2023

Aggression, avoidance, shame and narcissism in fragile masculinity

Israel Zev Meth
Long Island University

AGGRESSION, AVOIDANCE, SHAME, AND NARCISSISM IN FRAGILE MASCULINITY

BY

ISRAEL Z. METH, M.A., J.D.

A DOCTORAL DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY OF THE SCHOOL OF HEALTH PROFESSIONS OF LONG ISLAND UNIVERSITY, IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

JANUARY, 2023

DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY
CERTIFIED BY:

_____
Philip S. Wong, Ph.D.
Professor of Psychology
Director, Ph.D. Program in Clinical Psychology

January 11, 2023
_____
DATE

SPONSORING COMMITTEE:

_____
Philip S. Wong, Ph.D.

_____
Sara C. Haden, Ph.D.

_____
Matthew J. Morrison, Ph.D.

Abstract

The overwhelming representation of males in physically aggressive acts and violent crime suggests that masculinity contributes to the gender discrepancy. Fragile masculinity, a term denoting the cultural mandate and the individual's perception that manhood is precarious, has been posited as particularly meaningful in understanding the etiology of aggression and relational avoidance in men. Empirical work suggests that there is a link among these constructs (Vandello, 2013), but the literature has not fully explored variables that may inform or impact these connections. Based on psychodynamic theories of narcissism, shame and aggression, this study aimed to empirically test their impact. Mediation and moderation analyses were conducted to better understand the role of fragile masculinity, narcissism, and shame in contributing to enactments of aggression and avoidance of relationships, and they proved to be significant. In a random sample (n = 302) of males in the United States, strong evidence demonstrated a mediating effect of narcissism, including grandiose and vulnerable narcissism as well as entitlement rage, between fragile masculinity, and trait aggression, state aggression, as well as relational avoidance. A bootstrapping procedure confirmed the significance of mediation effects. Further, half of the male participants (n = 153) listened to a shame inducing audio scenario, and the other half (n = 149) listened to a neutral scenario to determine if those who are currently experiencing state shame would endorse higher state aggression. State shame moderated the association between entitlement rage and state aggression. Results suggest that the combination of fragile masculinity with narcissism and state shame is critical to consider in prevention and treatment of aggression and relational avoidance.

Acknowledgements

This dissertation was inspired in part by my own experiences with rigid gender roles. Keenly aware of the privileges inherent in being male in our society, there are elements that I have observed and experienced as onerous. Masculinity pervades my perceptions despite my intellectual beliefs that neither gender should have cultural mores forced upon them. Raising my children in this regard is sobering, desiring to provide them gender freedom, yet encountering the inherent challenge of living within a culture whose values are ingrained within me and which I am bound to transmit.

Additionally, I have encountered many individuals who labor under arbitrary requirements of masculinity, feeling a need to project a false self for fear of negative evaluations. Further, the impact of fragile masculinity on the political landscape and policies is clearer than ever. More personal to my profession, I was inspired to investigate fragile masculinity, due to theoretical understanding that it might be partially responsible for the dearth of males in psychology.

The process of moving from a legal career to becoming a psychologist has been arduous and could not have been achieved without the support of my late mentor, Dr. Donald M. Levine, and to the staunch support of my partner and my family, including the tolerance of my young children for my reduced availability. To my committee Drs. Haden, Wong, and Morrison, I am grateful for your interest in my project and thankful for the thought provoking questions, and constructive criticism. Sara, a special thank you for your inspiration to conduct research and your motivational attitudes toward getting things done. Thank you to the entire faculty at LIU Brooklyn, current and retired, for your dedication to developing my clinical acumen and interest in psychological research. Finally, thank you to my cohort, whose collegiality has been invaluable.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

Chapter I

Introduction

"Masculinity" is often hard won and easily lost (Vandello, 2012). Definitions of masculinity vary, but it is a male role endemic to many cultures which is difficult to achieve and retain. Research over the last few decades has identified core traits that are characterized and perceived as meeting masculine standards (DiMuccio, 2020). Hegemonic masculinity valorizes certain masculine embodiments such as dominance in the form of physical strength or resilience, wage labor and the ability to provide, heterosexual desire and potency, fatherhood, emotional stoicism balanced with sufficient aggression (Shumka, 2017). Masculine standards may also include status-seeking achievement in work and sports, independence, confidence, competitiveness, risk taking, aggression, and the eschewal of femininity in behavior, speech, and emotional expression (DiMuccio, 2020). Although masculinity is often defined as an assemblage of traits, it is also a collection of activities in the relational sphere between men and women, as men are consistently at risk of being considered insufficiently masculine by others (Joseph, 2012). "Fragile masculinity" or "fragile hegemonic masculinity" implies a sense of difficulty or inferiority in *performing* hegemonic masculinity (Shumka, 2017), and is a construct addressed most extensively in the political psychology and sociology literature (DiMuccio, 2020; Kimmel, 2017). Fragile masculinity is often defined as a sense of precarious manhood, and threat to meeting social standards for masculinity (Blazina, 2004).

Theory suggests that at its core, fragile masculinity may entail a basic element of shame, as not living up to the collective standards, and there is some empirical support that shame may be a lynchpin of the threatened-masculinity dynamic (Gebhard, 2018).

Some research suggests that increased masculine gender role stress is associated with a higher likelihood to endorse shame-proneness (Efthim, 2001). Further, shame is a strong predictor of family conflict and intimate partner physical aggression (Kim, 2009).

Aggression has been linked to fragile masculinity (O'Connor 2017; Willer, 2013). Researchers have focused on the aggressive sequelae of fragile masculinity, partly by attempting to understand the alarming social and aggressive ramifications of the "incel" movement and related mass shootings (Scaptura, 2019). The incel movement, largely established in online communities, generally consists of young, heterosexual, white men with difficulty finding partners and developing a sexual life (Scaptura, 2019). These men consider their celibacy involuntarily imposed upon them by cultural values of equality among the sexes and by women valuing so called superior men (O'Malley, 2020). Approximately seven mass shootings have been connected to this movement (Hines, 2019).

Some theorists have argued that "aggrieved entitlement" explains elements of fragile masculinity, the incel movement, political aggression, the rise of the far right, and the Trump constituency (DeKeseredy, 2019). Although there is anecdotal evidence and theoretical support for entitlement influencing the relationship between fragile masculinity and aggression, there is a dearth of empirical literature examining entitlement or the greater construct of narcissism in this regard. The incel movement, additionally, provides us with an opportunity to look at relational avoidance, by questioning whether "involuntary" celibacy is truly involuntary, that is to say external, or whether these individuals are externalizing avoidant coping mechanisms by blaming their celibacy on women and social progress and equality of the sexes. While there is some empirical evidence that fragile masculinity is related to avoidance, here too, there is little exploration of the impact of narcissism.

Narcissism is an essential construct and phenomenology to examine, as there is already existing support for shame-proneness in connection with fragile masculinity. The psychodynamic mask model of narcissism posits that grandiosity is a defense against an empty self, providing a façade to cover up a deeply held shameful sense of inferiority (Freud, 1914; Kohut, 1966; Kernberg, 1986, as cited in Kuchynka et al., 2018). Fragile masculinity in the context of an already shame-prone individual, would call for increased narcissistic defenses, as well as aggression and avoidance.

In the clinical psychology literature, the concept of "fragile masculinity" is represented variously by "Gender role discrepancy stress," "Gender role conflict," or "Precarious Manhood," all of which concern the way in which the individual feels inauthentically beholden and inadequately equipped to meet societal requirements of his or her assigned gender. The present research seeks to expand our understanding of fragile masculinity and its association with entitlement, by analyzing their connection to clinical phenomena, including shame proneness, shame, narcissism, aggression, and relational avoidance. Gender socialization has led to a rigid split between roles of men and women, such that masculinity may require men to hone defenses that are narcissistic and aggressive. The consequence of these social mores is that some men feel alienated for feeling less masculine which in turn perpetuates and exacerbates anger and aggression. When men suffer from a sense of fragile masculinity, they tend to endorse political aggression (DiMuccio, 2020) as well as discrimination against women and gay individuals (O'Connor, 2017).

Based on existing theory and literature that childhood maltreatment leads to shame proneness, the sample for the current study was comprised of men who endorse having experienced childhood maltreatment. The rationale for recruiting participants who meet some threshold for childhood maltreatment is to better understand the role of

shame-proneness. Narcissism is more likely to act as coping mechanism in those who are shame-prone (Uji, 2012). It was hypothesized that there will be significant positive direct and indirect relationships between fragile masculinity and aggression. It is further hypothesized that there will be a positive direct and indirect relationship between fragile masculinity and avoidance. It was hypothesized that the relationship between fragile masculinity and aggression as well as fragile masculinity and avoidance will be explained by narcissism. Further, the relationship between narcissism and aggression would be greater in individuals who are experiencing an increase in state shame. State shame was induced in participants who listened to an audio vignette, describing a scenario in which participants approached a prospective romantic interest, resulting in feeling humiliated after rejection due to having visible nasal mucous on the participant's cheek. This shameful scenario was intended to induce a present state of shame which potentially called on the defenses of aggression or avoidance to shield the ego from narcissistic injury.

The following section reviews the extant literature that is both the inspiration and the academic support for this study. An introduction to fragile masculinity and the pervasiveness of the pressure on males to perform masculinity across many cultures is a foundational phenomenon. Aggression as a correlate to fragile masculinity is then explored, followed by review of the phenomenon of shame and narcissism as further correlates. Finally, review of the literature on the construct of avoidance is presented as a potential coping mechanism for fragile masculinity.

Chapter II

Literature Review

Fragile masculinity

Masculinity or manhood is variously defined by the extant literature. Some define it as a stable set of characteristics underlined by themes of agency and action, many classical psychoanalytic theorists define it by disidentification with femininity, and other researchers provide no specific definition other than its precariousness (Vandello, 2012). Fragile Masculinity is a term that encompasses a self-conception of inadequacy or fear of inadequacy in being a man qua man. Situations that reflect physical inadequacy, emotional expressiveness, subordination to women, intellectual inferiority, failure in meeting masculine standards at work and sexual inadequacy have reportedly triggered stress in men as violation of traditional gender roles (Efthim, 2001, citing Eisler 1991). The masculine ideal of agency, action, and denigration of emotional expression is pervasive in our culture so that even individuals who may not believe in the traditional norms of masculinity may still feel compelled to navigate life through its lens (Gebhard, 2018). This identity includes an inflexible masculinity characterized by exhibitionistic self-display, haughty reserve, recklessness, misogyny, a drive to display potency, and a regarding of the penis as an instrument of aggression rather than love (Diamond, 2006).

Theory of Masculinity and Its Origins. According to some of the psychoanalytic literature, the infant boy desires to be both the mother and the father, in a nurturing merger which is at most dyadic, if not still monic (Diamond, 2006). Masculinity begins to develop from the boy's earliest experiences of loss of the nurturing mother, when his understanding of the triadic nature of his early relationships emerges

(Freud, 1921, as cited by Diamond, 2006). His understanding of the special erotic relationship between his mother and his father leads him to an identification with his father in sharing the same genitals. The conception of the mother as evocatively sexual toward the father and potentially the self represents a loss of the innocent nurturing mother for whom there are no competitors (Diamond, 2006). The boy's traumatic loss of the earliest gratifying dyadic relationships with his mother as a result of his phallic needs, disposes the boy to locate himself in the world as omnipotently phallic to regain control of the object (the mother) now experienced as separate from his ego (Diamond, 2006). The pregenital "phallic" phase, beginning about two years old, during which the phallus is the primary erogenous zone, involves utilizing and believing in the phallus as an omnipotent object that can penetrate and merge with the other to prevent the loss of the ideal Madonna (Diamond, 2006). In the phallic phase, extending, thrusting, and penetrating are paramount along with associated personality traits such as aggression, strength and potency (Diamond, 2006).

In normal development, phallic urges mature into genitality (an understanding of the phallus as merely genital and not omnipotent), during which the boy is impacted by the father's beneficial use of paternal authority, emotional regulatory capacity and admirable practical skills (Diamond, 2006). The male identity, thus, transforms from its sole aim of penetrative, potency and mastery, to one which integrates the object and the need for connection (Diamond, 2006). The boy's sense of maleness may depend on his connection with his benevolent connection with his father, his budding ability to express and modulate aggressive and competitive urges, acquire a sense of industry, and attenuate the need for illusory phallic omnipotence (Diamond, 2006). The achievement of mature

sense of masculine identity, a task enacted throughout the lifespan, is dependent on the adequate negotiation of the shifting balance between the phallic ego ideal of omnipotence and merger, with the genital ego ideal of reduced grandiosity, and increased sense of otherness and empathy, which then allows for strivings to establish lasting intimate relationship (Diamond, 2006). When maturity to the genital phase is halted or when an individual regresses, the more inflexible aggressive phallic masculinity is retained or reemerges, in which the male feels driven to ferociously repudiate emotional connectedness and "feminine" qualities (Diamond, 2006).

While efforts to reduce gender-splitting is a contemporary cultural force, masculinity and femininity retain certain culturally defined characteristics: masculinity continues to be conceived of as being rational, protective, aggressive, and dominating, while femininity is taken to mean being emotional, nurturing, receptive, and submissive (Benjamin, 1988, as cited by Diamond, 2006). This cultural reality is perpetuated by early psychodynamics as well as by peer relations, and each individual is burdened to keep the alternate gender's characteristics subliminal and less developed (Benjamin, 1988, as cited by Diamond, 2006). In fragile masculinity, there may be both an under and over identified masculinity, encompassing on the one hand passivity and inhibited aggression, and, on the other, insistence on staving off emotional experiences and terror of being annihilated by externalizing and enacting aggression (Diamond, 2006).

Bem's gender schema theory argues that sex typed attitudes and behaviors are learned by absorbing society's mandates of what is appropriate for one's own sex (Copenhaver, 1996, citing Bem, 1981). Gender role strain refers to the dissonant feelings experienced by both men and women when faced with unhealthy and unattainable

culturally imposed gender ideals (Wimer, 2020). Three forms of gender role strain have been identified: “discrepancy strain” refers to the dissonance in response to internal feeling of not measuring up to an ideal, “dysfunction strain” refers to experiences of tangible difficulties in relation to gender socialization such as refusal to seek help, and “trauma strain” refers to when an individual is victimized for failing to live up to a cultural ideal for his gender (Wimer, 2020, citing Pleck, 1995). When we speak of gender role discrepancy stress, it is a combination of these three that is pertinent.

Masculinity As a Performance. The same dichotomy may be working in those men who purchase sex, whereby men may feel regret and passivity and express merely a desire for intimacy bounded by space and time, while on the other hand behaving in a predatory and assaultive way (Shumka, 2017). Typical men who purchase sex describe their behavior in prescriptive gendered scripts that men have a biological imperative for sex and are entitled to women’s bodies (Shumka, 2017). Studies have shown that men purchase sex as a confirmation of their masculinity and heterosexuality (Pettinger, 2011; Huysamen, 2015). Men situate predatory behavior toward sex-workers within a normative masculinities frame (Shumka, 2017). While hegemonic masculinity impacts men deleteriously, disempowering them due to insecurities and feelings of inadequacy, it is also potentially dangerous to the women against whom it is often exercised (Shumka, 2017). Men who feel insecure about their masculinity are more likely to engage in compensatory behaviors to reaffirm their masculine status, especially in societal contexts where gender inequities and violence are considered normative (Joseph, 2012). Shumka (2017) reports that interviews with men who purchase sex reveal a pervasive origin story – a narrative about their initial decision to purchase sex as motivated by a feeling of inferiority and a behavior serving as a response to women they perceived as selfish and

capricious who undermined their desire to be “good men.” Feelings of inferiority are responded to by engaging in typical masculine practices that represent the sexually potent man driven by urgent biological need (Joseph, 2012).

Effects of Cultural Norms of Masculinity on Ideation and Behavior. Men exposed to masculinity threats report greater anxious and aggressive ideation, higher cortisol levels, cardiac vagal withdrawal (a physiological index of stress), higher pain tolerance, greater toughness, more forcefully punching a punching bag, consuming more alcohol, taking greater financial risks and increased aggression toward gay men (DiMuccio, 2020). Studies have shown that men take greater financial risks than women as a general matter, and that priming masculinity increases financial risk-taking, and further, experiencing gender threat increased financial risk-taking, a tough masculine practice (Meier-Pesti, 2006).

Threatened masculine identity impacts politics and political ideology as well, with one study finding an increase desire for a masculine president, even excluding for preference for male presidents (Carian, 2018). Further, the political significance of masculine threat includes ideologies, such as increased justification for social inequality, less support for gender equality, more benevolent sexism, and more enjoyment of anti-gay and sexist humor, increase in gun enthusiasm, and aggressive responses to perceived security threats (DiMuccio, 2020). Masculine overcompensation works symbolically to reassert the status of masculinity over femininity, rather than merely to emphasize maleness over femaleness (Carian 2018). Many studies indicate men and women differ in term of party identification, voting behavior, political ideology, political attitudes, where women are more likely to identify as liberal and support social-welfare policies and men, in contrast, are more likely than women to identify as conservative and support the use of military intervention (DiMuccio, 2020). This evidence provides guidance in determining

how males who endorse gender conflict may also endorse greater trait and state aggression.

Gender role conflict has been shown to relate to racial identity, racial reference group, African American consciousness, and acculturation, suggesting interactions with racial, ethnic and cultural beliefs (O'Neil, 2008). African American men who strongly identify with African American culture report less gender role conflict than those who idealize white culture, and thus may be compounded by feelings of racial inferiority (O'Neil, 2008). Studies have indicated that both foreign men who are less acculturated and those who identify mainly with the dominant culture experience greater gender role conflict (O'Neil 2008). These findings provide compelling support for the theory that engagement in stereotyped masculine behavior may serve a socially expressive function intended to quell negative affect and realign men with the status of "Manhood." (Berke, 2016). Fragile masculinity is thus an important construct to investigate as potentially providing an impetus for men to cover up feelings of inadequacy and shame in an explicit reactionary or externalizing manner.

Evidence of Fragile Masculinity and Its Impact Across Cultures. Discrepancy strain is pervasive. Vandello (2012) has demonstrated that people view the very state of manhood as a precarious social status that is hard won and easily lost, a state that requires persistent public proof. Further, they argue, this perception transcends cultural boundaries (Vandello, 2012, citing Gilmore, 1991). In many cultures, the transition from boyhood to manhood is birthed via performing rites of passage: for example, Samburu boys of Kenya must endure unanesthetized circumcision without flinching, the Maasai of East Africa require a boy to kill a large wild animal such as a lion, and the Sambian of New Guinea require boys to undergo scarification to transition to manhood (Vandello, 2012, citing Spencer, 1965, Saitoti, 1986, and Gilmore, 1990).

Orthodox Jewish boys are expected to become advanced scholars of Jewish law, and scholastic achievement is the ultimate masculinity, with the threat of being considered an inadequate man if these scholarly ambitions are not performed (Benor, 2004). A text-based culture, male masculinity in the orthodox (*haredi*) culture is often manifested by men's tendency to integrate quotations from the scriptures in their linguistic style (Goldberg, 2009). The persistent use of quotations appears frequently as a display of masculinity by demonstrating erudition in the sources, a stark demonstration of masculinity especially when some who use this linguistic style are self-evidently not "great Torah scholars" (Goldberg, 2009). Men in the *haredi* community do not display traditional hypermasculinity, instead for the most part "speaking softly and quietly, perhaps even feminine, their bodies awkward and bent (Goldberg, 2009)." Even in a society that diverges from the traditional conception of masculinity, a society that abjures machismo and material strength, places the male role within expectations of performing masculinity (Goldberg, 2009). Any difficulty for men to realize the masculine ideal, in whatever form the particular subculture defines it, is stressful, frustrating and upsetting (Goldberg, 2009). Data indicating fragile masculinity should therefore be readily available for collection.

Western Masculinity as Relatively Unarticulated. Ironically, the amorphous western definitions of manhood may induce more anxiety concerning adequate masculinity, as the expectations to earn and prove manhood prevails despite the fact that the culture does not provide a predefined formal mechanism for doing so (Vandello, 2012). Gender role discrepancy stress may arise from an excessive commitment to and over reliance on culturally sanctioned masculine patterns, leading overcommitted men to feeling a significant loss of self-esteem from losing in a competitive game, for example, whereas those less committed to masculinity may be able to take pride in playing

sufficiently well (Copenhaver, 1996). Men have reported experiencing gender role stress in situations that reflect physical inadequacy, subordination to women, intellectual inferiority and failure in meeting masculine standards at work and experiencing sexual inadequacy (Efthim, 2001). In this way men may feel gender role stress if they feel they have acted in an unmanly way (Copenhaver, 1996). In American society, "unmanly" has many definitions and there are no ways to definitively prove one's manliness without a formal mechanism (Vandello, 2012).

Masculinity in Science. A prevalent construction of masculinity was evident in the conception of science as a masculine endeavor, described and challenged by Abraham Maslow, in his book, *The Psychology of Science* (1966) (as cited by Nicholson, 2001), although Maslow himself struggled with his own sense of masculinity (Nicholson, 2001). Maslow stated that in the societal construction of his day, and we may potentially extend this to contemporary conceptions, the "scientist, like the boy enjoys striking fear into the hearts of…the…girls. He taboos his tenderness, his loving impulses, his compassion, his sympathy…He wants to join the company of men…tough, fearless, impervious to discomfort and pain, independent of emotional ties, quick to anger and frightening in their anger…earth shakers, doers, builders, masters of the real world…all this he tries to be" (Maslow, 1966, as cited by Nicholson, 2001). Maslow argued that this conception of masculinity was immature and pathological but his writings indicate that even for someone who was explicitly in favor of humanistic psychology, he seemed to hold on to the values of "masculine science," as he continued to value a kind of masculine ideal as he reflected on his own career (Nicholson, 2001). He wrote that he felt he needed to stop identifying with the underdogs, the weak, the exploited, the female, and felt like he had to become a little more of a "bastard and let weak take care of themselves… must put breast back inside blouse" (Nicholson, 2001, citing Maslow 1979, p.33).

In his journal, Maslow described the completion of an academic work as being analogous to “killing a deer and dumping it down before the wife (or mother) in a lordly way so that she can adore and admire, be awed and a little humbled, and a little frightened” (Maslow, 1979 p. 68, as cited by Nicholson, 2001). Maslow played down his views on the sex-specific character of self-actualization in his published writing, as he did not discuss the differences when he first introduced the hierarchy of needs and mentioned it only briefly in other writings (Nicholson, 2001). Yet he had accumulated “huge mountains of writing on the subject” (Maslow, 1956, as cited by Nicholson 2001). Maslow’s self-censorship at the sex specific characteristics that may have infused his hierarchy of needs, put question to the cherished ideal of scholarship as a self-actualization pursued by the “brave and virile.” His public caution was transformed into private anger. In one journal passage, Maslow complained bitterly about deviations from masculine and feminine “nature,” describing American women as “dominant, castrating, discontent, lousy wives who secretly keep on yearning for stronger men” (Maslow, 1979, p.77, as cited by Nicholson, 2001).

Maslow’s struggle to come to terms with his masculinity should stand as a testament not to his personal weakness, but rather to the power of gender assumptions in psychology and in American life as a whole, as he was caught in the gravitational pull of a very powerful set of social principles that have structured the status and gender of professional life since the 19th century, whereby high status professions have been associated with the greatest degree of abstraction, detachment and purity (Brumberg, 1982; Furumoto, 1987). On the other hand, lower status professions, those held by women, have been associated with occupations involving compassion, understanding and connectedness (Nicholson, 2001). Theoretically, it is these constructions that may lead to males abjuring the helping professions, which require compassion and connectedness,

such as clinical psychology, and at minimum Maslow's internal conflict concerning masculinity illustrates the power of these social constructions which are pervasive in the culture as a whole, as well as in psychology.

The Cost of Masculine Gender Socialization and its Precariousness. Gender socialization and resulting strain interfere with the opportunity for boys and men to have important developmental milestones such as mirroring and merging experiences (Blazina, 2004). The "fragile masculine self" encompasses defenses which may result from empathic failings of caregivers and manifests in two masculine styles (Blazina, 2004). One style involves a disavowing of or disowning of the importance of relational needs, responding to the disidentification from the mother by compartmentalizing or cutting off, which can appear as the adoption of stereotypical traditional masculine roles. The other style is an approach to relationships involving an overdependence, seeking others to modulate the emotional difficulties surrounding the disidentification process. Overdependence can take the form of a single relationship with another or an overdependence on substances and sexual liaisons (Blazina, 2004).

The fragile masculine self in any form may lead to a weakened intrapsychic state which requires the self to project disowned feminine aspects onto women and effeminate men, and makes use of splitting as a defense in general (Blazina, 2001). This defense weakens the ego due to the intrapsychic drain of energy needed to keep the masculine and feminine object representations and experiences apart (Kernberg 1976). This fatigue can increase vulnerability to the need to bolster the self and a diminution in the ability to regulate emotions such as irritability and anger (Blazina 2001).

Persistence of Masculinity Despite Social Progress. Some argue that the idea that manhood is precarious represents an overly stereotypical and caricatured view of manhood, one that many men do not endorse. Some qualitative studies of adolescent boys

suggest that even as they are acutely aware of cultural definitions of masculinity and the degree to which they measure up, they simultaneously question and deconstruct traditional (hegemonic) masculinity ideologies (Bamberg, 2004). While there may be changing explicit attitudes concerning manhood, these attitudes are implicit and difficult to evade (Vandello, 2012). The evidence that manhood is seen as similarly elusive and tenuous across a variety of cultures, speaks to a general consensus that transcends cultural boundaries, even in cultures that are explicitly attempting to change these gender divides. (Vandello, 2012). Further, even if some men do not explicitly endorse the notion that manhood must be earned and can be taken away, this notion can have a powerful effect on behaviors to the extent that boys and men conform to prescriptive norms (Vandello, 2012).

Vandello points to studies indicating that men erroneously believe that their peers endorse aggression more than they themselves do and they believe that there will be penalties for not behaving with sufficient levels of expected aggression (2008; 2009). Further, when men and women were presented with hypothetical scenarios in which a man faced a manhood-threatening provocation, men incorrectly estimated that women would prefer an aggressive to a non-aggressive response, while women themselves claimed to be more attracted to non-aggressive men (Vandello, 2009). It is, therefore, hypothesized that men who are preoccupied with maintenance of their masculinity, in the form of endorsing gender role stress, may also endorse aggressive feelings and attitudes.

Men appear especially concerned about their manhood status in the eyes of other men (Bosson, 2006; Kimmel 1997). Mutual misperceptions about norms can lead to cultural perpetuation of those norms even when individuals' private beliefs do not align with their public behaviors (Miller, 1994; Vandello, 2004). Data collected from hundreds of men indicate that although not all men may enthusiastically endorse the idea that their

manhood status is precarious, they nonetheless act as if it is (Vandello, 2012). Given that societal gender roles are shifting, traditional notions of manhood are giving way to new, more nuanced definitions of what it means to be a man. Men and women work side-by-side in similar occupations, and, in the home, men are expected to do domestic labor and childrearing, which were previously relegated to women (Vandello, 2012). These changes may lead to a gradual rejection of the belief that manhood is precarious. On the other hand, change may also compound men's anxieties about how to prove their manhood, resulting in reaffirmation of traditional male role norms as men struggle to find new ways to assert an uncertain manhood status (Vandello, 2012). As we saw earlier, the conflict concerning masculinity was fully entrenched into Maslow's narrative even as he was paving the way for new ways of thinking about gender roles. These conflicts and changing norms provide even deeper understanding as to the necessity of further research into fragile masculinity.

In conclusion, masculinity is defined and enforced variously by many cultures, but cross similarity appears to be its precariousness, and the need for men to prove they are adequately performing their roles. The western definition of masculinity may be more amorphous than that of other cultures, potentially leading to greater anxiety about the ability to live up to its standard. This may lead to a rigidity in adhering to traditional norms, which threatens the capacity to fully develop and articulate the masculine and feminine parts inherent in each individual. Fragile masculinity is a term used to define the state of feeling inadequately masculine, and insufficiently differentiated from the feminine. A sense of fragility in one's own masculinity, or a feeling of strain related to the discrepancy between the ideal masculine and the individual's reality, may lead the man to engage in activities that allay gender-role-based anxieties, such as aggressive

behavior, sexual aggressiveness, purchase of sex, intimate violence, devaluation of women, and adopting of conservative and aggressive policies and politics.

While there is evidence of societal and cultural masculinity mandates, individuals differ in how much these are incorporated into a sense of self and further how much the individual focuses on falling short of the masculine ideal. It is this intersection between cultural mandates and the elements of an individual's psychological makeup that this study is aiming to explore. This includes masculinity expectations and their intersection with idiosyncratic clinical constructs such as aggression, narcissism and shame. Increased aggression is a strong correlate in those who feel fragile masculinity.

Aggression

Theoretical Approaches to Aggression. Men are disproportionately overrepresented among both perpetrators and victims of violent crime, which scholars have argued is clearly linked to socialization into stereotypical norms of hegemonic masculinity (Hong, 2000). The psychoanalytic drive theory of aggression posits that it is an instinctual aspect of all humans from the date of birth. The aggressive instinct develops concomitant with love instinct. Freud posited Eros, the instinct to procreate and preserve life, and Thanatos, the instinct to destroy and bring the self to inorganic peace as fundamental realities of human existence (Freud, 1923/1960). Both instincts may make use of aggression in a "fused, blended and alloyed" manner (Freud 1923/1960). Kernberg's theory of personality revolves around the motivational force of libidinal and aggressive drives (Kernberg, 1992). Theoretically, excessive aggression may stem from a constitutionally determined intensity of aggressive drives or severe early frustration (Kernberg, 1967). However, aggression could be adaptive and appropriate in certain circumstances and pathological in others, with the respective goals of asserting autonomy

and destroying the source of pain (Kernberg, 1996). The integration or synthesis of opposite qualities has been argued to be the most important source of neutralization of aggression (Kernberg, 1967). Kernberg argues that it is the lack of interpenetration of libidinal and aggressive drive derivatives that may lead to chronic tendency to eruption of primitive affect states. When objects are conceived of as neither totally bad nor totally good, a combination of love and aggression toward integrated total object can be acknowledged (Kernberg, 1967). In the case of the masculine and feminine introjects it is potentially the incapacity of the individual to embrace both aspects of the self that makes aggression more available.

Aggression from the perspective of self-psychology posits that it originates from a narcissistic injury and a need for revenge for righting a wrong (Kohut, 1972). The narcissistic injury in this view originates from a painful disappointment in the omnipotence of the self and disrupts the idealized view of the child's parents (Kernberg, 1992). This two-pronged assault on the development of the self leads to a weak ego which is vulnerable to shame and humiliation (Ornstein, 1998). Aggression is used in this instance to protect the fragile self from annihilation (Gabel, 1993). In the case of fragile masculinity, the self is fused with a belief in the masculine omnipotence which when threatened requires an assertion of aggression to preserve the self.

Research on Aggression and Masculinity. The risks inherent in masculinity being considered desirable include issues related to physical health. Some research indicates that greater cardiovascular reactivity to stressors seen in men may be related as much to men's cognitive appraisal of stressors as to biological differences (Copenhaver, 1996). One study showed a linear relationship between masculine gender role stress and systolic blood pressure reactivity in response to masculine threat and pain (Skidmore et al., 1988). Eating a stereotypical masculine steak may carry greater physical health risks,

but may itself be an avoidance of social risks to manhood status by choosing a salad instead (Vandello, 2012). Further, the masculine ideal of not giving into pain may lead to men not seeking treatment or self-medicating with large quantities of alcohol which is itself considered a masculine virtue (Copenhaver, 1996). In this way, masculine ideals beget masculine ideals in a cyclical pattern.

