



HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

Department of Educational Sciences

Guidance and Psychological Counseling Program

PREDICTING AMBIVALENT SEXISM WITH SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION,
COGNITIVE FLEXIBILITY AND PRECARIOUS MANHOOD

Nazlı Eylül UŞAKLI

Master's Thesis

Ankara, 2024

With leadership, research, innovation, high quality education and change,

To the leading edge... Toward being the best...



Department of Educational Sciences

Guidance and Psychological Counseling Program

PREDICTING AMBIVALENT SEXISM WITH SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION,
COGNITIVE FLEXIBILITY AND PRECARIOUS MANHOOD

SOSYAL BASKINLIK YÖNELİMİ, BİLİŞSEL ESNEKLİK VE KIRILGAN ERKEKSİLİĞİN
ÇELİŞİK DUYGULU CİNSİYETÇİLİĞİ YORDAMASI

Nazlı Eylül UŞAKLI

Master's Thesis

Ankara, 2024

Acceptance and Approval

To the Graduate School of Educational Sciences,

This thesis / dissertation, prepared by **NAZLI EYLUL USAKLİ** and entitled “Predicting Ambivalent Sexism with Social Dominance Orientation, Cognitive Flexibility and Precarious Manhood” has been approved as a thesis for the Degree of **Master/Ph.D.** in the **Program of Psychological Counseling and Guidance** in the **Department of Educational Sciences Institution** by the members of the Examining Committee.

Chair	Prof. Dr. Türkan Doğan	Signature
Member (Supervisor)	Prof. Dr. İbrahim Keklik	Signature
Member	Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nilüfer Koçtürk	Signature
Member	Assist. Prof. Dr. Fatma Zehra Ünlü	Signature
Member	Assist. Prof. Dr. Pınar Çağ	Signature

This is to certify that this thesis/dissertation has been approved by the aforementioned examining committee members on 26 /06 / 2024 in accordance with the relevant articles of the Rules and Regulations of Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences, and was accepted as a **Master’s Thesis/Ph.D. Dissertation** in the **Program of** by the Board of Directors of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences from/...../.....

Prof. Dr. İsmail Hakkı MİRİCİ

Director of Graduate School of Educational Sciences

Abstract

The aim of the current thesis was to investigate the impact of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood on ambivalent sexism, in a research sample of men aged between 18-35. Additionally, this study sought to identify the predictive power of sociodemographic variables (relationships status, age, education status) on research variables. A convenience sample of volunteers 452 men were participants in the study. Ambivalent Sexism Scale (ASI), Social Dominance Orientation Scale (SDO7), Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI), Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale (PTTMS) and demographic information form were used as data collection instruments. Data analyses were conducted by the SPSS 29 software package, by using multiple linear regression analyses. In addition, to test whether there is a significant difference in the ambivalent sexism, benevolent sexism and hostile sexism according to participants' relationship status, age and education, independent group t-test and ANOVA analysis were conducted. The result of multiple linear regression indicated that SDO total score, CFI total score, and PTTMS total score were significant positive predictors of ambivalent sexism. As social dominance orientation and precarious manhood increase, ambivalent sexism also shows an increase. To further investigate predictor variables' influence on ambivalent sexism, two additional linear regressions have been conducted for two subfactors of AS. Social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood have been identified as significant positive predictors of hostile sexism. Benevolent sexism, on the other hand, is significantly positively predicted by the total scores of social dominance orientation and precarious manhood. Findings and limitations have been discussed in the light of the relevant literature, and recommendations have been provided to researchers and practitioners.

Keywords: ambivalent sexism, social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, precarious manhood.

