THE EFFECT OF ESSENTIALIST GENDER VIEWS AND GENDER-SPECIFIC SYSTEM JUSTIFICATION ON ATTITUDES TOWARD USING SEXIST LANGUAGE

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ABSTRACT

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This thesis explored the interplay between gender-related constructs and attitudes toward sexist language through three studies. Study 1 probed the effects of gender, hostile and benevolent sexism, gender-specific system justification, and essentialist gender views in predicting attitudes toward sexist language and unveiled the unique roles of essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification in predicting attitudes toward sexist language, extending beyond the contributions of gender and sexism, while men displaying higher levels of each variable. Study 2 manipulated system stability and found that perceived changes in the gender system indirectly influenced attitudes toward sexist language by heightening gender-specific system justification. Study 3 exhibited the indirect effect of exposure to scientific evidence of neuroanatomical gender differences on attitudes toward sexist language through its impact on essentialist gender views. These findings underscore the role of gender-specific system justification and essentialist gender views in predicting attitudes toward sexist language, which could be influenced by perceived changes in the gender system and exposure to scientific evidence of neuroanatomical gender differences. The

studies provide a unique perspective on the manifestation and preservation of sexism in Turkish, highlighting the role of prevailing embedded ideologies in challenging and rectifying sexist language. The limitations incorporate an imbalance in demographic representation and built-in challenges with online experiments. Future research should strive for broad and varied samples and authentic article formats. This work accentuates the multi-faceted nature of forms and extensions of gender-biased views and attitudes and endeavors to foster more egalitarian social systems for all.

***Keywords**:* Sexist Language, Essentialist Gender Views, Gender-Specific System Justification, Sexism

ÖZ

ÖZCÜ CİNSİYET ANLAYIŞININ VE TOPLUMSAL CİNSİYETE ÖZGÜ SİSTEMİ MEŞRULAŞTIRMA DÜZEYİNİN CİNSİYETÇİ DİL KULLANIMINA YÖNELİK TUTUMLARA ETKİSİ

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Bu tez, cinsiyetle ilişkili yapılar ile cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar arasındaki etkileşimi üç çalışma yürüterek araştırmıştır. Çalışma 1, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları yordamada cinsiyetin, düşmanca ve korumacı cinsiyetçiliğin, cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırma düzeyinin ve özcü cinsiyet anlayışının etkilerini incelemiştir. Cinsiyetin ve cinsiyetçiliğin katkılarına ek olarak, özcü cinsiyet anlayışının ve cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmanın cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları tahmin etmedeki özgün rolü ve erkeklerin her bir değişkende anlamlı bir şekilde daha yüksek skorlar aldığı bulunmuştur. Çalışma 2, sistem stabilitesini manipüle ederek, cinsiyet sistemindeki algılanan değişimlerin cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırmayı artırarak cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları dolaylı bir şekilde etkilediğini keşfetmiştir. Çalışma 3, özcü cinsiyet anlayışına olan etkisi aracılığıyla, nöroanatomik cinsiyet farklılıklarına ilişkin bilimsel kanıtlara maruz kalmanın, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlara dolaylı bir etkisi olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Bu bulgular, özcü cinsiyet anlayışının ve cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırmanın cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları anlamlı bir şekilde yordadığını, bu tutumların hem cinsiyet sisteminde

algılanan değişikliklerden hem de beyindeki cinsiyet farklılıklarına dair bilimsel kanıtlara maruz kalmadan etkilenebileceğini vurgulamaktadır. Çalışmalar, yapısal olarak cinsiyetsiz olan Türkçede cinsiyetçiliğin tezahürüne ve sürdürülmesine dair özgün bir bakış açısı sunarak, cinsiyetçi dile karşı çıkmada, var olan yerleşik ideolojilerin rolünü vurgulamaktadır. Sınırlamalar, demografik açıdan örneklemin dengesiz dağılımını ve çevrim içi deneylerle birlikte gelen bazı zorlukları içermektedir. Gelecekteki çalışmalar, daha geniş örneklemler ve daha gerçekçi makale formatları üzerinde çalışabilir. Bu araştırma, cinsiyetçi görüşlerin çok yönlülüğünü vurgulayarak herkes için daha eşitlikçi bir sosyal düzene katkıda bulunmayı amaçlamıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Cinsiyetçi Dil, Özcü Cinsiyet Anlayışı, Cinsiyetle İlgili Sistemi Meşrulaştırma, Cinsiyetçilik

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AIC	Akaike Information Criterion
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
ASI	Ambivalent Sexism Inventory
ATSL	Attitudes Toward Sexist Language
BIC	Bayesian Information Criterion
BS	Benevolent Sexism
EGV	Essentialist Gender Views
GSSJ	Gender-Specific System Justification
GTQ	Gender Theory Questionnaire
HS	Hostile Sexism
HSEC	Human Subjects Ethics Committee
KMO	Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin
PCA	Principal Component Analysis
UN	United Nations
VIF	Variance Inflation Factor

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The manifestation of gender-biased assumptions we encounter across many areas of our daily lives, followed by gender-based discrimination, inequality, or justification of the gender-based system, is inevitably reflected in language. Although the use of sexist language has been hotly debated and sought to be changed by feminists and activists since the 1960s, this issue has not been confined to the feminist milieu in the years since. As one of the responses to the expression of sexism in language, the concept of political correctness has spread beyond the academic walls (Mills, 2008). Although sexist language is strongly criticized and brought to the attention of the public, reforming the language is challenging, and sexist beliefs and discourses could be disguised in various manners (Doyle, 1998). That is, even if an overt use of sexist language is stigmatized, it does not mean that these sexist views do not manifest themselves through language. Studies show that attitudes toward women (e.g., Sarrasin et al., 2012), beliefs about gender roles (e.g., Scott, 1993), and biological essentialist understandings (e.g., Lomotey, 2017) are associated with sexist language usage, as instances of gender-based beliefs and discrimination manifesting through language.

When considering sexist language, it is worth noting that structural and semantic disparities exist between languages. English, for instance, is structurally gender-biased (e.g., using "he" as a generic pronoun) (Mills, 2008; Umera-Okeke, 2012), when contrasted to genderless languages such as Turkish (e.g., using non-gendered third person pronoun, "*o*"). Despite the lack of structural gender bias in particular languages, sexism could still be observed when studied from the perspective of semantics, the branch of study concerned with interpreting the meaning within language (Bagha, 2011). Therefore, besides the structural aspects, it is also crucial to examine how

gender-biased views and discourses are conveyed and mediated through language in everyday life.

Language impacts the socialization process and reflects cultural components, since it serves as an instrument that expresses the view of society while also shaping it. This makes studying the subtler manifestations of sexism in language and their antecedents immensely important. However, even though there is a relatively growing body of literature regarding the relationship between language and gender, not enough attention has been given to genderless languages (Lomotey, 2017). Given that Turkish is a language that has gender-neutral grammatical components, it is vital to study this issue within the Turkish context.

Notably, in this setting, it inevitably becomes important to scrutinize the attitudes toward sexist language use and how it relates to underlying structures, including essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification. Assumptions that men and women differ fundamentally and attributions made for men and women are unchangeable constitute the core of essentialist gender views (Dar-Nimrod & Heine, 2011; Haslam & Whelan, 2008; Prentice & Miller, 2007). Gender-specific system justification, on the other hand, is a particular form of system-justifying beliefs that maintains and rationalizes gender-related societal systems (Jost & Kay, 2005). Both of these concepts have the capacity to covertly perpetuate sexism by affecting and predicting attitudes toward sexist language.

This thesis investigates the interrelations surrounding attitudes toward sexist language within the context of Turkey, which demonstrates its uniqueness by enabling these dynamics to be examined in a grammatically genderless language. In order to shed some light on these intricate relationships, this thesis presents three studies. Study 1 investigated how essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification predicted attitudes toward sexist language, controlling for gender and sexism. Study 2 expanded on this by exploring to what extent perceptions of stability or changes in the gender system could affect attitudes toward sexist language, mediated by gender-specific system justification. At last, widening the scope, Study 3 examined how exposure to scientific information on the brain structures of women and men influences attitudes toward sexist language through essentialist gender views.

This thesis aims to broaden our grasp of the Turkish context regarding attitudes toward sexist language, through a range of studies, while simultaneously contributing to the overall literature on sexism and language use. The research, therefore, serves as both a close look at the predictors of attitudes toward sexist language in the Turkish context and an important step toward a better understanding of the interplay between sexism and language altogether.

1.1. The Concept of Sexist Language and Attitudes Toward It

Going beyond merely being a communication tool, language is a powerful instrument that cannot be ignored, as it influences and mirrors perspectives on life, including gender views. This powerful medium certainly reflects perceptions of gender, including sexist remarks, whether intentionally or not. Sexist language is defined as "words, phrases, and expressions that unnecessarily differentiate between females and males or exclude, trivialize, or diminish either gender" (Parks & Roberton, 1998, 2000). Although this definition is indisputably based on a binary gender assumption, it is at a point that can be effective for the scope of the current study. However, it is critical to acknowledge the limitations of this dual definition while continuing with the research. This definition should include a broader range of gender identities to provide more comprehensive information in future studies.

Mills (2008) states that sexist language could be classified as a prevalent type of indirect sexism as the sexist components in it are not overt all the time. As a subtle way of sustaining sexism, this frequently remains overlooked. Various structural and semantic examples of sexist language could be presented. An example would be to use gendered pronouns by default (e.g., "he," "him," and "his") when gender is ambiguous. Attribution of gender directly to occupations (e.g., salesman, chairman) and the use of stereotypes, metaphors, and idioms that impose gender roles (e.g., crying like a woman as an emphasis of weakness and emotionality, acting manly as an accent of heroism) can be given as other examples. It may be argued that these examples reflect cultural and societal norms and their effects are insignificant; however, all these examples could pave the way for a narrative that consolidates in daily life and marginalizes genders while putting them in stereotypical roles.

To this end, psycholinguistic researchers have lately been spending a considerable amount of effort on promoting gender-fair language to endorse equality and inclusiveness. Gender-fair language is defined as "the use of lexical and syntactic choices that do not privilege, belittle or highlight a particular gender" (Talosa, 2018, p. 8865). The usage of alternative referents for the gendered words that have been proposed since the 1970s includes examples such as using the word "firefighter" rather than "fireman" (Sarrasin et al., 2012, p. 4) and the adoption of gender-neutral pronouns (e.g., "they," "them," and "their"). However, while promoting gender-neutral language is a major move, it is also crucial to recognize the underlying issues that accompany sexist language.

To reiterate, sexist language should be taken as an indirect form of sexism rather than merely a linguistic issue, with the evidence pointing out the association between gender differences in the use, recognition of, and attitudes toward sexist language and attitudes toward women (e.g., Parks & Roberton, 2005; Sarrasin et al., 2012; Scott, 1993). These stated gender differences are, to a large extent, related to attitudes toward women, which have a mediator role in the gender differences in perceptions of linguistic sexism among university students (Parks & Roberton, 2005). Additionally, attitudes toward non-sexist language among British and Swiss students partially mirror their attitudes toward women (Sarrasin et al., 2012). Scott (1993), on the other hand, specifies the two-way nature of the relationship between language and the attitudes toward women, indicating that language both reflects and shapes these attitudes.

While overt sexism is no longer the norm, sexism is so firmly rooted that people may not even realize they are using sexist language, and the propensity to do so is particularly strong in Western cultures (Scott, 1993; Talosa, 2018). Linguistic change, crucial for establishing gender-neutral language, emphasizes the role of linguistic context in this process. Despite proliferating literature on language and gender, research on structurally genderless languages remains limited (Lomotey, 2017), encouraging the present research to explore sexist language use and its gender-related antecedents in the Turkish linguistic context, an exploration that offers to add another angle to this field of study with a new perspective.

1.2. Language and Gender in the Turkish Context

Turkish is one of the languages that do not have grammatical gender (Arpinar-Avsar et al., 2016; Saraç, 2016; Vasvári, 2011), which means (a) it has no masculine or feminine denoted nouns; (b) there are no gender-marked pronouns; and, (c) there is no instrument for gender distinction (Arpinar-Avsar et al., 2016). In theory, the lack of gendered pronouns eradicates a possible means for unintended sexism in language. However, this absence of grammatical gender in a language like Turkish does not certainly imply the nonappearance of sexism. Indeed, gender discrimination could occur through the traditional usage of the Turkish language (Saraç, 2016), as it could still engage with lexical gender distinctions (Vasvári, 2011). Sexism in Turkish may take several forms, as there are many words, phrases, and adverbs that reflect gender-related messages and classifications in Turkish (Saraç, 2016).

Despite this, the Turkish language is claimed to be neglected within the framework of feminist sociolinguistics (Ergün, 2013). Some research, however, has delved into the gender-discriminatory properties of the Turkish, finding that perceived gender roles are reflected in Turkish proverbs and idioms as they reflect the understanding of the society in a more deep-seated and stereotypical manner (Çer & Şahin, 2016), and gender discriminatory properties in specific Turkish language textbooks (Agcihan & Gokce, 2018).

Moving on to personal variables, it is noteworthy that, although there has been some research on gender-discriminatory components in Turkish, particularly in the linguistic field, no studies have looked into the relationship between sexist language usage and personal variables. To be more specific, no study has been conducted in Turkey examining attitudes toward sexist language and exploring some of its social psychological antecedents.

Given that attitudes toward sexist language could be associated with certain forms of ideologies that serve to perpetuate and legitimate the existing gender hierarchies within society (Douglas & Sutton, 2014), the current research aims to scrutinize essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification in this context. Gender and sexism variables are included as control variables to effectively measure the impacts of essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification.

1.3. Essentialist Gender Views

The nature versus nurture argument is one of the most prominent matters in science fields, including psychology (Coleman & Hong, 2008). With regard to psychologists, although the majority of them would point out that human behaviors are not determined solely by biology or environment, that is, they are affected by both of them to a variable extent, laypeople could claim the opposite and believe one of them is more responsible than the other (Martin & Parker, 1995). As Heider (1958) indicated, laypeople could be seen as *naïve scientists*, considering that they also form beliefs and theories about the way they see social groups and make their way by taking these into account (as cited in Coleman & Hong, 2008).

The concept of *psychological essentialism* has been coined by Medin and Ortony (1989) to purport a belief that numerous categories have essences among laypeople, and the term indicates that essentialist heuristic takes place in category representation processes (Haslam & Whelan, 2008; Prentice & Miller, 2006, 2007). It assumes that the phenomenon of *essence* is perceived as unalterable, inherent, natural, and historically invariant, and the members of an essentialized group acceptedly carry deep-seated similarities with the rest of the group; thus, the essence of the category regulates *the innate potential* and limits the members (Haslam & Whelan, 2008; Haslam et al., 2002; Prentice & Miller, 2006; Skewes et al., 2018).

With its far-reaching social implications, psychological essentialism could shed light on intergroup bias, conflict, misunderstanding (Prentice & Miller, 2007), stigma, prejudice (Haslam, 1998), and stereotype endorsement (Bastian & Haslam, 2006; Williams & Eberhardt, 2008). Allport stated in The Nature of Prejudice (1954) that essentialist beliefs are one of the most prominent components of an inflexible way of thinking, which eventually forms the basis for prejudice (as cited in Haslam & Whelan, 2008). Furthermore, essentialist thinking has been reported in various cultural contexts (Astuti et al., 2004; Diesendruck, 2001; Gil-White, 2001).

Building on these insights, focusing on essentialism has gained remarkable momentum in modern social science and cultural research, notably within the framework of gender, race, and sexual orientation theories (Haslam et al., 2000). This surge is

evident despite *the gender similarities hypothesis*, which suggests that women and men are similar to each other in most, but not all, variables (Hyde, 2005).

The social category of gender constitutes one of the most scrutinized domains in terms of understanding the role of essentialist beliefs in categories (Dar-Nimrod & Heine, 2011; Haslam & Whelan, 2008; Haslam et al., 2002; Prentice & Miller, 2007). Essentialist gender categories assume that men and women differ fundamentally, and attributions made for men and women are unchangeable (Dar-Nimrod & Heine, 2011; Haslam & Whelan, 2008; Prentice & Miller, 2007).

Regarding the nature vs. nurture debate, Eagly and Wood (1999) indicated that *evolved dispositions* and *social structure* are the main components that could affect the origins of gender differences in human behaviors. They compare the two theories regarding gender differences: evolutionary psychology and social structural theories. Evolutionary psychology primarily relies on biological essentialism. The social structure theorists, on the other hand, indicate that the economy, societal structure, cultural components, and ecology have a considerable impact on the origins of gender differences in behavior. In this particular, Skewes et al. (2018) state that the understanding of essentialism by laypeople is mainly based on biological determinism, although some studies indicate that social determinism takes place in the origin of essentialist views (Rangel & Keller, 2011). Eagly and Wood (1999), however, argue that these two origins of gender differences theories do not necessarily oppose each other; instead, they complete each other.

When delving into the realm of implicit theories, Bastian and Haslam (2007) purport that essentialist views are covaried with entity theories, and they are uniquely linked to increased preferences for stereotype-consistent information. They, therefore, argue that studies on implicit theories could be incorporated into the theoretical account of essentialism. Implicit theories that people hold are divided into two: *entity theory* and *incremental theory*. Parallel with essentialism, entity theory encapsulates the belief of personalities being fixed and static, whereas incremental theory embodies the belief of personalities being malleable and adjustable (McConnell, 2001).

Essentialist gender views are not just limited to these scholarly theories and discussions; they can have a significant impact on daily conceptions and attitudes

toward gender. These views, rooted in gender theories, could have a considerable influence on endorsing gender-typed attributions (Coleman & Hong, 2008) and sexist behaviors. Evidence from Keller's (2005) study supports this notion, which found that participants who acknowledged genetic determinism were more likely to demonstrate higher levels of modern sexist behaviors. Skewes et al. (2018) further substantiate this connection, reporting a correlation between gender essentialist beliefs and the endorsement of gender inequality and discrimination, with highly essentialist participants rating a female political candidate with power-seeking characteristics lower than a male equivalent. Thus, the endorsement of essentialist gender views could be associated with the perpetuation of sexism since these essentialist understandings inherently support and contribute to perpetuating stereotypical gender roles and biases.

In line with this, the literature demonstrates that the endorsement of essentialist gender views is higher among men than women. Keller (2005), for instance, reported that male participants demonstrated higher levels of belief in genetic determinism. Mahalingam's (2003a, 2003b) research in India showed that the female gender was more essentialized than the male gender, predominantly by men, supporting the same pattern. Furthermore, Smiler and Gelman (2008) found that men showed higher levels of essentialism than women, and there was a greater level of essentialism for masculine perceptions (e.g., ambitious, intelligent, business executive, as outlined in their article). These findings highlight that essentialist gender views are endorsed differentially for men and women at varying levels.

Even though discrimination based on gender and its relationship with the essentialist view is highly studied, there is a scarcity of research regarding the relationship between essentialist gender views and attitudes toward sexist language. According to essentialist gender views, gendered language is an output of distinctively intrinsic properties of men and women, and this gender essentialist language perception serves as a solid foundation for implicit gender socialization, leading people to believe that gender differences, including those reflected in language, are deeply ingrained (Leaper & Bigler, 2004). This, in turn, could initiate a cyclical pattern.

Building on the concept of essentialist gender views, it is pivotal to look into their connection with attitudes toward sexist language. This understanding can help

illuminate the roots of linguistic sexism and enrich our grasp of gender inequality overall. A detailed examination of experimental studies on essentialism and gender essentialist views in general may offer additional insights into this intricate relationship.

Exposing participants to ostensibly scientific texts addressing gender differences in terms of disposition and behavior is a form of manipulation that has been successfully applied in previous studies to engender differences in essentialist thinking (Klysing, 2019). Predominantly, the studies are presented to the participants as two separate studies, and the manipulation of essentialism is done in the so-called first study, with ostensibly scientific articles being presented in different levels of essentialism conditions (e.g., Brescoll & LaFrance, 2004; Christy et al., 2019; Coleman & Hong, 2008). Such manipulations are operated to examine the effects of essentialist gender views on self-stereotyping tendencies (e.g., Christy et al., 2019; Coleman & Hong, 2008), gender stereotype endorsement (e.g., Brescoll & LaFrance, 2004; Ching & Xu, 2018), gender prejudice (e.g., Ching & Xu, 2018), supporting rights of women and transgender people (e.g., Wilton et al., 2019), system-justifying and gender-specific system-justifying attitudes (e.g., Brescoll et al., 2013; Morton et al., 2009; Şahin & Soylu Yalcinkaya, 2020), recognizing discriminatory behaviors (e.g., Klysing, 2019), and sexism (e.g., Şahin & Soylu Yalcinkaya, 2020).

From the point of system-justifying attitudes, Morton et al. (2009) investigated how perceptions regarding the stability of social hierarchy could moderate the association between sexist and essentialist views. They also delved into how articulating these essentialist views could potentially influence the social structure bidirectionally. They found that both genders exhibited an amplified acceptance of inequality upon encountering essentialist theories. Moreover, these theories not only heightened men's endorsement of discriminatory actions but also bolstered their self-esteem. Furthermore, Brescoll et al. (2013) argued that the drive to justify the system leads to stronger support for essentialist theories, given that these depict group differences as unalterable. They manipulated whether system-threatening and system-affirmative explanations could affect the level of endorsing biological essentialism and believing immutable gender differences by exposing participants to ostensibly two separate stories under the cover of examining human memory. They found that motivations to

justify the system amplified the acceptance of essentialist gender views among participants of both genders. Furthermore, this effect was shown to be mediated by beliefs in the unchangeability of these differences.

Şahin and Soylu Yalcinkaya (2020), on the other hand, investigated the impact of exposure to scientific findings emphasizing or dismissing gender differences in the brain on the subjects' endorsement of essentialist gender views. They further explored how these views indirectly affected sexism and gender-specific system justification. They pointed out that only a handful of empirical research has looked at the impact of being exposed to information specifically about brain-based gender differences. The authors made a unique contribution to the literature as they examined a social issue such as gender inequality in the context of Turkey within the framework of essentialist gender views. What is unique about this study is that they scrutinized the effects of exposure to information that details differences and similarities within the brain between genders on gender essentialist views, contrasting with other studies which primarily focused on gender differences from a neurobiological and social perspective. The results revealed that being exposed to newspaper reports regarding gender similarities within the brain engendered a lower level of endorsement of essentialist gender views and negatively predicted gender-specific system justification and sexism levels of participants. However, being exposed to scientific evidence about gender differences within the brain did not engender an increased endorsement of essentialist gender views.

Ultimately, reviewing all these studies and results, it could be purported that exposure to various explanations for gender differences has a considerable impact on the perceptions of participants regarding gender-related constructs. These constructs may intersect or deviate from the system-justifying ideologies. When included in individuals' belief systems, essentialist gender views could be associated with how individuals perceive and support existing social arrangements, emphasizing the need for delving into the concept of gender-specific system justification.

1.4. Gender-Specific System Justification

Jost and Banaji (1994) established the *system justification theory* to understand how and why existing social systems are endorsed and perpetuated (Jost & Hunyady, 2005;

Jost et al., 2004). It is defined as “a psychological process by which existing social arrangements are legitimized, even at the expense of personal and group interest” (Jost & Banaji, 1994, p. 2). It suggests that people are prone to justify and rationalize the existing social, economic, and political regulations to the extent of perceiving them as just and valid.

This concept is vital in explaining why the disadvantaged people in the existing society endorse negative stereotypes about themselves (Jost & Banaji, 1994). It is assumed that there is a motivational tendency to pragmatize the established system, with individuals demonstrating distinctive differences in this tendency due to both contextual and dispositional components (Jost & Hunyady, 2005). Jost et al. (2004) address that (a) there is an ideological motivation to rationalize and justify the social system; (b) this motivation plays a role in out-group favoritism and in-group inferiority; (c) it is seen most easily when there is an implicit, nonconscious awareness; and, (d) it could be seen more intense within the disadvantaged group. Therefore, not only the advantaged members but also the disadvantaged ones would be expected to engage with system justification, even if there is a substantial cost (Jost & Hunyady, 2005). In fact, it is specified that “those who suffer the most from the system are also those who have the most to explain, justify, and rationalize” (Jost et al., 2004, p. 909). Although the system justification theories could differ thematically or contextually, the social and psychological processes of holding each theory would be expected to be similar (Jost & Hunyady, 2005).

There are striking gender differences and similarities in the relation between gender and system justification. Jost and Burgess (2000) found that women demonstrated more in-group ambivalence and less in-group favoritism than men. This indicates that women might experience greater ambivalence toward their own group, and they may both endorse the current system and acknowledge the superiority of high-status groups due to the impact of system-justifying beliefs. Addedly, Jost and Kay (2005) revealed that complementary stereotypes portraying men as agentic and women as communal strengthened the support for the existing system among women. Furthermore, Dirilen-Gumus (2011) discovered that men were more inclined toward system justification, but these gender differences were mediated through political ideology.

As for the association between sexism and system justification, Glick and Fiske (1996) purported that women's acceptance of sexist beliefs provides a rationale for the existing gender system in society. They put forward the idea that hostile sexism and benevolent sexism are centered on social power dynamics, sexuality, and gender identity, serving as a means to rationalize the gender hierarchy. Additionally, Sibley et al. (2007) revealed that women could play a role in bolstering the existing gender inequality by embracing benevolent sexism as a way to justify the system. These findings indicate that sexism and its forms could have a substantial impact on strengthening and prolonging system-justifying beliefs.

To this end, when looking at system justification from a gender-specific perspective, it refers to the legitimization and endorsement of the existing gender system. The relevance of this concept is readily discernible, considering its role in societal and individual behaviors.

Exploring system justification and gender-specific system justification in the Turkish context might offer a distinctive viewpoint on how social attitudes and beliefs enable gender disparities. Several studies have been conducted in Turkey to investigate the relationship between sexism and the degree of system justification (e.g., Aktan, 2012; Işık, 2008). Ercan (2009) was the first to investigate gender-related system justification in Turkey within the framework of ambivalent sexism and attitude toward violence against women, finding that gender-related system justification was significantly related to hostile sexism but not benevolent sexism.

Exploring the connection between system justification, mainly when it concerns gender, and the attitudes toward the use of sexist language, presents another significant area of research. Stereotypes, sexist discourses in words of wisdom, figurative and idiomatic expressions, and proverbs carry the potential to ease the justification of the existing system along with the gender hierarchies by making them appear normal (Lomotey, 2017). Other than that, it is claimed that the gender gap pertaining to supporting the non-sexist language is related to the perception of the legitimacy of hierarchies, which in other words, to the system justification motives (Douglas & Sutton, 2014).

The literature offers a few perspectives on experiments regarding system justification, encompassing different concepts such as gender stereotypes (e.g., Jost & Kay, 2005; Kay & Jost, 2003), gender roles (e.g., Kray et al., 2017), and essentialism (e.g., Brescoll et al., 2013; Morton et al., 2009).

In their first study, Brescoll et al. (2013) exposed participants to system-threatening, system-affirming, neutral, or existential threat conditions through a newspaper article. They uncovered that evoking motivations to support the existing system resulted in a higher acceptance of essentialist statements for gender differences, especially when the system was threatened. The results revealed that the perceived immutability of these gender differences was a mediator in this relationship. In Study 2, they used a goal contagion manipulation to prime a system legitimizing goal by having participants read one of three narratives (i.e., pro-system, anti-system, control), finding that those in the first condition were more likely to endorse essentialist gender views.

In a similar vein, Morton et al. (2009) explored the association between perceived social status, sexism, and essentialist gender views with three studies. In the first study, participants were given a manipulated article about gender inequality, depicting a stable or changing gender system. Notably, men, particularly those with higher levels of sexism, were more inclined to embrace essentialist views when their group status was threatened by societal change. The third study, on the other hand, comprised two conditions: fact condition (i.e., theories of biological gender differences) and debate condition (i.e., the condition under which these theories are scientifically discussed). The results indicated that being exposed to essentialist theories resulted in the higher endorsement of inequality among both genders while heightening men's advocacy of discriminatory acts. The overall results imply that men could strategically endorse essentialist gender views to protect their status when a change in society threatens their superiority in the system. Ultimately, Brescoll et al. (2013) and Morton et al. (2009) illustrated the critical link between system justification and essentialist views, mainly when there is a perceived threat to group status.

To conclude, these experimental studies, addressing various concepts and experimental manipulations of system justification, emphasize the role of gender-specific notions and processes while improving our comprehension in this direction.

1.5. Interplay Between Essentialist Gender Views, Gender-Specific System Justification, and Attitudes Toward Sexist Language

Within the realm of the related literature, the interaction between essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, and attitudes toward the use of sexist language presents an intricate yet rich area of exploration. Shedding some light on these interrelations could offer insights into the persistent pervasiveness of sexist language in society and equip us with practical ways to reduce its prevalence. To provide a clearer understanding, it is crucial to discuss the theoretical underpinnings regarding essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification within the context of existing research.

There is a widespread agreement in the literature that essentialist gender views can serve to rationalize and perpetuate inequalities within society (Brescoll & LaFrance, 2004; Haslam et al., 2002; Li et al., 2020; Mahalingam, 2003a, 2003b; Martin & Parker, 1995; Morton et al., 2009; O'Connor & Joffe, 2014; Pinho & Gaunt, 2021; Prusaczyk & Hodson, 2020; Rangel & Keller, 2011; Saguy et al., 2021; Skewes et al., 2018; Swigger & Meyer, 2019; Łyś et al., 2021, 2022). Assuming that specific gender characteristics belong to different gender categories and constraining certain members in those categories, eventually, lead people to justify gender inequalities and establish a ground for hierarchy (Coleman & Hong, 2008; Fine, 2008; Haslam & Whelan, 2008; Verkuyten, 2003; Yzerbyt et al., 1997). This conceptual framework implies that essentialist views may be invoked in a more strategic manner when the status quo is threatened. In other words, those in higher-status positions might use essentialist views as a defense mechanism to solidify their power and legitimatize the prevailing social hierarchy (e.g., Kray et al., 2017; Morton et al., 2009).

In a related vein, there is a debate in the literature around the possibility of a reverse relationship, in which system justification may lead to essentialist views (e.g., Coleman & Hong, 2008). This claim relies on the hypothesis that system-justifying motives could engender people to seek essentialist explanations to depict societal structures as immutable (Brescoll et al., 2013; Łyś et al., 2021). Despite these studies' valuable insights, a definitive understanding of the cause-and-effect link between

system-justifying motives and essentialist views remains unclear, emphasizing additional research in this area (e.g., Łyś et al., 2021).

