

**ASCIBED STATUS AND PERCEIVED GENDER INFLUENCES ON TRUST  
DECISIONS**

by

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DECISIONS**

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## ABSTRACT

Everyday humans need to decide whom and why to trust to successfully navigate their social world. Investigations of trust during decision-making have begun to explore how various social characteristics of interaction partners influence trust in others. This paper aims to understand how the perceived gender and socioeconomic status (SES) of others influence subsequent trust. More specifically, using a modified Trust Game paradigm, we aimed to uncover how trust processes during decision-making may be simultaneously shaped by status and gender. Participants ( $n = 44$ ) played 256 trials of the Trust Game with 64 unique partners who varied in perceived gender and assigned status. Each unique partner varying in gender and status was pre-determined to share back invested money twice and keep it twice during the game. During gameplay, participants demonstrated a bias to preferentially trust individuals of high status regardless of their perceived gender. These results provide further evidence of positive evaluative bias towards high SES individuals.

*Keywords:* socioeconomic status, perceived gender, trust, decision-making

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## Chapter 1

### INTRODUCTION

Various sources of information available to humans during social interactions can inform their trust decisions. Decision makers may focus on social characteristics of interaction partners that can maximize their successes and minimize harm to the self. Research in psychology and economics has begun to investigate some of the social factors believed to influence trust during decision-making, such as the race, status, and gender of interaction partners (Lount & Pettit, 2012; Fiske et al., 2018; Mattan et al., 2018; Kubota et al., 2023). For instance, individuals are more likely to trust those who belong to their racial group, exhibiting in-group favoritism (Tajfel & Turner, 1986; Dovidio et al., 2002). The potential interplay of these social factors demonstrates the possible complex nature of trust in social and economic exchanges (Simpson, 2007; Fehr, 2009).

Social status and gender have been shown to shape person evaluation, suggesting that these social dimensions may also shape trust. Individuals of higher status are often given control of decisions, granted influence over others, offered more partnerships, and receive greater support as they are perceived more positively (Balliet & Van Lange, 2013; Barth et al., 2020; Cuddy et al., 2008; Lount & Pettit, 2012; Kubota et al., 2023; Mattan & Cloutier, 2020). Additionally, research has found that

people trust high socioeconomic status (SES) individuals more than low status individuals (Kubota et al., 2023), particularly if personal financial gains or losses are at risk (Eckel & Wilson, 2004). However, most of the research on social status has considered how it influences decisions in isolation without variation in other social factors (e.g., gender). When considering gender specifically, this is an oversight considering the existing inequitable distribution of roles in leadership entrusted to men compared to women (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Gender stereotypes further complicate trust dynamics, where men are often trusted in situations requiring competence, while women are trusted in situations requiring warmth (Eagly & Wood, 2012; Heilman, 2012). In the present work, we investigated how financial trust may differ depending on both ascribed SES and perceived gender.

## **1.1 Measures of Trust**

Trust is integral to day-to-day interactions and varying forms of trust can shape these interactions. Depersonalized trust (i.e., trust not derived from experience with the individual or group) can be based on stereotypes, prejudices, or prior experiences of the decision-maker (Brewer, 2008). The Trust Game, perhaps the most widely used method to examine one-on-one independent interactions between partners, can be used to examine how social factors bias trust (Berg et al., 1995; Ozono et al., 2016; Tzieropoulos, 2013). In the Trust Game, individuals play several rounds with differing partners in which they make decisions on whether to financially trust their partners. Partners can have varying social characteristics, such as their perceived gender

(based only on perceptual features from a partner's photo) or ascribed social status (based on provided knowledge of a partner's actual social status) (e.g., Kubota et al., 2023). In our current work, we are interested in how both ascribed social status and perceived gender impact trust.

## **1.2 Socioeconomic Status**

Status can be broadly characterized as a culmination of social dimensions ascribing differing ranks to individuals in a given hierarchy (Mattan et al., 2019). Different dimensions (e.g., education, moral character, skill) and levels (i.e., rank) of social status can result in varying levels of respect, prestige, and admiration (Lount & Pettit, 2012; Mattan et al., 2019). Accordingly, different forms of status granted to an individual can hold weight when deciding to trust them. Socioeconomic status (SES, hereafter referred to as "status"), has been shown to bias trust during decision-making (Kubota et al., 2023; Mattan et al., 2019; Oh et al., 2020; Gyurovski et al., 2018; Wei et al., 2020). Ascribing status based on person-knowledge can result in greater trust toward high status partners (Kubota et al., 2023; Gautam et al., under review) and even prior to any interactions with these individuals (Wilhelm et al., in preparation). A study examining the temporal dynamics of impression formation revealed that perceivers differentiate novel others based on their social status within 200 ms when categorizing their faces (Venezia et al., under review). In addition, even perceptual features, such as apparel conveying different levels of status, can be sufficient to influence perceiver's trust decisions. For example, Oh and colleagues found that

people wearing high status attire were trusted more in financial interactions (Kubota et al., 2023; Oh, et al., 2020). Together this research demonstrates that those of higher status not only garner greater attention but also garner more trust.

