

WHAT IS BEAUTIFUL IS GOOD¹

KAREN DION,² ELLEN BERSCHIED³

University of Minnesota

ELAINE WALSTER

University of Wisconsin

A person's physical appearance, along with his sexual identity, is the personal characteristic that is most obvious and accessible to others in social interaction. The present experiment was designed to determine whether physically attractive stimulus persons, both male and female, are (a) assumed to possess more socially desirable personality traits than physically unattractive stimulus persons and (b) expected to lead better lives (e.g., be more competent husbands and wives, be more successful occupationally, etc.) than unattractive stimulus persons. Sex of Subject \times Sex of Stimulus Person interactions along these dimensions also were investigated. The present results indicate a "what is beautiful is good" stereotype along the physical attractiveness dimension with no Sex of Judge \times Sex of Stimulus interaction. The implications of such a stereotype on self-concept development and the course of social interaction are discussed.

A person's physical appearance, along with his sexual identity, is the personal characteristic most obvious and accessible to others in social interaction. It is perhaps for this reason that folk psychology has always contained a multitude of theorems which ostensibly permit the forecast of a person's character and personality simply from knowledge of his outward appearance. The line of deduction advanced by most physiognomic theories is simply that "What is beautiful is good . . . [Sappho, *Fragments*, No. 101]," and that "Physical beauty is the sign of an interior beauty, a spiritual and moral beauty . . . [Schiller, 1882]."

Several processes may operate to make the soothsayers' prophecies more logical and accurate than would appear at first glance. First, it is possible that a correlation between inward character and appearance exists because certain personality traits influence one's appearance. For example, a calm, relaxed person may develop fewer lines and wrinkles than a tense, irritable person. Second, cultural stereotypes about the kinds of personalities appropriate for beautiful or ugly people may mold the personalities of these

individuals. If casual acquaintances invariably assume that attractive individuals are more sincere, noble, and honest than unattractive persons, then attractive individuals should be habitually regarded with more respect than unattractive persons. Many have noted that one's self-concept develops from observing what others think about oneself. Thus, if the physically attractive person is consistently treated as a virtuous person, he may become one.

The above considerations pose several questions: (a) Do individuals in fact have stereotyped notions of the personality traits possessed by individuals of varying attractiveness? (b) To what extent are these stereotypes accurate? (c) What is the cause of the correlation between beauty and personality if, in fact, such a correlation exists?

Some observers, of course, deny that such stereotyping exists, and thus render Questions b and c irrelevant. Chief among these are rehabilitation workers (cf. Wright, 1960) whose clients possess facial and other physical disabilities. These researchers, however, may have a vested interest in believing that physical beauty is a relatively unimportant determinant of the opportunities an individual has available to him.

Perhaps more interestingly, it has been asserted that other researchers also have had a vested interest in retaining the belief that beauty is a peripheral characteristic. Aronson (1969), for example, has suggested that the

¹ This research was financed in part by National Institute of Mental Health Grants MH 16729 to Berscheid and MH 16661 to Walster.

² Now at the University of Toronto.

³ Requests for reprints should be sent to Ellen Berscheid, Laboratory for Research in Social Relations, University of Minnesota, Elliott Hall, Minneapolis, Minnesota 55455.

fear that investigation might prove this assumption wrong has generally caused this to be a taboo area for social psychologists:

As an aside, I might mention that physical attractiveness is rarely investigated as an antecedent of liking—even though a casual observation (even by us experimental social psychologists) would indicate that we seem to react differently to beautiful women than to homely women. It is difficult to be certain why the effects of physical beauty have not been studied more systematically. It may be that, at some levels, we would hate to find evidence indicating that beautiful women are better liked than homely women—somehow this seems undemocratic. In a democracy we like to feel that with hard work and a good deal of motivation, a person can accomplish almost anything. But, alas (most of us believe), hard work cannot make an ugly woman beautiful. Because of this suspicion perhaps most social psychologists implicitly prefer to believe that beauty is indeed only skin deep—and avoid the investigation of its social impact for fear they might learn otherwise [p. 160].