Expanding upon the multifaceted interaction between system-justifying motives and essentialist gender views, an intriguing line of research arises when considering the ramifications of these variables on sexist language usage. The emphasis here turns from larger social structures to the everyday manifestations of these ideologies in how people communicate and make choices regarding language usage. Biological essentialism applies to the justifications of existing gender orders in societies where grammatically genderless languages are spoken, and even gender-neutral languages expose people to detrimental sexism-related ideologies that affect their social life (Lomotey, 2017). However, the existing literature fails to present studies investigating the relationship between essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, and attitudes toward sexist language, which offers a rich opportunity for new research. Delving deeper into the effects of these views and justifications on language use may reveal more insights.

Considering the interaction of essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification, one can infer that they play a large part in fostering sexist language. The adoption of innate and immutable traits attributed to each gender and the support for preserving and maintaining the current gender system are likely to be mirrored in language. This issue could be further illustrated by considering how these views perpetuate traditional gender roles and stereotypes.

Essentialist gender views can serve to reinforce traditional gender roles and stereotypes that are frequently mirrored and perpetuated by sexist language. For instance, the perception that women are innately more emotional can promote the use and acceptance of language that portrays women accordingly is not at all a far-fetched idea. Simultaneously, the use of sexist language and emphasizing women's subordinate position may function to preserve the existing status quo and maintain the system especially for individuals with a high level of gender-specific system justification. Nevertheless, it is important to note that these two variables do not merely determine attitudes toward sexist language. Naturally, attitudes toward sexist language can be influenced by various factors beyond these two variables, including gender,

cultural background, or personal experiences. Nonetheless, there is a pressing need for more comprehensive research to understand how these variables might shape attitudes toward sexist language and how they interrelate.

1.6. Overview and Aims of the Three Studies in This Thesis

The purpose of this thesis is to present an in-depth exploration of the interplay between essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, and attitudes toward sexist language. Recognizing the potential role of these constructs in perpetuating sexist language, this body of research seeks to probe these concepts from various perspectives.

Study 1 aims to explore how gender-specific system justification and essentialist gender views predict attitudes toward sexist language, beyond the impact of gender and sexism. Drawing from the literature, this first correlational study endeavors to understand how these variables predict attitudes toward sexist language. Study 2 seeks to experimentally manipulate the perception of gender system stability, intending to probe how this perception impacts attitudes toward sexist language through gender-specific system justification. By scrutinizing the indirect effect of system stability on attitudes toward sexist language through gender-specific system justification, the second study offers insights into how changes in the system could potentially affect attitudes toward sexist language through increased gender-specific system justification. Study 3 expands the scope beyond the initial two studies, particularly emphasizing the influence of exposure to scientific explanations related to brain structures. Notably, the main objective of the final study is to scrutinize the indirect effects of being exposed to various scientific research results on attitudes toward sexist language through essentialist gender views.

Ultimately, this thesis aims to deepen our comprehension of the relationships between essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, and attitudes toward sexist language. Through shedding light on these concepts, this thesis endeavors to add a valuable contribution to the debate regarding sexist language, aiming to raise awareness, reduce its prevalence, and promote gender equality. In the subsequent chapters, all three studies are thoroughly presented.

CHAPTER 2

STUDY 1

The aims of Study 1 are to investigate the potential influences of several factors on attitudes toward the use of sexist language. Specifically, the study seeks to examine the power of essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification in predicting attitudes toward sexist language, while looking to see if they have an impact beyond gender and sexism. Although not explicitly hypothesized, since these concepts are directly related to gender, this study examines whether there are gender differences in the scores of hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, gender-specific system justification, essentialist gender views, and attitudes toward the use of sexist language, as part of its exploratory approach. It is hypothesized that essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification will predict attitudes toward sexist language over and above those predicted by gender and hostile and benevolent sexism. Particularly, it is posited that individuals with higher scores on these variables will hold more positive attitudes toward the use of sexist language, even after controlling for the effects of gender and forms of sexism in the model. This hypothesis builds on previous research that suggests that gender, hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, gender-specific system justification, essentialist gender views, and attitudes toward the use of sexist language are all somewhat related constructs. Study 1 aims to contribute to our understanding of how these constructs are interrelated by testing the hypothesis.

2.1. Method

2.1.1. Participants

The target population for this study comprised individuals aged 18 or above, residing in Turkey, and possessing Turkish as their primary language, with no other exclusion criteria. Following the exclusion of three participants below the age of 18, the

questionnaire battery was filled out by a total of 415 individuals, including 296 women (75.1%), 94 men (23.9%), and 4 other individuals. Data were collected via social media (i.e., Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and WhatsApp), including the non-student sample, by determining a three-month period.

The age of the participants ranged from 18 to 67 (N = 394, M = 29.80, SD = 11.4). Participants aged 22 and 23 had the highest percentage in the sample (N = 52, 13.2%, N = 63, 16%, respectively).

The majority of participants in this study had spent most of their lives in metropolitan areas. Specifically, 65.5% of participants reported having spent most of their lives in a metropolis, 23.4% in a city, 8.6% in a district, 2% in a village, and .5% in a town (N = 394) (see Table 1.1).

Table 1.1

Frequencies of the Place of Residence

Levels	*f*	%
Metropolis	258	65.5 %
City	92	23.4 %
District	34	8.6 %
Town	2	0.5 %
Village	8	2.0 %

Table 1.2

Frequencies of Education Level

Levels	*f*	%
Primary school	2	0.5 %
Secondary school	4	1.0 %
High school	129	32.9 %
Bachelor's degree	214	54.6 %
Graduate degree	43	11.0 %

The participants had a diverse range of educational backgrounds, with the lowest education level being primary school graduates and the highest being master's or doctorate degree holders (N = 392). None of the participants reported being illiterate. The most common education levels among participants were high school graduates at 32.9%, bachelors at 54.6%, and graduates at 11% (see Table 1.2).

When the participants were asked which income level group they assumed to belong to, the answers ranged from lower to higher (N = 393). While most respondents considered themselves to be middle-income (N = 227, 57.8%), this percentage was 17.8% for the upper-middle class, 17% for the lower-middle, 6.4% for the lower, and lastly 1% for the upper class (see Table 1.3).

Table 1.3

Frequencies of Income Level

Levels	*f*	%
Lower	25	6.4 %
Lower-middle	67	17.0 %
Middle	227	57.8 %
Upper-middle	70	17.8 %
Upper	4	1.0 %

Table 1.4

Frequencies of Marital Status

Levels	*f*	%
Single	268	68.0 %
Married	105	26.6 %
Divorced	14	3.6 %
Other	7	1.8 %

In terms of marital status, the majority of participants, accounting for 68%, identified themselves as single, while 26.6% reported being married (2) (N = 394) (see Table 1.4).

When asked to rate their level of conservatism on a scale of 0 (*not at all*) to 10 (*completely*), 57% of the participants chose values between 0 and 4, whereas 25.4% selected values between 6 and 10. The median value chosen by participants was 5, with a percentage of 17.6 (N = 393, M = 4.81, SD = 2.60).

Participants were asked to indicate their closest political position in a spectrum from *left* to *right*, and 24.3% responded that they stood in the middle. In this sample (N = 391, M = 4.78, SD = 2.83), left-oriented participants were more prevalent than right-oriented participants (N = 215 and 55% for the left spectrum, N = 81 and 20.7% for the right spectrum).

Table 1.5 presents the correlation coefficients between the study variables and the demographic variables. The study variables (i.e., essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, and attitudes toward sexist language) showed a positive correlation with age, conservatism level, and left-right spectrum. The strongest correlation coefficients of the study variables were observed with conservatism level and the left-right spectrum.

Table 1.5

Correlation Coefficients Between the Study Variables and Demographic Variables in Study 1

	EGV	GSSJ	HS	BS	ATSL
Age	.14**	.19***	.24***	.25***	.17**
Education level	-.11*	-.05	-.07	-.04	-.07
Income level	.10	.07	.10	.07	.18**
Conservatism level	.47***	.42***	.42***	.46***	.46***
Left-right spectrum	.44***	.38***	.44***	.36***	.51***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. HS = Hostile Sexism. BS = Benevolent Sexism. ATSL = Attitudes Toward Sexist Language.

2.1.2. Measures

2.1.2.1. Demographic Information Form

Participants were administered the Demographic Information Form, which included questions on age, gender, place of residence, education level, income level, marital status, conservatism level (rated on a scale from *not at all* to *completely*), and left-right orientation (measured using *the left vs. right political spectrum* on an 11-point scale). The related questions can be found in Appendix A.

2.1.2.2. Gender Theory Questionnaire (GTQ)

It was initially developed by Coleman and Hong (2008) and subsequently adapted to Turkish by Antmen (2020). The GTQ was utilized to assess the endorsement of essentialist gender views of participants. The original scale consists of 11 items divided into social theory and biological theory dimensions on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. In Study 1, ten items were employed since the second item has previously indicated a low correlation with both social and

biology theory-related items. Higher scores on the social theory sub-scale indicate greater levels of support for social lay theories (e.g., "Gender is not set in stone and can be changed"), while higher scores on the biological theory sub-scale suggest a greater endorsement of biological gender theory (e.g., "When men and women differ in some way, it is likely that the difference is due to biological factors"). The assessment of the underlying factor structure of the adapted version of the questionnaire was indicated in the results section. The internal consistency of the scale was found to be high, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .86 and the McDonald's omega coefficient of .90 (see Appendix A for the questionnaire).

2.1.2.3. Gender-Specific System Justification Scale (GSSJ)

It was formed by Jost and Kay (2005) and adapted to Turkish by Işık (2008), with the aim of measuring gender-related system justification. The scale contains eight items regarding the existing situation of "gender relations and sex role division," rated on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. Higher scores indicate a greater degree of gender-specific system justification. Sample items include "Society is set up so that men and women usually get what they deserve" and "In general, relations between men and women are fair." The scale demonstrated good internal consistency, with a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .75, after excluding item 5 due to its low corrected item-total correlation of .09. Additionally, the McDonald's omega coefficient was .84, indicating high reliability (see Appendix A for the questionnaire).

2.1.2.4. Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)

It was constructed by Glick and Fiske (1996) and adapted to Turkish by Sakallı (2002) for the purpose of measuring ambivalent sexism. The inventory comprises 22 self-reported items on a 6-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. ASI is composed of two components: hostile sexism and benevolent sexism, with 11 items each. Greater scores on the inventory suggest a higher level of endorsement of both benevolent and hostile sexism. Hostile sexism evaluates judgments about "dominative paternalism, competitive gender differentiation, and heterosexual hostility," whereas benevolent sexism assesses "protective paternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual intimacy." Examples of

hostile and benevolent sexism-related items are “Women seek power by gaining control over men” and “Despite the accomplishment, men are incomplete without women,” respectively. For the hostile sexism subscale, Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was found to be .93, while McDonald’s omega was .94. On the other hand, for the benevolent sexism subscale, the Cronbach’s alpha coefficient was .90 and McDonald’s omega was .93. These results indicate high internal consistency and reliability for both subscales of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (see Appendix A for the questionnaire).

2.1.2.5. Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language

The adapted version of the Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist/Nonsexist Language-General (Parks & Roberton, 2000) was utilized to measure beliefs, recognition, and usage of sexist language. The original inventory consists of 21 items, the adapted version used in Study 1 included 23 items specifically tailored to Turkish culture and language and is divided into three parts.

The first part of the inventory comprises nine items that measure participants’ beliefs and opinions about sexist language through a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*. “Worrying about sexist language is a trivial activity” could be exemplified as an item in this section. Higher scores in this section indicate more positive attitudes and beliefs toward sexist language, meaning that participants are more likely to view sexist language as not a considerable issue.

The second section of the inventory includes seven items that evaluate the level of sexism participants attribute to underlined words. The items are scored on a 5-point Likert scale, ranging from *not sexist at all* to *completely sexist*. For instance, an item in this section is “People should care about all mankind, not just themselves,” with the word “mankind” underlined. Higher scores on the second section of the inventory indicate that the participants perceive the underlined words as more sexist, and this may suggest that participants are more attuned to recognizing instances of sexist language.

To assess participants’ usage of sexist language, the inventory includes a final section with seven items using a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *never* to *always* to measure how often they use sexist language daily. An example of an item in this section is “I

use the phrase ‘like a girl’ to indicate a person’s weakness (e.g., running like a girl, crying like a girl, nagging like a girl).” Higher scores on this section would indicate a higher willingness to use sexist language in daily life. The inventory comprises three parts that measure one construct, which is the attitude toward sexist language, according to Parks and Roberton (2000). In the results section, an analysis of the underlying factor structure of the adapted version is provided. In this study, the score for the second dimension was calculated by reversing all of its items to ensure consistency with the other dimensions. The inventory exhibited high internal consistency with a Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of .92 and a McDonald’s omega coefficient of .93 (see Appendix A for the items in the questionnaire).

2.1.3. Procedure

Upon providing the approval of the Human Subjects Ethics Committee (HSEC) from the Applied Ethics Research Center of Middle East Technical University (METU), the recruitment and data collection process took place via online systems. The study aimed to reach potential participants by disseminating the link of the online survey system (Qualtrics) along with a summary of the study through various social media platforms. The questionnaire was in Turkish. Prior to starting the survey, participants were presented with a consent form and informed about the research they would be participating in. The study did not request any personal information from participants, and all responses were kept entirely confidential and evaluated collectively. Participation took approximately 20 minutes. After completing the survey, participants were presented with a Debriefing Form that provided details about the purpose of the study.

2.2. Results

The analyses were mainly conducted using RStudio 4.2.0, RStudio Cloud version 4.2.2, and jamovi version 2.3.6.0. Prior to moving on to the primary analyses, brief coverage will be provided on factor analyses, data cleaning procedures, handling of missing values, internal consistency analyses, and bivariate correlations.

2.2.1. Exploratory Factor Analyses

2.2.1.1. Gender Theory Questionnaire (GTQ)

Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was initially conducted to explore the underlying factor structure of the adapted version of the questionnaire (Antmen, 2020), as it has only one factor. KMO measure of sampling adequacy was conducted to assess whether the data met the assumption of factor analysis. The KMO value was .85, indicating that the sample was adequate for factor analysis. Additionally, all individual item values for the KMO measure exceeded the threshold of .50, ranging from .77 to .91, further indicating that the data met the requirement for factor analysis. To assess whether the correlation matrix among the variable in the GTQ was suitable for factor analysis, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was conducted. The test yielded a significant result with $\chi^2(45) = 1559$, $p < .001$, indicating that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix and was suitable for factor analysis. Therefore, proceeding with conducting PCA, oblimin rotation was used to allow for correlation between the factors.

The PCA resulted in a two-component solution, with the first component explaining 35.5% of the variance and the second explaining 24.6%. The inter-component correlation coefficient of .37 suggested that the two factors were weak to moderately correlated. Component loadings greater than .3 were considered significant and were presented (see Table 1.6).

Table 1.6

Principal Component Analysis Loadings of Gender Theory Questionnaire

	Component		
	1	2	Uniqueness
8. Gender is a result of “nurture” more than “nature”	0.919		0.214
7. Gender is not set in stone and can be changed	0.877		0.262
9. A person’s gender has more to do with a person’s social environment than with an individual’s disposition	-0.726		0.448
4. The properties of gender are constructed totally for economic, political, and social reasons	0.667		0.509
10. Gender is more directly linked to biology than to the way a person is socialized	-0.632		0.506
5. If social situations change, the characteristics we attribute to gender categories will change as well	0.504		0.615
2. When men and women differ in some way, it is likely that the difference is due to biological factors		0.855	0.301
1. To a large extent, a person’s gender biologically determines his or her abilities and traits		0.846	0.296
3. The innate properties of a person’s gender determine what the person is like		0.791	0.327
6. Gender is not set in stone and can be changed	0.420	-0.423	0.512

Note. ‘oblimin’ rotation was used.

Component 1, which explained the most variance, had high loadings for all items except for item 1, item 2, item 3, and item 6. Component 2 had high loadings for the mentioned items. This suggests that the factor structure of the Turkish-adapted version of the scale was not compatible with the original questionnaire, as the loadings did not match the original scale. However, it is worth noting that when the scale items were considered under a single factor and items 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 were reversed, the scale has good internal consistency (see Table 1.8). Overall, these results suggest that the Gender Theory Questionnaire may not measure two distinct dimensions (i.e., social theory and biological theory) as originally intended but instead may be better understood as measuring a single underlying construct; hence the scale score was created accordingly. It is acknowledged that this approach may limit the questionnaire's ability to capture the nuances of the social theory and biological theory dimensions as originally intended. Nonetheless, the revised scale is believed to remain valid, reliable, and suitable for use.

2.2.1.2. Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language

Parks and Roberton (2000) indicated that the three sub-parts of the scale did not load separately following conducting an exploratory factor analysis and suggested that the scale measures one construct, which is the attitudes toward sexist language. The original scale had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .89, indicating good internal consistency. The fourth item in the second part, which served as a control item to test participants' comprehension of the scale, was removed before conducting Principal Component Analysis (PCA) with oblimin rotation to identify the underlying dimensions. The aim was to determine if the scale could be simplified into a single factor rather than three (i.e., beliefs, recognition, and willingness to use). The KMO measure of sampling adequacy was .93, indicating that the adapted version of the Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language has a high degree of sampling adequacy. Moreover, all items had individual KMO values greater than .80, ranging from .80 to .96, indicating that the items were suitable for inclusion in the factor analysis. Bartlett's Test of Sphericity for the adapted version of the Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language yielded a significant result, $\chi^2(231) = 2916$, $p < .001$, indicating that the correlation matrix was not an identity matrix and could be

factorized. Therefore, the data was found to be appropriate for conducting factor analysis.

The component loadings revealed that all items loaded significantly on one of the three components (see Table 1.7). Component 1 had high loadings for most of the items. The first component explained 22.9% of the total variance, the second component explained 15.9%, and the third component explained 12.4%. The inter-component correlation between the first and second components was moderate (r = .54), while the correlations between the first and third components (r = -.43) and between the second and third components (r = -.37) were relatively weak.

Based on the component loadings obtained from the PCA, it appears that the items from the adapted version of the inventory did not align with the original subscales measuring beliefs, recognition, and willingness to use sexist language. Instead, the items were scattered across the three obtained components, with some items even loading moderately on multiple components. This suggests that the adapted version of the scale may not measure the three distinct sub-constructs as originally intended. Instead, it may be measuring a more complex set of attitudes toward sexist language that cannot be reduced to the three original subscales.

When the items from all three parts of the inventory were considered together, the items in the second section regarding the recognition of sexist language were reverse-coded to align with the direction of the first and third parts. This adjustment was made to form a scale that measures a single construct of attitudes toward sexist language. The internal consistency of the scale was found to be good (see Table 1.8). Hence, it could be concluded that a single construct could represent the participants' attitudes toward sexist language.

Table 1.7

Principal Component Analysis Loadings of the Adapted Version of Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language

	Component			
	1	2	3	Uniqueness
B.1 “Bilim adamı” olarak adlandırılmanın cinsiyetçi olduğunu düşünen kadınlar, “bilim adamı” kelimesinin kullanım amacını yanlış yorumluyor	-0.649			0.214
B.2 Cinsiyetçi dil kullanımı konusunda endişelenmek gereksizdir		-0.555		0.262
B.3 İnsanlar “bayan” kelimesini cinsiyetçi bir niyetleri olmaksızın kullandıklarında, ifade cinsiyetçi değildir	-0.669			0.448
B.4 Cinsiyetçi dilin ortadan kaldırılması önemli bir hedeftir		0.810		0.509
B.5 Nasıl ki araştırmacı, gazeteci ve yazarların ırkçı bir dilden kaçınmaları bekleniyorsa, benzer şekilde cinsiyetçi bir dilden de kaçınmaları gerekir		0.904		
B.6 Cinsiyetçi dil, toplumdaki insanların cinsiyetçi muamelesi ile ilgilidir		0.702		0.506
B.7 Öğretmenler Türkiye tarihi hakkında konuştuğunda, “atalarımız” gibi eril ifadeleri, kadınları da içeren ifadelerle değiştirmelidirler	0.664			0.615
B.8 Öğrencilerinden, cinsiyetçi olmayan bir dil kullanmalarını isteyen öğretmenler, politik görüşlerini öğrencilerine haksız yere dayatmaktadır			0.456	
B.9 Değişim zor olsa da yine de cinsiyetçi dili ortadan kaldırmaya çalışmalıyız		0.780		
R.1 İnsanlar sadece kendilerine değil, tüm insanoğluna önem vermelidir	0.812			
R.2 Kurbağaya dokununca siğil sıçrayacağı inanışı kocakarı safsatasından başka bir şey değildir	0.535			
R.3 Deniz Özdemir çok takdir edilesi bir bilim adamıdır	0.796			0.301
R.5 O, işinin eri bir aşçıdır	0.846			0.296
R.6 Kız başına yurt dışına çıkmayı düşünüyor		0.326	-0.422	0.327
R.7 Bazılarını adam etmek çok zor	0.655			

Table 1.7 (continued)

Principal Component Analysis Loadings of the Adapted Version of Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language

U.1 Günlük hayatta bir kişinin verdiği sözü mutlaka tutacağı anlamına gelen "erkek sözü" yerine "sözünün arkasında" deyişini kullanmayı tercih ederim		-0.610	
U.2 Günlük hayatta "kadın" yerine "bayan" kelimesini kullanmayı tercih ederim		0.571	
U.3 Bir kişinin zayıflığını belirtmek için "kız gibi" deyişini kullanırım (kız gibi koşmak, kız gibi ağlamak, kız gibi dırdır etmek...)		0.633	
U.4 Bir kişinin ayıbından bahsederken "adamlığa sığmamak" yerine "insanlığa sığmamak" deyişini kullanmayı tercih ederim.		-0.450	
U.5 Günlük hayatta bir kadının fiziksel kuvvetini ve cesaretini vurgulamak için "erkek Fatma" deyişini kullanırım		0.676	
U.6 Günlük hayatta "iş insanı" yerine "iş adamı" kelimesini tercih ederim	-0.431		
U.7 Bir işin eksiksiz ya da kurallara uygun yapıldığını belirtmek için "adamakıllı" yerine "doğru düzgün" yerine kelimesini kullanmaya özen gösteririm	0.460		0.512

Note. 'oblimin' rotation was used. B = Beliefs about sexist language. R = Recognizing sexist language. U = Usage of sexist language.

2.2.2. Data Cleaning

The dataset was cleaned by removing data from participants under 18 years old. A participant who gave constant answers (i.e., marking 1 for each item and then leaving the study) was removed. Five participants with extreme scores were excluded based on a calculated Mahalanobis distance and z-scores above 3.29. Since only 4 participants chose the "other" option, gender was categorized into two groups (1 = women, 2 = men). Frequency and descriptive analyses were conducted for each scale, with a normal distribution curve observed despite some avoidance of sexist language.

2.2.3. Missing Values

Binary logistic regression analyses were conducted to assess whether missing data patterns were related to other variables in the study. A new variable, a binary missing data indicator, was created to demonstrate whether a case had missing data on essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, and attitudes toward sexist language variables (1 = missing data, 0 = no missing data). A binary logistic regression analysis was run with the binary missing data indicator being the dependent variable and gender, age, income level, education level, left-right political orientation, and conservatism level being the predictor variables. The collinearity assumption was met, as the variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance values were below the recommended cutoffs.

The output of the logistic regression analysis shows the estimated coefficients for each aforementioned demographic variable (see Table B1 for the model coefficients in Appendix B). In the analysis, age was the only statistically significant predictor of missing data (b = -.03, SE = .01, z = -2.30, p = .02), with an estimated log odds of .97. This indicates that as age increases by one unit, the log odds of missing data decreases by a factor of .97, meaning older participants were less likely to have missing data in their responses for the questionnaires. The overall model was not statistically significant ($\chi^2(6) = 8.90$, p = .18), suggesting that it did not fit the data differently than a null model (see Table B2 in Appendix B for model fit measures). The model explained 2% of the variance in the dependent variable, as indicated by McFadden's R^2 statistic.

A potential explanation for the negative relationship between age and missing data is that older participants may exhibit greater diligence and focus toward the study and its topic, resulting in a decreased likelihood of missing data. On the other hand, there is a possibility that some unmeasured variables that are associated with age may be responsible for this relationship. Nevertheless, based on the results, the analyses were carried out assuming that the missing values were random.

2.2.4. Internal Consistency Analysis and Bivariate Correlations

Table 1.8 demonstrates descriptive statistics, Cronbach's alpha and McDonald's omega coefficients for the scales, along with the bivariate correlation coefficients. The scales indicated good internal consistency. The bivariate correlations were examined using Pearson's correlation coefficient. The variables included in the analysis were gender, essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, and attitudes toward sexist language. All correlations were statistically significant at $p < .001$.

Table 1.8

Reliability Statistics and Bivariate Correlations in Study 1

		1	2	3	4	5	6
1. Gender		—					
2. EGV		.19***	—				
3. GSSJ		.31***	.51***	—			
4. HS		.38***	.54***	.60***	—		
5. BS		.18***	.50***	.46***	.71***	—	
6. ATSL		.33***	.63***	.59**	.69***	.52***	—
	M		3.40	2.30	2.80	2.90	2.20
	SD		1.03	.89	1.10	1.10	.77
	Cronbach's α		.86	.75	.93	.90	.92
	McDonald's ω		.90	.84	.94	.93	.93

Note. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. HS = Hostile Sexism. BS = Benevolent Sexism. ATSL = Attitudes Toward Sexist Language. Gender (1 = women, 2 = men).

Attitudes toward sexist language were strongly correlated with essentialist gender views ($r = .63$), gender-specific system justification ($r = .59$), hostile sexism ($r = .69$), and benevolent sexism ($r = .52$). These findings indicate that gender-related attitudes and views are intricate and have multiple aspects, highlighting the importance of studying them in conjunction with other gender-related concepts.

2.2.5. Independent Samples T-Test Analyses of Gender Differences

To gain a more thorough comprehension of the role of gender in shaping attitudes toward the use of sexist language, through t-tests, Study 1 examines the effects of gender on each of the variables, consisting of hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, gender-specific system justification, essentialist gender views, and attitudes toward the use of sexist language, as gender is considered to be a crucial variable that has the potential to affect these factors. The grouping variable was gender, with non-binary participants excluded. The tests were conducted using Student's t-test, and the normality assumption was checked and met for each analysis (see Table B3 and Figures B1, B2, B3, B4, and B5 in Appendix B). Additionally, Levene's test for homogeneity of variances was performed to ensure equal variances between the two groups (see Table B4 in Appendix B).

Table 1.9

Independent Samples T-Test

	Student's *t*	*df*	Mean difference	*SE* difference	95% CI *LL*	95% CI *UL*	Cohen's *d*
EGV	-3.73*	361	-0.460	0.124	-0.703	-0.217	-0.458
GSSJ	-5.98*	349	-0.634	0.106	-0.843	-0.425	-0.751
HS	-7.46*	334	-1.006	0.135	-1.272	-0.741	-0.960
BS	-3.41*	334	-0.492	0.144	-0.776	-0.209	-0.439
ATSL	-6.00*	302	-0.680	0.113	-0.902	-0.457	-0.814

Note. * $p < .001$. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. HS = Hostile Sexism. BS = Benevolent Sexism. ATSL = Attitudes Toward Sexist Language.

Table 1.10

Scale Descriptives Grouped by Gender

	Women			Men		
	n	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
EGV	276	3.31	0.991	87	3.77	1.047
GSSJ	268	2.17	0.823	83	2.81	0.911
HS	257	2.59	1.059	79	3.60	1.015
BS	257	2.83	1.132	79	3.32	1.083
ATSL	233	2.16	0.802	71	2.83	0.937

Note. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. HS = Hostile Sexism. BS = Benevolent Sexism. ATSL = Attitudes Toward Sexist Language.

Table 1.9 presents the findings of the independent samples t-test analysis, while Table 1.10 provides the descriptive statistics of the scales grouped by gender. The results revealed a significant difference in essentialist gender views between women (M = 3.31, SD = .99, N = 276) and men (M = 3.77, SD = 1.05, N = 87), $t(361) = -3.73$, $p < .001$, with a moderate effect size (Cohen's d = -.46). The mean score for men was higher than that for women, indicating that men held more essentialist gender views than women (see Figure 1.1). The 95% confidence interval for the mean difference ranged from -.70 to -.22.

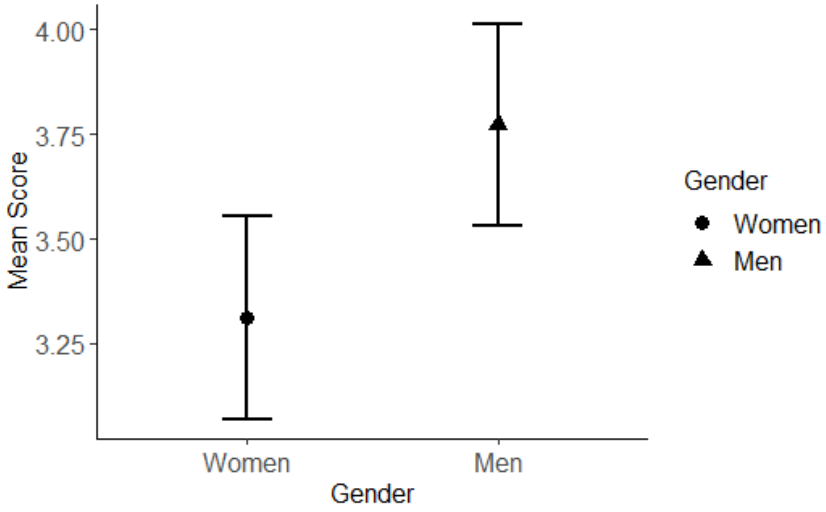

Figure 1.1

Mean Scores by Gender for Essentialist Gender Views

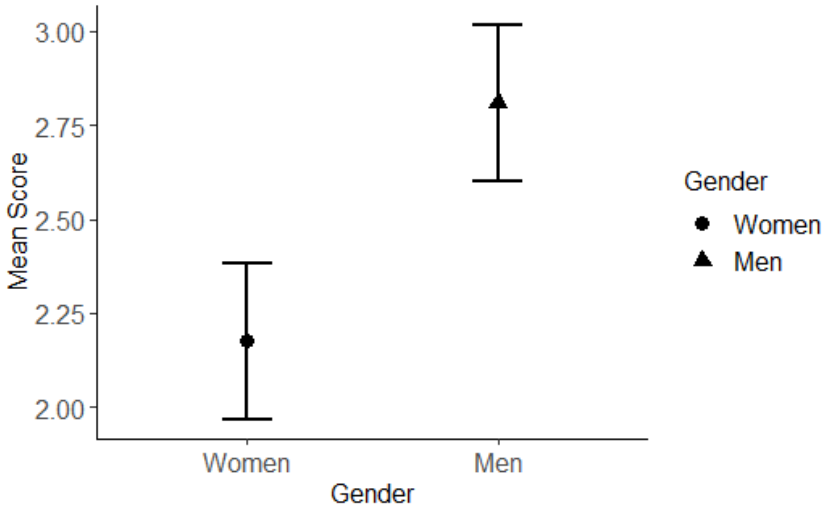

Figure 1.2

Mean Scores by Gender for Gender-Specific System Justification

Results of an independent samples t-test showed a significant difference in gender-specific system justification between women and men, $t(349) = -5.98$, $p < .001$, with a mean difference of -.63 (SE = .11, 95% CI [-.84, -.43]) and a medium effect size (Cohen's d = -.75). Specifically, men reported higher levels of gender-specific system justification (M = 2.81, SD = .91, N = 83) compared to women (M = 2.17, SD = .82, N = 268) (see Figure 1.2).