Gender threat predicted increases in self-perceived gender role discrepancy and elicited increased aggression, and those men experiencing masculine threat reported greater pain tolerance (Berke, 2016). Intimate partner violence acceptance attitudes were found to be related to gender role stress (McDermott, 2013). For example, in the *haredi* community, which does not prize machismo, the difficulty in realizing the male ideal has been linked to increases in intimate violence (Goldberg, 2009). In that community masculine roles give the man the right, and even the duty, to control the wife, and threats to masculinity pressures the fragile masculine man to perform intimate violence as a method of regaining control (Goldberg, 2009).

Further, there is evidence that males holding beliefs that social changes threaten the status of men more frequently endorse pro-dominance social attitudes (Willer, 2013). Male concerns about failing to meet masculine standards leads them to embrace policies and politicians that signal strength and toughness (DiMuccio, 2020). One study found greater support for the death penalty and other aggressive policies, while other studies have shown a connection between masculine anxieties and support for Donald Trump in the 2016 general election (DiMuccio, 2020).

Fragile Masculinity and Aggression Towards Women. Scaptura (2019) developed a measure of "incel" traits, including beliefs in the dominance of men over women and found that those scoring high in these traits as well as higher stress in one's inability to live up to masculinity norms were more likely to endorse violent fantasies

about rape and using powerful weapons against enemies. Masculine discrepancy stress significantly predicted men's historical perpetration of intimate partner violence (IPV) independent of other masculinity related variables (Reidy, 2014). Another study indicated that adherence to an anti-femininity norm and experience of stress when in a subordinate position to women were indirectly related to sexual aggression perpetration (Smith, 2015). Men who adhere strongly to hegemonic masculine norms may feel compelled to be sexually aggressive toward intimate partners in order to maintain their need for dominance in their intimate relations (Smith, 2015). Zurbriggen (2010) linked traditional or hegemonic masculinity to rape and war, arguing that society's need to raise effective soldiers is the root cause of traditional masculine socialization, which includes instilling the desirability of status and achievement, toughness, aggression, restricted emotionality, power, dominance and control, and they further argue that this socialization ensures that rape will be prevalent in war. Others have shown that men who are not only socialized in traditional masculinity, but also those who experience fragile masculinity (i.e., feel emasculated by women), are most likely to support rape myths and commit sexual assault (Joseph, 2012). Others have found that "less masculine" men are more likely to be violent to some extent in an effort to act in a more stereotypical manly way (Busch, 2002). Transactional exchanges of sex for money, while creating narratives of mutual exchange, is another way for men to assert aggression and gain dominance via their masculinity, sexual skill and sexual desirability to women, thereby reinforcing their hypermasculinity (Shumka, 2017).

Experimental studies have revealed that those who had their masculinity threatened engaged in more harassment of female targets than those not so threatened (Maass, 2003). Threats to men's gender status in research requiring men to perform stereotypically feminine hair braiding tasks, with a control condition of requiring men to

braid ropes, precipitated their choice of hitting a punching bag vs solving a puzzle (Bosson 2009, as cited in Bosson 2011). Further, a follow-up study found that men used greater force in their punch after being asked to engage in the hair braiding task versus being asked to engage in the rope braiding task, indicating traditional feminine tasks and activities elicit the need for reassertion of masculinity (Bosson 2009). The quantitative research cited indicate a connection between gender role stress and aggression, which this study will attempt to replicate.

In his manifesto, Elliot Rodger, the 22-year-old mass shooter in the 2014 Isla Vista killings, described his masculinity as liminal and weak as a result of his lack of heterosexual success (Myketiak, 2016). Rodger was unable to cope with seeing another man whom he believed to be racially inferior consorting with a woman he found desirable (Myketiak, 2016). He wrote extensively about his violent fantasies against women and other men, as a result of his diminution and incapacity to perform masculinity as he understood societal requirements. His fantasies ultimately culminated in the killing of six people, injuring fourteen others, and subsequently dying by suicide (Myketiak, 2016).

Fragile Masculinity and Shame Compounds Aggression. Gebhard (2018) found responses to threatened masculinity were significantly related to physically aggressive tendencies, but that threatened-masculinity shame-related responses were even stronger predictors of aggression. Avoidance of exposure as not sufficiently masculine may relate to men's understanding of the attendant social consequences, rather than the individual's man's perception of himself as flawed (Gebhard, 2018), but shame in the form of feeling the self as flawed may be enough to cause the self to abjure any suggestions of insufficient masculinity, by making use of aggression. Men were more likely to report physically aggressive behavior if they also reported a tendency to respond

to threatened masculinity by feeling ashamed or responding to shame with escape, hiding and externalizing blame (Gebhard, 2018). They hypothesized that men's aggressive response to threatened masculinity is explained by their tendency to externalize blame (Gebhard, 2018).

Those who are socialized into the gender role of men in a patriarchy must assume the male prerogative, duty and obligation to engage in aggressive behavior, whether in the football field or the field of combat (Gilligan, 2003). Male expectation of respect in patriarchal systems imply privilege and status (Walters 1995a), which when threatened can feel like a shameful demotion. Some argue that it is the aggressive and violent acts that are aimed at diminishing feelings of shame, that lead most violent crimes to be committed by men (Gilligan, 2003). It may be more threatening for a male to feel incompetent or soft than it is to express aggression, and shame may create a pathway to antisocial features, which may be a reactionary rejection to the shameful need for tenderness. This study will attempt to locate shame in the connection between fragile masculinity, aggression and avoidance.

In summary, the association between male gender and violent crime has been persuasively linked to socialization into hegemonic masculinity. Aggression is routinely used to counteract feelings of weakness or inadequacy of masculinity. Feminine qualities such as increased communication and the capacity to feel affect more readily are repressed in favor of learned invulnerability, which leads to greater anger reactivity, an emotion that is accepted as sufficiently masculine. Aggression in fragile masculine men is expressed variously, including in adoption of politics and policy, in stereotypically based prejudice, in interpersonal relationships, as well as in intimate partner violence, including sexual aggression. The need to maintain an aggressive stance may lead some men to eat more red meat and increase their use of alcohol, thereby impacting their

general state of health. Those who feel threat to their masculinity exhibit greater aggression and we have evidence that many of the mass shooters in the last few decades were men who felt demeaned by women. Further there is evidence that shame related experiences in connection with threatened masculinity compounds aggression.

Shame

Theoretically, shame occurs when a person appraises the self as having violated group norms or having failed to live up the standards of the social group (Kaufman, 1989). When a child is able to depend upon a care taker's benign use of power, the child is able to develop a positive sense of self, because the parent is able to show some regard for the child's individuality and dignity, thereby conveying to the child it is valued and respected (Herman, 1992). A child's development of a sense of self and self-esteem is also able to develop a sense of autonomy and separateness within a relationship, learning to control and regulate her own bodily functions and form her own opinions (Herman, 1992). Traumatic events, or childhood maltreatment, on the other hand, violate the autonomy at a basic level of bodily integrity (Herman, 1992). The child's opinion or perspective counts for little in an environment of maltreatment. The traumatic event destroys the belief that one can be oneself in relation to others, exposing the child to shame and doubt (Herman, 1992).

Erickson's second stage consists of the conflict between autonomy versus shame and doubt. He described shame as requiring a capacity to be self-conscious and aware of one's exposure (Erikson, 1963). A child becomes aware of being visible but is not prepared to be visible as a separate entity, which is expressed as an impulse to bury one's face or sink into the ground. Erikson posited that shame is rage turned against the self, as it reveals a desire to force others not to look and not to notice him (Erikson, 1963). As

this is impossible, the child seeks to make himself invisible. Childhood shaming, as seen in emotionally abusive households, exploits the child's increasing awareness of the self as being small, relative to others (Erikson, 1963). Erikson argued that too much shaming leads the child to develop a secret determination to try to get away with things, unseen, if not outright defiant shamelessness (Erikson, 1963). There is a limit to a child's or an adult's endurance in the face of demands to consider himself, his body and his wishes as evil and dirty and in the belief in the reliability of authority figures who pass judgment (Erikson, 1963). Too much shaming may lead the child to consider the fact of the existence of their batterers and humiliators as an evil, potentially leading the child to seek to rid themselves of these relationships (Erikson, 1963).

Self-conscious emotions such as shame appears to occur later in development than primary emotions, requiring cognitive capacities that emerge between age 18 and 24 months of infancy (Lewis, 1992, citing 1979). Lewis argued that two distinct cognitive capacities are necessary for self-conscious and evaluative emotions. The first being the capacity to objectify the self, and the second is the ability to develop and maintain standards of behavior. Both of these capacities enable the child to reflect upon itself and its behavior (Lewis, 1992). Shame may interfere with a child's development of constructive social interactions, impeding development of interpersonal skills (Lewis, 1992).

Those who experience a proneness to shame perceive the whole self as defective (Bennett, 2010, citing Lewis, 2000), comprising defectiveness of their bodies, personal characteristics, behaviors, and self-objectification (Andrews, 2002). Shame's intensity may be more than the individual can bear, resulting in attempts to modulate or escape the affective experience: hiding or shrinking from view, going blank, exhibiting

submissiveness or angry defensiveness and even violence have been described as examples of such attempts (Kim, 2009; Lewis, 1992). Research indicates that shame may lead to anger, based on a theorized "shame-rage spiral" in which a shame-prone person switches back and forth between shame and rage (Scheff, 1987). Shame-prone people exhibit more anger than those not shame-prone (Tangney, 1996). Shame has been linked to hostility, anger-arousal, suspiciousness, resentment, irritability, and tendency to blame others (Tangney, 1992). Kim (2009) demonstrated that shame was the strongest predictor of family conflict and intimate partner physical aggression, even when including childhood sexual abuse in the model. The marked lack of active negotiation or interpersonal problem-solving skills inherent in strategies such as withdrawal or conversely overreacting may explain the persistence of conflict (Kim, 2009).

Shame and Fragile Masculinity. The intersection between fragile masculinity, shame, and aggression is borne out by research on the impact of shame on any individual. When a person feels shame, the more intense and overwhelming the affect, the more that it threatens the cohesion and viability of the self. Negative psychological consequences for failure to attain internalized gender-related ideals may result in direct threat to one's self-concept (Bem, 1987). Failure has been theorized to lead to shame (Morrison, 1989). Gender role stress dimensions, including stress regarding intellectual inferiority, expressing tender emotions, physical inadequacy and performance in work and sexual activity were found to be associated with shame-proneness (Efthim, 2001).

There is evidence that low self-concept may be an inherent aspect of fragile masculinity. Boys who reported higher gender role conflict scores tended to have lower self-esteem and more traditional attitudes about women than boys who reported lower gender conflict scores (Addelston, 1995). Other studies have found a relationship

between gender role conflict and anxiety as well as poor academic self-concept (Watts, 2005). In response to both general and specific feelings of shame, men reported similar "impulse to escape" and "externalizing blame" tendencies to women (Gebhard, 2018). However, when their masculinity is threatened, men reported higher desires to escape the shame-inducing scenario and/or externalize blame (Gebhard, 2018). That study also showed that men's desire to "prevent exposure" as non-masculine was also greater, although distinct from their escape impulses (Gebhard, 2018). The experience of shame itself could result in a feeling of having violated masculine norms that relate to prohibitions regarding feeling exposed, vulnerable, and out of control (Krugman, 1995). It is, therefore, possible that men who are committed to traditional male schemas experience more conflict around shame and turn to defensive maneuvers such as externalization to manage the painful affect (Efthim, 2001). Research has indicated that masculine gender role conflict is related to externalizing psychological defenses, as externalization may provide a solution to the problem of shame by ridding the self of unbearable shame affect, and projecting it onto an external other (Mahalik, 1998). The connection between fragile masculinity and shame, and aggression and shame, was investigated in this study.

In summary, shame refers to a belief in the inadequacy of the self due to violating group norms or failing to live up to standards. Development of a positive sense of self in early childhood allows the child and future adult to maintain a sense of core value. Conversely, traumatic events expose the child to doubt about the self resulting in a feeling of being unvalued or incapacity to be valued. Failure to succeed at masculine expectations and standards opens an individual up to feelings of self-doubt especially among those who are shame-prone. Shame-proneness has been linked to hostility, anger-arousal, rage, and tendency to blame others, and a dearth of interpersonal skills. The

connection between fragile masculinity and poor self-concept has been borne out by many studies and the experience of shame could itself be considered a violation of masculine norms. In the presence of shame inducing cognitions, in a culture that has rigid definitions of a valued masculine self, and when shame is itself a shameful emotion, the self may resort to narcissistic defenses.

Narcissism

Narcissistic processes are a universal component of personality development as a certain degree of self-focus and self-regard is essential to the development of a coherent personality structure (Freud, 1914/1957). Individuals with unusually low indications of egocentricity may be at greater risk for psychological disorders than those with unusually high egocentricity indicators, as the former lack sufficient self-focus and self-investment (Exner, 1969). On the other hand, clinical theory and research suggest that pathological and vulnerable narcissists are especially prone to experiences of shame (Tangney, 1992). It stands to reason then that the association between threatened masculinity and shame may also be connected to narcissistic features in personalities with a sense of fragile masculinity. Haughty grandiosity, shyness and feelings of inferiority are all shame derivatives or variants (Broucek, 1982). Narcissism and anti-social aggression may allow for an illusion of self and an outlet for rage.

Theories of Narcissism. Clinical theorists such as Kohut and Kernberg have conceptualized narcissism as developmentally expected and normal, and that, even as adults, humans require narcissistic supply to support and maintain self-cohesion and self-esteem (Cain, 2008). Some describe narcissistic grandiosity and narcissistic vulnerability as two different expressions of narcissistic pathology (Cain, 2008). The DSM focuses on narcissistic grandiosity in the criteria for narcissistic pathology but lacks representation of

narcissistic vulnerability (Cain, 2008). This study focuses on both expressions of narcissism.

Problems in early self-development occur when infants and children receive non-empathic responses to normal narcissistic needs (Kohut, 1977). Grandiose narcissism according to Kohut's theory involves repression of unacceptable selfobject needs, needs from internalized representations of others that are ego dystonic, thereby allowing for overt displays of grandiosity while chronically denying low self-esteem or shame (Cain, 2008). Vulnerable narcissism employs disavowal of needs, alternating conscious experience of vulnerability and helplessness with omnipotence (Cain, 2008). They are externally, preoccupied with, dependent on, and feel entitled to obtaining validation and affirmation from others (Morf, 2006).

Kernberg, on the other hand, conceptualizes pathological narcissism as embedded within the structure of personality impacted by drives and affects. Individuals with a borderline level of personality organization use splitting as a defense where self and others are identified as "all bad" or "all good" or shifting from one another alternately (Kernberg, 1996). Omnipotence and devaluation are methods of inflating the good objects and diminishing the bad objects (Kernberg, 1986).

According to Kernberg (1975), pathological narcissism is the outcome of primitive defensive operations which fuses ideal-self, ideal-object and actual self-image, serving as a defense against augmented oral aggression, resulting in a belief of not needing others. Due to intolerable frustrations, the infant is overloaded with aggression and must create a grandiose self to ward off hope, concluding that it is better to expect nothing and to spoil and devalue everything that is available. Instead of hope and the capacity to see the self and others as containing both good and bad parts, the narcissist creates a complete, perfect and self-sustaining grandiose self (Kernberg, 1975). This

position shields the self in a world experienced as treacherous and sinister (Mitchell, 1986). Narcissistic grandiosity is thus a defense against an underlying "empty self," a self that is unable to introject objects, retain representations of others in the self-concept, but instead uses grandiosity as a mask (Cushman, 1990). The unvalued self, the shamed self, must be shielded from uncomfortable affect, by seeing the self as paramount and others as utilitarian.

Research on Narcissism. Tangney (1992) found that, in a study of undergraduates, there were significant positive association between shame proneness and the maladaptive narcissistic features measured by factors in the NPI (an often-used measure of narcissism) such as exploitativeness and entitlement. Others have found that covert narcissism, which expresses itself as self-involved vulnerability, is related to relational aggression but only indirectly through internalized shame and anger rumination (Ghim, 2015). Thomaes (2008) investigated how self-views influence shame induced aggression in adolescents, and those who scored high on narcissism measures were more aggressive than others, but only after they have been shamed.

Tangney (1996) found that the shame-prone person has difficulty experiencing empathy for other people, so their anger is unlikely to be tempered by an empathic understanding of the other person's perspectives. Once angered, the shame-prone person is motivated by a defensive, retaliative, reaction to shame, which can take the form of malevolent, and fractious intentions to engage in aggression (Tangney, 1996). Our culture's negative view of shame as something to be eliminated, encourages counter-shame strategies such as the "narcissistic solution" (Tangney, 1992). Studies of men who recidivate domestic violence against women appear to exhibit higher narcissism, including low empathic capacity, deficits in the ability to appreciate the experiences of others, self-centeredness and demanding presentations (Welch, 1997). That study

indicated that men who inflict violence against women, though often outwardly charming, exhibited particularly vindictive violence and rejection in the face of a wound to their sense of entitlement (Hamberger, 1990). In addition to entitlement that appears to coincide with the shame of feeling emasculated, aggressive individuals who have expressed fragile masculinity appeared to have no empathy for their victims, which is concordant with research (Tangney, 1996). Lack of empathy and entitlement are key criteria in the DSM-5 diagnosis of narcissistic personality disorder (Cain, 2008).

Subjects who have endorsed narcissistic traits were also found to be highly reactive to negative achievement events, reporting lower levels of state self-esteem on days when they experienced those events with greater frequency than non-narcissistic individuals (Zeigler, 2010). Narcissists view social relationships as a means for exerting social influence and gaining the respect and admiration they desire, rather than as a way to find intimacy and acceptance (Morf, 2001). Routine and even minor failure, may be taken as evidence that their grandiose self-view is inaccurate (Zeigler, 2010). The agency model of narcissism (Campbell, 2002), predicts that achievement events may hold greater meaning for narcissists in cultivating an image of success (Zeigler, 2010).

Masculinity and Narcissism. As noted earlier, agentic projection is an essential aspect of masculinity (Gebhard, 2018). Masculine gender role stress also appears to impact the sense of masculinity felt after a heterosexual encounter in which a woman orgasms, with men who experience fragile masculinity reporting greater feelings of masculinity after such an encounter (Chadwick, 2017). A woman's orgasm is considered a masculine achievement, a credit to the self rather than an appreciation of the other's pleasure. Conversely research shows strong positive association between a higher reported degree of traditional masculinity ideology, especially those who endorsed avoidance of femininity, and the perpetration of sexual assault (Levant, 2020). The most

recurrent entitlement view expressed by rapists and sexual murderers in a sample interviewed by Pemberton (2009), was “only I matter”, “it’s my birthright” and “I have the power”, which the authors connected to the interviewees’’beliefs concerning hypermasculinity, or male superiority. Masculinity and narcissism appear to have similarities in senses of entitlement to warrant studying how fragile masculinity may be related to narcissistic injury or a faulty sense of self.

Narcissism is a variable that is not well explored, understood, or empirically researched in the literature on fragile masculinity. The literature cited above provides some qualitative connection between narcissism, specifically entitlement, masculinity and aggression. The current study aims to provide quantitative data demonstrating the connection. It hypothesizes that narcissism mediates the relationship between gender role discrepancy stress, i.e., fragile masculinity, and aggression as well as avoidance (see below). Shame proneness was measured as well to show a connection between fragile masculinity, narcissism and shame. The place of current state shame in this study is to explain the extremes to which some with a sense of fragile masculinity would go to shield their sense of self. It was hypothesized that those who are already shame prone would exhibit greater narcissism, and in particular, entitlement.

Aggrieved Entitlement. “Aggrieved entitlement” has been posited by sociologist Michael Kimmel as the essential element of fragile masculinity (Kimmel, 2017). He argues that it is the feeling of having been demoted that has angered many men in contemporary culture in the United States (Kimmel, 2017). The decrease in availability of industrial, manufacturing work opportunities means that those males who depend on traditional masculine employment have much actual loss that they have encountered (Garcia, 2016). This demotion is a type of humiliation and humiliation is emasculation,

and for many men emasculation must be avenged (Hoffman 2020). Many men experience humiliation as castrating and emasculating, which needs to be disproven for fear of ceasing to be considered a man (Kalish, 2010). Aggrieved entitlement intersects with the notion of a moral obligation to take back what has been taken, and there is much evidence that entitlement has been a central motivation for mass shootings by young men (Hoffman, 2020).

This is demonstrated by examination of the manifestos of mass shooters. These individuals turned to violence as a retaliation for narcissistic wounds, feelings of shame, inadequacy, and vulnerability for which violence felt restorative and compensatory (Kalish, 2010, citing Gilligan, 1998). Further, these manifestos express intense shame at being perceived as failing to be sufficiently masculine (Kalish, 2010). Boys who have turned to such mass violence reported feeling marginalized and that they had no other recourse, unable to seek help due to the belief that authorities would be unresponsive to their plight (Kalish, 2010). They appeared to subscribe to a normative and conventional construction of masculinity that legitimates violence as a response to perceived humiliation (Kalish, 2010). While many shooters appear to suffer from pathology, the intersection between their behaviors including murder with that of gender implies a strong correlation between feelings of failing to meet masculine expectations with these pathologies (Myketiak, 2016). This perception of failure and performance of masculinity also appear to rely on a sense of entitlement, a sense of using violence to make others hurt as they reported feeling hurt.

Aggrieved entitlement and resulting resentments inspire vengeance as a compensation for humiliation (Kalish, 2010). Vengeance in the incel community applies to actions against objects of sexual desires as well as toward men who are perceived to be

engaging in sexual activities to which the individual "incel" feels entitled but are "being denied" (Kimmel, 2017). Some argue that the rise in aggrieved entitlement in relation to masculinity parallels feelings of aggrieved entitlement on the part of the white middle class which has experienced a receding of the "American dream," finding themselves marginalized due to economic changes (Martinez, 2018). Economic changes include replacement of manual labor with mechanized systems which led working class men's claim to power and authority in the home and elsewhere to become increasingly insecure (Carrigan 1985). Men who have been left with few marketable skills often lose the institutional benefits of patriarchy and therefore the performance of masculinity becomes essential. One response to the shifting economic realities is for men to perform "protest masculinities" which include a pattern of masculinity related to sexuality and violence, acting tough, inviting aggression, asserting heterosexuality through sexual bragging and conquest as well as belittling women (Shumka, 2017)

Although most mass shooters of recent years have turned the gun against themselves or were eventually killed by police, in their posthumously discovered writings they appeared convinced that it would not be defeat if they were to perish, but rather an affirmation of their masculinity as they had wielded a weapon of mass destruction (Kalish, 2010). Kalish and Kimmel (2010) demonstrate in their review of the mass shooters, Klebold, Harris, Kazmierczak and Cho Seung-Hui, that they all seemed to have experienced aggrieved entitlement, "a gendered sense that they were entitled, indeed even expected to exact their revenge on all who had hurt them." The entitlement that 'ought to come 'with the high status of being male, is a masculine attempt to avoid shame at being inadequate, and the avoidance of shame is an essential aspect of narcissism. The writings of mass shooters tend to show that they need to believe their rampages were legitimate (Kalish, 2010).

Precarious Grandiosity. When confronted with ego-threatening information, narcissists were found to be hypervigilant to a sense of worthlessness, which they automatically repress and avoid to protect their sense of grandiosity (Horvath, 2009). This automatic repression supports the idea that narcissists may never genuinely experience worthlessness explicitly (Horvath, 2009). Other studies have shown that repressive strategies may be weak and narcissists may have to lean on other strategies such as hostility and aggression, especially as ego-threats increase (Horvath, 2009). Masculinity brings with it a privileged status to men in patriarchal societies, and, as such, the expectation of privilege, arrogance, power and self-esteem is wrapped up within it (Gilligan, 2003). For some males it is a source of pride and honor to be the one who dispenses violence to others (Gilligan, 2003), especially when a man feels stripped of otherwise entitled power brought upon by seismic changes in and the precariousness of socially constructed identities like gender and sexuality.

In sports, narcissism symbolizes the celebration of male physicality (Welch, 1997), but such narcissism is particularly fragile, easily threatened by femininity, and must be ritually reinforced (Welch, 1997, citing Kane, 1993 p.347). Rituals such as a football player's dramatic dance in the end zone following a touchdown, represents both physical domination of his opponents, including running backs and receivers, traditionally considered less masculine positions as they do not engage in delivering physical blows to other players, as well as celebration of male physical superiority (Welch, 1997). The study found that running backs and receivers are overrepresented in incidents of violence against women, and hypothesized that the men who play these positions need an outlet for the reestablishment of male dominance, as they are objects of physical violence on the field, their main task to avoid and run away from attackers,

rather than stand up to threat as is required by masculine norms (Welch, 1997). Shame in relation to fragile masculinity necessitates violence in order to maintain one's sense of masculine sexual identity and adequacy, and for fear that a non-aggressive or non-violent reaction would be seen as impotent and cowardly, or fear of being labeled as a "man who has 'no balls'" (Gilligan, 2003).

In summary, while narcissism is fundamental to humans in moderate forms, haughty grandiosity and vulnerable feelings of worthlessness both entail ultimate feelings of entitlement. Various theories describe narcissism as a defense and a mask against a faulty self. Shame proneness is an element of a sense of faulty self and research has indicated its association with narcissistic features such as exploitativeness and entitlement. Other research has shown that the shame-prone person is liable to express more reactive anger and aggression. Narcissists require a continual proof of their worth to avoid a sense of shame, and feelings of agency and achievement are essential to the maintenance of their sense of self. They feel entitled to high valuation from others. Agency and achievement are also essential aspects of masculinity. Entitlement and aggrieved entitlement are theoretically essential to fragile masculinity and the urge to reassert the patriarchal prerogative. There is much anecdotal evidence that aggrieved entitlement were partly motivating recent mass shooters who identify with incel groups. Routine sports ritual celebrates male physicality, masculinity and the rejection of femininity. The construct of entitlement is present in both narcissism and fragile masculinity and their relationship is important to understanding both. Thus, this study will analyze narcissism, including entitlement, as an explanation for predicted increases in aggression and avoidance in those men who endorse fragile masculinity.

Avoidance

In addition to aggression, shame and narcissism, there is some evidence that traditional masculinity is related to men's struggles with intimacy and interpersonal relationships (Land, 2011). Avoidance of intimacy aims to avoid close emotional contact with others and to maintain independence from relationship partners (Land, 2011). O'Neil (2008) reviewed nine different studies finding a negative relationship between gender role conflict and intimacy, suggesting that men struggle with intimacy and self-disclosure with others because of gender role socialization. Researchers have demonstrated a connection between traditional masculinity and maladaptive interpersonal strategies such as difficulty seeking help (Addis, 2003). Further, there has been consistent findings suggesting that gender role conflict is related to negative interpersonal problems (O'Neil, 2008). Other research has demonstrated that those who subscribe to traditional masculine norms report difficulty engaging in healthy relationships (Land, 2011, citing Baxter, 1997).

Blazina argues that the disidentification from the mother inherent in the development of boys may play a part in creating gender role conflict and resulting fragile masculinity (2004). Negotiating this aspect of development and its attendant emotional wounds, within the context of hegemonic masculinity, may lead some to becoming overly concerned with maintaining an independent self, utilizing defenses to bolster masculine appearance, have unconscious anger at women, and devalue the need for connectedness (Blazina, citing Pollack 1995). The devaluation of connectedness may be a compartmentalization, a cutting off of the self in relation to others (Blazina, 2004). Intimacy, vulnerability, and other tender feelings can become threatening to the tightly

bound isolated emotional self and lead to avoidance (Blazina, 2004). Compartmentalization allows for the individual to avoid relationship or intimacy within relationships but does not negate the needs for such intimacy.

Some have theorized that there is a positive association between insecure childhood attachment, overidentification with traditional masculine attitudes and relational avoidance (Schwartz, 2004). Attachment insecurity is associated with tendencies to experience stress from violations of rigidly internalized traditional male role norms (McDermott, 2013). These norms interfere with interpersonal relationships due to their shame-inducing rigidities.

As discussed earlier, traditional masculine roles and fragile masculinity is positively associated with increase in shame. Avoidance has been shown to reflect non-conscious experiences of shame (Elison 2006). Men who are less aware of deep feelings of shame tend to manage them with disavowal, distraction and avoidance strategies, and they show a heightened fear of relationships (Elison, 2006). Dorahy (2017) argues that many of these individuals may be unaware of the reasons they are fearful of intimate relationships and do not attribute it to the disavowed shame they feel.

The use of distancing as a coping strategy for shame characterizes avoidance (Elison, 2006), which provides a link to narcissism as well. Horvath (2009) found that after an ego threat, narcissists are hypervigilant to situations that may instigate feelings of worthlessness, which is followed by subsequent avoidance of worthlessness. Narcissistic individuals use repression as a strategy to absorb worthlessness to protect their grandiose self (Horvath, 2009). Avoidant responses are likely to limit interpersonal contact (Sung, 2015). Smolewska (2005) found an association between covert narcissism and avoidance,

explaining that avoiding relationships conceals attachment related distress and protects a fragile self-concept. Another study found that both grandiose and vulnerable narcissists use affect regulation strategies, including avoidance, as a method of managing humiliation (Besser, 2010). The method in the current study seeks to determine whether fragility in masculinity and by extension fragility of the self would predict increased avoidance.

Those who align themselves with the incel movement and its ideologies claim to be "involuntarily celibate," but there are reasons to explore whether these are men who experience relational avoidance, perhaps as a defense against the shame of inadequacy concerning their masculinity. Individuals with high attachment avoidance engage in deactivating strategies which actively repress awareness of attachment feelings (Mallinkcrodt, 2005, citing Fraley, 1998). Results in Mallinkcrodt (2005) suggested a significant and negative association between avoidance and social self-efficacy. Individuals who are claiming to be involuntary celibate may be externalizing their defensive avoidant strategy in the face of their own fear of relationships and inadequacy of self as sufficiently masculine.

Conclusion. In summary, avoidance of intimacy may be related to traditional masculinity as well as fragile masculinity. Many studies indicate that gender role conflict has a negative relationship with intimacy, self-efficacy and interpersonal effectiveness. In theory, fragile masculinity has some relationship to interruption of normal development in the disidentification process that boys must undergo with their mothers. Femininity and all that relates to it may be threatening to one who must fully disidentify with any shameful aspects of the self that may be emotionally tender including romantic

relationships. Avoidance and distancing as a coping mechanism for shame is a narcissistic defense and thus potentially related to fragile masculinity.

Given the literature explored above, the proposed study sought to explore the relationships between fragile masculinity, aggression, narcissism, shame and avoidance. Masculine gender role stress and avoidance may be mediated by narcissism. The literature supports the relationships between fragile masculinity and aggression, and the proposed study seeks to add to the existing literature examining narcissism, shame and avoidance. This model rests on literature showing that fragile masculinity is related to aggression, that narcissism is related to aggression as well as avoidance. Further, the model incorporates feelings of shame as exacerbating narcissistic defenses including aggression and avoidance.

Chapter III

Statement of the Problem

This study aimed to examine the associations between gender role discrepancy in men, otherwise conceived of as fragile masculinity, shame, narcissism, aggression, and avoidance. As reviewed above, there is much empirical literature linking aggressive responses to feelings of fragile masculinity. For example, Cohn (2006) found that gender role stress moderated aggressive behavior; Hong (2000) and Eisler (1988) demonstrated aggression serves as a repudiation of masculine weakness; and O'Connor (2017) indicated increase in prejudicial slurs in those with precarious manhood beliefs.