The present study was an attempt to determine if a physical attractiveness stereotype exists and, if so, to investigate the content of the stereotype along several dimensions. Specifically, it was designed to investigate (a) whether physically attractive stimulus persons, both male and female, are assumed to possess more *socially desirable personality traits* than unattractive persons and (b) whether they are expected to *lead better lives* than unattractive individuals. With respect to the latter, we wished to determine if physically attractive persons are generally expected to be better husbands and wives, better parents, and more successful socially and occupationally than less attractive persons.

Because it seemed possible that jealousy might attenuate these effects (if one is jealous of another, he may be reluctant to accord the other the status that he feels the other deserves), and since subjects might be expected to be more jealous of attractive stimulus persons of the same sex than of the opposite sex, we examined the Sex of Subject \times Sex of Stimulus Person interactions along the dimensions described above.

METHOD

Subjects

Sixty students, 30 males and 30 females, who were enrolled in an introductory course in psychology at

the University of Minnesota participated in this experiment. Each had agreed to participate in return for experimental points to be added to their final exam grade.

Procedure

When the subjects arrived at the designated rooms, they were introduced to the experiment as a study of accuracy in person perception. The experimenter stated that while psychological studies have shown that people do form detailed impressions of others on the basis of a very few cues, the variables determining the extent to which these early impressions are generally accurate have not yet been completely identified. The subjects were told that the purpose of the present study was to compare person perception accuracy of untrained college students with two other groups who had been trained in various interpersonal perception techniques, specifically graduate students in clinical psychology and clinical psychologists. The experimenter noted his belief that person perception accuracy is a general ability varying among people. Therefore, according to the experimenter, college students who are high on this ability may be as accurate as some professional clinicians when making first-impression judgments based on noninterview material.

The subjects were told that standard sets of photographs would be used as the basis for personality inferences. The individuals depicted in the photographs were said to be part of a group of college students currently enrolled at other universities who were participating in a longitudinal study of personality development scheduled to continue into adulthood. It would be possible, therefore, to assess the accuracy of each subject's judgments against information currently available on the stimulus persons and also against forthcoming information.

Stimulus materials. Following the introduction, each subject was given three envelopes. Each envelope contained one photo of a stimulus person of approximately the subject's own age. One of the three envelopes that the subject received contained a photograph of a physically attractive stimulus person; another contained a photograph of a person of average attractiveness; and the final envelope contained a photograph of a relatively unattractive stimulus person.⁴ Half of our subjects received three pictures of girls; the remainder received pictures of boys.

⁴ The physical attractiveness rating of each of the pictures was determined in a preliminary study. One hundred Minnesota undergraduates rated 50 yearbook pictures of persons of the opposite sex with respect to physical attractiveness. The criteria for choosing the 12 pictures to be used experimentally were (a) high-interrater agreement as to the physical attractiveness of the stimulus (the average interrater correlation for all of the pictures was .70); and (b) pictures chosen to represent the very attractive category and very unattractive category were not at the extreme ends of attractiveness.

To increase the generalizability of our findings and to insure that the general dimension of attractiveness was the characteristic responded to (rather than unique characteristics such as hair color, etc.), 12 different sets of three pictures each were prepared. Each subject received and rated only 1 set. Which 1 of the 12 sets of pictures the subject received, the order in which each of the three envelopes in the set were presented, and the ratings made of the person depicted, were all randomly determined.

Dependent variables. The subjects were requested to record their judgments of the three stimulus persons in several booklets.⁵ The first page of each booklet cautioned the subjects that this study was an investigation of accuracy of person perception and that we were not interested in the subjects' tact, politeness, or other factors usually important in social situations. It was stressed that it was important for the subject to rate the stimulus persons frankly.