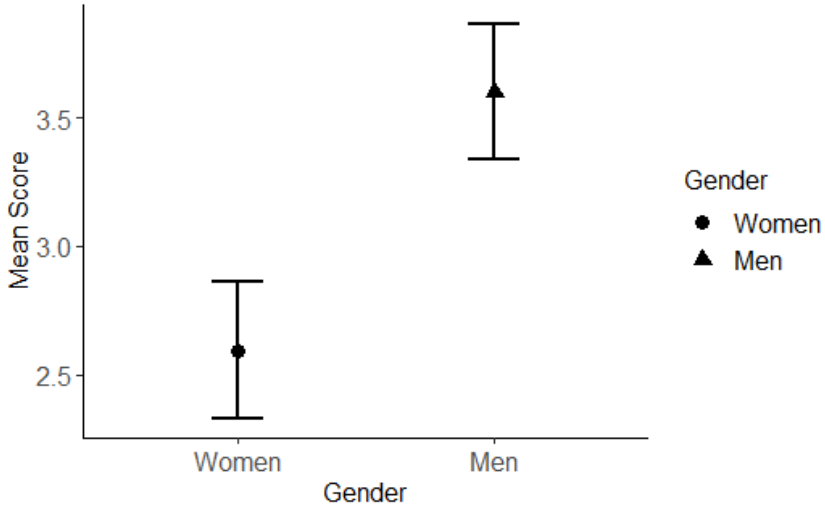

Figure 1.3

Mean Scores by Hostile Sexism

The results for the analysis of hostile sexism revealed a significant gender difference (t = -7.46, df = 334, $p < .001$), with men (M = 3.60, SD = 1.02, N = 79) reporting significantly higher levels of hostile sexism compared to women (M = 2.59, SD = 1.06, N = 257) (see Figure 1.3). The mean difference was -1, with a standard error of .14 and a 95% confidence interval ranging from -1.27 to -.74. The Cohen's d effect size was large, with a value of -.96.

The findings for the analysis of benevolent sexism revealed a significant difference between genders, $t(334) = -3.41$, $p < .001$, with a mean difference of -.49 between women (M = 2.83, SD = 1.13, N = 257) and men (M = 3.32, SD = 1.08, N = 79). The Cohen's d effect size was -.44. The 95% confidence interval for the mean difference ranged from -.78 to -.21, suggesting that the mean benevolent sexism score for men was significantly higher than that for women (see Figure 1.4).

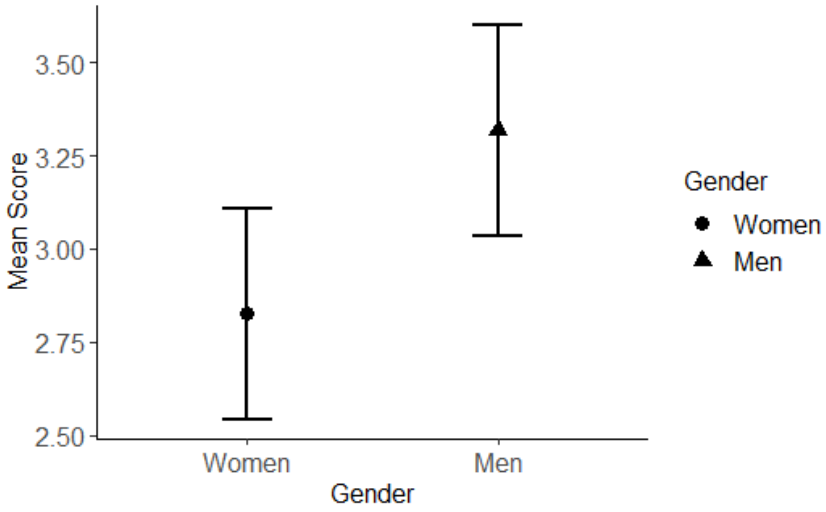

Figure 1.4

Mean Scores by Benevolent Sexism

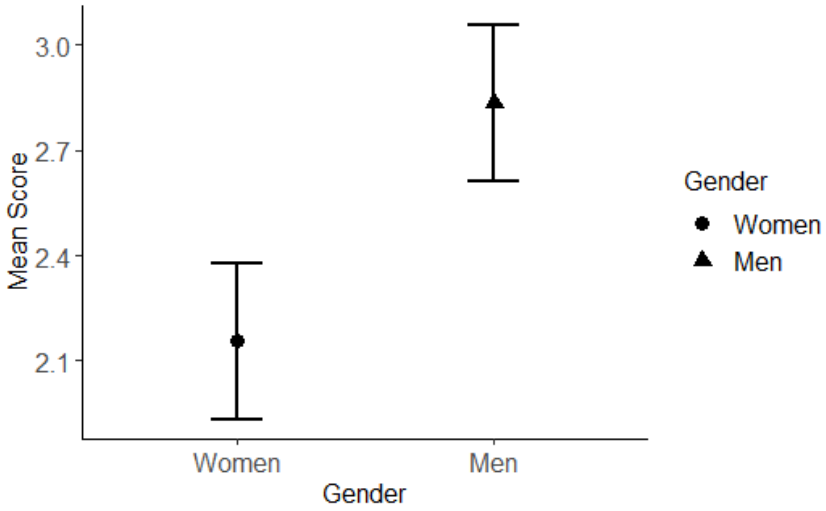

Figure 1.5

Mean Scores by Attitudes Toward Sexist Language

A separate independent samples t-test was conducted to examine whether there were gender differences in attitudes toward the use of sexist language. Results showed a significant difference in mean scores between women (M = 2.16, SD = .80, N = 233) and men (M = 2.83, SD = .93, N = 71), $t(302) = -6$, $p < .001$, with women reporting less positive attitudes toward the use of sexist language than men. The effect size was

large, with a Cohen's *d* value of -.81. The 95% confidence interval for the mean difference ranged from -.90 to -.46. These findings suggest that gender plays a role in shaping attitudes toward the use of sexist language, with women expressing more negative attitudes toward this type of language than men (see Figure 1.5).

2.2.6. Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis

A hierarchical multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the extent to which essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification predict attitudes toward the use of sexist language, while controlling for gender and forms of sexism. Since gender differences in hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, gender-specific system justification, essentialist gender views, and attitudes toward the use of sexist language were found in previous t-test analyses, gender was added to the model as a control variable along with its two-way interactions with each predictor to investigate the unique contributions of each variable, independent of gender effects. The regression model was conducted in two blocks. In block one, the main effects of gender, hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, gender-specific system justification, and essentialist gender views were entered, while in block two, the interactions of these variables with gender were added.

To address the issue of overly increased VIF scores and reduced tolerance scores after adding the interactions with gender to the model, z-scores were computed for all variables. Since this approach standardizes the variables and helps to reduce multicollinearity, the VIF scores dropped below the acceptable range of 2.50, except for hostile sexism, which had a VIF score of 3.07 in Model 2 (refer to Table B5 in Appendix B). With the z-scores of all variables, the analysis was able to proceed. The change in the outcome variable was interpreted using one standard deviation increase in the predictor variable rather than one unit. The decision to take z-scores of the variables was based on the research question, which did not allow for removing the gender variable or combining two highly correlated independent variables. Therefore, this method was chosen as an effective way to handle the multicollinearity issue and continue with the analyses.

The decision was made to exclude *benevolent sexism* from the model since it did not significantly contribute to the research question or hypothesis and was a source of

multicollinearity, as the hostile sexism variable still had a VIF score of 3.07. This decision was based on careful consideration of the variable's contribution to the model, its possible impact on multicollinearity, and its relevance to the research question; and, the removal of the variable improved the model while maintaining its explanatory power (please refer to Tables B5, B6, and B7 in Appendix B for collinearity statistics of the z-scores, model comparisons, and model coefficients comparisons for attitudes toward sexist language when benevolent sexism was included in the model). The updated model showed a slight improvement in adjusted R^2 compared to the original model, indicating that the exclusion of the variable did not profoundly alter the direction or focus of the analysis. Additionally, the findings suggested that the variable had an insignificant effect on the model, as illustrated by its small standardized estimate and non-significant p-value (refer to Table 1.11 for the comparisons).

Table 1.11

Comparison of Regression Models With and Without Benevolent Sexism

						Overall Model Test			
	Model	*R*	R^2	Adjusted R^2	BIC	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
With BS	1	0.784	0.614	0.608	595	93.6	5	294	< .001
	2	0.786	0.618	0.607	615	52.2	9	290	< .001
Without BS	1	0.783	0.613	0.608	590	117.0	4	295	< .001
	2	0.786	0.618	0.609	603	67.5	7	292	< .001

Note. BS = Benevolent Sexism.

The Durbin-Watson test for autocorrelation showed no significant correlation among residuals (DW = 2.02, p = .80), indicating that the assumption of independence of errors was met (see Table B8 in Appendix B). The normality assumption was also satisfied with the Q-Q plot of standardized residuals for Model 2 (see Table B9 and Figure B6 in Appendix B). The collinearity statistics revealed that multicollinearity was not a concern, with all VIF values below 2 and all tolerance values above .30, after taking z-scores and excluding the benevolent sexism variable (see Table B10 in Appendix B). The standardized residuals were distributed mostly randomly around zero for all fitted values, implying that the model fit the data. The degree of scattering was nearly uniform for all fitted values, suggesting that the variance of the standardized residuals was constant across the range of predictor variables (see Figures

B7, B8, B9, B10, and B11 in Appendix B for the plots). Thus, there were no significant breaches of the assumptions of homoscedasticity and linearity. Therefore, it could be deduced that the regression model is a good fit for the data and could be used for subsequent analyses (refer to Appendix B for the tables and plots for the assumption checks).

The overall model test for Model 1 was significant, $F(4, 295) = 117$, $p < .001$, with an adjusted R^2 of .608. Model 2, which included the interactions of gender with hostile sexism, gender-specific system justification, and essentialist gender views, had an adjusted R^2 of .609. The overall model test for Model 2 was also significant, $F(7, 292) = 67.50$, $p < .001$. Comparison between Model 1 and Model 2 revealed that the addition of the interactions did not significantly improve the model fit, $\Delta R^2 = .005$, $F(3, 292) = 1.17$, $p = .32$ (see Table 1.12 and Table 1.13 below for the model fit measures and model comparisons). Therefore, the coefficients of the predictor variables to the criterion did not differ across the two genders. However, the main effects of the predictor variables on attitudes toward the use of sexist language remained significant, indicating that each variable had a unique effect (see Table 1.14 below for model coefficients comparisons).

Table 1.12

Model Fit Measures for Models 1 and 2

					Overall Model Test			
Model	*R*	R^2	Adjusted R^2	BIC	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
1	0.783	0.613	0.608	590	117.0	4	295	< .001
2	0.786	0.618	0.609	603	67.5	7	292	< .001

Table 1.13

Model Comparisons Between Model 1 and Model 2

Comparison							
Model		Model	ΔR^2	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
1	-	2	0.0046	1.17	3	292	0.32

Table 1.14

Model Coefficients Comparisons Between Model 1 and Model 2

	Model 1				Model 2			
	Estimate	*SE*	*t*	β	Estimate	*SE*	*t*	β
Intercept	-0.01	0.04	-0.20		-0.03	0.04	-0.69	
Gender	0.10*	0.04	2.66	0.10*	0.08	0.05	1.71	0.08
HS	0.37**	0.05	7.67	0.38**	0.38**	0.05	7.61	0.38**
GSSJ	0.20**	0.05	4.32	0.21**	0.21**	0.05	4.45	0.22**
EGV	0.29**	0.05	6.51	0.30**	0.29**	0.05	6.42	0.29**
G✻HS					0.07	0.05	1.43	0.07
G✻GSSJ					-0.03	0.05	-0.62	-0.03
G✻EGV					0.02	0.05	0.47	0.02

Note. * $p = .008$, ** $p < .001$. HS = Hostile Sexism. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. G = Gender (1 = women, 2 = men).

In Model 1, the intercept was insignificant ($b = -.01$, $SE = .04$, $p = .84$), meaning that when all other predictors were zero, the expected score for attitudes toward using sexist language was not significantly different from zero. Hence, the intercept did not significantly predict attitudes toward using sexist language. Gender ($b = .10$, $SE = .04$, $p = .008$, 95% CI [.03, .18], $\beta = .10$), hostile sexism ($b = .37$, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.28, .47], $\beta = .38$), gender-specific system justification ($b = .20$, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.11, .3], $\beta = .21$), and essentialist gender views ($b = .29$, $SE = .05$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.21, .38], $\beta = .30$) were significant predictors of attitudes toward the use of sexist language. The results in Model 1 suggested that men, those with higher hostile sexism scores, those who had more justification for a gender-based system, and those who endorsed essentialist gender views had more positive attitudes toward the use of sexist language when controlling for the other variables.

In Model 2, the interaction terms between gender and hostile sexism, gender-specific system justification, and essentialist gender views were added along with the main effects of these variables. The findings demonstrated that the intercept was not significant ($b = -.03$, $SE = .04$, $p = .49$), meaning that when all predictors were held at zero, the predicted score for attitudes toward the use of sexist language was not significantly different from zero. After adding the interaction of predictors with gender to the model, there was no significant main effect of gender on attitudes toward the use of sexist language ($b = .08$, $SE = .05$, $p = .09$, 95% CI [-.01, .16], $\beta = .08$).

Hostile sexism was a significant positive predictor of attitudes toward the use of sexist language (b = .38, SE = .05, p < .001, 95% CI [.28, .47]). This suggests that individuals who held more hostile sexist attitudes were more likely to have positive attitudes toward the use of sexist language when all other predictors were held constant as a one-standard-deviation increase in hostile sexism in z-score units was associated with a predicted increase of .38 standard deviations in z-score units in attitudes toward the use of sexist language (β = .38).

Gender-specific system justification was also a significant positive predictor of attitudes toward the use of sexist language (b = .21, SE = .05, p < .001, 95% CI [.12, .31]). This indicates that individuals who held more gender-specific system-justifying attitudes were more likely to have positive attitudes toward the use of sexist language when all other predictors were held constant as a one-standard-deviation increase in gender-specific system justification in z-score units was associated with a predicted increase of .22 standard deviations in z-score units in attitudes toward the use of sexist language (β = .22).

Finally, essentialist gender views were found to be a significant positive predictor of attitudes toward the use of sexist language (b = .29, SE = .05, p < .001, 95% CI [.20, .38]). This signifies that individuals who held more essentialist gender views were more likely to have positive attitudes toward the use of sexist language when all other predictors were held constant as a one-standard-deviation increase in essentialist gender views in z-score units was associated with a predicted increase of .29 standard deviations in z-score units in attitudes toward the use of sexist language (β = .29).

Ultimately, Model 2 revealed significant main effects of hostile sexism, gender-specific system justification, and essentialist gender views on attitudes toward the use of sexist language. However, the interaction effects of gender with hostile sexism, gender-specific system justification, and essentialist gender views were not significant, suggesting that their impact on the predicted variable did not vary according to gender. Nevertheless, these findings imply that individuals who exhibited higher levels of hostile sexism, greater justification for a gender-based system, and more essentialist gender views tended to have more positive attitudes toward using sexist language, regardless of gender.

2.3. Discussion

Study 1 investigated how gender-specific system justification and essentialist gender views predict attitudes toward sexist language, beyond the contributions of gender and sexism. Significant correlations were observed among all variables, with the highest correlation coefficient found between attitudes toward sexist language and hostile sexism. These findings are consistent with previous research emphasizing the interconnectedness between gender-related attitudes and views (e.g., Keller, 2005; Skewes et al., 2018), suggesting that attitudes toward sexist language are not isolated but rather intertwined with broader gender-specific views (e.g., Lomotey, 2017; Sarrasin et al., 2012; Scott, 1993).

Exploratory t-test analyses revealed that there were gender differences, with men exhibiting higher levels of essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, hostile and benevolent sexism, and more favorable attitudes toward sexist language. This emphasizes the role of gender, corroborating prior research which suggests that men tend to hold more essentialist gender views (e.g., Keller, 2005; Mahalingam, 2003a, 2003b; Smiler & Gelman, 2008) and exhibit more favorable attitudes toward sexist language (e.g., Parks & Roberton, 2005).

Providing support for the hypothesis, the study revealed that essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification uniquely contributed to the prediction of attitudes toward sexist language, beyond the contributions of gender and sexism. Men, individuals exhibiting higher levels of hostile sexism, those with stronger gender-specific system justification, and those holding higher levels of essentialist gender views displayed more favorable attitudes toward sexist language. This outcome aligns with the findings by Keller (2005) and Skewes et al. (2018), which associated endorsing genetic determinism and essentialist views with sexism and the tolerance of discrimination. However, the inclusion of gender interactions did not improve the model fit, signifying that the impact of the variables did not vary by gender. That is, while men had more sexist views, the way these views related to attitudes toward sexist language was consistent across genders, implying that these attitudes were also shaped by individual beliefs and system justification rather than being merely determined by gender. This is also in line with system justification theory (Jost & Banaji, 1994; Jost

& Hunyady, 2005), claiming that both those in privileged and unprivileged positions tend to support the existing system, even when it may be detrimental to their own interests. It could be suggested that those who benefit from the prevailing gender hierarchy are not the only ones who endorse sexist language; those who are disadvantaged by it are also included.

Notably, the study found a significant relationship between gender-specific system justification and benevolent sexism, which contradicts the findings of Ercan (2009), who found a signification correlation between gender-specific system justification and benevolent sexism. Addedly, although benevolent sexism was correlated with attitudes toward sexist language, it did not make a unique contribution to the predictive model for these attitudes, implying a potential indirect effect or relationship with other variables. This led to its removal from the model owing to multicollinearity issues.

In conclusion, Study 1 sheds light on the relationship between gender, sexism, system justification, and essentialist gender views in predicting attitudes toward sexist language and emphasizes that these attitudes are not solely related to gender, but also the combination of gender-related views.

CHAPTER 3

STUDY 2

Study 2 investigates how perceptions of stability or change in the gender system may influence motivations to justify the gender system, hence in turn, indirectly affect attitudes toward sexist language by experimentally manipulating the perception of the existing gender system as stable or changing, through exposure to articles depicting the gender system in these ways. Specifically, Study 2 examines the indirect effect of experimental manipulation of system stability on attitudes toward sexist language through its impact on gender-specific system justification, also considering the possible moderating role of gender. Moreover, we statistically control for the effects of essentialist gender views and hostile sexism in this model. Through the experimental manipulation of system stability, Study 2 reveals the causal effect of perceived changes in gender system on shifts in gender-specific system justification motivations and, consequently, attitudes toward sexist language.

In Study 2, several hypotheses were put forward for exploring the intricate relationships among the manipulated perception of the gender system, gender, and the two outcome variables, while controlling for the covariates mentioned above. In particular, Hypothesis 1 predicts a significant effect of system stability condition on gender-specific system justification, with participants in the system-is-changing group justifying the system more than those in the system-is-stable group. Hypothesis 2 asserts that gender-specific system justification will significantly impact attitudes toward sexist language, controlling for essentialist gender views and hostile sexism. Hypothesis 3 posits that the system stability condition will indirectly influence attitudes toward sexist language through its effect on gender-specific system justification.

According to the results of t-tests in Study 1, men had higher levels of gender-specific system justification compared to women. Hence, Hypothesis 4 expects that gender will moderate the relationship between system stability and motivations to justify the system. We expect the effect of changing system condition will have a greater effect on system justification among men and, ultimately, attitudes toward sexist language. Morton et al. (2009) lend support to this hypothesis, founding that men, particularly those with higher levels of sexism, exhibited a greater tendency to endorse essentialist views when they were exposed to articles on system change. Based on these, men could have an increased motivation to justify the system and preserve their status in the face of a change in the existing system.

3.1. Method

3.1.1. Participants

The eligible sample of Study 2 consisted of Turkish-speaking individuals ages 18 years or older without any other exclusion criteria. The data was collected through various social media platforms (i.e., Facebook, Instagram, Telegram, and WhatsApp) from both students and non-students by designating a three-month time period. Following the exclusion of one participant below 18, 380 participants were included, with 183 participants in the changing group and 195 participants in the stable group. After completing the data cleaning and filtering processes, the final dataset for further analyses consisted of 320 participants. Of these, 154 participants were randomly assigned to the changing group, while 166 were randomly assigned to the stable group condition.

The sample comprised 200 women and 92 men, with three individuals identifying as another gender. The age range of the participants was 18 to 61, with a mean of 30.20 (N = 293, SD = 8.63).

Regarding the changing group, there were 143 participants with gender information available, of which 91 were women and 50 were men, with two individuals identifying as another gender. The mean age of the changing group was 30.8 (N = 141, SD = 9.3), spanning from 18 to 61.

Regarding the stable group, gender information was presented for 152 participants, among which 109 were women and 42 were men, while one individual identified as another gender. The mean age of the stable group was 29.7 years (N = 152, SD = 8), spanning from 18 to 60 (see Table 2.1 and Table 2.2).

Table 2.1

Group-Based Frequencies of Gender

	Group	
	Changing	Stable
Women	91	109
Men	50	42
Other	2	1

Table 2.2

Group-Based Age Descriptives

	Changing			Stable		
	n	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Age	141	30.8	9.3	152	29.7	8.0

The majority of participants expressed that they spent most of their lives in metropolitan areas (N = 295). A great deal of them, approximately 63.4%, answered that they lived predominantly in a metropolis, while 23.7% resided in a city, 9.8% in a district, 2.4% in a village, and 0.7% in a town (see Table 2.3 for group-based frequencies of place of residence).

Table 2.3

Group-Based Frequencies of Place of Residence

	Group	
	Changing	Stable
Metropolis	96	91
City	32	38
District	11	18
Town	0	2
Village	4	3

The participants had a wide range of educational backgrounds, with secondary school graduates having the lowest level of education and those with a master's or doctorate

degree having the highest (*N* = 295). The most prevailing education levels were bachelors at 51.2% and graduates at 42.4% (see Table 2.4 for group-based frequencies of education level).

Table 2.4

Group-Based Frequencies of Education Level

	Group	
	Changing	Stable
Primary school	0	0
Secondary school	1	0
High school	11	7
Bachelor' degree	80	71
Graduate degree	51	74

Table 2.5

Group-Based Frequencies of Income Level

	Group	
	Changing	Stable
Lower	8	8
Lower-middle	27	31
Middle	71	81
Upper-middle	33	30
Upper	5	2

The income level of those who participated ranged from *lower* to *higher* (*N* = 296). While the majority defined themselves as belonging to the middle-income group (*N* = 152, 51.4%), 21.3% defined themselves as upper-middle, 19.6% lower-middle, 5.4% lower, and 2.4% upper level (see Table 2.5 for group-based frequencies of income level).

Table 2.6

Group-Based Frequencies of Marital Status

	Group	
	Changing	Stable
Single	92	114
Married	48	34
Divorced	3	3
Other	1	1

Regarding marital status, 69.6% of the participants reported being single, while 27.7% identified themselves as married (*N* = 296) (see Table 2.6 for group-based frequencies of marital status).

In response to the question of rating their conservatism level on a 10-point scale ranging from 0 (*not conservative at all*) to 10 (*very conservative*), 68.6% selected scores between 0 and 4, 20.5% chose values between 6 and 10, and 10.9% selected the median score of 5 (*N* = 293, *M* = 4.10, *SD* = 2.62). The changing group had a mean score of 4.10 (*N* = 141, *SD* = 2.69), while the stable group had a mean score of 4.08 (*N* = 152, *SD* = 2.55).

When participants were requested to specify their political orientation in a spectrum from *left* to *right*, 17.9% selected the middle (*N* = 292, *M* = 4.42, *SD* = 2.63). Participants identifying with a left-oriented political spectrum were more prevalent than those identifying with a right-oriented (*N* = 194 and 66.4% for the left; *N* = 46 and 15.8% for the right). The changing group had a mean of 4.50 (*N* = 141, *SD* = 2.67), while the stable group had a mean of 4.35 (*N* = 151, *SD* = 2.59).

Table 2.7 provides the correlation coefficients, displaying the associations between the study variables and the demographic variables. Consistent with the findings from Study 1, the study variables exhibited a positive correlation with age, conservatism level, and the left-right spectrum. Notably, the strongest correlation coefficients were observed between the study variables and conservatism level, as well as the left-right spectrum.

Table 2.7

Correlation Coefficients Between Demographic Variables and Gender Related Study Variables of Study 2

	EGV	GSSJ	HS	ATSL
Age	.143*	.107	.197***	.136*
Education level	.028	-.063	-.031	.000
Income level	.154**	.114*	.074	.109
Conservatism level	.458***	.372***	.371***	.369***
Left-right spectrum	.487***	.350***	.364***	.465***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. HS = Hostile Sexism. ATSL = Attitudes Toward Sexist Language.

3.1.2. Measures

3.1.2.1. Demographic Information Form

The same demographic information form used in Study 1 was presented to the participants.

3.1.2.2. Gender Theory Questionnaire

The same Gender Theory Questionnaire (Coleman & Hong, 2008; Antmen, 2020, for Turkish) used in Study 1 was presented to the participants (Cronbach's α = .82, McDonald's ω = .88).

3.1.2.3. Gender-Specific System Justification Scale

The same Gender-Specific System Justification Scale (Jost & Kay, 2005; Işık, 2008, for Turkish) used in Study 1 was presented to the participants (Cronbach's α = .76, McDonald's ω = .83).

3.1.2.4. The Shortened Version of the Hostile Sexism Inventory

The Shortened Version of the Hostile Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Rollero et al., 2014; Sakallı, 2002, for Turkish) was presented to the participants to maintain the quality of measurement while minimizing the number of items and thus, the time necessary for participants to complete the survey, given the length of Study 2 (Cronbach's α = .90 and McDonald's ω = .92). The original version of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory was shortened by Rollero et al. (2014), and the hostile sexism dimension encompasses items 3, 6, 7, 8, 9, and 12 in this abbreviated version. In this study, the corresponding items from Sakallı's (2000) Turkish adaptation were used to employ the shortened version of the Hostile Sexism Inventory. Rollero et al. (2014) purported that the Shortened Version of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory has good psychometric properties that are in line with the original version of the scale (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Sakallı, 2002, for Turkish). According to Rollero et al. (2014), this abbreviated version of the scale is recommended for researchers who require a measure with fewer items to decrease survey length.

3.1.2.5. Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language

The same Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language (Parks & Roberton, 2000; adapted to Turkish for this research) used in Study 1 was presented to the participants (Cronbach's $\alpha = .90$, McDonald's $\omega = .92$).

3.1.3. Procedure

After obtaining ethical permission for Study 2 from the Human Subjects Ethics Committee (HSEC) at the Applied Ethics Research Center of METU, the data collection procedure was executed through Qualtrics. The link of the online experiment was disseminated across multiple social media platforms, and the entire study was conducted in Turkish. The true purpose of the study was veiled, with the ostensible aim being to investigate the interrelations between their perspectives on various social issues.

Participants were provided with an explanation that the study they would participate in aims to explore their perspectives on gender equality. They were informed that upon consenting to participate, they would be provided with a newspaper article to read, followed by a set of questions to ask their opinions regarding the content. They were also notified that the study would include questions regarding their opinions on different social issues and personal demographic details, with it taking approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Emphasizing the voluntary and confidential nature of participation, the study ensured that the responses of the participants would be used exclusively for research purposes. The participants were randomly assigned to one of two groups, each receiving a newspaper article that depicted the gender-specific system as either stable or changing. These articles, adapted from Morton et al. (2009) and translated into Turkish, contained fabricated information based on the 2020 UN The World's Women Report (United Nations, 2020) (see Appendix A for the articles).

A 30-second waiting time was implemented to ensure participants read the articles before proceeding. They were then asked to provide examples consistent with the content they had read to reinforce the experimental manipulation. The manipulation check was conducted by having participants select a statement that best encapsulated

the main conclusion of the article to assess whether participants had comprehended and internalized the content of the article. Subsequently, they first completed the Gender-Specific System Justification Scale and several other questionnaires, the Gender Theory Questionnaire, the Shortened Version of the Hostile Sexism Inventory, and the Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language presented in random order, followed by a demographic information form.

After filling out the questionnaires, the respondents were asked three funnel debriefing questions to collect feedback on the validity of the study. These questions were designed to determine whether those participating figured out the true objective of the research or were exposed to any additional elements that might have an effect on the outcomes. A comprehensive debriefing form was then provided, clarifying the reasoning behind concealing the actual purpose of the study and offering details on the research design and procedure. Participants were informed that the newspaper articles used in the study were modified and did not represent reality. They were provided with a link to access statistics from The World's Women 2020 report, and they were given the option to withdraw their responses from the data set by contacting the researcher.

3.2. Results

3.2.1. Data Cleaning

The first step of the data cleaning process included removing one participant below 18 from the dataset. To simplify subsequent analyses, the gender variable was transformed into a binary format, where 1 represented women and 2 represented men.

3.2.1.1. Manipulation Check

A manipulation check was conducted to ensure the participants accurately understood the main point of the newspaper article they read. The manipulation check question was the same for both groups, asking, "Which of the following statements best reflects the main result of the newspaper article you read?" The participants in the changing group were expected to select option (a) "Women are catching up with men in terms of power and status. Things have changed a lot compared to a hundred years ago," while those in the stable group should choose option (b) "Women still lag far behind

men in terms of power and status. Things are not much different than they were a hundred years ago."

The original dataset consisted of 380 participants, with 183 assigned to the changing group and 195 to the stable group. Additionally, two participants had unidentified group values, which were later investigated and addressed. Notably, as a result of the manipulation check, 57 participants were filtered out from the analysis, 28 participants being excluded from the changing group (22 women and 5 men), while 27 (9 women and 9 men) being omitted from the stable system group.

To assess whether a significant relationship existed between gender and experimental group among the participants who were removed during the manipulation control process, the chi-squared test of association was performed. The findings revealed a significant association between gender and group for the participants who were filtered out ($\chi^2(1) = 5$, $p = .03$), pointing out that the distribution of gender across the groups was not independent. The contingency coefficient value of 0.32 signifies a moderate association between gender and system stability condition. In particular, a higher number of women were removed from the changing group (22 observed vs. 18.6 expected) than anticipated, whereas a greater number of men were filtered out from the stable (9 observed vs. 5.6 expected) (see Table B11 in Appendix B for the contingency table).