There is also empirical literature supporting the connection between fragile masculinity and avoidance. For example, O'Neil (2008) reviewed studies which found higher gender role conflict was negatively correlated with intimacy; O'Neil (2008) also found consistent findings indicating that gender role conflict is related to interpersonal problems of various kinds; Addis (2003) found that those who subscribe more to traditional masculinity standards show maladaptive interpersonal strategies and reluctance to seek help; Baxter (1997) showed that those who subscribe to traditional masculinity norms express difficulty engaging in healthy relationships.

Further, there is evidence that shame is associated with fragile masculinity (e.g., Bem (1987) found failure to attain gender-related ideals threatens one's self-concept; Efthim (2001) demonstrated that gender role stress was associated with shame-proneness; Addelston (1995) found that those who report higher gender role conflict evidence lower self-esteem; Gebhard (2018) demonstrated that shame compounds gender role conflict and its sequelae).

Similarly, the link between shame, narcissism and aggression has been demonstrated, (e.g., Scheff,1987) found that shame-prone people switch back and forth between shame and rage; Tangney (1996) demonstrated that shame-prone people exhibit more anger than those not shame-prone; Tangney (1992) found shame to be associated with increased hostility, anger-arousal, irritability and tendency to blame others; and Kim (2009) demonstrated that shame was the strongest predictor of family conflict and IPV).

Associations between shame, narcissism and avoidance has also been found (e.g., Elison (2006) demonstrated relational distancing was a coping strategy for shame; Horvath (2009) found that narcissists avoid scenarios which might pose ego threat to avert feelings of worthlessness; Smolewska (2005) found an association between covert narcissism and avoidance as a strategy to protect a shamed or fragile self-concept; Besser (2010) demonstrated that both grandiose and vulnerable narcissists use avoidance to manage humiliation.)

While some of the above associations have been well established, there is scant literature demonstrating narcissism and specifically entitlement as a mediating factor that leads those who experience fragile masculinity to feel and perpetuate aggression and avoid relationships. “Aggrieved entitlement” as a variable has been posited theoretically by sociologists to explain aggressive defensive strategies among those with fragile masculinity (Kimmel, 2017). The theoretical backing for the role of entitlement in fragile masculinity, as well as other features of narcissism, have not been, to date, studied in the psychological literature and would provide a more comprehensive picture of the phenomenon of fragile masculinity. The question of whether narcissism mediates aggression and relational avoidance for those with fragile masculinity is essential to understanding pathological behaviors associated with it.

The hypothesized models argue that fragile masculinity is a risk factor for aggression and relational avoidance, but that narcissism explains the relationship and that shame-proneness and shame provide an understanding of who and what category of shame experiences may be implicated in the relationship between narcissism and aggression (See Figure 1). This study aimed to replicate established links between fragile masculinity and aggression and demonstrated the impact of narcissism. Further, a shame induction was administered to demonstrate empirically the role of state-shame in the association between narcissism and state aggression in the sample.

To that end, this study involved a between subject design, such that after collecting data a comparison was made between those participants in whom shame was induced with those who were not manipulated to feel temporary state shame. In order to better understand the impact of shame, the sample represents those who endorse some amount of childhood maltreatment, leaning both upon theory that childhood maltreatment impacts the basic sense of self (Herman, 1992), and studies indicating that all types of maltreatment including neglect, physical abuse, sexual abuse and emotional abuse result in children at an increased risk of exhibiting intolerable feelings of shame (Alessandri, 1996; Bennett, 2010).

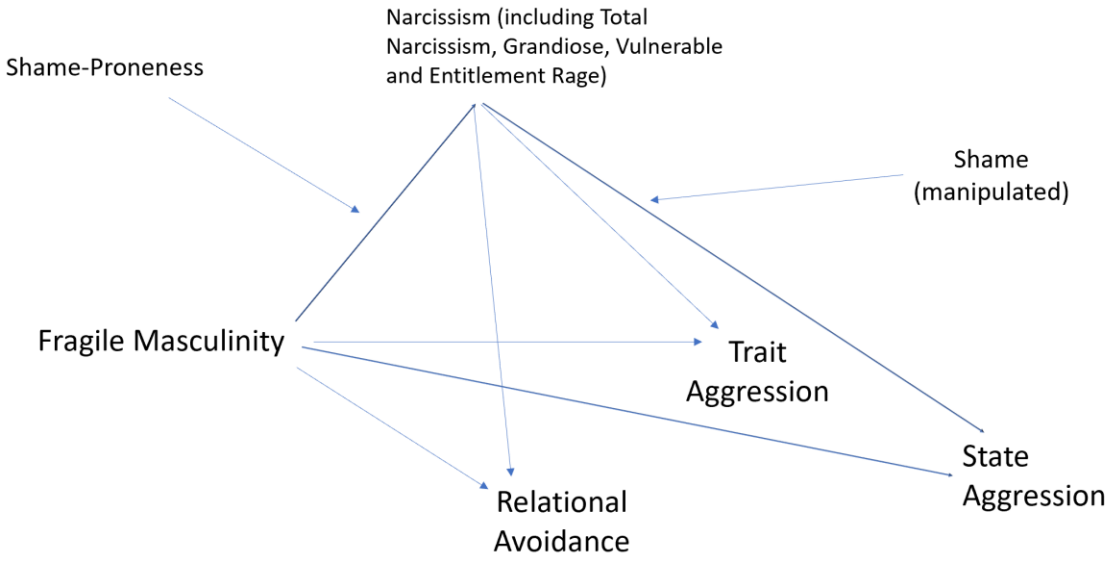
Study Variables

Variables in this study included:

Childhood Maltreatment. Prescreening variable: The experiences of one or more of general, physical, sexual, emotional trauma in childhood measured with the Early Trauma Inventory-Self Report-Short Form (ETI-SR-SF), which assesses trauma incurred before the age of 18. The measure consists of 27 items requiring a binary response (yes or no). The number of positive responses was summed to

Figure 1

Moderated-Mediation Models And Simple Mediation Models: All Models At A Glance



obtain a total score for each subcomponent representing type of trauma (ETI; Bremner et al., 2007).

Fragile Masculinity. Independent variable: Men's experience of feeling inadequately prepared to meet societal requirements for their masculine gender role, measured by the Masculine Gender Role Stress scale, for which scoring is obtained by calculating the total score of all items (MGRS; Eisler & Skidmore, 1987).

Shame-Proneness. Moderating variable: The level of a person's proneness to experience shame, measured by The Test of Self-Conscious Awareness, for which participants' scores for each type of response are summed to create their total shame, guilt, and externalization scores (TOSCA-4; Tangney et al., 2008).

Narcissism. Mediating variable: The extent to which a person experiences himself to be valued more highly than others, the expectation to be treated better than others, entitlement, lack of empathy and exploitativeness. Narcissism was measured by the Pathological Narcissism Inventory (PNI; Pincus, 2009), using a total score, which includes grandiosity and vulnerability factors. Further, narcissism was measured by the grandiosity factor itself, the vulnerability factor itself and the entitlement rage subscale.

Shame Induction. Moderating variable: This aimed to induce a feeling of shame in the participant. This induction was based on a piloted scenario (see procedure, below). Half of the sample was randomly assigned to listen to the shame induction and half of the sample listened to an affect neutral recording.

State Shame: Moderating variable: The level of a person's experience of shame in the current moment, measured by the shame subscale of the State Shame and Guilt Scale (SSGS; Marschall, Sanftner, & Tangney, 1994) which is a 15-item

measure that has three equal subscales. The shame subscale aimed to measure current feelings of shame.

Trait Aggression. Dependent variable: The tendency to approach the world and relationships with a dominant stance, including the capacity and intention of physical coercion. Trait Aggression was measured with the Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire, measured utilizing the total score (AQ; Buss & Perry, 1992), a trait measure of aggression.

State Aggression. Dependent variable: A modified version of the Bus-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (AQ; Buss & Perry, 1992) designed to reflect state feelings of aggression was administered to both groups after the shame induction and neutral induction was administered to the respective groups. The revised AQ is measured utilizing a total score (Farrar & Krcmar, 2006).

Relational Avoidance. Dependent variable: The degree to which an individual avoids dependence and interpersonal intimacy because of fear of negative consequences, measured by the avoidance scale of the Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire, measured with a sum score for the avoidance scale (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Hypotheses

In a non-clinical community sample of male participants who have experienced childhood maltreatment, the following was hypothesized.

Replication Hypotheses.

1) There will be a significant positive direct effect of fragile masculinity on trait aggression.
2) There will be a significant positive direct effect of narcissism on trait aggression.

3) There will be a significant positive direct effect of narcissism on relational avoidance.
4) There will be a significant positive direct effect of narcissism on state aggression.

Original Hypotheses.

5) There will be a significant positive indirect effect between fragile masculinity and trait aggression when narcissism is included in the model.

6) There will be a significant positive direct effect of fragile masculinity on relational avoidance.

7) There will be a significant positive direct effect of fragile masculinity on narcissism

8) There will be a significant positive indirect effect between fragile Masculinity and relational avoidance when narcissism is included in the model.

9) There will be a significant moderation of shame-proneness in the relationship between fragile masculinity and narcissism, such that greater shame-proneness would increase the relationship between fragile masculinity and narcissism.

10) There will be a significant positive direct effect of fragile masculinity on state aggression.

11) There will be a significant positive indirect effect between fragile masculinity and State Aggression when narcissism is included in the model.

12) There will be a significant moderating effect of the shame-induction on the relationship between narcissism and state aggression, such that those who were randomly selected to listen to an audio shame induction will endorse greater state aggression.

Chapter IV

Method

Participants

This sample of the current study included 302 participants from a nonclinical community sample. This study used Amazon Mechanical Turk (MTurk), a website frequently used for psychological research for recruiting participants yielding demographically diverse data (Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2012). Many classic psychology studies have been replicated using MTurk, indicating that it is considered a valid method for finding relevant participants (Goodman, 2012). The minimum number of participants required was determined by an a priori analysis (Soper, 2021). Power analysis revealed that in order for there to be an 80% chance of detecting an effect size of .5 at a significance of .05, 300 participants would be required to run Model 21 in Process twice and account for moderating effects (N = 302). Participants were randomly assigned into equal groups, one to listen to the shame induction and the other to listen to a neutral audio.

Participants were recruited and asked to fill out a series of self-report surveys through Amazon's Mechanical Turk (AMT; www.MTurk.com), a secure online system, for a reward of $2.50. This compensation rate is similar to other studies utilizing MTurk (Buhrmester, 2011). Inclusion criteria required participant to be 18 years or older, male, reside in the US and speak and read English fluently, as well as score 1+ on the ETI indicating some form of maltreatment. There were no other exclusion criteria.

Mechanisms were employed to ensure quality participants and avoid invalid data Participants were directed to the Qualtrics survey through CloudResearch (formerly TurkPrime; Litman, Robinson & Abberbock., 2017; cloudresearch.com), an organization

which screens MTurk workers for quality participation. The time participants used to complete each measure was additionally recorded. IP addresses were collected to track potential repeat respondents. Attention checks were implemented such as requiring participants to choose particular words in alphabetical order in various places throughout the surveys.

Sample. A total of 871 participants consented to be screened for the study. Of that number, 482 (55.3%) of the participants did not meet the inclusion criteria which left 389 (44.7%) qualifying participants. Of the 389 participants, 77 (19.8%) did not go on to complete the rest of the survey, were stopped due to missing or incorrect answers to validity checks, or withdrew from the study. An additional 10 (2.5%) were disqualified for various reasons (7 completed the task too quickly, in less than 10 minutes, and 3 had suspicious data responding with the same answer across scales). The remaining 302 participants comprised the final sample to be analyzed. Participants were randomly assigned to each of two conditions. Assignments were relatively equal: Shame condition included 153 participants, and the control condition included 149. In general, the sample was largely white (80.1%) with a wide range of educational backgrounds represented. The ages of participants ranged from 18-75 (M = 36.95, SD = 11.47). See Table 1 for more information on the demographics of the sample.

Table 1
Demographic characteristics of the sample

Factor		n (%)
Sex		
	Male	294 (97.4)
	Transgendered Male	8 (2.6)
Race		
	White	242 (80.1)
	Black/African American	25 (8.3)
	Asian	22 (7.3)
	American Indian/Alaskan	3 (1.0)
	Other	10 (3.3)
Political Affiliation		
	Democrat	116 (38.4)
	Republican	54 (17.9)
	Liberal	39 (12.9)
	Conservative	30 (9.9)
	Libertarian	19 (6.3)
	Other	44 (14.6)
Relationship Status		
	Single	144 (47.7)
	Married	100 (33.1)
	Domestic Partnership	32 (10.6)
	Divorced	23 (7.6)
	Widowed	3 (1.0)
Education		
	<HS	3 (1.0)
	HS	71 (23.5)
	In college	31 (10.3)
	Associates	34 (11.3)
	Bachelors	110 (36.4)
	Graduate student	26 (8.6)
	Post graduate school	27 (8.9)
Household Income		
	1-9,999	16 (5.3)
	10,000-50,000	109 (36.3)
	50,000-100,000	110 (36.7)
	100,000-150,000	47 (15.7)
	150000 or more	18 (6.0)

Table 1 (Cont.)
Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Ethnicity		
	Hispanic	34 (11.3)
	Non-Hispanic	261 (86.7)
	Other	6 (2.0)
Religion		
	Christian	135 (78.9)
	Jewish	6 (3.5)
	Muslim	4 (2.3)
	Buddhist	7 (4.1)
	Hindu	1 (.6)
	Other	18 (10.5)
Country of Residence		
	United States	302 (100.00)
Employment Status		
	Full Time	192 (63.6)
	Part Time	36 (11.9)
	Unemployed	31 (10.3)
	Student	8 (2.6)
	Retired	9 (3.0)
	Self Employed	13 (4.3)
	Other	13 (4.3)

Measures

The ***Demographic Questionnaire*** included items related to age, sex, country of birth, country of residence, English language fluency, ethnicity, religion, race, years of education completed, income, relationship status, and political affiliation.

The ***Early Trauma Inventory-Self Report short-form*** (ETI-SR-SF; Bremner et al., 2007) is a validated instrument for the assessment of trauma incurred before the age of 18 (Bremner et al., 2007). The ETI-SR-SF consists of 30 items and calls for a binary response (yes or no). The measure yields a total score and four subscale total scores. The instrument contains four subscales, including general trauma, physical, emotional and sexual. The general trauma section has 11 items, the sexual abuse section has 6 items, and the physical abuse and emotional abuse subscales have five items each. The inventory assesses whether or not individuals have experienced one or multiple traumas in their childhood. The ETI-SR-SF yields continuous data. Internal consistency for each of the subscales ranged from good to excellent: general trauma: $\alpha = .70$; physical abuse: $\alpha = .75$; emotional trauma: $\alpha = .86$; and sexual abuse: $\alpha = .87$ (Bremner, 2007). Convergent validity of the short form with the long form ETI showed high correlations in a sample of 288 subjects ranging from healthy to clinical subjects: general trauma (.91), physical (.94), emotional (.97) and sexual abuse (.97) (Bremner, 2007). The ETI-SR-SF was derived from the original 62 item self-report measure, itself derived from the clinician administered ETI (Bremner, 2000). The current study utilized the total score of the short-form as well as each of the four subscales of the ETI, and Cronbach's α were: general trauma ($n = 300$: $\alpha = .57$) emotional trauma ($n = 302$: $\alpha = .79$); physical trauma ($n = 302$: $\alpha = .66$); sexual abuse ($n = 302$: $\alpha = .87$); and Total ($n = 300$: $\alpha = .75$). The value for the total score represents acceptable internal consistency. For purposes of qualifying to

participate in the present study participants must have endorsed at least one form of maltreatment by answering yes to one of the questions.

Fragile masculinity was measured with the ***Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale*** (MGRSS: Eisler & Skidmore, 1987), a 40-item scale assessing participants responses to imagined events that would indicate they failed to meet masculine gender role expectations. It assessed men's tendency to appraise gender-relevant situations that involve feminine behaviors as stressful. Each item was rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from 0 ("not at all") stressful to 5 ("extremely") stressful. The higher the score the more the participant experienced the item as stressful. Example items include "comforting a male friend who is upset," "admitting to your friends that you do housework," "having your children see you cry" and "with a woman who is more successful than you." Factor analysis revealed that scale items cluster around the five factors: Physical Inadequacy, Emotional Inexpressiveness, Subordination to Women, Intellectual Inferiority and Performance Failure (Franchina, 2001). In a sample of 173 undergraduate students, this measure has been demonstrated to be valid with a high internal consistency, ($\alpha = .90$) and test-retest reliability .93 (Skidmore, 1988). Another study with a sample of 220 men indicated the measure to have coefficient alpha of .94 (Wong, 2012). For the current study the total score was calculated and for this sample ($n = 297$), the Cronbach's α for the MGRSS was .94, which reflect excellent consistency. The MGRS is a continuous measure and those considered high in MGRS are based on those reported by Eisler et al. (2000). In the present study, the cutoff score for the high MGRS group >101 ($M = 123.6$, $SD = 16.3$) and < .001, following previous study by Franchina et al. (2001).

Shame-Proneness was measured by the ***Test of Self-Conscious Affect*** (TOSCA-4, Tangney et al., 2008). The measure consists of five subscales to measure shame-

proneness, guilt-proneness and proneness to externalization of blame. The measure assessed one's tendency to respond to situations with shame, guilt or externalization of blame, by presenting fifteen scenarios likely to evoke these emotions. The measure then asked participants to rate their likelihood of reacting to each scenario with shame, guilt or externalization on a 5-point Likert-type scale from 1(not likely) to 5 (very likely). For example, one scenario presents the following: "When visiting a favorite relative, you accidentally break something you know is important to them," to which participants are asked to rate their likelihood of reacting in various ways that reflect shame, guilt and externalization driven reaction. Another example is, "imagine that you make a mistake at work and find out a new employee is blamed for the error." For shame, participants would rate "how likely is it that you would feel like a complete failure," while for guilt they would rate "how likely is it that you would feel sorry and wonder if you should speak up" (Martinez, 2014). The responses are rated on a 5-point scale from 1 (not likely) to 5 (very likely). Each of the factors was scored by calculating the sum of the responses to relevant questions. The measure does not label the various responses as related to shame, guilt or externalization, instead implicitly elicits these particular responses. For this reason, it was anticipated that even those who are prone to conceal their feelings would still endorse some shame-proneness. In a study of 361 clinical and healthy control participants, the scale had strong internal consistency ($\alpha = .97$) (Weingarden, 2016). In the present study, Cronbach's Alpha was ($n = 296$: $\alpha = .81$) which reflects good internal consistency.

State shame was measured by the ***State Shame and Guilt Scale*** (SSGS; Marschall, Sanftner, & Tangney, 1994). This scale contains 15-items, consisting of three

subscales, with five items measuring state shame, five items measuring state guilt and five items measuring state pride. Participants choose from a 5-point scale, indicating how they feel currently, ranging from feeling this way strongly to not feeling at all. In a sample of 100 undergraduate students the internal consistency was good for all three subscales, Shame (α = .88), Guilt (α = .89), and Pride (α = .93) (Stoeber, Kempe, & Keogh, 2008). In the present study, Cronbach's Alpha for the state shame measure pre-induction was (*n* = 299: α = .93) and for post induction (*n* = 297: α = .94).

Narcissism was measured with the ***Pathological Narcissism Inventory*** (PNI: Pincus et al., 2009). The PNI examines narcissistic personality characteristics found within the general population, and is comprised of two factors Grandiosity and Vulnerability. The measure has 52 items and seven subscales and two factors. This instrument captures seven basic dimensions of pathological narcissism: Contingent Self-Esteem (12 items; e.g., "It's hard for me to feel good about myself unless I know other people like me"), Exploitative Tendencies (5 items; e.g., "I can make anyone believe anything I want them to"), Self-Sacrificing Self-Enhancement (6 items; e.g., "I try to show what a good person I am through my sacrifices"), Hiding of the Self (7 items; e.g., "When others get a glimpse of my needs, I feel anxious and ashamed"), Grandiose Fantasy (7 items; e.g., "I often fantasize about being recognized for my accomplishments"), Devaluing (7 items; e.g., "When others don't meet my expectations, I often feel ashamed about what I wanted"), and Entitlement Rage (8 items; e.g., "It irritates me when people don't notice how good a person I am") (Ziegler, 2003). The two factors include Vulnerability and Grandiosity. The Vulnerability factor is comprised of Contingent Self-Esteem, Hiding the Self, Entitlement Rage and Devaluing subscales. The

Grandiosity factor is comprised of Grandiose Fantasy, Exploitativeness, and Self-Sacrificing Self-Enhancement subscales. The measure uses a 5-point scale ranging from Not at All Like Me (0) to Very Much Like Me (5). The measure is continuous and yields a total score, a total Grandiosity score and a total Vulnerability score, which was the score used in this study. The internal consistency has been reported to be strong for the seven subscales, ranging from (α = .78 to .93), and total scale (α = .95). The PNI was validated in a sample of 2,801 young adult college students and was found to have convergent validity ranging from (*r* = .02-.62) (Pincus, 2009). In the present study, Cronbach's Alphas were as follows: Total Narcissism (*n* = 276: α = .96), Grandiose Narcissism (*n* = 292: α = .90), Vulnerable Narcissism (*n* = 283: α = .96), and Entitlement Rage (*n* = 297: α = .89), representing good to excellent internal consistency.

Aggression was measured with the ***Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire*** (AQ: Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000), which measures the tendency to engage in physically aggressive behaviors. Participants selected how well the items, such as "Given enough provocation, I may hit another man" describe them with a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Extremely uncharacteristic of me) to 5 (extremely characteristic of me). The measure has been shown to have a high internal consistency (alpha = .80) in a sample of 641 adults (Gebhard et al., 2018). In addition to the original AQ, all participants was provided a modified version of the AQ which has been reworded to reflect state aggression, which had a reliability for the four subscales ranging from .80 to .92 in a sample of 60 adults (Farrar & Krcmr, 2006). In the present study, Cronbach's Alpha was (*n* = 284: α = .90).

State aggression was measured using a modified **Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire** (AQ: Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000), which

measures the state of aggressive urges in a particular moment. Participants selected how well the items, such as “Given enough provocation, I would hit this person” describe them with a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (Extremely uncharacteristic of me) to 5 (extremely characteristic of me). An analysis comparing the reliability of the reworded AQ, showed a pattern very similar to the original. Specifically, in a sample of 60 participants, verbal aggression (α = .88, *M* = 3.48, *SD* = 1.49), physical aggression (α = .89, *M* = 2.70, *SD* = 1.54), anger (α = .80, *M* = 2.28, *SD* = 1.11), and hostility (α = .92, *M* = 1.39, *SD* = 1.32) all had very high internal consistency (Farrar, 2006). In the present study, Cronbach’s Alpha for the state aggression measure was (*n* = 288: α = .94).

Avoidance was measured utilizing the ***Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire*** (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998). This is a measure of adult attachment in which participant rate the degree to which each item describes how they generally experience romantic relationships, with a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (disagree) to 7 (Agree strongly). The avoidance subscale of the ECRQ was established to examine the avoidance of intimacy dimension measuring the degree to which individuals avoid dependence and interpersonal intimacy because of fear of negative consequences. The Cronbach’s alpha for ECRQ was shown to be .89, with an alpha for the avoidance subscale of .92, in a sample of 266 male undergraduate students (Land, 2011). In the present study, Cronbach’s Alpha for the avoidance subscale of the ECRQ was (*n* = 292: α = .86).

Procedure

After providing their informed consent, participants were prescreened via their responses to the items on the ETI-SR-SF. Only those participants who endorsed a history

of childhood maltreatment, endorsing at least one type of childhood maltreatment on one of the ETI-SR-SF subscales, indicating having experienced childhood trauma, qualified to continue with this study. Participants were compensated $.25 for completing this brief survey.

Qualified participants, those who endorsed childhood maltreatment, were asked to complete the remaining survey for an additional $2 via the Mechanical Amazon Turk program. Participants completed a battery of measures, including the MGRSS, TOSCA-4, PNI, SSGS, AQ, listened to audio induction (described below), completed SSGS again, modified AQ and the avoidance subscale of the ECRQ.

For the induction, participants were divided into two groups. The shame group was randomly selected and asked to listen to a shame induction. Prior to data collection, the shame induction was piloted with a sample of MTurk participants over the age of 18. The shame induction used in this study based on a similar scenario used by Dorahy (2017) to induce state shame. The objective in Dorahy (2017) was to determine whether increases in dissociation were evident following exposure to acute shame feelings induced via narrative scripts of shame evoking situations. One shame evoking scenario involved participants imagining going into a bank to withdraw funds at which point the teller mocks the participant for having nasal mucous on their face (Dorahy, 2017). A similar scenario was adapted for this study and the intent was to induce a state of increased feelings of shame.

This induction of shame was administered at this point to determine if the peaked feeling of shame impacts state aggression. The half of the participants randomly assigned to the shame condition were provided with the following procedure which was used to

induce an increase in state shame. They were asked to listen to an audio-recording consisting of a male voice narrating the following:

> Please pay attention for the next few minutes to the following scenario. Try to sit quietly in a relaxed position and bring to mind an image. Call to mind someone in whom you were interested romantically or sexually. This is someone you wanted to ask on a date. Think about where you met this person. Think about what they may look like. Think about what is sexually attractive about them….Now, imagine you attend a party and spot this person from a distance across the room. You immediately feel your heart rate increase, you begin to sweat, and you may feel excited in anticipation of potential interactions with this person. You have not seen this person in some time, and you muster up the courage to approach them. When you approach them, you start talking. This prospective romantic partner begins staring at your face, and begins to smirk. This person points to your face and mentions that you have nasal mucous on your cheek. This person turns away from you, seemingly disgusted and you notice other people at the party smiling at this interaction, as you fumble for a tissue to wipe the mucous off your face.

The control group listened to the same male narrator providing the following vignette:

> "Please pay attention and listen to the following scenario. Try to sit quietly in a relaxed position and bring to mind an image. Call to mind a party. You walk into the party, hang up your coat and look around the room. You meander around, meeting and greeting people you know. You then see an acquaintance on the other side of the room wearing sneakers that you like and you approach this person and compliment them on their sneakers. The person responds "thank you" and you strike up a conversation about the party and how you both came to be there. A song comes on the stereo that you both remember nostalgically. After concluding the conversation, you notice the buffet nearby. After helping yourself at the buffet, you make your way over to a group of friends and join their conversation.

Both the shame condition and the control group completed the same measures, including the modified AQ, after listening to the above vignette. The idea was that for the shame condition, listening to the shaming scenario, would increase participants' self report levels of state aggression compared to those who listened to the neutral vignette.

At the end of the study, participants read a debriefing form, providing participants information to seek mental health counseling in case the study caused participants'

psychological distress. All participants who completed the survey diligently, (e.g., not straight-lining responses, providing real answers to demographic questions) were compensated a total of $2.25 for taking part in the survey.

Pilot Testing

This shame induction referenced above was piloted with 11 participants whose responses were analyzed based on determination of valid data, males over the age of 18 utilizing MTurk as a recruitment tool linking participants to a Qualtrics survey, with an embedded audio recording. The pilot consisted of a pre-measure, the above induction in audio format by a male narrator, and a post-measure. Both the pre and post measure used the State Shame and Guilt Scale (SSGS; Marschall, Sanftner, & Tangney, 1994) which is a 15-item measure that has three subscales, two of which, shame and guilt, were given to participants. The shame subscale aims to measure current feelings of shame: (e.g., "I feel that I am a bad person"), and guilt (e.g., “I feel tension about something I have done”). Only the shame subscale consisting of items 1, 3, 5, 7 and 9 were used in pre and post test data analysis to determine the efficacy of the shame induction. The subscales yield a score on a 5-to-25 scale with a higher score indicating greater amounts of current feelings of shame. Ghatavi and colleagues (2002) found that the subscales had acceptable reliabilities, with alphas greater than .86 (Ghatavi, Nicolson, MacDonald, Osher, & Levitt, 2002). A paired-sample t-test was used to check the effectiveness of the shame induction in increasing state shame $t(10) = -2.29$, $p = .44$, indicating there was a significant difference between the mean state shame of the participants pre-induction compared to post-induction. Distribution for the variables were normally distributed (Skewness <2.0 and Kurtosis<2,0). The minimum statistic for the Pre-Shame Scale was 5

and maximum was 19, (M = 11.63, SD = 5.44). The minimum statistic for the Post Shame Scale was 10 and the maximum was 21, (M = 15.09, SD = 4.18). State shame statistically increased after the induction. See Figure 2 for scatterplot of the pre and post shame measure for the pilot.

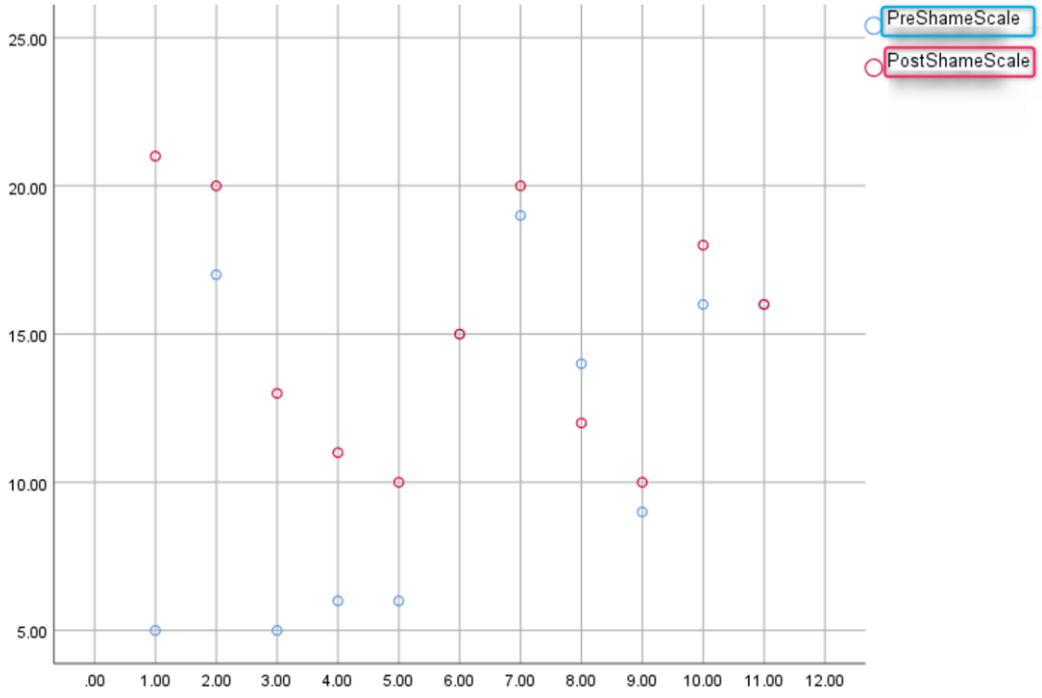
Data Analysis

Data were analyzed using the statistical package for social sciences, SPSS (SPSS for windows, Release 28, 2022. Chicago: SPSS Inc.). A moderated-mediation hypothesis model was conducted in PROCESS in SPSS (Model 21), to test whether the model is significant and then test each of the hypotheses (Hayes, 2013). Since the shame-proneness moderation was not significant, the data was analyzed using Model 7 to determine if the shame induction moderation was significant. Model 4 was additionally analyzed on process to determine the impact of narcissism as a mediator between fragile masculinity and aggression, and, in addition, the impact of narcissism as a mediator between fragile masculinity and avoidance. A mediation analysis was conducted to assess if narcissism mediated the relationship between Fragile Masculinity and aggression, and similarly between Fragile Masculinity and Avoidance.