Öz

Bu tezin amacı, 18-35 yaş arasındaki genç yetişkin erkeklerin, sosyal baskınlık yönelimi, bilişsel esneklik ve kırılğan erkeklik düzeylerinin çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik üzerindeki etkisini incelemektir. Ayrıca, bu çalışma, araştırma değişkenleri üzerinde sosyodemografik değişkenlerin (ilişki durumu, yaş, eğitim durumu) öngörü gücünü belirlemeyi amaçlamaktadır. Araştırmanın çalışma grubunu uygun örnekleme ile seçilen 452 erkek oluşturmuştur. Çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik, saldırgan cinsiyetçilik (HS) ve koruyucu cinsiyetçilik (BS) olmak üzere iki boyutta incelenmiştir. Ölçüm araçları olarak Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği (ASI), Sosyal Baskınlık Yönelimi Ölçeği (SDO7), Bilişsel Esneklik Envanteri (CFI), Erkekliğe Yönelik Algılanan Tehdit Ölçeği (PTTMS) ve demografik bilgi formu kullanılmıştır. Ölçeklerden toplanan veriler SPSS 29 yazılım paketi kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir. Verilerin analizinde çoklu doğrusal regresyon kullanılmıştır. İlişki durumu, yaş ve eğitime göre çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik, korumacı cinsiyetçilik ve saldırgan cinsiyetçilikte anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığını test etmek için bağımsız grup t-testi ve ANOVA analizi yapılmıştır. Çoklu doğrusal regresyon sonuçları, sosyal baskınlık eğiliminin, bilişsel esnekliğin ve kırılğan erkekliğin çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçiliği anlamlı ve pozitif yönde yordadığını göstermiştir. Yordayıcı değişkenlerin çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçiliğe etkisini daha ayrıntılı incelemek için çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçiliğin iki faktörü üzerinde iki ek çoklu doğrusal modeli test edilmiştir. Sosyal baskınlık yönelimi, bilişsel esneklik ve kırılğan erkeklik, saldırgan cinsiyetçiliğin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı yordayıcıları olarak saptanmıştır. Koruyucu cinsiyetçilik ise sosyal baskınlık yönelimi ve kırılğan erkeklik tarafından anlamlı bir şekilde yordanmıştır. Bulgular ve sınırlılıklar ilgili alanyazın ışığında tartışılmış ve araştırmacılara ve saha çalışanlarına öneriler sunulmuştur.

Anahtar sözcükler: çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik, sosyal baskınlık yönelimi, bilişsel esneklik, kırılğan erkeklik.

Acknowledgements

I would like to thank first and foremost my dear thesis advisor, Prof. Dr. İbrahim Keklik for his support, patience, guidance and encouragement during my master's education and thesis writing process. He assisted me by being available whenever I need during this challenging period, answering every question I've asked.

Secondly, I would like to express my gratitude to my examining committee members Prof. Dr. Türkan Doğan, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Nilüfer Koçtürk, Assist. Prof. Dr. Fatma Zehra Ünlü and Assist. Prof. Dr. Pınar Çağ, for they accepted to be on my thesis committee and contributed to this thesis with their great and essential assessments and insightful commentary.

I would like to thank to all those who supported me with their valuable thoughts and time throughout this journey, and those offering me company or help during moments of stress and despair. A special thanks to Doğan Emeklioğlu; your presence always brings me serenity. Thank you for standing by my side for the past five years, playing this game together with me.

I wish to extend my deepest gratitude to my family. You have always approached me with unwavering trust and love. Throughout my education, I have come to understand even more how truly wonderful parents you are, even during times that were undoubtedly challenging for you. To my mother, Süreyya Uşaklı, thank you for filling our home with books even before I was born, ensuring that I would never lose the joy of reading and learning. To my father, Kemal Uşaklı, thank you for your unconditional confidence in my abilities; with your keen, insightful eyes, you helped me believe in myself. You both are the greatest and most beloved learners I have ever encountered, always surrounded by an incredible curiosity, thank you for making this life a place filled with wonder for both of us.

I am deeply grateful to my sister, Simge Uşaklı, who has been my best friend throughout every chapter of my life. You have led the way in being a strong, independent woman. While many older sisters might look down on a sibling nine years younger, you

have offered me trust and companionship. Thank you for being the person I can always turn to.

Finally, I extend my deepest thanks to those who believe in a better world and strive for justice for all human beings. Even in the face of adversity and a harsh reality, the belief that we can shape the world into what we envision has kept me standing tall. We are the differences we can make, and the world is already a better place because we will not stop imagining and taking action for a better place to live in.

