it does not address questions relating to how race shapes the frames of gender-blind sexism. For example, do whites use certain frames differently than Asian-Americans or non-white racial identities? Additionally, the theory does not account for inequality at the intersections of gender and race. For example, how are the frames of gender-blind sexism used to explain wage inequality between white males and black females[27]? In other words, their theory does not address

[25] According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2017), white females' median weekly earnings are higher than the weekly earnings of black males.

[26] Gendered racism refers to racial stereotypes, images, and beliefs grounded in gendered ideals (Wingfield 2009:09). It "shapes the allocation of resources along racially and ethnically ascribed understandings of masculinity and femininity as well as along gendered forms of race and ethnic discrimination" (Essed 2001).

[27] According to the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2017), white males' median weekly earnings are higher than the weekly earnings of black females.

racialized sexism[28]. This study attempts to fill these gaps, by integrating interpretive and critical theories, as a means to examine how symbolic representations of race, gender, and their intersections, shape partner-choice justifications.

7.2 DATA AND METHODS

The methodological basis of this chapter has been previously highlighted in Chapter 4. In this section, I briefly provide an overview of the collection, organization, and coding of the data. The qualitative data collection for this study was gathered through the same online Qualtrics survey mentioned in chapter four of the dissertation. In addition to capturing participants' decision-making behaviors, the survey collection process included participants' responses to eleven open-ended questions regarding their partner selections. Specifically, the open-ended questions asked participants to briefly explain their selected candidates from the profile pools in the first and third choice situations (see Appendix B). The second choice-situation (i.e. Choice Situation II), where participants were instructed to pick one out of three candidates for team membership, did not accompany respective open-ended questions, due to its similarity with the first choice-situation.

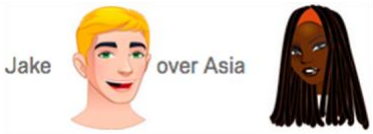
Figure 4 illustrates an example of the survey's open-ended questions for choice-situation one[29]. The open-ended questions are conditioned on the participant's selection. Thus, the first panel in Figure 4 presents the opened-ended question for participants who selected Jake, a white male, over Asia, a black female. The second panel presents the open-ended question for

[28] Racialized sexism refers to racial stereotypes, images, beliefs and discrimination uniquely experienced by women of color (Patel 2008).

[29] All images of avatars presented in this chapter and in the survey (see Appendix F) were purchased as 'royalty free' stock photos and licensed for reproduction via 123RF.com.

participants who selected Asia over Jack.

If participants selected …



They were given the following open-ended question:

"To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Jake over Asia."

If participants selected …

They were given the following open-ended question:

Figure 4 Example of Open-Ended Questions for Choice-Situation One

Although the responses to these questions were brief, there was not a character limit imposed on participants. Similarly, Figure 5 illustrates an example of the survey's open-ended questions for choice-situation three[30]. The first panel of Figure 5 is presented to participants who selected Darius, a black male, and Dylan, a white male, as teammates over any two-teammate combination that included Kayla, a black female. The second panel presents the open-ended question for participants who selected Kayla and Darius over Dylan.

[30] Danilo Sanino has copyright ownership of the avatars presented in Figures 4 and 5 (https://www.123rf.com/profile_ddraw). Monique Duplechain modified the black male avatars (moniquemonchelle.com). Avatars presented in this chapter and in the survey (see Appendix F) were purchased as 'royalty free' stock photos and licensed for reproduction via 123RF.com

Figure 5 Example of Open-Ended Questions for Choice-Situation Three

Danilo Sanino has copyright ownership of the avatars presented in Figures 4 and 5 (https://www.123rf.com/profile_ddraw). Monique Duplechain modified the black male avatars (moniquemonchelle.com). Avatars presented in this chapter and in the survey (see Appendix F) were purchased as 'royalty free' stock photos and licensed for reproduction via 123RF.com

Similar to the open-ended responses for choice situation one, as illustrated in Figure 4, there were no character limitations imposed on participants' responses. A total of 3,692 responses were collected from the 11 opened-ended questions of the survey. However, 12% (431) of the responses were dropped due to unintelligible content. As a result, the final sample size totaled 3,261 responses. After data collection, I organized the responses by the race and gender of participants (e.g. white males 88, white females 90, black males 75, and black females 90).

Table 7.0 presents total number of responses by the racial and gender categories. The table shows the initial, dropped, and kept data by respondents' race and gender. Moreover it shows that even after dropping 12% of the cases, the kept data remain proportional to the racial and gender composition of the 343-participant pool.

Table 7.0 Total Responses by Race & Gender

Race & Gender	Initial Responses (*n*)	%	Dropped (*n*)	%	Kept (*n*)	%
White Males	941	25%	109	3%	832	26%
White Females	980	27%	116	3%	864	26%
Black Males	801	22%	73	2%	728	22%
Black Females	970	26%	133	4%	837	26%
Total	3692	100%	431	12%	3261	100%

To organize and process the data, I used a constructivist grounded theory approach as a strategy to code and analyze qualitative data from my participants' responses (Charmaz 2006). Constructivist grounded theory is an emergent method that provides the inductive tools and procedures for studying "uncharted, contingent, or dynamic phenomena" (Charmaz 2008:155). It should be noted that my approach to the qualitative section is both deductive and inductive. By this, I mean that I used conceptual frames to hypothesize that race and gender would be significant in the findings (deductive), but the way race and gender mattered emerged from the data facilitated by the use of grounded theory (inductive).

My approach can be described as 'modified' grounded theory because I used grounded theory's constant comparative method, I coded the elicited data for major concepts, categories, and themes. Concepts consisted of, and were identified, by keywords or labels (i.e. smart, intelligent, sharp) used as adjectives or verbs to justify a partner-selection (e.g. 'I chose Casey because Casey looks smart'). Categories consisted of words that describe a group of similar concepts. For example concepts such as smart, intelligent, and sharp were categorized as 'competence.' Lastly, themes were developed based on common categories that describe an overarching term, idea, or expression. For example, an overarching term describing statements regarding perceptions competence (e.g. 'Casey looks smart' or 'Alex looks intelligent') is 'demeanor.'

I used an iterative three-stage coding process, which sequentially included open, axial, and selective coding (Corbin and Strauss 2015). During the open coding stage, I performed close readings or a line-by-line analysis on each response (Saldaña and Omasta 2017; Saldaña 2013; Emerson, Fredtz, and Shaw 2011). Through open coding, I identified and developed sensitizing concepts relating to how participants rationalize their partner choices. Blumer (1954) argues that sensitizing concepts lack contextual specificity. In other words, they are metaphors or terms indexed with meaning - they are abstract constructs or expressions that sensitize experiences, perspectives, and social interaction (van den Hoonaard, W. C. 1997:1). Many scholars draw on core sociological terminology (e.g. definitions of the situation, framing, structuration, impression management and formation…) as their sensitizing concepts (Gross, Byrd, & Hughey 2017; Stebbins 2013; Denzin 1969). I used framing, significant symbols, storylines, impression management and formation as sensitizing concepts during the data analysis process.

For example, I coded the following justifications as indicators of impression formation: "I picked Katie over Dylan because she was smart looking," "I chose Jamal over Scott because Jamal looked friendly," or "I selected Asia over Becky because she works better with others. During the second stage of coding—axial coding, sub-categories emerged highlighting how race, gender, and interpersonal factors, such as demeanor and sentiment shape justifications involving impression formation. For example, if race was a distinguishing characteristic between female candidates, impression formations such as, "I chose Becky over Asia because Asia looks angry and unattractive" were indicative of responses by white male participants, compared to white females, black females, and black males. Thus, axial coding reveals the distribution of impression formations by race and gender (intersectionally). Lastly, selective coding was used to

relate partner choice justifications involving impression formation to storylines of colorblind racism and gender-blind sexism.

After the coding process, I reorganized the open-ended responses based on the concepts, categories, and themes that emerged during the second stage of coding. Some of the coded categories contained multiple concepts. Thus, I used Jackson's and Trochim's (2002) unit of analysis procedure to distinguished or unitized categories with multiple concepts. In describing their methodological procedure, Jackson and Trochim note:

> "A unit of analysis consists of a sentence or phrase containing only one concept—units can often be lifted [through unitizing]….[U]nitizing is done by breaking sentences into single concept phrases. In this way, the context of each concept is retained and is readily available... It is important that each unit only contain one concept so that it can be considered distinct from other units—for similar reasons that double-barreled survey questions pose problems" (313-314).

Hence, I unitized my categories containing multiple concepts by breaking them into individual categories that exclusively and respectively attend to the key concepts. For example, the statement "I chose Becky over Asia because Asia looks angry and unattractive" contains two concepts—'angry' and 'unattractive.' Thus, I unitized statements such as this into two distinct impression formations (i.e. Asia looks angry; and Asian looks unattractive).

Additionally, I incorporated descriptive statistics to this qualitative study is to highlight the relative importance of particular categories and themes to underlying meanings and patterns associated with the racial and gender composition of the sample. I statistically analyzed the frequency distribution of categories and themes across race and gender. As a result, I selected prominent examples by identifying the racial and gender group whose justifications most frequently reflected a particular category or theme. For example, I reported results only for the

white males if the data revealed white males' partner-choice justifications most frequently expressed a certain category or theme, relative to other the groups.

However, I treated frequency percentages that were proportionally representative (within a 1- or 2-point margin of error) of the racial and gender composition of the sample, as having no distinguishable mode. Thus, if the frequency distribution of a category or theme was proportionally representative to the sample's demographic (i.e. race and gender), I selected prominent examples from all four status-identity groups (i.e. white males, white females, black males, and black females). Conversely, if the frequency distribution of a category or theme by race and gender disproportionally represented the racial and gender composition of the sample, I only presented findings associated with the status-identity group expressing the highest frequency percentage.

Although this frequency driven approach provides a relative measure of intersectional importance to partner-choice accounts, it biases my analysis as a consequence of its sole focus on identifying racial and gender group whose justifications most frequently reflected a particular category or theme. Additionally, this approach limits the study's findings as it delivers a less comprehensive analysis of the discursive ways race and gender intersectionally shape partner-choice accounts. In other words, my analysis presents a bias that neglects a cross-cultural comparative examination of partner-choice justifications. As a result, it is a bias that gives preeminence to observations of relative dominance than to a relational observation of discursive differences.

In the analysis that follows, I will address three main features of color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism that guide the sentiments and perceptions associated with team formation justifications. First, I address how respondents engage in specific strategies to construct partner-

choice justifications reflecting notions of color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism. Second, I examine how avatar traits provide symbolic information about race and gender that then shapes how respondents perceive the avatars. Lastly, I analyze how respondents use impression formations to construct storyline-accounts of their selections, which are shaped by frames of gender-blind sexism and color-blind racism.

7.3 RESULTS

My findings have been organized into three sections to address: 1) how do speakers frame their partner-choice justifications? 2) To what extent do race and gender shape the framing of partner-choice accounts of team formation? In the first section, I attend to recurrent patterns related to how respondents frame their partner-choice accounts. In the second section, I highlight how race and gender shape respondents' perceptions of avatars. Lastly, in the final section, I present results that detail how respondents use color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism frames to explain their choices.

7.3.1 "Selective Framing & Accounting"

Framing studies reveal that people "select some aspects of a perceived reality and make them more salient in a communicating text, in such a way as to promote a particular problem definition, causal interpretation, moral evaluation, and/or treatment recommendation…." (Entman 1993:52). Additionally, frames also represent ideological value systems or systems of beliefs in grounded in a moral-political discourse which society, culture, and history deem worthy of attention and action (Koca-Helvacı 2016, Majors 2015, Hall et al. 1981). The results

from this study reveal three styles[31] of selectivity[32] that respondents use when framing their partner-choice justifications.

- First, they justify the selection of an avatar through explicit stigmatizing or disparaging messages about rejected, or non-selected, avatars. I refer to this frame as "negative-selectivity[33]" (or default favor). For example, a respondent might claim that he chose Tony because Melissa did not meet standards.
- The second frame is "positive-selectivity" (or deserved favor), which represents a framing style that exclusively and positively evaluates and supports favored or chosen avatars. This frame is the opposite of negative-selectivity because rather than the selection being based on default, it is the result of the respondents' perceptions of deserved team membership. For example, a respondent might claim that she chose Melissa over Tony because Melissa meets the standards.
- Finally, the last frame is "mixed-selectivity" (or defensible favor). Mixed-selectivity refers to a framing style whereby respondents rely on both positive and negative assessments to justify partner-choice and decision-making behaviors. This style frames a decision to reject or accept an avatar based on various factors that indicate both positive and negative justifications. For example, a respondent might claim that she chose Jackie over Becky because Jackie is a leader and Becky is more of a follower than a leader.

In what follows, I present the results in frequency tables below that show the three styles of selectivity framing and how often they appear in participant responses across race and gender

[31] Style refers to ideological "linguistic manners and rhetorical strategies" that are used to articulate and structure frames as well as storylines (Bonilla-Silva 2002:42).
[32] Selectivity refers to "different slants on the reporting of events" (Brighton and Foy 2007:11; Hall et al. 1981).
[33] I also term inverted-selectivity as "default favor," which similarly refers to the selected avatar as a default decision.

(Tables 7.3.1a – 7.3.1c). Additionally, the tables illustrate how the selections and/or rejections of candidates, in a specific choice pool, are distributed by race and gender. I organize the findings in three parts. First, I present the findings associated with positive-selectivity, negative-selectivity, mixed-selectivity, respectively

7.3.1a Positive-Selectivity

Table 7.1 Response Frequencies of Positive-Selectivity by Race & Gender, per Choice Situation (N=2825)

Candidates	Choice Situation[a]	Race & Gender of Respondents				Row %	Row Std. Dev
		White Males	White Females	Black Males	Black Females		
Logan over Tanner	I	48	41	29	28	5%	8.38
Tanner over Logan	I	27	38	35	46	5%	6.80
Scott over Terrence	I	23	26	5	12	2%	8.44
Terrence over Scott	I	42	47	58	63	7%	8.38
Christopher over Katelyn	I	3	17	3	3	1%	6.06
Katelyn over Christopher	I	60	64	61	65	9%	2.06
Katie over Andre	I	55	58	40	33	7%	10.36
Andre over Katie	I	12	16	26	36	3%	9.31
Aaliyah over Heather	I	24	10	38	47	4%	14.04
Heather over Aaliyah	I	51	63	25	25	6%	16.55
Bianca over Darrius	I	43	59	41	53	7%	7.35
Darrius over Bianca	I	23	12	23	17	3%	4.60
Jake over Asia	I	48	47	21	24	5%	12.55
Asia over Jake	I	18	20	38	42	4%	10.62
Kayla and Darius over any team with Dylan	III	10	9	26	24	2%	7.79
Kayla and Dylan over any team with Darius	III	12	16	12	26	2%	5.72
Darius and Dylan over any team with Kayla	III	32	36	17	18	4%	8.38
Katherine and Luke over any team with Diamond	III	23	19	10	4	2%	7.45
Diamond and Katherine over any team with Luke	III	23	31	37	45	5%	8.06
Diamond and Luke over any team with Katherine	III	9	11	13	15	2%	2.24
Andre and Lucas over any team with Becca	III	9	6	6	14	1%	3.27
Becca and Andre over any team with Lucas	III	12	20	29	19	3%	6.04
Becca and Lucas over any team with Andre	III	28	26	11	19	3%	6.67
Tyrone and Jazmin over any team with Hannah	III	15	12	21	21	2%	3.90
Hannah and Jazmin over any team with Tyrone	III	17	9	21	19	2%	4.56
Hannah and Tyrone over any team with Jazmin	III	14	30	14	23	3%	6.72
Column Total		681	743	660	741		
Column %		24%	26%	23%	26%	100%	

a. The results for choice Situation II are not displayed due to its similarity with Choice Situation I (see page 09 of this chapter)

Table 7.1 shows 2,825 occurrences of positive-selectivity (i.e. deserved favor) expressed in partner-choice justifications by race and gender for each choice situation. The frequency of positive-selectivity is fairly dispersed across respondents' race and gender. White males encompass 24% of those who use the positive-selectivity rationale structures and 26% of the sample's demographic composition, within a two-point margin of error from their positive-selectivity percentage. White females encompass 26% of those who use the positive-selectivity rationale structure, as well as, 26% of the sample's demographic composition. Black males encompass 23% of the positive-selectivity rationale structures and 22% of the sample's demographic composition, within a one-point margin of error from their positive-selectivity percentage. Black females encompass 26% of the positive-selectivity rationale structures, as well as, 26% of the sample's demographic composition. Thus, the table indicates occurrences of positive-selectivity are proportionate racial and gender demographic composition of the sample.

Important to note, the table shows positive-selectivity emerges most frequently in justifications that justify selecting Katelyn over Christopher (9%). In this choice situation, most white females' positive assessments of Katelyn, complimented her perceived competence and personality. For example, Sally, a self-identified white female, stated she chose Katelyn over Christopher because Katelyn "looked intelligent, upbeat and friendly." White males, however, commonly remarked favorably on her aesthetic appeal and personality. For example, Mario, a self-identified white male, stated that he chose Katelyn over Christopher because Katelyn "is attractive and looks friendly." Most black female respondents complimented her perceived intelligence as a justification for selecting Katelyn over Christopher. For example, Lela, a self-identified black female, stated she chose Katelyn over Christopher because "She looks smart." Lastly, the majority of black male respondents, complimented Katelyn's competence and

aesthetic. For example, Ricardo, a self-identified black male, stated that he chose Katelyn because “She looked smart and pretty.”

Overall, Table 7.1 presents the frequency distribution of positive-selectivity rationale structures across responses delineated by the intersection of participants’ race and gender. Regardless of racial and gender category, positive-selectivity structures how respondents express their partner-choice justifications. This finding suggests that when given the opportunity to explain one’s own teammate selections from a pool of strangers, people will tend to justify their partner choices by expressing a positive sentiment toward a perceived benefit solely ascribed to the chosen candidate. Furthermore, justifications illustrating positive-selectivity do not express any perceived benefit or detriment associated with the rejected candidate.

7.3.1b Negative-Selectivity

Table 7.2 Response Frequencies of Negative-Selectivity by Race & Gender, per Choice Situation (N=279)

Candidates	Choice Situation[a]	Race & Gender of Respondents: White Males	White Females	Black Males	Black Females	Row %	Row Std. Dev
Logan over Tanner	I	2	2	0	2	2%	0.87
Tanner over Logan	I	0	1	1	1	1%	0.43
Scott over Terrance	I	5	1	0	1	3%	1.92
Terrence over Scott	I	4	4	1	2	4%	1.30
Christopher over Katelyn	I	1	1	0	0	1%	0.50
Katelyn over Christopher	I	1	0	0	0	0%	0.43
Katie over Andre	I	3	4	1	2	4%	1.12
Andre over Katie	I	3	0	0	0	1%	1.30
Aaliyah over Heather	I	0	1	0	3	1%	1.22
Heather over Aaliyah	I	4	5	5	2	6%	1.22
Bianca over Darrius	I	7	6	1	2	6%	2.55
Darrius over Bianca	I	1	0	1	0	1%	0.50
Jake over Asia	I	4	5	6	1	6%	1.87
Asia over Jake	I	5	3	0	2	4%	1.80
Kayla and Darius over any team with Dylan	III	6	3	0	4	5%	2.17
Kayla and Dylan over any team with Darius	III	9	5	4	0	6%	3.20
Darius and Dylan over any team with Kayla	III	2	3	2	1	3%	0.71
Katherine and Luke over any team with Diamond	III	3	1	0	1	2%	1.09
Diamond and Katherine over any team with Luke	III	6	5	1	1	5%	2.28
Diamond and Luke over any team with Katherine	III	4	0	4	1	3%	1.79
Andre and Lucas over any team with Becca	III	5	2	1	4	4%	1.58
Becca and Andre over any team with Lucas	III	10	2	2	5	7%	3.27
Becca and Lucas over any team with Andre	III	6	4	2	1	5%	1.92
Tyrone and Jazmin over any team with Hannah	III	18	12	2	3	13%	6.61
Hannah and Jazmin over any team with Tyrone	III	7	2	1	1	4%	2.49
Hannah and Tyrone over any team with Jazmin	III	5	6	2	3	6%	1.58
Column Total		121	78	37	43		
Column %		43%	28%	13%	15%	100%	100%

a. The results for choice Situation II are not displayed due to its similarity with Choice Situation I (see page 09 of this chapter)

Table 7.2 shows 279 of occurrences negative-selectivity (i.e. default favor) expressed in partner-choice justifications by race and gender for each choice situation. The column frequency percentages indicate that negative-selectivity is disproportionally distributed across respondents grouped by race and gender. White male respondents occupy the mode of the distribution. Thus, negative-selectivity most frequently occurs in the justifications provided by white males (43%), compared to all other racial and gender demographic groups in the sample. Additionally, their negative-selectivity commonly emerges in both choice situations[34].

In choice situation one, when asked to explain their selection for Scott over Terrance, white male justifications negatively framed Terrence as unfriendly. For example, Nicolas, a self-identified white male, stated he chose Scott over Terrence because "Terrance looks angry." In another choice pool with two candidates, white male respondents were asked to explain their selection for Bianca over Darrius, their justifications negatively framed Darrius as having an unbecoming personality. For example, Martin, a self-identified white male, stated he choose Bianca over Darrius because, "Darrius needs to lighten up."

Negative-selectivity also structured white male justifications in choice situations requiring the selection of two out of three candidates (e.g. choice situation three) for team membership. When asked to justify selecting Kayla and Dylan as teammates, over any team that included Darius with Kayla or Dylan, white male respondents commonly stated that Darius's name was the issue. For example, Victor, a self-identified white male, stated he chose Kayla and Dylan as team members because Darius's "… name was like a "bad guy" from history." Again, I

[34] Be reminded that Choice Situation I refers to choice pools instructing participants to pick one out of two candidates for team membership. Choice Situation III, however, refers to choice pools instructing participants to pick one out of three candidates for team membership.

have provided just one representative example of how explicitly negative appraisals of an avatar is used to justify the respondents' partner choice.

Another frequency distribution (see highlighted line in Table 7.2), where the justifications of white males occupy the mode, pertains to the choice pool with Becca, Andre, and Lucas as candidates. When asked to justify selecting Becca and Andrea as teammates, over any team that included Lucas with Becca or Andre, white male respondents generally claimed that Lucas appeared apathetic and uninvolved. For example, David, a self-identified white male, stated he chose Becca and Andre as team members because "… Lucas looks too bored." In another choice pool with three candidates, white male respondents who selected Tyrone and Jazmin over a team that included Heather with Jazmin or Tyrone, expressed a lack of fondness toward Hannah's hairstyle. For example, Ian, a self-identified white male, stated he chose Jazmin and Tyrone as team members because "Hannah's hair is terrible." To reiterate how these are examples of what I refer to as "negative-selectivity," in each of the examples provided above, the partner-choice selection was justified based on the negative characteristics of the rejected avatar rather than on the positive attributes of the selected avatar.

Overall, Table 7.2 presents the frequency distribution of negative-selectivity justifications across responses grouped by respondents' race and gender identity. Additionally, the table shows negative-selectivity occurring most often in the partner-choice justifications of white males, relative to white females, black females, and black males. Moreover, the negative-selectivity of white males' justifications shows a pattern in which black male candidates (i.e. Terrance, Darrius, and Darius) are the typical subjects being maligned. These findings suggest that, in this study, when given the opportunity to explain one's own teammate selections from a pool of strangers, the justifications of white males focused on the deficiencies or negative sentiment

toward the rejected candidate. Respondents, in this category, do not articulate in their responses any perceived benefit or detriment associated with the favored candidate.