### **1.3 Gender**

Despite the influence that given social dimensions may have on trust, people are not unidimensional, and instead comprised of multiple identities that may shape trust dynamics. One factor that may shape trust in financial decision-making is the perceived gender of interaction partners. A long tradition of research suggests that women are often implicitly evaluated more positively (Skowronski & Lawrence, 2001; Nosek & Banaji, 2001) but perceived as less competent (Heilman, 2012; Cikara & Fiske, 2009). Moreover, men compared to women may gain greater advantages from being perceived as highly trustworthy (Kaya Sabanci, & Justo, 2021). These findings highlight an inconsistency between respondents' stated intentions of preference for trustworthiness and their actual investment behaviors, possibly resulting in men more frequently receiving greater investments than women despite being perceived as equally trustworthy. Gender disparities are also present in workplaces, for example discrimination by men against women in leadership roles, which are frequently viewed as inconsistent to traditional gender roles (Biddle, 2013; Eagly & Karau, 2020; Eagly et al., 2000; Koch et al., 2015). These biases towards women may however be minimized in woman-dominant or integrated job environments (Koch et al., 2015) or positions where women are increasingly prevalent (Pinto, Patanakul, & Pinto, 2015).

Therefore, there appears to be a gender trust bias, favoring men, in employment and financial decisions. However, it remains unclear how SES may change gender trust dynamics. Do high status men get an added advantage in financial trust decisions? Do SES and gender equally influence trust? Or does one of these social characteristics dominate trust decisions?

In the present study, we examined how ascribed SES and perceived gender impact financial trust in the context of a Trust Game (Berg et al., 1995). The Trust Game is constructed as a two-player economic game. During the game, the player who is the participant (trustor) is endowed \$10 for their interaction with their partner (trustee). These partners are typically not real human partners—rather, they are computer agents whose behavior is predetermined. The participant is then asked how much of their allotted \$10 they would like to send to their partner, an amount which is then tripled and revealed to their partner. Subsequently, the partner is entrusted with deciding how much of that amount they would like to share back with the participant, or not at all. Trust in this interaction is measured by the amount of money the participant invests in their partner. Reciprocity in this interaction is measured by the amount of money their partner chooses to return or not to their partner (Berg et al., 1995). This task can be either single shot, meaning they only play with their partner once, or iterative, meaning they play multiple rounds.

In this pre-registered study, participants played the Trust Game with partners varying in two social characteristics—*ascribed SES (high and low) and perceived*

gender (men and women)—in a iterative design (i.e., they played with each partner four times). Our measure of trust was the amount invested towards partner varying in these social characteristics. Partner reciprocity was manipulated by counterbalancing an equal amount of interactions in which partners in their respective conditions decided to share or keep the money the participant decided to share with them. (Note that while these data were collected during while electroencephalogram [EEG] data were recorded, the present analyses focus on only the behavioral results.) Based on the literature, our confirmatory predictions were that individuals would trust a) ascribed high status individuals more than ascribed low status individuals and b) perceived female targets more than perceived male targets.

## Chapter 2

### METHODS

#### 2.1 Participants

Based on an *a priori* power analysis we aimed to analyze usable data from a minimum of 30 participants (see Power Analysis below). In order to account for exclusions, we planned to collect data from a maximum additional 20 participants, analyzing however many participants remain after all exclusions (so long as we maintain  $\beta$  of .80 or greater). We consented 47 undergraduate students from the University of Delaware between the ages of 18-35 years old, however, 3 participants were excluded from analysis due to not completing or falling asleep during the study. Thus, we collected a total of 44 participants with usable data. All participants included in this analysis completed all conditions (i.e., a fully within-participants design). Participants were recruited anonymously through Sona Systems, an online participant recruitment interface. Participants were compensated through PSYC100 class research participation credit (.5 credits per half hour). In this study, participants were required to be right-handed, neurotypical, self-identified cis White males, English proficient, have normal or corrected-to-normal vision, and have lived in the United States (U.S.) for at least five years. We chose to recruit only cis White males due to findings demonstrating that the effects of on social evaluation and decision-making are

observed only for White male participants when viewing only White faces (Barth et al., 2020). The present study was approved by the University of Delaware Institutional Review Board, and participants provided informed consent prior to starting the study. This study was preregistered on OSF: <https://osf.io/mr5hg>.