Table of Contents

Acceptance and Approval	ii
Abstract	iii
Öz.....	iv
Acknowledgements	v
List of Tables	ix
List of Figures.....	x
Symbols and Abbreviations	xi
Chapter 1 Introduction	1
Statement of the Problem	1
Aim and Significance of the Study.....	7
Research Questions.....	11
Assumptions	12
Limitations	12
Definitions	12
Chapter 2 Theoretical Basis of Research and Literature Review	15
Ambivalent Sexism.....	15
Social Dominance Orientation.....	20
Cognitive Flexibility	23
Studies on Ambivalent Sexism.....	28
Studies on Social Dominance Orientation.....	30
Studies on Cognitive Flexibility	33
Studies on Precarious Manhood	34
Chapter 3 Methodology	36
Type of Research.....	36
Research Group and Sample/Study Group/Participants	37
Data Collection.....	37

Instruments	38
Data Analysis	40
Chapter 4 Findings, Comments, and Discussion.....	43
Descriptive Statistics of the Variables	43
Findings on Regression Analysis Assumptions.....	44
Findings of the Research Question	51
Findings of the Sub-Research Questions.....	52
Comments and Discussion	58
Chapter 5 Conclusion and Suggestions	66
Recommendations	67
References	71
APPENDIX-A: Permissions For Instruments	88
APPENDIX-A1: Permission to Use the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory	88
APPENDIX-A2: Permission to Use the Social Dominance Orientation Scale ...	88
APPENDIX-A3: Permission to Use the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory	89
APPENDIX-A4: Permission to Use the Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale ...	89
APPENDIX-B: Informed Consent Form.....	90
APPENDIX-C: Instruments.....	92
APPENDIX-C1: Ambivalent Sexism Inventory Sample Items	92
APPENDIX-C2: Social Dominance Orientation Scale Sample Items	93
APPENDIX-C3: Cognitife Flexibility Inventory Sample Items	94
APPENDIX-C4: The Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale Sample Items	95
APPENDIX-D: Research Ethics Committee Approval	96
APPENDIX-E: Declaration of Ethical Conduct.....	97
APPENDIX-F: Thesis/Dissertation Originality Report.....	98
APPENDIX-G: Yüksek Lisans/Doktora Tez Çalışması Orijinallik Raporu.....	99
APPENDIX-H: Yayımlama ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı	100

List of Tables

Table 1 <i>Distribution According to Demographic Variables</i>	43
Table 2 <i>Descriptive Statistics Related to Ambivalent Sexism and Subfactors, Social Dominance Orientation, Cognitive Flexibility and Precarious Manhood</i>	44
Table 3 <i>VIF and Tolerance Values</i>	49
Table 4 <i>Correlation Between Variables</i>	50
Table 5 <i>Multiple Regression Analysis for Predictors of Ambivalent Sexism</i>	51
Table 6 <i>Multiple Regression Analysis for Predictors of Hostile Sexism</i>	53
Table 7 <i>Multiple Regression Analysis for Predictors of Benevolent Sexism</i>	54
Table 8 <i>Independent Groups t-Test Table of Variables Total Scores According to Relationship Status</i>	55
Table 9 <i>ANOVA Table of Variables Total Scores According to Age</i>	56
Table 10 <i>ANOVA Table of Variables Total Scores According to Education Status</i>	58

List of Figures

Figure 1 <i>Histogram for the Distribution of Criterion Variable</i>	45
Figure 2 <i>P-P Plot for the Distribution of Criterion Variable</i>	45
Figure 3 <i>Scatterplot for the Homogeneity of Variance</i>	46
Figure 4 <i>Partial Regression Distribution for Social Dominance Orientation</i>	47
Figure 5 <i>Partial Regression Distribution for Cognitive Flexibility</i>	48
Figure 6 <i>Partial Regression Distribution for Precarious Manhood</i>	48

Symbols and Abbreviations

AS: Ambivalent Sexism

SDO: Social Dominance Orientation

CF: Cognitive Flexibility

PM: Precarious Manhood

ASI: Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

PTTMS: Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale

CFS: Cognitive Flexibility Scale

BS: Benevolent Sexism

HS: Hostile Sexism

Chapter 1

Introduction

The introduction chapter presents the problem statement, aim and importance of the study, research questions and sub-research questions. Assumptions, limitations, and definitions of the main concepts of the study are introduced.

Statement of the Problem

Throughout history, human societies and civilizations have been plagued by various forms of discrimination, deeply rooted in differences such as race, gender, and socioeconomic status. This long-standing issue manifests itself in many areas of life, significantly affecting marginalized groups and contributing to systemic inequalities (Williams et al., 2010; Abrams, 2018). Discrimination involves denying equal treatment to individuals based on their membership in a particular group, and it can be traced back to ancient civilizations. For instance, in classical Athens, democracy was ironically built on exclusionary practices that marginalized women, enslaved people, and foreigners (Hanchard, 2018).