The results imply a potential interaction between the gender of the participants and their grasp or retention of the key aspect of the newspaper article. Given the context of their gender, it is probable that these participants chose the option that corresponded to their own views rather than the true content of the article they read. This could explain the observed significant association between gender and system stability condition among the omitted participants.

3.2.1.2. Funnel Debriefing Questions

Following the manipulation check, a funnel debriefing procedure was implemented to further obtain feedback on various aspects of the study. The responses to these funnel debriefing questions were carefully examined to identify any participants who might have accurately guessed the study's purpose, found the content of the articles

unconvincing, or had prior knowledge of the study's scope. After applying the exclusion criteria, one participant who predicted the purpose of the study was removed from the sample, leaving 322 participants in the final sample, ensuring that only participants who were naïve to the purpose and had not been influenced by external factors related to the content were included. It should be emphasized that although fourteen participants expressed doubts regarding the validity of the study materials, they were unable to predict the goal of the study correctly. Those participants were retained in the final sample since the criteria for exclusion mainly concentrated on participants who predicted the study's objective or had previous exposure to the content. Nonetheless, when assessing the findings, it is crucial to consider their concerns since these might have had an impact on how they responded.

3.2.1.3. Missing Values

After reviewing the responses to the manipulation check and the debriefing questions, binary logistic regression analyses were conducted to determine whether any relationship existed between missing data patterns and the experimental manipulation of system stability, along with other study variables. A new binary variable was generated to indicate whether a case had missing data on variables of gender-specific system justification, essentialist gender views, hostile sexism, and attitudes toward the use of sexist language, with a value of 1 indicating missing data and 0 specifying no missing data. The dependent variable was the binary missing data indicator. The independent variables were the system stability condition (i.e., changing and stable groups), gender, age, income level, education level, left-right political orientation, and conservatism level. The collinearity assumption was met by examining the VIF and tolerance values.

The model showed a McFadden's R^2 of 0.24. The predictor variables did not significantly improve the fit of the null model, according to the findings of the model test ($\chi^2(7) = 5.64$, $p = .58$). There was no evidence that the missing data patterns were systematically related to the experimental manipulation and any demographic variables, as none of the predictor variables were significantly related to the missing data indicator variable (see model coefficients in Table B12 in Appendix B).

Nevertheless, it should be noted that there may still be unmeasured factors influencing the drop-out rates.

3.2.1.4. Univariate and Multivariate Outliers

The z-score calculation was performed for the scale scores within each of the experimental groups (stable vs. changing system), subsequent to the experimental manipulation to find univariate outliers among all predictor variables by using a threshold of z-scores exceeding 3.29 and below -3.29. Since the z-score of Participant 307 from the changing group on the gender-specific system justification scale was 3.334, the participant was considered an outlier and removed. Afterward, multivariate outliers were detected using a Mahalanobis distance analysis for the changing and stable groups based on the gender-specific system justification, essentialist gender views, and hostile sexism variables. The threshold was set using the 0.99 quantile of the chi-square distribution. Overall, one multivariate outlier was removed.

3.2.2. Internal Consistency Analysis and Bivariate Correlations

Table 2.8 displays an overview of the descriptive statistics, Cronbach's alpha and McDonald's omega coefficients for the scales, alongside the bivariate correlation coefficients. The findings revealed that the scales exhibited robust internal consistency, consistent with the findings of Study 1. The fifth item of the Gender-Specific System Justification Scale was excluded due to its low corrected item-total correlation of .09.

The correlational analyses were conducted for the entire sample after data cleaning (see Table 2.8), as well as separately for the stable and changing groups (see Table B13 in Appendix B). For the whole sample (N = 320), correlations between gender-specific system justification, essentialist gender views, hostile sexism, attitudes toward the use of sexist language, and gender were calculated.

Attitudes toward sexist language had moderate to strong correlations with gender-specific system justification (r = .53), essentialist gender views (r = .55) and hostile sexism (r = .70), and weak to moderate correlations with gender (r = .37). In general, all the variables showed positive correlations with one another across the entire sample and two separate groups (stable vs. changing groups), the strength of these

relationships varying from weak to moderate, with some differences between the stable and changing groups. In the stable group, the correlations were relatively weaker compared to the changing group (see Table B13 in Appendix B). Nevertheless, the correlational patterns observed in the entire sample were generally consistent across the stable and changing groups. Some differences in the strength of these relationships between the two groups suggest that the binary relationships between the studied variables may be influenced by experimental manipulation of system stability and vary depending on the context.

Table 2.8

Reliability Statistics and Bivariate Correlations in Study 2

			1	2	3	4	5
Total	1. Gender		—				
	2. GSSJ		.34***	—			
	3. EGV		.21***	.46***	—		
	4. HS		.42***	.41***	.50***	—	
	5. ATSL		.37***	.53***	.55***	.70***	—
		M		2.50	3.31	2.76	2.16
		SD		.84	.91	1.20	.71
		Cronbach's α		.76	.82	.90	.90
		McDonald's ω		.83	.88	.92	.92

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. HS = Hostile Sexism. ATSL = Attitudes Toward Sexist Language. Gender (1 = women, 2 = men).

3.2.3. Moderated Mediation Analysis

A moderated mediation analysis was carried out to offer causal inferences about the impact of system stability (independent variable, coded as 0 = stable, 1 = changing) on attitudes toward sexist language (dependent variable), through gender-specific system justification (mediator variable), moderated by gender (moderator variable, coded as 1 = women, 2 = men). Essentialist gender views and hostile sexism were to be controlled for. The variables were used by standardizing them into z-scores.

A preliminary series of one-way ANOVAs were conducted to ensure that the experimental manipulation (i.e., system stability) had no effect on hostile sexism and essentialist gender views. Unfortunately, a significant difference in hostile sexism occurred across the two conditions, with those in the changing system condition exhibiting higher levels of hostile sexism compared to those in the stable system

condition ($F(1,298) = 4.44$, $p = .04$, $\eta^2p = .02$) (see Table B14 in Appendix B for the post hoc comparisons). This finding indicates that the system stability condition could have inadvertently affected hostile sexism scores. Hence, we removed hostile sexism from the final model as a covariate as it might confound the relationships among system stability, gender-specific system justification, and attitudes toward sexist language. By excluding hostile sexism from the final model, we focus on the relevant relationships of the key interests in this study. No significant difference across the two conditions was found in essentialist gender views ($F(1,299) = .089$, $p = .766$).

Before conducting the moderated mediation analysis using PROCESS Procedure for SPSS version 4.0 (Hayes, 2022), all necessary assumptions were assessed and found to be met. The variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance values displayed no signs of multicollinearity, with all VIF values below 2 and tolerance values above 0.5 (see Table B15 in Appendix B). The Durbin-Watson autocorrelation test confirmed the independence of residuals (Autocorrelation = -.003, $DW = 1.99$, $p = .97$) (see Table B16 in Appendix B). Additionally, the plot of residuals versus fitted values and the plot of residuals versus covariates revealed no distinct patterns, and the scatterplots of the variables against each other (i.e., system stability against attitudes toward sexist language, system stability against gender-specific system justification, gender-specific system justification against attitudes toward sexist language) displayed a linear relationship, thus meeting the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity (see Figures B12, B13, B14, and B15 in Appendix B). Although the Shapiro-Wilk test yielded a significant result ($W = .986$, $p = .007$), the normality of residuals was supported by an approximately standard Q-Q plot (see Table B17 and Figure B16 in Appendix B). Consequently, the data met all the assumptions for the related moderated mediation analysis. The analysis was performed with 5,000 bootstrap samples.

Upon testing the adjusted model (hostile sexism excluded from the model), the interaction of system stability and gender was not significant ($b = -.12$, $SE = .22$, $p = .60$), suggesting that gender did not have a moderator role in the effect of system stability on gender-specific system justification. This finding did not support Hypothesis 4, which expected an interaction effect between the system stability condition and gender on gender-specific system justification. Given these results, we decided to trim the model by excluding the gender variable. Hence, the final model

focused on the indirect effect of the experimental condition (i.e., system stability) on attitudes toward sexist language, mediated by gender-specific system justification, controlling for essentialist gender views.

The model was tested using Model 4 of PROCESS macro and the results revealed that system stability (0 = stable group, 1 = -group) had a significant impact on gender-specific system justification (b = .52, SE = .11, t = 4.91, p < .001, 95% CI [.31, .72]), indicating that, those in the changing group reported higher levels of such justifications compared to those in the stable group. Essentialist gender views also significantly predicted gender-specific system justification (b = .46, SE = .05, t = 8.87, p < .001, 95% CI [.36, .56]), implying that those with stronger essentialist gender views were more likely to justify the existing gender system.

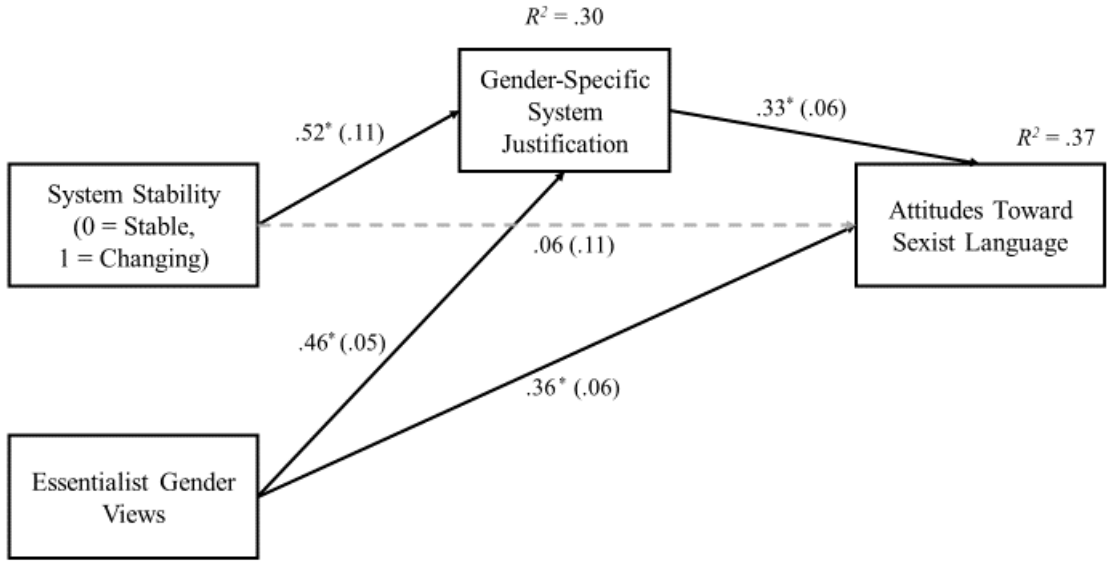

Figure 2.1

Mediation Model of the Study 2

Note. * p < .001. The reported values are the unstandardized regression coefficients.

In the actual model of mediation with attitudes toward sexist language, the overall model was significant, F(3, 239) = 46.09, p < .001, accounting for approximately 37% of the variance. Gender-specific system justification significantly predicted such attitudes (b = .33, SE = .06, t = 5.33, p < .001, 95% CI [.21, .46]), meaning that, for

each unit increase in gender-specific system justification, attitudes toward sexist language increased by 0.33 units. Essentialist gender views also substantially predicted attitudes toward sexist language (b = .36, SE = .06, t = 6.23, p < .001, 95% CI [.25, .48]). The experimental manipulation of system stability, on the other hand, did not have a substantial impact on attitudes toward sexist language directly (b = .06, SE = .11, t = .58, p = .57).

The indirect effect of system stability on attitudes toward sexist language through gender-specific system justification, was also significant with b = .17, bootstrapped SE = .05, and a bootstrapped 95% CI between [.08, .28]. The findings imply that gender-specific system justification mediated the relationship between system stability and attitudes toward sexist language. Participants in the changing group displayed higher levels of gender-specific system justification, which in turn was linked to more favorable attitudes toward sexist language.

3.3. Discussion

Building on the findings of Study 1, Study 2 aimed to further explore the effects of experimental manipulation of system stability on attitudes toward sexist language through gender-specific system justification, controlling for essentialist gender views.

The observed positive correlations between variables in the overall sample, along with stable and changing groups, provide further support for their interconnected nature, as purported in the literature (e.g., Keller, 2005; Lomotey, 2017; Mahalingam, 2003b; Parks & Roberton, 2005; Skewes et al., 2018; Smiler & Gelman, 2008). However, the stronger correlations in the changing group imply that perceived social change can amplify these interrelations. In particular, there was a more robust association between gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism, hinting at the increased level of system justification and overt hostile sexism in response to the perceived change in the gender system. The findings also supported this interpretation as the system stability condition did inadvertently affect the hostile sexism scores of the participants when performing a preliminary one-way ANOVA before conducting the moderated mediation analysis. The results also yielded that the system stability condition had a substantial effect on the gender-specific system justification levels of the participants, with those in the changing group justifying the system more. These findings are

consistent with those of Brescoll et al. (2013) and Morton et al. (2009), which specify that perceived threat to the system could strengthen the link among variables related to gender views and attitudes.

The findings provided support for Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 but not Hypothesis 4. As purported in Hypothesis 1, system stability condition had a significant effect on gender-specific system justification. This outcome is partly in line with Morton et al. (2009), as they found a greater tendency toward essentialist views when there was a perceived threat to the stability of the gender system. Our study revealed that those in the changing group displayed higher levels of justification, stressing the inclination to uphold the status quo and justify the system in response to perceived threats.

Regarding Hypothesis 2, the findings suggested that gender-specific system justification significantly predicted attitudes toward sexist language, controlling essentialist gender views. Hostile sexism was excluded from the model as there was a significant difference in hostile sexism scores of the participants among the stable group and the changing group, with those in the changing group yielding higher levels of it. Gender-specific system justification and essentialist gender views significantly predicting attitudes toward sexist language highlight their importance in forming attitudes toward sexist language as they may perpetuate tolerance for sexist language and hence bolster gender inequalities, in line with previous research (e.g., Douglas & Sutton, 2014; Leaper & Bigler, 2004; Lomotey, 2017). Therefore, this outcome provides insight into the role of system justification in influencing gender-biased attitudes, encompassing the attitudes toward sexist language.

Consistent with Hypothesis 3, the results indicated that system stability condition had an indirect effect on attitudes toward sexist language, through its impact on gender-specific system justification. This outcome implies that gender-specific system justification had the mediator role in the relationship between system stability and attitudes toward sexist language. Those in the changing group demonstrated higher levels of gender-specific system justification. This, in turn, led to more favorable attitudes toward sexist language. Overall, these outcomes hint that perceived changes in the gender system may indirectly boost more favorable attitudes toward sexist language by heightening the level of gender-specific system justification.

However, not providing support for Hypothesis 4, gender did not moderate the relationship between system stability and gender-specific system justification. This outcome, in a way, contradicts the findings of Morton et al. (2009), who indicated that men showed a greater tendency to endorse essentialist views when social changes threatened their group. The findings of Study 2 did not support this pattern.

We have already demonstrated the predictive effects of gender-specific system justification and essentialist gender views on attitudes toward sexist language in Study 1. In Study 2, the findings provide additional evidence for the indirect effect of system stability on attitudes toward sexist language through gender-specific system justification, controlling for essentialist gender views. The results imply that system stability might indirectly affect attitudes toward sexist language via gender-specific system justification; therefore, the causality is indirect. The perception of change in the existing system intensified the motivation to justify the system, subsequently leading to an alteration in attitudes toward sexist language. This study emphasizes the importance of examining these relationships through the framework of system justification theory to gain insight into the psychological reactions to perceived social system changes.

Moving forward, Study 3 experimentally manipulated the essentialist gender views by exposing participants to scientific arguments regarding gender differences or similarities within the brain and explored its indirect effect on attitudes toward sexist language through essentialist gender views.

CHAPTER 4

STUDY 3

In Study 3, the scope was extended beyond the issues examined in Studies 1 and 2, encompassing an additional dimension of the interplay between views and attitudes concerning gender: the impact of exposure to scientific discoveries on neuroanatomical structures. Study 1 conducted an exploratory investigation of the predictive power of essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification on attitudes toward sexist language, controlling for gender and sexism. Study 2 primarily centered on the impacts of encountering articles that portrayed the gender system as stable or changing, with respect to gender-specific system justification and attitudes toward sexist language. The current research, on the other hand, delved into the effects of being exposed to scientific research findings elucidating the structural differences or similarities between men's and women's brains on essentialist gender views and attitudes toward sexist language.

In the present study, participants were randomly assigned to three groups: one that was introduced to scientific explanations highlighting the neuroanatomical differences between male and female brains, another that was exposed to scientific clarifications emphasizing the absence of these neuroanatomical differences, and a control group that was oriented toward the significance of global warming through scientific arguments. Particularly, initially, the difference group was provided with a fabricated newspaper article outlining the findings of a scientific study revealing substantial differences in the density of neural connections between male and female brains. Subsequently, the similarity group encountered a newspaper article addressing research results indicating a lack of significant disparity in neural connectivity density between male and female brains. The control group, on the other hand, irrespective of

the aforementioned themes, was exposed to a newspaper article highlighting the pressing need to restrict global warming to a 1.5°C increase.

To reinforce the experimental condition (brain differences of men and women), participants in each group were prompted to respond to an open-ended question tailored to the content of the newspaper article designed for their respective groups. Following that, the participants completed a series of inventories. These assessments were nearly identical to those used in previous studies, encompassing the Gender Theory Questionnaire, the Gender-Specific System Justification Scale, the Shortened Version of the Hostile Sexism Subscale of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, and the Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language.

The primary objective of this investigation is to assess the indirect effect of exposure to different scientific research findings (gender differences vs. similarities within the brain) on attitudes toward sexist language through its impact on essentialist gender views, while controlling for gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism. Additionally, the study endeavors to improve our understanding of how information regarding neuroanatomical disparities and similarities among genders could influence individuals' views of gender and usage of sexist language, controlling for gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism. This complementary approach enables a more comprehensive analysis of the intricate interrelations between views on gender and a deeper understanding of the components that form individuals' perspectives on gender roles and language use.

Study 3 puts forth several hypotheses to explore the impact of experimental condition (brain differences of men and women) on participants' essentialist gender views and attitudes toward sexist language. Hypothesis 1 posits a significant effect of exposure to information about gender differences or similarities within the brain (similarity, difference, and control condition) on essentialist gender views, with the expectation that participants in the difference group would endorse stronger essentialist gender views than the control group (Hypothesis 1a), and participants in the similarity group would endorse these views less than the control group (Hypothesis 1b). Hypothesis 2 conjectures that essentialist gender views will significantly impact attitudes toward sexist language, controlling for gender-specific system justification and hostile

sexism. Hypothesis 3 asserts that the experimental condition (brain differences of men and women) will indirectly influence attitudes toward sexist language through its effect on essentialist gender views.

4.1. Method

4.1.1. Participants

The intended sample for Study 3 comprised Turkish-speaking individuals aged 18 years and above. Recruitment of participants took place through diverse social media platforms, including Facebook, Telegram, and WhatsApp. The data collection period was initially scheduled for three months; yet, it was prematurely terminated due to the incidence of a devastating earthquake. After the exclusion of two participants below the age of 18, the study encompassed 159 participants, with 58 in the difference group (36.48%), 53 in the similarity group (33.33%), and 48 in the control group (30.19%). Upon completion of data cleaning and filtering procedures, the final dataset for the subsequent analyses contained 138 participants. Among these, 48 participants constituted the difference group (34.78%), 45 the similarity group (32.61%), and 45 the control group (32.61%).

Participants were asked to indicate their gender through an open-ended question, resulting in a sample consisting of 89 women (70.1%), 36 men (28.3%), and one individual identifying as non-binary (see Table 3.1). Additionally, one participant chose not to disclose their gender. The age range of the participants was between 18 and 64, with a mean age of 28.30 (N = 127, SD = 8.01). The sample primarily included individuals aged 23 (N = 16, 12.6%), 24 (N = 15, 11.8%), and 26 (N = 14, 11%). Within the difference group, 46 participants disclosed their gender, including 30 women, 15 men, and one non-binary individual. The age range of the difference group was between 18 and 64, with a mean age of 29 (SD = 8.55). The similarity group encompassed 40 participants who revealed their gender, with 29 women, 10 men, and one participant refraining from specifying their gender. The mean age of the similarity group was 28.40 (SD = 8.51), with an age range of 20 to 57 years. The control group contained 41 participants (30 women and 11 men) who provided their gender information. The mean age of the control group was 27.50 (SD = 6.94), and the age range was between 19 and 57 years (see Table 3.2).

Table 3.1

Group-Based Frequencies of Gender

	Group		
	Difference	Similarity	Control
Women	30	29	30
Men	15	10	11
Other	1	0	0

Table 3.2

Group-Based Descriptives of Study 3

		Group		
		Difference	Similarity	Control
Age	*M*	29.00	28.40	27.50
	SD	8.55	8.51	6.94
Religious Beliefs	*M*	6.14	5.95	6.41
	SD	3.08	2.95	2.82
Conservatism level	*M*	4.89	4.90	5.51
	SD	3.15	3.00	2.73
Left-right spectrum	*M*	4.51	5.10	5.51
	SD	2.59	2.52	2.64

A vast majority of participants reported that they had primarily resided in metropolitan regions throughout their lives (N = 129). 57.4% of the participants stated living predominantly in a metropolis, while 28.7% dwelled in a city, 12.4% in a district, 0.8% in a town, and 0.8% in a village (see Table 3.3 for group-based frequencies of place of residence).

Table 3.3

Group-Based Frequencies of Place of Residence

	Group		
	Difference	Similarity	Control
Metropolis	25	27	22
City	16	8	13
District	5	5	6
Town	0	1	0
Village	0	1	0

Table 3.4

Group-Based Frequencies of Education Level

	Group		
	Difference	Similarity	Control
Primary school	1	0	0
Secondary school	0	0	1
High school	7	6	6
Bachelor's degree	24	26	24
Graduate degree	14	10	10

The participants exhibited a diverse range of educational backgrounds, spanning from elementary school graduates to individuals holding master's or doctorate degrees (N = 129). The most common education levels were bachelor's degree holders, comprising 57.4% of the sample, followed by graduate degree holders, representing 26.4% (see Table 3.4 for group-based frequencies of education level).

Table 3.5

Group-Based Frequencies of Mother Education Level

	Group		
	Difference	Similarity	Control
Illiterate	0	2	2
Basic literacy without formal education	4	2	1
Elementary school	17	13	16
Secondary school	4	3	5
High school	9	12	11
Vocational school or associate degree	3	4	0
Bachelor's degree	8	6	6
Graduate degree	1	0	0

The parents of the participants in this study similarly displayed a wide variety of educational backgrounds. Regarding the education levels of the mothers, the scale ranged from illiterate to master's or doctoral graduates. The majority of the mothers of the participants were primary school graduates (N = 46, 35.7%) and high school graduates (N = 32, 24.8%) (see Table 3.5 for group-based frequencies of education levels of mothers of the participants).

Table 3.6

Group-Based Frequencies of Father Education Level

	Group		
	Difference	Similarity	Control
Illiterate	0	0	0
Basic literacy without formal education	3	1	1
Elementary school	4	7	8
Secondary school	4	1	4
High school	10	15	12
Vocational school or associate degree	10	5	1
Bachelor's degree	10	11	12
Graduate degree	5	1	3

As for the education levels of participants' fathers, the scale spanned from basic literacy without formal education to master's or doctoral graduates. The majority of the fathers of the participants were high school graduates (N = 37, 28.9%) and bachelor's degree holders (N = 33, 25.8%) (see Table 3.6 for group-based frequencies of education levels of fathers of the participants).

Table 3.7

Group-Based Frequencies of Income Level

	Group		
	Difference	Similarity	Control
Lower	3	1	3
Lower-middle	11	11	7
Middle	24	20	22
Upper-middle	7	8	9
Upper	1	2	0

The income levels spanned from *lower* to *higher* (N = 129). A majority identified themselves as part of the middle-income group (N = 66, 51.2%), while 22.5% classified themselves as lower-middle, 18.6% as upper-middle, 5.4% as lower, and 2.3% as upper level (see Table 3.7 for group-based frequencies of income level).

In terms of marital status, 73.6% of the participants indicated they were single, while 23.3% identified as married (N = 129) (see Table 3.8 for group-based frequencies of marital status).

Table 3.8

Group-Based Frequencies of Marital Status

	Group		
	Difference	Similarity	Control
Single	36	32	27
Married	9	10	11
Divorced	0	0	1
Other	1	0	2

In contrast to the previous two studies, Study 3 assessed participants' religious beliefs. Among the 129 participants, 113 reported having religious beliefs. The mean score for the religious beliefs was 6.16 (N = 111, SD = 2.93), within a range from 0 to 10 (see Table 3.2 for the group-based descriptives of religious beliefs).

When asked to evaluate their level of conservatism using a 10-point scale ranging from 0 to 10, 52.6% of the participants opted for scores between 0 and 4, 34% chose values between 6 and 10, and 13.4% selected the median score of 5 (N = 127, M = 5.09, SD = 2.96). The mean score for the difference group was 4.89 (N = 45, SD = 3.15), while the similarity group had a mean score of 4.90 (N = 41, SD = 3.00), and the control group had a mean score of 5.51 (N = 41, SD = 2.73) (see Table 3.2).

Upon being asked to specify their political orientation on a scale ranging from left to right, 21.8% chose the center (N = 124, M = 5.03, SD = 2.60). Participants with a left-leaning political stance outnumbered those with a right-leaning political position (N = 70 and 56.5% for the left; N = 27 and 21.7% for the right). The mean score for the difference group was 4.51 (N = 43, SD = 2.59), while the similarity group had a mean score of 5.10 (N = 40, SD = 2.52), and the control group had a mean score of 5.51 (N = 41, SD = 2.64) (see Table 3.2).

The correlation coefficients between the study variables and the demographic variables are illustrated in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9

Correlation Coefficients Between the Study Variables and Demographic Variables in Study 3

	EGV	GSSJ	HS	ATSL
Age	.091	.228**	.160	-.003
Education level	.128	-.127	-.029	-.162
Education level of mother	-.145	-.181*	-.139	-.100
Education level of father	.013	-.179*	-.029	.019
Income level	.246**	.112	.065	.214*
Religious beliefs	.322***	.181	.083	.219*
Conservatism level	.336***	.343***	.162	.308***
Left-right spectrum	.440***	.467***	.256**	.457***

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. HS = Hostile Sexism. ATSL = Attitudes Toward Sexist Language.

Gender-specific system justification was positively correlated with age and negatively correlated with parents' education level. Religious beliefs were positively associated with essentialist gender views and attitudes toward sexist language. Consistent with the findings of the previous two studies, the study variables showed significant positive correlations between conservatism level and left-right spectrum. Yet, there was an exception in the association between hostile sexism and conservatism level.

4.1.2. Measures

4.1.2.1. Demographic Information Form

The same demographic information form used in Studies 1 and 2 was presented to the participants. Besides the questions included in other studies, participants were also asked about their parents' educational levels, and their religious beliefs.

4.1.2.2. Gender Theory Questionnaire

The same Gender Theory Questionnaire (Coleman & Hong, 2008; Antmen, 2020, for Turkish) used in Studies 1 and 2 was presented to the participants (Cronbach's $\alpha = .84$, McDonald's $\omega = .89$).

4.1.2.3. Gender-Specific System Justification Scale

The same Gender-Specific System Justification Scale (Jost & Kay, 2005; Işık, 2008, for Turkish) used in Studies 1 and 2 was presented to the participants (Cronbach's α = .72, McDonald's ω = .86).

4.1.2.4. The Shortened Version of the Hostile Sexism Inventory

The same shortened version of the Hostile Sexism Inventory of Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Rollero et al., 2014; Sakallı, 2002, for Turkish) used in Study 2 was presented to the participants (Cronbach's α = .90, McDonald's ω = .92).

4.1.2.5. Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language

The same Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language (Parks & Roberton, 2000; adapted to Turkish for this research) used in Studies 1 and 2 was presented to the participants (Cronbach's α = .88, McDonald's ω = .92). Considering the scope of the research questions of this study, the usage dimension (factor 3) did not offer additional unique insights beyond those presented by the beliefs (factor 1) and no recognition (factor 2) sections. Hence, in an effort to conduct a short-duration study, it was preferred to omit the usage dimension (factor 3) of the scale from Study 3. Nonetheless, this should not be interpreted as the usage dimension is irrelevant to pertinent variables or should be excluded from the relevant future research. The usage dimension could provide valuable insights into future investigations on attitudes toward sexist language.

4.1.3. Procedure

After obtaining ethical approval for Study 3 from the Human Subjects Ethics Committee (HSEC) at the Applied Ethics Research Center of METU, data collection was carried out, via an online study on the Qualtrics platform, by disseminating it across various social media channels. Similar to Study 2, the main objective of Study 3 was concealed from the participants. They were notified that the research aimed to explore the relationship between perspectives on social issues by examining participants' opinions on an array of themes associated with social sensitivities.

In the consent form, participants were informed that they would be provided with a newspaper article and subsequent questions about it, followed by questions regarding themselves and their views on various social issues. The participants were expected to take around fifteen minutes to complete.

Participants were assured of anonymity and confidentiality. While no direct benefits to participants were anticipated, their contribution to expanding scientific understanding in relevant fields was highlighted. The form included a statement saying that any questions would be addressed at the end of the questionnaire and provided the study coordinator's email address for further inquiries or information about the research.

Participants were randomly assigned to one of three groups, each receiving a newspaper article in the same format but with different content tailored to each group. The materials employed for the experimental condition (brain differences of men and women) were sourced from Şahin and Soylu Yalçınkaya (2020) (see Appendix A for the articles). These passages are the adapted Turkish versions of a newspaper article (BBC News, 2013) based on neuroscience research by Ingalhalikar et al. (2014). Şahin and Soylu Yalçınkaya (2020) pointed out that the original research team's real names and affiliations were removed from the passages, as they needed to be altered due to the manipulations involved.

In the difference group, participants were exposed to scientific research findings highlighting distinct structures in female and male brains. Specifically, the newspaper article discussed a large-scale research project led by a prominent university professor, which discovered notable differences between the neural connection density in the brains of men and women. The original findings, as outlined in the article, indicated that women's brains exhibited a greater density of neural connections between the left and right hemispheres compared to men's brains, while men's brains displayed a greater density of neural connections between the anterior and posterior regions within each hemisphere than women's brains (Şahin & Soylu Yalcinkaya, 2020). Additionally, the article proposed that these sex differences in the brain could be linked to gender-specific behavioral differences, with a professor asserting that the study results provided evidence for the neurological basis of these distinctions.

In the similarity group, participants were presented with a modified scientific research result claiming that the brains of men and women share similar structures. The newspaper article discussed a comprehensive research project conducted by a respected university professor, who concluded that distinguishing human brains based on sex was not possible and discovered no evident disparities in neural connection density between men and women. The professor remarked in the article that the study's findings revealed no neurological foundation for differences between men and women in specific domains.