7.3.1c Mixed-Selectivity

Table 7.3 Response Frequencies of Mixed-Selectivity by Race & Gender, per Choice Situation (N=157)

Candidates	Choice Situation[a]	Race & Gender of Respondents				Row %	Row Std. Dev
		White Males	White Females	Black Males	Black Females		
Logan over Tanner	I	1	3	0	2	4%	1.12
Tanner over Logan	I	0	0	1	1	1%	0.50
Scott over Terrence	I	2	3	0	2	4%	1.09
Terrence over Scott	I	2	2	3	5	8%	1.22
Christopher over Katelyn	I	0	0	0	1	1%	0.43
Katelyn over Christopher	I	2	0	1	4	4%	1.48
Katie over Andre	I	1	2	1	3	4%	0.83
Andre over Katie	I	1	1	1	1	3%	0.00
Aaliyah over Heather	I	2	0	1	1	3%	0.71
Heather over Aaliyah	I	0	2	2	2	4%	0.87
Bianca over Darrius	I	1	2	0	1	3%	0.71
Darrius over Bianca	I	2	1	1	1	3%	0.43
Jake over Asia	I	0	2	1	2	3%	0.83
Asia over Jake	I	3	1	1	5	6%	1.66
Kayla and Darius over any team with Dylan	III	2	2	2	1	4%	0.43
Kayla and Dylan over any team with Darius	III	1	2	1	3	4%	0.83
Darius and Dylan over any team with Kayla	III	2	3	2	1	5%	0.71
Katherine and Luke over any team with Diamond	III	2	4	0	1	4%	1.48
Diamond and Katherine over any team with Luke	III	1	1	3	2	4%	0.83
Diamond and Luke over any team with Katherine	III	1	1	0	2	3%	0.71
Andre and Lucas over any team with Becca	III	0	2	0	1	2%	0.83
Becca and Andre over any team with Lucas	III	0	0	3	1	3%	1.22
Becca and Lucas over any team with Andre	III	1	4	1	2	5%	1.22
Tyrone and Jazmin over any team with Hannah	III	1	2	0	4	4%	1.48
Hannah and Jazmin over any team with Tyrone	III	1	0	4	3	5%	1.58
Hannah and Tyrone over any team with Jazmin	III	1	3	2	1	4%	0.83
Column Total		30	43	31	53		
Column %		19%	27%	20%	34%	100%	

a. The results for choice Situation II are not displayed due to its similarity with Choice Situation I (see page 09 of this chapter)

Table 7.3 shows 157 of occurrences mixed-selectivity (i.e. defensible favor) expressed in partner-choice justifications by race and gender of respondents. The frequency percentages in the "Column %" row indicates that mixed-selectivity is disproportionally distributed across respondents grouped by race and gender. Black female respondents occupy the mode in this distribution. In other words, mixed-selectivity most frequently occurs in the framing practices of black female (34%), compared to all other racial and gender demographic groups in the sample. Additionally, high rates of mixed-selectivity in black females' partner-choice justifications commonly emerge in both choice situations.

In choice situation one, when asked to explain their selection of Terrance over Scott, black females' partner-choice justifications generally indicated that Terrance appeared more mature and competent; while, Scott looked immature. This rationale structure is best exemplified when Carol, a self-identified black female, stated she chose Terrance over Scott because "Terrance looks confident and strong, but Scott looks geeky and ditzy." Similarly, when asked to explain their selection for Katelyn over Christopher, black females' partner-choice justifications generally indicated that Katelyn had the best skillset for the team, while expressing Christopher's skillset as adequate. This is most exemplified when Doris, a self-identified black female, responds that she chose Katelyn over Christopher because "Katelyn looks nice and smart and Christopher seems like he'll do the right thing."

In another partner-choice rationale request, respondents were asked to explain their selection for Asia over Jake (see highlighted line in Table 7.3). Most of the responses from black females indicated that Asia had the skillset for team success, while Jake looked underdeveloped. For example, Beverly, a self-identified black female stated she chose Asia over Jake because, "Asia looks like she will be creative, but Jake looks like he doesn't know his left from his right."

Mixed- selectivity also structured black female justifications when selecting two out of three candidates for team membership (e.g. choice situation three). For instance, when asked to justify selecting Tyrone and Jazmin over a team that included Heather with Jazmin or Tyrone, black female respondents indicated that Jazmin and Tyrone have skillsets that complement each other, while Hannah seems uncomfortable. For example, Brittani, a self-identified black female, stated she chose Jazmin and Tyrone as team members because "Tyrone and Jazmin look confident and fun, but Hannah looks a little hesitant."

Overall, Table 7.3 presents the frequency distribution of mixed-selectivity justifications across responses delineated by the intersection of race and gender. Additionally, the table shows mixed-selectivity occurring most often in the partner-choice justifications of black females, relative to white males, white females, and black males. Moreover, the mixed-selectivity of black females' justifications shows a pattern in which favorability was more strongly expressed towards the selected candidates, while acknowledging the presence and a perceived satisfactory or dissatisfactory skillset of the rejected avatar. These findings suggest that when given the opportunity to explain one's own teammate selections from a pool of strangers, black females, more than the other racial and gender groups, frame partner-choice justifications with a selectivity style that addresses their perceptions of selected, as well as, non-selected candidates in a given choice-pool.

7.3.1d Section Summary

Table 7.4 Summary Table of Selectivity Frames by Demographics

Demographics	N	N%	n	n%	Positive-Selectivity	Negative-Selectivity	Mixed-Selectivity
White Males	88	26%	832	26%	21%	4%	1%
White Females	90	26%	864	26%	23%	2%	1%
Black Males	75	22%	728	22%	20%	1%	1%
Black Females	90	26%	837	26%	23%	1%	2%
Total	343	100%	3261	100%	87%	≈9%	5%

Table 7.4 provides a comprehensive summary of the selectivity frames for all 3261 intelligible responses ("n"), by respondents racial and gender identity. The justifications by white males, white females and black females respectively encompassed 26% of these responses, while the justifications expressed by black males encompassed the remaining 22%. In addition to illustrating the distribution of responses by race and gender, the table presents the estimated frequency percentages of selectivity frames reflected in respondents' partner-choice justifications.

Most of the partner-choice justifications illustrated positive-selectivity (87%). The frequency percentages regarding expressions of positive-selectivity are fairly dispersed across intersecting categories of race and gender. When asked to provide a brief explanation regarding their partner-choices, white males,' white females,' black males,' and black females' justifications expressed positive sentiments toward a perceived attribute of the favored candidate. Positive or negative assessments about the rejected candidates were not disclosed. Partner-choice justifications associated with negative-selectivity, on the other hand, exclusively expresses negative sentiments about the rejected candidate, to justify the selection of the chosen candidate.

Approximately 9% of the 3,261 partner-choice justifications exemplified negative-selectivity. Relative to white females, black females, and black males, negative-selectivity occurs

most often in the partner-choice justifications of white males. Thus, white males, more than any group in the sample, justify their partner choices by expressing a negative sentiment toward a perceived detriment solely attributed to the rejected candidate. Lastly, mixed-selectivity encompassed 5% of all the kept partner-choice justifications. Black females' partner-choice justifications exhibited mixed-selectivity more than any demographic group in the sample. Their justifications identified potential partners explicitly by name and then evaluated them both—the selected and rejected candidates in a given choice pool.

In conclusion, the results echo previous interactionist literature on 'selective framing,' finding that people "see objects in a highly selective manner" (Callais 2010:69). Thus, people's definition of a symbol or situation might selectively include or exclude to ideas that are not excluded by another. My finding suggests, all respondents rely on selective framing to structure partner-choice justifications. However, there are racial and gender stylistic differences in the way participants selectively frame their team formation justifications. For example, and most notably, the mixed-selectivity frame of black females' partner-choice justifications shows a pattern that suggest black female respondents must show that they've fully considered the characteristics of both avatars, as opposed to the white male participants who may feel less pressured to provide a more detailed account about the motivations behind their selections.

These finding extends the literature by noting the identification and utilization of three styles of selectivity framing in justifications justifying partner-choices solely based on race and gender. Although the literature on selectivity primarily focuses on the production of news stories (Hall et al 1981), my findings extend this literature beyond the institutional context into the social practices of everyday life. Ultimately, the different styles of selectivity frames represent

framing judgements guided and organized by a moral-political belief system (Entman 1993) resulting in unequal expressions of partner-choice justifications.

7.3.2 "Impression Formations" through "Signifiers"

Beyond the selectivity frames that respondents used, this study is aimed at understanding how respondents justify or explain not just whom they selected, but why they selected them. In this section, I present another overarching theme that emerged from the data analysis—impression formation. According to Larson and Tsitos (2012), "impression formation refers to the processes of inferring meaning about others from gestures, significant symbols, and other characteristics….[I]mpressions form quickly based on appearance and demeanor, often before a word is spoken" (308). Research suggests that in absence of relevant information, people will rely on cultural stereotypes when making judgments or first impressions about unfamiliar individuals (Fiske et al 2018; Zebrowitz 2017; Hinton 2015). Stereotypes are overly simplified nonessential representations about social groups within a stratified society. Contingent on the social group and situation, they can have positive, negative, beneficial and/or detrimental outcomes (Kian, Supple, & Stein 2018; Steffens et al 2018). Stereotypes can be the cause and consequence of prejudice or ideological beliefs indicative of the power and status position of a group (Mensele et al 2015). As a result, stereotypes become normative taken for granted sources of biased information capable of shaping actors' decision-making practices.

In the U.S., gender and race are status categories in which evaluative judgments and impression formations can be subject to stereotypical norms or biases (Fiske 2018; Hauser & Schwarz 2018). For example, concerning sex roles, stereotypical norms prescribe the behaviors and character traits for women and men. Women are expected to be warm, accommodating, and emotional, while men are expected to be competent, assertive, and logical (Fiske et al 2018).

With respect to white and black racial identity groups, people who are identified as white are expected to be affluent, hardworking, and intelligent; while people who are identified as black are expected to be impoverished, lazy, and unintelligent.

Studies show that stereotypical norms relating to race and gender can be used as organizing principles of society and group formation (Duguid & Thomas-Hunt 2015; Agazarian & Gantt 2005; Ivancevich, Matteson, Konopaske 1990). Additionally, scholars have examined how stereotypes shape perceptions, justifications, and evaluations that people provide when accounting for their decision-making behaviors (Cundiff 2018; Winter 2007; Jost & Kay 2005; Kay & Jost 2003). However, there is also a body of research that suggest subjective or idiosyncratic features, such as personal taste or preference, may shape decision-making behaviors, and thus people's justifications, more so than stereotypical norms.

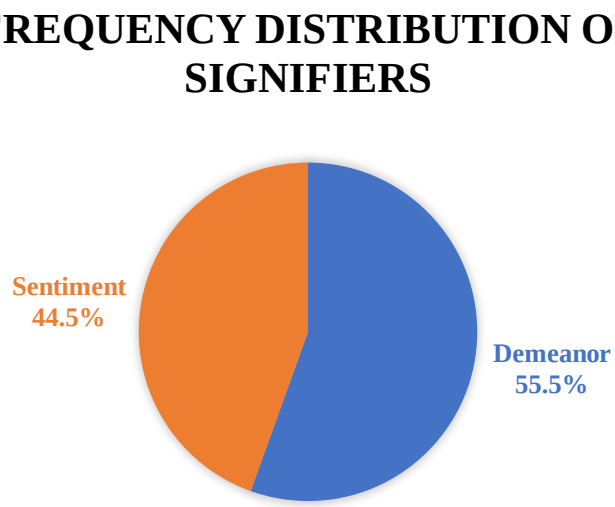
Are partner-choice justifications for team membership exempt from the influence of racial and gender stereotypes? In other words, do racialized and gendered assumptions, or expectations, shape how participants determine an avatar's suitability for team membership? The results presented in this section, provide support to previous research on digital avatars as symbolic representations of the self and other (Gottschalk 2010). Additionally, the results demonstrate how respondents justify, or account for, their partner selections, represented by avatar images, through impression formations shaped by signifiers (or evaluative categories). The analysis revealed that impression formation emerged on the basis of two types of signifiers (i.e. evaluative categories): *demeanor* (behavior/character cues) and *sentiment* (affective and aesthetic connection). These signifiers shaped which qualities were attributed to avatars and greatly influenced partner choice selections.

Demeanor refers to a perception based of how someone's social behavior expresses their character, disposition, or mannerism (Goffman 1956). I operationalized demeanor as justifications containing keywords, statements, ideas or expressions conveying how respondents perceive a candidate's competence, character, and/or team-fit. For example, I coded accounts as demeanor, if a respondent stated that they picked Katie over Dylan because she was "smart" or "smart looking." The keywords "smart" and "smart looking" indicate competence, which are coded as demeanor. Similarly, references to character and team-fit are interpreted as *nonverbal cues of acceptability*. Respondents use various cues related to demeanor in their partner-choice justifications.

Sentiment refers to evaluations of candidates based on how the avatar appeals to \participants' feelings and emotions (Ekkekakis 2012; Charon 2004). I operationalized sentiment as justifications containing keywords, statements, ideas or expressions that convey a respondent's feelings (e.g. love, happiness, affinities, uncertainty, ambivalence, etc.…) and emotions (e.g. trust, need, confidence, fear, anger, attraction, etc.…) as connected to a candidates' appearance or physical features. For example, I coded accounts as sentiment, if a respondent stated that they picked Brandy over Kelly-Anne because they "felt an attraction" or has "confidence in black female skills." The statements "felt an attraction" and "confidence in black female skills" express a type of intense emotion, which I interpret as sentiment. I term expressions of feelings and emotions as *feeling-states of affective impact*. Respondents use these feeling-states to express a sentimental justification regarding their partner selections.

On rare occasion, some of the justifications contained both signifiers. In that case, the justification contributed to the count for both signifiers. This procedure is the "unitization" process of Jackson's and Trochim's (2002) explained earlier. For example, if a respondent stated

that they picked Eric over Erica because "Eric looked friendly [demeanor] and there was a feeling of attraction [sentiment]," this justification contributed to both demeanor and sentiment, respectively. By 'unitizing' the justifications containing both signifiers (i.e. demeanor and sentiment), the unit of analysis for this section of the study focuses on the extent to which signifiers appear in justifications. The chart below illustrates the frequency distribution of the signifiers (i.e. evaluative categories)—demeanor and sentiment expressed in partner-choice justifications.



Overall, the justifications contained 1,516 instances of one of the three types of significant symbols, 1,060 of the justifications used only one of the types, 228 used both types. The chart shows that 55.5% of uses were of the demeanor type and 44.5% were of the sentiment type. These figures are not specific to the demographic or social categories of gender, race, or the intersection of race and gender. This poses the following research question: do different types of respondents use signifiers differently? Specifically, do male respondents use signifiers

differently than female respondents and do white respondents use them differently than black respondents?

The answer to this question is illustrated in Table 7.5, below.

Table 7.5 Frequency Distribution of Signifiers for Race, Gender, and Race & Gender (Intersectionality)

Gender (N=1,516)	**Demeanor**	**Sentiment**	**Grand Total**
Males	54%	46%	100%
Females	57%	43%	100%
Gender Total	55.5%	44.5%	100%
Race (N=1,516)	**Demeanor**	**Sentiment**	**Grand Total**
Whites	56%	44%	100%
Blacks	55%	45%	100%
Race Total	55.5%	44.5%	100%
Race & Gender (N=1,516)	**Demeanor**	**Sentiment**	**Grand Total**
White Males	53%	47%	100%
White Females	58%	42%	100%
Black Males	55%	45%	100%
Black Females	56%	44%	100%
Race & Gender Total	55.5%	44.5%	100%

Table 7.5 displays frequencies of the signifiers (i.e. evaluative categories) by the race, gender, as well as, the race and gender (intersectionality) of the respondent, respectively. That is, this table illustrates how often status-identity groups (e.g. males, whites, and white males) of respective social categories (i.e. gender, race, and the intersection of race & gender) use of the signifiers (i.e. demeanor and sentiment) in their justifications of partner choice. Regarding the distributions of signifiers by gender, the table shows that 54% of the signifiers used by males in

their justifications were of the demeanor type, while for females the corresponding usage was 57%. Additionally, the table shows that 46% of the signifiers used by males in their justifications were of the sentiment type while for females the corresponding usage was 43%. Relative to the grand total, males use sentiment more often than females. Females, conversely, use demeanor more often than males.

As it pertains to the distributions of signifiers by race, the table shows that 56% of the signifiers used by white respondents in their justifications were of the demeanor type, while for black respondents the corresponding usage was 55%. Additionally, the table shows that 44% of the signifiers used by white respondents in their justifications were of the sentiment type while for black respondents the corresponding usage was 45%. Relative to the grand total, both black and white racial groups use demeanor and sentiment at the same frequency.

Concerning the distributions of signifiers by the intersection of race and gender, the table shows that 53% of the signifiers used by white males in their justifications were of the demeanor type. For white females, however, the table shows that the demeanor type encompassed 58% of the signifiers used in their partner choice justifications. Also, the table shows that 55% of the signifiers used by black male respondents were of the demeanor type while for black female respondents the corresponding usage was 56%. Relative to the grand total, white females use demeanor more than white males, black males, and black females.

Additionally, the table shows that 47% of the signifiers used by white male respondents in their justifications were of the sentiment type. For white females, however, the table shows that the sentiment type encompassed 42% of the signifiers used in their partner choice justifications. Furthermore, the table shows that 45% of the signifiers used by black male respondents in their justifications were of the sentiment type while for black female respondents

the corresponding usage was 44%. The prominent finding illustrated in the table highlights the major gender differences in the usage of significant symbols, relative to the other social categories (i.e. race, and the intersection of race and gender). Relative to the grand total, white males use sentiment more than white females, black females, and black males.

In sum, Table 7.5 provides evidence that a gender effect exists by the difference between males and females in their use of sentiment in their justifications, but there was essentially no difference in use of the demeanor. Although the table also shows no evidence of a race effect, its intersectional analysis of race and gender reveals no gender differences among blacks, but there are gender differences within the white racial category.

In addition to the results presented in Table 7.5, I performed an χ^2 analysis to respectively test the association between the usage of signifiers and the demographic categories of the respondents, as well as, the association between the usage of signifiers and the perceived demographic categories of the candidates/avatars (see Appendix D for tables). The results show that associations between usage of signifiers and the demographic categories of the candidates/avatars were not statistically significant. These results pose the following research question: when a signifier is used, is there an association between respondents' identity and decision-making behavior partner-selection condition (i.e. chosen or selected partner out a choice pool of gender and racially diverse an alternatives)? In other words, is the usage of each signifier contingent on an association between respondents' racial or gender identity, and the race and gender of their chosen candidate, and/or the rejected candidate, from a given choice pool?

To answer this question, I performed another χ^2 analysis (see Appendix E for tables), The results revealed a significant association between respondents' racial identity and partner-choice justifications expressing a signifier relevant to the race and gender of chosen candidates.

Interestingly, as it pertains to respondents' gender identity, the results from the χ^2 analysis revealed that for both signifiers, there is not a significant difference between male and female respondents in their use of a demeanor or sentiment when expressing justifications specific to their partner-selection conditions (i.e. the selection of one type of candidate over another).

Consequently, this study examines how respondents' racial identity shapes their usage of demeanor and sentiment in partner-choice justifications. In accordance with the literature on mixed-methods research, (Frels & Onwuegbuzie 2013; Onwuegbuzie, Johnson, & Collins 2009; Given 2008; Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998), I use χ^2analysis as a tool to ground and support my qualitative findings. Thus, I used quantitative and qualitive data analysis, to address how, and under what condition does race influence respondents' individual use of signifiers (i.e. demeanor and sentiment) in justifications accounting their selections for certain types of candidates over others as potential problem-solving teammates.

7.3.2a Qualitative Findings: Demeanor

Table 7.6 χ2 Analysis for Usage of 'Demeanor'

Partner-Selection Encounter	Cell Contents	Race of Respondent: Black	Race of Respondent: White	Row Total
Black Female OVER White Female	N	41	15	56
	Expected N	27.53	28.47	
	Chi-square contribution	6.59	6.37	22.02%
White Female OVER Black Female	N	30	56	86
	Expected N	42.29	43.72	
	Chi-square contribution	3.57	3.45	11.93%
White Male OVER Black Male	N	10	28	38
	Expected N	18.68	19.32	
	Chi-square contribution	4.04	3.90	13.49%
Black Male OVER White Male	N	64	47	111
	Expected N	54.58	56.42	
	Chi-square contribution	1.63	1.57	5.55%
White Male OVER White Female	N	13	15	28
	Expected N	13.77	14.23	
	Chi-square contribution	0.04	0.04	0.14%
White Female OVER White Male	N	56	47	103
	Expected N	50.64	52.36	
	Chi-square contribution	0.57	0.55	1.9%
White Female OVER Black Male	N	34	54	88
	Expected N	43.27	44.73	
	Chi-square contribution	1.99	1.92	6.64%
White Male OVER Black Female	N	25	13	38
	Expected N	18.68	19.32	
	Chi-square contribution	2.14	2.07	7.15%
Black Male OVER White Female	N	32	20	52
	Expected N	25.57	26.43	
	Chi-square contribution	1.62	1.57	5.42%
Black Male OVER Black Female	N	40	56	96
	Expected N	47.20	48.80	
	Chi-square contribution	1.10	1.06	4.67%
Black Female OVER White Male	N	28	54	82
	Expected N	40.32	41.68	
	Chi-square contribution	3.76	3.64	12.57%
Black Female OVER Black Male	N	41	23	64
	Expected N	31.47	32.53	
	Chi-square contribution	2.89	2.79	9.65%
Column Total	N	414	428	842
	Percentage N	49%	51%	

χ^2_{race}= 58.85 *d.f.* = 11 *p* = .000

Table 7.6 shows my findings related to the question: how, and under what condition, does race influence respondents' who use demeanor to justify their selection of one candidate over another? In other words, this table illustrates the racial differences that emerge in how participants evaluate an avatar's perceived behavioral qualities (i.e. demeanor) to justify their partner selection. Table 7.6 illustrates the unequal usage of demeanor in partner-choice justifications expressed by black and white respondents, respectively. The table shows the association between respondents' racial identity and their usage of demeanor for different types of partner-selection conditions (located in first column on the left side of table) is statistically significant.

My finding illustrates that 49% of the overall usage of demeanor in partner choice justifications were expressed by black participants, while for white respondents, the corresponding usage was 51%. That is, white respondents, more than black respondents, attribute their partner selection to an avatar's perceived behavioral qualities. Their usage of demeanor symbolized impression formations based on character cues, behavior, and cues of team-fit. To qualitatively illustrate the racial differences in respondents' usage of demeanor, I selected quotes from the partner-selection condition based on the highest chi-square contribution score in table 7.6. The chi-square contribution score identifies which identifies which row contributes the most to a particular overall chi-square score (Field, Miles, & Field 2012).

In this case, the chi-square contribution score illustrates which partner-selection condition is most impacted the racial differences in usage of demeanor. Thus, I present examples that are the most representative of respondents' overall usage of demeanor in justifications attending to the partner-selection condition with the highest chi-square contribution score in table 7.6. The partner-selection condition with the highest chi-square contribution score involves

respondents' usage of demeanor to form impressions that justify their choice for the black female avatar over the white female avatar (22.02%; see row highlighted in yellow). Additionally, to provide a more comprehensive analysis of my findings, I have included examples from the partner-selection condition reflecting the mirror image of the encounter with contributing the most value to the χ^2 statistic. In other words, in addition to providing qualitative examples in which respondent use demeanor in their justifications accounting for their selection for the black female avatar over the white female avatar, I present examples from respondents who use demeanor to form impressions that justify their choice for the white female avatar over the black female avatar (i.e. "mirror image partner-selection condition")[35].

[35] Although the inverse partner-selections have a relatively low contribution score, I have included them as examples for two reasons: (1) To provide a more comprehensive analysis attending to how signifiers are used when the alternative candidate is selected. (2) I assume that a reader might take issue with the narrow focus.