A series of regressions were conducted to assess mediation. First, a linear regression was used to assess Fragile Masculinity as a predictor of Aggression. Second a linear regression was used to assess Fragile Masculinity as a predictor of Avoidance. Third, a linear regression was used to assess Fragile Masculinity as a predictor of Narcissism as the mediator. Fourth, a multiple regression was used to test Fragile Masculinity and Narcissism as predictors of Aggression. Fifth, a multiple regression was used to test Fragile Masculinity and Narcissism as predictors of Avoidance.

Figure 2

Scatterplot Of Pre And Post Shame Scale Data For Pilot, (n = 11)



Partial mediation occurs when Fragile Masculinity's influence on Aggression is reduced when Narcissism is controlled for (the coefficient is different from zero but the absolute size is reduced). The same analysis was conducted for Avoidance as the DV. Statistical results were interpreted using a significance level of $p < .05$. A diagram of the moderated mediation analysis, the entire conceptual model, is shown in Figure 1.

Moderation through regression analysis based on the approach by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used to examine if Shame-Proneness moderates the relationship between Fragile Masculinity and Narcissism (see Figure 3 and 5). The moderated mediation models for trait aggression and avoidance as the outcome variables used Model 7, and the simple mediation Model 4 was used to conduct a more parsimonious analysis without the moderation.

Similarly, a regression analysis based on the approach by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used to determine whether Shame-proneness and State-Shame moderated the mediation of Fragile Masculinity's effect on State Aggression mediated by Narcissism (Model 21). Model 14 which is a single moderated mediation model was used to conduct a more parsimonious analysis on the moderated effect of state-shame only. Probing significant effects was conducted to check if they are indeed conditional in the hypothesized directions.

Figure 3
Moderated Mediation Shame-Proneness Conceptual Model

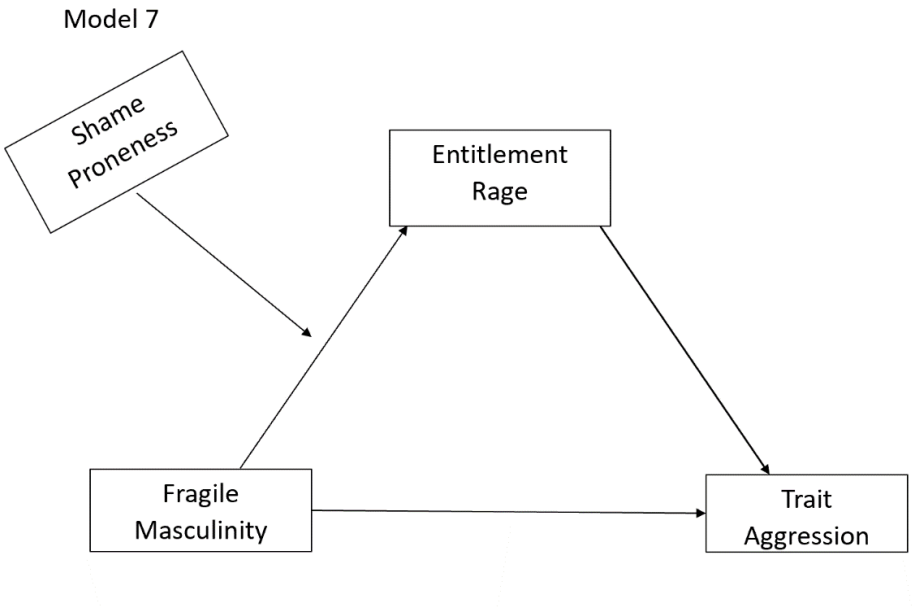


Figure 4
Mediation Conceptual Model Trait Aggression

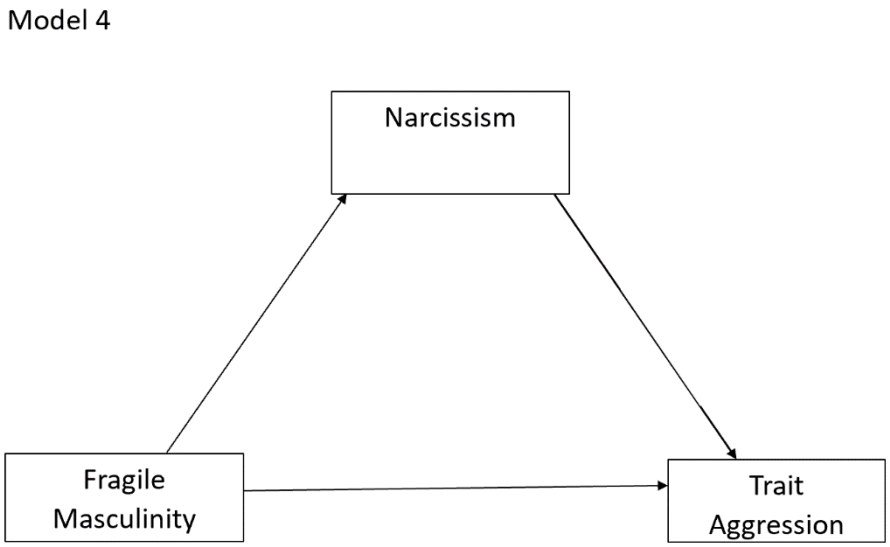


Figure 5
Moderated Mediation Avoidance

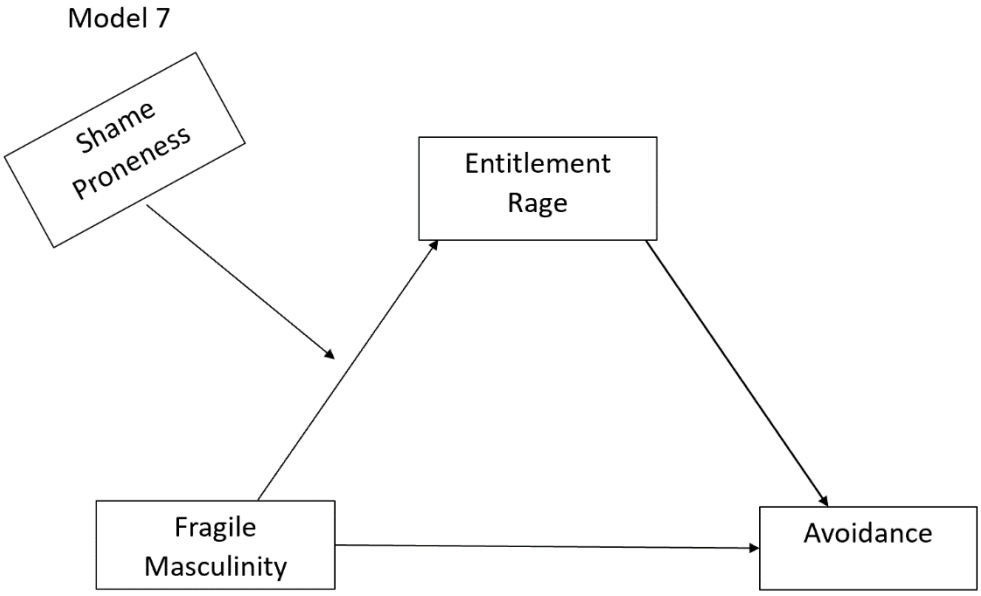


Figure 6
Mediation Conceptual Model Avoidance

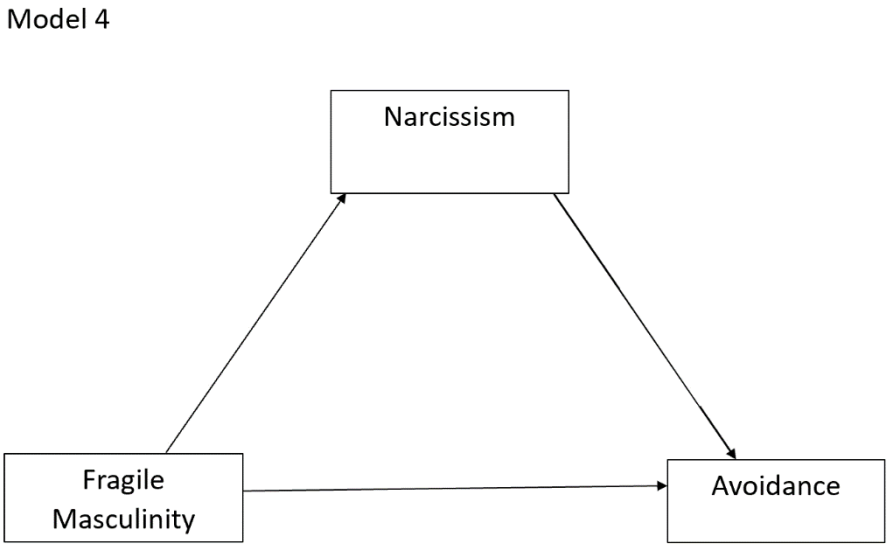


Figure 7

Double Moderated Mediation Conceptual Model State-Aggression

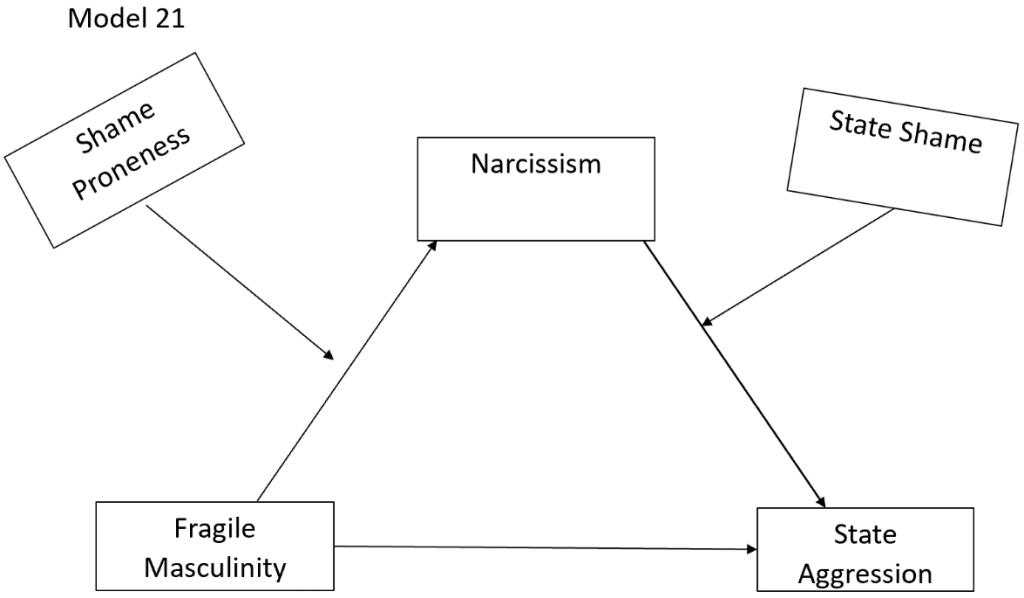
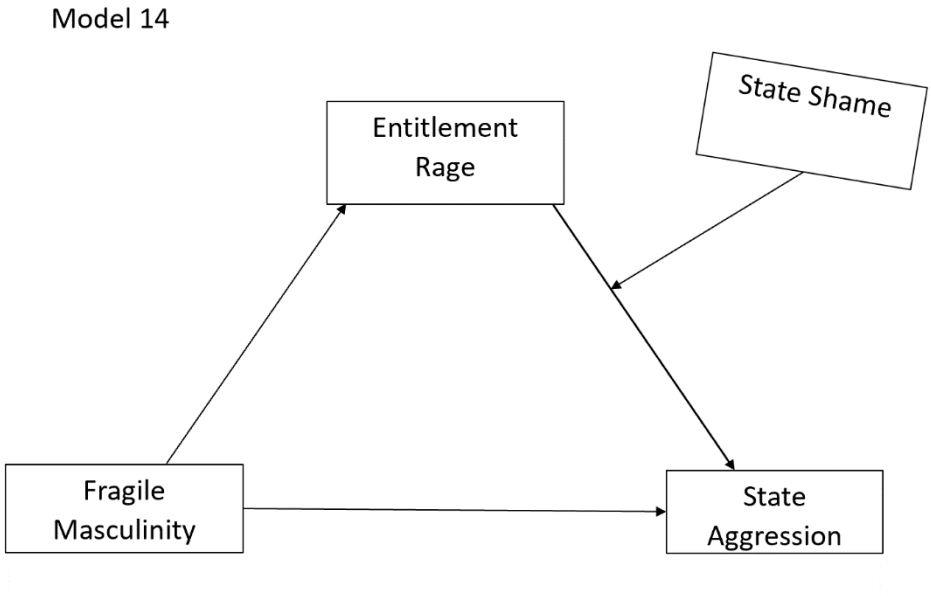


Figure 8

Moderated Mediation Conceptual Model State-Aggression



Chapter V

Results

This section will present the results including preliminary analyses and the main analyses. The preliminary analyses include analyses and treatment of missing data, descriptive statistics, correlations between and among variables, as well as covariate analyses. Main analyses are reported for Hypotheses 1 through 12 which predicted significant relationships between fragile masculinity, narcissism, shame-proneness, state shame, trait aggression, state aggression, and relational avoidance.

Preliminary Analyses

Missing Data. Of the 302 participants in the final sample, 283 (93.7%) had complete data and 19 (6.3%) had at least some missing data. Little's MCAR test found that the data were missing completely at random (χ^2 = 145.21, *df* = 149, *p* = .57). There were only a few instances of greater than 10% of items missing, and where this was the case, the participant was excluded from the analysis. Of the included participants, none of the scales had more than 10% missing data. Scales were then scored for participants with less than 10% of items missing. Table 2 reports the frequency of measures with missing data. Since none of the scales had more than 10% of items missing, mean substitution was used to impute missing values. Thus, the size of the sample varied across measures.

Reliability. All scales were examined for reliability and were found to be reliable, with alpha coefficients ranging from good to excellent. Table 3 reports reliability for each measure used.

Descriptive statistics of measures. See Tables 4-6 for descriptive statistics. Means, standard deviations, skew and kurtosis values as well as box plots and histograms were examined by group and were revealed to be in acceptable ranges for each group and

Table 2
Frequency of missing data by scale

Scale	Any Missing Data *n* (%)	Total Items	Items Required for Scoring	Participants with Sufficient Data for Mean Imputation *n*
Narcissism Total	26 (8.6)	52	46	302
Vulnerable Narcissism	19 (6.3)	33	30	302
Grandiose Narcissism	10 (3.3)	18	16	302
Entitlement Rage	5 (1.7)	8	8	302
ECR Avoidance	10 3.3)	18	16	302
Masculinity	5 (1.7)	40	36	302
SSGS Shame – Pre	3 (1.0)	5	5	299
TOSCA	6 (2.0)	16	15	301
Trait Aggression	18 (6.0)	29	26	301
State Aggression	14 (4.6)	29	26	301

Note. Childhood Maltreatment = Early Trauma Inventory (Bremner, 2007); Narcissism Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); SSGS State Shame = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Shame subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); SSGS State Guilt = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Guilt subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); MGRSS Fragile Masculinity = Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987); TOSCA Shame Proneness = Test of Self-Conscious Affect, TOSCA-4 (Tangney et al., 2008); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Table 3

Alpha Coefficients

Scale	Alpha
Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale	.94
Test of Self Conscious Affect	.81
State Shame and Guilt Scale (shame subscale – Pre induction)	.93
State Shame and Guilt Scale (shame subscale – Post induction)	.94
Pathological Narcissism Inventory: Grandiosity Factor	.90
Pathological Narcissism Inventory: Vulnerability Factor	.96
Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Trait)	.90
Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (State)	.94
Experience in Close Relationships Questionnaire (Avoidance subscale)	.86

Note. PNI Vulnerability Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); PNI Grandiosity Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); PNI Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); PNI Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); SSGS State Shame = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Shame subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); SSGS State Guilt = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Guilt subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); MGRSS Fragile Masculinity = Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987); TOSCA Shame Proneness = Test of Self-Conscious Affect, TOSCA-4 (Tangney et al., 2008); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Table 4

Distribution of Primary Variables for Entire Sample

						Skewness		Kurtosis	
Variable	N	Min	Max	Mean	SD	Stat.	Std Err	Statistic	Std Err.
Early Trauma Inventory	302	7	29	12.71	4.62	1.00	.14	.66	.28
Pathological Narcissism Inventory (PNI) Total	302	0	255	120.19	47.70	.11	.14	-.14	.28
Vulnerable Narcissism	302	0	165	73.63	34.19	.18	.14	-.41	.28
Grandiose Narcissism	302	0	90	46.56	16.53	-.04	.14	-.15	.28
Entitlement Rage	302	0	40	15.21	9.15	.42	.14	-.35	.28
State Shame (pre-induction)	299	5	25	9.16	5.22	1.26	.14	.76	.28
State Shame (post-induction)	297	5	25	11.14	6.70	.71	.14	-.94	.28
Fragile Masculinity	302	4	173	70.08	28.29	.75	.14	.98	.28
Shame-Proneness	301	20	77	49.87	10.48	-.09	.14	-.12	.28
Trait Aggression	301	29	145	75.54	19.27	.35	.14	.36	.28
State Aggression	301	29	143	64.91	21.92	.78	.14	.58	.28
Rel. Avoidance	302	18	111	60.41	18.01	-.18	.14	-.27	.28

Note. Childhood Maltreatment = Early Trauma Inventory (Bremner, 2007); Narcissism Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); SSGS State Shame = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Shame subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); SSGS State Guilt = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Guilt subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); MGRSS Fragile Masculinity = Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987); TOSCA Shame Proneness = Test of Self-Conscious Affect, TOSCA-4 (Tangney et al., 2008); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Table 5

Distribution of Primary Variable for Shame Condition (n = 153)

Variable	Min	Max	Mean	SE	Skewness		Kurtosis	
					Stat.	Std Err.	Stat.	Std Error
Early Trauma Inventory	7	29	12.91	.37	.89	.20	.67	.41
Pathological Narcissism Inventory (PNI) Total	0	255	21.73	4.22	.09	.20	-.07	.41
Vulnerable Narcissism	0	165	74.28	3.00	.20	.20	-.24	.41
Grandiose Narcissism	0	90	47.48	1.51	-.04	.20	-.30	.41
Entitlement Rage	0	40	15.22	.81	.41	.20	-.27	.41
State Shame (pre-induction)	5	25	9.37	.46	1.22	.20	.50	.41
State Shame (post-induction)	5	25	14	.57	.05	.20	-1.38	.41
Fragile Masculinity	4	166	72.41	2.22	.67	.20	1.36	.41
Shame-Proneness	20	76	49.81	.94	-.18	.20	-.03	.41
Trait Aggression	38	145	76.77	1.69	.48	.20	.52	.41
State Aggression	29	143	67.50	1.92	.76	.20	.50	.41
Relational Avoidance	18	111	60.60	1.54	-.21	.20	-.21	.41

Note. Childhood Maltreatment = Early Trauma Inventory (Bremner, 2007); Narcissism Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); SSGS State Shame = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Shame subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); SSGS State Guilt = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Guilt subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); MGRSS Fragile Masculinity = Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987); TOSCA Shame Proneness = Test of Self-Conscious Affect, TOSCA-4 (Tangney et al., 2008); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Table 6

Distribution of Primary Variables for Control Condition (n = 149)

Variable	Min	Max	Mean	SE	Skewness		Kurtosis	
					Stat.	Std Err.	Stat.	Std Error
Early Trauma Inventory	7	28	12.42	.41	1.13	.20	.82	.41
Pathological Narcissism Inventory (PNI) Total	19	238	17.50	3.78	.26	.21	-.07	.41
Vulnerable Narcissism	11	153	72.15	2.74	.29	.21	-.49	.41
Grandiose Narcissism	8.47	87	45.35	1.28	.04	.21	.07	.41
Entitlement Rage	0	40	14.84	.71	.54	.21	-.02	.41
State Shame (pre-induction)	5	25	9.07	.43	1.30	.21	1.02	.41
State Shame (post-induction)	5	25	8.04	.43	1.98	.21	3.29	.41
Fragile Masculinity	12	173	67.77	2.53	.83	.21	.80	.41
Shame-Proneness	28	77	49.90	.84	.14	.21	-.33	.41
Trait Aggression	29	130	74.08	1.55	.29	.21	.47	.41
State Aggression	31.67	134.95	63.45	1.71	.81	.21	.89	.41
Relational Avoidance	20	106	59.84	1.49	.28	.21	-.25	.41

Note. Childhood Maltreatment = Early Trauma Inventory (Bremner, 2007); Narcissism Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); SSGS State Shame = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Shame subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); SSGS State Guilt = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Guilt subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); MGRSS Fragile Masculinity = Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987); TOSCA Shame Proneness = Test of Self-Conscious Affect, TOSCA-4 (Tangney et al., 2008); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

therefore, all variables were adequately normally distributed. Skewness and kurtosis fell within the acceptable range (< ±2.00). Extreme outliers (13 participants within 1SD and 2SD, and 9 participants between 2sd and 3sd) were found in the shame subscale only of the SSGS post measure and only in the control condition, but these did not change the variability. One explanation for these outliers is that these are individuals who listened to the neutral vignette and therefore may have been bored by the retest. Since this was in the post shame control condition, it did not impact the moderated-mediation analysis.

Intervariable Correlations. Correlations among all study variables are displayed in Table 7. All reported correlations are Pearson's *r.* All variables were significantly correlated with each other. None had shared variability of more than 50% to the dependent variables trait aggression or state aggression, and therefore there was no multicollinearity. Correlations between the trait aggression and state aggression measures indicated that they were related measures but had only 46% shared variability. While Tosca shame-proneness was positively correlated with narcissism as measured by the PNI Total, vulnerability factor, Grandiosity Factor, and Entitlement Rage subscale, the shared variability between TOSCA and the narcissism scales were less than 25% which is contrary to predictions.

Comparing Pre and Post shame induction. Independent sample *t*-tests were conducted to determine if there were differences in the variables analyzed based on condition. There were no significant differences between the two groups and they are equivalent on all of the pretest measures prior to randomization. (See Table 8).

A two way between subject repeated measures ANOVA was conducted to test for the effect of the induction on the two conditions. A significant interaction of Time and

Table 7

Correlation Matrix for Main Study Variables

Measure	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1. Vulnerable Narcissism	1.00												
2. Grandiose Narcissism	.74**	1.00											
3. Entitlement Rage	.87**	.63**	1.00										
4. Narcissism, Total	.97**	.88**	.84**	1.00									
5. SSGS State Shame Pre	.49**	.23**	.31**	.43**	1.00								
6. SSGS State Guilt Pre	.55**	.33**	.41**	.51**	.86**	1.00							
7. SSGS State Shame Post	.32**	.20**	.19**	.30**	.59**	.53**	1.00						
8. SSGS Guilt Post	.36**	.20**	.25**	.33**	.62**	.67**	.90**	1.00					
9. MGRSS Fragile Masculinity	.47**	.30**	.41**	.44**	.38**	.30**	.36**	.35**	1.00				
10. TOSCA Shame-Proneness	.55**	.38**	.37**	.53**	.43**	.45**	.37**	.35**	.37**	1.00			
11. AQ Trait Aggression	.61**	.43**	.59**	.59**	.39**	.44**	.24**	.28**	.37**	.36**	1.00		
12. AQ State Aggression	.40**	.30**	.44**	.39**	.28**	.29**	.29**	.30**	.35**	.21**	.68**	1.00	
13. ECR Avoidance	.63**	.31**	.53**	.56**	.53**	.52**	.33**	.36**	.40**	.35**	.52**	.34**	1.00

Note. Early Trauma Inventory (Bremner, 2007); Narcissism Total = Grandiosity + Vulnerability; Narcissistic Vulnerability factor; Narcissistic Grandiosity Factor; Entitlement Rage subscale (Pincus et al., 2009); SSGS State Shame = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Shame subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); SSGS State Guilt = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Guilt subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); MGRSS Fragile Masculinity = Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987); TOSCA Shame Proneness = Test of Self-Conscious Affect, TOSCA-4 (Tangney et al., 2008); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998). $n = 302$. ** = $p < .01$.

Table 8
Differences In Dependent Variables Based On Condition

	Shame (n = 153)		Control (n = 149)				
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Childhood Experiences	13.05	4.50	12.35	4.74	1.32	300	.19
State Shame Pre	9.36	5.38	8.96	5.05	.66	297	.51
Fragile Masculinity	72.31	26.85	67.79	29.62	1.39	300	.17
Shame-Proneness	49.98	11.04	49.75	9.92	0.19	299	.85
Trait Aggression	77.06	19.99	73.99	18.44	1.38	299	.17
State Aggression	67.23	22.92	62.54	20.65	1.87	299	.06
Relational Avoidance	60.88	18.29	59.92	17.75	.47	300	.64
Vulnerable Narcissism	74.33	35.48	72.91	32.92	.36	300	.72
Grandiose Narcissism	47.44	17.91	45.65	14.99	.94	293	.35
Entitlement Rage	15.36	9.72	15.05	8.55	.30	300	.77
Total Narcissism	121.77	50.10	118.56	45.21	.58	300	.56

Note. Childhood Maltreatment = Early Trauma Inventory (Bremner, 2007); PNI Vulnerability Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); PNI Grandiosity Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); PNI Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); PNI Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); SSGS State Shame = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Shame subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); SSGS State Guilt = State Shame and Guilt Scale, Guilt subscale (Marshal, Saftner & Tangney 1994); MGRSS Fragile Masculinity = Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale (Eisler & Skidmore, 1987); TOSCA Shame Proneness = Test of Self-Conscious Affect, TOSCA-4 (Tangney et al., 2008); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998). n = 302. ** = $p < .01$.

Condition was found (F (1, 292) = 109.35, $p < .001$) with the two conditions different at Time 2 ($p < .001$) but not at Time 1 ($p = .57$). The analysis compared the two variables, Shame-Pre and Shame-Post, for the control condition and the shame condition. For the control condition at time 1 the mean was 9.01(SE = .43), and at time 2 the mean was 8.00 (SE = .50). For the shame condition at time 1, the mean was 9.37 (SE = .43), and at time 2 the mean was 14.12 (SE = .49). For the control condition the difference was not significant, but for the shame condition the difference was significant and participants reported greater state-shame after the induction than before. The foregoing indicates that the randomization of groups placing participants in the shame group or control group was successful (see Figure 9).

Covariate Analysis. All mediator and outcome variables were tested for relationships with potential covariates: One-way analyses of variance (ANOVA) were conducted to determine if demographic variables were associated with the outcome variables. Analyses were conducted to determine if ethnicity (Hispanic, non-Hispanic, or Other), race, political affiliation, religion, employment status, and education (Spearman's Rho) were associated with any of the outcome or mediating variables. None of the results were significant (see Tables 9 – 14). Therefore, based on these analyses, ethnicity, race, political affiliation, religion, employment status, and education were not included as covariates.

Seven one-way ANOVAs were conducted for relationship status and there were significant differences across some of the variables (Table 15). Single individuals indicated greater vulnerable narcissism than those who were partnered or married. Single individuals also indicated greater avoidance than partnered. A dichotomous variable,

Figure 9

Difference Between Control And Shame Conditions Pre And Post Shame Induction

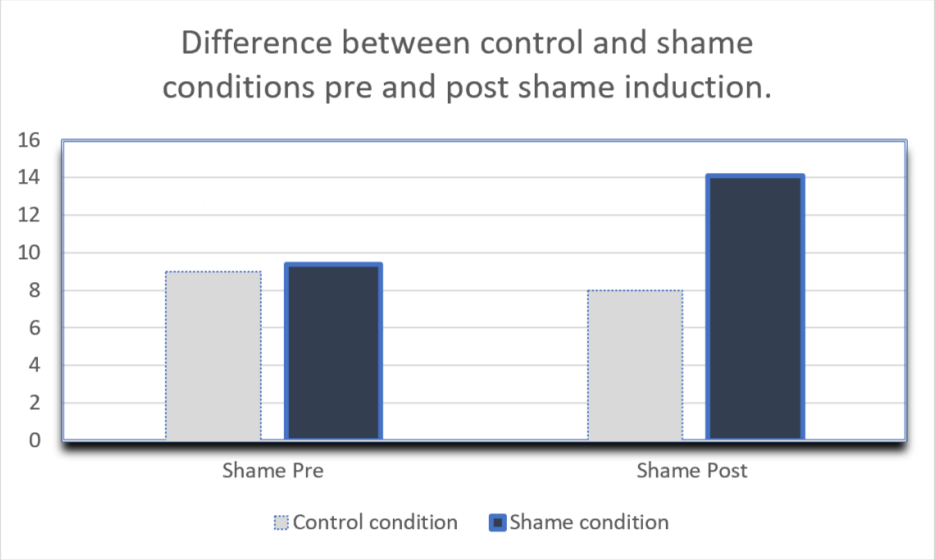


Table 9

Test of Differences in Dependent Variables Based on Ethnicity

ANOVA

Variables	*F*	*df1, df2*	*p*
Narcissism Total	1.06	2, 298	.35
Vulnerable Narcissism	.96	2, 298	.38
Grandiose Narcissism	.88	2, 298	.42
Entitlement Rage	1.45	2, 298	.24
Trait Aggression	1.00	2, 297	.37
State Aggression	.21	2, 297	.81
Relational Avoidance	2.04	2, 298	.13

Note. *n* = 298-302. Narcissism, Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Table 10

Test of Differences in Dependent Variables Based on Race

ANOVA

Variables	*F*	*df1, df2*	*p*
Narcissism, Total	.51	4, 297	.73
Vulnerable Narcissism	.45	4, 297	.77
Grandiose Narcissism	.50	4, 297	.74
PNI Entitlement Rage	.54	4, 297	.71
Trait Aggression	.69	4, 296	.60
State Aggression	.93	4, 296	.45
Relational Avoidance	.27	4, 297	.90

Note. *n* = 299-300. Narcissism, Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Table 11

Test of Differences in Dependent Variables Based on Political Affiliation

ANOVA			
Variables	*F*	*df1, df2*	*p*
Narcissism, Total	1.56	5, 296	.17
Vulnerable Narcissism	1.25	5, 296	.28
Grandiose Narcissism	1.77	5, 296	.12
Entitlement Rage	1.29	5, 296	.27
Trait Aggression	1.03	5, 295	.40
State Aggression	1.50	5, 295	.19
Relational Avoidance	.46	5, 296	.81

Note. *n* = 301. Narcissism, Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Table 12
Test of Differences in Dependent Variables Based on Religion

	ANOVA		
Variables	*F*	*df1, df2*	*p*
Narcissism, Total	.21	5, 165	.96
Vulnerable Narcissism	.34	5, 165	.89
Grandiose Narcissism	.32	5, 165	.90
Entitlement Rage	.38	5, 165	.86
Trait Aggression	.11	5, 164	.99
State Aggression	.71	5, 164	.62
Relational Avoidance	.39	5, 165	.86

Note. *n* = 298-300. Narcissism, Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Table 13
Test of Differences in Dependent Variables Based on Employment Status

ANOVA

	F	*df1, df2*	*p*
Narcissism, Total	1.28	12, 289	.23
Vulnerable Narcissism	1.38	12, 289	.18
Grandiose Narcissism	1.10	12, 289	.36
Entitlement Rage	1.39	12, 289	.17
Trait Aggression	1.24	12, 288	.25
State Aggression	1.04	12, 288	.41
Relational Avoidance	1.69	12, 289	.07

Note. *n* = 299-300. Narcissism, Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Table 14

Test of Differences in Dependent Variables Based on Education Spearman's Rho

Variable	ρ	*p*
Total Narcissism	-.016	.79
Vulnerable Narcissism	-.019	.74
Grandiose Narcissism	-.005	.93
PNI Entitlement Rage	.021	.72
Trait Aggression	-.045	.44
State Aggression	.008	.89
Relational Avoidance	-.064	.26

Note. *n* = 300-301. Narcissism, Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Table 15

Test of Differences in Dependent Variables Based on Relationship Status

ANOVA

Variables	*F*	*df1, df2*	*p.*
PNI Total	2.36	4, 297	.05
PNI Vulnerable	3.24	4, 297	.01
PNI Grandiosity	.86	4, 297	.49
PNI Entitlement Rage	1.48	4, 297	.21
Trait Aggression	3.17	4, 296	.01
State Aggression	1.67	4, 296	.16
Relational Avoidance	11.23	4, 297	.00

Note. *n* = 301. Narcissism, Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

partnered (n = 132) or non-partnered (n = 170), including those in a marriage or domestic partnership vs. those identified as single, divorced or widowed, was created to serve as a covariate for the avoidance and vulnerable narcissism measures. Partnered individuals were significantly less avoidant (M = 53.37, SD = 18.94) than those who were not partnered (M = 65.87, SD = 15.19). Further they were significantly less vulnerable (M = 67.49, SD = 33.58) than those were not partnered (M = 78.40, SD = 34.00).