The booklets tapped impressions of the stimulus person along several dimensions. First, the subjects were asked to open the first envelope and then to rate the person depicted on 27 different *personality traits* (which were arranged in random order).⁶ The subjects' ratings were made on 6-point scales, the ends of which were labeled by polar opposites (i.e., exciting-dull). When these ratings had been computed, the subject was asked to open the second envelope, make ratings, and then open the third envelope.

In a subsequent booklet, the subjects were asked to assess the stimulus persons on five additional personality traits.⁷ These ratings were made on a slightly different scale. The subjects were asked to indicate which stimulus person possessed the "most" and "least" of a given trait. The stimulus person thought to best represent a positive trait was assigned a score of 3; the stimulus person thought to possess an intermediate amount of the trait was assigned a score of 2; and the stimulus person thought to least represent the trait was assigned a score of 1.

⁵ A detailed report of the items included in these booklets is available. Order Document No. 01972 from the National Auxiliary Publication Service of the American Society for Information Science, c/o CCM Information Services, Inc., 909 3rd Avenue, New York, New York 10022. Remit in advance \$5.00 for photocopies or \$2.00 for microfiche and make checks payable to: Research and Microfilm Publications, Inc.

⁶ The subjects were asked how altruistic, conventional, self-assertive, exciting, stable, emotional, dependent, safe, interesting, genuine, sensitive, outgoing, sexually permissive, sincere, warm, sociable, competitive, obvious, kind, modest, strong, serious, sexually warm, simple, poised, bold, and sophisticated each stimulus person was.

⁷ The subjects rated stimulus persons on the following traits: friendliness, enthusiasm, physical attractiveness, social poise, and trustworthiness.

In a previous experiment (see Footnote 5), a subset of items was selected to comprise an index of the *social desirability* of the personality traits assigned to the stimulus person. The subjects' ratings of each stimulus person on the appropriate items were simply summed to determine the extent to which the subject perceived each stimulus person as socially desirable.

In order to assess whether or not attractive persons are expected to lead happier and more successful lives than unattractive persons, the subjects were asked to estimate which of the stimulus persons would be most likely, and which least likely, to have a number of different life experiences. The subjects were reminded again that their estimates would eventually be checked for accuracy as the lives of the various stimulus persons evolved. The subjects' estimates of the stimulus person's probable life experiences formed indexes of the stimulus person's future happiness in four areas: (a) marital happiness (Which stimulus person is most likely to ever be divorced?); (b) parental happiness (Which stimulus person is most likely to be a good parent?); (c) social and professional happiness (Which stimulus person is most likely to experience deep personal fulfillment?); and (d) total happiness (sum of Indexes a, b, and c).

A fifth index, an occupational success index, was also obtained for each stimulus person. The subjects were asked to indicate which of the three stimulus persons would be most likely to engage in 30 different occupations. (The order in which the occupations were presented and the estimates made was randomized.) The 30 occupations had been chosen such that three status levels of 10 different general occupations were represented, three examples of which follow: Army sergeant (low status); Army captain (average status); Army colonel (high status). Each time a high-status occupation was foreseen for a stimulus person, the stimulus person was assigned a score of 3; when a moderate status occupation was foreseen, the stimulus person was assigned a score of 2; when a low-status occupation was foreseen, a score of 1 was assigned. The average status of occupations that a subject ascribed to a stimulus person constituted the score for that stimulus person in the occupational status index.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Manipulation Check

It is clear that our manipulation of the relative attractiveness of the stimulus persons depicted was effective. The six unattractive stimulus persons were seen as less attractive than the average stimulus persons, who, in turn, were seen as less attractive than the six attractive stimulus persons. The stimulus persons' mean rankings on the attractiveness dimension were 1.12, 2.02, and 2.87, respec-