## **2.2 Power Analysis**

The present study was powered specifically with the EEG data in mind, though again, the present analyses focus on only the behavioral data. To identify the sample size for the event-related potential (ERP) categorization task, we conducted a power analysis using the PANGAEA package (v0.2), publicly available at <https://jakewestfall.shinyapps.io/pangea/> (Westfall et al., 2015) (see ‘Inference Criteria’ section). As this study is the first study to our knowledge that examines Gender and Status ERPs in a Trust Game paradigm, we used the default variance parameters in PANGAEA to estimate power for a 2 (Gender: Male, Female)  $\times$  2 (Status: High, Low)  $\times$  2 (Trustworthiness; Good Partner, Bad Partner) within-subjects design. The design consists of 30 participants with 32 analyzable trials per condition. Results determined that 30 participants would be sufficiently powered to detect a significant Gender  $\times$  Status  $\times$  Trust Decision at an effect size of  $d = 0.10$ ,  $1 - \beta = 1$ .

## **2.3 Stimuli**

Faces used in the Trust Game were selected from the Chicago Face Database (CFD) (Ma et al., 2015). To be included as stimuli, CFD faces had to be rated above 90% as belonging to the category men (for perceived men stimuli) and 90% as

belonging to the category woman (for perceived women stimuli). Using the CFD's pre-existing gender ratings, this resulted in a total of 32 unique perceived White women ( $M = 27.31$ ,  $SD = 4.15$ ) and 32 perceived White men ( $M = 26.98$ ,  $SD = 6.00$ ) face stimuli. We also ensured based on these pre-existing ratings where the female and male faces were equated equally on attractiveness ( $t(62) = -0.14$ ,  $d = -0.04$ ,  $p = .89$ ), trustworthiness ( $t(62) = 0.88$ ,  $d = 0.22$ ,  $p = .38$ ), fear ( $t(62) = 0.73$ ,  $d = 0.18$ ,  $p = .50$ ), happiness ( $t(62) = -1.29$ ,  $d = -0.32$ ,  $p = .20$ ), sadness ( $t(62) = 1.65$ ,  $d = 0.41$ ,  $p = .10$ ), surprise ( $t(62) = 0.52$ ,  $d = 0.13$ ,  $p = .60$ ), perceived age ( $t(62) = 0.25$ ,  $d = 0.06$ ,  $p = .80$ ), threat ( $t(62) = -1.82$ ,  $d = -0.45$ ,  $p = .07$ ), babyfacedness ( $t(62) = -1.73$ ,  $d = -0.43$ ,  $p = .09$ ), prototypicality ( $t(62) = -1.56$ ,  $d = -0.39$ ,  $p = .13$ ), and uniqueness ( $t(62) = -0.23$ ,  $d = -0.06$ ,  $p = .82$ ). (Positive values indicate that the mean within female faces was higher; negative values indicate that the mean within male faces was higher.) Included faces were grayscaled and then equated on contrast and luminance using Shine ToolBox (Willenbockel et al., 2010).

Past work examining perceptual status cues of perceived men and women has examined factors such as height, background, and strength (Lukaszewski et al., 2016). To remove the potential risk of confounds these manipulations of status perceptions might add (e.g., manipulating height), we conveyed SES with a knowledge-based color association training paradigm. Specifically, we photoshopped shirts that were either blue or red to the 64 equated and grayscaled faces. Across four versions of the task, each face was counterbalanced with respect to status assignment (i.e., low or high) and the shirt color associated with the status level (i.e., blue or red). For half of

the versions, red denoted high status and blue denoted low status. In the other half of the versions, those assignments were reversed. Finally, we counterbalanced whether partners trusted back by sharing or keeping money (see Trust Game below) across participants. Again, all partners were computer agents whose behavior was predetermined. Stimuli order was fixed based on four constrained pseudorandom orders and counterbalanced across participants. Within each counterbalanced order, each face identity with the same condition was presented four times during the task. Within any counterbalanced presentation orders, no faces associated with any given conditions were presented more than three consecutive times.