Age was significantly correlated (Pearson's r) negatively with the variables including Total narcissism, grandiose narcissism, vulnerable narcissism, entitlement rage, trait aggression, state aggression and avoidance (see Table 16) and was thus covaried for these measures. Household income, an ordinal variable, was correlated (Spearman's Rho) with Total and Vulnerable Narcissism as well as relational avoidance (see Table 17).

Main Analyses

The models hypothesized included three different outcome variables: Trait Aggression, Avoidance, and State Aggression. This section will analyze each of the models in subsections categorized by outcome variable. In addition, each of the models tested Narcissism as a mediator, employing the four different kinds of narcissism hypothesized, including Total Narcissism, Vulnerable Narcissism, Grandiose Narcissism, and Entitlement Rage. In each of the subsections, an overall originally hypothesized model, including the proposed moderators, are presented, and then trimmed models are presented for purposes of performing more parsimonious analyses.

Trait Aggression. Hypotheses 1, 7, 2, 5 and 9 proposed that narcissism would mediate the relationship between fragile masculinity and trait aggression, and shame-proneness would moderate this mediation. Hypothesis 1 proposed that fragile masculinity would

Table 16
Pearson Correlations with Age

Variables	Age	*p*
Total Narcissism	-.280***	<.001
Vulnerable Narcissism	-.278***	<.001
Grandiose Narcissism	-.233***	<.001
Entitlement Rage	-.164**	<.01
Trait Aggression	-.194**	<.01
State Aggression	-.085	.14
Relational Avoidance	-.207***	<.001

Note. n = 301-302, ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$. Narcissism, Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

Table 17
Household Income: Spearman's Rho

Variable	ρ	*p*
Narcissism total	-.122*	.03*
Vulnerable Narcissism	-.158**	.01*
Grandiose Narcissism	-.027	.65
PNI Entitlement Rage	-.100	.08
Trait Aggression	-.109	.06
State Aggression	.013	.82
Relational Avoidance	-.263**	<.001

Note. *n* = 301-302, ** = p < .01, *** = p < .001. Narcissism, Total = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Score, Grandiosity + Vulnerability (Pincus et al., 2009); Vulnerable Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Vulnerability Factor (Pincus et al. 2009); Grandiose Narcissism = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Total Grandiosity Factor (Pincus et al., 2009); Entitlement Rage = Pathological Narcissism Inventory, Entitlement Rage dimension (Pincus et al., 2009); AQ Trait Aggression = Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (Buss & Perry, 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); AQ State Aggression = Aggression Questionnaire, State Aggression (Farrar, 2006; Buss & Perry 1992; Buss & Warren, 2000); ECRQ Avoidance = Experiences in Close Relationships Questionnaire (ECRQ; Brennan, Clark & Shaver, 1998).

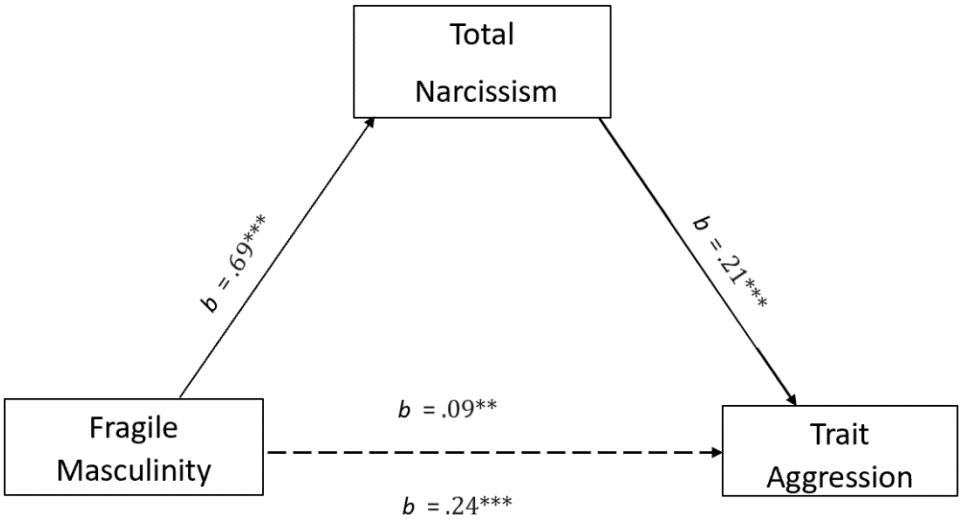
positively and significantly predict increase in trait aggression. Hypothesis 7 proposed that there would be a significant positive direct effect between Fragile Masculinity and Narcissism. Hypothesis 2 proposed that there would be a significant positive direct effect of narcissism on trait aggression. Hypothesis 5 proposed that the relationship between Fragile Masculinity and Trait Aggression will be mediated by Narcissism. Hypothesis 9 proposed that Shame-Proneness would moderate the mediation, specifically by moderating the path between Fragile Masculinity and Narcissism. These hypotheses were tested in a moderated-mediation analysis using Hayes' Process Macro 4.1 for SPSS (Model 7, moderated-mediation) (Hayes, 2022) testing whether Narcissism would significantly explain the increase in Trait Aggression as a result of higher degree of Fragile Masculinity and whether Shame-Proneness would moderate this mediation. The model was analyzed with age, relationship status, and household income as covariates. The model with Total Narcissism as the mediating variable was significant $F(6, 291) = 30.19$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .384$. However, the moderating path, hypothesis 9, was not significant ($b = -.01$, $t(291) = -.992$, $p = .32$, ULCI = .0057, LLCI = -.0172), and the index of moderated mediation was not significant (Index = -.0012, BootSE = .0014, ULCI = .0016, LLCI = -.0040). There was a significant main effect of shame-proneness on narcissism: total narcissism, $b = 2.17$, $t(295) = 4.58$, $p < .001$, ULCI = 1.3791, LLCI = .1667, grandiose narcissism, $b = .71$, $t(295) = 3.79$, $p < .001$, ULCI = 1.0772, LLCI = .3414; vulnerable narcissism, $b = 1.47$, $t(295) = 4.44$, $p < .001$, ULCI = 2.1227, LLCI = .8195; entitlement rage, $b = .25$, $t(295) = 2.48$, $p < .05$, ULCI = .4492, LLCI = .0519. Contrary to predictions, however, there was no significant moderation of Shame-Proneness for any of the mediators including, Total Narcissism, Vulnerable Narcissism,

Grandiose Narcissism and the Entitlement Rage subscale of the PNI. It is interesting to note that for lower levels of Shame-Proneness, the Shame Induction caused Narcissism to have a larger effect on Trait Aggression for participants in the shame condition. Lower Shame-Proneness (b = .11, CI [.0686, .1624]) vs higher Shame-Proneness (b = .09, CI [.0360, .1496]).

Hypotheses 1, 7, 2, and 5 proposed that narcissism would mediate the relationship between fragile masculinity and trait aggression. Due to finding no significant moderation in the moderated-mediation analysis, a trimmed model was analyzed, removing the moderator, resulting in a simple mediation model. Hypotheses 1, 7, 2 and 5 were tested again with the aim of conducting a more parsimonious analysis (see *Figure 10*). The hypotheses were tested in a mediation analysis using Hayes' Process Macro 4.1 for SPSS (Model 4, simple mediation) (Hayes, 2022) testing whether Total Narcissism, Vulnerable Narcissism, Grandiose Narcissism, or Entitlement Rage would explain the increase in Trait Aggression as a result of higher degree of Fragile Masculinity. Bootstrapping was employed, with 5000 bootstrap samples used. Age and relationship status were covariates.

Results of analyzing Total Narcissism as a mediator indicated that hypothesis 5 was supported as there was a positive indirect effect between degree of Fragile Masculinity and Trait aggression when Narcissism is included in the model – the model is significant. $F(5, 293) = 33.84$, $p < .001$, with an $R^2 = .37$, indicating that the model accounted for 36.6 percent of the variance in Trait Aggression. All paths were significant (see *Figure 10*, Table 18), including hypothesized indirect or mediating effect, which was

Figure 10
Mediation Model Total Narcissism -> Trait Aggression



Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .14 CI: [.0938, .1964], *n* = 301.

Table 18

Path Coefficients: Mediation Models For Trait Aggression (N = 301)

	Mediator							
	Total Narcissism		Vulnerability Factor		Grandiosity Factor		Entitlement Rage	
Effect	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.
Fragile Masculinity (x) to Narcissism (M)	.69***	.41***	.53***	.43***	.17***	.29***	.13***	.40***
Narcissism (M) to Trait Aggression (y)	.21***	.51***	.31***	.55***	.39***	.33***	1.09***	.51***
indirect effect (ab)	.14 CI [.0938, .1964]	.21 CI [.1424, .2804]	.16 CI [.1106, .2170]	.24 CI [.1676, .3129]	.06 CI [.0314, .1020]	.09 CI [.0476, .1447]	.14 CI [.0919, .1911]	.20 CI [.1392, .2708]
direct c'	.09**	.14**	.07*	.11*	.17***	.25***	.10**	.40**
total c	.24***	.35***	.24***	.35***	.24***	.35***	.24***	.35***

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

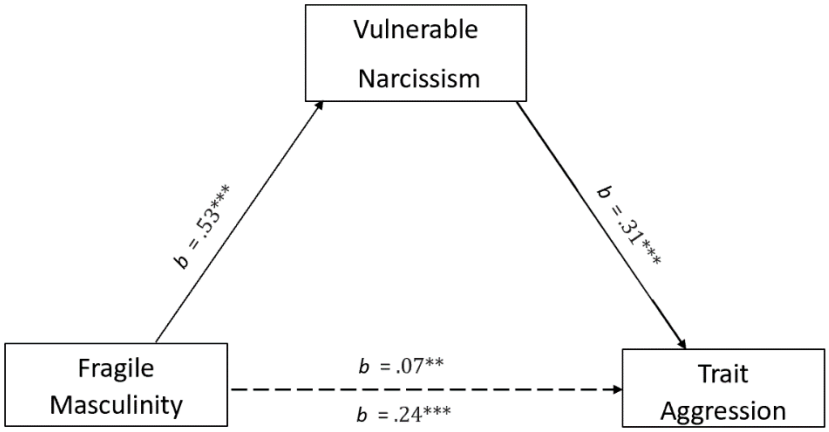
St. = Standardized, Unst. = Unstandardized, Est. = Estimate

.14 and statistically significant CI [.0938, .1964]. The Completely standardized indirect effect size is .21 which means that for every SD increase in Fragile Masculinity there is a .21 SD increase in Trait Aggression as an indirect effect of Total Narcissism CI [.1424, .2804]. The main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Trait Aggression was tested in Hypothesis 1, and the total effect was significant (b = .24, $t(294) = 6.47$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .3089, LLCI = .1648), and the direct effect was significant (b = .09, $t(293) = 2.64$, $p <$ .01, ULCI = .1634, LLCI = .0238). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Narcissism (b = .69, $t(294) = 8.07$, $p <$ .001, ULCI = .8612, LLCI = .5233). Standardized coefficient indicated that for every 1 SD increase in Fragile Masculinity, Narcissism scores increased by .41 SD. Hypothesis 2 was supported and there was a significant association between Narcissism and Trait Aggression (b = .21, $t(293) = 9.49$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .2499, LLCI = .1640).

The same analysis was conducted three additional times (see Table 18), with the narcissism mediator measured with the vulnerable narcissism factor of the PNI, the grandiose narcissism factor or the entitlement rage subscale.

For the analysis utilizing the vulnerable narcissism factor as the mediator (covarying age, relationship status and household income), hypothesis 5 was supported and there was a positive indirect effect between the degree of Fragile Masculinity and Trait aggression when Vulnerable Narcissism is included in the model – the model is significant. $F(5, 293) = 36.89$, $p < .001$, with an $R^2 = .386$, indicating that model accounted for 38.6 percent of the variance in Trait Aggression. All paths were significant (see *Figure 11*, Table 18), including hypothesized indirect or mediating effect, which was .16 and statistically significant CI [.1106, .2170]. The Completely standardized indirect

Figure 11
Mediation Model Vulnerable Narcissism -> Trait Aggression

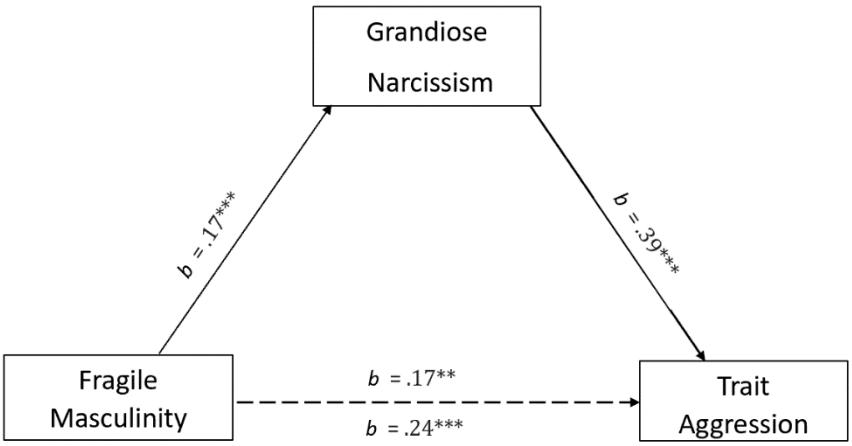


Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .16 CI [.1106, .2170], *n* = 301.

effect size is .24 which means that for every SD increase in Fragile Masculinity there is a .24 SD increase in Trait Aggression as an indirect effect of Vulnerable Narcissism, CI [.1676, .3129]. The main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Trait Aggression was tested in Hypothesis 1, and the total effect was significant (b = .24, $t(294) = 6.47$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .3089, LLCI = .1648), and the direct effect was significant (b = .07, $t(293) = 2.11$, $p <$ .05, ULCI = .1444, LLCI = .0051). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Vulnerable Narcissism (b = .53, $t(294) =$ 8.69, $p < .001$, ULCI = .6440, LLCI = .4161). Standardized coefficient indicated that for every 1 SD increase in Fragile Masculinity, Vulnerable Narcissism scores increased by .43 SD. Hypothesis 2 was supported and there was a significant association between Vulnerable Narcissism and Trait Aggression (b = .31, $t(293) = 36.89$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .3687, LLCI = .2488).

For the model utilizing the Grandiosity factor of the PNI as the mediator, results indicated that Hypothesis 5 was supported and there was a positive indirect effect between the degree of Fragile Masculinity and Trait aggression when Grandiose Narcissism is included in the model – the model is significant. $F(4, 296) = 26.85$, $p <$ .001, with an R^2 = .266, indicating that the model accounted for 26.6 percent of the variance in Trait Aggression. All paths were significant (see *Figure 12*, Table 18), including hypothesized indirect or mediating effect, which was .06 and statistically significant, CI [.0314, .1020]. The Completely standardized indirect effect size is .09 which means that for every SD increase in Fragile Masculinity there is a .09 SD increase in Trait Aggression as an indirect effect of Grandiose Narcissism, CI [.0476, .1447]. The main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Trait Aggression was tested in Hypothesis 1, and

Figure 12
Mediation Model Grandiose Narcissism -> Trait Aggression

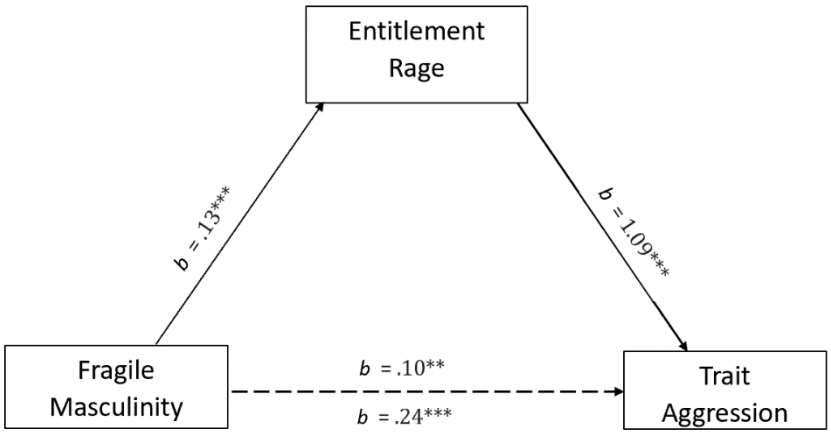


Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .06 CI [.0314, .1020], *n* = 301.

the total effect was significant (*b* = .24, *t*(297) = 6.52, *p* < .001, ULCI = .3080, LLCI = .1653), and the direct effect was significant (*b* = .17, *t*(297) = 6.52, *p* < .001, ULCI = .2426, LLCI = .1020). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Grandiose Narcissism (*b* = .17, *t*(297) = 5.24, *p* < .001, ULCI = .2293, LLCI = .1041). Standardized coefficient indicated that for every 1 SD increase in Fragile Masculinity, Grandiose Narcissism scores increased by .29 SD. Hypothesis 2 was supported and there was a significant association between Grandiose Narcissism and Trait Aggression (*b* = .39, *t*(296) = 6.18, *p* < .001, ULCI = .5084, LLCI = .2630).

For the model analyzing the Entitlement Rage (ER) subscale of the PNI as a mediator, results indicated that Hypothesis 5 was supported and there was a positive indirect effect between the degree of Fragile Masculinity and Trait aggression when Entitlement Rage is included in the model – the model is significant. *F*(4, 296) = 46.79, *p* < .001, with an R^2 = .387, indicating that the model accounted for 38.7 percent of the variance in Trait Aggression. All paths were significant (see *Figure 13*, and Table 18), including hypothesized indirect or mediating effect, which was .14 and statistically significant, CI [.0919, .1911]. The Completely standardized indirect effect size is .20 which means that for every SD increase in Fragile Masculinity there is a .20 SD increase in Trait Aggression as an indirect effect of Entitlement Rage, CI [.1418-.2731]. The main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Trait Aggression was tested in Hypothesis 1, and the total effect was significant (*b* = .24, *t*(297) = 6.52, *p* < .001, ULCI = .3080, LLCI = .1653), and the direct effect was significant (*b* = .10, *t*(296) = 2.88, *p* < .01, ULCI = .1649, LLCI = .0309). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive

Figure 13
Mediation Model Entitlement Rage -> Trait Aggression



Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .14 CI: [.0919, .1911], *n* = 301.

main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Entitlement Rage (b = .13, t(297) = 7.50, p < .001, ULCI = .1614, LLCI = .0942). Standardized coefficient indicated that for every 1 SD increase in Fragile Masculinity, Entitlement Rage scores increased by .40 SD. Hypothesis 2 was supported and there was a significant association between Entitlement Rage and Trait Aggression (b = 1.09, t(296) = 10.22, p < .001, ULCI = 1.2945, LLCI = .8764).

The foregoing models with Trait Aggression as the outcome variable indicated that a greater degree of Fragile Masculinity predicts higher levels of Trait Aggression, and people who report a higher degree of Narcissism are more likely to have greater Trait Aggression. Narcissism partially explains why greater Fragile Masculinity predicts greater Trait Aggression.

Relational Avoidance. Hypotheses 6, 7, 3, 8 and 9. Narcissism mediates the relationship between Fragile Masculinity and Relational Avoidance, and Shame-Proneness would moderate this mediation. Hypothesis 6 proposed that fragile masculinity would positively and significantly predict increase in Relational Avoidance. Hypothesis 7 proposed that there would a significant positive direct effect between Fragile Masculinity and Narcissism. Hypothesis 3 proposed that there will be a significant positive direct effect of Narcissism on Relational Avoidance. Hypothesis 8 proposed that the relationship between Fragile Masculinity and Relational Avoidance will be mediated by Narcissism. Hypothesis 9 proposed that Shame-Proneness would moderate the mediation, specifically by moderating the path between Fragile Masculinity and Narcissism. The hypotheses were tested in a moderated-mediation analysis using Hayes' Process Macro 4.1 for SPSS (Model 7, moderated-mediation) (Hayes, 2022) testing whether Narcissism would explain the increase in Relational Avoidance as a result of higher degree of Fragile

Masculinity and whether Shame-Proneness would moderate this mediation. The model was analyzed with age, partnered and household income as covariates. The model including the moderation with narcissism as the outcome variable was significant $F(6, 292) = 30.25$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .383$. However, the moderated-mediation was not significant ($b = -.01$, $t(292) = -1.02$, $p = .31$, ULCI = .0055, LLCI = -.0173). The index of moderated mediation was not significant (Index = -.0010, BootSE = .0011, ULCI = .0012, LLCI = -.0031). There was a significant main effect of shame-proneness on narcissism: total narcissism, $b = 2.16$, $t(292) = 4.52$, $p < .001$, ULCI = 3.0994, LLCI = 1.2184, grandiose narcissism, $b = .71$, $t(292) = 3.79$, $p < .001$, ULCI = 1.0772, LLCI = .3414; vulnerable narcissism, $b = 1.45$, $t(292) = 4.35$, $p < .001$, ULCI = 2.1050, LLCI = .7942; entitlement rage, $b = .25$, $t(292) = 2.46$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .4511, LLCI = .0499. Contrary to predictions, however, there was no significant moderation of Shame-Proneness for any of the mediators. It is interesting to note that for lower levels of Shame-Proneness, the Shame Induction caused Narcissism to have a larger effect on Avoidance for participants in the shame condition. Lower Shame-Proneness ($b = .09$, CI [.0541, .1328]) vs higher Shame-Proneness ($b = .07$, CI [.0256, .1189]).

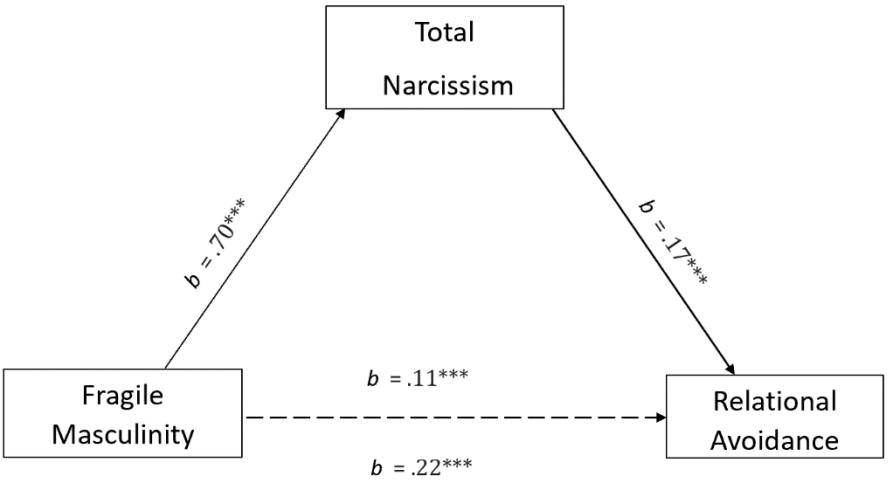
Hypotheses 6, 7, 3, and 8. Narcissism mediates the relationship between Fragile Masculinity and Relational Avoidance. Due to finding no significant moderation in the moderated-mediation analysis, a simple mediation analysis was conducted on hypotheses 6, 7, 3, and 8 with the aim of conducting a more parsimonious analysis. The hypotheses were tested in a mediation analysis using Hayes' Process Macro 4.1 for SPSS (Model 4, simple mediation) (Hayes, 2022) testing whether Narcissism would explain the increase in Relational Avoidance as a result of higher degree of Fragile Masculinity.

Bootstrapping was employed, with 5000 bootstrap samples used. Covariates included age, relationship status and household income.

Results analyzing Total Narcissism as a mediator indicated that hypothesis 8 was supported as there was a positive indirect effect between degree of Fragile Masculinity and Relational Avoidance when Narcissism is included in the model – the model is significant, $F(5, 294) = 42.29$, $p < .001$, with an $R^2 = .418$, indicating that the model accounted for 41.8 percent of the variance in Relational Avoidance. All paths were significant (see *Figure 14* and Table 19), including hypothesized indirect or mediating effect, which was .12 and statistically significant, CI [.0731, .1609]. The Completely standardized indirect effect size is .18 which means that for every SD increase in Fragile Masculinity there is a .18 SD increase in Relational Avoidance as an indirect effect of Narcissism, CI [.1179, .2493]. The main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Relational Avoidance was tested in Hypothesis 6, and the total effect was significant ($b = .22$, $t(295) = 6.99$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .2861, LLCI = .1604), and the direct effect was significant ($b = .11$, $t(294) = 3.42$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .1708, LLCI = .0459). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Narcissism ($b = .70$, $t(295) = 8.11$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .8636, LLCI = .5264). Standardized coefficient indicated that for every 1 SD increase in Fragile Masculinity, Narcissism scores increased by .41 SD. Hypothesis 3 was supported and there was a significant association between Total Narcissism and Relational Avoidance ($b = .17$, $t(294) = 8.47$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .2037, LLCI = .1269).

For the analysis utilizing the Vulnerable Narcissism factor as the mediator, results indicated that hypothesis 8 was supported and there was a positive indirect effect between

Figure 14
Mediation Model Total Narcissism -> Relational Avoidance



Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .12 CI [.0731, .1609], *n* = 300.

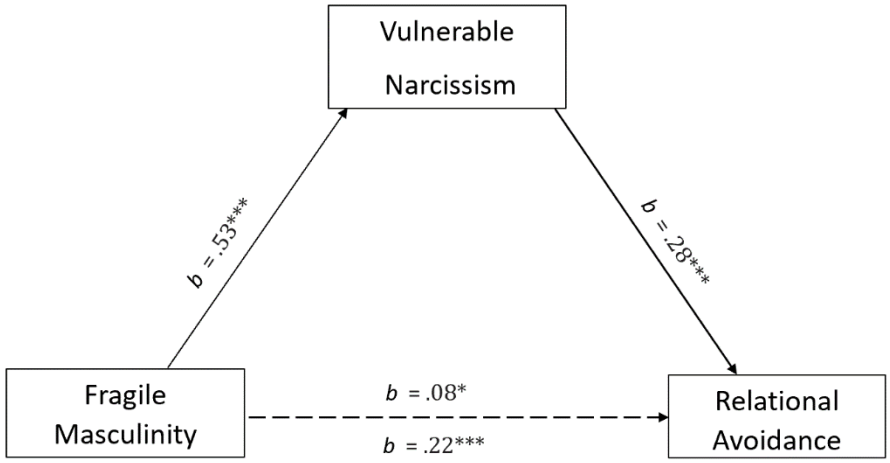
Table 19
Path Coefficients: Mediation Models For Relational Avoidance (N = 300)

	Mediator							
	Total Narcissism		Vulnerability Factor		Grandiosity Factor		Entitlement Rage	
Effect	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.
Fragile Masculinity (x) to Narcissism (M)	.70***	.41***	.53***	.44***	.17***	.29***	.13***	.39***
Narcissism (M) to Relational Avoidance (y)	.17***	.44***	.28***	.53***	.19***	.18***	.81***	.41***
indirect effect (ab)	.12 CI [.0742, .1606]	.18 CI [.1190, .2496]	.15 CI [.1030, .1968]	.23 CI [.1642, .3049]	.03 CI [.0098, .0604]	.05 CI [.0158, .0938]	.1 CI [.0664, .1456]	.16 CI [.1069, .2235]
direct c'	.11***	.17***	.08*	.12*	.19***	.30***	.12***	.18***
total c	.22***	.35***	.22***	.35***	.22***	.35***	.22***	.35***

* = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$
St.= Standardized, Unst.= Unstandardized,
Est.=Estimate

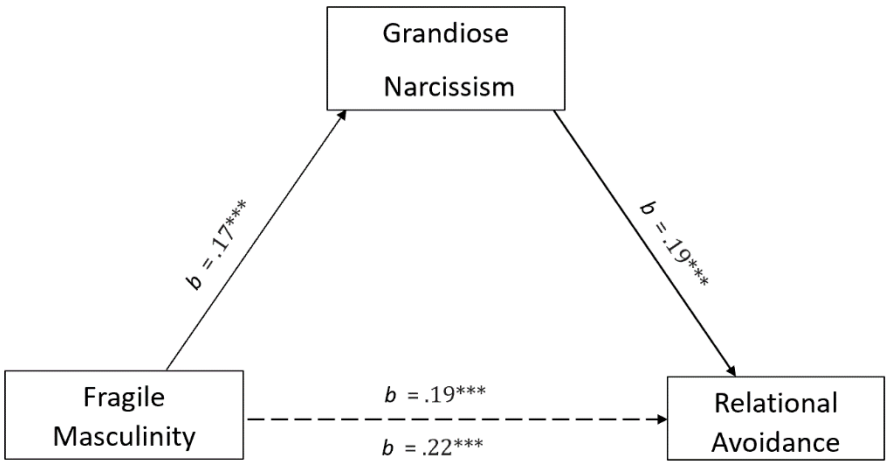
degree of Fragile Masculinity and Relational Avoidance when Narcissism is included in the model – the model is significant, $F(5, 294) = 53.67$, $p < .001$, with an $R^2 = .477$, indicating that the model accounted for 47.7 percent of the variance in Relational Avoidance. All paths were significant (see *Figure 15*, Table 19), including hypothesized indirect or mediating effect, which was .15 and statistically significant CI [.1014, .1971]. The Completely standardized indirect effect size is .23 which means that for every SD increase in Fragile Masculinity there is a .23 SD increase in Relational Avoidance as an indirect effect of Vulnerable Narcissism, CI [.1632, .3049]. The main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Relational Avoidance was tested in Hypothesis 6, and the total effect was significant ($b = .22$, $t(295) = 6.99$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .2861, LLCI = .1604), and the direct effect was significant ($b = .08$, $t(294) = 2.50$, $p < .05$, ULCI = .1362, LLCI = .0161). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Vulnerable Narcissism ($b = .53$, $t(295) = 8.74$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .6457, LLCI = .4083). Standardized coefficient indicated that for every 1 SD increase in Fragile Masculinity, Vulnerable Narcissism scores increased by .44 SD. Hypothesis 3 was supported and there was a significant association between Vulnerable Narcissism and Relational Avoidance ($b = .28$, $t(294) = 10.63$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .3307, LLCI = .2274). For the model utilizing the Grandiosity factor of the PNI as the mediator, hypothesis 8 was supported and there was a positive indirect effect between degree of Fragile Masculinity and Relational Avoidance when Grandiose Narcissism is included in the model – the model is significant. $F(5, 294) = 25.58$, $p < .001$, with an $R^2 = .303$, indicating that the model accounted for 30.3 percent of the variance in Relational Avoidance. All paths were significant (see *Figure 16*, Table 19), including hypothesized

Figure 15
Mediation Model Vulnerable Narcissism -> Relational Avoidance



Note. *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .15 CI [.1014, .1971], *n* = 300.