In the control group, participants were given details about a scientific report created by a distinguished team, emphasizing the importance of restricting global warming to a 1.5 °C increase, instead of addressing the similarities or differences between the brains of men and women (World Wildlife Fund, 2018).

At the beginning of the study, participants were notified that the article assigned to them would be randomly chosen from either culture-arts or scientific research news categories. To ensure participants thoroughly read the newspaper articles, a 30-second waiting period was implemented before allowing them to proceed.

Following reading the news, each group was asked an open-ended question to reinforce the experimental manipulation. Based on the newspaper article they read, the difference group was requested to offer examples of topics where the brains of men and women differ. The similarity group was asked to provide examples of cases where the brains of men and women do not differ, according to the information in their assigned article. Finally, the control group was prompted to give examples of potential consequences arising from the progression of global warming and climate change, consistent with the newspaper article they had read.

For the manipulation check question, an identical question was presented to the difference and the similarity groups. Participants were presented with two choices and asked to choose the statement that most accurately represented the content of the newspaper article they had read. They were cautioned to base their response on the findings presented in the article, rather than their personal opinions. The first option asserted that, according to the findings in the article, the brains of men and women

exhibited significant differences. The second option claimed that, as per the article's findings, distinguishing human brains into male and female categories was not feasible.

For the control group, a separate question was presented, offering two choices, and participants were again prompted to choose the statement that most accurately reflected the content of the article they had read. The first option, which was the correct one, asserted that immediate actions were necessary to maintain global warming at 1.5 °C, according to the newspaper report. The second option posited that, based on the report, surpassing 1.5 °C in global warming did not present considerable risks as previously thought.

Initially, participants were presented with the Gender Theory Questionnaire. Following this, they were given the Gender-Specific System Justification Scale, the Shortened Version of the Hostile Sexism Inventory, and the Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language in a randomized sequence. Upon completing these, participants proceeded to fill out a demographic information form.

Before advancing to the comprehensive debriefing form, participants were asked three funnel debriefing questions to obtain feedback about the credibility and validity of the study. They were first asked about the purpose of the study, followed by questions regarding any perceived strangeness or unconvincing aspects within the study. Finally, participants were questioned about any pre-existing knowledge of the study's content before their involvement in the research.

At the conclusion of the study, participants were provided with an extensive debriefing form. They were briefed that, in social psychology research, the main objective and methodology might be concealed until data collection is complete to avoid affecting the responses of current and future participants. The primary purpose of the current study was disclosed, and participants were informed about the three groups and the newspaper articles they were presented with. They were notified that the neuroscience research findings sections they had read earlier were adapted, and it was noted that while some studies have discovered structural differences between the brains of men and women, others have not. Participants were also made aware that any identified

differences do not necessarily indicate innate or immutable disparities between the sexes, as the brain is a flexible structure influenced by an individual's experiences over time. The significance of exercising caution and diligence when interpreting such research findings and considering all aspects of the research was emphasized.

Participants were asked for their understanding concerning the concealment of the study's main objective until that moment and were thanked for their participation. They received notice that if they wished to withdraw their responses from the research data or seek additional information about the study, they could reach out to the study coordinator.

4.2. Results

4.2.1. Data Cleaning

In the initial stage of the data cleaning process, two participants under 18 years of age were excluded from the dataset. In response to participant feedback from other studies, the control item, Item 4 in the recognition dimension of the Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language, was excluded before the data collection. Contrary to other studies, gender was asked as an open-ended question in this study. Men and women were combined into a single category, with one response each for "I don't want to specify" and "nonbinary." For consistency, a gender variable was created, with women assigned a value of 1, men a value of 2, and others a value of 3. To facilitate further analyses, the gender variable was transformed into a binary format, with 1 representing women and 2 representing men.

4.2.1.1. Manipulation Check

As outlined in the procedure section, a manipulation check was employed to make sure that participants correctly comprehended the primary focus of the newspaper article assigned to them. After eliminating participants who failed the manipulation check question, the revised dataset consisted of 147 participants: 51 in the difference group, 51 in the similarity group, and 45 in the control group. Specifically, 12 participants were dropped from the study due to the manipulation check: seven from the difference

group (four women and two men), two from the similarity group (both women), and three from the control group (two men).

A chi-squared test of association was carried out to establish whether there was a significant relationship between gender and experimental condition (brain differences of men and women) among the participants excluded during the manipulation check process. No significant association was found between gender and experimental manipulation for the filtered-out participants ($\chi^2(2) = 4.44$, $p = .11$), indicating a similar proportion of men and women across the three groups were eliminated due to failing the manipulation check (see Table B18 in Appendix B).

4.2.1.2. Funnel Debriefing Questions

After the manipulation check, a funnel debriefing process was employed to collect additional feedback about the study, as detailed in the Procedure section. Eight participants were removed from the sample: four who nearly guessed the study's objective and four who found the articles unpersuasive. This resulted in a final sample of 139 participants, which ensured the inclusion of only those unfamiliar with the goal and who had not been influenced by the others.

4.2.1.3. Missing Values

In the present study, the number of missing values within the groups was minimal. 2 missing values in the difference group, 3 in the similarity group, and 4 in the control group. Due to the sparse distribution of missing values, a missing value analysis could not be performed. Furthermore, the influence of such a limited number of missing values on the overall study outcomes was anticipated to be minimal. After thoroughly examining the data collection process, it was assumed that the missing data in the study was missing at random and that the small number of missing data is unlikely to introduce considerable bias into subsequent analyses.

4.2.1.4. Univariate and Multivariate Outliers

The z-scores for all predictor variables were calculated, using a threshold of z-scores greater than 3.29 or less than -3.29 to identify univariate outliers. No univariate outliers were found in any of the groups. Subsequently, Mahalanobis distance analysis was

utilized to detect multivariate outliers for each group, considering essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, and hostile sexism variables. The threshold was determined by employing the 0.99 quantile of the chi-square distribution. In total, one multivariate outlier was identified and removed.

4.2.2. Internal Consistency Analysis and Bivariate Correlations

The descriptive statistics, Cronbach's alpha, and McDonald's omega coefficients for the scales, as well as the bivariate correlation coefficients are provided in Table 3.10. The scales indicated good internal consistency, aligning with the results obtained in Studies 1 and 2. The fifth item of the Gender-Specific System Justification Scale was omitted because of its low corrected item-total correlation of .02.

Correlational analyses were performed for the total sample as well as independently for the difference, similarity, and control groups (refer to Table 3.10 and Table B19 in Appendix B). For the entire sample (N = 138), correlations among essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, hostile sexism, attitudes toward sexist language use, and gender were assessed. All variables exhibited positive and statistically significant correlations with each other. Attitudes toward sexist language were strongly correlated with essentialist gender views (r = .58, p < .001), gender-specific system justification (r = .59, p < .001), and hostile sexism (r = .54, p < .001).

Generally, positive and significant correlations were observed among variables across all groups (see Table B19 in Appendix B). Specifically, in the difference group, all correlations were significant, with relationships ranging from moderate to weak to moderate, suggesting that the experimental condition (brain differences of men and women) may have influenced the relationships between variables in this group. In addition, the similarity group displayed generally lower correlation coefficients compared to other groups. This could imply that the context influenced by the similarity group's manipulation might have contributed to weaker bilateral relationships among variables. Finally, in the control group, there were higher correlation coefficients for most variables. The lack of experimental manipulation in this group may provide a clearer insight into the intact binary relationships between variables.

Table 3.10

Reliability Statistics and Bivariate Correlations in Study 3

			1	2	3	4	5
Total	1. Gender		—				
	2. EGV		.233**	—			
	3. GSSJ		.311***	.501***	—		
	4. HS		.429***	.493***	.583***	—	
	5. ATSL		.315***	.581***	.586***	.538***	—
		M		3.53	2.53	2.81	2.41
		SD		.89	.83	1.17	.77
		Cronbach's α		.84	.72	.90	.88
		McDonald's ω		.89	.86	.92	.92

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. HS = Hostile Sexism. ATSL = Attitudes Toward Sexist Language. Gender (1 = women, 2 = men).

4.2.3. Mediation Analysis

A mediation analysis was conducted to examine the causal effect of the experimental manipulation of exposure to scientific research findings on the neuroanatomical structures of women and men (the independent variable) on attitudes toward the use of sexist language (the dependent variable) through essentialist gender views (the mediator variable), while controlling for gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism (covariates). Just like in Study 2, z-scores were used to standardize the variables.

To ensure that the covariates were not affected by the experimental manipulation, two separate ANOVAs were performed to examine the effects of the manipulation on gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism. The findings revealed no substantial differences in hostile sexism ($F(2,127) = .74$, $p = .48$) and essentialist gender views ($F(2,128) = 2.22$, $p = .11$) across the groups. Hence, both variables were treated as covariates in the subsequent mediation analysis.

All required assumptions were evaluated and confirmed to be satisfied before performing the mediation analysis using PROCESS Macro for SPSS version 4.2 (Hayes, 2022) employing Model 4. The variance inflation factor (VIF) and tolerance values showed no multicollinearity, with VIF values less than 1.50 and tolerance values greater than 0.70 (see Table B20 in Appendix B). The independence of the

residuals assumption was confirmed by the Durbin-Watson autocorrelation test (Autocorrelation = -.002, *DW* = 2.00, *p* = .98) (see Table B21 in Appendix B). Furthermore, the plots of residuals against fitted values and covariates did not reveal any distinct patterns, and the scatterplots depicting the relationship between the variables (i.e., experimental condition and attitudes toward sexist language, experimental condition and essentialist gender views, and essentialist gender views and attitudes toward sexist language) demonstrated a linear pattern, satisfying the assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity (see Figures B17, B18, B19, B20, and B21 in Appendix B). Assumption of the normality of residuals was provided by the Shapiro-Wilk test (*W* = .10, *p* = .78) and a nearly standard Q-Q plot (see Table B22 and Figure B22 in Appendix B). Hence, the data fulfilled all the assumptions for the related mediation analysis, carried out with 5,000 bootstrap samples to form a 95% confidence interval. Since the independent variable, the brain difference manipulation, had three levels, it was treated as a multi-categorical variable and coded using 2 indicator (dummy) variables. The control group was taken as the reference group.

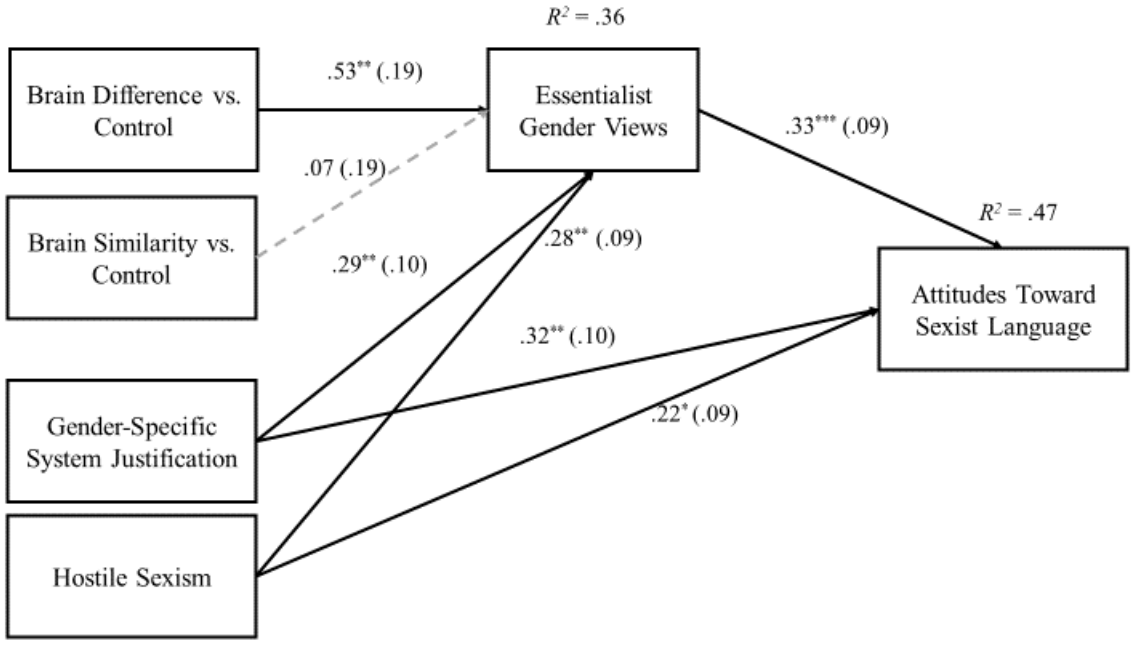

Figure 3.1

Mediation Model of the Study 3

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. The reported values are the unstandardized regression coefficients.

The model predicting essentialist gender views was significant, $F(4, 103) = 14.16$, $p < .001$, explaining approximately 35.5% of the variance. The mediation is displayed in Figure 3.1. The group exposed to scientific arguments on gender differences within the brain yielded significantly higher levels of essentialist gender views compared to the control group ($b = .53$, $SE = .19$, $p = .006$, $t = 2.79$, 95% CI [.15, .91]). However, there was no significant difference between the group exposed to scientific arguments on gender similarities within the brain and the control group ($b = .07$, $SE = .19$, $t = .36$, $p = .72$). Moreover, gender-specific system justification ($b = .29$, $SE = .10$, $t = 3.06$, $p = .003$, 95% CI [.10, .48]) and hostile sexism ($b = .28$, $SE = .09$, $t = 2.99$, $p = .004$, 95% CI [.10, .47]) significantly predicted essentialist gender views, suggesting that those with higher levels of gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism were more likely to endorse essentialist gender views.

The overall model explained 47.2% of the variance in attitudes toward sexist language, $F(5, 102) = 18.23$, $p < .001$. In this model, the effect of essentialist gender views on attitudes toward sexist language was significant, controlling for gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism ($b = .33$, $SE = .09$, $t = 3.47$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.14, .52]). This suggests that, for each unit increase in essentialist gender views, attitudes toward sexist language increased by 0.33 units. Furthermore, the addition of gender-specific system justification ($b = .32$, $SE = .10$, $t = 3.30$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.13, .51]) and hostile sexism ($b = .22$, $SE = .09$, $t = 2.29$, $p = .02$, 95% CI [.03, .41]) as covariates significantly contributed to the prediction of attitudes toward sexist language. The brain difference manipulation, on the other hand, did not have a significant effect on attitudes toward sexist language directly ($b = .09$, $SE = .18$, $t = .48$, $p = .63$, for the similarity group; $b = -.08$, $SE = .19$, $t = -.43$, $p = .67$, for the difference group).

Examining the indirect effect of brain difference manipulation on attitudes toward sexist language through essentialist gender views, there was a significant indirect effect of the brain difference manipulation on attitudes toward sexist language through essentialist gender views ($b = .17$, bootstrapped $SE = .10$, bootstrapped 95% CI [.03, .39]). Yet, the similarity manipulation did not have a significant indirect effect on attitudes ($b = .02$, bootstrapped $SE = .07$, bootstrapped 95% CI [-.10, .18]).

4.3. Discussion

Study 3 scrutinized the effects of exposure to scientific arguments pertaining to either gender differences or similarities within the brain on essentialist gender views and attitudes toward sexist language, controlling for gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism, on three groups (i.e., the difference, the similarity, and the control groups). The findings provide insight into the impact of exposure to scientific arguments on gender beliefs and gender-biased attitudes.

The manipulation of our study was established on the basis of previous studies, employing a method of exhibiting fabricated articles to prime entity or incremental theories (e.g., Chiu et al., 1997; McConnell, 2001; Molden et al., 2006). The relevant literature points to this manipulation method may influence the perspectives and behaviors of the participants (e.g., Klysing, 2019; Levy et al., 1998; Poon & Koehler, 2006), indicating that our manipulation may affect essentialist gender views and attitudes toward sexist language. Unlike the previous research that presented a manipulation in a "first study" by emphasizing two separate studies (e.g., Brescoll & LaFrance, 2004; Christy et al., 2019; Coleman & Hong, 2008), we presented Study 3 in two parts, not studies, to reinforce the credibility of it since it was conducted online.

Our study revealed intricate dynamics among the study variables, adding a unique angle to essentialist gender views and enriching the insights from prior studies, such as Şahin and Soylu Yalcinkaya (2020). Expanding on this research, we investigated the impact of being exposed to scientific explanations of gender differences or similarities on essentialist gender views by placing attitudes toward sexist language into this context.

Hypothesis 1 predicted a significant effect of brain difference manipulation on essentialist gender views. Specifically, Hypothesis 1a posited that those in the difference group would have significantly higher levels of such views than the control group. Hypothesis 1b conjectured that those in the similarity group would have substantially lower levels of such views than the control group. Hypothesis 1 is partially supported, only gathering evidence on Hypothesis 1a. We found that participants exposed to scientific explanations emphasizing gender differences in the brain displayed higher levels of essentialist gender views than those in the control

group, consistent with the preceding research (e.g., Brescoll & LaFrance, 2004; Ching & Xu, 2018). This finding contrasts with Şahin and Soylu Yalcinkaya (2020), who did not find that exposure to scientific information on gender differences in the brain had a significant effect on the essentialist gender views. Therefore, it could be argued that our participants demonstrated greater susceptibility to scientific evidence of gender differences within the brain. We did not find support for Hypothesis 1b. Intriguingly, the similarity group did not exhibit lower essentialist gender views compared to the control group, contrasting with the findings of Şahin and Soylu Yalcinkaya (2020). These results underscore the potential for exposure to information focusing on gender differences to heighten essentialist gender views, although contexts may differ.

Hypothesis 2 asserted that essentialist gender views would significantly contribute to the prediction of attitudes toward sexist language, controlling for gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism. The findings corroborate this hypothesis, as essentialist gender views exhibited a significant role in explaining a notable portion of the variance in attitudes toward sexist language. That is, those who endorsed higher levels of essentialist gender views demonstrated heightened favorable attitudes toward sexist language, as expected.

Hypothesis 3 receives support from the results since we found that exposure to scientific arguments on gender differences within the brain had an indirect effect on attitudes toward sexist language through its influence on essentialist gender views. However, we did not observe this significant indirect effect on the similarity group. These outcomes highlight the potential role of such exposure in affecting gender views and gender-discriminatory attitudes.

For this study, the covariates of gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism significantly contributed to predicting essentialist gender views and attitudes toward sexist language, meaning that those with higher scores of gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism were more likely to endorse essentialist gender views and hold positive attitudes toward sexist language.

In summary, Study 3 provides a comprehensive causal inference on the indirect effect of exposure to scientific information regarding gender differences on attitudes toward

sexist language through essentialist gender views, underlining the role of covariates and prompting further investigation of these relationships.

CHAPTER 5

GENERAL DISCUSSION

5.1. Overview of the Studies

In this thesis, I conducted three studies to shed light on the interrelationship of gender-related constructs and attitudes toward sexist language. Study 1 explored the predictive power of essentialist gender views and gender-specific system justification and whether their impact extends beyond the contributions of gender and sexism. As a part of its exploratory approach, this study also looked for the potential gender differences in each variable. Men showed higher levels of essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, hostile and benevolent sexism, and more favorable attitudes toward sexist language. Gender-specific system justification and essentialist gender views uniquely contributed to predicting attitudes toward sexist language, controlling for gender and sexism. Benevolent sexism did not make a separate contribution to the model, even though it was significantly correlated with attitudes toward sexist language. This implies that there might be a different, indirect relationship between benevolent sexism and attitudes toward sexist language and that this possible relationship might be confounded by other variables.

Study 2 investigated how system stability condition affected attitudes toward sexist language through gender-specific system justification, controlling for essentialist gender views. There were generally stronger correlations between variables in the changing group, indicating that the perceived change in the gender system strengthened the binary associations. Participants who perceived a change in the gender system justified the existing system more, but the effect of this perceived change was uniform across genders. Addedly, gender-specific system justification significantly predicted attitudes toward sexist language, hinting that a heightened inclination to legitimize the gender system was associated with more positive attitudes

toward sexist language. System stability condition had a significant indirect effect on attitudes toward sexist language through gender-specific system justification. Specifically, participants in the changing group displayed higher justification levels for the system, which, in turn, led to more positive attitudes toward sexist language.

Study 3 probed how exposure to scientific explanations that address neuroanatomical gender differences or similarities affected attitudes toward sexist language through essentialist gender views, controlling for gender-specific system justification and hostile sexism. Exposure to scientific evidence addressing neuroanatomical gender differences resulted in higher levels of essentialist gender views. The group exposed to similarities did not have lower essentialist gender views than the control group, hinting that emphasizing differences rather than similarities may more easily affect participants. Addedly, essentialist gender views significantly contributed to the prediction of attitudes toward sexist language, with those who held stronger essentialist gender views expressing a greater tendency to favor sexist language. The findings yielded that exposure to scientific facts on gender differences within the brain had an indirect effect on attitudes toward sexist language via its impact on essentialist gender views. In particular, those in the difference group demonstrated a greater endorsement of essentialist gender views, which correspondingly led to heightened positive attitudes toward sexist language.

In summary, the results revealed that perceived change in the gender system heightened the motivations to justify the system, while exposure to biological differences between men and women increased essentialist gender views. These experimental manipulations (i.e., system stability and brain difference vs. similarity) indirectly affected attitudes toward sexist language. It is noteworthy to specify that they did not have a direct effect on participants' attitudes toward sexist language. These alterations in the motivation to justify the system and the endorsement of essentialist gender views, induced by the experimental manipulations, subsequently acted as mediators in changing the attitudes toward sexist language. This emphasizes the importance of considering how underlying perceptions regarding the system and understandings of the differences between genders could impact attitudes toward sexist language, going beyond focusing on the direct effects.

These studies found significant binary correlations among gender and gender-related views and attitudes, reflecting the literature (e.g., Keller, 2005; Lomotey, 2017; Mahalingam, 2003b; Parks & Roberton, 2005; Skewes et al., 2018; Smiler & Gelman, 2008). In line with the prior research (e.g., Keller, 2005; Mahalingam, 2003a, 2003b; Smiler & Gelman, 2008), the results of Study 1 showed that men had higher levels of essentialist gender views compared to women. Similarly, as prior studies indicated, attitudes toward sexist language were explained by variables beyond gender, namely, gender-specific system justification, essentialist gender views, and, in certain instances, hostile sexism (e.g., Douglas & Sutton, 2014; Sarrasin et al., 2012). Changes in the perceived gender system and scientific evidence on gender differences within the brain influenced participants' gender-related views, aligning with the prior studies (e.g., Brescoll & LaFrance, 2004; Ching & Xu, 2018; Morton et al., 2009). However, the effect of scientific arguments regarding these differences on essentialist gender views contradicts Şahin and Soylu Yalcinkaya (2020), which found that exposure to such differences did not have a significant effect on these views. Hence, it is conceivable that the receptiveness to such scientific evidence may depend on the context or the sample characteristics. Addedly, contrasting with the results of Şahin and Soylu Yalcinkaya (2020), the similarity group did not display significantly lower levels of essentialist gender views than the control group.

The unexpected findings could be due to the multi-dimensional nature of gender-related constructs and attitudes toward sexist language, which can be affected by multiple other components beyond the variables of interest. Addedly, within these variables, the relationships might be different than initially purported. Alternatively, the way constructs were defined and measured might not accurately capture their nuances. For instance, attitudes toward sexist language may be contingent upon the context, and relying merely on self-report measures might limit the comprehension of this concept.

5.2. Implications

The implications of these studies cover academic, practical, and social fields and contribute to the literature addressing the relationship between language, gender, and gender-related constructs. Sexist language extends beyond a linguistic issue since the

overall findings demonstrate the extent to which sexism manifests and perpetuates even in a grammatically gender-neutral language like Turkish. These outcomes are consistent with the previous research emphasizing how sexism could be embedded in the language (e.g., Doyle, 1998), lending support to the views of Mills (2008) that sexism can be subtly communicated through language.

This research was conducted within the context of Turkish, providing a unique angle to the literature as the connection between language and gender has been less scrutinized in grammatically gender-neutral languages (Lomotey, 2017). Therefore, this thesis primarily emphasizes that despite the absence of structurally gendered components in language, sexism could still spread through it. This reinforces the perception that attitudes toward sexist language are not solely related to personal views but are intertwined with broader social ideologies, including portraying gender characteristics as inherent and immutable and justifying the existing gender-related hierarchies. This study provides insight into the underexplored constructs related to such attitudes to understand their dynamics.

This thesis also provides implications for policies and interventions to alleviate gender inequality. I argue that it is essential that strategies against sexist language address not only the sexist components of language but also indirect forms of sexism and ingrained ideologies. For example, these strategies or interventions could establish educational programs or awareness campaigns that encourage critical thinking about current gender norms, ideologies, and impact of system change perceptions. Because even in the feedback received for this research, I have observed the remarkable increase in awareness experienced by the participants regarding sexist language usage. The results also highlight the role of scientific communities, media, and educators in presenting and interpreting the scientific findings regarding gender differences and similarities to prevent reinforcing gender discriminatory beliefs and attitudes.

5.3. Limitations and Future Suggestions

All the studies consisted predominantly of women and individuals who defined their gender as binary. The underrepresentation of men and non-binaries might affect the generalizability of the findings. Addedly, conservative and right-wing individuals were relatively few, and most respondents were urban and graduate, reducing the

generalizability. Moreover, due to the data collection process during the devastating earthquake, the sample size of Study 3 was relatively small, affecting the statistical power.

There were also a few limitations regarding the design of the studies. The reduction of The Turkish adaptation of the Gender Theory Questionnaire from two dimensions to one may have affected the nuances captured by the dimensions. Further, although the manipulation of perceived gender system stability in Study 2 is theoretically employed to measure its influence on gender-specific system justification, its usefulness may vary by culture and context. Because such exposures may not pose a threat to the gender system in every culture and context, and even if it does, not every culture could respond to such threat by justification. Additionally, the Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language was adapted directly for this research without a previous comprehensive scale study, which might have affected its validity. However, the internal consistency of the scales measuring essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, and attitudes toward sexist language was consistently high.

Limitations on the methodologies of the studies are related to the online environment of the study, the use of self-report measures, and the content of newspaper news. The online nature of the experiments inescapably affected response validity, amplifying self-selection bias and diminishing control over the research setting. Although we strived to keep the purpose and content confidential and used funnel debriefing questions, information leaks might have occurred without our knowledge. Also, despite the emphasis on confidentiality and anonymity, self-report measures could result in social desirability. In addition, the fictitious news articles and their appearance might have damaged the credibility of the article for some participants, according to the feedback received. Also, these kinds of exposure were not the same as real-life media exposure; they were simplified versions, as they were neither versatile nor long-term. Therefore, these manipulations may be insufficient to trigger changes in the measures, especially attitudes toward sexist language.

Additionally, patterns of missing data across the studies were analyzed, and in Study 1, older participants were found to have less missing data. Apart from this, no

systematic missing data patterns were found; yet, it should be noted that there may still be potential effects that were not measured. Lastly, a significant association was revealed between gender and system stability condition among participants who were eliminated after the manipulation check in Study 2, suggesting that their views on the article may have influenced their responses.

Future research could strive for a more equitable representation of gender by encompassing a wide selection of men and non-binary individuals, also considering different levels of education, political views, and religious backgrounds to enhance generalizability. Replicating the three studies, specifically Study 3, using a greater sample size has the potential to generate more robust results. Furthermore, a systematically comprehensive scale study is required for the Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language adapted to Turkish. Moreover, across the three studies, the mean score for attitudes toward sexist language ranged between 2.16 and 2.41 on a 5-point Likert scale, suggesting general disapproval of such language. Hence, to further determine whether the unconscious use of language could contribute to the spread of sexism, even without conscious favor for sexist views, future research may address a sample with more favorable attitudes toward sexist language.

To mitigate self-selection bias in online experiments and foster active participant involvement, additional ways should be probed (e.g., responding against time). Also, in response to participant feedback, to increase the ecological validity, actual articles or more realistic formats could be used, along with observational studies and interviews. Addedly, bolstering external validity, longitudinal designs can be employed to provide insights into long-term effects, individual differences, and temporal stability.

Moreover, sexist language use can be measured behaviorally, and implicit forms of measurement could be employed in conjunction with explicit ones to unveil unconscious sexism in language. For instance, considering the grammatically gender-neutral structure of Turkish, behavioral measurement in terms of awareness and correction may include measuring participants' tendency to address subtle sexism disguised as misspelling in so-called translations.

Finally, upcoming research could scrutinize these related research questions within different cultures, taking into account the variability of gender norms and roles, the perceived gender system, and what is perceived as sexist or not.

5.4. Conclusion

This thesis examined the interplay between gender-related constructs and attitudes toward sexist language by conducting two experimental and one correlational research. The findings revealed that essentialist gender views, gender-specific system justification, and hostile sexism significantly predicted attitudes toward sexist language. Perceived change in the gender system amplified the motivations to justify the system, and exposure to scientific arguments on the biological differences between men and women led to an increase in essentialist gender views, and these experimental manipulations (system stability and brain difference vs. similarity) indirectly influenced attitudes toward sexist language. More studies are required to shed light on the role of benevolent sexism with regard to this context. This research underlines that sexism exists even in grammatically genderless languages, highlighting the importance of tackling underlying ideologies when challenging sexist language. Implications could be addressed within academic and social domains, underscoring the need for awareness studies and interventions. Future studies may explore behavioral and implicit measures in this context.

By attaining more insights in this context, we could play a role in building societies where all individuals are respected as individuals, free from worrying about exposure to any form or extension of gender-discriminatory behavior. While doing this, we ought to stay attentive to the intricate interplay between language, gender, and sexism and strive to tackle all kinds of gender inequality in light of various contexts and constructs. Our concerted efforts, indeed, could work as a potent driver to foster the advancement of the greater good.