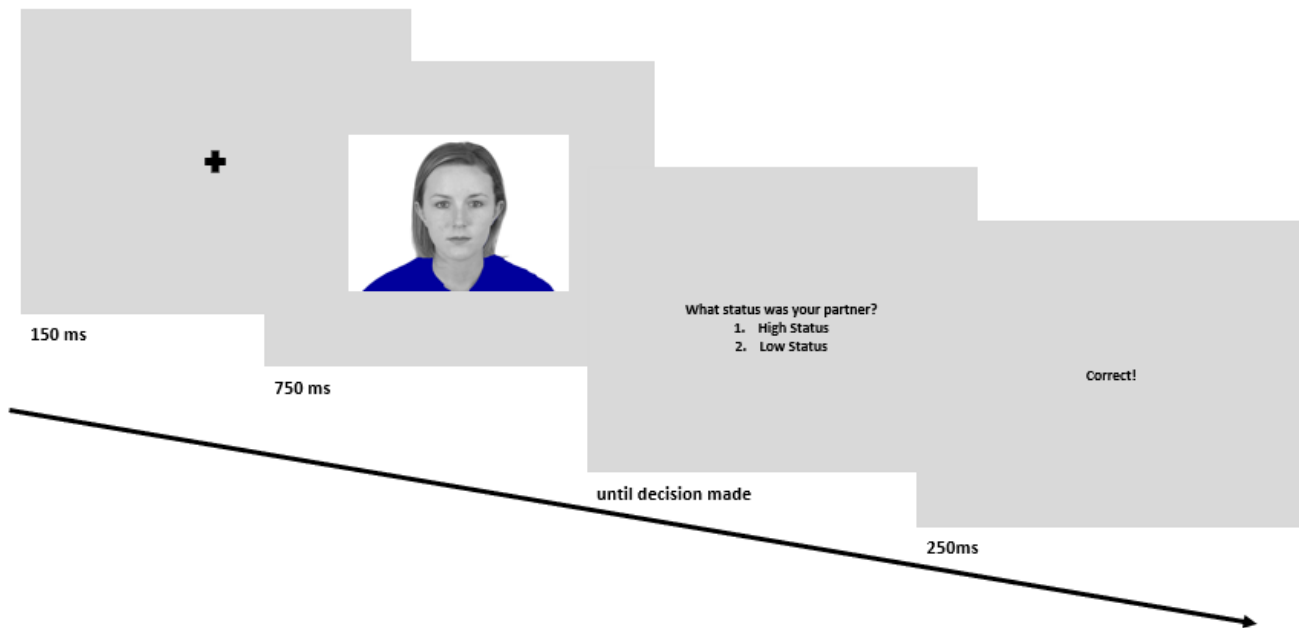
## **Procedures**

Upon arrival at the study site, participant identification was confirmed, and consent forms were collected prior to beginning of any tasks. Following the completion of informed consent and the answering any participant questions, an outline of the study procedures was provided. Subsequently, participants reviewed the task instructions and completed a quiz to assess their understanding of the instructions and memory for the assigned color-status associations. During these instructions, high and low status was defined for the participants. High socioeconomic status was described as applying to "individuals with the highest socioeconomic status tend to have the most money, the most education, and the most respected jobs." Conversely, low socioeconomic status was described as applying to "individuals with the lowest socioeconomic status tend to have the least money, the least education, and the least

respected jobs or no job." After the quiz, participants were given an opportunity to ask any additional questions before proceeding to the Trust Game. Upon completion of the Trust Game, participants were required to complete a series of questionnaires, which included various scales and demographic questions. All participants were debriefed before leaving. Detailed information regarding the study procedures is provided below.

## **2.4 Status Quiz**

Before the Trust Game, participants were asked to complete a self-paced status color association training task. The training randomized the order of perceived women and men in differing color-cued shirts (Mattan et al., 2018; Mattan et al., 2018b). Participants were then asked, "What is the status of this partner?" and asked to select between "High Status or Low Status" (self-paced) using designated keys (the numbers 1 and 2) on a keyboard to these choices. The trial ended with a presentation of training feedback (either "Correct!" or "Incorrect!") for 250 ms (Figure 1). Participants viewed an intertrial interval (ITI) fixation cross for 150ms between trials. Trials started with the presentation of a partner in either a blue or red shirt for 750 ms. All participants included in analysis scored 87.5% or higher on the quiz, meaning they only answered one trial incorrectly. No participants were excluded due to their quiz score. They practiced eight trials of status cues before proceeding to the Trust Game



**Figure 1: Status Training Quiz.**

Participants were first presented with a fixation cross for 150 milliseconds, followed by an image of a face for 750 milliseconds. Participants were then asked to categorize the social status of the face as either "High Status" or "Low Status" by selecting one of the two options displayed on the screen. Once a decision was made, feedback indicating the correctness of the response was provided for 250 milliseconds. The task design aimed to measure the participants' ability to rapidly categorize the target on screen based on ascribed social status .