Example #1a: Black Female over White Female[36]

The partner-selection condition involving the selection of a black female avatar over a white female avatar, had the highest percentage contribution to the overall χ^2 statistic (22.02%) in table 7.6. In this encounter, white respondents' underutilized demeanor and black respondents overutilized demeanor relative to their respective expected probabilities. The 15 white participants who selected the black female avatar used demeanor to form impressions based on cues of acceptability to deem her competent and a good fit for the team. For example, the following response from Lisa, who self-identifies as white, best represents white respondents usage of demeanor. Lisa stated that she chose the black female avatar because she looked "*smart and sharp*." This justification illustrates how white respondents use of demeanor to form impressions which identify the black female avatar, as a candidate exhibiting cues of competence (i.e. "smart and sharp"). Another common example of demeanor as used by white respondents,

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comes from Shawn. He stated that he chose the black female avatar over the white female avatar because "*she looked like she could work well together [sic] with people."* This justification illustrates another common finding in which white respondents use demeanor convey impressions that identify the black female avatar as a candidate exhibiting a cue of team fit (i.e. "could work well together with people").

Conversely, when black participants were given the opportunity to select a black female avatar over a white female avatar, the 41 black participants who selected the black female avatar used demeanor to form impressions based on character cues and cues of team-fit. For example, the following response from Alona, who self-identifies as black, stated that she chose the black female avatar because she "*looks fierce and strong."* This justification illustrates how black respondents use demeanor to form impressions which identify the black female avatar as a candidate exhibiting character cues (i.e. "fierce and strong"). In another common example, Jermaine, stated that he chose the black female avatar over the white female avatar because the black female avatar "*has a leader look…and will get the job done."* This justification illustrates how black respondents use demeanor to form impressions which identify the black female avatar as a candidate exhibiting a cue of team fit (i.e. "leader look") and a character cue (i.e. "will get the job done").

Example #1b: White Female over Black Female (Mirror Image)[37]

For participants who selected the white female avatar over the black female avatar (the mirror image of the partner-selection condition aforementioned) their usage of demeanor similarly focused on impression formations addressing candidates' character cues. In this encounter, white respondents' over utilized demeanor and black respondents underutilized demeanor relative to their respective expected probabilities. The 56 white participants who selected the white female avatar used demeanor to form impressions that framed her as friendly and relatable. For example, Roseanne, who racially identifies as white, stated that she chose the white female avatar over the black female avatar because the white female avatar appears to be *"down to earth and friendly."* This justification illustrates how respondents use demeanor to form impressions which identify the white female avatar as a candidate exhibiting character cues (i.e. "down to earth and friendly"). Clarence, who racially identifies as black, on the other hand,

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used demeanor to describe the white female avatar as *"approachable and friendly"* to justify his selection for the white female avatar over the black female avatar .This justification illustrates how the 30 black respondents use demeanor to form impressions which identify the white female avatar as a candidate exhibiting character cues (i.e. "approachable and friendly").

Sub-Section Summary: Demeanor

In sum, my findings illustrate the racial differences in how, and under what encounters, respondents use *demeanor* to form impressions that justify their partner-choices. The quantitative results show a significant association between respondents' racial identity and their usage of demeanor for different types of self-constructed partner-selection conditions. This finding confirms previous research suggesting that positive and negative perceptions of demeanor are racialized to the degree that black and Latinx populations, are more likely to be perceived as having an unpleasant or negative disposition (i.e. "demeanor") than whites and people of color who are *perceived* to be white or share similar phenotypes as white (Candelario 2007; Miller 1996). Additionally, my findings reveal that the partner-selection condition involving the selection of the black female avatar over the white female avatar influenced the significant findings the most, relative to other conditions. This finding suggest respondents' usage of demeanor is strongly associated with impression formations justifying the selection of the black female avatar over the white female avatar. In other words, the accounts expressed by white and black respondents in this condition, use demeanor to form positive impressions that justify choosing the black female as team member. Moreover, the results suggest perceptions of demeanor function as a useful tool to form impressions, as well as, to justify decisions regarding partner-choice. Thus, white and black respondents in this condition, use demeanor to form impressions that justify the black female avatar as a more *acceptable* candidate for team membership, compared to the white female avatar.

Table 7.7 χ2 Analysis for Usage of Sentiment

7.3.2b Qualitative Findings: Sentiment

Partner-Selection Encounter	Cell Contents	Race of Respondent: Black	Race of Respondent: White	Row Total
Black Female OVER White Female	N	42	15	57
	Expected N	28	29	
	Chi-square contribution	6.80	6.64	21.10%
White Female OVER Black Female	N	17	44	61
	Expected N	30	31	
	Chi-square contribution	5.73	5.59	17.77%
White Male OVER White Female	N	6	9	15
	Expected N	7	8	
	Chi-square contribution	0.27	0.26	0.83%
White Female OVER White Male	N	50	53	103
	Expected N	51	52	
	Chi-square contribution	0.02	0.02	0.05%
White Male OVER Black Female	N	15	18	33
	Expected N	16	17	
	Chi-square contribution	0.10	0.10	0.32%
Black Female OVER White Male	N	21	42	63
	Expected N	31	32	
	Chi-square contribution	3.29	3.22	10.22%
White Male OVER Black Male	N	9	24	33
	Expected N	16	17	
	Chi-square contribution	3.27	3.20	10.15%
Black Male OVER White Male	N	53	31	84
	Expected N	42	42	
	Chi-square contribution	3.19	3.11	9.89%
White Female OVER Black Male	N	34	45	79
	Expected N	39	40	
	Chi-square contribution	0.65	0.63	2.01%
Black Male OVER White Female	N	18	7	25
	Expected N	12	13	
	Chi-square contribution	2.58	2.52	8.02%
Black Female OVER Black Male	N	35	12	47
	Expected N	23	24	
	Chi-square contribution	5.98	5.84	18.54%
Black Male OVER Black Female	N	33	41	74
	Expected N	37	37	
	Chi-square contribution	0.35	0.34	1.08%
Column Total	N	333	341	674
	N%	49%	51%	100%

χ^2 = 63.69 *d.f.* = 11 *p* = .000

Table 7.7 shows my findings relating to the question: how, and under what encounter, does race influence respondents' who use sentiment to justify their selections of one candidate over another? In other words, this table illustrates the racial differences that emerge in the respondents' use evaluative or affective judgements based on sentiment, to account for their partner-selections. Thus, table 7.7 illustrates the disproportionate and unequal usage of sentiment in justifications expressed by black and white respondents, respectively. The table shows that there is a statistically significant association between respondents' racial identity and their usage of sentiment for different types of selection circumstances involving the decision to choose an avatar, with specific racial and gender features, over another.

My findings illustrate that 49% of the overall usage of sentiment in partner choice justifications were expressed by black participants, while for white respondents the corresponding usage was 51%. That is, white respondents use evaluative or affective judgements based on sentiment to account for their partner-selections, more often than black respondents. I measured sentiment in partner-choice justifications that noted participants' feelings or emotions as a basis for team formation. To qualitatively illustrate the racial differences in respondents usage of sentiment, I selected quotes from the partner-selection condition based on the highest chi-square contribution score in table 7.7. As a result, I present examples that are the most representative of respondents' usage of sentiment, but also quotes from partner-selection conditions contributing the most value to the statistically significant association between respondents' racial identity and their usage of sentiment. Furthermore, these examples exemplify the racial differences in sentiment for different types of partner-selection conditions involving avatars that symbolically represent racially and gender distinct candidates vying for team membership.

Example #1a: **Black Female over White Female*[38]

The partner-selection condition involving the selection of a black female avatar over a white female avatar, had the highest percentage contribution to the overall χ^2 statistic (21.10%) in table 7.7. In this encounter, white respondents' underutilized sentiment and black respondents overutilized sentiment relative their respective expected probabilities. The nine white participants who selected the black female avatar used sentiment to construct justifications based on consecutive feelings of ambivalence and necessity. For example, Alex, who self-identifies as white, expressed a justification that best represents white respondents' usage of sentiment. When asked to justify the selection for the black female avatar over the black female avatar, Alex stated that the decision was "... *a tossup but need[ed] the black person's viewpoint."* This affective based justification illustrates an impression formation of the black female avatar based on Alex's feelings of ambivalence through equal attraction (i.e. "a tossup"), and necessity (i.e. "needed the

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black person's viewpoint"). Additionally, this response illustrates an affective connection to perceptions of the black female avatar's collective identity (i.e. "black person's viewpoint").

Another example of sentiment as used by white respondents, comes from Leslie. He stated, *"I like all that you offered to work with, but I had to pick one"* as the reason to why he chose the black female avatar over the white female avatar. This affective based justification illustrates an impression formation of the black female avatar based on Leslie's equivalent feelings for both candidates (i.e. "I like all that you offered") and necessity (i.e. "but I had to pick one").

Conversely, when black participants were given the opportunity to select a black female avatar over a white female avatar, the 42 black participants who selected the black female avatar, used sentiment to construct justifications based on feelings of affinity and attraction for a physical feature. For example, the following response from Alona, who self-identifies as black, best represents black respondent's usage of sentiment: "*I would pick* [the black female avatar] *because I like her name and she is black like me and pretty."* This justification illustrates an impression formation based on Alona's feelings of affinity (i.e. "I like her name") and attraction (i.e. "pretty"). Additionally, this response illustrates an affective connection to perceptions of the black female avatar's racial appearance (i.e. "black like me"). In another example, Jordan, who identifies as black stated, *"I like her hair and I felt an attraction"* as the reason to why he chose the black female avatar over the white female avatar. Jordan's usage of sentiment illustrates a partner selection based on Jordan's feelings of affinity (i.e. "I like her hair") and attraction (i.e. "I felt an attraction").

Example #1b: White Female over Black Female (Mirror Image)[39]

For participants who selected the white female avatar over the black female avatar (the inverse of the partner-selection condition aforementioned) their usage of sentiment similarly focused on impression formations addressing their feelings and emotions as a basis for team formation. In this encounter, white respondents' over utilized sentiment and black respondents underutilized sentiment relative to their respective expected probabilities. The 44 white participants who selected the white female avatar used sentiment to form impressions that conveyed feelings of familiarity (Weaver and Bosson 2011). For example, in the partner-selection condition involving the selection of a white female avatar over a black female avatar, black and white participants' usage of sentiment both illustrate impression formations based on appearance (i.e. hairstyle). The following response from Rachel, who self-identifies as white, best represents white respondents' usage of sentiment: "*I like redheads."* This justification

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illustrates an impression formation based on Rachel's usage of sentiment toward "red hair" (i.e. "redheads"). Another example of sentiment as used by white respondents, comes from Jamie. Jamie stated, *"I like the color of her hair"* as justification for choosing the white female avatar over the black female avatar. This affective based justification illustrates an impression formation of the white female avatar based on Jamie's affinity toward an aesthetic attribute (i.e. hair color fondness).

Conversely, when black participants were given the opportunity to select a white female avatar over a black female avatar, the 17 black participants who selected the white female avatar, used sentiment expressed an affinity toward the white female's avatar's hairstyle, as well as, a judgment based on instinctive feelings or affective arousal. For example, Regine, who self-identifies as black, simply stated that she chose Heather because: "*Her red hair, I guess."* This justification illustrates an impression formation based on Regine's usage affinity toward red hair. Although seemingly identical, there is a subtle difference in the way between white and black respondents' use aesthetic perspective when justifying their selections. Relative to black respondents' affective taste for red hair, whites' usage of sentiment reveals an impression formation in which "red hair" serves as an aesthetic marker for "redhead." In other words, for whites participants use 'hair-color stereotype,' which is stereotyping based on (Takeda & Helms 2006) identify an appropriate or desirable teammate. Consequently, whites' affinity and attraction for redheads illustrates hair-color stereotyping, as a mechanism of team formation via partner-selection processes. In another example, Keelan, who identifies as black stated, *"My selection was based on intuition and gut…"* as justification for choosing the white female avatar over the black female avatar. This affective based justification illustrates an impression

formation of the white female avatar based on Keelan's instinctive feelings or an affective arousal (i.e. "intuition and gut").

Sub-Section Summary: Sentiment

In sum, my findings illustrate the racial differences in how, and under what encounters, respondents use *sentiment* to form impressions that justify their partner-choices. The quantitative results show a significant association between respondents' racial identity and their usage of sentiment for different types of self-constructed partner-selection conditions. This finding confirms previous research suggesting that feelings, sentiments, and emotions are racialized and hierarchical phenomena (Brewster 2013; Hendler 2001; Martin 2008; & Rockquemore 2002). Additionally, my findings reveal that the partner-selection condition involving the selection of the black female avatar over the white female avatar influenced the significant findings the most, relative to other conditions. This finding suggest respondents' usage of sentiment is strongly associated with impression formations justifying the selection of the black female avatar over the white female avatar. In other words, the accounts expressed by white and black respondents in this condition, use sentiment to form impressions that justify choosing the black female as team member. Moreover, the results suggest respondents' use sentiment to justify impressions and decisions shape by affect. Thus, white and black respondents in this condition, expressed sentimental accounts that justify impressions and decisions based on sentiment.

7.3.3 From Impression Formations to Storyline-Accounts of Team Formation

In addition to understanding how avatar features such as 'significant symbols' shape my respondents impression-formations, this study examines how race and gender shape the ideological frames of partner-choice justifications. Wolters (1982) notes ideological frames refer to discourses reflecting politically-biased beliefs, values, and attitudes toward social phenomenon (e.g. ideas, objects, and persons). Scholars have found that ideological frames are often invoked when people are asked to justify their decisions, or provide reasons for social inequality (Stroll, Lilley, & Pinter 2017; Della Porta 2012; Cech & Blair-Loy 2010; Bonilla-Silva 2006). In this section, I show the last overarching theme of my findings: the color-blind racist and gender-blind sexist frames of team formation justifications.

My findings illustrate that respondents rely on frames of color-blind racism (Bonilla-Silva 2006) and frames of gender-blind sexism (Stroll, Lilley, & Pinter 2017) to account for their partnership choices. Additionally, respondents used storytelling in accounting for their choices. Symbolic interactionists argue that storytelling serves as a way to understand experiences (Kotarba et al 2013). Due to the limited content of my participants' responses, their narrative accounts are indicative of ideological storylines. A storyline is a frame-story[40] illustrating "a set of sequences of actions and positions saturated with cultural meaning and therefore offering potential interpretations linked to characters and practices" (Søndergaard 2002:191). However, storyline characters are typically underdeveloped social types (Bonilla-Silva, Lewis, and Embrick 2004).

[40] A frame story is a companion story about the story (Branigan 3004). They are partial stories that develop the main story.

Additionally, storylines are story-like accounts, with limited narrative content, based on impersonal and generic socially shared tales where axiomatic cultural assumptions emerge through language (Bonilla-Silva, Lewis, and Embrick 2004; Orbuch 1997). That is, storylines are condensed naturalized and conventional cultural attributions that use language and communication in constructing an explanatory framework to justify social practices, courses of events, and sequences of action. For example, Agnew (2006) notes when criminals are asked to explain their reasoning for committing crimes, a storyline emerges describing the events and conditions leading up to the offense. The sequence of events in a storyline follows an ideological pattern of narrative construction in which ideological features of storytelling are taken for granted when actors or storytellers explain their personal or collective social realities.

I use storylines as an analytical tool to understand how symbolic representations of race and gender, in the U.S., shape accounts of team member selection. As a result, in the analysis that follows partner-choice justifications are conceptualized as storyline-accounts of team formation. These storyline-accounts contain five components. First, the respondent may be the "author surrogate." That is, the participants are narrating themselves as characters in the storyline-account. Second, there is an identifiable protagonist. Third, is the characterization of the avatars representing candidates using the three types of signifiers (i.e. demeanor and sentiment). Fourth, details challenges and rewards. Fifth, it is multidimensional as it uses anticipated causality to move between time and perspective. Lastly, it has a trajectory from conflict to a resolution relating to the end of the storyline (i.e. justified partner selections). These storyline-accounts extend beyond the findings associated with 'selectivity' and 'signifiers,' as their narrative content contain stereotypes indicative of color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism. Furthermore, instead of focusing only on what my participants explicitly say, I also

Table 7.8 Frequencies of Stereotypical Sentiments within Storyline-Accounts of Team Formation

Respondents	Avatar Demographic Categories			Row Total	Row %
	White Females	Black Males	Black Females		
White Males	2	5	1	8	15%
White Females	9	0	3	12	20%
Black Females	2	5	0	7	13%
Black Males	2	3	8	13	24%
Column Total	15	13	12	40	
Column %	28%	24%	20%		

critically investigate the implicit meanings embedded in the way they say it. My data suggest that the way my participants justify their partner-selections is done in a way that reproduces racist and sexist norms.

From this standpoint, I develop a structural analysis on race and gender in the U.S. to investigate schemata denoting the frames colorblind racism and gender-blind sexism underlying storyline-accounts of team formation in Tables 7.8-7.12 below. Table 7.8 shows a frequency distribution of stereotypical sentiments within 40 storyline-accounts.

This distribution details the number of times stereotypes occur in storyline-accounts grouped by respondents' race and gender. The "Column %" row, shows most of the storyline accounts expressing a stereotype referenced white female avatar-candidates (28%). The "Row %" column, shows black male respondents expressed the most stereotypical information in their storyline-accounts (24%), relative to the other status-identity groups. In the sections below, I illustrate findings by selecting examples that best represent the data associated with the race and gender of candidates (i.e. white female avatars, black female avatars, and black males avatars). It is important to note, many participants expressed storyline-accounts that positively and negatively appraised white male avatars. However, these justifications were excluded from the analysis as

their negative appraisals were not based on negative racial or gender stereotypes (i.e. diffuse status beliefs associated with race and gender). Although the positive appraisals of white male avatars depicted attributions of white male privilege, these justifications were similarly excluded because they did not illustrate a reliance on the frames of color-blind racism or gender-blind sexism.

7.3.3a Storyline-Accounts of Gender-blind Sexism

Table 7.9 Storyline-Account Frequencies of Gender-blind Sexism

Respondents	Frames of Gender-blind Sexism				Row Total	Row %
	Naturalization	Cultural Sexism	Minimization	Abstract Liberalism		
White Males	1	1	0	0	2	13%
White Females	0	8	0	1	9	56%
Black Females	0	0	2	0	2	13%
Black Males	0	3	0	0	3	19%
Column Total	1	12	2	1	16	
Column %	6%	75%	13%	6%	100%	

The results in Table 7.9show the frequencies of gender-blind sexism frames shaping 16 storyline-accounts by race and gender. Most of the storyline justifications were contextualized in the cultural sexism frame (75%). This frame contextualizes gender differences shaping impression formations as a cultural phenomenon. For example, Ivanna, a self-identified white female, was given a choice to select two candidates for team membership out of a pool of three avatars (i.e. Diamond, Luke, and Katherine). She selected Diamond, a black female avatar, and Luke, a white male avatar, over any combination that included Katherine. Ivanna provided the following storyline-account to justify her decision:

> "Diamond and Luke seem like they would complement each other. Katherine looks like she's too busy fixing her makeup."

Diamond, Luke, and Katherine are characters in Ivanna's storyline-account of team formation. She uses demeanor and aesthetic perspective to differentiate her characterizations of Diamond and Luke from Katherine. Thereby characterizing Diamond and Luke as protagonists and beneficiaries of team membership, since "they would complement each other." However, any teammate combination that included Katherine with Diamond or Luke, is implicitly

characterized as non-complementary because Katherine "looks like she's too busy fixing her makeup."

Ivanna's aesthetic perspective implicitly bases her justification on the presumption that Katherine's potential team behavior will be dissatisfactory as she "looks like she's too busy fixing her makeup." Ivanna's evaluation is not only a criticism of Katherine's beauty but serves reasonable evidence for Ivanna to impose a dissatisfactory feminine action on a still image. In other words, Katherine is excluded from team membership because she embodies dissatisfactory femininity.

Additionally, Ivanna's narrated perception of Katherine's superfluous fixation with makeup indicates the cultural sexism frame of gender-blind sexism. As such, it reinforces gender inequality through sexist ideologies that support a gendered social system in which access and opportunity to resources are often contingent upon a white hegemonic standards of beauty, aesthetic labor, and overly critical judgements of women and female bodies (Mears 2014; Williams 2013; Kwan & Trautner 2009; Rhode 2008; Patton 2006; Gherardi 1995; Acker 1990).

7.3.3b Storyline-Accounts of Color-blind Racism

Table 7.10 Storyline-Account Frequencies of Color-blind Racism

Respondents	Frames of Color-blind Racism				Row Total	Row %
	Naturalization	Cultural Racism	Minimization	Abstract Liberalism		
White Males	4	1	0	0	5	36%
White Females	0	1	0	0	1	7%
Black Females	4	1	0	0	5	36%
Black Males	1	2	0	0	3	21%
Column Total	9	6	0	0	14	
Column %	57%	43%	0%	0%	100%	

The results in Table 7.10 display the frequencies with which color-blind racism frames are identified in the 14 storyline accounts, by race and gender. Only two out of the four frames were expressed in respondents' partner-choice justifications: naturalization and cultural racism. The dominant usage of these two frames suggests that when forming teams solely based on racial and gender perceptions, people's ideological bias support the belief that homogenous associations "naturally happen" as well as, the belief that barriers to achievement are due to the maintenance of "wrong cultural values." I provide specific examples of this finding in the paragraphs below.

Relative to the four frames of color-blind racism, the naturalization frame occurred most frequently in the participant's storyline-accounts (57%). Additionally, these frames commonly emerged in the responses of black females (44%) and white males (44%), respectively. For example, the storyline-account by Ray, a self-identified white male, best exemplifies the naturalization frame of colorblind racism. Ray was given a choice to select two candidates for team membership out of a pool of three avatars (i.e. Kayla, Darrius, and Dylan). He selected Kayla, a black female avatar, and Dylan, a white male avatar, over any combination that included Darrius, a black male avatar. Ray's storyline-account was the following:

> Girls are usually very analytical and [have a] good work ethic. Also, Dylan being a white male might make more people feel easier to work with over Darrius. As no matter how much a person says they're not judgmental, everyone is. Especially when it comes down to working personally together.

In this storyline-account, Ray implicitly is an author surrogate, which makes him an additional character along with Kayla, Dylan, and Darrius. His characterization of Kayla as a "girl" who is "very analytical" and has a "good work ethic" indicates the use of demeanor to form an impression that appeals to gender differences. Ray's storyline-account also contains racial and gender attributions of sentiment that are multidimensional, as it not only characterizes Dylan's "white male" identity as one that makes "people feel" more comfortable to work with than Darrius, but also portrays Ray as someone who is honest, forthright, competent, and naturally "judgmental." Ray's narrated-self within this storyline-account indicates the naturalization frame of colorblind racism. His storyline-account shows how signifiers (i.e. demeanor and sentiment) form and narrate impressions based on racial and gender stereotypes in a way that normalizes racial prejudice. Moreover, Ray's storyline-account reinforces racial inequality through racist ideologies conducive to gendered racism and a racialized social system in which prejudicial discrimination is normative.

The storyline-accounts of black female respondents relied on the naturalization framing of color-blind racism to justify their partner selection, especially as it relates to their interpretation of demeanor. For example, Josefina, a self-identified black female, provides a storyline-account that best exemplifies how the naturalization frame emerges in black females' partner-choice justifications. Josefina was given a choice to select two candidates for team membership out of a pool of three avatars (i.e. Jasmin, Hannah, and Tyrone). She selected

Jazmin, a black female avatar, and Hannah, a white female avatar, over any combination that included Tyrone, a black male avatar. Josefina justified her selection by stating the following:

> Hannah and Jazmin are go getters too! They have strong opinions and will not be deterred; however will work to keep the team going harmoniously; Tyrone might be disruptive if we do not go along with his ideas.