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APPENDICES

A. MATERIALS USED IN THREE STUDIES

Demographic Information Form

1. Cinsiyetiniz: ☐ Kadın ☐ Erkek ☐ Diğer
2. Yaşınız:
3. Yaşamınızın büyük bölümünü geçirdiğiniz yer:
☐ Büyükşehir ☐ İl ☐ İlçe ☐ Belde ☐ Köy
4. Eğitim düzeyiniz (en son tamamladığınız okul):
☐ Okur-yazar ☐ İlkokul mezunu ☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Ön lisans / lisans mezunu ☐ Yüksek lisans / doktora mezunu
5. Annenizin eğitim seviyesi?
☐ Okuma yazma bilmiyor ☐ Okuma yazma biliyor fakat eğitim almadı ☐ İlkokul mezunu ☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Meslek yüksekokulu mezunu / Ön lisans mezunu ☐ Lisans mezunu ☐ Lisansüstü mezunu
6. Babanızın eğitim seviyesi?
☐ Okuma yazma bilmiyor ☐ Okuma yazma biliyor fakat eğitim almadı ☐ İlkokul mezunu ☐ Ortaokul mezunu ☐ Lise mezunu ☐ Meslek yüksekokulu mezunu / Ön lisans mezunu ☐ Lisans mezunu ☐ Lisansüstü mezunu
7. Gelir düzeyinizi hangi gruba ait görmektesiniz?
☐ Alt ☐ Alt-orta ☐ Orta ☐ Üst-orta ☐ Üst
8. Medeni durumunuz: ☐ Bekar ☐ Evli ☐ Boşanmış ☐ Diğer
9. Dini inancınız var mıdır? ☐ Evet ☐ Hayır
10. (Evet diyenlere) Dini inancınız gündelik yaşamınızı nasıl etkiliyor? (1-Hiç, 10-Oldukça fazla)
7. Kendinizi ne kadar muhafazakâr bulursunuz? (1-Hiç, 10-Oldukça fazla)
8. Lütfen politik olarak yakın durduğunuz yeri aşağıda belirtilen aralıkta bir sayıyı işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

5	4	3	2	1	0	1	2	3	4	5
Sol										Sağ

Gender Theory Questionnaire

1. Bir kişinin cinsiyeti onun yetenek ve özelliklerini büyük oranda biyolojik olarak belirler.
2. Erkekler ve kadınlar bir şekilde farklılık gösterdiğinde, farkın biyolojik faktörlerden kaynaklanması muhtemeldir.
3. Bir kişinin cinsiyetinin doğuştan gelen özellikleri, kişinin nasıl biri olduğunu belirler.
4. Cinsiyet özellikleri tamamen ekonomik, politik ve sosyal nedenlerden dolayı inşa edilmiştir.
5. Sosyal durumlar değişirse, cinsiyet kategorilerine yüklediğimiz özellikler de değişecektir.
6. Cinsiyet sabit değildir ve değiştirilebilir.
7. Cinsiyet doğadan çok yetiştirilme koşullarının bir sonucudur.
8. Bir kişinin cinsiyeti, onun yaratılışından ziyade sosyal çevresiyle ilgilidir.
9. Cinsiyet, bir kişinin sosyalleşme biçiminden ziyade, doğrudan biyoloji ile bağlantılıdır.
10. İnsanların cinsiyete bağlı davranışları, sosyal iklimden ziyade, biyolojik faktörlere bağlıdır.

Gender-Specific System Justification Scale

1. Genellikle kadınlarla erkekler arasındaki ilişkiler adildir.
2. Ailelerdeki iş bölümü genellikle olması gerektiği gibidir.
3. Geleneksel kadın-erkek rollerinin tümüyle yeniden yapılandırılması gerekir.
4. Türkiye, dünyada kadınların yaşayabileceği en iyi ülkelerdendir.
5. Cinsiyet ve cinsiyete dayalı iş bölümüyle ilişkili politikalar toplumun gelişmesine yardımcı olur.
6. Kadın veya erkek herkes adil bir fırsata, zenginliğe ve mutluluğa sahiptir.
7. Toplumdaki cinsiyetçilik her yıl daha da kötüye gidiyor.
8. Toplum, kadın ve erkeklerin hak ettiklerini genellikle elde ettikleri şekilde düzenlemiştir.

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

1. Ne kadar başarılı olursa olsun bir kadının sevgisine sahip olmadıkça bir erkek gerçek anlamda bütün bir insan olamaz.
2. Gerçekte birçok kadın "eşitlik" arıyoruz maskesi altında işe alınmalarda kendilerinin kayırılması gibi özel muameleler arıyorlar.
3. Bir felaket durumunda kadınlar erkeklerden önce kurtarılmalıdır.
4. Birçok kadın masum söz veya davranışları cinsel ayrımcılık olarak yorumlamaktadır.
5. Kadınlar çok çabuk alınırlar.
6. Karşı cinsten biri ile romantik ilişki olmaksızın insanlar hayatta gerçekten mutlu olamazlar.
7. Feministler gerçekte kadınların erkeklerden daha fazla güce sahip olmalarını istemektedirler.
8. Birçok kadın çok az erkekte olan bir saflığa sahiptir.
9. Kadınlar erkekler tarafından el üstünde tutulmalı ve korunmalıdır.
10. Birçok kadın erkeklerin kendileri için yaptıklarına tamamen minnettar olmamaktadırlar.
11. Kadınlar erkekler üzerinde kontrolü sağlayarak güç kazanmak hevesindeler.
12. Her erkeğin hayatında hayran olduğu bir kadın olmalıdır.
13. Erkekler kadınsız eksiktirler.
14. Kadınlar işyerlerindeki problemleri abartmaktadırlar.
15. Bir kadın bir erkeğin bağlılığını kazandıktan sonra genellikle o erkeğe sıkı bir yular takmaya çalışır.
16. Adaletli bir yarışmada kadınlar erkeklere karşı kaybettikleri zaman tipik olarak kendilerinin ayrımcılığa maruz kaldıklarından yakınırlar.
17. İyi bir kadın erkeği tarafından yüceltilmelidir.
18. Erkeklere cinsel yönden yaklaşılabilir olduklarını gösterircesine şakalar yapıp daha sonra erkeklerin tekliflerini reddetmekten zevk alan birçok kadın vardır.
19. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha yüksek ahlaki duyarlılığa sahip olma eğilimindedirler.
20. Erkekler hayatlarındaki kadın için mali yardım sağlamak için kendi rahatlarını gönüllü olarak feda etmelidirler.
21. Feministler erkeklere makul olmayan istekler sunmaktadırlar.
22. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha ince bir kültür anlayışına ve zevkine sahiptirler.

Inventory of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language

Bölüm 1: Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerin her biri için, dil hakkındaki görüşlerinize en yakın olanı seçiniz.

Lütfen bu anketi doldururken aşağıdaki tanımı düşününüz:

Cinsiyetçi dil, kadın ve erkekler arasında gereksiz yere ayrım yapan veya her iki cinsiyeti de dışlayan ya da önemsizleştiren kelimeler, deyimler ve ifadeler içerir.

1= Hiç katılmıyorum, 2= Pek katılmıyorum, 3= Kararsızım, 4= Biraz katılıyorum, 5= Tamamen katılıyorum

1. "Bilim adamı" olarak adlandırılmanın cinsiyetçi olduğunu düşünen kadınlar, "bilim adamı" kelimesinin kullanım amacını yanlış yorumluyor.
2. Cinsiyetçi dil kullanımı konusunda endişelenmek gereksizdir.
3. İnsanlar "bayan" kelimesini cinsiyetçi bir niyetleri olmaksızın kullandıklarında, ifade cinsiyetçi değildir.
4. Cinsiyetçi dilin ortadan kaldırılması önemli bir hedeftir.
5. Nasıl ki araştırmacı, gazeteci ve yazarların ırkçı bir dilden kaçınmaları bekleniyorsa, benzer şekilde cinsiyetçi bir dilden de kaçınmaları gerekir.
6. Cinsiyetçi dil, toplumdaki insanların cinsiyetçi muamelesi ile ilgilidir.
7. Öğretmenler Türkiye tarihi hakkında konuştuğunda, "atalarımız" gibi eril ifadeleri, kadınları da içeren ifadelerle değiştirmelidirler.
8. Öğrencilerinden, cinsiyetçi olmayan bir dil kullanmalarını isteyen öğretmenler, politik görüşlerini öğrencilerine haksız yere dayatmaktadır.
9. Değişim zor olsa da yine de cinsiyetçi dili ortadan kaldırmaya çalışmalıyız.

Bölüm 2: Aşağıda belirtilen cümlelerdeki altı çizili kelimeler ve deyimler cinsiyetçi midir? Lütfen kendi görüşünüzü belirtiniz.

1 = Hiç cinsiyetçi değil; 2 = Muhtemelen cinsiyetçi değil; 3 = Kararsızım; 4 = Biraz cinsiyetçi gibi; 5 = Tamamen cinsiyetçi

1. İnsanlar sadece kendilerine değil, tüm <u>insanoğluna</u> önem vermelidir.
2. Kurbağaya dokununca siğil sıçrayacağı inanışı <u>kocakarı</u> safsatasından başka bir şey değildir.
3. Deniz Özdemir çok takdir edilesi bir <u>bilim adamıdır</u>.
4. Lütfen bu maddenin değerlendirmesini "biraz cinsiyetçi" olarak işaretleyiniz.
5. O, <u>işinin eri</u> bir aşçıdır.
6. <u>Kız başına</u> yurt dışına çıkmayı düşünüyor.
7. Bazılarını <u>adam etmek</u> çok zor.

Bölüm 3: Lütfen aşağıdaki durumlarda sizi en iyi tanımlayanı seçiniz.
1= Hiç, 2= Nadiren, 3= Ara sıra, 4= Sık sık, 5= Her zaman

1. Günlük hayatta bir kişinin verdiği sözü mutlaka tutacağı anlamına gelen "erkek sözü" yerine "sözünün arkasında" deyişini kullanmayı tercih ederim.
2. Günlük hayatta "kadın" yerine "bayan" kelimesini kullanmayı tercih ederim.
3. Bir kişinin zayıflığını belirtmek için "kız gibi" deyişini kullanırım (kız gibi koşmak, kız gibi ağlamak, kız gibi dırdır etmek...).
4. Bir kişinin ayıbından bahsederken "adamlığa sığmamak" yerine "insanlığa sığmamak" deyişini kullanmayı tercih ederim.
5. Günlük hayatta bir kadının fiziksel kuvvetini ve cesaretini vurgulamak için "erkek Fatma" deyişini kullanırım.
6. Günlük hayatta "iş insanı" yerine "iş adamı" kelimesini tercih ederim.
7. Bir işin eksiksiz ya da kurallara uygun yapıldığını belirtmek için "adamakıllı" yerine "doğru düzgün" yerine kelimesini kullanmaya özen gösteririm.

Study 2 The Newspaper Article Depicted the Gender-Specific System as Changing

2 Mart 2022

KADINLAR CİNSİYETLER SAVAŞINDA GERİDE, AMA YİNE DE KAZANABİLİRLER

Görsel: Freepik.com

20. yüzyılın başında, kadın ve erkek arasındaki eşitsizlik oldukça hafife alınıyordu. Erkekler işgücünde yüksek statülü ve vasıflı pozisyonları zaten elinde tutuyordu ve çoğu meslek, kadınların evlendikten sonra istifa etmelerini gerektiriyordu. Çalışabilseler bile, kadınlar erkeklerden çok daha az kazanıyorlardı.

21. yüzyıla geldiğimizde ise, çok sayıda kadın, cinsiyet eşitsizliğinin çoktan geçmişte kaldığına inanıyor. Peki işler gerçekten o kadar da değişti mi?

Son zamanlarda yayınlanan bir rapora göre, cevap hem evet hem de hayır. Birleşmiş Milletlerin 2020 Dünya Kadınları başlıklı raporu için derlenen istatistikler, eğitim, siyaset, hukuk ve ev alanlarında, kadınların erkeklere yetiştiğini gösteriyor. Fakat cinsiyet farkı giderek azalsa da kadınlar bazı ölçütlerde hala erkek meslektaşlarının gerisinde kalıyor. Örneğin, erkekler aynı işte kadınlardan %25 daha fazla kazanıyor. Yine de 1960 ile 2020 arasında, maaşlardaki cinsiyete bağlı fark %18 azalmıştır ve iş yerinde kadın-erkek eşitliğine gösterilen hassasiyet, cinsiyet eşitsizliğindeki durumun yakında değişebileceğini gösteriyor. Bununla birlikte, artık çoğu erkek ve kadın, bir kadın yöneticiyi bir erkek yöneticiye tercih edebileceklerini söylüyor. Bu da kadınların güç kazandığına ve kazanmaya da devam edeceğine işaret ediyor.

İş yaşamı söz konusu olduğunda, kadınlar hala cinsiyetler savaşını kaybeden taraf olabilir. Ancak toplumdaki değişen tutumlar, kadınların yakında bu savaşı kazanabilecekleri anlamına geliyor.

Study 2 The Newspaper Article Depicted the Gender-Specific System as Stable

2 Mart 2022

CİNSİYET SAVAŞINDA KAYBEDEN HALA KADINLAR

Görsel: Freepik.com

20. yüzyılın başında, kadın ve erkek arasındaki eşitsizlik oldukça hafife alınıyordu. Erkekler işgücünde yüksek statülü ve vasıflı pozisyonları zaten elinde tutuyordu ve çoğu meslek, kadınların evlendikten sonra istifa etmelerini gerektiriyordu. Çalışabilseler bile, kadınlar erkeklerden çok daha az kazanıyorlardı.

21. yüzyıla geldiğimizde ise, çok sayıda kadın, cinsiyet eşitsizliğinin çoktan geçmişte kaldığına inanıyor. Peki işler gerçekten o kadar da değişti mi?

Son zamanlarda yayınlanan bir rapora göre, cevap kocaman bir hayır. Birleşmiş Milletlerin 2020 Dünya Kadınları başlıklı raporu için derlenen istatistikler, birçok ölçümde kadın-erkek eşitsizliğinin 100 yıl önceki gibi devam ettiğini gösteriyor. İstihdam, maaş, eğitim, siyaset, hukuk ve ev alanlarında, kadınlar hala erkeklerin gerisinde kalmaya devam ediyor. Erkekler aynı işte kadınlara oranla %22 daha fazla kazanıyor ve yöneticilik pozisyonlarının sadece %14,3'ünde kadınlar bulunuyor. Üstelik, çalışma durumu, yaş, çocuk sayısı ve medeni hali ne olursa olsun, kadınlar hala ev işlerine erkeklerden daha fazla zaman harcıyorlar. Bu da erkeklerin iktidarı hala ellerinde tuttuklarına ve bu durumun yakın zamanda pek de değişecek gibi görünmediğine işaret ediyor.

Kadınlar, yıllar içinde elde ettikleri önemli kazanımlara rağmen, görünüşe göre bu cinsiyetler savaşında hala kaybeden taraflar.

Study 3 The Newspaper Article That Depicted the Female Brain and the Male Brain as Having Different Structures – For Difference Group (Şahin & Soylu Yalçınkaya, 2020)

Haberler | Video | Fotoğraf | Dergi | Spor | Ekonomi | Bilim | Teknoloji | Sağlık

Bilim insanları ortaya çıkardı: Kadın beyni ve erkek beyni farklı yapılara sahip!

1 Şubat 2021

Paylaş

Kadın ve erkekler arasındaki farklar beyin yapılarının farklılığından kaynaklanıyor olabilir mi? Princeton Üniversitesi'nden Prof. Dr. Joseph Tronton ve Nörobilim laboratuvarı ekibi Amerikan Bilim Vakfı (National Science Foundation) tarafından fonlanan geniş çaplı araştırma projelerinde bu soruya yanıt aradı. Prof. Tronton ve ekibinin bulgularına göre, kadın ve erkek beyinleri önemli şekilde ayrışıyor.

Son yıllarda birçok araştırmada bilim insanları kadın ve erkek beyinleri arasındaki farkları anlamak için uğraşıyordu. Daha önceki çalışmalar kadın ve erkek beyinleri arasında hipokampüs, amigdala ve korpus kollosum bölgelerinde boyut farkları ve kortekste kalınlık farkları olabileceğini göstermekteydi.

Prof. Tronton ve ekibinin yürüttüğü geniş çaplı "Beynin Cinsiyeti" (Gendered Brains) projesi ise beynin belirli bölgeleri yerine tamamını kaplayan sinir ağlarını son teknoloji ürünü cihazlarla inceleyerek beyinde cinsiyet farklılıklarını en net şekilde kanıtlayan çalışma oldu. Araştırma ekibi, difüzyon tensör görüntüleme tekniği kullanarak 1000'den fazla kadın ve erkeğin beynindeki sinir bağlantılarını inceledi. Kadın ve erkek beyinleri arasında saptanan en önemli fark, sinir bağlantılarının yoğunluğuyla ilgili. Sinir bağlantıları kadın beyinlerinde sağ ve sol yarımküreler arasında daha yoğunken, erkek beyinlerindeki bağlantılar aynı yarımkürenin ön ve arka bölgeleri arasında yoğunluk gösteriyor. Bu da insan beyinlerinin kadın ve erkek beyni olarak kategorize edilebileceği anlamına geliyor.

Peki sinir bağlantılarındaki bu cinsiyet farkı ne anlama geliyor? Araştırma sonuçlarını yorumlayan Pennsylvania Üniversitesi'nden Prof. Dr. Ragini Verma, "Beyindeki bağlantılar sezgisel düşünce ve motor becerilerin temellerini oluşturur. Bu haritalar, kadın ve erkek beyinleri arasındaki mimari farkları kanıtlıyor. Bu da erkeklerin ve kadınların bazı alanlarda birbirlerinden farklı olmalarının nörolojik temelini gösteriyor" şeklinde konuştu.

Teknolojinin ilerlemesiyle beyin taramaları içeren çalışmaların artması kuvvetle muhtemel. Bu çalışmaların en yeni örneği ise nörolojik cinsiyet farklarına önemli bir ışık tutuyor.

Study 3 The Newspaper Article That Depicted the Female Brain and the Male Brain as Having Similar Structures – For Similarity Group (Şahin & Soylu Yalçınkaya, 2020)

Haberler | Video | Fotoğraf | Dergi | Spor | Ekonomi | Bilim | Teknoloji | Sağlık

Bilim insanları ortaya çıkardı: Kadın beyni ve erkek beyni aynı yapıya sahip!

1 Şubat 2021

Paylaş

Kadın ve erkekler arasındaki farklar beyin yapılarının farklılığından kaynaklanıyor olabilir mi? Princeton Üniversitesi'nden Prof. Dr. Joseph Tronton ve Nörobilim laboratuvarı ekibi Amerikan Bilim Vakfı (National Science Foundation) tarafından fonlanan geniş çaplı araştırma projelerinde bu soruya yanıt aradı. Prof. Tronton ve ekibinin bulgularına göre, insan beyinlerini kadın ve erkek şeklinde ayrıştırmak mümkün değil.

Son yıllarda birçok araştırmada bilim insanları kadın ve erkek beyinleri arasındaki farkları anlamak için uğraşıyordu. Daha önceki çalışmalar kadın ve erkek beyinleri arasında hipokampüs, amigdala ve korpus kollosum bölgelerinin boyutları ve korteks kalınlığını incelemiş ve net farklar bulamamıştı.

Prof. Tronton ve ekibinin yürüttüğü geniş çaplı "Beyin Haritası" (Mapping the Brain) projesi ise beynin belirli bölgeleri yerine tamamını kaplayan sinir ağlarını son teknoloji ürünü cihazlarla inceleyerek beyinde cinsiyet farklılıklarını en net şekilde reddeden çalışma oldu. Araştırma ekibi, difüzyon tensör görüntüleme tekniği kullanarak 1000'den fazla kadın ve erkeğin beynindeki sinir bağlantılarını inceledi. Kadın ve erkek beyinlerinde sinir bağlantılarının yoğunluğuyla ilgili net bir fark bulunamadı. Sinir bağlantıları bazı bireylerin beyinlerinde sağ ve sol yarımküreler arasında daha yoğunken, bazı bireylerde ise bağlantılar aynı yarımkürenin ön ve arka bölgeleri arasında yoğunluk gösteriyor. Fakat bu farklılıklar cinsiyet ile örtüşmüyor. Bu da insan beyinlerinin kadın ve erkek beyni olarak kategorize edilemeyeceği anlamına geliyor.

Peki sinir bağlantılarındaki bu cinsiyet benzerliği ne anlama geliyor? Araştırma sonuçlarını yorumlayan Pennsylvania Üniversitesi'nden Prof. Dr. Ragini Verma, "Beyindeki bağlantılar sezgisel düşünce ve motor becerilerin temellerini oluşturur. Bu haritalar, kadın ve erkek beyinleri arasındaki mimari benzerliği kanıtlıyor. Bu da erkeklerin ve kadınların bazı alanlarda birbirlerinden farklı olmalarının nörolojik bir temeli olmadığını gösteriyor," şeklinde konuştu.

Teknolojinin ilerlemesiyle beyin taramaları içeren çalışmaların artması kuvvetle muhtemel. Bu çalışmaların en yeni örneği ise nörolojik cinsiyet benzerliklerine önemli bir ışık tutuyor.

Study 3 The Newspaper Article on Global Warming – For Control Group (Şahin & Soylu Yalçınkaya, 2020)

Haberler | Video | Fotoğraf | Dergi | Spor | Ekonomi | Bilim | Teknoloji | Sağlık

Küresel Isınmayı 1.5 °C'de Tutmak İçin Acilen Harekete Geçilmeli!

1 Şubat 2021 Paylaş

Hükümetlerarası İklim Değişikliği Paneli (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change-IPCC) tarafından hazırlanan bilimsel rapor, küresel ısınmanın 1.5 °C ile sınırlandırılmasının aciliyetini ortaya koydu. 195 ülkenin onayıyla yayımlanan rapor, ülkelerin küresel iklim değişikliğine karşı izleyecekleri yolda ve alacakları kararlarda önemli bir rol oynayacak.

Rapora göre, sıcaklık artışının 2 °C üzerine çıkması doğal yaşamı doğrudan etkileyerek geri dönüşü mümkün olmayan yıkıcı sonuçlara yol açacak. Panelin düzenleme kurulu başkanı Dr. Stephen Cornelius, "Giderek ısınan dünyada yarım derece bile hem insan hem doğa için çok önemli. İklim değişikliğiyle mücadelede en kararlı adımları atmak ve enerji, ulaşım, gıda gibi tüm sektörlerde düşük karbona geçişi hızlandırmaktan başka çaremiz yok. Karbon emisyonlarını çok hızlı bir şekilde düşürmediğimiz sürece, tropikal bölgelerdeki mercan resiflerinden kutuplardaki buzullara kadar bütün ekosistemler çok daha ciddi etkilerle karşı karşıya kalacak" dedi.

Raporu değerlendiren iklim değişikliği uzmanı Dr. Mary Holton: "Panel süresince hükümet temsilcilerinin alınması gereken önlemler konusunda aynı görüşü belirtmeleri ve bilimsel gerçekleri teyit etmelerini olumlu karşılıyoruz. Ancak emisyonların azaltılması konusunda ülkelerin verdiği taahhüt, küresel ısınmadaki artışı 1.5 °C seviyesinde tutmak için yeterli değil" dedi.

Uzmanlar, küresel ısınmayla mücadeleyi ne kadar geciktirirsek iklim değişikliğinin etkilerinin de o kadar büyük olacağını vurguladı. Ayrıca, ileride çok yüksek maliyetli çözümler gerektirecek, daha da kötüsü geri dönüşü mümkün olmayacak tehlikelerin oluşmaması adına tüm ülkelerin acilen harekete geçmesi gerektiğininin altını çizdiler.

Rapor, sıcaklık artışının 2 yerine 1.5 °C altında sınırlandırılması ile iklim değişikliğinin birçok olumsuz etkisinin azaltılabileceğini de ortaya koyuyor. Dünya Doğayı Koruma Vakfı (WWF), küresel ısınmanın 1.5 °C'nin altında tutulabilmesi için, hükümetleri 2020 yılına kadar ulusal iklim taahhütlerini yükseltmeye çağırıyor. Gelecek aylarda düzenlenecek olan Birleşmiş Milletler İklim Değişikliği Çerçeve Sözleşmesi 24. Taraflar Toplantısında (COP24) ülkeler, yenilenmiş taahhütlerini açıklamaya teşvik ediliyor.

B. ADDITIONAL ANALYSES

Table B1

Model Coefficients of a Binary Logistic Regression for Missing Values in Study 1

Predictor	Estimate	95% CI		*SE*	*Z*	*p*	Odds ratio
		LL	*UL*				
Intercept	-1.665	-3.786	0.457	1.082	-1.538	0.124	0.189
Age	-0.030	-0.056	-0.005	0.013	-2.302	0.021	0.970
Education level	0.015	-0.375	0.405	0.199	0.075	0.940	1.015
Income level	0.252	-0.070	0.573	0.164	1.535	0.125	1.286
Conservatism level	0.055	-0.061	0.170	0.059	0.929	0.353	1.056
Left-right orientation	-0.028	-0.137	0.082	0.056	-0.492	0.622	0.973
Gender	0.266	-0.300	0.831	0.289	0.920	0.357	1.304

Note. Estimates represent the log odds of "Missing Indicator = 1" vs. "Missing Indicator = 0."

Table B2

Model Fit Measures of a Binary Logistic Regression for Missing Values in Study 1

Model	Deviance	AIC	R^2_{McF}	Overall model test		
				χ^2	*df*	*p*
1	397.08	411.08	0.02	8.9	6	0.18

Table B3

Normality Test (Shapiro-Wilk) for T-Tests in Study 1

	W	*p*
Hostile Sexism	0.987	0.004
Benevolent Sexism	0.979	< .001
Gender-Specific System Justification	0.975	< .001
Essentialist Gender Views	0.994	0.130
Attitudes Toward Sexist Language	0.988	0.016

Note. A low p-value suggests a violation of the assumption of normality.

Table B4

Homogeneity of Variances Test (Levene's) for T-Tests in Study 1

	F	*df*	*df2*	*p*
Hostile Sexism	1.602	1	334	0.207
Benevolent Sexism	0.134	1	334	0.715
Gender-Specific System Justification	1.044	1	349	0.308
Essentialist Gender Views	0.255	1	361	0.614
Attitudes Toward Sexist Language	1.713	1	302	0.192

Note. A low p-value suggests a violation of the assumption of equal variances.

Table B5

Collinearity Statistics of the Z-Scores When Benevolent Sexism Was Included in the Model for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in Study 1

	VIF	Tolerance
Gender	1.54	0.65
Hostile Sexism	3.07	0.33
Benevolent Sexism	2.35	0.43
Gender-Specific System Justification	1.78	0.56
Essentialist Gender Views	1.66	0.60
Gender ✻ Hostile Sexism	2.37	0.42
Gender ✻ Benevolent Sexism	1.94	0.52
Gender ✻ Gender-Specific System Justification	1.72	0.58
Gender ✻ Essentialist Gender Views	1.97	0.51

Table B6

Model Comparisons When Benevolent Sexism Was Included in the Model for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in Study 1

Comparison							
Model		Model	ΔR^2	*F*	*df1*	*df2*	*p*
1	-	2	0.00426	0.81	4	290	0.52

Table B7

Model Coefficients Comparisons of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language When Benevolent Sexism Was Included in the Model for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in Study 1

	Model 1			Model 2		
	Estimate	*SE*	β	Estimate	*SE*	β
Intercept	-0.008	0.036		-0.026	0.039	
Gender	0.100*	0.040	0.100*	0.076	0.045	0.077
HS	0.401**	0.060	0.406**	0.391**	0.063	0.394**
BS	-0.040	0.053	-0.040	-0.028	0.055	-0.028
GSSJ	0.206**	0.047	0.209**	0.213**	0.048	0.216**
EGV	0.298**	0.046	0.300**	0.295**	0.047	0.296**
G ✻ HS				0.068	0.055	0.068
G ✻ BS				-0.009	0.051	-0.009
G ✻ GSSJ				-0.027	0.046	-0.027
G ✻ EGV				0.029	0.050	0.029

Note. * p = .012, ** p < .001. HS = Hostile Sexism. BS = Benevolent Sexism. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. G = Gender.

Table B8

Durbin–Watson Test for Autocorrelation for Model 2 for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in Study 1

Autocorrelation	*DW*	*p*
-0.0216	2.02	0.802

Table B9

Normality Test (Shapiro-Wilk) for Model 2 for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in Study 1

Statistic	*p*
0.982	< .001

Table B10

Collinearity Statistics of the Z-Scores for Model 2 for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in Study 1

	VIF	Tolerance
Gender	1.53	0.65
Hostile Sexism	1.90	0.53
Gender-Specific System Justification	1.77	0.56
Essentialist Gender Views	1.58	0.63
Gender ✻ Hostile Sexism	1.93	0.52
Gender ✻ Gender-Specific System Justification	1.71	0.58
Gender ✻ Essentialist Gender Views	1.71	0.58

Table B11

Contingency Table of Gender Distribution in the Changing and Stable Groups for Participants Filtered Out During the Manipulation Check in Study 2

		Group		
		Changing	Stable	Total
Women	Observed	22.0	9.0	31.0
	Expected	18.6	12.4	
Men	Observed	5.0	9.0	14.0
	Expected	8.4	5.6	
Total		27.0	18.0	45.0

Table B12

Model Coefficients of a Binary Logistic Regression for Missing Values in Study 2

	Estimate	*SE*	*Z*	*p*	Odds ratio
Intercept	1.02	7.80	0.13	0.90	2.77
Stable–Changing	-18.09	3684.32	-0.01	1.00	1.39e-8
Gender	0.42	1.53	0.27	0.79	1.52
Age	0.00	0.07	0.06	0.95	1.00
Educational level	-1.00	1.35	-0.74	0.46	0.37
Income level	-0.78	0.94	-0.83	0.41	0.46
Conservatism level	0.31	0.40	0.77	0.44	1.36
Left-right orientation	-0.04	0.38	-0.11	0.91	0.96

Note. Estimates represent the log odds of missing indicator = 1 vs. missing indicator = 0.

Table B13

Correlation Coefficients for Stable and Changing Groups in Study 2

			1	2	3	4	5
Stable	1. GSSJ		—				
	2. EGV		.43***	—			
	3. HS		.34***	.44***	—		
	4. ATSL		.50***	.52***	.62***	—	
	5. Gender		.38***	.27***	.48***	.42***	—
		M	2.24	3.29	2.62	2.06	
		SD	.76	.90	1.16	.67	
Changing	1. GSSJ		—				
	2. EGV		.52***	—			
	3. HS		.44***	.57***	—		
	4. ATSL		.53***	.58***	.75***	—	
	5. Gender		.29***	.15	.36***	.31***	—
		M	2.77	3.33	2.91	2.27	
		SD	.83	.92	1.23	.73	

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. HS = Hostile Sexism. ATSL = Attitudes Toward Sexist Language.