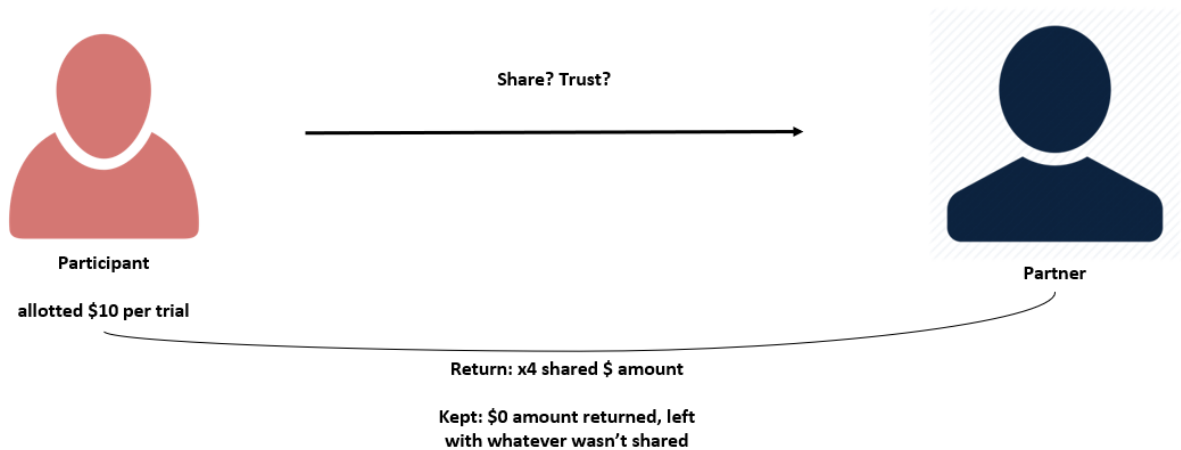
## 2.5 Practice Trust Game

Following the status training and quiz, participants engaged in a practice session of the Trust Game (see subsequent paragraph for details). During this training, they practiced viewing their partner, making investment decisions, and receiving feedback from each trial. They experienced scenarios where they could choose to invest or not in their partner and witnessed their partner's decision to share or not share the money. This practice session included eight trials to familiarize participants with

the game before the actual Trust Game commenced. These trials mirrored the time course of the actual Trust Game represented in Figure 3.

## **2.6 Trust Game.**

We used a modified version of the Trust Game (Berg et al., 1995; Tzieropoulos, 2013; see Figure 2 for an example trial). The main study consists of a 2 (Target Status: high, low)  $\times$  2 (Target Gender: female, male)  $\times$  (Trustworthiness: good partner, bad partner) design. In this modified version, participants were informed that they had \$10 to invest on each trial (Tzieropoulos, 2013). On each trial, participants could share the \$10 in increments of two: \$2, \$4, \$6, \$8, or \$10, or they could keep the money, sharing \$0. If their partner shared back (i.e., a trustworthy partner), the original full amount shared was quadrupled and given to the player. For example, if a participant invested \$2, they would get \$8 back if their partner shared back. If their partner chose to not share (i.e., an untrustworthy partner), the participant was left with the remaining uninvested amount in this example, \$8. For example, if a participant invested \$2 and their partner did not share back, the participant was left with \$8 for that round. The participant's partner's sharing or keeping behavior was manipulated and counterbalanced so that each partner shared twice and kept the money twice. Before beginning the Trust Game, participants were informed that at the end of the game, one round would be selected at random and they would receive payment based on that round's outcome (e.g., \$8 in the previous example). This was done to incentivize participants to play the game carefully (Tzieropoulos, 2013).