TABLE 1
TRAITS ATTRIBUTED TO VARIOUS STIMULUS OTHERS

Trait ascription ^a	Unattractive stimulus person	Average stimulus person	Attractive stimulus person
Social desirability of the stimulus person's personality	56.31	62.42	65.39
Occupational status of the stimulus person	1.70	2.02	2.25
Marital competence of the stimulus person	.37	.71	1.70
Parental competence of the stimulus person	3.91	4.55	3.54
Social and professional happiness of the stimulus person	5.28	6.34	6.37
Total happiness of the stimulus person	8.83	11.60	11.60
Likelihood of marriage	1.52	1.82	2.17

^a The higher the number, the more socially desirable, the more prestigious an occupation, etc., the stimulus person is expected to possess.

tively. These differences were statistically significant ($F = 939.32$).⁸

Test of Hypotheses

It will be recalled that it was predicted that the subjects would attribute more socially desirable personality traits to attractive individuals than to average or unattractive individuals. It also was anticipated that jealousy might attenuate these effects. Since the subjects might be expected to be more jealous of stimulus persons of the same sex than of the opposite sex, we blocked both on sex of subject and sex of stimulus person. If jealousy attenuated the predicted main effect, a significant Sex of Subject \times Sex of Stimulus Person interaction should be secured in addition to the main effect.

All tests for detection of linear trend and interaction were conducted via a multivariate analysis of variance. (This procedure is outlined in Hays, 1963.)

The means relevant to the hypothesis that attractive individuals will be perceived to possess more socially desirable personalities than others are reported in Table 1. Analyses reveal that attractive individuals were indeed

judged to be more socially desirable than are unattractive ($F = 29.61$) persons. The Sex of Subject \times Sex of Stimulus Person interaction was insignificant (interaction $F = .00$). Whether the rater was of the same or the opposite sex as the stimulus person, attractive stimulus persons were judged as more socially desirable.⁹

Furthermore, it was also hypothesized that the subjects would assume that attractive stimulus persons are likely to secure more prestigious jobs than those of lesser attractiveness, as well as experiencing happier marriages, being better parents, and enjoying more fulfilling social and occupational lives.

The means relevant to these predictions concerning the estimated future life experiences of individuals of varying degrees of physical attractiveness are also depicted in Table 1. As shown in the table, there was strong support for all of the preceding hypotheses save one. Attractive men and women were expected to attain more prestigious occupations than were those of lesser attractiveness ($F = 42.30$), and this expectation was expressed equally by raters of the same or the opposite sex as the stimulus person (interaction $F = .25$).

The subjects also assumed that attractive individuals would be more competent spouses and have happier marriages than those of lesser attractiveness ($F = 62.54$). (It might be noted that there is some evidence that this may be a correct perception. Kirkpatrick and

⁹ Before running the preliminary experiment to determine the identity of traits usually associated with a socially desirable person (see Footnote 5), we had assumed that an exciting date, a nurturant person, and a person of good character would be perceived as quite different personality types. Conceptually, for example, we expected that an exciting date would be seen to require a person who was unpredictable, challenging, etc., while a nurturant person would be seen to be predictable and unthreatening. It became clear, however, that these distinctions were not ones which made sense to the subjects. There was almost total overlap between the traits chosen as representative of an exciting date, of a nurturant person, and a person of good or ethical character. All were strongly correlated with social desirability. Thus, attractive stimulus persons are assumed to be more exciting dates ($F = 39.97$), more nurturant individuals ($F = 13.96$), and to have better character ($F = 19.57$) than persons of lesser attractiveness.

⁸ Throughout this report, $df = 1/55$.

Cotton (1951), reported that "well-adjusted" wives were more physically attractive than "badly adjusted" wives. "Adjustment," however, was assessed by friends' perceptions, which may have been affected by the stereotype evident here.)

According to the means reported in Table 1, it is clear that attractive individuals were not expected to be better parents ($F = 1.47$). In fact, attractive persons were rated somewhat lower than any other group of stimulus persons as potential parents, although no statistically significant differences were apparent.