In this storyline-account, Josefina is an author surrogate. Her rationale contains multidimensional impression formations in which demeanor (behavioral attributions) characterize Hannah, Jazmin, and herself as "go getters" who "have strong opinions and…. "will work to keep the team going harmoniously." Additionally, to justify excluding Tyrone, she characterizes him as potentially "disruptive" if Josefina and Hannah, or Josefina and Jazmin, "do not go along with his ideas." This storyline is characterized as multidimensional because it uses demeanor to express behavior and fit but also imposes "foresight attributions" that support performance expectations.

Consequently, Josefina's narrated impression of Tyrone as egotistic and combative indicates the naturalization frame of color-blind racism and the propensity for people of color to adopt racialized stereotypes relating to race and gender. The adoption of racial and gender stereotypes by racial minorities indicate internalized gendered racism (Szymanski & Henrichs-Beck 2014). Josefina's storyline-account represents how internalized racist ideologies conducive to gendered racism and a racialized social system by which racial and gender stereotypes shape thought patterns of people of color to perceive themselves or members of their community. Thus, her storyline-account reinforces racial inequality in which prejudicial discrimination toward black males is normative.

7.3.3c Storyline-Accounts of Color-blind Racism & Gender-blind Sexism

Table 7.11 Storyline-Account Frequencies of Color-blind Racism (CBR) & Gender-blind Sexism (GBS)

	Respondents by Race & Gender					
Frames of CBR & GBS	White Males	White Females	Black Females	Black Males	Row Total	Row %
Naturalizations	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Minimizations	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Abstract Liberalisms	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Cultural Racism & Sexism	0	0	0	2	2	20%
Naturalization & Cultural Sexism	0	1	0	1	2	20%
Naturalization & Cultural Racism	1	1	0	0	2	20%
Naturalization & Abstract Liberalism	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Minimization & Cultural Sexism	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Minimization & Cultural Racism	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Minimization & Naturalization	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Abstract Liberalism & Cultural Sexism	0	0	0	1	1	10%
Abstract Liberalism & Cultural Racism	0	0	0	0	0	0%
Abstract Liberalism & Minimization	0	0	0	3	3	30%
Column Total	1	2	0	7	10	100%
Column %	10%	20%	0%	70%	100%	

The results in Table 7.11 display the frequencies with which both color-blind racism frames and gender-blind sexism frames (*dual frameworks*) are identified in the 10 storyline-accounts, by race and gender[41]. Table 7.11 also illustrates that the majority of storyline-accounts using joint frames of color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism were articulated by black male

[41] "Dual frameworks" are storylines illustrating both frames of color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism in one account.

respondents (70%). Specifically, the abstract liberalism frame of color-blind racism and the minimization frame of sexism gender-blind sexism most frequently occurred in their storyline-accounts (30%). Their partner-choice justifications commonly evoked negative stereotypes about black female candidates relative to other candidates. For example, Miguel, a self-identified black male, was given a choice to select one candidate for team membership out of a pool of two avatars (i.e. Asia and Jake). He selected Jake, a white male avatar over Asia, a black female avatar. Miguel rationalized his selection with the following storyline-account:

> As much as I would like to have chosen Asia due to her dreadlocks and supporting the theory that they should not interfere with a person's job prospects. I could not due to her facial expression which seemed quite cocky and misplaced. Jake however looks extremely goofy in his picture but was chosen by default.

In this storyline-account, Miguel is an author surrogate, which makes him an additional character with Asia and Jake. His rationale reflects his impressions related to sentiment and demeanor; and so, he characterizes Asia as a "cocky" looking person with "dreadlocks." Jake, however, is characterized as "extremely goofy" looking, but more acceptable for team membership. Additionally, Miguel's storyline-account implicit racial and gender attributions of demeanor and affect that are multidimensional, as it also characterizes himself, as fair, reasonable, and competent because his rejection of Asia was solely based on her "cocky and misplaced" "facial expression;" as he *likes* "her dreadlocks" and *supports* the "theory" that hairstyle "should not interfere with a person's job prospects."

Miguel's narrated-self within this storyline-account indicates the abstract liberalism frame of colorblind racism as well as the minimization frame of gender-blind sexism. His storyline-account uses signifiers (i.e. demeanor and sentiment) to form impressions based on

racial and gender stereotypes in a way that illustrates the abstract liberalism frame of colorblind racism. According to Bonilla-Silva (2003) abstract liberalism:

> … incorporates tenets associated with political (e.g., 'equal opportunity', the idea that force should not be used to achieve social policy, etc.) and economic (e.g., choice and individualism) liberalism in an abstract and decontextualized manner. By framing race-related issues in the language of liberalism, whites [and nonwhites] can appear 'reasonable' and even 'moral' while opposing almost all practical approaches to deal with de facto racial inequality. For instance, by using the tenets of the free market ideology in the abstract, they can oppose affirmative action as a violation of the norm of equal opportunity (69).

Thus, Miguel's storyline-account uses sentiment to convey a standard of liberalism in order to justify his rejection of Asia on the bases of demeanor. In other words, Miguel's justification uses the language of liberalism to suggest that relative to Jake's "goofy" appearance, Asia's "cocky and misplaced" facial expression violates a norm that stipulates access to equal opportunity. Miguel's using words such as "dreadlocks" and "interfere with a person's job prospects," function as racially coded language rendering blackness and black identity salient in communication involving race (Yancy 2004; Azoulay & Mevorach 1997). Miguel's racially coded content invokes a sentiment that supports a belief in racial diversity and inclusion to infer that his rejection of Asia was not due to her race, but her face. This finding also suggests that Miguel's storyline-account contains sexist coded language indicative of gender-blind sexism.

Thus in addition to the abstract liberalism frame of color-blind racism, Miguel's storyline-account also illustrates the minimization frame of gender-blind sexism. Miguel use of minimization is grounded in selecting a male over a female by default. His use of the word "default" implicitly suggest the partner-choice, and consequently, the racialized sexism it reflects was unintentional. This interpretation confirms Stroll, Lilley, and Pinter's (2017) argument that

Table 7.12 Summary of Storyline-Account Frequencies of Ideological Frames

Respondents by Race & Gender	Ideological Frames			Row Total	Row %
	GBS	CBR	GBS & CBR		
White Males	2	5	1	8	20.0%
White Females	9	1	2	12	30.0%
Black Females	2	5	0	7	17.5%
Black Males	3	3	7	13	32.5%
Column Total	16	14	10	40	
Column %	40%	35%	25%		

GBS: Gender-blind Sexism
CBS: Color-blind Racism
GBS & CBR: Gender-blind Sexism & Color-blind Racism

the minimization frame of gender-blind sexism refers to explanations that minimize the significance of gender disparities by citing factors or reasons other sexism. Additionally, this finding supports previous research that suggests gender biases and stereotypes influence perceptions of facial expressions (Becker, Kenrick, Neuberg, Blackwell & Smith 2007; Hess, Adams, & Kleck 2004; Plant, Kling, & Smith 2004). Relative to males, females' emotive facial expressions are more likely to shape judgments that impact decisions. Moreover, the results also confirm other studies showing emotion as perceived on the face is shaped by race and the intersection of race and gender (Smith, LaFrance, & Dovido 2017; McCormick, MacArthur, & Shields 2016; Senft, Chentsova-Dutton, & Patten 2016; Adams, Jess, & Kleck 2015; Carpinella & Chen 2015; Strohminger et al 2015). Thus, Miguel's storyline-account represents how racist and sexist ideologies conducive to racialized sexism reinforce a social system that reproduces racial and gender inequality by perpetually affording white males privilege while uniquely oppressing women of color.

7.3.3d *Section Summary*

Table 7.12 provides a comprehensive summary of the findings regarding the types of three ideological frames shaping 39 storyline-accounts of team formation. Frames of gender-blind sexism shaped 41% of the storyline-accounts . White females' storyline-accounts encompassed the majority of this ideological frame (56%). Most of their responses relied on the cultural sexism frame of gender-blind sexism. Thus, respondents relied on sexist stereotypes about "gender roles" to ultimately justify their impression formations and resulting partner selection.

Moreover, 36% of the storyline-accounts were shaped by the frames of color-blind racism. The majority of these storyline-accounts relied on the naturalization frame, which was predominantly expressed by white males (36%) and black female respondents (36%). Lastly, 23% of storyline-accounts had dual frameworks or joint-frames (i.e. both color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism). Most of these storyline-accounts were expressed in the partner-choice justifications of black males (78%). The justifications of these black males primarily relied on the abstract liberalism frame of color-blind racism and the minimization frame of gender-blind sexism.

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, I examined patterns that reveal how race, gender, and their intersections, shape partner-choice justifications of team formation. Additionally, I discussed the justifications that people provide to justify their partner-selections. Lastly, I illustrated the ways in which color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism frame participants' accounts of team formation. I used interactionist and conflict theories to construct an overarching framework that critically explains how racial and gender biases infuse the storyline-accounts used by respondents to justify their selections.

In answering my first research question, 'how do speakers frame their partner-choice justifications?', I find that my participants use three different types of selective framing to account for their partner selections: positive-selectivity, negative-selectivity, and mixed-selectivity. These frames are rhetorical-emotive strategies that distinctly organize rationale-accounts that justify the selection of particular candidates over others. Additionally, most respondents, regardless of racial and gender identity, articulated their decision rationale in terms of positive-selectivity. White male respondents, however, more than white females and black respondents, constructed partner-choice accounts based on negative-selectivity. The least common rationale-structure was mixed-selectivity. This practice occurred most often in the justifications of black female participants.

As it pertains to my second research question, 'to what extent do the race and gender of the potential team member shape the framing of partner-choice accounts of team formation?,' my findings illustrate that participants form impressions based on two types of signifiers (i.e. demeanor and sentiment). These signifiers represent traits based on an avatar's racial and gender features, which ultimately direct participants' partner-choice. Additionally, along with

perceptions of the self, avatar traits function as cues by which the two signifiers emerge and reflect the attribution of racial and gendered stereotypes. Of the two signifiers, demeanor most often shaped the impressions of my respondents' partner-choice accounts. Furthermore, I found significant racial differences in how and the way the signifiers were used. For example, white respondents, slightly more than black respondents, respectively used demeanor and sentiment to form impressions that justify their partner-choices.

Finally, the results show how respondents' use signifiers (i.e. demeanor and sentiment) to form impressions and narrate stereotypes into a storyline-account reflecting frames of color-blind racism and/or gender-blind sexism. Through my respondents' use of signifiers, stereotypes became useful devices to generate a storyline in which the author (i.e. the respondent) may undergo narrative characterizations along with the candidates vying for team membership. Regarding the frames of color-blind racism, gender-blind sexism, and the storyline-accounts including frames from both theoretical frameworks (i.e. color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism), I found three major findings. First, I found that most of my participants storyline-accounts utilized the cultural sexism frame of gender-blind sexism. Thus, respondents' partner-choice justifications demonstrated a storyline-account in which the creditability of female avatars was based on "gender roles" and white hegemonic beauty standards relevant to appearance and upkeep.

In terms of the frames of color-blind racism, most of the storyline-accounts in which CBR was detected utilized the naturalization frame. The majority of these responses relied on a storyline that portrayed black males as innately hostile and incapable of teamwork. Lastly, my findings illustrate a rare occurrence in which 10 storyline-accounts contain partner-choice justifications simultaneously shaped by frames of color-blind racism and frames of gender-blind

sexism. Of these rare storyline-accounts, justifications combining the abstract liberalism frame of color-blind racism with the minimization frame of gender-blind sexism were predominant. Furthermore, justifications with these combined frames illustrated a storyline about the author (i.e. the respondent) who is characterized as an advocate for equality, yet justifies their selection for the 'less than ideal' white (male) over the black female candidate by implicitly invoking racial and gender sentiments reflecting the 'angry black woman stereotype' to characterize and disqualify the black female candidate.

8. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this final chapter, I organize the discussion and conclusion of this dissertation into six major sections. First, I provide a summary of the project. Then I discuss my findings with regard to chapter specific research questions. Third, I discuss the overall conclusion and significance of this dissertation. Fourth, I address the broader implications of my results. Fifth, I outline the contributions of my findings to the literature. Lastly, I conclude the chapter by addressing the limitations of this dissertation and provide four recommendations for future research.

DISSERTATION SUMMARY

Many social psychological studies address how gender influences interactions and inequality, but they are colorblind (Goar et al 2013; Hunt et al 2013; Goar & Sell 2009; Hunt et al 2000). That is, this literature pays little to no attention to race and how it influences gender inequality, as well as, social interaction. Black feminist scholars and scholars of critical race feminism use the concept of intersectionality to understand and highlight how women of color uniquely experience discrimination and inequality on the basis of both their race and sex (Collins & Bilge 2016; Wiggins 2000; Crenshaw 1995; King 1988; hooks 1984; Lorde 1984). Intersectionality refers to the idea that identities on different social dimensions do not have simple additive effects on individuals, they are multiplicative. That is, for example, the experiences of black females are not merely some additive compound of the experience of blacks and the experience of females (Jordan-Zachery, 2007). Thus, to understand social discrimination, domination, inequality, status, and progress, scholars should examine race and gender (and class) not as independent

categories of stratification but as an intersecting principle of a society's social order, organization, and interaction.

The concept of intersectionality relates to the analysis of multi-characteristic status situations as researched in expectation states theory. In these situations, two or more status characteristics are activated and shaped by both dimensions but not in a simple additive fashion (Berger, Fişek, Norman, & Zelditch, 1977). However, expectation states scholars contend that race, class, and gender as systems of inequality are distinct cultural constructions that implicitly overlap through stereotypes or status beliefs that mutually benefit dominant groups (Ridgeway & Kricheli-Katz, 2013). Given these divergent perspectives, one of the aims for incorporating race in expectation states research on gender inequality is to improve understandings of racial and gender domination and progress in multi-characteristic situations involving the intersections of race and gender. Another aim for strengthening expectation states research using an intersectional analysis is to improve understandings of the 'burden of proof' process in racialized and gendered multi-characteristic situations (Bailey and Skvoretz 2017).

Building upon status characteristic theory, intersectionality, and critical race theories, the studies presented in this dissertation are focused on self-organizing team formation situations where race and gender, as diffuse status characteristics, are both activated and shape the partner-selection process of team formation. The partner-selection process of team formation includes a series of actions involving how group members of different racial and gender demographics select collaborative partners for group work and become chosen by others as teammates for such interaction, as well as, how people justify their partner selections solely based on race and gender. I use a mixed-methodology to investigate how status hierarchies associated with race and gender are challenged, reinforced, and/or maintained in teammate selection patterns relative to

self-organizing team formation. The central aim for the studies reviewed in chapters one and two is to theoretically ground my study, on one hand, in research that highlights the structural basis of racial and gender inequality, and, on the other hand, in the social-psychological literature on group processes (specifically the expectation states research program), which examines how status differences or the societal rankings of one's group, structure interaction in collectively oriented task groups (Webster and Walker 2016).

The overarching aim for the research in chapters three and four is to outline Skvoretz & Bailey's (2016) partner-choice theorem in relation to the dissertation's research objective and methods —how race and gender, as diffuse status characteristics, shape one's likelihood of choosing or being chosen as a team member for a collaborative problem-solving task, requiring teamwork. Specifically, in chapters five and six, I quantitatively examine how race and gender, as diffuse status characteristics, interact and shape the partner-selection patterns/process of self-organized team formation. In chapter five, I use two measures of association (i.e. chi-square statistic and odds ratio statistic) to test two partner choice claims informed by status characteristics theory. The first claim posited that regardless of identity or status group, people will not select partners differently when given a choice between equally qualified but demographically diverse candidates. The second claim asserted that status beliefs relating to race are equally creditable to the status beliefs relating to gender and vice versa. In other words, they are equivalently beneficial sources of information for selecting a partner among equally qualified candidates. The analysis in this chapter results in a substantive and continuing focus on race and its intersection with gender.

In chapter six, I use maximum likelihood estimation to estimate the parameters of Skvoretz and Bailey's (2016) partner-choice models, based on the posited claims, and results

reported in chapter five. The estimations attend to the two claims by predicting a specific-score or value that indicates or represents the activation of stereotypes or diffuse status beliefs influencing the partner-selection patterns. The research aim in this chapter is to evaluate how the findings reported in chapter five fit the status generalization models associated with Skvoretz and Bailey's Partner-choice Theorem. The findings provide the rationale for attending to non-status attributes, or particular aesthetic features, of avatars in the models; as well as, an exploratory analysis of the models with different status constructions.

After having determining, through quantitative analysis. that race and gender matter to respondents and they matter in different ways, I wanted to qualitatively determine how the respondents explained their choice. How did they articulate their choice selections? My analysis of respondents' explanations of their choices brings expectation states research into direct dialogue with critical race and feminist theories. Thus, in the last empirical chapter, chapter seven, I qualitatively examined how participants construct and frame accounts that justify their partner choices. The central research aim of this chapter is to analyze and describe the extent in which negative racial and gender stereotypes shape the framing of justification in my respondents' team formation accounts. The findings report three overarching themes that build on each other. These results provide critical understandings to how discursive frames, rhetorical styles, and negative racial and gender stereotypes shape how individuals justify their partner-choice selections when only provided information about race and gender. Overall, the critical examination of race and gender in this dissertation challenges and extends conventional social psychological literature that does not sufficiently consider the importance of race, along with its intersections with gender, as vital structural forces on status processes, interpersonal stratification, and team formation.

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS WITH REGARD TO CHAPTER SPECIFIC RESEARCH QUESTIONS:

In this section, I discuss findings and conclusions with respect to the specific research questions posted in chapters five, six, and seven, respectively

Chapter five conclusion: research questions, predictions, & findings

In this chapter, I use chi-square tests of independence and odds ratios to address the following research questions and predictions: (1) do people in different demographic groups choose teammates differently? In particular, do the race and gender of choosers impact the choices they make? Skvoretz and Bailey's (2016) expectation states' partner choice theorem predicts no. That is, the theorem predicts the race and gender of choosers do not impact the partner- choices they make. (2) Are race and gender treated as equally important sources of performance expectations in self-organizing team formation? Skvoretz and Bailey's (2016) expectation states' partner choice theorem predicts yes. However, my data did not support these two predictions. The partner-selection patterns of white respondents are significantly different from black respondents.

Regarding respondents' status-identity at the intersection of race and gender, my results illustrate the partner-selection patterns of white male and white female respondents were significantly different from black female respondents. Additionally, when given the opportunity to select partners from a pool of candidates or alternatives distinguished by status profiles at the intersection of race and gender, the selection of candidates does not reflect the hegemonic status hierarchy favoring white males as the most preferred partner and black females as the least

preferred partner. In other words, I find that race of respondent, as well as, the intersection of respondents' race and gender, do have significant impacts on choice of candidate. The analysis of my data also show that race and gender are not treated as equally important sources of performance expectations in the partner-selection process of team formation.

The conclusion is, therefore, that respondents in different demographic groups do, in fact, choose partners differently. I also conclude that respondents do not treat the high states on race and gender as equally advantageous and low states equally disadvantageous; that is, being male does not have the same advantage as being white and being black does not have the same disadvantage as being female.

Chapter six conclusion: research questions, predictions, and findings

In this chapter, I use maximum likelihood estimation to examine if Skvoretz and Bailey's (2016) formal model equations predict probabilities of choice. Skvoretz and Bailey refines the expectation states informed predictions using parameter q, which determines the status impact of expectation advantage or disadvantage on partner choice. Thus, in this chapter I address three research questions relating to q and the theorem's predicted probabilities of choice. The first two questions are the overarching research questions of the study: (1) do the race and gender of choosers impact the choices they make? (2) Are race and gender treated as equally important sources of performance expectations in the partner-selection process of team formation. The third and last research question is do respondents' choice patterns agree with the predictions from the formal equation models of choice proposed by Skvoretz and Bailey's (2016). In accordance with the theorem's assumptions, it is predicted that: (1) q would positive and significantly different from zero, (2) q would not vary over respondents from different

demographic groups, and (3) the exact probabilities of choice would be predicted well by Skvoretz and Bailey's formal equation models of partner choice.

However, my data do not support these three predictions. The parameter q is only occasionally positive and often negative at levels of analysis of the entire respondent pool (i.e. sample), subgroups defined by the race of respondent (i.e. white and black status-identities), and subgroups defined by the race and gender of respondent (i.e. white male, white female, black male, and black female status-identities). Additionally, q varies across different status-identities of respondents in most choice situations. Lastly, the exact probabilities of choice are not predicted well by Skvoretz and Bailey's partner choice equation model. In other words, I find that status impact is negative and significantly different from zero, (2) it varies by the race, as well as, the intersection of race and gender of respondents, and (3) Skvoretz and Bailey's (2016) expectation states partner-choice theorem' formal model equations do not predict the exact probabilities of choice well.

The conclusion based on this finding is that except for white male respondents, expectation advantage based on the specification that white is the high state of the diffuse status characteristic race, and male, the high state of the diffuse status characteristic gender leads to a lower chance of being selected as a partner. In light of this conclusion, I conduct an exploratory analysis in which I re-specified the stipulation about advantaged diffuse status states and recalculated expectation advantage. Specifically, I use the specification that white is the high state of the diffuse status characteristic race but female, the high state of the diffuse status characteristic gender. In this specification, white females have the largest expectation advantage over other candidates. My results partially support the re-specified models.

I find, except for black female respondents, all other groups have a q value that is positive and significantly different from zero. In other words, except for black female respondents, the partner-selection patterns of white males, white females, and black males reflect a status hierarchy favoring white females as the most preferred partner and black males as the least preferred partner. The conclusion based on this exploratory analysis is that expectation advantage based on the re-specification that white is the high state of the diffuse status characteristic race, and female, the high state of the diffuse status characteristic gender leads to a higher chance of being selected as a partner, for all respondents, except for black females.

Chapter seven conclusion: research questions, themes, and findings

In this chapter, I use a modified constructivist grounded theory as a methodological approach to examine how race and gender shape respondents accounts of team formation. I address two research questions: (1) How do respondents frame their partner-choice justifications? (2) To what extent do race and gender shape the framing of accounts of team formation? My qualitative data reveals three overarching themes: (1) respondents use three different types of framing styles to account for their partner selections: positive-selectivity, negative-selectivity, and mixed-selectivity. Additionally, my data illustrate that these styles of framing vary by respondents' race and gender. (2) In addition to these three different types of framing styles, I find respondents use expressions of demeanor and sentiment grounded in racial and gender stereotypes to form impressions of avatars. I also find racial differences in how racial groups used expressions of demeanor and sentiment. Lastly, (3) I find that respondents use demeanor and sentiment to form impressions in storyline-accounts that rely on stereotypes and frames of gender-blind sexism and color-blind racism.

With regard to the three styles of framing, I find respondents, regardless of racial and gender identity, commonly use positive-selectivity as a framing style when justifying their partner-selections. White male respondents, however, use negative-selectivity most often relative to the other status-identity groups in the sample. Lastly, relative to the other status-identity groups by race and gender, I found that mixed-selectivity is most frequently used by black female respondents. These styles are rhetorical-emotive strategies that distinctly frame or organize accounts that justify the selection of particular candidates over others.

As it pertains to the differences in how racial groups use expressions of demeanor, I find that: (1) perceptions of a candidate's team-fit is important to the formation of impressions for all black respondents, (2) perceptions of a candidate's character as well as team-fit are important to the formation of impressions, specifically for black respondents who selected the black male avatar over the white male avatar; (3) perceptions of a candidate's character are important to the formation of impressions for the white respondents who selected the white female avatar over the black female avatar. However, perceptions of a candidate's competence are more important for white respondents who selected the black female avatar over the white female avatar. This finding confirms previous research suggesting that positive and negative perceptions of demeanor are racialized to the degree that black and Latinx populations, are more likely to be perceived as having an unpleasant or negative disposition (i.e. "demeanor") than whites and people of color who are *perceived* to be white or share similar phenotypes as white (Candelario 2007; Miller 1996).