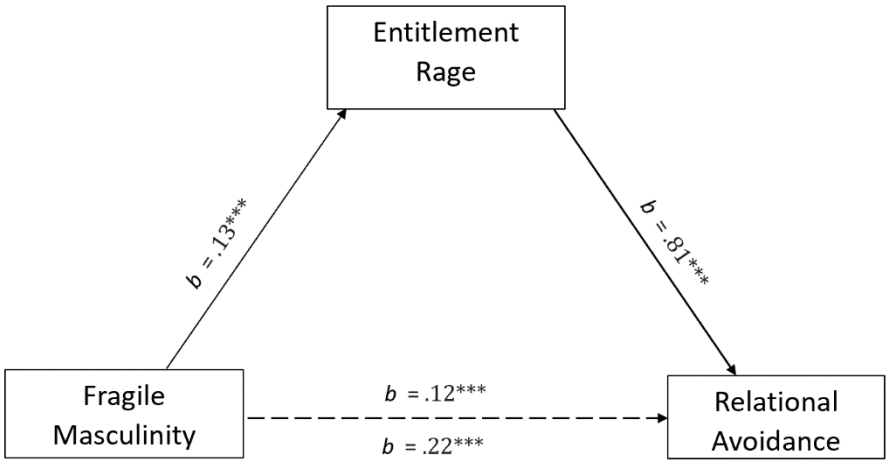
Figure 16
Mediation Model Grandiose Narcissism -> Relational Avoidance



Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .03 CI [.0097, .0608], *n* = 300.

indirect or mediating effect, which was .03 and statistically significant, CI [.0097, .0608]. The Completely standardized indirect effect size is .05 which means that for every SD increase in Fragile Masculinity there is a .05 SD increase in Relational Avoidance as an indirect effect of Grandiose Narcissism, CI [.0154, .0953]. The main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Relational Avoidance was tested in Hypothesis 6, and the total effect was significant (b = .22, $t(295) = 6.99$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .2861, LLCI = .1604), and the direct effect was significant (b = .19, $t(294) = 5.81$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .2554, LLCI = .1261). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Grandiose Narcissism (b = .17, $t(295) = 5.26$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .2308, LLCI = .1051). Standardized coefficient indicated that for every 1 SD increase in Fragile Masculinity, Grandiose Narcissism scores increased by .29 SD. Hypothesis 3 was supported and there was a significant association between Grandiose Narcissism and Relational Avoidance (b = .19, $t(294) = 3.38$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .3061, LLCI = .0808). For the model analyzing the Entitlement Rage (ER) subscale of the PNI as a mediator, hypothesis 8 was supported and there was a positive indirect effect between degree of Fragile Masculinity and Relational Avoidance when Entitlement Rage is included in the model – the model is significant. $F(5, 294) = 41.86$, $p < .001$, with an $R^2 = .416$, indicating that the model accounted for 41.6 percent of the variance in Relational Avoidance. All paths were significant (see *Figure 17*, Table 19), including hypothesized indirect or mediating effect, which was .10 and statistically significant, CI [.0665, .1465]. The Completely standardized indirect effect size is .16 which means that for every SD increase in Fragile Masculinity there is a .16 SD increase in Relational Avoidance as an indirect effect of Entitlement Rage, CI [.1072, .2262]. The main effect of Fragile

Figure 17
Mediation Model Entitlement Rage -> Relational Avoidance



Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .10 CI [.0665, .1465], *n* = 300.

Masculinity on Relational Avoidance was tested in Hypothesis 6, and the total effect was significant (b = .22, t(295) = 6.99, p < .001, ULCI = .2861, LLCI = .1604) and the Completely Standardized effect was .35. The direct effect was also significant (b = .12, t(294) = 3.82, p < .001, ULCI = .1810, LLCI = .0578). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Entitlement Rage (b = .13, t(295) = 7.40, p < .001, ULCI = .1615, LLCI = .0937). Standardized coefficient indicated that for every 1 SD increase in Fragile Masculinity, Entitlement Rage scores increased by .39 SD. Hypothesis 3 was supported and there was a significant association between Entitlement Rage and Relational Avoidance (b = .81, t(294) = 8.39, p < .001, ULCI = 1.005, LLCI = .6628).

These models with Relational Avoidance as the outcome variable indicated that a greater degree of Fragile Masculinity predicts higher levels of Relational Avoidance, and people who report a higher degree of Narcissism are more likely to have greater Relational Avoidance. Narcissism partially explains why greater Fragile Masculinity predicts greater Relational Avoidance.

State Aggression. Hypotheses 10, 7, 4, 9 and 11, and 12. Narcissism mediates the relationship between fragile masculinity and State Aggression, and shame-proneness would moderate this mediation on the path between Fragile Masculinity and Narcissism, and the Shame Induction would moderate this mediation on the path between Narcissism and State Aggression. Hypothesis 10 proposed that Fragile Masculinity would positively and significantly predict increase in State Aggression. Hypothesis 7 proposed that there would a significant positive direct effect between Fragile Masculinity and Narcissism. Hypothesis 4 proposed that there will be a significant positive direct effect of narcissism

on State Aggression. Hypothesis 11 proposed that the relationship between Fragile Masculinity and State Aggression will be mediated by Narcissism. Hypothesis 9 proposed that Shame-Proneness would moderate the mediation, specifically by moderating the path between Fragile Masculinity and Narcissism. Hypothesis 12 proposed that the Shame Induction would moderate the mediation, specifically by moderating the path between Narcissism and State Aggression.

The hypotheses were tested in a moderated-mediation analysis using Hayes' Process Macro 4.1 for SPSS (Model 21, moderated-mediation) (Hayes, 2022) testing whether Narcissism would explain the increase in State Aggression as a result of higher degree of Fragile Masculinity and whether Shame-Proneness and the Shame Induction would moderate this mediation. Bootstrapping was employed, with 5000 bootstrap samples used. This analysis was conducted with the mediators Total Narcissism (Relationship Status and Household Income were covariates), Vulnerable Narcissism factor (Relationship Status and Household Income were covariates), Grandiose Narcissism factor, or the Entitlement Rage subscale. The index of moderated-mediation was not significant with Total Narcissism as the mediator (index = -.0006, CI [-.0026, .0009]), for Vulnerable Narcissism (index = -.0003, CI [-.0019, .0009]), for Grandiose Narcissism (index = -.0014, CI [-.0039, .0007]), or for Entitlement Rage (index = -.0007, CI [-.0038, .0024]). Although, as indicated above, there was a significant main effect of shame-proneness on narcissism, Shame-Proneness did not moderate the path between Fragile Masculinity to Narcissism. It is interesting to note that for lower levels of Shame-Proneness, the Shame Induction caused Narcissism to have a larger effect on State

Aggression for participants in the shame condition. Lower Shame-Proneness (b = .10, CI [.0515, .1666]) vs higher Shame-Proneness (b = .08, CI [.0252, .1417]).

Similarly, while the shame induction (State Shame) did not moderate the mediation (index = -.0006, CI [-.0026, .0009]), it did moderate the path between total narcissism and state aggression (b = .10, $t(292) = 2.04$, $p < .05$, ULCI = .1921, LLCI = .0033), and with the moderator the main effect of total narcissism on state aggression was significant (b = .18, $t(292) = 5.53$, $p < .01$, ULCI = .2488, LLCI = .1182) (see Figure 19). While both groups showed a significant relationship between total narcissism and state aggression, this relationship was significantly more pronounced for the shame group (b = .18, $p < .001$), than for the control group (b = .09 . $p < .05$) (see *Figure 18*).

Hypotheses 10, 7, 4, 11, and 12. Narcissism mediates the relationship between fragile masculinity and State Aggression, and the Shame Induction would moderate this mediation on the path between Narcissism and State Aggression. Due to finding no significant moderation of Shame-Proneness in the moderated-mediation analysis, a more simplified moderated-mediation analysis was conducted (to test only the State Shame in moderating the mediation) on hypotheses 10, 7, 4, 11 and 12 with the aim of conducting a more parsimonious analysis (see *Figure 19*, and Table 20). The hypotheses were tested in a moderated-mediation analysis using Hayes' Process Macro 4.1 for SPSS (Model 14, moderated-mediation) (Hayes, 2022), testing whether Narcissism would explain the increase in State Aggression as a result of higher degree of Fragile Masculinity and whether the Shame Induction would moderate this mediation. This analysis was

Figure 18

Differences Between Shame And Control Condition On the relationship between total narcissism on state aggression.

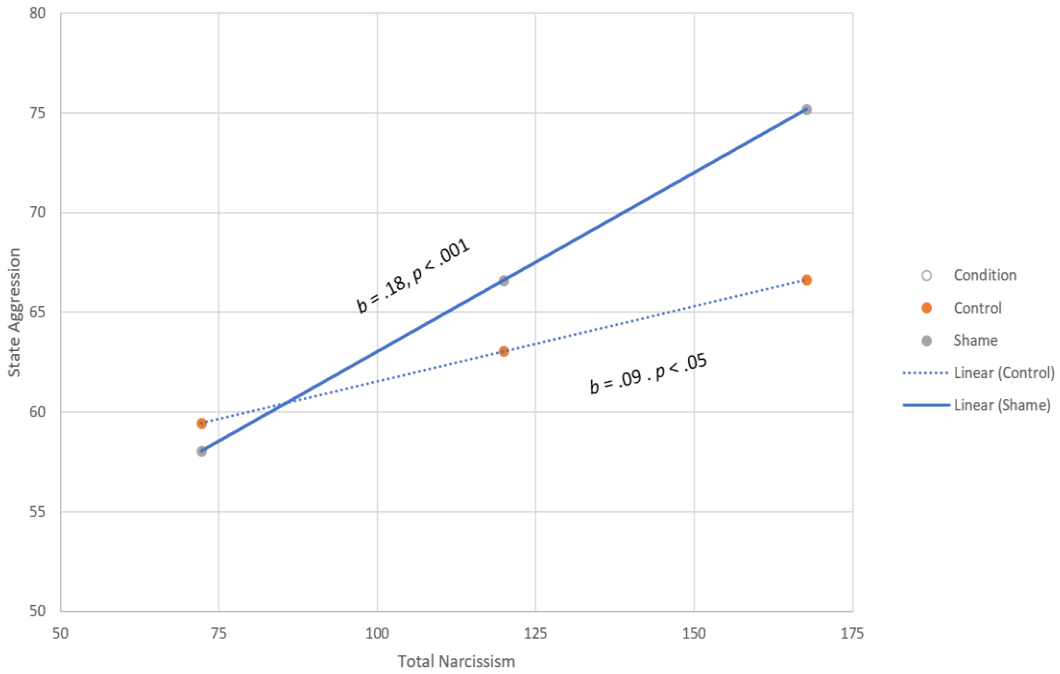
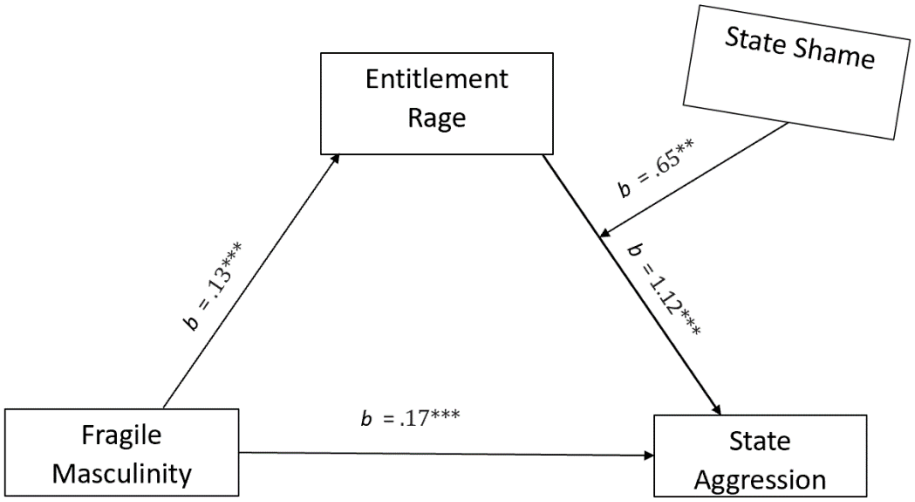


Figure 19

Moderated Mediation Model Entitlement Rage -> State Aggression



Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* =.15, CI [.0842, .2199], *n* = 301.

Table 20

Path coefficients: Moderated-Mediation models for State Aggression

(Model 14 with Shame-Induction moderating the path between Narcissism and State Aggression. (n = 301)

	Mediator			
	Total Narcissism (Moderated-mediation not significant)	Vulnerability Factor (Moderated-mediation not significant)	Grandiosity Factor (Moderated-mediation not significant)	Entitlement Rage (Moderated-mediation significant)
Effect	Unst. Path Estimate	Unst. Path Estimate	Unst. Path Estimate	Unst. Path Estimate
Fragile Masculinity (x) to Narcissism (M)	.73***	.54***	.18***	.13***
Narcissism (M) to State Aggression (y), Moderated by shame condition (W)	.18***	.26***	.37***	1.12***
Narcissism (M) to State Aggression (y), Control condition	.09*	.13*	.14	.47*
indirect effect (ab)	.13 CI [.0703, .2005]	.14 CI [.0765, .2081]	.07 CI [.0245, .1172]	.15 CI [.0842, .2199]
direct c’	.18***	.16***	.22***	.17***
Interaction	.10*	.13	.23	.65**
Index of moderated mediation	.0698, CI [-.0150, .1648]	.0688, CI [-.0163, .1619]	.0410, CI [-.0191, .1167]	.0857, CI [.0033, .1822]

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

St.= Standardized, Unst.= Unstandardized.

conducted utilizing the following as mediators: Total Narcissism (with household income covaried), Vulnerable Narcissism factor (with relationship status and household income covaried), Grandiosity Factor, and the Entitlement Rage subscale. The index of moderated-mediation was not significant for Total Narcissism (index = .0698, CI [-.0150, .1648]). The index of moderated-mediation was not significant for Vulnerable Narcissism, (index = .0688, CI [-.0163, .1619]). The index of moderated mediation was not significant for Grandiose Narcissism (index = .0410, CI [-.0191, .1186]). See below for Entitlement Rage as mediator. In any event, the State-Shame did moderate the path between Narcissism and State Aggression for the shame group: Total Narcissism (b = .18, $t(293) = 5.50$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .2513, LLCI = .1197) versus $b = .08$, $p < .05$ for the control condition, Vulnerable Narcissism, (b = .26, $t(292) = 5.41$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .3508, LLCI = .1638) versus b =.13, $p < .05$ for the control condition, Grandiose Narcissism (b = .37, $t(295) = 3.97$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .5469, LLCI = .1844) versus not significant for the control condition.

For the Entitlement Rage mediation, moderated by State-Shame, the model was significant. $F(4, 296) = 24.85$, $p < .001$, with an $R^2 = .251$, indicating the model accounted for 25.1 percent of the variance in State Aggression. All paths were significant (See Figure 19, Table 21). The index of moderated-mediation was significant (Index = .0857, CI [.0033, .1822]). The indirect effect was significant for the shame group, b = .15, CI [.0842, 2199], while not significant for the control group (b = .06, CI [-.0055, .1320]). The relationship between Fragile Masculinity and State Aggression was significant (b = .17, $t(296) = 3.83$, $p < .001$, ULCI = .2598, LLCI = .0804), the relationship between Fragile Masculinity and Entitlement Rage was significant (b = .13, $t(299) = 7.58$, $p <$

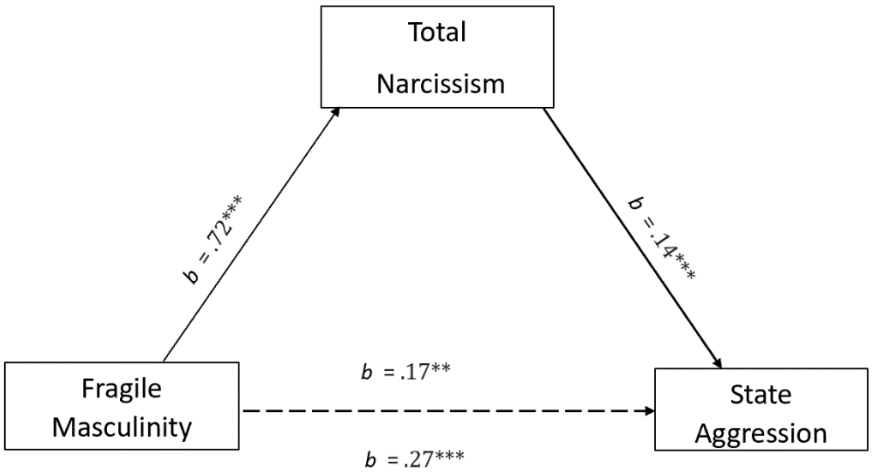
.001, ULCI = .1656, LLCI = .0986). The interaction effect of State Shame was significant (b = .65, t(296) = 2.65, p < .01, ULCI = 1.13, LLCI = .1671). Specifically, for those in the Shame condition the effect of Entitlement Rage on State Aggression (b = 1.12, t(296) = 6.73, p < .001, ULCI = 1.4421, LLCI = .7898) was significantly greater than for those in the control group (b = .47, t(296) = 2.38, p < .05, ULCI = .8530, LLCI = .0809).

Hypothesis 12 was supported and there was a positive indirect effect between degree of Fragile Masculinity and State Aggression when Entitlement Rage is included in the model, and that indirect effect is moderated by State Shame (the shame induction).

Simple Mediation for State Aggression. Since the mediation was not moderated by the shame-induction for Total Narcissism, Vulnerable Narcissism, or Grandiose Narcissism, and potentially for Entitlement Rage (due to high correlation with vulnerable narcissism) as mediators, a simple mediation analysis was conducted using Hayes' Process Macro 4.1 for SPSS (Model 4, Simple mediation) (Hayes, 2022), with Total Narcissism, Grandiose Narcissism, Vulnerable Narcissism, or Entitlement Rage as mediator in order to conduct a more parsimonious analysis. See analysis for each below.

For the model analyzing Total Narcissism as a mediator (covarying relationship status and household income), hypothesis 5 was supported and there was a positive indirect effect between the degree of Fragile Masculinity and State aggression when Total Narcissism is included in the model – the model is significant. F(4, 294) = 19.92, p < .001, with an R^2 = .213, indicating that the model accounted for 21.3 percent of the variance in State Aggression. All paths were significant (see Figure 20, Table 21), including hypothesized indirect or mediating effect, which was .10 and statistically

Figure 20
Mediation Model Total Narcissism -> State Aggression



Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .10 CI [.0518, .1526], *n* = 301.

Table 21
Path coefficients: Mediation models for State Aggression (n = 301)

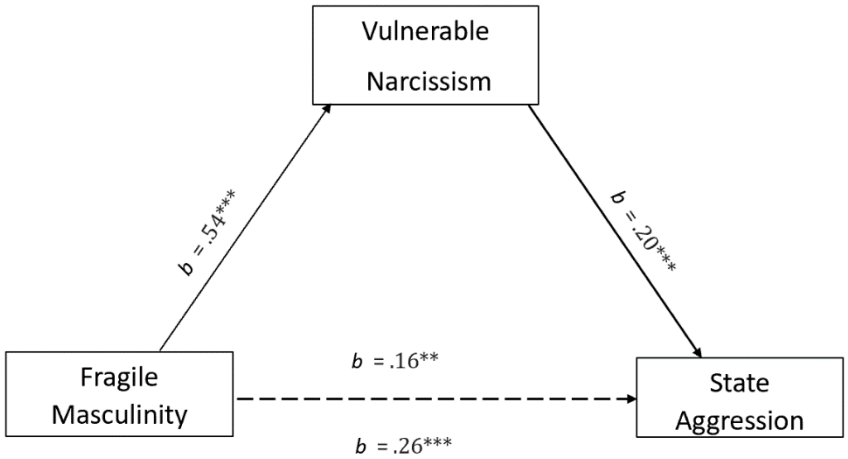
	Mediator							
	Total Narcissism		Vulnerability Factor		Grandiosity Factor		Entitlement Rage	
Effect	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.	Unst. Path Est.	St. Path Est.
Fragile Masculinity (x) to Narcissism (M)	.72***	.43***	.54***	.45***	.18***	.30***	.13***	.41***
Narcissism (M) to State Aggression (y)	.14***	.30***	.20***	.31***	.28***	.21***	.86***	.36***
indirect effect (ab)	.10 CI [.0518, .1526]	.13 CI [.0693, .1912]	.11 CI [.0587, .1666]	.14 CI [.0784, .2091]	.05 CI [.0195, .0846]	.06 CI [.0255, .1066]	.11 CI [.0630, .1677]	.14 CI [.0833, .2095]
direct c'	.17***	.23***	.16***	.21***	.22***	.29***	.16***	.21***
total c	.27***	.35***	.27***	.35***	.27***	.35***	.27***	.35***

* = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$, *** = $p < .001$
St. = Standardized, Unst. = standardized

significant, CI [.0518, .1526]. The main effect of Fragile Masculinity on State Aggression was tested in Hypothesis 10, and the total effect was significant (b = .27, t(295) = 6.49, p < .001, ULCI = .3564, LLCI = . 1905), and the direct effect was significant (b = .17, t(294) = 3.91, p < .001, ULCI = .0869, LLCI = .2629). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Narcissism (b = .72, t(299) = 8.12, p < .001, ULCI = .8925, LLCI = .5443). Hypothesis 4 was supported as there was a significant association between Total Narcissism and State Aggression (b = .14, t(294) = 5.16, p < .001, ULCI = .1896, LLCI = .0849).

For the model analyzing Vulnerable Narcissism as a mediator (covarying relationship status and household income), hypothesis 5 was supported and there was a positive indirect effect between the degree of Fragile Masculinity and State Aggression when Vulnerable Narcissism is included in the model – the model is significant, F(4, 294) = 20.34, p < .001, with an R^2 = .217 indicating that the model accounted for 21.7 percent of the variance in State Aggression. All paths were significant (see Figure 21, Table 21), including hypothesized indirect or mediating effect, which was .11 CI [.0587, .1666], with a standardized effect of .14 and statistically significant CI [.0784, .2091]. The main effect of Fragile Masculinity on State Aggression was tested in Hypothesis 10, and the total effect was significant (b = .26, t(295) = 6.49, p < .001, ULCI = .3564, LLCI = .1905), and the direct effect was significant (b = .16, t(294) = 3.64, p < .001, ULCI = .2539, LLCI = .0758). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Vulnerable Narcissism (b = .54, t(295) = 8.73, p < .001, ULCI = .6652, LLCI = .4204). Hypothesis 4 was supported as there was a

Figure 21
Mediation Model Vulnerable Narcissism -> State Aggression

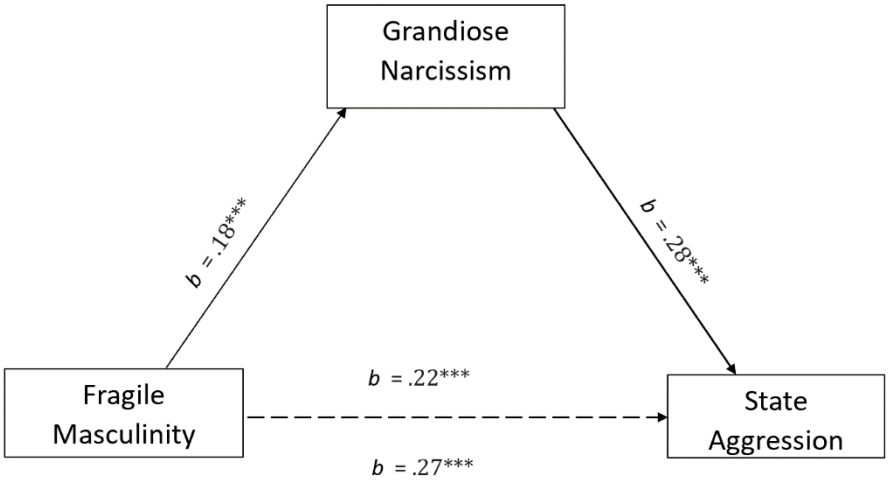


Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .11 CI [.0587, .1666], *n* = 301.

significant association between Vulnerable Narcissism and State Aggression (b = .20, t(294) = 5.30, p < .001, ULCI = .2744, LLCI = .1258). For the model analyzing Grandiose Narcissism as a mediator, hypothesis 5 was supported and there was a positive indirect effect between the degree of Fragile Masculinity and State Aggression when Grandiose Narcissism is included in the model. The model was significant, F(4, 294) = 16.44, p < .001, with an R^2 = .183, indicating that the model accounted for 18.3 percent of the variance in State Aggression. All paths were significant (see Figure 22, Table 21), including hypothesized indirect or mediating effect, which was .05 and statistically significant CI [. 0195, 0846]). Completely standardized indirect effect was .06, CI [.0255, .1066] The main effect of Fragile Masculinity on State Aggression was tested in Hypothesis 10, and the total effect was significant (b = .27, t(295) = 6.49, p < .001, ULCI = .3564, LLCI = .1905), and the direct effect was significant (b = .22, t(294) = 5.19, p < .001, ULCI = .4260, LLCI = .1370). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Grandiose Narcissism (b = .18, t(295) = 5.37, p < .001, ULCI = .2398, LLCI = .1113). Hypothesis 4 was supported as there was a significant association between Grandiose Narcissism and State Aggression (b = .28, t(294) = 3.83, p < .001, ULCI = .4260, LLCI = .1370).

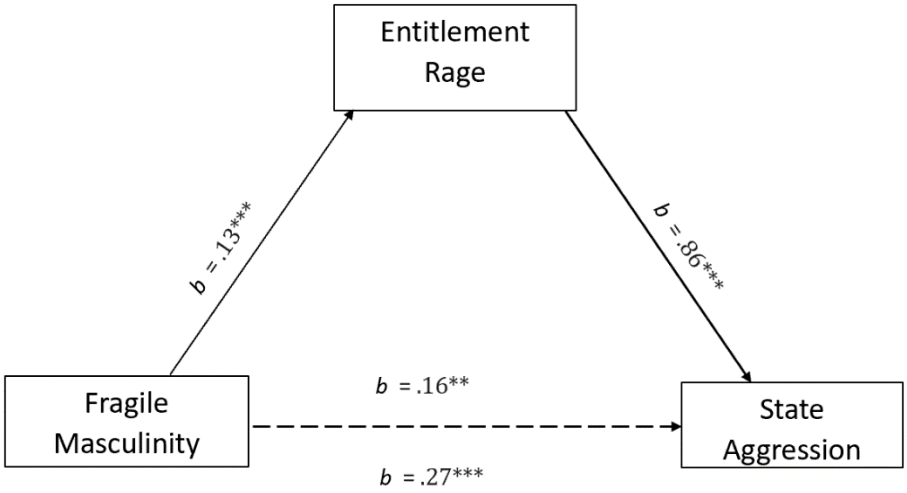
For the model analyzing Entitlement Rage as a mediator, hypothesis 5 was supported and there was a positive indirect effect between the degree of Fragile Masculinity and State aggression when Entitlement Rage is included in the model – the model is significant. F(4, 294) = 24.35, p < .001, with an R^2 = .249 indicating that Entitlement Rage accounted for 24.9 percent of the variance in State Aggression. All

Figure 22
Mediation Model Grandiose Narcissism -> State Aggression



Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .05 CI [.0195, .0846], *n* = 301.

Figure 23
Mediation Model Entitlement Rage -> State Aggression



Notes: *b* = coefficient; * = $p < .05$; ** = $p < .01$; *** = $p < .001$; -- = absence of direct effect. (Values above the dashed arrow refer to the direct effect of the independent variable on the dependent variable. Values below the arrow refer to the total effect. a*b (indirect effect via mediator): *b* = .11 CI [.0630, .1677], *n* = 301.

paths were significant (see Figure 23, Table 21), including hypothesized indirect or mediating effect, which was .11 and statistically significant CI [.0630, .1677]. The main effect of Fragile Masculinity on State Aggression was tested in Hypothesis 10, and the total effect was significant (b = .27, t(295) = 6.49, p < .001, ULCI = .3564, LLCI = .1905), and the direct effect was significant (b = .16, t(294) = 3.77, p < .001, ULCI = .2471, LLCI = .0775). Hypothesis 7 was supported as there was a significant positive main effect of Fragile Masculinity on Entitlement Rage (b = .13, t(295) = 7.47, p < .001, ULCI = .1637, LLCI = .0955). Hypothesis 4 was supported as there was a significant association between Entitlement Rage and State Aggression (b = .86, t(294) = 6.46, p < .001, ULCI = 1.12, LLCI = .5968).

The models with State Aggression as the outcome variable indicated that a greater degree of Fragile Masculinity predicts greater State Aggression, and people who report a higher degree of narcissism are more likely to report greater state aggression. Narcissism partially explains why greater Fragile Masculinity predicts greater state aggression.

Summary

This results section analyzed moderated-mediation models and simple mediation models for three different outcome variables: Trait Aggression, Relational Avoidance, and State Aggression. Each of these three outcome variables were further subdivided into four sub-models, depending on which of the following mediators were analyzed, representing the different facets of Narcissism: the PNI Total Narcissism, Vulnerable Narcissism, Grandiose Narcissism, and Entitlement Rage scores.

The twelve hypotheses tested included the following models for three distinct outcome variables: one overall model for trait aggression as the outcome variable

including Shame-Proneness as a moderator, one overall model for Avoidance as the outcome variable including Shame-Proneness as a moderator, and one overall model for State Aggression as the outcome variable, including two moderators, Shame-Proneness and State-Shame. Additionally, there were three distinct models hypothesized as simple mediations for the three outcome variables.

The overall mediation models hypothesized for the Trait Aggression and Avoidance outcome variables were significant, which indicated that greater Fragile Masculinity predicted greater Trait Aggression and greater Avoidance and all four facets of Narcissism mediated these relationships. However, Shame-Proneness did not moderate these mediations, contrary to predictions.

The overall model hypothesized for the state aggression outcome variable predicted that greater Fragile Masculinity would result in greater State Aggression, mediated by Narcissism, which would be moderated by Shame-Proneness, on the path between Fragile Masculinity and Narcissism, and moderated by State-Shame on the path between Narcissism and State Aggression. The results indicated that the simple mediations were significant, as there was a significant effect of Fragile Masculinity on State Aggression and all four facets of Narcissism mediated this relationship. However, the mediation was not moderated by Shame-Proneness. Further the mediation was moderated by State-Shame only for Entitlement Rage as a mediator. For the models analyzing PNI Total Narcissism, Vulnerable Narcissism, or Grandiose Narcissism as mediators, there was no moderation by State-Shame. See Table 22 below for a summary of the variable relationships.

Table 22

Summary of Relationships Among Model Variables

	Outcome variables			**Mediating Variables**			
	Trait Agg.	Relational Avd.	State Agg.	Total Narcissism	Grandiose Narcissism	Vulnerable Narcissism	Entitlement Rage
Independent Variables							
Fragile Masculinity	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Shame Proneness	--	--	--	-✓	-✓	-✓	-✓
Fragile Masculinity x Shame Proneness	--	--	--	×	×	×	×
Total Narcissism	✓	✓	✓	--	--	--	--
Grandiose Narcissim	✓	✓	✓	--	--	--	--
Vulnerable Narcissism	✓	✓	✓	--	--	--	--
Entitlement Rage	✓	✓	✓	--	--	--	--
State Shame (Moderator)	--	--	-×	--	--	--	--
Narcissism x State-Shame	--	--	×	×	×	×	✓

Note. Unless otherwise noted as a moderation a checkmark in a column indicates a significant main effect. Shame-proneness did not moderate any of the relationships. State shame moderated the relationship between narcissism and state aggression but only for the entitlement rage subscale of narcissism.