As predicted, attractive stimulus persons were assumed to have better prospects for happy social and professional lives ($F = 21.97$). All in all, the attractive stimulus persons were expected to have more total happiness in their lives than those of lesser attractiveness ($F = 24.20$).

The preceding results did not appear to be attenuated by a jealousy effect (Sex of Subject \times Stimulus Person interaction F s = .01, .07, .21, and .05, respectively).

The subjects were also asked to estimate the likelihood that the various stimulus persons would marry early or marry at all. Responses were combined into a single index. It is evident that the subjects assumed that the attractive stimulus persons were more likely to find an acceptable partner than those of lesser attractiveness ($F = 35.84$). Attractive individuals were expected to marry earlier and to be less likely to remain single. Once again, these conclusions were reached by all subjects, regardless of whether they were of the same or opposite sex of the stimulus person (interaction $F = .01$).

The results suggest that a physical attractiveness stereotype exists and that its content is perfectly compatible with the "What is beautiful is good" thesis. Not only are physically attractive persons assumed to possess more socially desirable personalities than those of lesser attractiveness, but it is presumed that their lives will be happier and more successful.

The results also suggest that the physical attractiveness variable may have a number of implications for a variety of aspects of social interaction and influence. For example, it is

clear that physically attractive individuals may have even more advantages in the dating market than has previously been assumed. In addition to an aesthetic advantage in marrying a beautiful spouse (cf. Josselin de Jong, 1952), potential marriage partners may also assume that the beautiful attract all of the world's material benefits and happiness. Thus, the lure of an attractive marriage partner should be strong indeed.

We do not know, of course, how well this stereotype stands up against contradictory information. Nor do we know the extent to which it determines the pattern of social interaction that develops with a person of a particular attractiveness level. Nevertheless, it would be odd if people did not behave toward others in accordance with this stereotype. Such behavior has been previously noted anecdotally. Monahan (1941) has observed that

Even social workers accustomed to dealing with all types often find it difficult to think of a normal, pretty girl as being guilty of a crime. Most people, for some inexplicable reason, think of crime in terms of abnormality in appearance, and I must say that beautiful women are not often convicted [p. 103].

A host of other familiar social psychological dependent variables also should be affected in predictable ways.

In the above connection, it might be noted that if standards of physical attractiveness vary widely, knowledge of the content of the physical attractiveness stereotype would be of limited usefulness in predicting its effect on social interaction and the development of the self-concept. The present study was not designed to investigate the degree of variance in perceived beauty. (The physical attractiveness ratings of the stimulus materials were made by college students of a similar background to those who participated in this study.) Preliminary evidence (Cross & Cross, 1971) suggests that such differences in perceived beauty may not be as severe as some observers have suggested.

REFERENCES

- ARONSON, E. Some antecedents of interpersonal attraction. In W. J. Arnold & D. Levine (Eds.), *Nebraska Symposium on Motivation*, 1969, 17, 143-177.

- CROSS, J. F., & CROSS, J. Age, sex, race, and the perception of facial beauty. *Developmental Psychology*, 1971, 5, 433-439.
- HAYS, W. L. *Statistics for psychologists*. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1963.
- JOSSELYN DE JONG, J. P. B. *Lévi-Strauss' theory on kinship and marriage*. Leiden, Holland: Brill, 1952.
- KIRKPATRICK, C., & COTTON, J. Physical attractiveness, age, and marital adjustment. *American Sociological Review*, 1951, 16, 81-86.
- MONAHAN, F. *Women in crime*. New York: Ives Washburn, 1941.
- SCHILLER, J. C. F. *Essays, esthetical and philosophical, including the dissertation on the "Connections between the animal and the spiritual in man."* London: Bell, 1882.
- WRIGHT, B. A. *Physical disability—A psychological approach*. New York: Harper & Row, 1960.