Discrimination and inequality have profound and far-reaching consequences. Economically, they contribute to wealth and income disparities, as seen throughout history and documented in the rise and fall of inequalities across different societies. Socially, they perpetuate stereotypes and hinder social mobility, limiting access to education, healthcare, and employment opportunities for disadvantaged groups. These inequalities impact individual lives and undermine social cohesion and economic development (Dilli, et al., 2019).

Discrimination also can have pervasive and detrimental impacts across various domains of life, affecting mental health, leading to increased stress, anxiety, and depression (Jones et al., 2016) and decreasing self-esteem (Jackson & Mustillo, 2001; Cihangir et al.,

2014). Discrimination can also lead to a reluctance to seek needed medical services, worsening overall health outcomes (Troxel et al., 2003).

Gender discrimination has historically placed women at a significant disadvantage, influencing their opportunities, rights, and societal roles. For centuries, women have faced barriers to education, employment, and political participation solely based on gender (Dilli et al., 2019; Kirton & Greene, 2005). This marginalization has profound implications, given that it affects approximately half of the global population. Women continue to encounter wage disparities, limited career advancement opportunities, and pervasive stereotypes that constrain their roles in society (Weichselbaumer & Winter-Ebmer, 2005).

Sexism is a pervasive prejudice that affects the lives of both men and women globally. Although sexism impacts men, it predominantly affects women, who have historically been the primary victims and have suffered extensively as a result of such discrimination (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Women receive aggressive, violent, discriminative attitudes from men even in the case of a slight shift in gender roles (Glick et al., 2015). Conversely, men may face negative attitudes from other men for not conforming to traditional expectations of masculinity such as not being successful enough, dominant enough, pervasive enough, to summarize, for not being a man enough. (Vandello & Bosson, 2013).

Even in the presence of feminist and egalitarian perspectives and progresses towards gender equality, most modern societies continue to operate primarily under patriarchal ideologies. Patriarchy places men's structural control and power over several significant institutions, such as the economic, political, legal, and religious institutions, and today, patriarchy remains virtually universal among human societies, hindering or even reversing the process of gender equality (Goldberg, 1993; Harris, 1991, as cited in Glick & Fiske, 1997; Van Lear et al, 2024). Patriarchal culture defines the nature of women and men and offers requirements about how social life is supposed to be and how individuals

are expected to feel and behave. Despite biological differences between the sexes, the institutions of patriarchy heavily impact these relations (Glick & Fiske, 1997).

The #MeToo movement highlighted persistent sexual harassment in the workplace (Lisnek, Wilkins, Wilson & Ekstrom, 2022), and the COVID-19 pandemic further exacerbated gender inequalities (Fisher et al., 2021; WHO [World Health Organization], 2020). Some European countries have recently restricted or banned abortion, jeopardizing women's lives, and health. New ideologies emerging from social media, reflect a crisis of masculinity, where perceived failures to live up to traditional male roles lead to aggressive attempts to reaffirm their manhood (e.g., sigma males, involuntary celibates) (Lindner, 2023). Gender equality regresses, every minute that we look away from the discriminative implications, leaving more women unprotected. Women across different cultures raise their voices about the current discrimination and given roles in society. However, their actions appear to be silenced and oppressed for the sake of protecting traditional gender roles and the status quo. According to the UN (2022), achieving full gender equality could take nearly three hundred years at the current pace of progress.

A nuanced form of gender discrimination is ambivalent sexism which is characterized by a paradoxical relationship where women are both adored and oppressed, thus creating a complex dynamic that perpetuates gender inequality. Formulated by Glick and Fiske (1996), Ambivalent Sexism Theory is highly important with its ability to articulate the complex and often contradictory attitudes towards women. By examining variables such as social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood within the framework of Ambivalent Sexism Theory, this study aims to uncover the psychological mechanisms that perpetuate sexist attitudes in young men. This theoretical foundation provides a comprehensive lens that sheds light on how different forms of sexism interact and contribute to the broader system of gender inequality, making it a critical aspect of the research.