Regarding how respondents' racial status-identity shapes their usage of sentiment, I find that white and black respondents express sentiment in accounts that justify impressions and decisions based on affect. White respondents and black respondents differ in their use of feeling-

states (Gordon 1981) that express sentiment. Racial difference emerge in the feeling-states of affinity and ambivalence. For example, white respondents express feelings of ambivalence when the partner-selection condition involved the selection of the black female avatar over the white female avatar. Black respondents, on the other hand, express feelings of affinity and ambivalence when the partner-selection condition involved the selection of the white female avatar over the black female avatar. Additionally, racial differences emerge in respondents' affective expressions of affinity and attraction. Black respondents use feelings of affinity and attraction to signify sentiment in the partner-selection condition involving the selection of the black female avatar over the white female avatar. White respondents, however, use these two feeling-states when providing justifications for the choosing the white female avatar over the black female avatar.

These findings suggest the following: (1) feelings of affinity (e.g. liking, happiness, and preference) that signify sentiment are important to the formation of impressions for both white and black respondents. (2) Feelings of attraction (e.g. love, trust, and adoration) and ambivalence (i.e. dissonance/mixed-feelings, uncertainty, and intuition/gut) that signify sentiment differ by racial category. Thus, feelings of attraction are important to respondents when the chosen female avatar is of the same race. Feelings of ambivalence, on the other hand, are important to respondents when the chosen female avatar is of a different racial category. These findings confirm previous research suggesting that feelings, sentiments, and emotions are racialized and hierarchical phenomena (Bonilla-Silva 2018; Brewster 2013; Hendler 2001; Martin 2008; & Rockquemore 2002)

Finally, pertaining to the third overarching theme, I found white males, white females, black males, and black females use demeanor and sentiment to form impressions in storyline-

accounts that rely on stereotypes and frames of gender-blind sexism and color-blind racism. My data illustrate that white female respondents' use the frames of gender-blind sexism the most, and commonly use the cultural sexism frame. With regard to the frames of color-blind racism, I find that white males and black females use the frames of color-blind racism the most, and commonly use the naturalization frame of color-blind racism. Lastly, the storyline-accounts by black males frequently rely on the frames of both gender-blind sexism and color-blind racism the most, and commonly use the abstract liberalism frame of color-blind racism and the minimization frame of gender-blind sexism.

The conclusion based on this finding is that racial and gendered stereotypes are implicitly integrated into ideas about how appearance shapes competence and partner-choice justifications. I conclude that the data show stereotyping is not simply an attributional process of demeanor and affect, but also a process of attributing storyline-accounts relying on the frames of gender-blind sexism and color-blind racism.

OVERALL CONCLUSION AND SIGNIFICANCE

To conclude, my research tries to determine how well the Skvoretz and Bailey's (2016) expectation states' partner choice theorem predicts the way that race and gender shape team formation. Moreover, I want to examine how individuals actually explain their decisions. Overall my data illustrate three major findings. First, the hypotheses derived from expectation states theory are not supported. Black respondents' use of race and gender to form expectations is different than white respondents' use. White respondents are more likely to select (and over select) a white candidate regardless of the candidate's gender over black candidates. This finding suggests the black respondents' in my sample may be constructing status differently than white

respondents' status generalization processes. This finding supports previous research suggesting that racial differences in perceptions of race and gender are structured by white habitus (Bonilla-Silva, Goar, and Embrick 2006). White habitus involves a cultural and social-psychological conditioning in which a society's racial social structure is reproduced and legitimated. It normalizes and legitimates practices of social closure and exclusion. Additionally, the social psychology of white habitus largely contributes to the social identity of whites, as it serves to define individuals, determine behavior, and evaluate status. The practices of racial preferential treatment become repetitive and routine, and eventually axiomatic. In this sense, the racial practices associated with white identity are social habits that ground thoughts, beliefs, and perceptions about action and social interaction.

Furthermore, I find additional evidence of interactional or multiplicative effects: the choice patterns of black females often differ from the choice patterns of other intersectional groups even when the other groups' patterns are similar to each other. hooks' (1996) notion of the oppositional gaze provides one possible explanation for this finding. hooks notes that the gaze organizes how we see, perceive and behave. It also refers to a way of seeing, perceiving, and acting on symbolic stimuli through a hegemonic or panoptic lens of power and domination. There are gazes, some are male, some are white, but most are intersectional. Thus, there are oppositional gazes, that contest and resist the hegemony of dominate gazes. The black female gaze is an oppositional gaze, which structures seeing, perceiving, and acting through a lens of liberation and resistance. Therefore, with regard to the re-specified models, the distinct choice patterns by black female respondents, relative to the similar choice patterns of white males, white females, and black males, may reflect their oppositional gaze to the dominant status hierarchy that favors white females as the most preferred partner and black males as the least preferred

partner. In other words, black females' low states on race and gender may make them more likely to reject dominant hierarchies, and offer them the flexibility to interact with the world differently.

Second, specifying that females are the high state of the gender characteristic, and whites are the high state of the race characteristic produces better results for Skvoretz and Bailey's (2016) formal equation models of choice. This suggest that on dimension of interpersonal competence rather than task competence, female and white status profiles are seen as more competent than male and black status profiles. Moreover, to the extent that interpersonal competence leads to team success and interpersonal incompetence to team failure, picking a female and/or white status profile over a male and/or black status profile may be deemed rational. These findings suggest that expectations and evaluations of competence and team member qualifications are structured by white standards of femininity. The literature on race, gender, and whiteness reveals that gender norms are racialized and reified as standard organizing principles (Bailey 2016, Deliovsky 2008; Young 1999; Frankenburg 1993). Perhaps gender expectations of, and stereotypes about (white) females are more aligned with the team member role and identity, than males.

Lastly, racial and gender stereotypes are implicitly integrated into storyline-accounts justifying partner choice. These storyline-accounts express demeanor and sentiment using rhetorical styles and the ideological frames of gender-blind sexism and color-blind racism. Of these ideological frames, respondents' storyline-accounts rely on the frames of gender-blind sexism the most. Interestingly, white females use this ideological frame the most and commonly relied on the cultural sexism frame. This suggests that white females' storyline-accounts illustrate symbolic violence, which refers to the internalization of sexism or passive acceptance

of traditional gender roles and sexist ideologies (Szymanski et al. 2009). Moreover, McRobbie's (2003) work suggests white females' reliance on the cultural sexism frame is indicative of female individualization, which refers to a "process bringing into being new social divisions through the denigration of poor and disadvantaged women by means of symbolic violence" (133). In other words, it is a social differentiation process based on idiosyncratic attributions reflecting internalized misogyny.

Contributions and Significance

My research contributes to the discipline in four major ways. First, while most group processes studies focus on the interactional patterns of structural inequality among groups, my research places agency at the center of analysis, as it focuses on team formation rather than group interaction. The work is significant because it bridges macro and micro literatures by analyzing how status-identities in the wider society impacts beliefs, decision-making, and social inequality.

Secondly, this research advances the literature using an innovative online research design using digital avatars as symbolic representations of race, gender, and partner choice. By capturing respondents' choice patterns as well as how they explained their choice, this design allows for unobtrusive mixed-method data collection, recruitment of participants at the national level, and allows for the observation of social process occurring in the digital domain. As people's lives are increasingly governed by digital identities, I anticipate this approach becoming used with more frequency in the future.

Thirdly, this research advances studies on race and gender by bringing expectation states research into direct dialogue with critical race and feminist theories. By incorporating an analysis on partner choice explanations using critical theories on race and gender, this work reveals

thematic patterns showing how demeanor, sentiment, as well as, how the ideological frames of color-blind racism and gender-blind sexism structure the way people justify their discriminatory behaviors.

Lastly, this research advances the group processes literature by incorporating an intersectional analysis of racism and sexism to the social psychology of team formation. By comparing the impacts of race, gender, as well as, the interaction between race and gender on partner choice patterns associated with team formation, this work reveals how racial domination impacts racialized gender norms, stereotypes, and biases structuring people's expectations, explanations, and choice.

Limitations and Future Research

Although, this study makes groundbreaking contributions to the way scholars think about team formation and race at the intersections of gender inequality, I have identified four limitations to consider. First, this study is limited to the male and female gender-binary. Research suggest that gender is fluid, relational, and driven my context (Howard & Hollander 1997). Future research on other gender categories may reveal different status beliefs, behaviors and explanations relevant to gender and team formation. Second, this study is limited to black and white racial categories. Therefore, future research on other racial categories may reveal different status beliefs, behaviors and explanations relevant to race and team formation. Third, this study is limited to the intersection of race and gender categories, but future research that incorporates other social categories, such as, sexuality, ethnicity, age, disability and class, may reveal different beliefs, behaviors and explanations relevant to intersectional effects on team formation. Lastly, this study is limited by the cartoon-like appearance of avatars, which might

lack sufficient realism and impact the choices being made. Future studies should enhance the realism of this research design by using virtual reality technology.

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APPENDIX A

USF
UNIVERSITY OF
SOUTH FLORIDA

RESEARCH INTEGRITY AND COMPLIANCE
Institutional Review Boards, FWA No. 00001669
12901 Bruce B. Downs Blvd., MDC035 • Tampa, FL 33612-4799
(813) 974-5638 • FAX (813) 974-7091

5/12/2016

Jasmon Bailey
Sociology
4202 East Fowler Avenue CPR 210A Tampa,
FL 33620

RE: **Expedited Approval for Initial Review**
IRB#: Pro00024048
Title: Status Effects on Teammate Selection: Advancing Expectation States Theory

Study Approval Period: 5/12/2016 to 5/12/2017

Dear Mr. Bailey:

On 5/12/2016, the Institutional Review Board (IRB) reviewed and **APPROVED** the above application and all documents contained within, including those outlined below.

Approved Item(s):
Protocol Document(s):
IRB PROTOCOL 5.0v

Consent/Assent Document(s):
MTurk (Pilot Study) Informed Consent
Qualtrics (Modified Study) Consent Form

It was the determination of the IRB that your study qualified for expedited review which includes activities that (1) present no more than minimal risk to human subjects, and (2) involve only procedures listed in one or more of the categories outlined below. The IRB may review research through the expedited review procedure authorized by 45CFR46.110. The research proposed in this study is categorized under the following expedited review category:

(7) Research on individual or group characteristics or behavior (including, but not limited to, research on perception, cognition, motivation, identity, language, communication, cultural beliefs or practices, and social behavior) or research employing survey, interview, oral history, focus group, program evaluation, human factors evaluation, or quality assurance methodologies.

Your study qualifies for a waiver of the requirements for the documentation of informed consent for an online survey as outlined in the federal regulations at 45CFR46.117(c) which states that an IRB may waive the requirement for the investigator to obtain a signed consent form for some or all subjects if it finds either: (1) That the only record linking the subject and the research would be the consent document and the principal risk would be potential harm resulting from a breach of confidentiality. Each subject will be asked whether the subject wants documentation linking the subject with the research, and the subject's wishes will govern; or (2) That the research presents no more than minimal risk of harm to subjects and involves no procedures for which written consent is normally required outside of the research context.

As the principal investigator of this study, it is your responsibility to conduct this study in accordance with IRB policies and procedures and as approved by the IRB. Any changes to the approved research must be submitted to the IRB for review and approval via an amendment. Additionally, all unanticipated problems must be reported to the USF IRB within five (5) calendar days.

We appreciate your dedication to the ethical conduct of human subject research at the University of South Florida and your continued commitment to human research protections. If you have any questions regarding this matter, please call 813-974-5638.

Sincerely,

John Schinka, Ph.D., Chairperson
USF Institutional Review Board

APPENDIX B

Qualtrics Survey Instrument[42]

Informed Consent to Participate in Research

Information to Consider Before
Taking Part in this Research Study

Pro # 00024048

Welcome to the Study on Contrast Sensitivity Test Performance
Researchers at the University of South Florida (USF) study many topics. To do this, we need the help of people who agree to take part in a research study. This form tells you about this research study. We are asking you to take part in a research study called "Individual and Team Performance on Simple Tasks." The person who is in charge of this research study is Jasmón Bailey. This person is called the Principal Investigator. Thank you for agreeing to participate in our research. This research is for residents of the United States over the age of 18. If you are not a resident of the United States and/or under the age of 18, please do not complete this survey. We are doing research that compares individual and team performance on a simple task called "Contrast Sensitivity Test." The "Contrast Sensitivity Test" is a task that consists of a series of images with questions that ask you to judge whether each image has more white space or black space. We want to know how quickly and accurately people can solve this test. All data collected in this study are for research purposes only. The study will be conducted with an online

[42] All images of avatars presented in this Appendix/Survey were purchased as 'royalty free' stock photos and licensed for reproduction via 123RF.com (see Appendix F).

Qualtrics-created survey, which is the software we use to collect your survey answers. You will receive a code upon successfully completing the study.

PROCEDURES

There are four parts to the study. The first part of the study involves a screening process to see if you are eligible to take part in the 2nd, 3rd, and 4th parts of this study. In the screening process, you will be asked to answer a series of questions about yourself. We estimate it will take you approximately 2 minutes to complete the screening process. If you do NOT qualify for the study, the study will end immediately. If you DO qualify for the study, you will advance to the second part of the study. The second part of the study is the Contrast Sensitivity Test. This part of the study will take you approximately two minutes to complete.

There will be 20 judgments you must make and each judgment must be made quickly (within 5 seconds). Regardless of the number of questions you get correct, your unique ID will be entered into a raffle for a **$100.00 Amazon gift card**. However, if you correctly answer 8 to 12 questions, your unique ID will be entered twice into the raffle. If you correctly answer 13 questions or more, your unique ID will be entered three times into the raffle. Winners of the raffle will be notified via email after the entire study has been completed. Please note that we will inform you of your score at the end of the study when part four is complete. You will then advance to third part of the study – **Team Member Selection**. In this part of the study, we are interested in how a team of strangers might together solve the Contrast Sensitivity Test.

The scoring for teams will be the same as the scoring for the $100.00 Amazon gift card. Regardless of your score on the Contrast Sensitivity Tests, you will be asked to select members for teams to work on the same task in a future study. The pay scale for the future team study is 5 times that of the present study. You will be given 36 chances to select persons for a Contrast Sensitivity task that requires a two-person or three-person team. On some chances you will select one person on the others, two. We estimate that the third portion of the study will take approximately 10 minutes to complete.

The last part of the study (the fourth part), involves a survey composed of fill-in-the-blank and multiple-choice questions. You will be asked questions regarding your potential partner selections and your experiences with teamwork. This part of the study will take approximately 20 minutes to complete. At the end of the study, you will receive full compensation for your successful participation in the study.

RISKS: The risks to your participation in this online study are minimal. Minimal or mild risk may be associated with basic computer tasks such as fatigue, stress, and/or breach of confidentiality. Although this is unlikely, you may feel emotionally uneasy when asked to select potential partners without any further information about the future task.

BENFITS: There are no direct benefits for participants. However, it is hoped that through your participation, researchers will learn more about individual and team performance on the Contrast Sensitivity Test. Additionally, it is hoped that this will be a learning experience that fosters an

appreciation for social psychological experiments. Lastly, we hope that this study benefits society through its contribution to scientific knowledge.

COMPENSATION: You will be compensated by Qualtrics for successfully completing the study. Additionally, you will be entered into a raffle for a $100.00 Amazon gift card.

PLEASE NOTE: THIS STUDY CONTAINS A NUMBER OF CHECKS TO MAKE SURE THAT PARTICIPANTS ARE COMPLETING THE TASK HONESTLY AND COMPLETELY. AS LONG AS YOU READ THE INSTRUCTIONS AND COMPLETE THE TASKS, YOUR HIT WILL BE APPROVED. IF YOU FAIL THESE CHECKS, YOUR HIT WILL BE REJECTED.

CONFIDENTIALITY: We must keep your study records as confidential as possible. It is possible, although unlikely, that unauthorized individuals could gain access to your responses because you are responding online. Your personal contact information is in the protected database maintained by Qualtrics. Any reports about the findings from this study will not include your name or any other information that could identify you. In some cases, you might provide personal stories or beliefs that we might quote or paraphrase as part of our research findings. Any and all such responses will be anonymous and personally identifying information will be removed to ensure your privacy.

Please note, Qualtrics has a specific privacy policy. You should be aware that these web services may be able to link your responses to your ID in ways that are not bound by this consent form and the data confidentiality procedures used in this study. If you have concerns you should consult Qualtrics directly. Lastly, certain people may need to see your study records. By law, anyone who looks at your records must keep them completely confidential. The only people who will be allowed to see these records are:

Principal Investigator – Mr. Jasmón Bailey Co-Principal Investigator – Dr. John Skvoretz

It is possible, although unlikely, that unauthorized individuals could gain access to your responses. Confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. No guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet. However, your participation in this online survey involves risks similar to a person's everyday use of the Internet. If you complete and submit an anonymous survey and later request your data be withdrawn, this may or may not be possible as the researcher may be unable to extract anonymous data from the database.

PARTICIPANTS RIGHTS: Your participation is completely voluntary. You may discontinue participation at any time by closing the browser window or the program to withdraw from the

study. A withdrawal from the study will result in an automatic denied compensation. Incomplete survey data will not be analyzed.

CONTACT INFORMATION: If you have additional questions regarding this study, you may contact:

Jasmón Bailey at 813-974-7675, Email: Jasmonbailey@mail.usf.edu or
Dr. John Skvoretz at 813-974-7288, Email: Jskvoretz@usf.edu

For questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact: The Social Behavioral Research Institutional Review Board, University of South Florida Phone: (813) 974-5638, Fax: (813) 974-7091 We may publish what we learn from this study. If we do, we will not let anyone know your name. We will not publish anything else that would let people know who you are. You can print a copy of this consent form for your records. I freely give my consent to take part in this study. I understand that by proceeding with this survey that I am agreeing to take part in research and I am 18 years of age or older.

- ○ Yes (1)
- ○ No (2)

Before you begin, tell us about yourself

Q1 What is your age?

- ○ 18 - 24 years old (1)
- ○ 25 - 34 years old (2)
- ○ 35 - 44 years old (3)
- ○ 45 - 54 years old (4)
- ○ 55 - 64 years old (5)
- ○ 65 - 74 years old (6)
- ○ 75 or older (7)

Q2 What is your gender?

- ○ Male (1)
- ○ Female (2)
- ○ Other (3)

Q3 Other people would say your gender is:

- ○ Male (1)
- ○ Female (2)
- ○ Other (3)

Q4 Are you Hispanic?

- ○ Yes (1)
- ○ No (2)

Q5 What is your race?

- ○ White (1)
- ○ Black (2)
- ○ Native American (3)
- ○ Asian (4)
- ○ Pacific Islander (5)
- ○ Asian-Indian (6)
- ○ Other (9)

Q6 Other people would say your race is:

- ○ Native American (1)
- ○ White (2)
- ○ Black (3)
- ○ Asian (4)
- ○ Pacific Islander (5)
- ○ Asian-Indian (6)
- ○ Other (9)

Q7 Which of the following best describes the area you live in?

- ○ Urban (1)
- ○ Suburban (2)
- ○ Rural (3)

Q8 What is your current marital status?

- Rather not say (1)
- Divorced (2)
- Living with another (3)
- Married (4)
- Separated (5)
- Single (6)
- Widowed (7)

Q9 What is your employment status?

- Full Time (1)
- Part Time (2)
- Retired (3)
- Unemployed (4)
- Student (5)

Q10 Please indicate the highest level of education completed. If currently enrolled, highest degree received.

- ○ Grammar School (1)
- ○ High School or equivalent (2)
- ○ Vocational/Technical School (2 year) (3)
- ○ Some College (4)
- ○ College Graduate (4 year) (5)
- ○ Master's Degree (MS) (6)
- ○ Doctoral Degree (PhD) (7)
- ○ Professional Degree (MD, JD, etc.) (8)
- ○ Other (9)

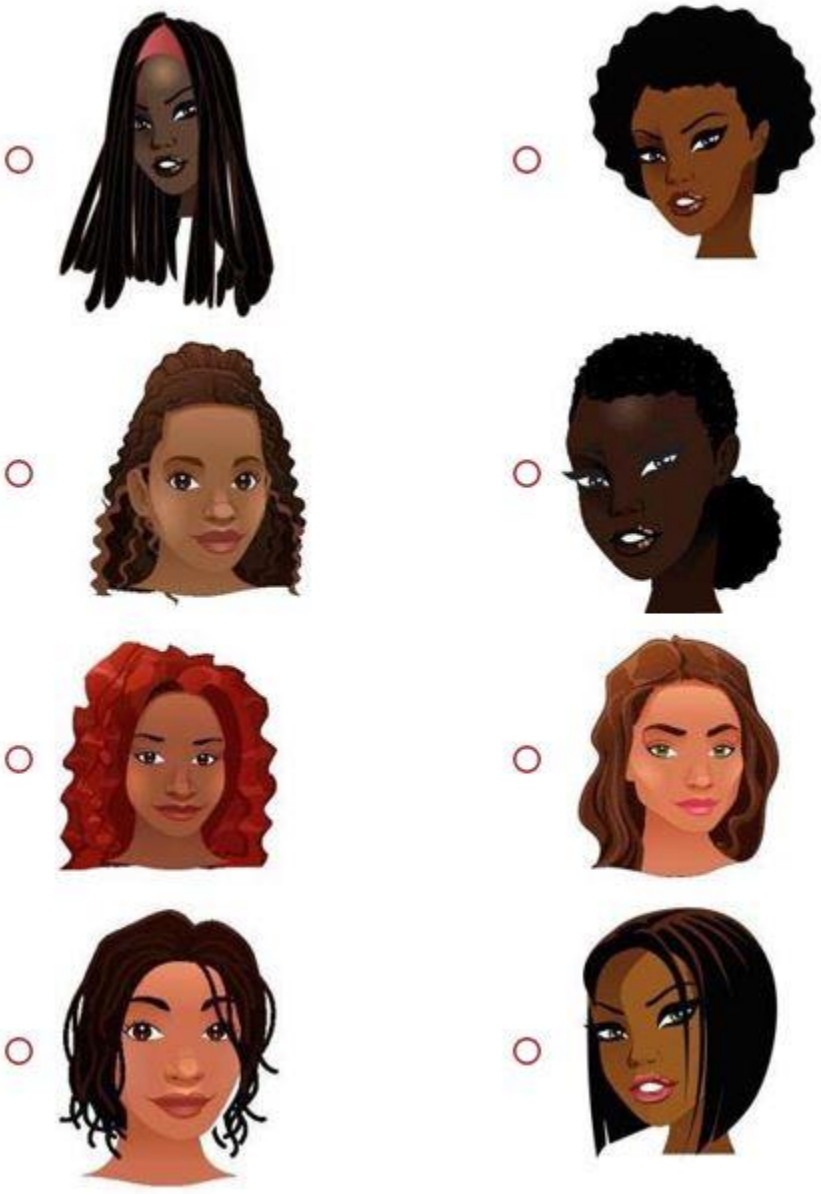
Q11 Please select an avatar that best represents you[43]

[43] Based on how participant answered Q2, Q3, Q5 & Q6

Q11 Please select an avatar that best represents you[44]

[44] Based on how participant answered Q2, Q3, Q5 & Q6

Q11 Please select an avatar that best represents you[45]



[45] Based on how participant answered Q2, Q3, Q5 & Q6

Q11 Please select an avatar that best represents you[46]

[46] Based on how participant answered Q2, Q3, Q5 & Q6

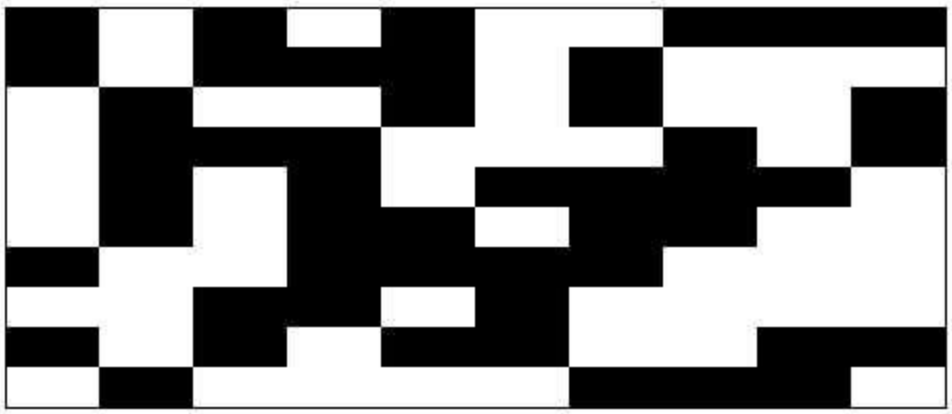
Q12 Please give your Avatar a first name:

_____

Q13

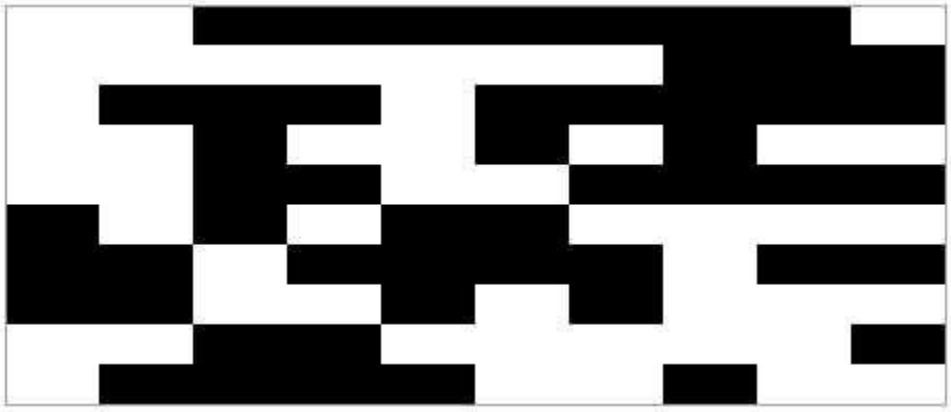
The first phase of your participation is the "Contrast Sensitivity Test." You will be shown 20 slides and asked to judge whether each image has more white space or black space. For each slide you will have **five seconds** to view the image. Your final score will consist of the number of correct responses. The number of correct responses will determine the number of chances you will have in the prize drawing for those who complete the survey. You get one chance if you score below 8, two chances if you score between 8 and 12, and three chances if you score 13 or above. Please press continue when you are ready to view the first slide.