(Received July 14, 1971)

Manuscripts Accepted for Publication in the
Journal of Personality and Social Psychology

- Social Distance as Categorization of Intergroup Interaction. Carolyn W. Sherif (Department of Psychology, Pennsylvania State University, University Park, Pennsylvania 16802).
- Film-Induced Arousal, Information Search, and the Attribution Process. Michel Girodo (Royal Ottawa Hospital, 1145 Carling Avenue, Ottawa, Ontario K1Z 7K4).
- Ingroup Norms and Self-Identity as Determinants of Discriminatory Behavior. Ehor O. Boyanowsky (Department of Psychology, Dalhousie University, Halifax, Nova Scotia) and Vernon L. Allen.
- Experimentally Induced Changes in Moral Opinions and Reasoning (Charles Blake Keasey (Department of Psychology, Douglass College, Rutgers University, New Brunswick, New Jersey 08903).
- Personality Variables Associated with Cigarette Smoking. Richard W. Coan (Department of Psychology, University of Arizona, Tucson, Arizona 85721).
- Personality and Social Systems and Attitude-Reinforcer-Discriminative Theory: Interest (Attitude) Formation, Function, and Measurement. Arthur W. Staats (Department of Psychology, 2430 Campus Road, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, Hawaii 96822), Michael C. Cross, Peter F. Quay, and Carl C. Carlson.
- Rules, Models, and Self-Reinforcement in Children. David E. Hildebrandt (Department of Psychology, Northern Illinois University, Dekalb, Illinois 60115), Solomon F. Feldman, and Raymond A. Ditricks.
- Attitude Change and Attitude Attribution: Effects of Incentive, Choice, and Consequences in the Festinger and Carlsmith Paradigm. Bobby J. Calder (Department of Business Administration, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61801), Michael Ross, and Chester A. Insko.
- The Defendant's Dilemma: Effects of Jurors' Attitudes and Authoritarianism on Judicial Decisions. Herman E. Mitchell and Donn Byrne (Department of Psychology, Purdue University, Lafayette, Indiana 47907).
- Internal versus External Control of Reinforcement and Reaction to Frustration. Michael Brissett and Stephen Nowicki, Jr. (Department of Psychology, Emory University, Atlanta, Georgia 30322).
- Attitudinal Politics: The Strategy of Moderation. Robert B. Cialdini (Department of Psychology, Arizona State University, Tempe, Arizona 85281), Alan Levy, C. Peter Herman, and Scott Evenbeck.
- Smoking, Physiological Arousal, and Emotional Response. Paul David Nesbitt (Department of Psychology, University of California, Santa Barbara, California 93106).
- Investigation into Deindividuation Using a Cross-Cultural Survey Technique. Robert I. Watson, Jr. (Department of Social Relations, Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts 02138).
- When Do Opposites Attract? When They Are Opposite in Sex and Sex-Role Attitudes. B. A. Seyfried (Department of Psychology, Kent State University, Kent, Ohio 44240) and Clyde Hendrick.
- Stimulus Inconsistency and Response Dispositions in Forming Judgments of Other Persons. Martin F. Kaplan (Department of Psychology, Northern Illinois University, Dekalb, Illinois 60115).
- Context Effects in Observed Violence. Russell G. Geen (Department of Psychology, University of Missouri, Columbia, Missouri 65201) and David Stonner.
- Pygmalion Black and White. Pamela C. Rubovits and Martin L. Maehr (Department of Education Psychology, University of Illinois, Urbana, Illinois 61801).
- Exposure, Context, and Interpersonal Attraction. Susan Saegert (Environmental Psychology Program, The City University of New York, 33 West 42nd Street, New York, New York 10036), Walter Swap, and R. B. Zajonc.
- Power, Opportunity Costs, and Sex in a Mixed-Motive Game. Jeffrey Bedell and Frank Sistrunk (Director of Social Sciences, State University System of Florida, 107 West Gaines Street, Tallahassee, Florida 32304).

(Continued on page 305)