Table B14

Preliminary ANOVA Post Hoc Comparisons for Hostile Sexism Between System Stability Experimental Conditions in Study 2

Comparison		Mean difference	*SE*	*t*(298)	$p_{bonferroni}$	Cohen's *d*
Changing	Stable	0.242	0.115	2.110	0.036	0.243

Table B15

Collinearity Statistics for the Moderated Mediation Analysis in Study 2

	VIF	Tolerance
Essentialist Gender Views	1.30	0.77
Gender-Specific System Justification	1.54	0.65
Gender	1.14	0.88
System Stability	1.23	0.89

Table B16

Durbin–Watson Test for Autocorrelation for the Moderated Mediation Analysis in Study 2

Autocorrelation	*DW*	*p*
-0.003	1.99	0.972

Table B17

Normality Test (Shapiro-Wilk) for the Moderated Mediation Analysis in Study 2

Statistic	*p*
0.986	.007

Table B18

Contingency Table of Gender Distribution in the Control, Difference, and Similarity Groups for Participants Filtered Out During the Manipulation Check in Study 3

		Group			
		Difference	Similarity	Control	Total
Women	Observed	4.0	2.0	0.0	6.0
	Expected	3.6	1.2	1.2	
Men	Observed	2.0	0.0	2.0	4.0
	Expected	2.4	0.8	0.8	
Total		6.0	2.0	2.0	10.0

Table B19

Correlation Coefficients of Variables for Difference, Similarity, and Control Groups in Study 3

			1	2	3	4	5
Difference	1. EGV		—				
	2. GSSJ		.489***	—			
	3. HS		.438**	.580***	—		
	4. ATSL		.513***	.449**	.515***	—	
	5. Gender		.319*	.397**	.499***	.353*	—
		M	3.80	2.51	2.85	2.45	
		SD	.83	.82	1.32	.81	
Similarity	1. EGV		—				
	2. GSSJ		.432**	—			
	3. HS		.612***	.541***	—		
	4. ATSL		.628***	.508***	.494***	—	
	5. Gender		.284	.368*	.355*	.247	—
		M	3.25	2.35	2.63	2.32	
		SD	.72	.73	1.12	.70	
Control	1. EGV		—				
	2. GSSJ		.562***	—			
	3. HS		.494**	.625***	—		
	4. ATSL		.634***	.782***	.612***	—	
	5. Gender		.106	.203	.403**	.320*	—
		M	3.54	2.73	2.93	2.47	
		SD	1.04	.91	1.04	.79	

Note. * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$. EGV = Essentialist Gender Views. GSSJ = Gender-Specific System Justification. HS = Hostile Sexism. ATSL = Attitudes Toward Sexist Language.

Table B20

Collinearity Statistics for the Mediation Analysis in Study 3

	VIF	Tolerance
Essentialist Gender Views	1.25	0.80
Gender-Specific System Justification	1.31	0.76
Hostile Sexism	1.29	0.78
Brain Difference Manipulation	1.03	0.97

Table B21

Durbin–Watson Test for Autocorrelation for the Mediation Analysis in Study 3

Autocorrelation	*DW*	*p*
-0.002	2.00	0.982

Table B22

Normality Test (Shapiro-Wilk) for the Mediation Analysis in Study 3

Statistic	*p*
0.993	.783

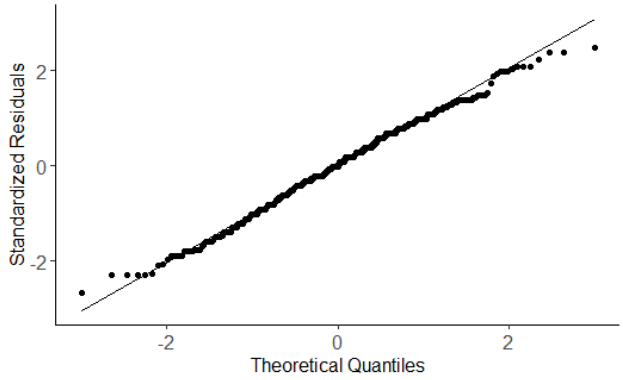

Figure B1

Q-Q Plot of T-Test for Essentialist Gender Views in Study 1

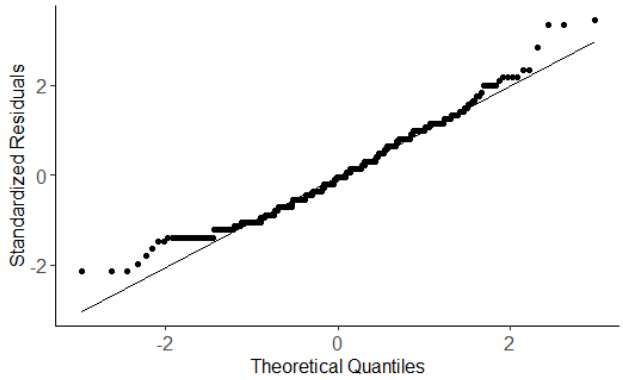

Figure B2

Q-Q Plot of T-Test for Gender-Specific System Justification in Study 1

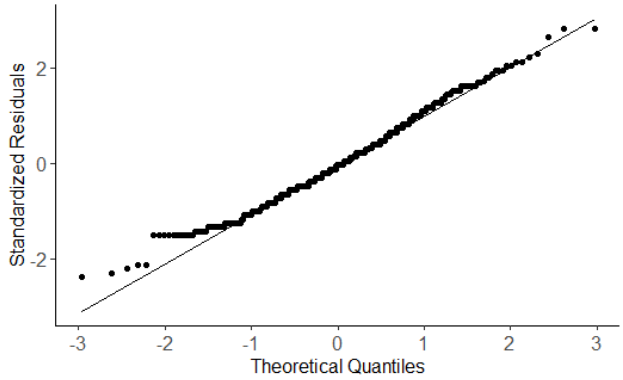

Figure B3

Q-Q Plot of T-Test for Hostile Sexism in Study 1

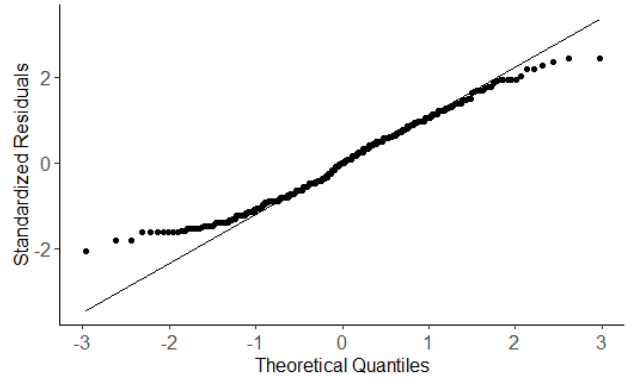

Figure B4

Q-Q Plot of T-Test for Benevolent Sexism in Study 1

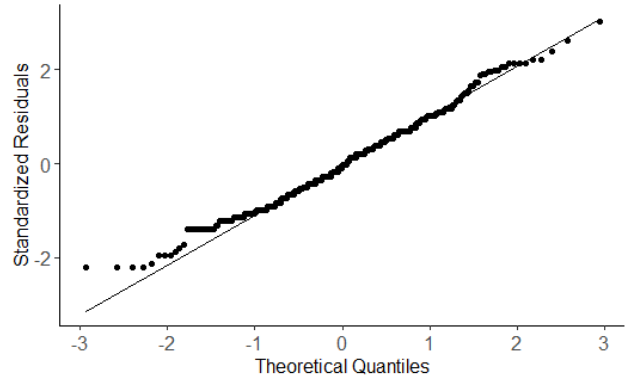

Figure B5

Q-Q Plot of T-Test for Attitudes Toward Sexist Language in Study 1

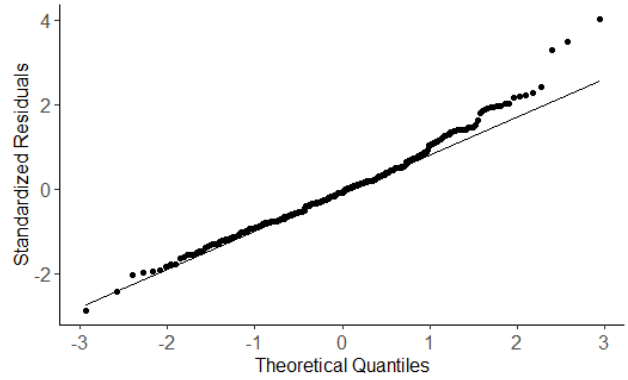

Figure B6

Q-Q Plot of Standardized Residuals for the Hierarchical Multiple Regression Model with Interaction Terms in Study 1

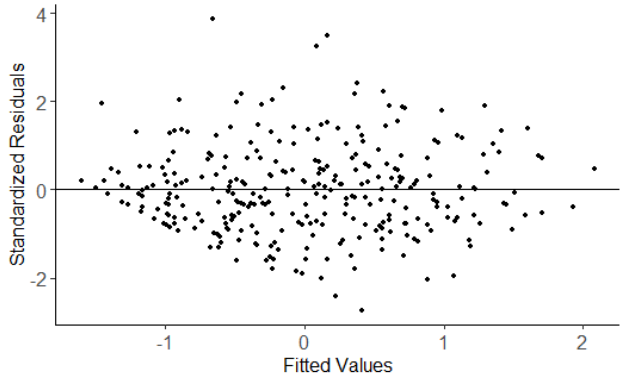

Figure B7

Standardized Residuals vs. Fitted Values for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in Study 1

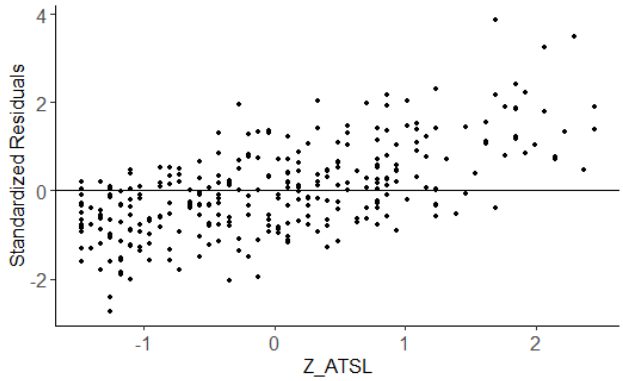

Figure B8

Standardized Residuals vs. Z-Score of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in Study 1

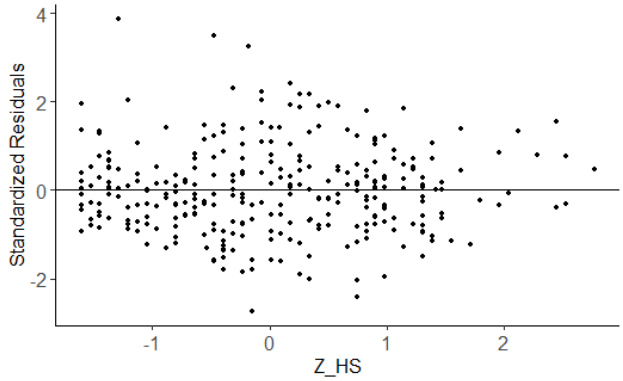

Figure B9

Standardized Residuals vs. Z-Score of Hostile Sexism for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in Study 1

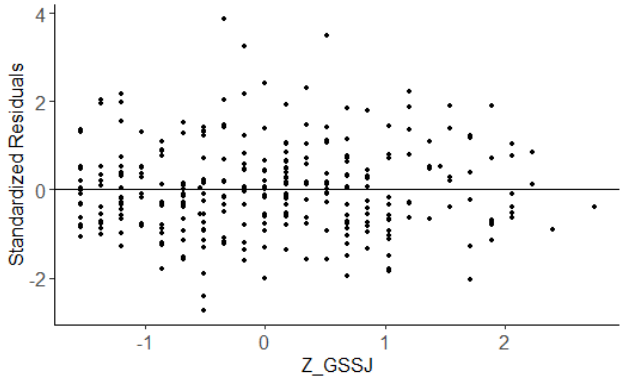

Figure B10

Standardized Residuals vs. Z-Score of Gender-Specific System Justification for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in Study 1

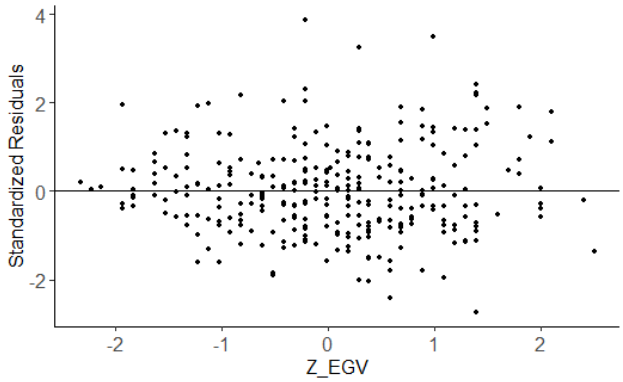

Figure B11

Standardized Residuals vs. Z-Score of Essentialist Gender Views for Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analysis in Study 1

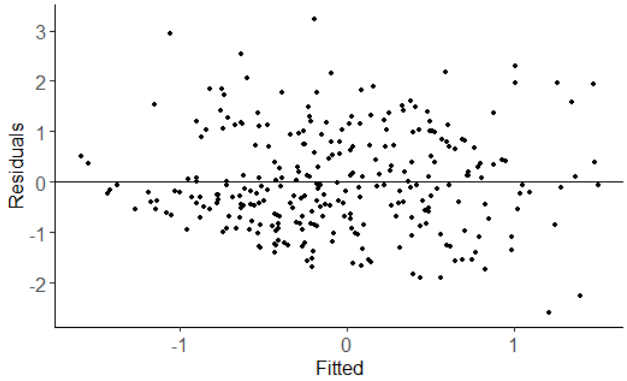

Figure B12

Standardized Residuals vs. Fitted Values for the Moderated Mediation Analysis in Study 2

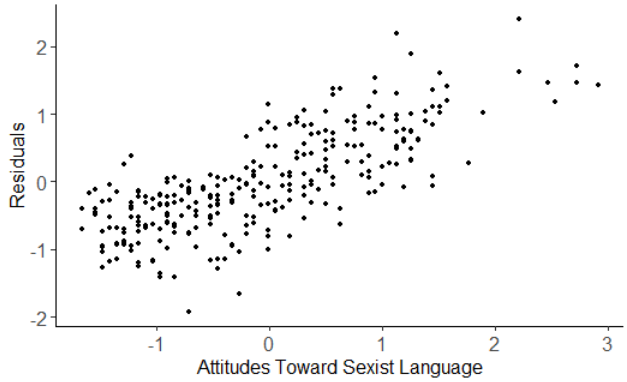

Figure B13

Standardized Residuals vs. Z-Score of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language for the Moderated Mediation Analysis in Study 2

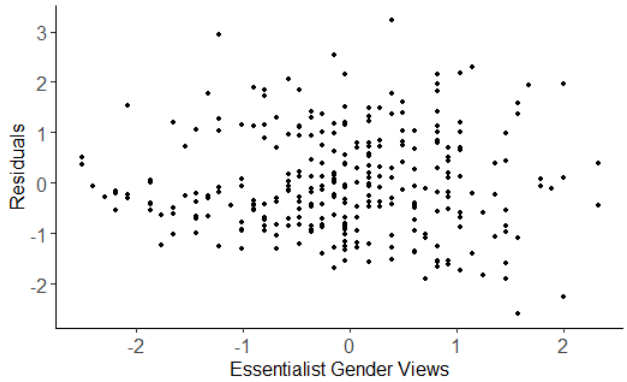

Figure B14

Standardized Residuals vs. Z-Score of Essentialist Gender Views for the Moderated Mediation Analysis in Study 2

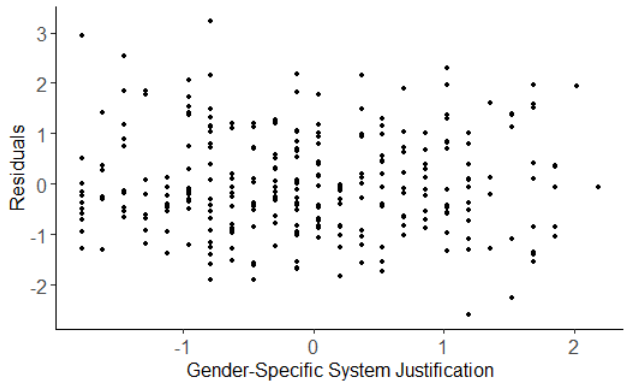

Figure B15

Standardized Residuals vs. Z-Score of Gender-Specific System Justification for the Moderated Mediation Analysis in Study 2

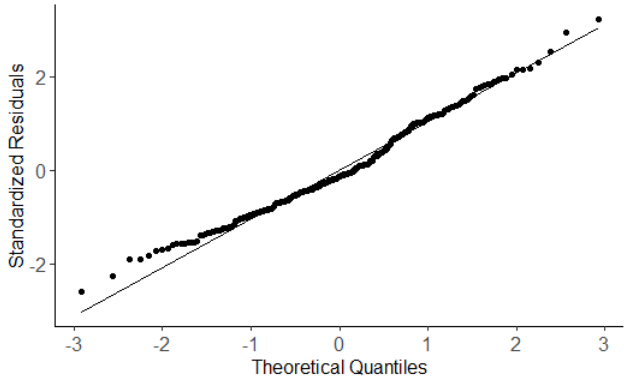

Figure B16

Q-Q Plot of Standardized Residuals for the Moderated Mediation Analysis in Study 2

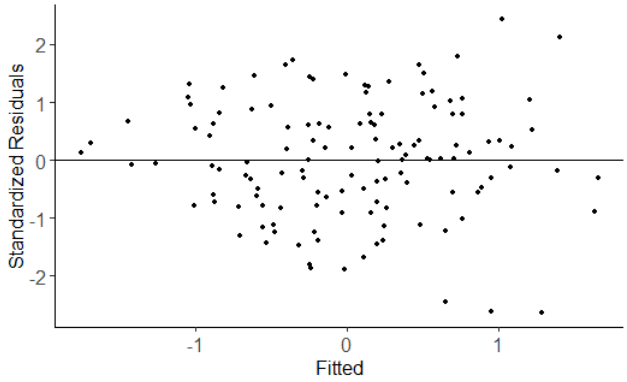

Figure B17

Standardized Residuals vs. Fitted Values for the Mediation Analysis in Study 3

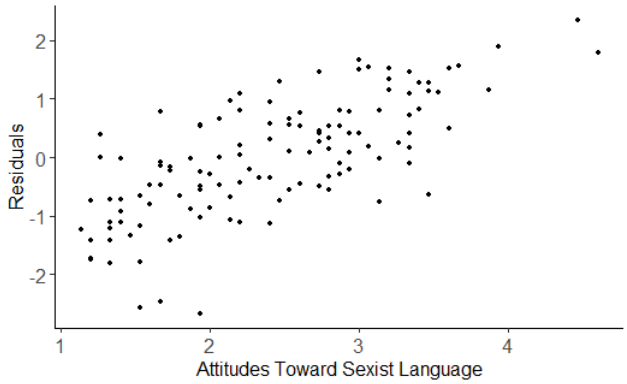

Figure B18

Standardized Residuals vs. Z-Score of Attitudes Toward Sexist Language for the Mediation Analysis in Study 3

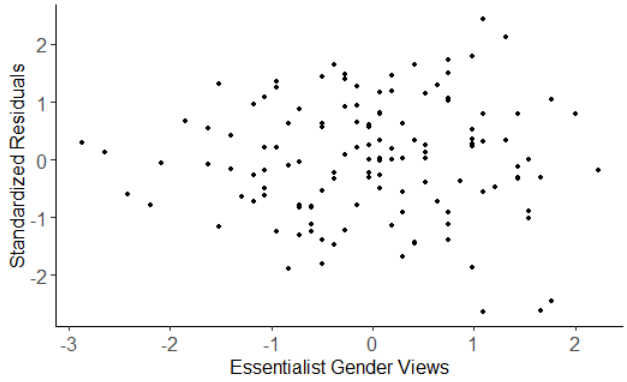

Figure B19

Standardized Residuals vs. Z-Score of Essentialist Gender Views for the Mediation Analysis in Study 3

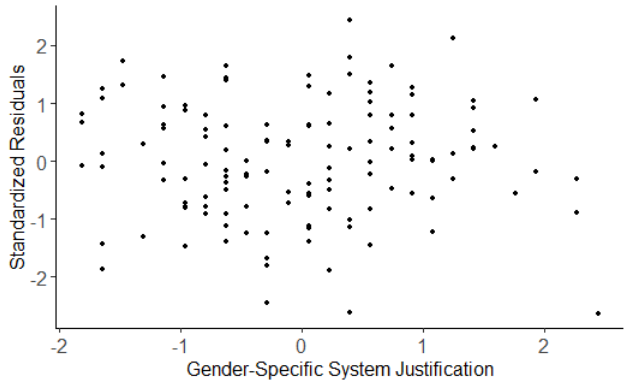

Figure B20

Standardized Residuals vs. Z-Score of Gender-Specific System Justification for the Mediation Analysis in Study 3

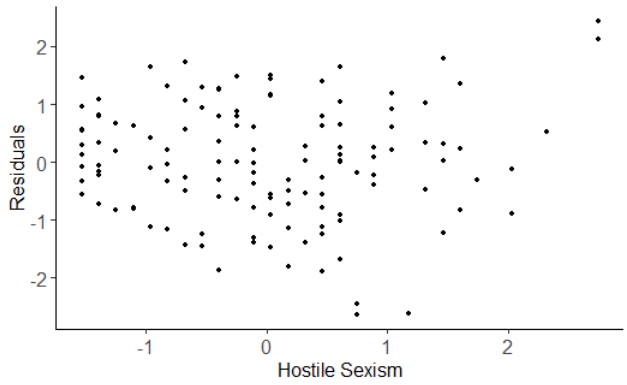

Figure B21

Standardized Residuals vs. Z-Score of Hostile Sexism for the Mediation Analysis in Study 3

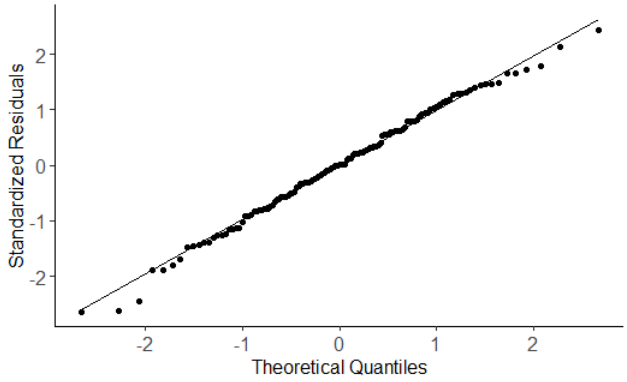

Figure B22

Q-Q Plot of Standardized Residuals for the Mediation Analysis in Study 3

C. APPROVAL OF THE METU HUMAN SUBJECTS ETHICS COMMITTEE

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
APPLIED ETHICS RESEARCH CENTER

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20 Mayıs 2021

Konu : Değerlendirme Sonucu

Gönderen: ODTÜ İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu (İAEK)

İlgi : İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Başvurusu

Sayın Banu Cingöz ULU

Danışmanlığını yürüttüğünüz Merve Timuroğulları'nın "Özcü Cinsiyet Anlayışının Cinsiyetçi Dil Kullanımına Yönelik Tutumlara Etkisi" başlıklı araştırmanız İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve **188-ODTU-2021** protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.

Dr.Öğretim Üyesi Şerife SEVİNÇ
İAEK Başkan Vekili

UYGULAMALI ETİK ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZİ
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Sayın Banu Cingöz ULU

Danışmanlığını yürüttüğünüz Merve Timuroğulları'nın "Özcü Cinsiyet Anlayışının Cinsiyetçi Dil Kullanımına Yönelik Tutumlara Etkisi" başlıklı araştırması İnsan Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu tarafından uygun görülmüş ve **0290-ODTUİAEK-2022** protokol numarası ile onaylanmıştır.

Saygılarımızla bilgilerinize sunarız.

Prof.Dr. Mine MISIRLISOY
İAEK Başkan

D. TURKISH SUMMARY / TÜRKÇE ÖZET

Günlük hayatımızın birçok alanında karşılaştığımız cinsiyet temelli ön yargılar, cinsiyete dayalı ayrımcılık, eşitsizlik veya cinsiyet temelli sistemlerin meşrulaştırılması, kaçınılmaz olarak dile yansımaktadır. Cinsiyetçi dilin kullanımı, 1960'lardan bu yana feministler ve aktivistler tarafından yoğun bir şekilde tartışılmış ve değiştirilmeye çalışılmış olsa da bu sorun sonraki yıllarda sadece feminist çevreyle sınırlı kalmamıştır ve politik doğruculuk gibi hareketlere önayak olmuştur (Mills, 2008). Her ne kadar cinsiyetçi dilin açıkça bir şekilde gösterimi onaylanmayıp eleştirilse de gizli cinsiyetçi tutumların hala yaygın olması ve dilde çeşitli şekillerde gizlenebilmesi sebebiyle dilin reforme edilmesi zorlu bir süreç olmuştur (Doyle, 1998). Bu tutumlar ayrıca, kadınlarla ilgili inançlar, toplumsal cinsiyet rolleri ve biyolojik özcü anlayışlarla da ilişkilidir (Lomotey, 2017; Sarrasin ve ark., 2012; Scott, 1993).

Cinsiyetçi dil konusunda, diller arasında yapısal ve anlamsal farklılıkların bulunduğunu göz önünde bulundurmak önemlidir. Örneğin, İngilizce, Türkçe gibi dil bilgisi açısından cinsiyetsiz olan dillerin aksine, yapısal cinsiyet yanlılığı göstermektedir (Mills, 2008; Umera-Okeke, 2012). Belirli dillerde yapısal cinsiyet eğilimi olmamasına rağmen, anlam bilimi perspektifinden incelendiğinde, dilde cinsiyetçilik hala gözlemlenebilir, bu da yapısal yönlerin ötesinde araştırma yapmanın gerekliliğini vurgulamaktadır.

Toplumun inanç ve görüşlerini ifade eden ve aynı zamanda şekillendiren bir araç olarak dil, toplumsallaşma süreçlerini etkilemekte ve yansıtmaktadır. Bu, dilde bulunan fakat hemen göze çarpmayan cinsiyetçiliğin belirtilerini ve öncülerini incelemenin son derece önemli olduğunu göstermektedir. Fakat, dil ve cinsiyet arasındaki ilişkiyi cinsiyetsiz diller bağlamında yeteri kadar inceleyen çalışma yoktur (Lomotey, 2017). Bu sebeple, Türkçenin cinsiyetsiz dil bilgisi bileşenlerine sahip bir dil olması göz önüne alındığında, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumların Türkçe bağlamında incelenmesi literatüre özgün bir katkı sunmaktadır.

Bu bağlamda, cinsiyetçi dil kullanımına yönelik tutumların ve bunların altında yatan yapıların arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemek önem kazanır. Erkekler ve kadınlar arasında temel bir fark olduğu ve onlar için yapılan atıfların değişmez olduğu varsayımları, özcü cinsiyet anlayışının temelini oluşturur (Dar-Nimrod & Heine, 2011; Haslam & Whelan, 2008; Prentice & Miller, 2007). Öte yandan, toplumsal cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırma, cinsiyetle ilgili sistemleri sürdüren ve rasyonelleştiren belirli bir sistem meşrulaştırma inancı biçimidir (Jost & Kay, 2005). Bu iki kavram da cinsiyetçi dil konusundaki tutumları etkileyerek ve öngörerek, cinsiyetçiliği gizlice devam ettirme kapasitesine sahiptir.

Bu tez, Türkiye bağlamında, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları üç çalışma ile incelemiştir. Çalışma 1, cinsiyeti ve cinsiyetçiliği kontrol ederek, özcü cinsiyet anlayışının ve cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmanın cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları nasıl tahmin ettiğini araştırmıştır. Çalışma 2, cinsiyet sistemindeki sabitlik algısının, cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırma aracılığı ile, bu tutumları nasıl etkilediğini incelemiştir. Son olarak Çalışma 3 ise kadın ve erkek beyin yapılarının benzerliği ya da farklılığı hakkında bilimsel bilgilere maruz kalmanın, özcü cinsiyet anlayışı aracılığı ile, bu tutumlar üzerindeki etkisini tahkik etmiştir. Amaç, Türkiye bağlamında bu değişkenler arasındaki ilişkilerin anlaşılmasını artırmak ve cinsiyet ayrımına dayalı kavramlar ve dil arasındaki bağlantının altını çizerek literatüre katkıda bulunmaktır.

Cinsiyetçi Dil Kavramı ve Buna Yönelik Tutumlar

Dil, cinsiyet dahil olmak üzere toplumsal görüşleri yansıtmakta ve etkilemektedir. Cinsiyetçi dil, dolaylı bir cinsiyetçilik biçimi olmasına rağmen yaygın olarak başvurulan bir türdür (Mills, 2008) ve cinsiyetleri ayıran ya da küçümseyen ifadeler olarak tanımlanır (Parks & Roberton, 1998, 2000). Sıkça zararsız olarak görülen ve kültürel değerleri yansıttığı düşünülen bu tür bir dilin, basmakalıp rollerin pekiştirilmesinde ve cinsiyetlerin ötekileştirilmesinde payı olabilir.

Cinsiyetçi dil yalnızca dilbilimsel bir mesele değildir; dolaylı cinsiyetçilikle ilişkilidir ve araştırmalar, bu tür bir dilin kadınlara yönelik tutumlarla ilişkili olduğunu göstermektedir (Parks & Roberton, 2005; Sarrasin ve ark., 2012; Scott, 1993). Açıkça

ifade edilen cinsiyetçilik azalmış olsa da batı kültürlerinde örtük cinsiyetçilik hala devam etmektedir (Scott, 1993; Talosa, 2018). Cinsiyet ve dil üzerine artan literatüre rağmen, yapısal cinsiyetsiz diller yeterince araştırılmamıştır (Lomotey, 2017). Bu nedenle, bu çalışma, Türk dilbilimsel bağlamında cinsiyetçi dil ve öncüllerini araştırarak bu boşluğu doldurmayı amaçlamaktadır.

Türkçe Bağlamında Dil ve Cinsiyet

Türkçe, yapısal açıdan cinsiyetsiz bir dil olmasıyla (Arpinar-Avsar ve ark., 2016; Saraç, 2016; Vasvári, 2011), teorik olarak, kasıtsızca yapılan cinsiyetçiliğe imkan sağlamaz. Fakat, cinsiyetle ilgili kelimeler ve ifadeler de dahil olmak üzere geleneksel Türkçe kullanımı ile cinsiyetçilik dilde tezahür edebilir (Saraç, 2016; Vasvári, 2011). Bazı araştırmalar, Türk atasözleri, deyimler ve ders kitaplarındaki cinsiyet ayrımcılığını incelemiş olsa da (Agcihan & Gokce, 2018; Çer & Şahin, 2016) Türkçe bağlamında cinsiyetçi dil kullanımına yönelik tutumlar ile sosyal psikolojik değişkenler arasındaki ilişkiyi araştıran hiçbir çalışma bulunmamaktadır.

Cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumların, mevcut cinsiyet hiyerarşisini sürdürmeye ve rasyonelleştirmeye yönelik ideolojilerle ilişkili olabileceği göz önüne alındığında (Douglas & Sutton, 2014), bu tez cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar, özcü cinsiyet anlayışı ve cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırma arasındaki ilişkiye ışık tutmayı amaçlamaktadır. Cinsiyet ve cinsiyetçilik değişkenleri, özcü cinsiyet anlayışının ve cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmanın etkisini etkili bir şekilde ölçmek için kontrol değişkenleri olarak çalışmaya dahil edilmiştir.