Q14 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



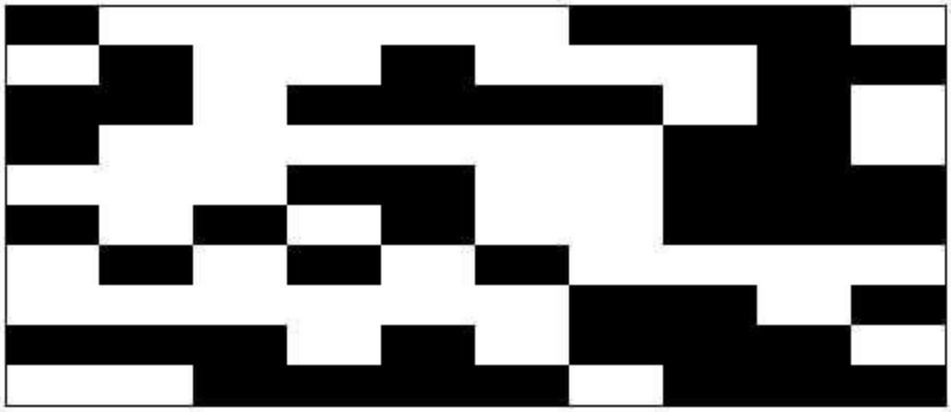
- White (1)
- Black (2)

Q15 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



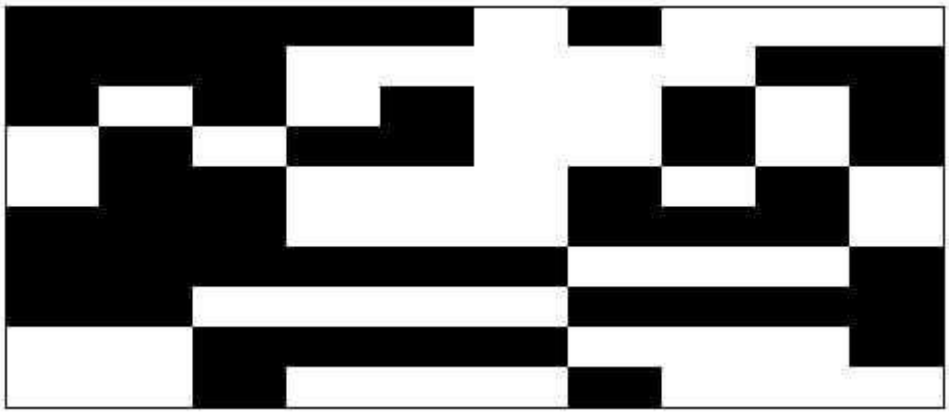
- Black (1)
- White (2)

Q16 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



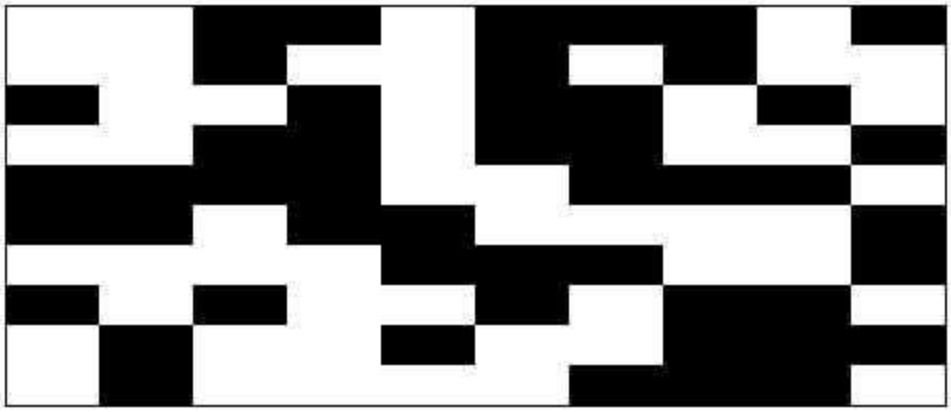
- White (1)
- Black (2)

Q17 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



- Black (1)
- White (2)

Q18 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



- White (1)
- Black (2)

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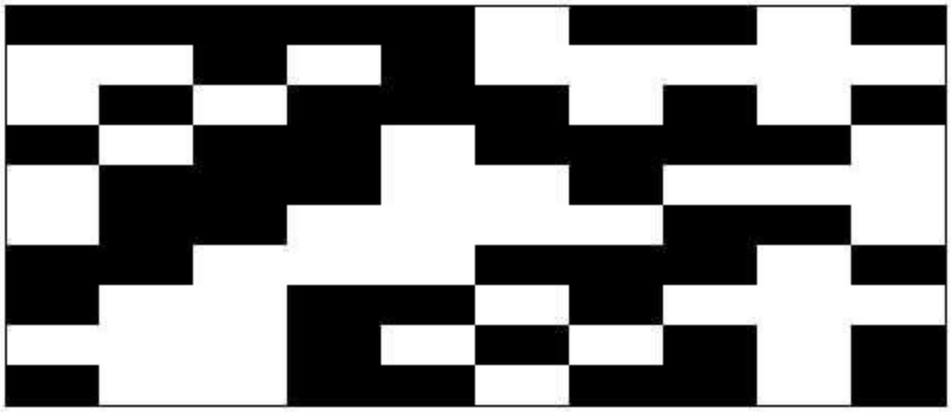
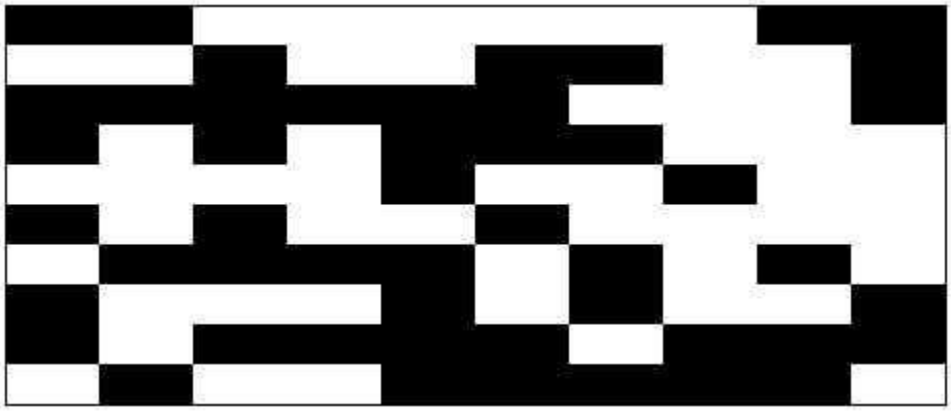


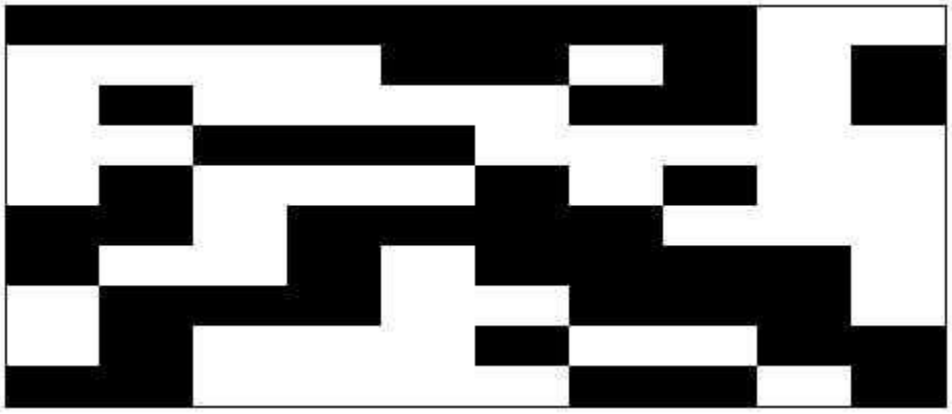
- White (1)
- Black (2)

Q20 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



- Black (1)
- White (2)

Q21 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



- White (1)
- Black (2)

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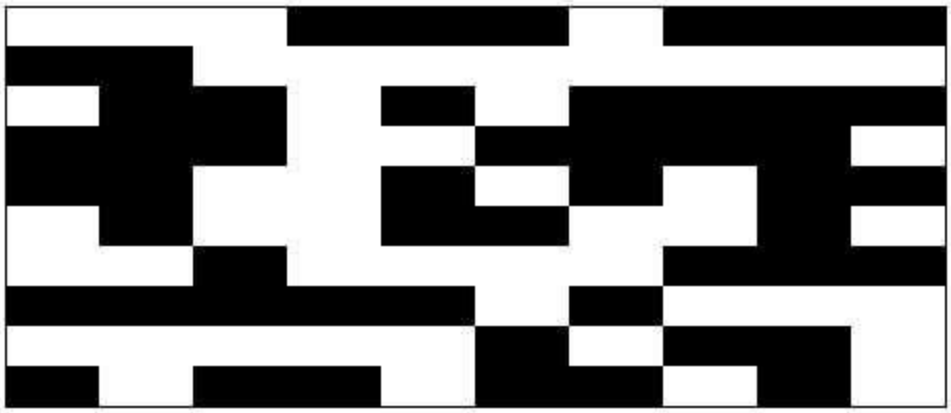
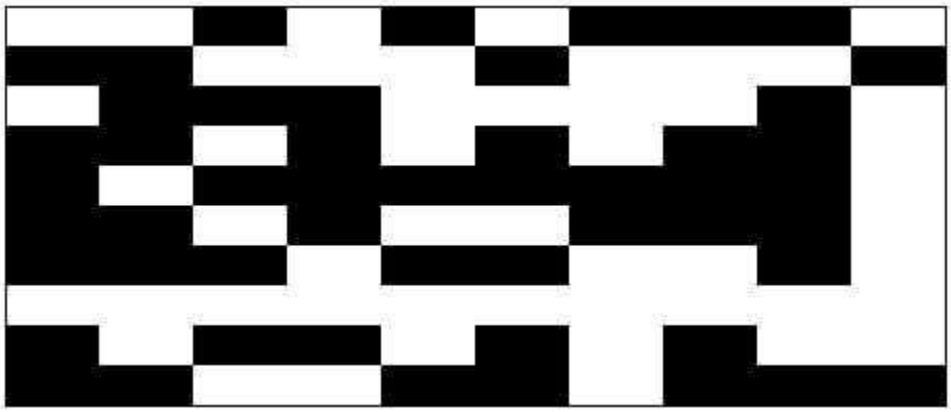


- Black (1)
- White (2)

Q23 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



- White (1)
- Black (2)

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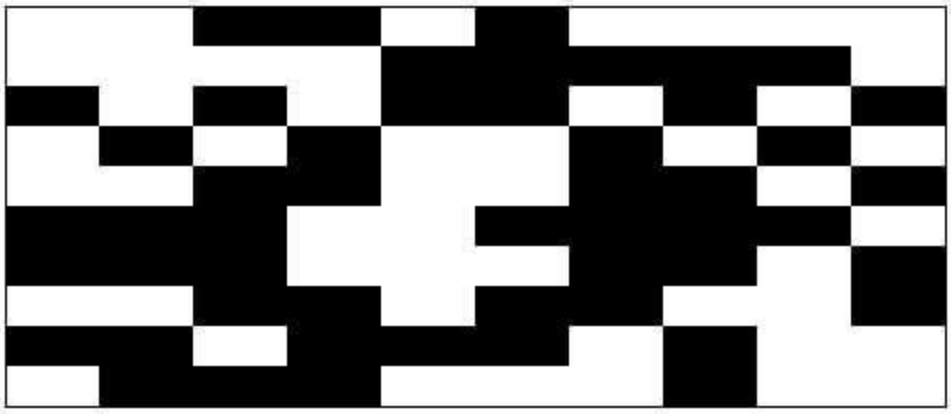
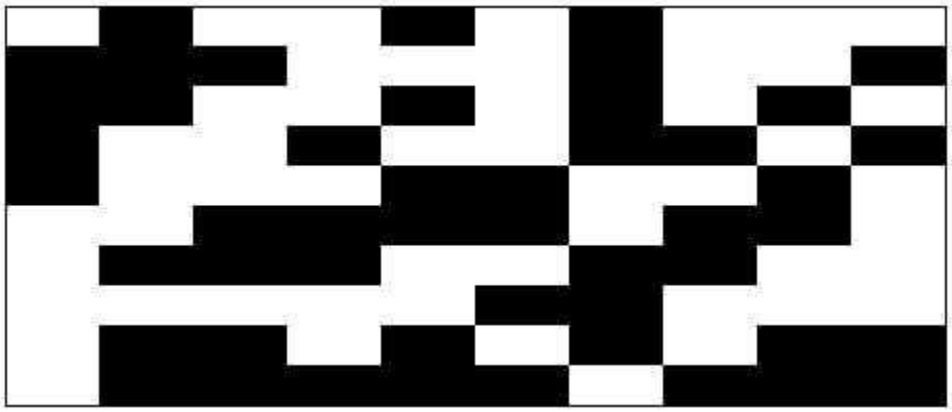


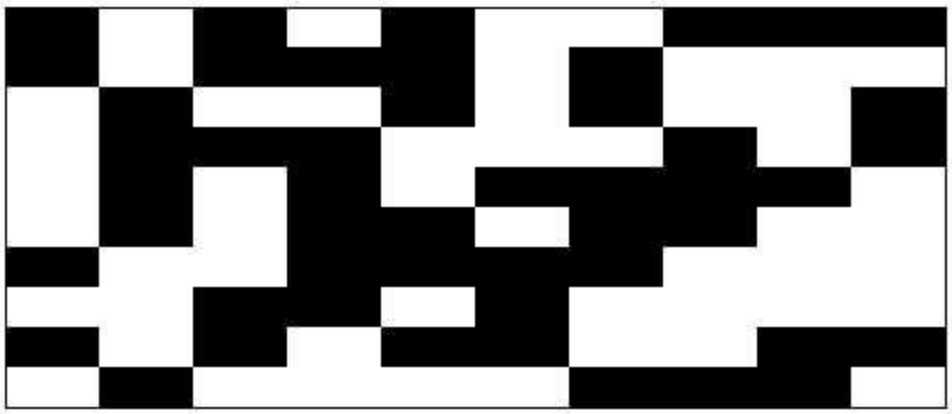
- Black (1)
- White (2)

Q25 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



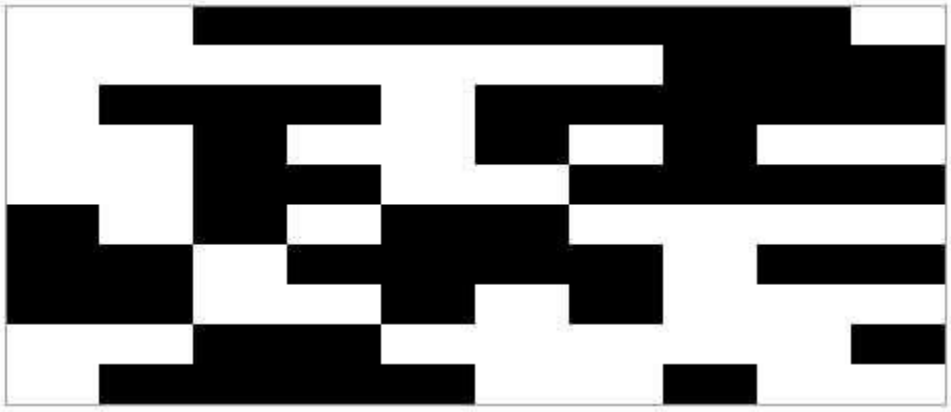
- Black (1)
- White (2)

Q26 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



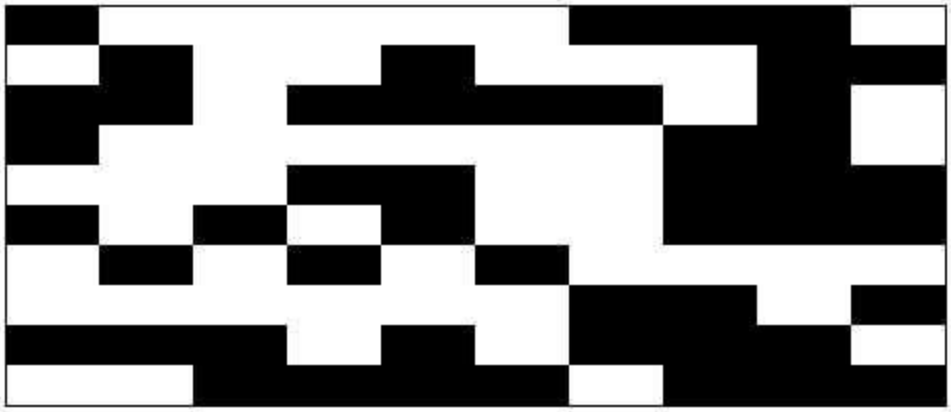
- White (1)
- Black (2)

Q27 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



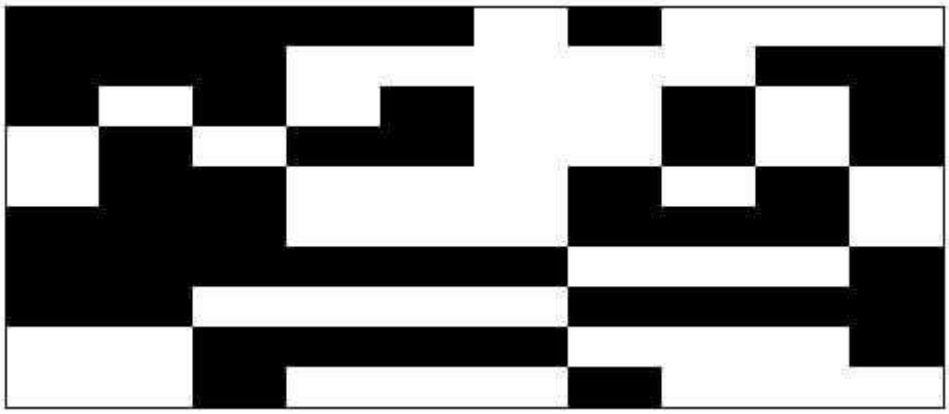
- Black (1)
- White (2)

Q28 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



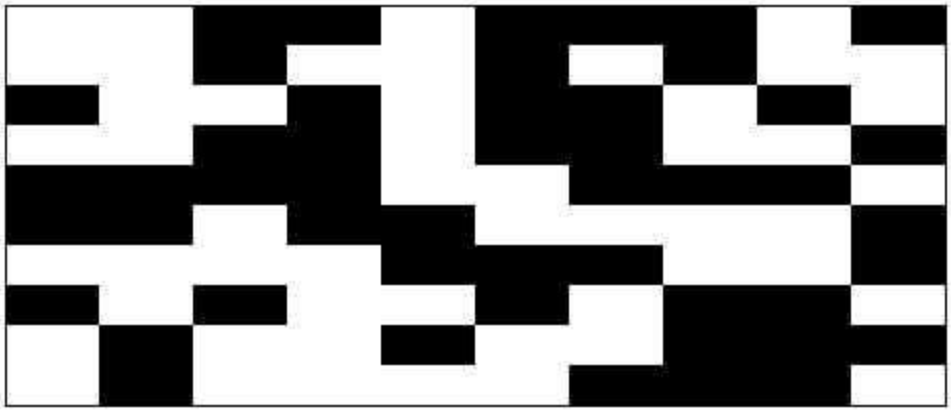
- White (1)
- Black (2)

Q29 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



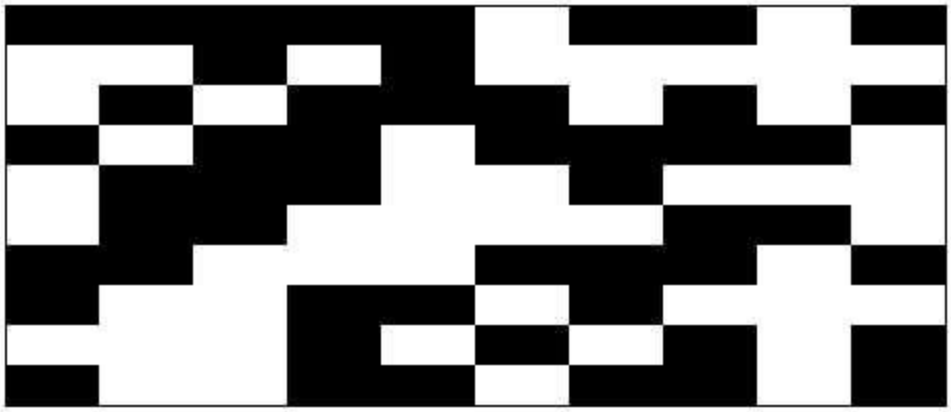
- Black (1)
- White (2)

Q30 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



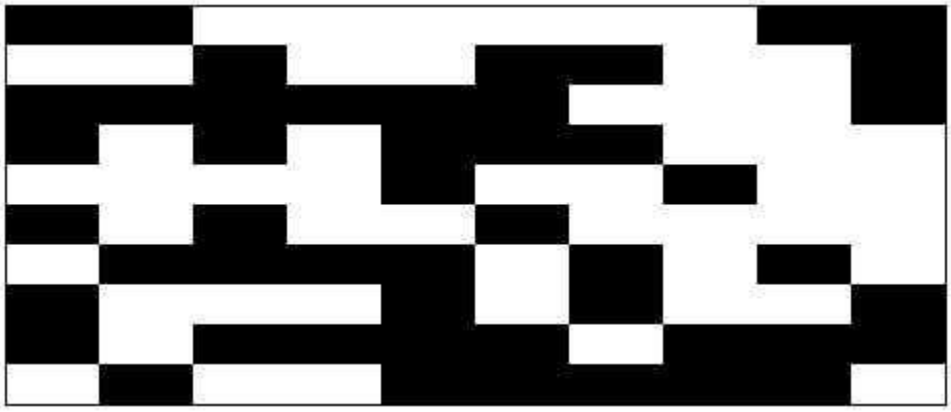
- White (1)
- Black (2)

Q31 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



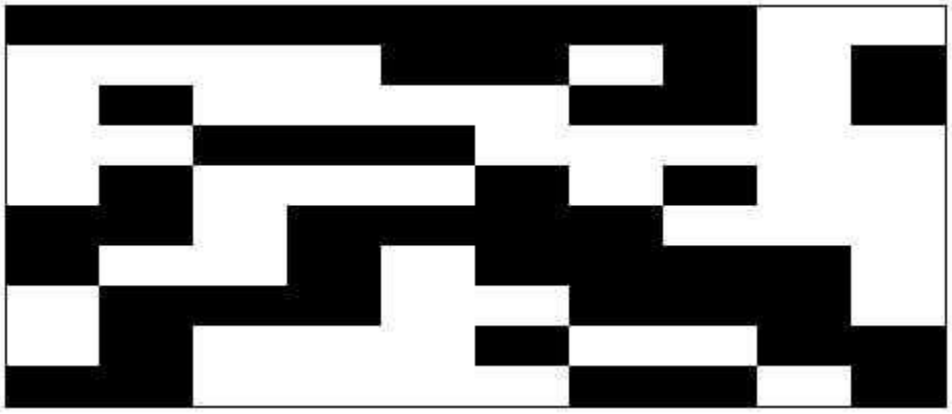
- White (1)
- Black (2)

Q32 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



- ○ Black (1)
- ○ White (2)

Q33 Does this image have more white space or more black space?