Legend:

✓ = hypothesized and significant

× = hypothesized and not significant

-✓ = not hypothesized but significant main effect

-× = not hypothesized and no significant main effect

-- = not tested

Chapter VI

Discussion

This chapter will review the purpose of the present study, its findings, limitations, and suggestions for further research. The purpose of the study and the rationale for the variables chosen, including fragile masculinity, narcissism, shame-proneness, trait aggression, state aggression and state-shame, are discussed. This discussion will include the theoretical basis for the study as well as the design and results. The review of the findings will analyze how the results fit with the hypothesized relationships among fragile masculinity, trait aggression, avoidance, and state aggression, how these relationships could be explained by narcissism, and the interaction of shame with these variables. The results will also discuss the impact of covariates such as relationship status and household income. Finally, the discussion will contain interpretations of these results and potential clinical implications.

Purpose of Project

Men are disproportionately overrepresented among both perpetrators and victims of violent crime (Hong, 2000), and there has been an alarming rise in mass shootings in the United States perpetrated by men (Scaptura, 2019). Literature on masculinity suggests the construct of fragile masculinity may contribute to this cycle of aggression (Kimmel, 2017). There is further evidence that aggressive acts may be shame based (Gebhard, 2018) and theoretically, narcissism, serving as a mask for shame, should also be connected (Mitchell, 1986). The aim of the current study was to better understand what accounts for gratuitous aggressive acts perpetrated by men and to demonstrate how

narcissism and shame explain and interact with the relationship between fragile masculinity and aggression as well as avoidance.

Fragile masculinity has been posited as an important factor in the perpetration of aggression by men (Joseph, 2012). When the status of "manhood" is put to question, such as when men become emotionally activated, the individual who has adopted stereotypical requirements of manhood, such as quelling negative and vulnerable affect, may begin to feel inadequate (Bosson, 2009). The subsequent need to enact an invincible role belies the existential complexity of each individual encompassing both strengths and weaknesses. The perceived need to reject experiences that are traditionally held to be feminine, in order to perform masculinity, can be stressful, frustrating, upsetting, and fatiguing (Diamond, 2006). This struggle increases men's vulnerability to avoidance and isolation, or dysregulated emotional reactions such as irritability and anger: self-states that are more acceptable for men to experience and enact (Blazina, 2001).

Although one aim of this study was to replicate previous research which has found associations between masculine gender role stress and aggression or avoidance (Bosson, 2011; Shumka, 2017; Scaptura, 2019 & Reidy ,2014), understanding what might explain this connection was an additional question that this study sought to answer. It was thus hypothesized that narcissism would have an indirect effect on the relationship between fragile masculinity and aggression or avoidance.

Previous research has indicated that precursors to narcissism such as shame and low self-concept are related to gender role stress (Addleston, 1995). Fragile masculinity was found to be associated with shame-proneness, which is also associated with narcissism (Efthim, 2001) as well as aggression (Tangney, 1992, Gebhard, 2018). Men

who inflict violence against partners exhibit higher narcissism, especially when faced with a wound to their sense of entitlement (Welch, 1997, Hamberger, 1990). Other research demonstrated that those who scored high on narcissism exhibit more aggression but only after they have been shamed (Thomaes, 2008). Shame begets shame, reflecting heightened vulnerability, which is counter to masculine ideals, leading those with fragile masculinity to resort to narcissistic defenses.

The role of narcissism in the connection between fragile masculinity and aggression has not been sufficiently explored in the literature, despite theoretical arguments that entitlement may be a core characteristic of those with fragile masculinity who foment or commit acts of aggression (e.g., Kimmel, 2017 and Kalish, 2010). Vulnerable narcissism, including entitlement rage, employs disavowal of needs, alternating conscious experience of vulnerability and helplessness with omnipotence (Cain, 2008). In any definition of narcissism, entitlement is a key concept as it leads an individual to feel he has a right without doubt to fulfill each of his desires. To date, no quantitative studies have attempted to link narcissism and entitlement as an explanation for the association between fragile masculinity and aggression.

Linking fragile masculinity and relational avoidance was another aim of this study. Many notoriously grievous acts of aggression and recent shootings have been perpetrated by men who identify themselves as part of the incel ("involuntary celibate") movement, many of whom express gender role stress (Scaptura, 2019). They have claimed that changes in society and the socialization of girls and women to expect to mate with those who are highly masculine leads to their isolation and celibacy, which they use as a justification for their revolutionary ideology and violent actions (Kimmel,

2017). While “incels” argue that their celibacy is externally imposed upon them, this part of the study was inspired by the idea that attachment style may be associated with fragile masculinity, such that those with fragile masculinity would endorse relational avoidance which contributes to difficulty finding and retaining mates (Elison, 2006) regardless of externally imposed factors. Both fragile masculinity and avoidance are associated with increased shame (Elison 2006), which is associated with narcissism (Tangney, 1992). Narcissism is, in turn, associated with avoidance as a method of managing humiliation (Besser, 2010). While these studies link gender role stress with struggles with intimacy and relational avoidance (O’Neil, 2008), this study aimed to understand the explanatory factor of narcissism in the connection between fragile masculinity and avoidance.

This study also attempted to empirically demonstrate the interaction of shame-proneness on the relationship between fragile masculinity and narcissism. There have been studies demonstrating the association between shame-proneness and narcissism (e.g., Tangney, 1992), but no studies analyzed shame-proneness as a moderator between fragile masculinity and narcissism.

Finally, state-shame was analyzed as a condition that influenced the magnitude of the relationships between narcissism and state-aggression, based on the hypothesis that state-shame would influence levels of state-aggression. There have been no experimental studies exploring the interaction of state shame on the relationship between narcissism and state aggression, in the context of fragile masculinity. For this reason, the current study utilized an experimental procedure, which induced shame in participants in order to examine whether increased state-shame would be a condition for increased state aggression in those who endorsed narcissism.

The factors that lead an individual who experiences gender role stress (fragile masculinity) to perpetrate annihilation of others and/or self is a crucial clinical question. Further, even when not taken to the extremes, expressions of traditional but fragile masculinity may lead some men to self-harm and self-isolate, among other factors impacting their general state of health (Eisler, 1988). Evidence that fragile masculinity is associated with support for socially regressive policies and war (DiMuccio, 2020) is another reason to explore the explanatory factors and interactions, such as narcissism and shame, in the connection between fragile masculinity and aggression or avoidance. It is imperative that we better understand the clinical manifestations of fragile masculinity in order to determine etiology, prevention, and treatments to prevent further societal harm.

Summary and Explanation of Key Findings

The results of this study indicated some important themes throughout each of the models analyzed. Fragile masculinity was shown to be significantly associated with trait aggression, relational avoidance, and state aggression. Further, narcissism mediated these relationships across all models. Shame proneness did not significantly interact with the relationship between fragile masculinity and narcissism or with the entirety of each of the models including aggression, avoidance, or state aggression as outcome variables. State-shame, however, was a condition for the magnitude of the effect between narcissism and state-aggression but only for the entitlement rage dimension of narcissism. The following subsections present the findings for each of the hypothesized outcome variables.

Trait Aggression. The hypothesis that fragile masculinity would be associated with trait aggression was supported. The results indicated that those who endorsed high fragile masculinity also endorsed higher levels of trait aggression. Further, the connection

between fragile masculinity and trait aggression was explained by narcissism. When narcissism is introduced into the analysis, the effect of fragile masculinity on trait aggression is reduced, indicating that this connection is indirectly explained by narcissism. While all four measures of narcissism (total, grandiose, vulnerable, and entitlement rage) were significant mediators, vulnerable narcissism appeared to have the strongest impact on the relationship between fragile masculinity and trait aggression as compared to the other measures of narcissism. As predicted, narcissism explained some of the variability in trait aggression indicating that the self-centeredness of narcissism indirectly influences the connection between fragile masculinity and trait aggression. This is an important finding to further our knowledge of the sequelae of fragile masculinity. Although keeping in mind the correlative nature of the study, the results of the mediation analyses imply that treatment of such individuals should focus on the form of their narcissism (vulnerable, entitled or grandiose) and by extension the function of that narcissism such as covering up feelings of inadequacy.

Avoidance. Similarly, the hypothesized association of fragile masculinity, narcissism and avoidance were borne out by the results. Those who endorsed higher fragile masculinity endorsed both greater relational avoidance and higher narcissistic traits. Narcissism explained the association between fragile masculinity and relational avoidance. These results support the hypotheses and confirm the theoretical and empirical literature indicating that difficulty adhering to traditional masculinity mandates contributes to struggles in interpersonal relationships for men (see Land, 2011 and O'Neil, 2008). While this study does not delve more deeply into the motivations for avoidance, the fact that narcissism plays a significant role in the relationship between

fragile masculinity and avoidance implies, as Blazina (2004) argued, that emotional wounds in the context of hegemonic masculinity may lead to a defensive need to be overly self-reliant and devalue the need for connectedness. We must be careful not to assume causation, as this aspect of the study was not an experimental design. It is possible that the inverse is true: avoidance related to attachment insecurity may cause increased adherence to traditional male norms such as valuing independence, which may, therefore, lead to fragile masculinity when those norms are violated. What is clear, however, is that there is an association between fragile masculinity and avoidance and this association can be explained by narcissism.

The results showing that narcissism explained the connection between fragile masculinity and avoidance supports findings in other studies that have indicated fragile masculinity is positively associated with increase in shame, a precursor to narcissism (Elison, 2006), and that covert narcissism is associated with avoidance (Smolewska, 2005). In this study, vulnerable narcissism also had a greater effect size on relational avoidance than the other measures of narcissism.

It is interesting to note that, while significant, the impact of grandiose narcissism in the relationship between fragile masculinity and avoidance was relatively small compared to the other measures of narcissism. This may relate to the notion that grandiose narcissism seeks narcissistic supply from others, exhibiting a need to approach others as opposed to avoid. Sometimes, this may rise to an erotic and seductive orientation that invites another's adulation, thereby building up the narcissist's sense of self-worth through, among other things, sexual exploits. This is contrasted with the

vulnerable or compensatory narcissist who is painfully aware of his inner emptiness and seeks to avoid interactions instead (Cain, 2008).

While some in the incel community with fragile masculinity may externalize and blame their lack of a relationship with sexual mates on societal change yielding more power to women, or masculine norms which they fail to live up to, the evidence in this study indicates that there may be an internal mechanism of avoidance within individuals with fragile masculinity. Intimate relationships may be too threatening for them. They may find it is less threatening to externalize their difficulty obtaining or retaining intimate partners, such as blaming the existence of others who are more masculine, rather than looking inward at their own sense of fragility and difficulties with narcissistic threats inherent in relating to another. The results of this study provide a path between fragile masculinity, narcissism and avoidance. Clinically, these findings may support diagnosis and treatment of both narcissism and relational avoidance in those men who identify as incel or endorse similar ideological stances, focusing on developing a stronger sense of self, such that they can gain the capacity to look at inner characteristics for their social problems, and thereby gain agency over their decisions.

Shame-Proneness. It was hypothesized that, while narcissism would explain the positive relationship between fragile masculinity and the outcome variables (trait aggression, avoidance, or state aggression), shame-proneness would increase the magnitude of these relationships. However, contrary to this prediction, shame-proneness was not a relevant construct in any of the models analyzing the connection between fragile masculinity and the outcome variables, mediated by narcissism. When looking at just the connection between fragile masculinity and narcissism, the path on which shame-

proneness was hypothesized to have the most moderating influence, shame-proneness did not have a conditional impact.

These were unexpected findings given that in previous research shame-proneness was found to be associated with gender role distress (Efthim, 2001). Post-hoc analysis indicated that there was a significant relationship between shame-proneness and narcissism, but shame-proneness did not moderate the relationship. This means that when analyzing the impact of fragile masculinity on narcissism, an individual's proneness to having feelings of shame is not a significant factor.

This result was surprising as the relationship between shame-proneness and fragile masculinity (Efthim, 2001), as well as narcissism (Uji, 2012) is theoretically and empirically supported. One explanation for this unexpected finding is that the TOSCA, which was used to measure shame-proneness, may not have been sensitive enough for this sample, which endorsed high levels of narcissism. Uji (2012), who also used the TOSCA to measure shame-proneness, had difficulty demonstrating that narcissistic individuals have increased implicit shame and, even more, certain levels of narcissism showed an inverse relationship with shame-proneness. They theorized that when narcissistic defenses are available, the narcissistic individual is unable to access shame feelings. Similarly, it may make sense that the individuals in this study could not access and report feelings of shame-proneness, as they may have been bypassed, even though they exist implicitly (Lewis, 1971).

Another potential explanation for the unexpected findings that shame-proneness did not moderate the path between fragile masculinity and narcissism may relate to the fact that participants responded to the gender role stress measure prior to responding to

the TOSCA. Schoenleber (2012b) demonstrated that forecasting high shame scenarios, has the effect of predicting and preparing for shame before it happens, and may prompt the use of emotion regulation strategies such as narcissism to mitigate shame, reducing the participant's likelihood of both experiencing and reporting shame (Peters, 2016). The gender role stress measure, which involves prompts such as "you're not making enough money," "finding you lack the skills to succeed," or "losing a sports competition" may have forecasted feelings of shame prior to participants responding to the scenarios in the TOSCA.

Narcissism. Fragile masculinity was significantly related to narcissism. Further, narcissism mediated the relationships between fragile masculinity and trait aggression, avoidance, and state aggression, indicating that those relationships are partially explained by narcissism. Specific types of narcissism, vulnerable narcissism and entitlement rage, appear to account for these relationships more, indicating that targeting these forms of narcissism in treatment may have a greater impact on aggression and avoidance. While this study replicated the findings of Twenge and Campbell (2003), which indicated that high levels of grandiose narcissism were linked to aggression, it also demonstrates the primacy of narcissistic vulnerability in the production of negative affect that ends in aggression and avoidance. The higher effect of vulnerable, as opposed to grandiose, narcissism in the results resonates with other studies that showed narcissistic grandiosity was less associated with affective distress (e.g., Dashineau et al., 2019, Sasso et al., 2020).

In the results for each of the models analyzed, there were a few repeated themes. Regardless of the outcome variable—trait aggression, relational avoidance, or state

aggression—the relationship between fragile masculinity and narcissism was tested in each of the models. As predicted, fragile masculinity was invariably associated with narcissism. This held true with each of the four measures of narcissism analyzed, including total narcissism obtained by scoring the entire PNI measure, the vulnerable narcissism factor, the grandiose narcissism factor and the entitlement rage subscale of that same measure. The relationship between fragile masculinity and vulnerable narcissism proved to have the highest standardized estimates, but total narcissism and entitlement rage were close in their effect sizes. However, as noted above, the relationship between fragile masculinity and grandiosity, while present, was weaker, potentially indicating that the defenses employed in grandiose narcissism are less available to those with fragile masculinity, or that grandiose narcissism is not as impactful on aggression or avoidance as is vulnerable narcissism. Perhaps these results mean that, to the extent narcissism is a mask for vulnerable feelings such as shame, grandiosity is a more effective mask. People who display grandiose features appear to obtain narcissistic supply by pumping themselves up, and therefore may be able to deflect shaming experiences utilizing devaluation of others. On the other hand, people who display vulnerable narcissistic features including entitlement rage may be more reactive to shame, as they are able to feel it. Feeling shame may lead these individuals to reactively defend against it, often with characteristically avoidant and aggressive attitudes as well as state aggression. This may support focusing treatments on bolstering the capacity to regulate feelings of shame and its sequelae in those who express vulnerable narcissism as experience of shame may be more readily available to them. While grandiose narcissism may be a more effective defense in terms of bypassing the defensive

need to be explicitly aggressive or relationally avoidant, treatment may benefit from increasing the capacity to experience shameful affect.

State Aggression and State-Shame. The final model analyzed fragile masculinity, narcissism, state-shame and state aggression. This study hypothesized a significant connection between fragile masculinity and state aggression and the results supported the hypothesis. Those who endorsed fragile masculinity also endorsed greater state aggression and this association was also explained by narcissism for each of the four definitions of narcissism (total, grandiose, vulnerable and entitlement rage). The impact of fragile masculinity on state aggression was reduced when narcissism was taken into account, indicating that narcissism partially explains the link.

A further hypothesis was that if participants were induced to feel shame they would endorse greater state aggression. State shame was induced for half of the participants (shame condition), but the remaining participants (control condition) were not induced to feel shame. In order to induce state shame, participants were asked to listen to an audio scenario which suggested that they imagine attending a party where they experience social rejection and humiliation in response to attempting to talk to someone whom they found interesting. The control condition listened to a neutral prompt. The pilot for the audio scenario for the shame condition indicated that those who listened to this scenario endorsed greater feelings of shame after listening. Subsequently, the participants in the main study reported significantly higher feelings of shame after compared to before listening to the audio scenario. Both the pilot and the main study indicated that the audio scenario was effective in inducing increased state shame.

For those participants who were induced to feel shame, the relationship between their narcissism and state aggression increased in magnitude, but only for those who endorsed the high entitlement rage form of narcissism. This means that those individuals with fragile masculinity and narcissism in the form of entitlement rage, who are experiencing current shame, are more likely to also experience increase in state aggression.

The impact of entitlement rage on state aggression, especially when state-shame is present, supports previous findings that entitlement represents a particularly maladaptive aspect of narcissism (Emmons, 1987). Although previous theoretical and empirical studies have found entitlement to be present in individuals with grandiose as well as vulnerable narcissism, the rationale for these feelings of entitlement differ, with grandiose narcissists believing they deserve to be treated well because they are better than others, and vulnerable narcissists believing they deserve special consideration because of their fragility (Miller, 2011). In addition, in previous research, aggression has been found to be an element in both grandiose and vulnerable narcissism, but the former is antagonistic for instrumental gain, while the latter, is hostile due to negative interpersonal schemas and dynamics (Miller, 2011). Hence, entitlement appears to result in aggression when the individual with high narcissism becomes enraged due to perceived mistreatment, and is therefore more at risk when encountering current shame. This idea is supported by the result in this study which found that state shame moderated the effect between entitlement rage and state aggression.

Notably, there was no significant main effect of state shame on state aggression (not originally hypothesized), which highlights the central element that baseline

narcissistic entitlement plays in aggressive enactments. While acts of aggression may or may not relate to feelings of shame, the findings in this study mean that particularly for those who have narcissistic entitlement leanings, shaming experiences can lead to diminished ability to regulate aggressive impulses. It is possible that the shaming experience may not be enough to cause increase in state aggression, but rather it is the combination of entitled rage and current experiences of shame that is particularly dangerous. The findings imply that in treatment it is important to work on tolerating feelings of shame particularly for patients who experience narcissism in the form of entitlement rage.

One of the quandaries that arose in this study's results was that the relationship between narcissism and increase in state aggression in those who were experiencing an increase in state shame appeared to hold true only for those who endorsed narcissism in the form of entitlement rage. Conversely, those individuals with fragile masculinity who endorsed vulnerable narcissism, grandiose narcissism, and total narcissism did not appear to have increased state aggression in response to the shame-induction. This begs the question as to why vulnerable narcissism, which was highly correlated with entitlement rage, did not interact with state-shame. When vulnerable narcissism was covaried, even those who endorsed entitlement rage seemed uninfluenced by the shame-induction in terms of their level of state aggression. Entitlement rage is a subscale of the vulnerable narcissism factor of the PNI and thus it is not surprising that they are highly correlated, but there was something specific about entitlement that interacted with state-shame.

Based on the theoretical writing of Kimmel (2017) and Kalish (2010), entitlement was a core feature of narcissism that informed the hypotheses for this study. Expectedly,

the data supported the hypothesis that the impact of entitlement rage on state aggression would be moderated by state-shame. Analyzing the items in the entitlement rage subscale may provide some explanation as to why this particular subscale, as opposed to the other measures of narcissism, was moderated by state-shame. The entitlement rage subscale consists of the following eight items: 37: “It irritates me when people don’t notice how good a person I am”; 11: “I get mad when people don’t notice all that I do for them”; 12: “I get annoyed by people who are not interested in what I say or do”; 18: “I typically get very angry when I’m unable to get what I want from others”; 38: “I will never be satisfied until I get all that I deserve”; 20: “When I do things for other people, I expect them to do things for me”; 29: “I get angry when criticized”; 52: “I can get pretty angry when others disagree with me” (Wright, 2010).

One possible reason that only those who endorsed these items were influenced by the shame-induction is that the shame-induction triggered the particular thoughts and feelings inquired about in the entitlement rage subscale. The shame-induction involved asking participants to imagine a scenario of approaching a person they are attracted to and having that same person turn away from them in disgust due to the participant having nasal mucous on their cheek. This scenario touches upon many of the items in the entitlement rage subscale, including 37, 11, 12, 18, 20. Entitlement rage is highly correlated with the other subscales that make up the narcissistic vulnerability factor, including “devaluing,” “hiding the self,” and “contingent self-esteem.” While it makes sense that those who endorse entitlement rage would also endorse devaluing others, hiding themselves, and finding their self-esteem to be contingent upon regard from

others, the entitlement rage subscale arguably measures the unique construct of feeling wronged and aggrieved when the individual does not attain his strivings.

Baumeister (1996) found that unrealistically favorable self-evaluation may lead individuals to justify anti-social behavior. It is conceivable that those who believe they are entitled to react negatively to the lack of recognition of their strivings, may be more vulnerable to experiencing state aggression as a result of feeling state shame. This explanation is supported by Wright (2010) who found that narcissistic vulnerability is characterized by self and affective dysregulation marked by shame, rage or deflation associated with the frustration of intense need for recognition. Frustration of intense need for recognition describes more than just vulnerable narcissism but rather, specifically, entitlement as defined by the PNI.

Another potential explanation for the significance of state shame in moderating the relationship between entitlement rage on state aggression as opposed to the other measures of narcissism analyzed as mediators is the possibility that the experimental induction was not shaming enough, and a higher dose of shame could have resulted in an increase in state-aggression for the three other measures of narcissism. Further, it is possible that a larger sample size would have yielded significant results for state-shame as a condition for the impact of other forms of narcissism on state-aggression. It is also possible that in response to being shamed and desiring to act out, most participants defend against the desire to be aggressive by repressing, while those who endorse enough entitlement rage don’t have sufficient resources to defend against the aggressive impulse.

Implications of Findings

The findings implicate narcissism, in those who experience fragile masculinity, as a risk factor for increased aggression and self-isolating avoidance. Current experiences of shame, in those who feel wronged, deprived, or otherwise entitled, increases the risk of state-aggression. The findings in this study support the theoretical foundation that the cultural expectations surrounding masculinity are dangerous for those who feel inadequate in performing up to those standards. Individuals who experience a high sense of fragility in meeting these standards appear to evidence narcissism, avoidance, and aggression, potentially to defend against these ego threatening experiences, although a defensive motivation would have to be analyzed in future studies. The role of narcissism as an explanation for the relationship between fragile masculinity and aggression was clear across the models analyzed. A rigid form of masculinity, which still prevails in most cultures despite the growing push for non-binary gender conceptualizations, poses great danger to individuals who feel inadequate in performing masculinity, and, therefore, to society as a whole when faced with the aggression that is associated with such feelings of inadequacy.

For narcissistic patients, shame should be both a warning sign and a focus of treatment in acute situations. It is imperative that at risk males be assessed for attitudes of entitlement and reactivity to shame. The results also highlight the impact that humiliation can have on vulnerable individuals. A further implication of this study is that treatment should focus on the sensitivity to shame, which can be addressed with multiple modalities. An important emphasis is for therapies to focus on assisting the patient to build up a more stable sense of self. Often empathy with the patient, fully understanding

the subjective motivations for the patient as well as the maladaptive interpersonal patterns, is sufficient. Creating a therapeutic relationship based on empathy with healthier dynamics, despite the often-challenging countertransference reactions toward narcissistic patients, promotes psychological strengthening (Kohut, 1978). Further, treatment should focus on increasing the patient's capacity to regulate reactivity, which would argue for incorporating elements of dialectical behavioral therapy into more dynamic oriented approaches. Once a strong relationship has been established, some narcissistic patient may need to be confronted with the impact of their behaviors on others. Tools from transference focused psychotherapy can help patients experience in vivo their relational dynamics, including sensitivity to shame and entitled reactivity, which can be utilized to assist patients with recognizing distortions in their conceptualization of self, identifying the splitting inherent in the feelings of entitlement over others (Diamon, 2020).

This research clearly points to the dysfunction of fragile masculinity, which the extant literature supports as originating from a belief in the social requirements to adhere to a rigid traditional masculinity. Despite the potentially destructive aspects of fragile masculinity, there is widespread confidence in biological explanations for masculinity and its attendant violence (Gutmann, 2021). Such confidence is often misplaced because even if there are biological underpinnings, biology is not outside the complexity of human experience, which include historical, cultural, linguistic, political and economic contexts (Gutmann, 2021). Further, some argue that it is not masculinity per se that is detrimental, but rather the rigid, restrictive, sexist enactments of traditional male norms that are damaging (Isacco, 2012). Hammer (2010) found that men who endorse traditional Western masculine norms, such as risk taking, dominance, primacy of work

and pursuit of status, exhibited greater positive psychological features such as personal courage, autonomy, endurance and resilience. Conversely, they also found that rigid adherence to other traditional masculine norms, such as winning, emotional control, and self-reliance were associated with lower levels of positive psychological features (Hammer, 2010). It may indeed be that there are some elements of masculinity, whether derived biologically or culturally, that may serve socially adaptive purposes. Therefore, perhaps the goal should not be to eliminate or demonize masculinity per se, but to provide a framework for inclusivity and integration of more flexible kinds of masculinities. Some attributes of masculinity may be adaptive in some settings and maladaptive in others.

It is beyond the scope of this study to determine whether positive views of masculinity hold merit. However, it is an important consideration, as changing the culture of masculinity to be less rigid requires a certain amount of consent from men who are attached to these social mores, and therefore, demonizing masculinity as a whole may be counterproductive. This study highlights the potential downsides of masculinity, particularly in how the cultural context contributes to a sense of falling short and fragility in boys and men. Treating more pathological characteristics such as narcissism, entitlement and shame to help boys and men manage attendant aggressive impulses is essential. However, it may be effective to combine these efforts with helping patients to identify the adaptive strengths of their masculinity, such that fragility has a smaller chance of retaining a foothold.

Limitations

There were several limitations associated with the current study. The first was that the study relied exclusively on self-report measures which are subject to self-report biases. For example, some participants may have reported fewer negative shameful reactions in the imagined scenarios within the TOSCA, measuring shame-proneness, in an attempt to provide socially desirable responses. Relying on the TOSCA to describe negative events and measure participants' shame-based responses, in a population which we expect to be ashamed of and avoidant of shame, is a limitation which laboratory simulations or daily diaries may have been able to overcome. The narcissism measure, which requests of people to endorse socially undesirable traits, may also be impacted by under or over-reporting. Though this was a confidential anonymous online procedure, participants may have denied narcissistic qualities that apply to them to avert social censure or the internal super-ego retaliation that it might elicit. Another limitation involves the fact that this study measured narcissism as the mediator, while other factors, such as attachment security or frustration tolerance, may account for the relationships between fragile masculinity, avoidance, and aggression.

Another limitation concerns the generalizability of the present study's results due to the sample being largely white and generally well-educated. In addition, Mturk, the platform used to recruit participants, may have attracted participants who are willing to spend time filling out these measures for modest pay. While respondents were compensated for their time according to the average and usual compensation rate, and respondents were further screened by CloudResearch, a website that verifies participants who take the time to read and respond carefully to surveys, the population is ultimately

self-selected and may be assumed to consist of students, underemployed individuals, or those who originate from the lower economic strata of society. Chander and Shapiro (2016) also found that Mturk samples are more socially anxious, emotionally dysregulated and exhibit more symptoms consistent with the autism spectrum, (see also Gebhard, 2018). Further, the research was available only to Mturk participants who hail from the United States, which means the results may be particularly influenced by the individualistic nature of our culture. Generalizing to populations outside of the United States, especially to cultures that are collectivist in nature, would be improper.

Directions for Future Research, Policy, and Clinical Practice

A future study with an international sample, would be useful to demonstrate replicability of the findings that narcissism would explain the relationship between fragile masculinity and aggression or avoidance in a more diverse racial and socio-economic population. In addition, future studies would benefit from a laboratory setting which could measure not only state and trait aggressive cognition and emotion, but also measure the likelihood of an individual with fragile masculinity actually enacting aggression in response to a shaming experience. Further, future studies can look into the kinds of aggression enacted, those toward others versus toward the self, as fragile masculinity may be a factor in male self-harm as well as aggression towards others. Shame-proneness was not found to moderate the relationship between fragile masculinity and narcissism in this study. Since this was unexpected theoretically, a future study might seek methods of measuring and administering measures of shame-proneness to verify these findings.

The findings in this study present a damning picture of fragile masculinity which theory and previous research has connected to a rigid culture of masculinity which leads

men and boys to feel inadequate in its performance. The dangers become obvious when we merely glance at statistics of violence: 249 of the 266 mass shootings in the United States between 2009 and 2020 were perpetrated by males (Everytown, 2020). The goal of understanding masculinity and fragile masculinity's impact on aggression and avoidance would have greater effect on social policy if it could be demonstrated that the connection is significant across subsections of populations.

Future research may investigate the connection between the constructs studied here, including internal subjective experiences of aggressiveness, and actual violent behavior. Future research may also develop methods that would compare groups that adhere to raising children in a culture of traditional masculinity compared to groups who are attempting to change these tropes. This may include a comparison between urban and rural populations.

Further, a future study analyzing the impact of gender-role stress due to masculine standards would also benefit from including females in the study for purposes of comparison. Fragile femininity would itself be an important construct to investigate as potentially leading to female centric maladaptive behaviors such as, for example, eating disorders. While the goal of the study was to understand the impact of fragile masculinity, hence the restriction of participants to those who identify as male, some of the variables would apply to females as well. The impact of narcissism on state aggression after induction of state shame would be interesting to understand across genders and would provide comparison between the impact of masculine gender role stress and feminine gender role stress.

Future research can also hone in on particular subpopulations of men, for example those who are currently in forensic institutions, to determine the various ways in which they displayed warning signs, and how much fragile masculinity contributed to their criminal behavior. Understanding the impact of fragile masculinity on avoidance and aggression in males who might be at risk for violence, and the explanatory nature of various forms of narcissistic pathology, can potentially reduce these acts of aggression.

Entitlement is a red flag, especially for patients who have the means to enact aggression, such as access to a weapon. To the extent that an inflated sense of entitlement results in increased state aggression, particularly in response to state shame, this should inform clinical practice surrounding treatment of narcissistic traits. Research can attempt to demonstrate a reduction in aggression as a result of therapeutic interventions that assist an individual in building a more stable sense of self and managing and regulating emotions in particular as they surround feelings of shame.

Research on treatment strategies specific to addressing an inflated sense of entitlement would inform interventions with this vulnerable population. A more nuanced understanding of entitlement and its impact on aggression may be garnered by utilizing an entitlement specific measure that could discriminate between normative, pathological, and criminogenic sequelae of entitlement. Research would benefit from including a longitudinal design as suggested by Sasso (2020) and Wright (2018). Such a design can focus on oscillations of narcissistic traits, specifically entitlement within the same individual to determine whether entitlement is the element of narcissism responsible for increased aggression.

Social policy will hopefully be influenced by this study and that of others showing the deleterious impact of the culture of masculinity. Although finding methods of restricting lethal weapons from disgruntled individuals may be a useful endeavor, understanding and intervening with individuals who are motivated by a sense of having lost in the masculinity race, could be even more effective in helping to notice the risk factors, and to provide treatment. Funding for treatment of individuals who are suffering from these cultural mores could be significantly effective in preventing much pain on the part of both perpetrators, victims, and society as a whole.