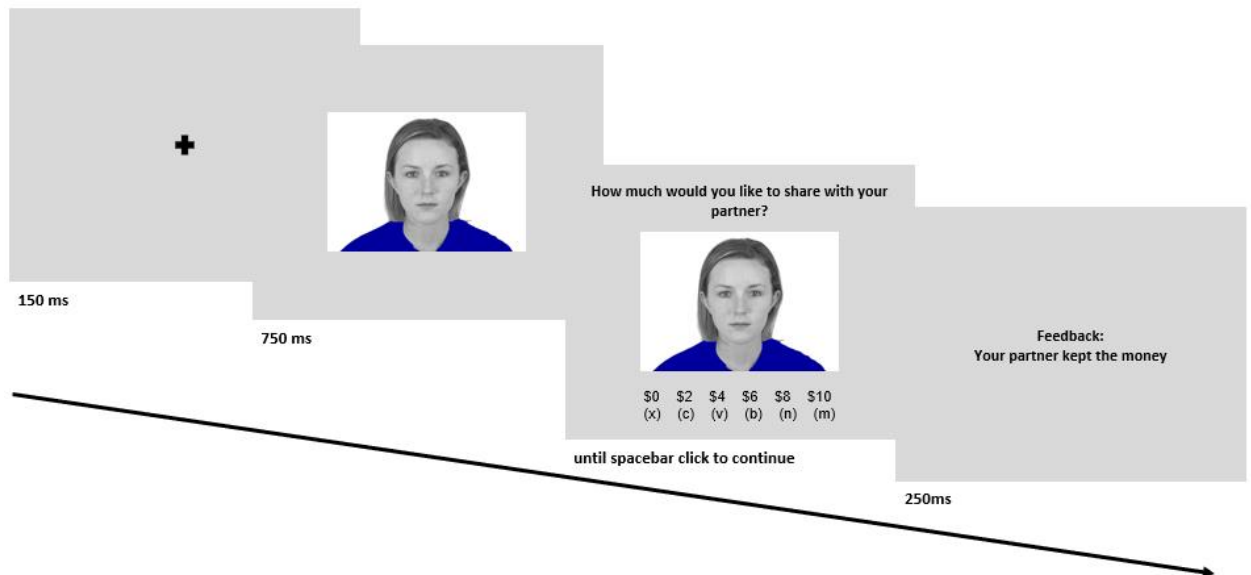


**Figure 2: Modified Trust Game Interaction**

Participants played a modified version of the Trust Game (Berg et al., 1995; Tzieropoulos, 2013). Participants were informed that they had \$10 to invest on each trial. They could choose to share the money in increments of \$2: \$2, \$4, \$6, \$8, or \$10, or keep the money, sharing \$0.

The original structure of the Trust Game does not separate the decision phases. However, our version of the Trust Game consisted of three phases: (1) stimuli presentation, (2) decision-making, and (3) feedback, each separated by an ISI (Figure 3). Participants viewed an ITI fixation cross for 150ms between trials. Each trial then started with the presentation of an image of their partner for 750ms (impression formation phase), followed by a jittered ISI for 150-250ms. Then the participants would see the self-paced decision screen (decision phase) followed by feedback based on their and their partner's decision for 1000ms (feedback phase). This concluded one trial. There were a total of 32 trials per condition, resulting in a total of 256 trials making our Trust Game iterative. In these trials, participants were presented with their partners during a 750ms face stimuli presentation. In the decision-making phase,

participants decided how much they wanted to share or not share of their allotted \$10 for that trial. Upon making their decision, the last phase of the trial informed participants whether their partner had decided to share or keep their money.



**Figure 3: Modified Trust Game**

Participants played a modified version of the Trust Game that was divided into four distinct phases in one trial: (1) ITI for 150ms (2) face presentation for 750ms, (3) decision-making (self-paced), and (4) feedback for 250ms.

## 2.8 Questionnaires

Following the Trust Game, participants completed questionnaires that are meant solely for exploratory analyses.. The following questionnaires were collected: Objective and Subjective Social Status (see Mattan et al., 2019), Modern Sexism Scale (see Swim et al., 1995), Ambivalent Sexism Scale (see Glick & Fiske, 1996), Adapted to explore Internal and external motivation (IMS/EMS) to respond without prejudice (scored according to Plant & Devine, 1998), the Positive and Negative Affect

Schedule Short Form (PANAS-SF) (Watson & Tellegen, 1998), and a Status Contact Scale (see Cloutier, Li, & Correll, 2014; Cloutier, Li, Mišić, Correll, & Berman, 2016).