- ○ White (1)
- ○ Black (2)

Q34 Calculating your answers please wait...Your score will be displayed at the end of the survey.

Q189 *Recent research on decision making shows that choices are affected by context. Differences in how people feel, their previous knowledge and experience, and their environment can affect choices. To help us understand how people make decisions, we are interested in information about you. Specifically, we are interested in whether you actually take the time to read the directions; if not, some results may not tell us very much about decision making in the real world. To show that you have read the instructions, please ignore the question below about how you are feeling and instead check the "none of the above" option as your answer.*

Please check all the words that describe how you are currently feeling.

- [ ] Interested (1)
- [ ] Distressed (2)
- [ ] Excited (3)
- [ ] Upset (4)
- [ ] Guilty (5)
- [ ] Scared (6)
- [ ] Hostile (7)
- [ ] Enthusiastic (8)
- [ ] Proud (9)
- [ ] Irritable (10)
- [ ] Alert (11)
- [ ] Inspired (12)
- [ ] Ashamed (13)
- [ ] Nervous (14)
- [ ] Determined (15)
- [ ] Attentive (16)

- [ ] Happy (17)
- [ ] Active (18)
- [ ] Jittery (19)
- [x] None of the above (20)

Q35

You Could Earn More $$$ By Putting Together The BEST Team

Thank you for completing the first phase of your participation.

The second phase of your participation asks you to select one or two persons from a set of potential team members to work on a team version of the "Contrast Sensitivity Test." In the team version we intend to conduct (pending funding), your score will be determined by the choices the team makes after teammates share opinions. A great team is one where teammates work well together, value one another's ideas and opinions, and so often make better choices than individuals make alone.

Because it is difficult to coordinate matches and availability, you will be asked several times to make selections. In future research, having your recommendations will help us create small teams of two or three people successfully. We will first ask you to make selections of one person out of two potential team members, then to make selections of one person out of three team members, and finally make selections of two persons out of three potential team members. **Your reward from our planned future study will depend on how well the people you recommend do as a team.**

After your selections are made and recorded, the survey closes with a few general questions. Press continue when you are ready to begin.

Q36 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Tanner

Click to select Logan

Q37 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Katelyn

Click to select Christopher

Q38 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Scott

Click to select Terrance

Q39 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Alexus

Click to select Hunter

Q40 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Katie

Click to select Andre

Q41 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Aaliyah

Click to select Heather

Q42 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Darrius

Click to select Bianca

Q43 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Bradley

Click to select Molly

Q44 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Jama

Click to select Cole

Q45 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Jake

Click to select Asia

Q46 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select DeShawn

Click to select Claire

Q47 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Jada

Click to select Amy

Q48 Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Ebony

Click to select Darryl

Q49 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Jack

Click to select Darnell

Click to select Emily

Q50 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Allison

Click to select Kiara

Click to select Cody

Q51 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Tierra

Click to select Connor

Click to select Donte

Q52 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Dominique

Click to select Raven

Click to select Jenna

Q53 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Sofia

Click to select Reginald

Click to select Spencer

Q54 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Kiandra

Click to select Dustin

Click to select Madeline

Q55 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Nia

Click to select Xavier

Click to select Brett

Q56 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Janice

Click to select Emma

Click to select Maurice

Q57 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Marquis

Click to select Logan

Click to select Holly

Q58 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Diego

Click to select Abigail

Click to select Alexis

Q59 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Cody

Click to select Demetrius

Click to select Chole

Q60 Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.

Click to select Destiny

Click to select Jalen

Click to select Caitlin

Q61 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Malik

Click to select Carly

Click to select Dusti

Q62 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Diamond

Click to select Katherine

Click to select Luke

Q63 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Kayla

Click to select Darius

Click to select Dylan

Q64 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Hannah

Click to select Tyrone

Click to select Jazmin

Q65 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Becca

Click to select Lucas

Click to select Andre

Q66 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Tiara Click to select Kaitlin Click to select Jacob

Q67 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Wyatt Click to select Imani Click to select Terrell

Q68 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Deja

Click to select Trevon

Click to select Maria

Q69 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Da'wan

Click to select Maxwell

Click to select Kathryn

Q70 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Colin

Click to select Shanice

Click to select Amy

Q71 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Garrett

Click to select DeAndre

Click to select Jada

Q72 Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.

Click to select Precious

Click to select Kaitlyn

Click to select Willie

Q73 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of you picked

Logan over Tanner .

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Q73 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked

Tanner over Logan .

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Q74 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Scott over Terrance .

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Q74 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Terrance over Scott .

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Q75 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Christopher over Katelyn .

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Q75 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked *Katelyn over* Christopher .

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Q76 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked *Katie over* Andre .

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Q76 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Andre *over Katie* .

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Q77 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Aaliyah over Heather .

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Q77 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Heather over Aaliyah .

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Q78 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked

Bianca over Darrius .

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Q78 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked

Darrius over Bianca .

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Q79 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Jake over Asia .

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Q79 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Asia over Jake .

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Q80 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Kayla and Darius as teammates over Dylan

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Q80 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why most people picked Kayla and Dylan as teammates over Darius

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Q80 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Darius and Dylan as teammates over Kayla

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Q81 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Katherine and Luke as teammates over Diamond

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Q81 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Diamond and Luke as teammates over Katherine

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Q81 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Diamond and Katherine as teammates over Luke

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Q82 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Andre and Lucas as teammates over Becca

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Q82 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Becca and Lucas as teammates over Andre

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Q82 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Becca and Andre as teammates over Lucas

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Q83 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Tyrone and Jazmin as teammates over Hannah

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Q83 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Hannah and Jazmin as teammates over Tyrone

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Q83 To the best of your knowledge, please enter a brief explanation of why you picked Hannah and Tyrone as teammates over Jazmin .

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Q84 Thinking back to your experiences in team activities, please indicate how you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (3)	Somewhat Agree (4)	Agree (5)	Strongly Agree (6)
If I participate in a future teamwork study, I think agreeing as a team regarding the correct decision will be more important to me than my own choice. (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○
I think while working as a team on the contrast sensitivity task, it would be best to consider other persons' choices carefully. (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○
When people in the team are being left out, I make an effort to include them (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○
I do everything possible to choose people from diverse backgrounds or with diverse styles when forming teams (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○
I react negatively to people on teams who want to be different (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○

Select "Agree" for this answer (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am frustrated at having to take account of every team member's differences (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Teams become dysfunctional if the members are too different from one another (8)	○	○	○	○	○	○
Merging different thinking styles in a team is more of a hindrance than a help (9)	○	○	○	○	○	○
When forming/joining a team I bear in mind that diverse teams provide a competitive advantage (10)	○	○	○	○	○	○

Q85 Thinking back to your experiences with people who differ from you, please indicate how much you agree or disagree with the following statements:

	Strongly Disagree (1)	Disagree (2)	Somewhat Disagree (3)	Somewhat Agree (4)	Agree (5)	Strongly Agree (6)
When I am with a person who is different than me, as a mark of respect I try to accommodate their style (1)	○	○	○	○	○	○
I am aware of advantages I/others may enjoy simply by virtue of belonging to a particular group (e.g. gender or an ethnic [or racial] group) (2)	○	○	○	○	○	○
When I am asked to accommodate cultural/religious differences, it is like asking me to sacrifice my own values and who I am (3)	○	○	○	○	○	○
I look for solutions that incorporate all points of view (4)	○	○	○	○	○	○
The ways in which people deal with conflict are strongly influenced by a person's gender (5)	○	○	○	○	○	○

The ways in which people deal with conflict are strongly influenced by a person's race (6)	○	○	○	○	○	○
The ways in which people deal with conflict are strongly influenced by a person's culture (7)	○	○	○	○	○	○

Thank you for your participation in the study! We would like to take a few minutes to tell you about its purpose. The goal of the study was to examine people's personal partnership preferences for an anticipated problem-solving task, requiring teamwork. This required that you believe you would be putting together and actual team. We adopted this approach so that participants would not be distracted with trying to figure out the hypothesis or feel compelled to select potential teammates in a non-truthful way. Furthermore, our purpose was not to "trick" you, but to allow you to respond naturally to the various avatars being presented. So, as you may see there are some misleading aspects to this study, but we hope that you understand that they were included for an important reason.

Are you all ok with this or have any further questions about these aspects of the study? We believe this study is important because it allows us to better understand how people form problem-solving teams based on little information about potential teammates.

All of the information that was collected today will be kept in complete confidentiality and there will be no way of identifying your responses. We are not interested in any one participant's responses by themselves. Rather, we are interested in the general responses of all participants when they are combined together.

If you are uncomfortable in any way as a result of this debriefing, you may discontinue your participation by selecting "Do Not Proceed." By selecting do not proceed, you will be withdrawing your participation from the study. However, your withdrawal will not prohibit your name from being entered in the raffle. Thus, you will still have an opportunity to win the $100.00 Amazon gift card.

Your participation today was greatly appreciated and will help in furthering our understanding

regarding team member selection. We ask that you do not discuss this research with anyone else until one year after today's date. Any outside discussions could ruin the study for other participants. Would that be ok with you? If you have any questions or concerns regarding your participation in this study please contact the principal investigator:

Mr. Jasmón Bailey, Phone: 813-974-7675, Email: Jasmonbailey@mail.usf.edu

If you understand the information above, please select one of the options below:

- ○ **Proceed** (submit responses) (1)
- ○ **Do NOT Proceed** (terminate study) (2)

Q86 Would you be interested in participating in a future study working in a **team** on a similar contrast sensitivity task?

- ○ Yes (1)
- ○ No (2)

Q87 Please enter your email address if you are interested in participating in the $100 Amazon gift card drawing:

- ○ Email (1) _____

APPENDIX C

Chi-Square Results for disaggregated data

Contents:

1. Quantitative findings for race
2. Quantitative findings for gender
3. Quantitative findings for race and gender

RACE

Chi-Square Results: Association between Race and Choice Situation I, II, III

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Logan (WM)	Click to select Tanner (WM)	
Race of Respondent	White	104	74	178
	Black	73	92	165
Total		177	166	343

$\chi 2 = 6.898$ $p = .01$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Christopher (WM)	Click to select Katelyn (WF)	
Race of Respondent	White	36	142	178
	Black	21	144	165
Total		57	286	343

$\chi 2 = 3.474$ $p = .06$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Scott (WM)	Click to select Terrance (BM)	

Race of Respondent	White	69	109	178
	Black	21	144	165
Total		90	253	343

$\chi 2 = 29.992$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Hunter (WM)	Click to select Alexus (BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	61	117	178
	Black	19	146	165
Total		80	263	343

$\chi 2 = 24.791$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Katie (WF)	Click to select Andre (BM)	
Race of Respondent	White	141	37	178
	Black	87	78	165
Total		228	115	343

$\chi 2 = 26.953$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Heather (WF)	Click to select Aaliyah (BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	138	40	178
	Black	67	98	165
Total		205	138	343

$\chi 2 = 48.544$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Darrius (BM)	Click to select Bianca (BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	46	132	178
	Black	52	113	165
Total		98	245	343

$\chi 2 = 1.350$ $p = .25$				
		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Bradley (WM)	Click to select Molly (WF)	
Race of Respondent	White	47	131	178
	Black	54	111	165
Total		101	242	343
$\chi 2 = 1.648$ $p = .20$				
		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Jake (WM)	Click to select Asia (BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	120	58	178
	Black	62	103	165
Total		182	161	343
$\chi 2 = 30.612$ $p = .00$				
		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Jamal (BM)	Click to select Cole (WM)	
Race of Respondent	White	103	75	178
	Black	119	46	165
Total		222	121	343
$\chi 2 = 7.622$ $p = .01$				
		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Claire (WF)	Click to select DeShawn (BM)	
Race of Respondent	White	139	39	178
	Black	105	60	165
Total		244	99	343
$\chi 2 = 8.712$ $p = .01$				

	Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.	Total

		Click to select Amy (WF)	Click to select Jada (BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	104	74	178
	Black	51	114	165
Total		155	188	343

$\chi 2 = 26.178$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Ebony (BF)	Click to select Darryl (BM)	
Race of Respondent	White	80	98	178
	Black	97	68	165
Total		177	166	343

$\chi 2 = 6.571$ $p = .01$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Jack (WM)	Click to select Emily (WF)	Click to select Darnell (BM)	
Race of Respondent	White	23	112	43	178
	Black	19	59	87	165
Total		42	171	130	343

$\chi 2 = 31.252$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Cody (WM)	Click to select Allison (WF)	Click to select Kiara (BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	63	82	33	178
	Black	38	59	68	165
Total		101	141	101	343

$\chi 2 = 21.607$ $p = .0$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Donte (BM)	Click to select Tierra (BF)	Click to select Connor (WM)	

Race of Respondent	White	29	106	43	178
	Black	42	99	24	165
Total		71	205	67	343

$\chi 2 = 7.525$ $p = .02$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Dominique (BM)	Click to select Raven (BF)	Click to select Jenna (WF)	
Race of Respondent	White	24	67	87	178
	Black	32	97	36	165
Total		56	164	123	343

$\chi 2 = 27.324$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Spencer (WM)	Click to select Sofia (WF)	Click to select Reginald (BM)	
Race of Respondent	White	52	96	30	178
	Black	23	84	58	165
Total		75	180	88	343

$\chi 2 = 20.549$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Madeline (WF)	Click to select Dustin (WM)	Click to select Kiandra (BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	106	27	45	178
	Black	45	16	104	165
Total		151	43	149	343

$\chi 2 = 50.398$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Brett (WM)	Click to select Nia (BF)	Click to select Xavier (BM)	
Race of Respondent	White	74	40	64	178
	Black	60	61	44	165

Total		134	101	108	343

$\chi 2 = 9.053 p = .01$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Janice (BF)	Click to select Maurice (BM)	Click to select Emma (WF)	
Race of Respondent	White	64	27	87	178
	Black	87	29	49	165
Total		151	56	136	343

$\chi 2 = 13.719\ p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Marquis (BM)	Click to select Logan (WM)	Click to select Holly (WF)	
Race of Respondent	White	36	33	109	178
	Black	56	27	82	165
Total		92	60	191	343

$\chi 2 = 8.284\ p = .02$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Alexis (BF)	Click to select Diego (WM)	Click to select Abigail (WF)	
Race of Respondent	White	21	57	100	178
	Black	68	31	66	165
Total		89	88	166	343

$\chi 2 = 39.029\ p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Chole (BF)	Click to select Cody (WM)	Click to select Demetrius (BM)	
Race of Respondent	White	32	87	59	178
	Black	51	49	65	165

Total		83	136	124	343

$\chi 2 = 14.786$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Destiny (BF)	Click to select Caitlin (WF)	Click to select Jalen (BM)	
Race of Respondent	White	18	110	50	178
	Black	47	55	63	165
Total		65	165	113	343

$\chi 2 = 32.321$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Male (WM&BM)	Team HiLo (WF&BM)	
Race of Respondent	White	81	24	66	171
	Black	41	27	89	157
Total		122	51	155	328

$\chi 2 = 16.136$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Female (WF&BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	68	32	78	178
	Black	24	41	100	165
Total		92	73	178	343

$\chi 2 = 24.415$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team Male (WM&BM)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
	White	86	59	33	178

Race of Respondent	Black	50	50	65	165
Total		136	109	98	343

$\chi 2 = 20.258$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team HiLo (WF&BM)	Team Female (WF&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	73	41	64	178
	Black	48	56	61	165
Total		121	97	125	343

$\chi 2 = 7.074$ $p = .03$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Male (WM&BM)	Team HiLo (WF&BM)	
Race of Respondent	White	82	32	64	178
	Black	41	37	87	165
Total		123	69	151	343

$\chi 2 = 17.064$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Female (WF&BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	70	62	46	178
	Black	29	53	83	165
Total		99	115	129	343

$\chi 2 = 27.844$ $p = .00$

	Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
	Team Male (WM&BM)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	

Race of Respondent	White	34	54	90	178
	Black	16	54	95	165
Total		50	108	185	343

$\chi 2 = 6.131$ $p = .05$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team HiLo (WF&BM)	Team Female (WF&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	40	115	23	178
	Black	35	76	54	165
Total		75	191	77	343

$\chi 2 = 20.314$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Male (WM&BM)	Team HiLo (WF&BM)	
Race of Respondent	White	84	26	68	178
	Black	55	36	74	165
Total		139	62	142	343

$\chi 2 = 7.435$ $p = .02$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Female (WF&BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	61	29	88	178
	Black	28	45	92	165
Total		89	74	180	343

$\chi 2 = 15.314$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team Male (WM&BM)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
	White	85	38	55	178

Race of Respondent	Black	49	51	65	165
Total		134	89	120	343

$\chi 2 = 11.928$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team HiLo (WF&BM)	Team Female (WF&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Race of Respondent	White	45	103	29	177
	Black	27	78	58	163
Total		72	181	87	340

$\chi 2 = 17.072$ $p = .00$

GENDER

Chi-Square Results: Association between Gender and Choice Situation I, II, & III

Gender of Respondent		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Logan (WM)	Click to select Tanner (WM)	
	Male	94	69	163
	Female	83	97	180
Total		177	166	343

$\chi 2 = 4.575$ $p = .03$

Gender of Respondent		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Christopher (WM)	Click to select Katelyn (WF)	
	Male	27	136	163
	Female	30	150	180
Total		57	286	343

$\chi 2 = .001$ p = .98

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Scott (WM)	Click to select Terrance (BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	43	120	163
	Female	47	133	180
Total		90	253	343

$\chi 2 = .003$ $p = .96$

	Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
	Click to select Hunter (WM)	Click to select Alexus (BF)	

Gender of Respondent	Male	45	118	163
	Female	35	145	180
Total		80	263	343

$\chi 2 = 3.187$ $p = .07$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Katie (WF)	Click to select Andre (BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	115	48	163
	Female	113	67	180
Total		228	115	343

$\chi 2 = 2.320$ p = .13

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Heather (WF)	Click to select Aaliyah (BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	96	67	163
	Female	109	71	180
Total		205	138	343

$\chi 2 = .098$ p = .75

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Darrius (BM)	Click to select Bianca (BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	58	105	163
	Female	40	140	180
Total		98	245	343

$\chi 2 = 7.485$ $p = .01$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total

		Click to select Bradley (WM)	Click to select Molly (WF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	51	112	163
	Female	50	130	180
Total		101	242	343

$\chi 2 = .507 p = .48$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Jake (WM)	Click to select Asia (BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	89	74	163
	Female	93	87	180
Total		182	161	343

$\chi 2 = .296$ $p = .59$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Jamal (BM)	Click to select Cole (WM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	106	57	163
	Female	116	64	180
Total		222	121	343

$\chi 2 = .013$ $p = .91$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Claire (WF)	Click to select DeShawn (BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	115	48	163
	Female	129	51	180
Total		244	99	343

$\chi 2 = .052 p = .82$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Amy (WF)	Click to select Jada (BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	76	87	163
	Female	79	101	180
Total		155	188	343

$\chi 2 = .259$ $p = .61$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Ebony (BF)	Click to select Darryl (BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	83	80	163
	Female	94	86	180
Total		177	166	343

$\chi 2 = .058$ p = .81

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Jack (WM)	Click to select Emily (WF)	Click to select Darnell (BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	18	92	53	163
	Female	24	79	77	180
Total		42	171	130	343

$\chi 2 = 5.45$ $p = .07$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Cody (WM)	Click to select Allison (WF)	Click to select Kiara (BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	52	59	52	163
	Female	49	82	49	180
Total		101	141	101	343

$\chi 2 = 3.095$ p = .213

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Donte (BM)	Click to select Tierra (BF)	Click to select Connor (WM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	36	89	38	163
	Female	35	116	29	180
Total		71	205	67	343

$\chi 2 = 3.946$ $p = .14$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Dominique (BM)	Click to select Raven (BF)	Click to select Jenna (WF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	30	68	65	163
	Female	26	96	58	180
Total		56	164	123	343

$\chi 2 = 4.633$ p = .10

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Spencer (WM)	Click to select Sofia (WF)	Click to select Reginald (BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	39	90	34	163
	Female	36	90	54	180
Total		75	180	88	343

$\chi 2 = 3.832$ $p = .15$

	Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
	Click to select Madeline (WF)	Click to select Dustin (WM)	Click to select Kiandra (BF)	

Gender of Respondent	Male	71	25	67	163
	Female	80	18	82	180
Total		151	43	149	343

$\chi 2 = 2.349$ p = .31

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Brett (WM)	Click to select Nia (BF)	Click to select Xavier (BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	61	52	50	163
	Female	73	49	58	180
Total		134	101	108	343

$\chi 2 = .916$ *p* = .63

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Janice (BF)	Click to select Maurice (BM)	Click to select Emma (WF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	58	27	78	163
	Female	93	29	58	180
Total		151	56	136	343

$\chi 2 = 10.308$p = .01

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Marquis (BM)	Click to select Logan (WM)	Click to select Holly (WF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	48	29	86	163
	Female	44	31	105	180
Total		92	60	191	343

$\chi 2 = 1.291$ *p* = .52

	Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.	Total

		Click to select Alexis (BF)	Click to select Diego (WM)	Click to select Abigail (WF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	42	54	67	163
	Female	47	34	99	180
Total		89	88	166	343

$\chi 2 = 10.177$ p = .01

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Chole (BF)	Click to select Cody (WM)	Click to select Demetrius (BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	36	68	59	163
	Female	47	68	65	180
Total		83	136	124	343

$\chi 2 = .908$ $p = .64$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Destiny (BF)	Click to select Caitlin (WF)	Click to select Jalen (BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	27	81	55	163
	Female	38	84	58	180
Total		65	165	113	343