Finally, future psychotherapy research on the treatment of narcissism in those who also experience fragile masculinity would help determine best practices. Since state shame is a predisposing factor for state aggression in those who also experience a sense of entitlement, efforts to diminish potentially shaming experiences, as well as helping patients increase their tolerance for feelings of shame, would be desirable goals. Confrontation may be contraindicated for those who exhibit multiple layers of fragility throughout their social sphere. On the other hand, confronting the entitlement inherent in their justifications of aggression, especially in the face of being shamed or rejected, may be essential in helping patients access aggression in more contained and less destructive forms.

Conclusion

The current study was conceptualized in order to better understand the nature of fragile masculinity and its relationship to narcissism, shame, avoidance and aggression. While other studies have established a connection between these constructs, none have explored the impact of narcissism as an explanatory factor of the effect of fragile

masculinity on aggression and avoidance. This study contributed to the literature by further elucidating the layered nature of narcissism and specifically the impact of entitlement rage which is a subset of narcissistic vulnerability. Sociologists have theorized the contribution of aggrieved entitlement in mass shooters who express fragile masculinity. This study provided empirical support for those theories by demonstrating the connection between fragile masculinity, aggression and narcissism, specifically in the form of entitlement rage.

Further, the presumption behind the study was that aggression is likely perpetrated by those who are experiencing shame. The study contributed to the literature on shame, demonstrating that at least for those with fragile masculinity and a sense of entitlement, state shame, specifically the kind of shame that comes with social rejection and humiliation, has the capacity to increase state aggression.

The fact that shame-proneness did not seem to be a predisposing factor in the connection between fragile masculinity and narcissism was surprising but also contributes to the question of how best to measure shame-proneness in narcissistic individuals who may be defended against admitting feelings of shame. The lack of shame-proneness in the models may have to do with the design of the study related to the sequence of measures administered, but may also be related to questions about whether the TOSCA is able to measure the construct well in narcissistic individuals. Alternatively, since the main effect of shame-proneness on narcissism was significant, it is possible it is correlated with both fragile masculinity and narcissism, but does not have a magnifying influence on the relationship between them. Further research, particularly laboratory experiments, have the potential to provide nuanced understanding concerning the nature

of the link between fragile masculinity and entitlement and the kind of shame experiences that may predispose someone not only to have aggressive cognition but also to enact aggression. Continued research in this area can influence policy and treatment strategies which could potentially reduce the frequency of male aggression related to feelings of inadequacy in performing masculinity.

References

Addelston, J. (1995). Gender role conflict in elite independent high schools (Doctoral dissertation, SUNY Graduate School). *Dissertation Abstracts International, 57,* 3450.

Addis, M. E., & Mahalik, J. R. (2003). Men, masculinity, and the context of help seeking. *American Psychologist, 58*(1), 5-14.

Andrews, B., Qian, M., & Valentine, J. D. (2002). Predicting depressive symptoms with a new measure of shame: The Experience of Shame Scale. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology, 41,* 29–42. doi:10.1348/014466502163778.

Bamberg, M. (2004). "We are young, responsible, and male": Form and function of "slut-bashing" in the identity constructions in 15-year-old males. *Human Development, 47,* 331–353. doi:10.1159/000081036.

Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*, 1173-1182.

Baumeister, R. F., & Leary, M. R. (1995). The need to belong: Desire for interpersonal attachments as a fundamental human motivation. *Psychological Bulletin, 117,* 497–529.

Bem, S. L. (1987). Gender schema theory and its implications for child development: Raising gender-aschematic children in a gender-schematic society. In M. R. Walsh (Ed.), *The psychology of women* (pp.226–245). New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

Bennett, D. S., Sullivan, M. W., & Lewis, M. (2010). Neglected Children, Shame-Proneness, and Depressive Symptoms. *Child Maltreatment, 15*(4), 305–314. doi:10.1177/1077559510379634.

Benor, SB (2004). "Talmid Chachams and Tsedeykeses": Language, Learnedness, and Masculinity among Orthodox Jews. *Jewish Social Studies, 11*(1), 147-170.

Berke, D. S., Reidy, D. E., Miller, J. D., & Zeichner, A. (2017). Take it like a man: Gender-threatened men's experience of gender role discrepancy, emotion activation, and pain tolerance. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 18*(1), 62–69. doi:10.1037/men0000036

Besser, A., & Zeigler-Hill, V. (2010). The influence of pathological narcissism on emotional and motivational responses to negative events: The roles of visibility and concern about humiliation. *Journal of Research in Personality, 44(4), 520–534.* doi:10.1016/j.jrp.2010.06.006

Blazina, C. (2001). Part Objects, Infantile Fantasies, and Intrapsychic Boundaries: An Object Relations Perspective on Male Difficulties with Intimacy. *The Journal of Men's Studies, 10*(1), 89–98. doi:10.3149/jms.1001.89

Blazina, C. (2004). Gender Role Conflict and the Disidentification Process: Two Case Studies on Fragile Masculine Self. *The Journal of Men's Studies, 12*(2), 151–161. doi:10.3149/jms.1202.151

Bosson, J. K., & Vandello, J. A. (2011). Precarious Manhood and Its Links to Action and Aggression. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 20*(2), 82–86. https://doi.org/10.1177/0963721411402669

Bosson, J. K., Vandello, J. A., Burnaford, R. M., Weaver, J. R., & Wasti, S. A. (2009). Precarious Manhood and Displays of Physical Aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *35*(5), 623–634. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167208331161

Bremner, J., Bolus, R., & Mayer, E. (2007). Psychometric Properties of the Early Trauma Inventory–Self Report. *Journal Of Nervous & Mental Disease*, *195*(3), 211-218. doi: 10.1097/01.nmd.0000243824.84651.6c

Brennan, K. A., Clark, C. L., & Shaver, P. R. (1998). Self-report measurement of adult attachment: An integrative overview. In J. A. Simpson & W. S. Rholes (Eds.), Attachment theory and close relationships (pp. 46–76). New York: Guilford Press.

Brown, J., & Graham, D. (2008). Body satisfaction in gym-active males: An exploration of sexuality, gender, and narcissism. *Sex Roles, 59*, 94–10.

Broucek, F.J. (1982). Shame and its relationship to early narcissistic developments. *Int. Journal of Psycho-Analysis 63,* 369-378.

Brumberg, J. J., & Tomes, N. (1982). Women in the professions: A research agenda for American historians. *Reviews in American History, 10,* 275-276.

Buhrmester, M., Kwang, T., Gosling, S.D. (2011). Amazon's Mechanical Turk: A New Source of Inexpensive yet high-quality, data? *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 6*(1), 3-5.

Busch, N. B., Bell, H., Hotling, N., and Monto, M. (2002). Male customers of prostituted women: exploring perceptions of entitlement to power and control and implications for violent behavior toward women. *Violence Against Women 8,* 1093–1112. doi:10.1177/107780102401101755

Buss, A. H., & Perry, M. (1992). The Aggression Questionnaire. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 63*, 452–459.

Buss, A.H. and Warren, W.L. (2000). Aggression Questionnaire. Los Angeles CA: Western Psychological Services.

Cain, N. M., Pincus, A. L., & Ansell, E. B. (2008). Narcissism at the crossroads: Phenotypic description of pathological narcissism across clinical theory, social/personality psychology, and psychiatric diagnosis. *Clinical Psychology Review, 28*, 638 – 656.

Campbell, W. K., Rudich, E., & Sedikides, C. (2002). Narcissism, self-esteem, and the positivity of self-views: Two portraits of self-love. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 28, 358–368.

Campbell, W. K., Bonacci, A. M., Shelton, J., Exline, J. J., & Bushman, B. J. (2004). Psychological Entitlement: Interpersonal Consequences and Validation of a Self-Report Measure. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 83*(1), 29-45. doi: 10.1207/s15327752jpa8301_04

Carian, E. K., & Sobotka, T. C. (2018). Playing the Trump card: Masculinity threat and the U.S. 2016 presidential election. *Socius: Sociological Research for a Dynamic World*, *4*, 1–6. https://doi.org/10.1177/2378023117740699

Carrigan, T., Connell, B., and Lee, J. (1985). Towards a new sociology of masculinity. *Theory Soc.* 14, 551–604. doi:10.1007/BF00160017

Chadwick, S. B., & van Anders, S. M. (2017). Do Women's Orgasms Function as a Masculinity Achievement for Men? *The Journal of Sex Research, 54*(9), 1141–1152. doi:10.1080/00224499.2017.1283484

Chandler, J., & Shapiro, D. (2016). Conducting clinical research using crowdsourced convenience samples. *Annual review of clinical psychology*, *12*, 53-81.

Cohn, A. and Zeichner, A (2006). Effects of Masculine Identity and Gender Role Stress on Aggression in Men. *Psychology of Men and Masculinity*, *7* (4), 179-190.

Copenhaver, M. M., & Eisler, R. M. (1996). Masculine gender role stress: A perspective on men's health. In P. M. Kato & T. Mann (Eds.), Handbook of diversity issues in health psychology (pp. 219–235). New York: Plenum Press

Cushman, P (1990). Why the self is Empty, Toward a historically situated psychology. *American Psychologist, 45*(5), 599-611.

Dashineau, S. C., Edershile, E. A., Simms, L. J., & Wright, A. G. C. (2019). Pathological narcissism and psychosocial functioning. *Personality Disorders: Theory, Research, and Treatment, 10*, 473–478.

de Hooge IE, Zeelenberg M, Breugelmans SM. 2010. Restore and protect motivations following shame. *Cogn. Emot*. *24*(1):111–27

DeKeseredy, W. S., Burnham, K., Nicewarner, R., Nolan, J., & Hall-Sanchez, A. (in press). Aggrieved entitlement in the ivory tower: Qualitative results from a large-scale campus climate survey. *Journal of Qualitative Criminal Justice and Criminology.*

Diamond, M. J. (2006). Masculinity unraveled: The roots of male gender identity and the shifting of male ego ideals throughout life. *Journal of the American Psychoanalytic Association, 54*, 1099-1130

Diamond, D., & Hersh, R. G. (2020). Transference-focused psychotherapy for narcissistic personality disorder: An object relations approach. *Journal of personality disorders*, *34*(Supplement), 159-176.

DiMuccio, S. H., & Knowles, E. D. (2020). The political significance of fragile masculinity. *Current Opinion in Behavioral Sciences, 34,* 25–28. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cobeha.2019.11.010

Dorahy, M.J., Corry, M., Shannon, M., Webb, K., McDermott, B., Ryan, M., Dyer, K.F.W. (2013). Complex trauma and intimate relationships: the impact of shame, guilt and dissociation. *J. Affect. Disord. 147*, 72–79.

Dorahy, M. J., McKendry, H., Scott, A., Yogeeswaran, K., Martens, A., & Hanna, D. (2017). Reactive dissociative experiences in response to acute increases in shame feelings. *Behaviour Research and Therapy, 89*, 75–85. doi:10.1016/j.brat.2016.11.007

Efthim, P. W., Kenny, M. E., & Mahalick, J. R. (2001). Gender role stress in relation to shame, guilt, and externalization. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 79,* 430 – 438. doi:10.1002/j.1556-6676.2001.tb01990.x

Eisler, R. M., & Skidmore, J. R. (1987). Masculine gender role stress: Scale development and component factors in the appraisal of stressful situations. *Behavior Modification, 11*(2), 123-136.

Eisler, R. M., Skidmore, J. R., & Ward, C. H. (1988). Masculine gender-role stresses: Predictor of anger, anxiety and health-risk behaviors. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 52*, 133-141.

Elison, J., Lennon, R., & Pulos, S. (2006). Investigating the Compass of Shame: The development of the Compass of Shame Scale. *Social Behavior and Personality: An International Journal, 34*(3), 221–238. doi:10.2224/sbp.2006.34.3.221

Emmons, R. A. (1987). Narcissism: Theory and measurement. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 52*, 11–17.

Englar-Carlson, M., & Kiselica, M. S. (2013). Affirming the strengths in men: A positive masculinity approach to assisting male clients. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, *91*(4), 399-409.

Everytown for Gun Safety (2020). Mass Shootings in the United States: 2009–2020. *Available from*: https://everytownresearch.org/maps/mass-shootings-in-america/

Erikson, E.H. (1963). *Childhood and society.* New York: Norton.

Exner, J. (1969). Rorschach responses as an index of narcissism. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 33*, 324–330.

Farrar K, Kremar M. (2006). Measuring state and trait aggression: A short, cautionary tale. *Media Psychol 8*:127–138

Franchina, J. J., Eisler, R. M., & Moore, T. M. (2001). Masculine gender role stress and intimate abuse: Effects of masculine gender relevance of dating situations and female threat on men's attributions and affective responses. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 2(1), 34–41. doi:10.1037/1524-9220.2.1.34.

Freud, S. (1914/1957). On narcissism: An introduction. In J. Strachey (Ed. and Trans.), *The Standard Edition of the Complete Psychological Works of Sigmund Freud* (Vol. 14, pp. 67–104). London, England: Hogarth Press.

Freud, S. (1960). *The ego and the Id.* (J. Riviere, Trans.) New York: Norton. (Original work published 1923).

Furumoto, L. (1987). On the margins: Women and the professionalization of psychology in the United States, 1890-1940. In M. Ash & W. Woodward (Eds.), *Psychology in twentieth-century thought and society* (pp. 93-113). Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.

Gabel, S. (1993). Rage and aggression in youth: A self-psychological perspective. *Journal of Contemporary Psychotherapy, 23(4), 267–280.* doi:10.1007/bf00946087

Garcia, F. (2016). Neo-Traditional Masculinity and Social Change. *In Coping and Suicide Amongst the Lads,* 89–123. doi:10.1057/9781137530332_4

Gebhard, K. T., L. B. Cattaneo, J. P. Tangney, S. Hargrove, and R. Shor. (2018). "Threatened Masculinity Shame-Related Responses Among Straight Men: Measurement and Relationship to Aggression." *Psychology of Men & Masculinities 20*(3): 429-444.

Ghatavi, K, Nicolson, R., MacDonald, C, Osher, S, & Levitt, A. (2002). Defining guilt in depression: A comparison of subjects with major depression, chronic medical illness and healthy controls. *Journal of Affective Disorders, 68,* 307-315.

Ghim, S. C., Choi, D. H., Lim, J. J., & Lim, S. M. (2015). The relationship between covert narcissism and relational aggression in adolescents: mediating effects of internalized shame and anger rumination. *International Journal of Information and Education Technology, 5*(1), 21-26. doi:10.7763/IJIET.2015.V5.469

Gilligan, J. (2003). Shame, guilt, and violence. *Social Research: An International Quarterly, 70*(4), 1149-1180.

Goldberg, O., & Yassour-Borochowitz, D. (2009). "Suddenly she realizes that her husband is not exactly Rabbi Akiba …" – perceptions of masculinity of ultra-Orthodox Israeli Jewish battering men. *Journal of Gender Studies, 18*(4), 387-401. doi:10.1080/09589230903260050

Goodman, J.K., Cryder, C.E., & Cheema, A. (2012). Data collection in a flat world: The strengths and weaknesses of Mechanical Turk samples. *Journal of Behavioral Decision Making*, online publication, DOI: 10.1002/bdm.1753.

Gutmann, M., Nelson, R. G., & Fuentes, A. (2021). Epidemic errors in understanding masculinity, maleness, and violence: an introduction to supplement 23. *Current Anthropology*, *62*(S23), S5-S12.

Hamberger, L.K., and Hastings, J.E. (1990). Recidivism following spouse abatement counseling: Treatment program implications. *Violence and Victims, 5*(3), 157-170.

Hammer, J. H., & Good, G. E. (2010). Positive psychology: An empirical examination of beneficial aspects of endorsement of masculine norms. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 11*, 303–318. doi:10.1037/a0019056

Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis. Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach.* New York: Guilford Publications, 1, 20.

Hayes, A. F. (2022). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach.* Guilford publications.

Herman, J. L. (1992). *Trauma and recovery*. New York: Basic Books.

Hines, A. (2019). How many bones would you break to get laid? *The Cut*. https://www.thecut.com/2019/05/incel-plastic-surgery.html

Hoffman, B., Ware, J., & Shapiro, E. (2020). Assessing the Threat of Incel Violence. *Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 43*(7), 1–23. doi:10.1080/1057610x.2020.1751459

Hoglund, C. L., & Nicholas, K. B. (1995). Shame, guilt, and anger in college students exposed to abusive family environments. *Journal of Family Violence, 10*(2), 141–157. doi:10.1007/bf02110597

Hong, L (2000) Toward a Transformed Approach to Prevention: Breaking the Link Between Masculinity and Violence, *Journal of American College Health, 48*(6), 269-279, DOI: 10.1080/07448480009596268

Horvath, S., & Morf, C. C. (2009). Narcissistic defensiveness: Hypervigilance and avoidance of worthlessness. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 45*(6), 1252–1258. doi:10.1016/j.jesp.2009.07.011

Isacco, A., Talovic, E., Chromik, L., & Yallum, N. (2012). Addressing men's mental health through a strength-based approach. *Lifestyle medicine*, 369-382.

Joseph, L. J., and Black, P. (2012). Who's the man? Fragile masculinities, consumer masculinities, and the profiles of sex work clients. *Men Masc. 15*, 486–506. doi:10.1177/1097184X12458591

Kalish, R., & Kimmel, M. (2010). Suicide by mass murder: Masculinity, aggrieved entitlement, and rampage school shootings. *Health Sociology Review, 19*(4), 451–464. doi:10.5172/hesr.2010.19.4.451

Kaufman, G. (1989). *The psychology of shame: Theory and treatment of shame-based syndromes*. New York: Springer

Kernberg, O. (1967). Borderline Personality Organization. *Journal of the American Psychoanalytic Association, 15*(3), 641–685. doi:10.1177/000306516701500309

Kernberg, O. (1976). *Object relations theory and clinical psychoanalysis*. New York: Jason Aronson.

Kernberg, O. (1975). *Borderline conditions and pathological narcissism*. Northvale, NJ: Jason Aronson.

Kernberg , O. F. (1992). *Aggression in Personality Disorders and Perversions.* New Haven: Yale University Press.

Kernberg, O.F. (1996). A psychoanalytic theory of personality disorders. In J.F. Clarkin & M.F. Lenzenweger (Eds.), *Major theories of personality disorder* (pp. 106-140). New York: Guilford Press.

Kernberg, O. F. (1986). Factors in the psychoanalytic treatment of narcissistic personalities. In A. P. Morrison (Ed.), *Essential papers on narcissism* (pp. 213–244). New York and London: New York University Press.

Kim, J., Talbot, N. L., & Cicchetti, D. (2009). Childhood abuse and current interpersonal conflict: The role of shame. *Child Abuse & Neglect, 33*, 362-371.

Kimmel, M. S. (1997). Masculinity as homophobia: Fear, shame, and silence in the construction of gender identity. In M. Gergen & S. Davis (Eds.), *Toward a new psychology of gender* (pp. 223– 242). Florence, KY: Taylor & Francis/Routledge.

Kimmel, M. (2017). *Angry white men: American masculinity at the end of an era.* New York: Bold Type Books.

Kohut, H. (1972). Thoughts on narcissism and narcissistic rage. *The Psychoanalytic Study of the Child*, *27*, 360–400.

Kohut H, Wolf, E.S. (1978). The disorders of the self and their treatment: an outline. *Int J Psychoanal 59*, 413–25.

Kohut, H. (1977). *The restoration of the self.* New York: International Universities Press.

Krugman, S. (1995). Male development and the transformation of shame. In R. F. Levant & W. S. Pollock (Eds.), *A new psychology of men* (pp. 91–126). New York: Basic.

Kuchynka, S. L., & Bosson, J. K. (2018). The Psychodynamic Mask Model of Narcissism: Where Is It Now? *Handbook of Trait Narcissism*, 89–95. doi:10.1007/978-3-319-92171-6_9

Land, L. N., Rochlen, A. B., & Vaughn, B. K. (2011). Correlates of attachment avoidance: Men's avoidance of intimacy in romantic relationships. *Psychology of Men and Masculinity*, *12*(1), 64–76. doi:10.1037/a0019928

Levant, R. F., & Pryor, S. (2020). *The tough standard: The hard truths about masculinity and violence.* Oxford University Press.

Levine, Donald (1983). A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Psychology in partial fulfillment for the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York.

Lewis H.B. (1971). *Shame and Guilt in Neurosis.* New York: Int. Univ. Press

Lewis, M., Alessandri, S. M., & Sullivan, M. W. (1992). Differences in Shame and Pride as a Function of Children's Gender and Task Difficulty. *Child Development, 63*(3), 630–638. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.1992.tb01651.x

Litman, L.; Robinson, J.; Abberbock, T. TurkPrime.com: A versatile crowdsourcing data acquisition platform for the behavioral sciences. Behav. Res. Methods 2017, 49, 433–442.

Maass, A., Cadinu, M., Guarnieri, G., & Grasselli, A. (2003). Sexual harassment under social identity threat: The computer harassment paradigm. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *85*(5), 853–870. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.5.853

Mahalik, J. R., Cournoyer, R. C., DeFranc, W., Cherry, M., & Napolitano, J. M. (1998). Men's gender role conflict and use of psychological defenses. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 45,* 247–255.

Mallinckrodt, B. Wei, M. (2005). Attachment, Social Competencies, Social Support, and Psychological Distress. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, *52*(3), 358-367.

Martinez, I (2018). Trump's base, Ahab, and the American Dream. *Journal of Jungian Scholarly Studies, 13,* 3-17

McDermott, R. C., & Lopez, F. G. (2013). College men's intimate partner violence attitudes: Contributions of adult attachment and gender role stress. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 60*(1), 127–136. doi:10.1037/a0030353

Meier-Pesti, K., & Goetze, E. (2006). Masculinity and femininity as predictors of financial risk-taking: Evidence from a priming study on gender salience. *European Advances in Consumer Research, 7,* 45–46.

Miller, D. T., & Prentice, D. A. (1994). Collective errors and errors about the collective. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 20,* 541–550. doi:10.1177/0146167294205011

Miller, J. D., Price, J., & Campbell, W. K. (2012). Is the Narcissistic Personality Inventory still relevant? A test of independent grandiosity and entitlement scales in the assessment of narcissism. *Assessment*, *19*(1), 8-13.

Mitchell, S. A. (1986). *The Wings of Icarus. Contemporary Psychoanalysis, 22(1), 107–132.* doi:10.1080/00107530.1986.10746118

Morf, C. C., & Rhodewalt, F. (2001). Unraveling the paradoxes of narcissism: A dynamic self-regulatory processing model. *Psychological Inquiry, 12*, 177–196.

Morrison, A. P. (1989). *Shame: The underside of narcissism*. Hillsdale, NJ: The Analytic Press.

Myketiak, C. (2016): Fragile masculinity: social inequalities in the narrative frame and discursive construction of a mass shooter's autobiography/manifesto, *Contemporary Social Science*, *11*(4), 289-303. DOI: 10.1080/21582041.2016.1213414

Nicholson, I.A. (2001). "Giving up maleness": Abraham Maslow, Masculinity, and the boundaries of Psychology. *History of Psychology, 4*(1), 79-91.

O'Connor, E. C., Ford, T. E., & Banos, N. C. (2017). Restoring threatened masculinity: The appeal of sexist and anti-gay humor. *Sex Roles, 77,* 567–580. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-017-0761-z.

O'Malley, R. L., Holt, K., & Holt, T. J. (2020). An Exploration of the Involuntary Celibate (Incel) Subculture Online. *Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 37(7-8),* NP4981-NP5008. doi:10.1177/0886260520959625

O'Neil, J. M. (2008). Summarizing 25 Years of Research on Men's Gender Role Conflict Using the Gender Role Conflict Scale. *The Counseling Psychologist, 36*(3), 358–445. doi:10.1177/0011000008317057

O'Neil, J. M. (1981). Patterns of gender role conflict and strain: Sexism and fear of femininity in men's lives. *Personnel and Guidance Journal, 60,* 203-210.

Ornstein, P. (1998). Psychoanalysis of patients with primary self-disorder: A self psychological perspective. In E. Ronningstam (Ed.), *Disorders of narcissism: Diagnostic, clinical and empirical implications* (pp. 147–169). Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Press.

Peters, J. R., & Geiger, P. J. (2016). Borderline personality disorder and self-conscious affect: Too much shame but not enough guilt? *Personality Disorders: Theory, Research, and Treatment*, *7*(3), 303.

Pettinger, L. (2011). 'Knows how to please a man': studying customers to understand service work. *Sociol. Rev. 59,* 223–241. doi:10.1111/j.1467-954X.2011.02005.x

Pemberton, A.E. and Wakeling H.C. (2009). Entitled to sex: Attitudes of sexual offenders, *Journal of Sexual Aggression, 15*:3, 289-303, DOI: 10.1080/13552600903097212

Pincus, A. L., Ansell, E. B., Pimentel, C. A., Cain, N. M., Wright, A. G. C., &, Levy, K. N. (2009). Initial construction and validation of the pathological narcissism inventory. *Psychological Assessment, 21*(3), 365-79.

Reidy, D. E., Berke, D. S., Gentile, B., & Zeichner, A. (2014). Man enough? Masculine discrepancy stress and intimate partner violence. *Personality and Individual Differences, 68,* 160–164. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2014.04.021

Raskin, R. N., & Hall, C. S. (1979). A narcissistic personality inventory. *Psychological Reports, 45,* 590.

Raskin, R. N., & Hall, C. S. (1981). The Narcissistic Personality Inventory: Alternative form reliability and further evidence of construct validity. *Journal of Personality Assessment, 45,* 159–162.

Sasso, S., Cain, N. M., Meehan, K. B., Zeng, R., & Wong, P. S. (2020). The impact of pathological narcissism on affect following social rejection. *Journal of Personality Disorders, 35*(5), 691-707.

Scaptura, M. N., & Boyle, K. M. (2019). Masculinity Threat, "Incel" Traits, and Violent Fantasies Among Heterosexual Men in the United States. Feminist Criminology, *15*(3), 278-298. doi:10.1177/1557085119896415

Scheff, T.J. (1987). The shame-rage spiral: A case study of an interminable quarrel. In H.B. Lewis(Ed.), *The Role of Shame in symptom formation* (pp. 109-149). Hillsdale, N.J.: Earlbaum.

Schoenleber, M., & Berenbaum, H. (2012). Aversion and proneness to shame in self-and informant-reported personality disorder symptoms. *Personality Disorders: Theory, Research, and Treatment, 3*(3), 294.

Schwartz, J. P., Waldo, M., & Higgins, A. J. (2004). Attachment styles: Relationship to masculine gender role conflict in college men. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 5,* 143–146.

Shumka L, Strega, S and Hallgrimsdottir, HK (2017) "I Wanted to Feel Like a Man Again": Hegemonic Masculinity in Relation to the Purchase of Street-Level Sex. *Front. Sociol. 2*, 15. doi: 10.3389/fsoc.2017.00015

Skidmore, J.R. (1988). Cardiovascular reactivity in men as a function of masculine gender role stress, type-A behavior, and hostility. *Dissertation Abstracts International, 49*(4B), 1401 [University Microfilms No. 88-04430].

Smith, R. M., Parrott, D. J., Swartout, K. M., & Tharp, A. T. (2015). Deconstructing hegemonic masculinity: The roles of antifemininity, subordination to women, and sexual dominance in men's perpetration of sexual aggression. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 16*, 160–169. doi:10.1037/a0035956.

Smolewska, K., & Dion, K. (2005). Narcissism and Adult Attachment: A Multivariate Approach. *Self and Identity, 4*(1), 59–68. doi:10.1080/13576500444000218

Soper, D.S. (2021). Factorial Calculator [Software]. Available from https://www.danielsoper.com/statcalc/calculator.aspx?id=1

Talmon, A., & Ginzburg, K. (2017). Between childhood maltreatment and shame: The roles of selfobjectification and disrupted body boundaries. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 41*(3), 325–337.

Tangney J.P. (1992). Situational determinants of shame and guilt in young adulthood. *Pers. Soc. Psychol. Bull. 18*(2), 199-206.

Tangney, J. P., Wagner, P. E., Hill-Barlow, D., Marschall, D. E., & Gramzow, R. (1996). Relation of shame and guilt to constructive versus destructive responses to anger across the lifespan. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70*(4), 797– 809.

Tangney, J. P., Stuewig, J., Krishnan, S., Youman, K., Appel, M., Roop, L., & Durbin, K. M. (2008). *The Test of Self-Conscious Affect - Version 4 (TOSCA-4)*. Fairfax, VA: George Mason University.

Thomaes, S., Bushman, B. J., Stegge, H., & Olthof, T. (2008). Trumping Shame by Blasts of Noise: Narcissism, Self-Esteem, Shame, and Aggression in Young Adolescents. *Child Development, 79*(6), 1792–1801. doi:10.1111/j.1467-8624.2008.01226.x

Twenge, J. M., & Campbell, W. K. (2003). "Isn't it fun to get the respect that we're going to deserve?" Narcissism, social rejection, and aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, *29*, 261–272.

Uji, M., Nagata, T., & Kitamura, T. (2012). Narcissism: Its function in modulating self-conscious emotions. *Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic, 76*(3), 211.

Vandello, J. A., & Cohen, D. (2004). When believing is seeing: Sustaining norms of violence in cultures of honor. In M. Schaller & C. Crandall (Eds.), *The psychological foundations of culture* (pp. 281–304). New York, NY: Erlbaum.

Vandello, J. A., Ransom, S., Hettinger, V., & Askew, K. (2009). Men's misperceptions about the acceptability and attractiveness of aggression. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 45,* 1209–1219. doi:10.1016/j.jesp.2009.08.006

Vandello, J. A., & Bosson, J. K. (2012). Hard Won and Easily Lost: A Review and Synthesis of Theory and Research on Precarious Manhood. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 14*(2), 101. doi: 10.1037/a0029826

Walters, G. D. (1995a). The Psychological Inventory of Criminal Thinking Styles: Part I, reliability and preliminary validity. *Criminal Justice and Behavior, 22*(3), 307-325.

Watts, R., & Borders, L. (2005). Boys 'Perceptions of the Male Role: Understanding Gender Role Conflict in Adolescent Males. *The Journal of Men's Studies, 13*(2), 267–280. doi:10.3149/jms.1302.267

Welch, M. (1997). Violence Against Women by Professional Football Players. *Journal of Sport and Social Issues, 21*(4), 392–411. doi:10.1177/019372397021004006

Willer, R., Rogalin, C. L., Conlon, B., & Wojnowicz, M. T. (2013). Overdoing gender: A test of the masculine overcompensation thesis. *American Journal of Sociology, 118*(4), 980–1022.

Wimer, D.J. (2022). A Toolkit for Masculinity Scholarship: Review of the Tough Standard: The Hard Truths about Masculinity and Violence. *Journal of Constructivist Psychology, 35*(1), 412-417.

Wong, Y. J., Shea, M., Hickman, S. J., LaFollette, J. R., Cruz, N., & Boghokian, T. (2012, March 5). The Subjective Masculinity Stress Scale: Scale Development and Psychometric Properties. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity. Advance online publication.* doi:10.1037/a0027521

Wright, A. G., Lukowitsky, M. R., Pincus, A. L., & Conroy, D. E. (2010). The higher order factor structure and gender invariance of the Pathological Narcissism Inventory. *Assessment*, *17*(4), 467-483.

Wright, A. G., & Edershile, E. A. (2018). Issues resolved and unresolved in pathological narcissism. *Current Opinion in Psychology, 21*, 74–79.

Zeigler-Hill, V., Myers, E. M., & Clark, C. B. (2010). *Narcissism and self-esteem reactivity: The role of negative achievement events. Journal of Research in Personality, 44(2), 285–292.* doi:10.1016/j.jrp.2010.02.005

Zurbriggen, E. L. (2010). *Rape, War, and the Socialization of Masculinity. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 34(4), 538–549.* doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.2010.01603.x