Özcü Cinsiyet Anlayışı

Doğa mı yoksa yetiştirilme mi tartışması psikolojide merkezi bir yer kaplar, hem biyolojinin hem de çevrenin insan davranışları üzerinde etkili olduğuna dair genel bir görüş birliği vardır (Coleman & Hong, 2008; Martin & Parker, 1995). Kategorilerin doğasında var olan bir özün olduğu inancını benimseyen *psikolojik özcülük* (Medin & Ortony, 1989), bu tartışmayı cinsiyet, ırk ve cinsel yönelim gibi konular bağlamında da genişletmektedir (Haslam ve ark., 2000). Özcülüğün, ön yargı ve kalıp yargılar üzerinde de etkileri vardır (Bastian & Haslam, 2006; Haslam, 1998; Prentice & Miller, 2007; Williams & Eberhardt, 2008).

Özcü cinsiyet anlayışı, erkeklerin ve kadınların değişmez bir şekilde temelde farklı olduğunu ileri sürmektedir. (Dar-Nimrod & Heine, 2011; Haslam & Whelan, 2008; Prentice & Miller, 2007). Özcü anlayışlar, sabit kişilik özelliklerini öne süren varlık teorileriyle uyumlu haldedir (Bastian & Haslam, 2007) ve cinsiyetle ilgili atıfları ve cinsiyetçi davranışları etkilemektedir (Coleman & Hong, 2008; Keller, 2005; Skewes ve ark., 2018). Özcü cinsiyet anlayışı seviyesi ise cinsiyete göre değişiklik göstermektedir, bu anlayış genellikle erkekler arasında daha fazla benimsenmektedir (Keller, 2005; Mahalingam, 2003a, 2003b; Smiler & Gelman, 2008).

Ancak, özcü cinsiyet anlayışı ile cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar arasındaki ilişkiyi araştıran çalışmalar azdır. Bu ilişki daha fazla araştırılmayı gerektirmektedir, çünkü özcü cinsiyet anlayışı dile yansıyarak, dilde cinsiyetçiliği pekiştirebilir ve insanları, cinsiyet farklılıklarının çok derin ve değişmez olduğuna inandırabilir (Leaper & Bigler, 2004). Özcülük ve cinsiyet ile ilgili görüşler arasındaki etkileşime daha yakından bakmak, cinsiyetçi dilin altyapısını ve cinsiyet eşitsizliğinin dile yansıma şeklini daha iyi anlamamıza yardımcı olabilir.

Özcü cinsiyet anlayışı deneysel olarak manipüle edilmektedir ve bu durumun kalıp yargılama, kendine yönelik kalıp yargılama, ön yargı, hakların desteklenmesi, sistemi haklı çıkarma, ayrımcılığın tanınması ve cinsiyetçilik gibi konuların üzerinde etkileri bulunmuştur (Brescoll & LaFrance, 2004; Brescoll ve ark., 2013; Ching & Xu, 2018; Christy ve ark., 2019; Coleman & Hong, 2008; Klysing, 2019; Morton ve ark., 2009; Şahin & Soylu Yalcinkaya, 2020; Wilton ve ark., 2019). Bu tür manipülasyonlar genellikle katılımcılara farklı derecelerde özcü açıklamalar içeren bilimsel görünümlü metinler sunmayı içermektedir (Brescoll & LaFrance, 2004; Christy ve ark., 2019; Coleman & Hong, 2008; Klysing, 2019). Bu maruz kalmanın etkisi, odak noktasına bağlı olarak değişmektedir.

Cinsiyete Özgü Sistemi Meşrulaştırma

Jost ve Banaji (1994) tarafından önerilen sistemi meşrulaştırma teorisi, bireylerin mevcut sosyal düzenlemeleri nasıl onaylayıp sürdürdüğünü açıklamaktadır. Bu teori, kişilerin genellikle sosyal, ekonomik ve politik düzenlemeleri kabul edip meşrulaştırdığını ve bu durumun dezavantajlı bireylerin kendileri hakkında olumsuz

kalıp yargıları benimsemesine bile yol açtığını önermektedir (Jost & Banaji, 1994). Jost ve arkadaşları (2004), bu meşrulaştırmanın altında yatan ideolojik motivasyon ile bu motivasyonun dezavantajlı gruplar arasında belirgin olan dış grup lehine tutum ve iç grup aleyhtarlığı üzerindeki rolünü vurgulamaktadır.

Literatür, cinsiyet ve sistemi meşrulaştırma arasındaki ilişkide cinsiyet farklılıkları olduğunu göstermektedir. Örneğin, Jost ve Kay (2005), erkekleri eylemci ve kadınları komünal olarak tasvir eden tamamlayıcı kalıp yargıların, kadınlar arasında mevcut sisteme olan desteği güçlendirdiğini ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, Dirilen-Gumus (2011), erkeklerin sistemi meşrulaştırmaya daha eğilimli olduğunu, ancak bu cinsiyet farklılıklarının politik ideoloji aracılığıyla sağlandığını keşfetmiştir. Glick ve Fiske (1996), kadınların cinsiyetçi düşünceleri benimsemelerinin, toplumdaki mevcut cinsiyet sisteminin sürdürülmesi için bir gerekçe sağladığını öne sürmüştür.

Bu bağlamda, sistem meşrulaştırmasına cinsiyete özgü bir perspektiften bakıldığında, bu durum mevcut cinsiyet sisteminin meşrulaştırılmasını ve onaylanmasını ifade etmektedir. Bu uğurda, özellikle cinsiyet bağlamında sistemi meşrulaştırma ile cinsiyetçi dil kullanımına yönelik tutumlar arasındaki bağlantıyı araştırmak başka bir önemli araştırma alanını oluşturmaktadır. Kalıp yargılar, mesellerdeki cinsiyetçi söylemler, mecazi ve deyimsel ifadeler, mevcut sistemi ve cinsiyet hiyerarşilerini olması gerektiği gibi görünür kılarak, mevcut düzeni meşrulaştırma potansiyeline sahip olabilir (Lomotey, 2017). Sistemi meşrulaştırmayı inceleyen deneysel çalışmalar, statükoyu destekleyen inançların nasıl geliştirildiğini ve sürdürüldüğünü daha iyi anlamamıza yardımcı olabilir.

Özcü Cinsiyet Anlayışı, Cinsiyete Özgü Sistemi Meşrulaştırma ve Cinsiyetçi Dile Yönelik Tutumlar Arasındaki Etkileşim

Özcü cinsiyet anlayışı, toplumsal eşitsizlikleri sürdürebilmekte ve bireylerin cinsiyet hiyerarşilerini haklı çıkarmaları ve sürdürmeleri için bir gerekçe oluşturabilmektedir (Brescoll & LaFrance, 2004; Haslam ve ark., 2002; Li ve ark., 2020; Martin & Parker, 1995; Morton ve ark., 2009; Rangel & Keller, 2011; Saguy ve ark., 2021; Skewes ve ark., 2018; Swigger & Meyer, 2019; Łyś ve ark., 2021, 2022). Statüko tehdit altında olduğunda, daha yüksek statüdeki bireyler, bu görüşleri bir savunma mekanizması

olarak stratejik bir şekilde ortaya çıkarabilirler (Kray ve ark., 2017; Morton ve ark., 2009).

Fakat tam tersi olarak, sistemi meşrulaştırma, özcü anlayışlara yol da açabilir (Coleman & Hong, 2007). Toplumsal yapıları meşrulaştırma ihtiyacı, insanları bu yapıları değişmez olarak betimleyen özcü açıklamalara yönlendirebilir (Brescoll ve ark., 2013; Łyś ve ark., 2021). Ancak, sistemi meşrulaştırma ve özcü anlayışlar arasındaki nedensellik henüz belirsizdir ve bu alanda daha fazla araştırmaya ihtiyaç vardır (Łyś ve ark., 2021).

Bu yapılar ve cinsiyetçi dil kullanımına yönelik tutumlar arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmak, yeni araştırmalar için değerli bir yol olabilir. Özcü cinsiyet anlayışı ve sistemi meşrulaştırma, dile tezahür edebilir ve geleneksel cinsiyet rollerini ve kalıp yargıları pekiştirebilir. Bu değişkenler arasındaki etkileşimi ve onların cinsiyetçi dil kullanımı üzerindeki etkilerini tamamen anlamak için daha fazla araştırmaya ihtiyaç vardır.

Çalışmaların Amaçları

Bu tez, özcü cinsiyet anlayışı, cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırma ve cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar arasındaki etkileşimi araştırmaktadır. Çalışma 1, cinsiyet ve cinsiyetçilik faktörlerinin etkisi dışında, özcü cinsiyet anlayışının ve cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmanın cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları nasıl öngördüğünü incelemektedir. Çalışma 2, cinsiyet sisteminin sabitlik algısını deneysel olarak manipüle etmiştir ve bunun, cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırma yoluyla cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlara nasıl etki ettiğini araştırmıştır. Çalışma 3, kadınların ve erkeklerin beyin yapılarının farklılıklarına ya da benzerliklerine dair bilimsel açıklamalara maruz kalmanın özcü cinsiyet anlayışı aracılığıyla cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlara olan dolaylı etkisini tahkik etmiştir.

Çalışma 1

Çalışma 1, cinsiyetçi dil kullanımına yönelik tutumları etkileyen faktörleri araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır; bunlar arasında cinsiyet, düşmanca cinsiyetçilik, korumacı cinsiyetçilik, cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırma ve özcü cinsiyet anlayışı bulunmaktadır. Temel olarak öngörülmemiş olsa da, bu kavramlar doğrudan cinsiyetle

ilgili olduğu için, tüm değişkenlerde cinsiyet farklılıklarının olup olmadığını keşfetmeye yönelik bir yaklaşım benimsenmiştir. Özcü cinsiyet anlayışının ve cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmanın, cinsiyet ve cinsiyetçilik tarafından tahmin edilenden daha fazla bir şekilde cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları yordayacağı öngörülmektedir. Bu değişkenlerde daha yüksek puan alan bireylerin, cinsiyetin ve cinsiyetçilik biçimlerinin etkilerini kontrol ettikten sonra bile cinsiyetçi dile yönelik daha olumlu tutumlar sergileyeceği varsayılmaktadır.

Yöntem

Toplamda 415 kişi çalışmaya katılmıştır (N = 394, $M_{\text{yaş}}$ = 29.8, S = 11.4). Katılımcılar arasında 296 kadın, 94 erkek ve 4 diğer birey bulunmaktadır. Diğer katılımcıların azlığı sebebiyle, cinsiyet ikili olarak ele alınmıştır. Demografik Bilgi Formu, Toplumsal Cinsiyet Teorisi Ölçeği (Coleman & Hong, 2008; Antmen, 2020), Toplumsal Cinsiyetle İlgili Sistemi Meşrulaştırma Ölçeği (Jost & Kay, 2005; Işık, 2008), Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Sakallı, 2002) ve Cinsiyetçi Dile Yönelik Tutumlar Envanteri (Parks & Roberton, 2000) katılımcılara sunulmuştur (bk. Ek A).

Toplumsal Cinsiyet Teorisi Ölçeği, özcü cinsiyet anlayışını benimseme düzeyini ölçmüştür (Cronbach's α = .86, McDonald's ω = .90). Toplumsal Cinsiyetle İlgili Sistemi Meşrulaştırma Ölçeği, cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırma düzeyini ölçmek için kullanılmıştır (Cronbach's α = .75, McDonald's ω = .84). Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği, düşmanca cinsiyetçiliği (Cronbach's α = .93, McDonald's ω = .94) ve korumacı cinsiyetçiliği değerlendirmiştir (Cronbach's α = .90, McDonald's ω = .93). Son olarak, Cinsiyetçi Dile Yönelik Tutumlar Envanterinin bu çalışma için uyarlanmış versiyonu, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik düşünceleri, farkındalığı ve kullanımı tek bir boyutta ölçmüştür (Cronbach's α = .92, McDonald's ω = .93). Çevrim içi anket, sosyal medyada paylaşılmıştır.

Bulgular

Toplumsal Cinsiyet Teorisi Ölçeği ve Cinsiyetçi Dile Yönelik Tutumlar Envanteri için temel bileşen analizleri yapılmıştır. Sonuçlar, her iki ölçeğin de tek bir alt yapıyı ölçerek daha iyi anlaşılabileceğini göstermiştir (bk. Tablo 1.6 ve Tablo 1.7). Pearson

korelasyon analizi, cinsiyet, özcü cinsiyet anlayışı, cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırma, düşmanca cinsiyetçilik, korumacı cinsiyetçilik ve cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar arasında anlamlı pozitif ilişkiler göstermiştir (bk. Tablo 1.8).

T-testler, tüm değişkenlerde cinsiyet farklılıklarını ortaya çıkarmıştır (bk. Tablo 1.9). Erkekler, daha özcü cinsiyet anlayışına sahip bulunmuştur ((*t*(361) = -3.73, *p* < .001, Cohen's *d* = -.46) ve kadınlardan daha yüksek düzeyde cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırma (*t*(349) = -5.98, *p* < .001, Cohen's *d* = -.75), düşmanca cinsiyetçilik (*t*(334) = -7.46, *p* < .001, Cohen's *d* = -.96) ve korumacı cinsiyetçilik (*t*(334) = -3.41, *p* < .001, Cohen's *d* = -.44) göstermişlerdir. Ayrıca, erkekler cinsiyetçi dile karşı daha olumlu tutumlar sergilemişlerdir (*t*(302) = -6.00, *p* < .001, Cohen's *d* = -.81). Bu bulgular, cinsiyetin, cinsiyetçilik ve cinsiyete özgü konulara karşı tutumları önemli ölçüde etkilediğini göstermektedir.

Cinsiyeti ve cinsiyetçilik biçimlerini kontrol ederken, özcü cinsiyet anlayışının ve cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmanın cinsiyetçi dil kullanımına yönelik tutumları ne ölçüde tahmin ettiğini incelemek için hiyerarşik çoklu regresyon analizi yapılmıştır. Korumacı cinsiyetçilik, temel olarak çoklu bağlantı sorunları nedeniyle modelden çıkarılmıştır. Cinsiyet ve diğer belirleyiciler arasındaki etkileşimler modele anlamlı bir katkıda bulunmamıştır (ΔR^2 = .005, $F(3, 292) = 1.17$, p = .32), ancak bireysel belirleyiciler anlamlı olarak çıkmıştır (bk. Tablo 1.14). Düşmanca cinsiyetçilikte daha yüksek düzeyler, daha büyük derecede sistemi meşrulaştırma ve daha güçlü özcü cinsiyet anlayışı, cinsiyetçi dile karşı daha olumlu tutumlarla ilişkili bulunmuştur.

Tartışma

Çalışma 1'deki bulgular, düşmanca cinsiyetçilik de dahil olmak üzere, cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmanın ve özcü cinsiyet anlayışının, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları öngörmede önemli bir rol oynadığını desteklemektedir. Önceki araştırmaları doğrulayan, değişkenler arasındaki anlamlı ikili ilişkiler, bu tür tutumların izole olmadığını ve cinsiyetle ilgili görüşlerin merkezinde olduğunu doğrulamaktadır (örn., Keller, 2005; Lomotey, 2017; Sarrasin ve ark., 2012; Scott, 1993; Skewes ve ark., 2018). Erkekler, cinsiyete ilişkin bu görüşlerde daha yüksek skorlar elde etmiş ve cinsiyetçi dile karşı daha olumlu tutumlar göstermiştir. Sonuçlar literatür ile tutarlıdır

(örn., Keller, 2005; Mahalingam, 2003a, 2003b; Parks & Roberton, 2005; Smiler & Gelman, 2008). Çalışmanın hipotezi doğrulanmıştır, çünkü özcü cinsiyet anlayışının ve cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmanın, cinsiyetin ve cinsiyetçiliğin katkılarının ötesinde, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları tahmin etmede özgün bir katkı sağladığı ortaya konmuştur. Korumacı cinsiyetçilik, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlarla ilişkili olmasına rağmen, bu tutumları yordamada özgün bir katkıda bulunmamıştır, bu da potansiyel dolaylı etkileri işaret etmektedir. Bu çalışma, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumların sadece cinsiyetle ilgili olmadığını, aynı zamanda cinsiyetle ilişkili görüşlerin birleşimine de bağlı olduğunu vurgulamaktadır.

Çalışma 2

Çalışma 2, algılanan cinsiyet sistemi değişikliliğinin, cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmaya ve cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlara etkisini incelemiştir. Kullanılan deneysel manipülasyonda, katılımcılar cinsiyet sistemini sabit ya da değişen olarak tasvir eden makalelere maruz bırakılmıştır. Hipotez 1, bu manipülasyonun cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırmada önemli bir etkisi olacağını öngörmüştür; sistemin değişmekte olduğu algıya maruz kalan katılımcıların, mevcut cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi daha fazla meşrulaştıracağını beklemiştir. Hipotez 2, cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırmanın cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları anlamlı bir şekilde yordayacağını iddia etmiştir. Hipotez 3, sistem istikrarını manipülasyonunun, cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırma üzerindeki etkisi aracılığıyla, dolaylı olarak cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları etkileyeceğini öne sürmüştür. Son olarak, Hipotez 4, toplumsal cinsiyetin, sistemin sabitliği ve cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırma arasındaki ilişkiyi düzenleyeceğini iddia etmiştir. Spesifik olarak, değişen cinsiyet sistemi durumunun, cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırma düzeyi üzerinde, erkekler arasında daha büyük bir etkisi olması ve sonuç olarak cinsiyetçi dil konusundaki tutumlara etki etmesi beklenmektedir.

Yöntem

Çalışma 2, rastgele olarak sabit (N = 166) veya değişen (N = 154) cinsiyet sistemi algısı grubuna atanmış 320 katılımcıdan oluşmuştur. Dağılım, 200 kadın, 92 erkek ve üç kişinin diğer olarak tanımlanması şeklinde olmuştur, cinsiyet bu sebeple kadın ve

erkek olarak ele alınmıştır ($M_{yaş}$ = 30.20, S = 8.63). Çalışma, gerçek araştırma amacı gizlenerek Qualtrics üzerinden gerçekleştirilmiştir. Kendilerine rastgele atanan ve cinsiyet sistemini sabit ya da değişen olarak tasvir eden bir gazete yazısını okuduktan sonra, katılımcılar, Çalışma 1'deki ölçekleri doldurmuşlardır (metinler için Ek A'ya bakınız). Çalışma 1'den farklı olarak, sadece Düşmanca Cinsiyetçilik Envanteri, kısaltılmış versiyonu ile kullanılmıştır (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Rollero ve ark., 2014; Sakallı, 2002).

Katılımcılara, Toplumsal Cinsiyet Teorisi Ölçeği (Cronbach's α = .82, McDonald's ω = .88), Toplumsal Cinsiyetle İlgili Sistemi Meşrulaştırma Ölçeği (Cronbach's α = .76, McDonald's ω = .83), Kısaltılmış Düşmanca Cinsiyetçilik Envanteri (Cronbach's α = .90, McDonald's ω = .92) ve Cinsiyetçi Dile Yönelik Tutumlar Envanteri (Cronbach's α = .90, McDonald's ω = .92) sunulmuştur.

Manipülasyon kontrolü ve bilgilendirme öncesi soruları, çalışmanın geçerliliğini ve algılanan amacını değerlendirmiştir. Detaylı katılım sonrası bilgilendirme formu, çalışmanın gerçek amacını ve makalelerin tümüyle gerçeği yansıtmadığını açıklamıştır.

Bulgular

Tüm örneklem, sabit ve değişen grup bazında yapılan korelasyon analizleri, tüm değişkenler arasında zayıf ila orta düzeyde değişen kuvvetli ilişkiler olduğunu göstermiştir. Sabit gruptaki korelasyonlar, değişen gruba kıyasla nispeten daha zayıf çıkmıştır (bk. Tablo 2.8). Bulgular, değişkenler arasındaki ilişkilerin deneysel manipülasyon ve bağlamsal faktörlerden etkilenebileceğini önermektedir.

Düzenlenmiş aracılık modeli test edildiğinde, sistem sabitliği manipülasyonu ve cinsiyet arasında anlamlı bir etkileşim bulunamamıştır (b = -.12, SE = .22, p = .60). Bu, toplumsal cinsiyetin, sistem sabitliği manipülasyonunun cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırma üzerindeki etkisinde arabulucu bir rolü olmadığını göstermiştir ve Hipotez 4'ü desteklememiştir. Bu doğrultuda, model, cinsiyet değişkeni çıkarılarak sadeleştirilmiştir. Aracılık modelinde cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırma bağımlı değişken olarak alındığında, model anlamlı çıkmıştır (F(2, 240) = 51.36, p < .001). Sistem sabitliği manipülasyonu cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırmada anlamlı bir

etkiye sahip bulunmuştur (b = .52, SE = .11, p < .001), değişen gruptakilerin sistemi daha çok meşrulaştırdığı görülmüştür. Özcü cinsiyet anlayışı, cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırmayı anlamlı bir şekilde tahmin etmiştir (b = .46, SE = .05, p < .001).

Cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar bağımlı değişken olduğunda, model anlamlıdır, F(3, 239) = 46.09, p < .001. Cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırma bu tutumları anlamlı bir şekilde yordamıştır (b = .33, SE = .06, p < .001). Özcü cinsiyet anlayışı da cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları anlamlı bir şekilde tahmin etmiştir (b = .36, SE = .06, p < .001).

Sistem sabitliğinin cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar üzerindeki dolaylı etkisi incelendiğinde, sistem sabitliği manipülasyonunun bu tutumlara dolaylı etkileri anlamlı bulunmuştur b = .17, bootstrap SE = .05, bootstrap 95% CI [.08, .28]). Bulgular, cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırmanın, sistem sabitliği ile cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar arasındaki ilişkide aracı bir rol oynadığını göstermektedir. Değişen gruptakiler, daha yüksek cinsiyetle ilgili sistem meşrulaştırma seviyeleri sergilemiştir ve bu durum, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik daha olumlu tutumlar ile bağlantılı bulunmuştur (bk. Figür 2.1).

Tartışma

Çalışma 2, algılanan cinsiyet sistemini manipüle ederek, cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmayı ve cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları incelemiştir ve literatürde öne sürüldüğü gibi, değişkenlerin birbiriyle bağlantılı olduklarına dair kanıt sunmaktadır (örn., Keller, 2005; Lomotey, 2017; Mahalingam, 2003b; Parks & Roberton, 2005; Skewes ve ark., 2018; Smiler & Gelman, 2008). Bulgular, Hipotez 1, 2 ve 3'ü doğrulamıştır. Değişen gruptaki katılımcıların cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi daha fazla meşrulaştırdığı literatür ile tutarlıdır (örn., Brescol ve ark., 2013; Morton ve ark., 2009). Bu durumun cinsiyetçi dile yönelik daha olumlu tutumlarla bağlantılı olduğu görülmüştür. Ancak cinsiyetin, sistem sabitliği ve cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırma arasındaki ilişkiyi düzenlemediği gözlemlenmiştir. Bu çalışma, sistem sabitliği manipülasyonunun, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları, cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırma üzerinden nasıl etkileyebileceği konusunda nedensel bir anlayış sağlamaktadır. Özcü cinsiyet anlayışının ve cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmanın, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları yordamada anlamlı etkileri olduğu görülmüştür, bu da

literatür ile tutarlıdır (örn., Douglas & Sutton, 2014; Leaper & Bigler, 2004; Lomotey, 2017).

Çalışma 3

Çalışma 3, beyin yapılarındaki cinsiyet benzerliklerine ya da farklılıklarına dair bilimsel bulgulara maruz kalmanın, özcü cinsiyet anlayışı ve cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar üzerindeki etkilerini incelemiştir ve cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırma ve düşmanca cinsiyetçilik gibi değişkenleri göz önünde bulundurmuştur. Cinsiyet farklarını vurgulayan bilimsel bilgilere maruz kalan katılımcıların (fark grubu), kontrol grubuna kıyasla daha yüksek özcü cinsiyet anlayışı sergileyeceği (Hipotez 1a), cinsiyet benzerliklerini vurgulayan bilgilere maruz kalanların ise (benzerlik grubu) kontrol grubuna kıyasla daha az özcü cinsiyet anlayışına sahip olacağı (Hipotez 1b) varsayılmıştır. Hipotez 2, özcü cinsiyet anlayışının cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları anlamlı bir şekilde tahmin edeceğini öne sürmüştür. Hipotez 3, beyindeki cinsiyet farklılığı manipülasyonunun özcü cinsiyet anlayışı üzerindeki etkisi aracılığıyla cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları dolaylı olarak etkileyeceğini beklemektedir.

Yöntem

Çalışma, 138 katılımcıyı ($M_{yaş}$ = 28.3, S = 8.01) içermektedir. Fark (N = 48), benzerlik (N = 45) ve kontrol (N = 45) olmak üzere üç grup bulunmaktadır. Katılımcılara, Toplumsal Cinsiyet Teorisi Ölçeği (Cronbach's α = .84, McDonald's ω = .89), Toplumsal Cinsiyetle İlgili Sistemi Meşrulaştırma Ölçeği (Cronbach's α = .72, McDonald's ω = .86), Kısaltılmış Düşmanca Cinsiyetçilik Envanteri (Cronbach's α = .90, McDonald's ω = .92) ve Cinsiyetçi Dile Yönelik Tutumlar Envanterinin ilk iki alt boyutu tek boyut halinde (Cronbach's α = .88, McDonald's ω = .92) sunulmuştur. Bu çalışmada demografik sorulara ek sorular sorulmuştur.

Katılımcılar, cinsiyet farklılıklarını, benzerliklerini ya da küresel ısınma ile ilgili içeriği vurgulayan bir gazete makalesini okumak üzere rastgele gruplara atanmıştır ve daha sonrasında kendilerine makale içeriğini pekiştiren bir soru ve bir manipülasyon kontrolü sorusu sorulmuştur (metinler için Ek A'ya bakınız). Katılımcılar daha sonra belirtilen ölçekleri doldurmuştur. Çalışma 2'deki gibi, geniş bir katılım sonrası bilgilendirme formu sunularak, çalışmanın esas amacı açıklanmıştır.

Bulgular

Tüm örneklemde ve fark grubunda, tüm değişkenler arasında pozitif ve anlamlı korelasyonlar bulunmaktadır. Bununla birlikte, benzerlik grubunda, cinsiyetle ilgili bazı korelasyonlar daha zayıftır ve cinsiyetin özcü cinsiyet anlayışı ve cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlarla ilişkisi anlamlı değildir. Kontrol grubu ise, çoğu değişken için daha güçlü korelasyonlar sergilemiştir (bk. Tablo 3.10).

Beyindeki cinsiyet farklılıkları hakkında bilimsel argümanlara maruz kalan grubun, kontrol grubuna kıyasla daha yüksek özcü cinsiyet anlayışı sergilediği bulunmuştur (*b* = .53, *SE* = .19, *p* = .006). Ancak, beyindeki cinsiyet benzerliklerine dair bilimsel argümanlara maruz kalan grup ile kontrol grubu arasında anlamlı bir fark bulunmamıştır (*b* = .07, *SE* = .19, *p* = .72). Özcü cinsiyet anlayışı arttıkça, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik olumlu tutumların da 0.33 arttığı gözlemlenmiştir (*b* = .33, *SE* = .09, *p* < .001). Beyindeki cinsiyet farklılıkları hakkında bilimsel argümanların, özcü cinsiyet anlayışı aracılığı ile cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar üzerinde dolaylı bir etkisi olduğu görülmüştür (*b* = .17, bootstrap *SE* = .10, bootstrap 95% CI [.03, .39]). Ek olarak, cinsiyetle ilgili sistemi meşrulaştırma ve düşmanca cinsiyetçilik değişkenleri hem özcü cinsiyet anlayışını hem de cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları anlamlı ölçüde tahmin etmiştir (bk. Figür 3.1).

Tartışma

Çalışma 3, düşmanca cinsiyetçilik ve cinsiyete özgü sistem meşrulaştırmasını hesaba katarak, beyindeki cinsiyet farklılıkları veya benzerlikleri hakkında bilimsel argümanlara maruz kalmanın özcü cinsiyet anlayışı ve cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar üzerindeki etkisini araştırmıştır. Çalışma, literatürle tutarlı olarak, cinsiyet farklılıklarını vurgulayan argümanlara maruz kalmanın özcü cinsiyet anlayışını artırdığını bulmuştur (örn., Brescoll & LaFrance, 2004; Ching & Xu, 2018). Bu Şahin ve Soylu Yalcinkaya'nın (2020) bulgularına zıttır, bu da katılımcılarımızın beyindeki cinsiyet farklılıklarına ilişkin bilimsel kanıtlara karşı daha fazla duyarlılık gösterebildiği fikrini öne sürebilir. Tersine, benzerlik temelli argümanlara maruz kalmak kontrol grubuna göre farklılık göstermemektedir. Özcü cinsiyet anlayışı, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumları tahmin etmede önemli bir katkı sağlamıştır. Beyinde cinsiyet farklılıklarına dair bilimsel argümanlara maruz kalmanın, özcü cinsiyet

anlayışı üzerindeki etkisi aracılığıyla cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlara dolaylı bir etkisi olduğu bulunmuştur.

Sonuç

Bu tez, cinsiyet kavramları ve cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar arasındaki ilişkileri incelemiştir ve özcü cinsiyet anlayışının, cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırmanın ve düşmanca cinsiyetçiliğin, cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlar üzerindeki yordayıcı gücünü ortaya çıkarmıştır. Ayrıca cinsiyet sisteminin değiştiği algısının cinsiyete özgü sistemi meşrulaştırma düzeyini, kadınlar ile erkekler arasındaki biyolojik farklılıkları vurgulamanın ise özcü cinsiyet anlayışını arttırdığı bulunmuştur. Bu deneysel manipülasyonların cinsiyetçi dile yönelik tutumlara da dolaylı etkisi olduğu görülmüştür. Katılımcıların bu manipülasyonlardan doğrudan etkilenmediği vurgulanmalıdır. Bulgular, cinsiyetçiliğin yapısal olarak cinsiyetsiz olan dillerde bile olabileceğini vurgulamakta ve cinsiyetçi dili ele alırken altta yatan ideolojilere değinilmesinin gerekliliğinin altını çizmektedir. Bu iç görülerin uygulamaları hem akademik hem de sosyal alanları kapsamaktadır. Gelecekteki araştırmalar bu alanda davranışsal ve dolaylı ölçümleri inceleyebilir. Dil, cinsiyet ve cinsiyetçilik arasındaki karmaşık etkileşimi anlamaya daha fazla önem vererek, cinsiyet eşitsizliğini tüm biçimleri ve bağlamlarıyla ele almaya çalışmalıyız. Toplu çabalarımız, ilerlemeyi hızlandıracak olan güçlü bir katalizör işlevi görebilir.

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