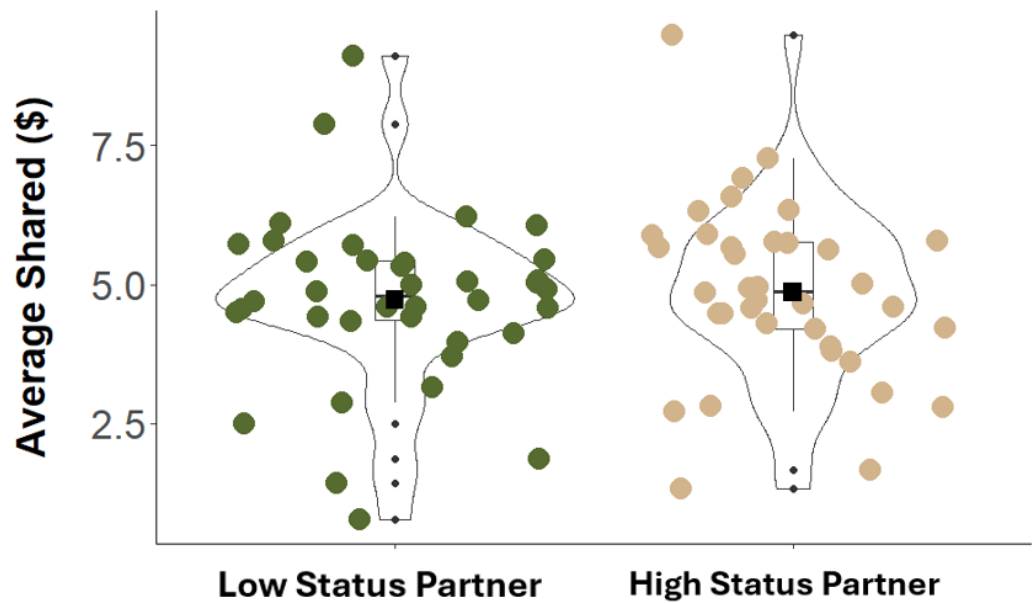
## **2.9 Data Cleaning**

Participants who failed to complete the exploratory questionnaires were not eliminated from the final analyses. Data were collected in PsychoPy version 2022.2.5 (Peirce et al., 2022) and analyzed in RStudio (RStudio Team, 2020). For analysis, perceived gender (woman = 0.5, man = -0.5) and status contrasts (low status = -0.5, high status = 0.5) were created for analysis. We conducted a Linear Mixed Effects Model with lmer (Bates et al., 2015) with perceived gender and ascribed status as fixed effects and subject with a random intercept.

## Chapter 3

### RESULTS

Based on our *a priori* confirmatory predictions, we predicted that individuals would trust ascribed high status individuals more than ascribed low status individuals. We also predicted that perceived women would be trusted more than perceived men. We found a main effect of status with no perceived gender effects. Participants trusted higher status partners more than low status partners (i.e., they invested more in them) regardless of gender ( $b = .015$ ,  $SE = 0.060$ ,  $CI_{95\%} = [.030, 0.266]$ ,  $t(37) = 2.461$ ,  $p = .014^*$ ) (see Figure 4). We replicated high status trust biases; however, we did not see a trust difference between perceived male and female partners ( $b = -0.025$ ,  $SE = 0.060$ ,  $CI_{95\%} = [-0.142, 0.093]$ ,  $t(37) = -0.410$ ,  $p = .682$ ).



**Figure 4: High Status Trust Bias**

Participants invested more in high status partners ( $M = 5.23$ ,  $SD = 1.22$ ) compared to low status partners ( $M = 4.75$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ), replicating previously observed high status trust biases. There were no significant differences in trust based on perceived gender. The green points represent investments in low status partners, while the tan points represent investments in high status partners. The violin plots illustrate the distribution of the shared amounts, with box plots indicating the median and interquartile range.

## **Chapter 4**

### **DISCUSSION**

Supporting our confirmatory prediction, people had a high status trust bias in investment decisions, exhibit a greater trust of high status compared to low status partners (Lukaszewski et al., 2016; Cloutier et al., 2016). Our findings align with existing literature on status biases, demonstrating that participants consistently invested more in interactions with higher-status partners, even when there were additional social factors were present (Lount & Pettit, 2012). Contrary to our prediction, we did not observe a significant difference in trust based on perceived gender of the partners (Haselhuhn et al., 2015). This unexpected outcome suggests that, at least in some contexts, participants prioritize status cues over gender cues when making trust decisions. This could potentially be attributed to an emphasis of status-related information during the explicit training of status compared to the perceived gender-related information from the facial cues (Cikara et al., 2017). The participants' drive for personal gain could also explain the absence of the influence of perceived gender on trust decisions. This drive could be rooted in the expectation that investing in high status individuals would yield better returns or benefits. While literature demonstrates stereotypes of warmth of perceived women, the participants in this study might have prioritized the status information over the perceived gender of

their partners (Glick & Fiske, 1996). It is however possible that perceived gender may interact with social status to impact trust in some contexts, such as varying occupational hierarchies. Indeed, Eagly and Karau's (2002) Role Congruity Theory suggests that women—specifically those in authoritative positions—may experience decreased trust by their peers due to incongruence between gender stereotypes and leadership expectations. Similarly, Buchan et al., (2008) found that trust dynamics differ depending on gender, often women being trusted less than men, particularly in economic situations due to perceived lower competence.

Previous research has found that when SES is utilized to convey relative status, high status individuals are perceived to be more trustworthy. This perception is likely because high status individuals are assumed to have more resources, dominance, and social influence, which can translate into a higher likelihood of beneficial interactions. When faced with rapid decision-making scenarios, such as those presented in the Trust Game, participants might default to trusting high status partners as a strategy to maximize individual gains. This cognitive shortcut aligns with findings concluding there is increased cognitive control and conflict monitoring that occurs when individuals view low status faces (Mattan et al., 2018a; Mattan et al., 2018b)

Further studies could consider varying the hierarchical contexts, such as different industry settings or cultural environments, to explore how trust dynamics might change when certain gender and status norms are more or less salient (Eagly & Karau, 2002). For example, status may interact with gender to shape trust in contexts

associated with stereotypical gender leadership beliefs (Buchan et al., 2008).