$\chi 2 = 1.156$ p = .56

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Male (WM&BM)	Team HiLo (WF&BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	51	28	78	157
	Female	71	23	77	171
Total		122	51	155	328

$\chi 2$ 3.184 $p = .20$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Female (WF&BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	48	36	79	163
	Female	44	37	99	180
Total		92	73	178	343

$\chi 2 = 1.596$ p = .45

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team Male (WM&BM)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	68	46	49	163
	Female	68	63	49	180
Total		136	109	98	343

$\chi 2 = 1.813 p = .40$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team HiLo (WF&BM)	Team Female (WF&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	46	56	61	163
	Female	75	41	64	180
Total		121	97	125	343

$\chi 2 = 8.520$ p = .01

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Male (WM&BM)	Team HiLo (WF&BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	56	30	77	163
	Female	67	39	74	180
Total		123	69	151	343

$\chi 2 = 1.378$ $p = .50$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Female (WF&BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	51	47	65	163
	Female	48	68	64	180
Total		99	115	129	343

$\chi 2 = 3.098$ p = .21

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team Male (WM&BM)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	26	48	89	163
	Female	24	60	96	180
Total		50	108	185	343

$\chi 2 = .838$ $p = .658$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team HiLo (WF&BM)	Team Female (WF&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	43	92	28	163
	Female	32	99	49	180
Total		75	191	77	343

$\chi 2 = 6.771$ p = .03

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Male (WM&BM)	Team HiLo (WF&BM)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	60	31	72	163
	Female	79	31	70	180

Total	139	62	142	343

$\chi 2 = 1.787$ $p = .41$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Female (WF&BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	40	32	91	163
	Female	49	42	89	180
Total		89	74	180	343

$\chi 2 = 1.445$ p = .49

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team Male (WM&BM)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	70	45	48	163
	Female	64	44	72	180
Total		134	89	120	343

$\chi 2 = 4.248$ $p = .12$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team HiLo (WF&BM)	Team Female (WF&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Gender of Respondent	Male	37	89	34	160
	Female	35	92	53	180
Total		72	181	87	340

$\chi 2 = 3.089$ $p = .21$

Race and Gender

Chi-Square Results: Association between Race & Gender and Choice Situation I, II, III

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Logan (WM)	Click to select Tanner (WM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	57	31	88
	White Females	47	43	90
	Black Males	37	38	75
	Black Females	36	54	90
Total		177	166	343

$\chi 2 = 11.132$ $p = .01$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Christopher (WM)	Click to select Katelyn (WF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	18	70	88
	White Females	18	72	90
	Black Males	9	66	75
	Black Females	12	78	90
Total		57	286	343

$\chi 2 = 3.533$ $p = .32$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Scott (WM)	Click to select Terrance (BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	37	51	88
	White Females	32	58	90

	Black Males	6	69	75
	Black Females	15	75	90
Total		90	253	343
$\chi 2 = 32.548$ $p = .00$				

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Hunter (WM)	Click to select Alexus (BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	36	52	88
	White Females	25	65	90
	Black Males	9	66	75
	Black Females	10	80	90
Total		80	263	343
$\chi 2 = 29.099$ $p = .00$				

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Katie (WF)	Click to select Andre (BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	71	17	88
	White Females	70	20	90
	Black Males	44	31	75
	Black Females	43	47	90
Total		228	115	343
$\chi 2 = 29.298$ $p = .00$				

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Heather (WF)	Click to select Aaliyah (BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	60	28	88

	White Females	78	12	90
	Black Males	36	39	75
	Black Females	31	59	90
Total		205	138	343
$\chi 2 = 57.993$ $p = .00$				
Race and Gender				
		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Darrius (BM)	Click to select Bianca (BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	30	58	88
	White Females	16	74	90
	Black Males	28	47	75
	Black Females	24	66	90
Total		98	245	343
$\chi 2 = 9.433$ $p = .02$				
		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Bradley (WM)	Click to select Molly (WF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	26	62	88
	White Females	21	69	90
	Black Males	25	50	75
	Black Females	29	61	90
Total		101	242	343
$\chi 2 = 2.498$ $p = .48$				
		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total

		Click to select Jake (WM)	Click to select Asia (BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	60	28	88
	White Females	60	30	90
	Black Males	29	46	75
	Black Females	33	57	90
Total		182	161	343

$\chi 2 = 30.719$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Jamal (BM)	Click to select Cole (WM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	50	38	88
	White Females	53	37	90
	Black Males	56	19	75
	Black Females	63	27	90
Total		222	121	343

$\chi 2$ 8.096 $p = .04$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Claire (WF)	Click to select DeShawn (BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	65	23	88
	White Females	74	16	90
	Black Males	50	25	75
	Black Females	55	35	90
Total		244	99	343

$\chi 2 = 10.841$ $p = .01$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Amy (WF)	Click to select Jada (BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	54	34	88
	White Females	50	40	90
	Black Males	22	53	75
	Black Females	29	61	90
Total		155	188	343

$\chi 2 = 26.922$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the two persons below to be on a future team.		Total
		Click to select Ebony (BF)	Click to select Darryl (BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	39	49	88
	White Females	41	49	90
	Black Males	44	31	75
	Black Females	53	37	90
Total		177	166	343

$\chi 2 = 6.599$ $p = .09$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Jack (WM)	Click to select Emily (WF)	Click to select Darnell (BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	11	61	16	88
	White Females	12	51	27	90
	Black Males	7	31	37	75
	Black Females	12	28	50	90

Total		42	171	130	343
$\chi 2 = 36.156$ $p = .00$					
		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Cody (WM)	Click to select Allison (WF)	Click to select Kiara (BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	31	33	24	88
	White Females	32	49	9	90
	Black Males	21	26	28	75
	Black Females	17	33	40	90
Total		101	141	101	343
$\chi 2 = 31.120$ $p = .00$					
		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Donte (BM)	Click to select Tierra (BF)	Click to select Connor (WM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	17	46	25	88
	White Females	12	60	18	90
	Black Males	19	43	13	75
	Black Females	23	56	11	90
Total		71	205	67	343
$\chi 2 = 12.160$ $p = .06$					
		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Dominique (BM)	Click to select Raven (BF)	Click to select Jenna (WF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	13	28	47	88
	White Females	11	39	40	90
	Black Males	17	40	18	75

	Black Females	15	57	18	90
Total		56	164	123	343
$\chi 2 = 31.672$ $p = .00$					

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Spencer (WM)	Click to select Sofia (WF)	Click to select Reginald (BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	28	44	16	88
	White Females	24	52	14	90
	Black Males	11	46	18	75
	Black Females	12	38	40	90
Total		75	180	88	343
$\chi 2 = 31.177$ $p = .00$					

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Madeline (WF)	Click to select Dustin (WM)	Click to select Kiandra (BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	50	19	19	88
	White Females	56	8	26	90
	Black Males	21	6	48	75
	Black Females	24	10	56	90
Total		151	43	149	343
$\chi 2 = 57.328$ $p = .00$					

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Brett (WM)	Click to select Nia (BF)	Click to select Xavier (BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	38	20	30	88
	White Females	36	20	34	90

	Black Males	23	32	20	75
	Black Females	37	29	24	90
Total		134	101	108	343

$\chi 2 = 12.022$ $p = .06$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Janice (BF)	Click to select Maurice (BM)	Click to select Emma (WF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	24	14	50	88
	White Females	40	13	37	90
	Black Males	34	13	28	75
	Black Females	53	16	21	90
Total		151	56	136	343

$\chi 2 = 23.261$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Marquis (BM)	Click to select Logan (WM)	Click to select Holly (WF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	18	19	51	88
	White Females	18	14	58	90
	Black Males	30	10	35	75
	Black Females	26	17	47	90
Total		92	60	191	343

$\chi 2 = 12.382$ $p = .05$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Alexis (BF)	Click to select Diego (WM)	Click to select Abigail (WF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	13	36	39	88

	White Females	8	21	61	90
	Black Males	29	18	28	75
	Black Females	39	13	38	90
Total		89	88	166	343

$\chi 2 = 52.041$ $p = .00$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Chole (BF)	Click to select Cody (WM)	Click to select Demetrius (BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	13	48	27	88
	White Females	19	39	32	90
	Black Males	23	20	32	75
	Black Females	28	29	33	90
Total		83	136	124	343

$\chi 2 = 17.957$ $p = .01$

		Please select ONE of the three persons below to be on a future team.			Total
		Click to select Destiny (BF)	Click to select Caitlin (WF)	Click to select Jalen (BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	7	53	28	88
	White Females	11	57	22	90
	Black Males	20	28	27	75
	Black Females	27	27	36	90
Total		65	165	113	343

$\chi 2 = 34.468$ $p = .00$

	Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.	Total

		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Male (WM&BM)	Team HiLo (WF&BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	38	15	32	85
	White Females	43	9	34	86
	Black Males	13	13	46	72
	Black Females	28	14	43	85
Total		122	51	155	328

$\chi 2 = 21.753$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Female (WF&BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	35	19	34	88
	White Females	33	13	44	90
	Black Males	13	17	45	75
	Black Females	11	24	55	90
Total		92	73	178	343

$\chi 2 = 27.259$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team Male (WM&BM)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	42	28	18	88
	White Females	44	31	15	90
	Black Males	26	18	31	75
	Black Females	24	32	34	90
Total		136	109	98	343

$\chi 2 = 23.153$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team HiLo (WF&BM)	Team Female (WF&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	26	27	35	88
	White Females	47	14	29	90
	Black Males	20	29	26	75
	Black Females	28	27	35	90
Total		121	97	125	343

$\chi 2 = 19.372$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Male (WM&BM)	Team HiLo (WF&BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	41	18	29	88
	White Females	41	14	35	90
	Black Males	15	12	48	75
	Black Females	26	25	39	90
Total		123	69	151	343

$\chi 2 = 25.655$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Female (WF&BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	38	24	26	88
	White Females	32	38	20	90
	Black Males	13	23	39	75
	Black Females	16	30	44	90

Total		99	115	129	343

$\chi 2 = 32.536$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team Male (WM&BM)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	19	25	44	88
	White Females	15	29	46	90
	Black Males	7	23	45	75
	Black Females	9	31	50	90
Total		50	108	185	343

$\chi 2 = 7.435$ $p = .28$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team HiLo (WF&BM)	Team Female (WF&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	22	55	11	88
	White Females	18	60	12	90
	Black Males	21	37	17	75
	Black Females	14	39	37	90
Total		75	191	77	343

$\chi 2 = 30.336$ $p = .00$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Male (WM&BM)	Team HiLo (WF&BM)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	39	14	35	88
	White Females	45	12	33	90

	Black Males	21	17	37	75
	Black Females	34	19	37	90
Total		139	62	142	343

$\chi 2 = 9.744$ $p = .14$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team White (WM&WF)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Female (WF&BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	31	13	44	88
	White Females	30	16	44	90
	Black Males	9	19	47	75
	Black Females	19	26	45	90
Total		89	74	180	343

$\chi 2 = 18.371$ $p = .01$

		Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
		Team Male (WM&BM)	Team Intersectional (WM&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	
Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	46	23	19	88
	White Females	39	15	36	90
	Black Males	24	22	29	75
	Black Females	25	29	36	90
Total		134	89	120	343

$\chi 2 = 19.025$ $p = .00$

	Please select TWO of the three persons below to be together on a future team.			Total
	Team HiLo (WF&BM)	Team Female (WF&BF)	Team Black (BM&BF)	

Race and Gender of Respondent	White Males	23	49	15	87
	White Females	22	54	14	90
	Black Males	14	40	19	73
	Black Females	13	38	39	90
Total		72	181	87	340

$\chi 2 = 23.658$ $p = .00$

APPENDIX D

χ^2 Results for the association between respondent's demographic category and use of signifiers

Chi-Square Results with Observed Frequencies: Association between Race and Use of Signifiers

Race of Respondent	**Usage of Signifiers**		**Total**
	Demeanor	Affect	
Black	414	333	747
White	428	341	769
Total	842	674	1516

$\chi^2 = .008$ $p = .93$

Chi-Square Results with Observed Frequencies: Association between Gender and Use of Signifiers

Gender of Respondent	**Usage of Signifiers**		**Total**
	Demeanor	**Affect**	
Female	448	337	785
Male	394	337	731
Total	842	674	1516

$\chi^2 = 1.542$ $p = .21$

Chi-Square Results with Observed Frequencies: Association between Race & Gender and Use of Signifiers

Race & Gender of Respondent	**Usage of Signifiers**		**Total**
	Demeanor	**Affect**	

White Males	193	174	367
White Females	235	167	402
Black Males	201	163	364
Black Females	213	170	383
Total	842	674	1516

$\chi^2 = 2.697$ $p = .44$

APPENDIX E

χ^2 Results for the association between respondent's demographic Category and the racial and gender category of the chosen candidate, as it relates to each signifier.

Signifiers By Respondent Demographics			Race and Gender of Chosen Candidate				Total
			White Males	White Females	Black Males	Black Females	
Demeanor	Race of Respondent	Black	102	120	82	110	414
		White	75	157	104	92	428
	Total		177	277	186	202	842
Sentiment	Race of Respondent	Black	74	101	60	98	333
		White	58	142	72	69	341
	Total		132	243	132	167	674
Total	Race of Respondent	Black	176	221	142	208	747
		White	133	299	176	161	769
	Total		309	520	318	369	1516

Demeanor: $\chi 2 =$ *13.038* p = .00
Sentiment: $\chi 2 =$ 14.891 p = .00
Total: $\chi 2 =$ 26.992 p = .00

Signifiers By Respondent Demographics			Race and Gender of Chosen Candidate				Total
			White Males	White Females	Black Males	Black Females	
Demeanor	Gender of Respondent	Female	80	150	106	112	448
		Male	97	127	80	90	394
	Total		177	277	186	202	842
Sentiment	Gender of Respondent	Female	69	120	74	74	337
		Male	63	123	58	93	337
	Total		132	243	132	167	674
Total		Female	149	270	180	186	785

	Gender of Respondent	Male	160	250	138	183	731
	Total		309	520	318	369	1516
Demeanor:	$\chi 2 =$	*6.135*	p = .11				
Sentiment:	$\chi 2 =$	4.411	p = .22				
Total:	$\chi 2 =$	4.815	p = .19				

Signifiers By Respondent Demographics			**Race and Gender of Chosen Candidate**				**Total**
			White Males	**White Females**	**Black Males**	**Black Females**	
Demeanor	Race & Gender of Respondent	White Males	39	68	43	43	193
		White Females	36	89	61	49	235
		Black Males	58	59	37	47	201
		Black Females	44	61	45	63	213
	Total		177	277	186	202	842
Sentiment	Race & Gender of Respondent	White Males	32	66	35	41	174
		White Females	26	76	37	28	167
		Black Males	31	57	23	52	163
		Black Females	43	44	37	46	170
	Total		132	243	132	167	674
Total	Race & Gender of Respondent	White Males	71	134	78	84	367
		White Females	62	165	98	77	402
		Black Males	89	116	60	99	364
		Black Females	87	105	82	109	383
	Total		309	520	318	369	1516
Demeanor:	$\chi 2 =$	*20.528*	p = .01				
Sentiment:	$\chi 2 =$	25.221	p = .00				
Total:	$\chi 2 =$	35.218	p = .00				

APPENDIX F

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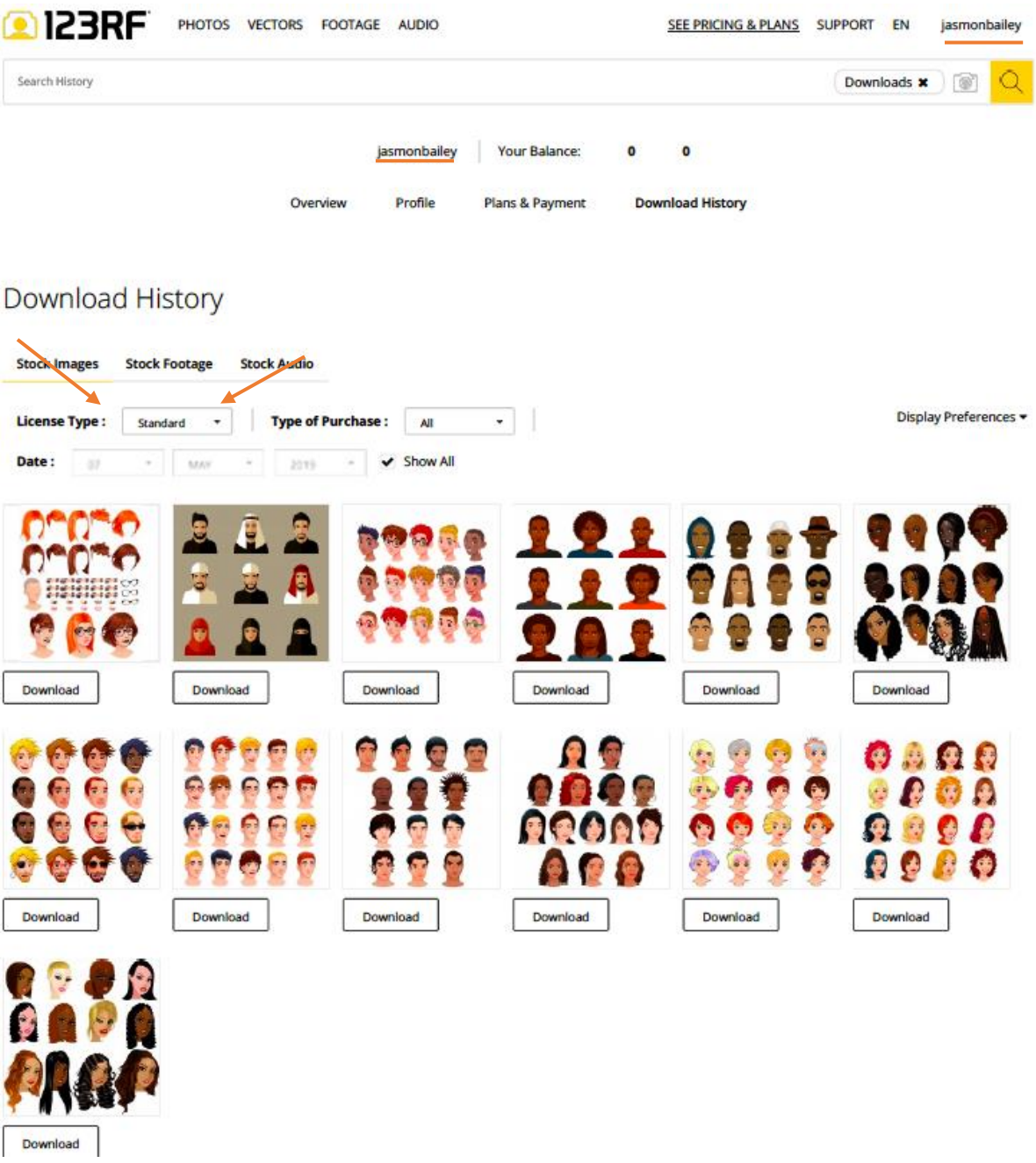

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b. ceasing to use the Contents for any purpose.

123RF can terminate this Agreement without notice to You if You fail to comply with any of the terms and conditions of the Agreement. Upon such termination, You must immediately carry out paragraphs 11(a) and (b) above with or without further notice by 123RF.

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13. **Licensee Indemnity.**

Notwithstanding anything to the contrary in this License, You agree to fully defend, indemnify and hold 123RF and its officers, directors, employees, owners, agents, representatives, licensors, and anyone else associated with 123RF and each of their successors, (sub)licensees (other than You), and assigns free and harmless from any and all claims (including, without limitation, third party claims), liabilities, costs, losses, damages, or expenses, including reasonable attorneys' fees and expenses, arising in connection with Your use of the Contents or any breach or alleged breach of any representation, warranty, or other promise / obligation made by You in this License.

14. **123RF Indemnity.**

Provided that You have not breached the terms of this License, 123RF agrees to defend, indemnify, and hold You harmless up to the Liability Cap (defined below). Such indemnification shall only apply to claims for damages directly attributable to 123RF's breach of the warranties and representations in this Agreement, together with the expenses (including reasonable attorneys' fees), arising out of or directly connected to any valid actual or threatened third party lawsuit, claim, or legal proceeding alleging that the possession, distribution, or use of *unaltered* Contents downloaded and used by You pursuant to this Agreement violate 123RF's warranties and representations contained herein. This indemnification is on the condition

that You give 123RF:

a. no later than five (5) business days written notice from the date You know or reasonably should have known of the claim or threatened claim, where such notification must include all details of the claim then known to You and emailed to legal@123rf.com, Attention: General Counsel;

b. full information, assistance and cooperation for the defense or settlement thereof; and

c. at 123RF's option, sole control of any defense, settlement or action related thereto.

123RF shall not be responsible for any claim settled without 123RF's consent or any legal fees and/or other costs incurred prior to receiving complete notification of the claim as provided herein.

15. **Liability Cap.**

123RF's maximum aggregate obligation and liability to You for all claims (assessed collectively) under paragraph 14 shall be limited to Twenty Five Thousand United States Dollars (US$25,000.00) or the total amount of the license fees paid by You for the Contents, whichever the higher (**"Liability Cap"**).

16. **Unauthorized Use.**

The representations and the warranties made by 123RF in this Agreement apply only to the Content as delivered by 123RF and will be invalid if the Content is used by You in any manner not specifically authorized in this Agreement or if You are otherwise in breach of this Agreement.

17. **Governing Law and Dispute Resolution.**

a. The establishment, effectiveness, interpretation and execution of this License agreement shall all be governed by the laws of Hong Kong, subject to its jurisdiction, and without regard to the conflict of laws principles.

b. All disputes arising in connection with the performance of this License shall be settled through friendly negotiations. If the parties are unable to resolve any such dispute within thirty (30) days after the commencement of negotiations, the parties agree to submit the dispute to Hong Kong International Arbitration Centre for arbitration in Hong Kong which shall be conducted in accordance with the UNCITRAL Arbitration Rules in effect at the time of applying for arbitration. The number of arbitrators shall be one (1). The language of the arbitration shall be English. The arbitral award shall be final and binding upon both parties.

c. You acknowledge and agree that any breach of any covenant, representations and warranties contained in this License would cause irreparable injury to 123RF such that damages and remedies under Hong Kong Law for any breach of any such covenant would be inadequate. You further acknowledge and agree that the arbitral tribunal may order any interim measure it deems necessary or proper in accordance with the applicable laws of Hong Kong, including without limitation, any injunctive or enjoining procedural orders or interlocutory awards.

18. **Assignment.**

Neither party shall assign its rights or interests under this Agreement to any Third Party without the other party's prior written consent in each instance; except that a party may assign its rights, interests and obligations hereunder to any similarly financially responsible entity that is either (i) an affiliate of such party, (ii) the surviving entity of a merger, consolidation or plan or reorganization in which it participates, or (iii) to the purchaser of all or substantially all of the assets of the party, provided such assignee agrees to assume in writing such party's rights and obligations under this Agreement.

19. **No Third Party Rights.**

Any person who is not a party to this Agreement (whether or not such person is named, referred to, or otherwise identified, or shall form part of a class of persons so named, referred to or identified, in this Agreement) shall have no right whatsoever to enforce this Agreement or any of its terms.

20. **Entire Agreement.**

This Agreement constitutes the entire agreement between You and 123RF regarding its subject matter. Should any provision of this Agreement be held to be void or invalid, that fact will not affect any other provision, and the remainder of this Agreement will be construed to most closely give effect to the parties' intention. Failure by either party to enforce any provision of this Agreement will not be deemed a waiver of future enforcement of that or any other provision.

21. **Language.**

This License is written in English with a reference translation in another language (if necessary). In the event of any conflict in interpreting or construing the terms of this Agreement, the English version shall prevail.

22. **Electronic Agreement.**

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