Accordingly, future work may benefit from investigating how status conveyed through leadership roles can impact how perceived gender might shape trust decisions. This would provide further insight on how different social cues are prioritized when team performance is impacting gains.

In addition to gender, perceived race has also been shown to shape social evaluation and may therefore also shape trust decisions. Although past studies have examined how ingroup and outgroup dynamics yield bias towards participants' ingroup, no studies to date have investigated how race and status might particularly interact to influence decision making towards partners who are strangers (Avery et al., 2016; Fiske, 2018; Ridgeway, 2014). This work is crucial as it would investigate the interaction of two social dimensions believed to have a larger social impact on minority groups (Freeman et al., 2011). A better understanding of how these variables shape trust decisions could reveal how structural dynamics, such as leadership in positions of power, lead to disproportionate biases against specific racial groups (Kilduff & Galinsky, 2013). Indeed, who our leaders are and how individuals attain positions of power is inherent to inequity in our society (Rosette & Livingston, 2012).

In addition to gender and race, age may also play a role in decision-making, particularly when age and status are associated with overlapping stereotypes. Existing work has highlighted extremes of ageism (Garstka et al., 2005). For example, some stereotypes suggest that individuals of older age hold characteristics of experience,

trustworthiness, and knowledge (Ardelt, 2010). Meanwhile, other stereotypes suggest that older age is associated with an inability to adapt, slower updating, and an inability to socially connect (Nelson, 2005). Similar opposing stereotypes exist for individuals of younger ages. On the one hand, some stereotypes suggest that being younger is associated with being more adaptable, quicker to learn, and relatability to society (Kunze et al., 2013). In contrast, youth is also associated with inexperience, naivety, and risk-taking propensity (Frank & Seaman, 2023). While these ageist beliefs have been studied in the context of leadership, it is unclear how they might influence trust decisions when status information, such as an individual's socioeconomic standing or competency levels, is available. Additionally, even less is known about how status, race, and age interact to influence trust decision-making (Levine et al., 2018).

Overall, the current findings begin to disentangle how gender and social status shape trust decisions. When socioeconomic status is ascribed to strangers and financial gains are on the line, status cues are found to impact whom we choose to trust over their perceived gender. These findings further emphasize the need to further explore additional social dimensions such as race, ethnicity, or age alongside status—and in particular, to reach a more comprehensive understanding of when status does and does *not* override trust decisions.

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**APPENDIX**  
**IRB/HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL**



Institutional Review Board  
210H Hulihan Hall  
Newark, DE 19716  
Phone: 302-831-2137  
Fax: 302-831-2828

DATE: March 26, 2024  
TO: Jennifer Kubota, Phd  
FROM: University of Delaware IRB  
STUDY TITLE: [1400952-13] Status-Trust EEG  
SUBMISSION TYPE: Continuing Review/Progress Report  
ACTION: APPROVED  
EFFECTIVE DATE: March 26, 2024  
NEXT REPORT DUE: March 28, 2025  
REVIEW TYPE: Administrative Review  
REVIEW CATEGORY: Expedited review category # (4,7)

Thank you for your Continuing Review/Progress Report submission to the University of Delaware Institutional Review Board (UD IRB). The UD IRB has reviewed and APPROVED the proposed research and submitted documents via Administrative Review in compliance with the pertinent federal regulations.

As the Principal Investigator for this study, you are responsible for, and agree that:

- All research must be conducted in accordance with the protocol and all other study forms as approved in this submission. Any revisions to the approved study procedures or documents must be reviewed and approved by the IRB prior to their implementation. Please use the UD amendment form to request the review of any changes to approved study procedures or documents.
- Informed consent is a process that must allow prospective participants sufficient opportunity to discuss and consider whether to participate. IRB-approved and stamped consent documents must be used when enrolling participants and a written copy shall be given to the person signing the informed consent form.
- Unanticipated problems, serious adverse events involving risk to participants, and all non-compliance issues must be reported to this office in a timely fashion according with the UD requirements for reportable events. All sponsor reporting requirements must also be followed.

The UD IRB REQUIRES the submission of a PROGRESS REPORT DUE ON March 28, 2025. A continuing review/progress report form must be submitted to the UD IRB at least 45 days prior to the due date to allow for the review of that report.

If you have any questions, please contact the UD IRB Office at (302) 831-2137 or via email at [hsrb-research@udel.edu](mailto:hsrb-research@udel.edu). Please include the study title and reference number in all correspondence with this office.

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