Ambivalent sexism is a critical concept in understanding gender discrimination because it encapsulates both overt and covert forms of prejudice. Hostile sexism (HS) involves overtly antagonistic attitudes toward women who defy traditional gender roles, while benevolent sexism (BS), though seemingly positive, patronizes women by reinforcing traditional roles and maintaining gender inequality (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Ambivalent sexism is particularly insidious because it not only includes an apparent hostility towards women but also masks itself in protective and affectionate behaviors that appear benign or even positive. This benevolent aspect of sexism can be more damaging because it is less likely to be recognized and challenged. It maintains gender inequalities by promoting traditional gender roles, which in turn supports the status quo of male dominance (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Studies indicate that ambivalent sexist attitudes positively correlated with attitudes that legitimize abuse and violence against women (Gutierrez & Leaper, 2023; Sakallı, 2001; Glick et al, 2002), aggression towards women (Yeşiltepe, 2021), devaluation of the women (Akarsu & Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2021), maternal gatekeeping (Kaya-Bican, 2022), blaming women (Sakallı, 2001), pornography consumption (Barbero et. Al, 2024), dating violence (Tire & Yeşiltepe, 2023), even girl child marriages (Kaynak Malatyalı et al., 2017) in global and Turkish population.

Conducting research on ambivalent sexism solely with male participants is particularly significant for several reasons. Firstly, men are often the primary perpetrators of sexism and understanding their attitudes can provide deeper insights into the root causes of gender discrimination. Men tend to score higher on both hostile and benevolent sexism compared to women, making them a crucial demographic for studying these attitudes (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Tire & Yeşiltepe, 2023). Secondly, by working with a sample of males, this study intends to contribute to the empirical insight into societal expectations of masculinity contributing to different forms of sexism.

The age range of 18-35 is marked by critical transitional processes that significantly impact the formation and reinforcement of attitudes, including ambivalent sexism. Late adolescence involves crisis of identity versus role confusion and young men are exploring and solidifying their identities, including gender roles and attitudes as individuals seek to understand their place in society (Erikson, 1968). Arnett (2000) describes emerging adulthood as a period of exploration in love, work, and worldviews. During this time, young men are forming intimate relationships and establishing careers, both of which are contexts where gender roles and sexism become particularly relevant.

Levinson (1978) notes that early adulthood involves the consolidation of identities and roles within society. Men in this stage are often solidifying their career paths and family roles, which can either reinforce or challenge traditional gender norms. Hammond and colleagues (2014) suggest that young adulthood is a period where individuals are particularly susceptible to societal influences regarding gender roles and norms. The formation and reinforcement of sexist attitudes during this stage are critical as these attitudes can persist into later adulthood.

Studying only male participants in this age group is vital because the unique psychological and developmental processes that influence their attitudes toward gender roles and sexism. Focusing on men allows for a detailed examination of constructs like social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood, which are particularly relevant to understanding and addressing ambivalent sexism. The current study is intended to contribute valuable insights into the formation and reinforcement of sexist attitudes in men, informing targeted interventions to promote gender equality.

Furthermore, while there is substantial research on gender discrimination, studies focusing exclusively on men in the context of ambivalent sexism are less common. Most gender studies include both men and women to compare attitudes; however, focusing solely on men can highlight the specific cultural and social pressures that shape male attitudes toward women. This approach can reveal how men internalize and perpetuate gender roles,

providing a basis for targeted educational and policy interventions (Yurrebaso Macho et al., 2024).

Sexist attitudes are embedded in larger belief systems with specific hierarchies and values (Mikolajczak & Pietrzak, 2014). Understanding and addressing these attitudes require examining the underlying psychological constructs that sustain them. Social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood are critical variables in this context.

Social dominance orientation reflects an individual's preference for hierarchy within social systems and the dominance of higher-status groups over lower-status ones. High social dominance orientation is associated with support for social inequality and prejudice, including sexist attitudes. Research shows that individuals with high social dominance orientation are more likely to endorse hostile and benevolent sexism as they align with maintaining gender hierarchies (Pratto et al., 1994; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Cognitive flexibility refers to the mental ability to switch between thinking about two different concepts and to think about multiple concepts simultaneously. Higher cognitive flexibility is linked to more adaptive thinking and lower levels of prejudice, as it allows individuals to challenge rigid, stereotypical beliefs about gender roles (Martin & Anderson, 1998). Enhancing cognitive flexibility can thus reduce ambivalent sexism by promoting more egalitarian viewpoints.

Precarious manhood describes the idea that manhood is a socially constructed status that must be earned and maintained through specific behaviors and is easily lost. This concept is particularly relevant for understanding male sexist attitudes, as men who feel their masculinity is threatened may resort to hostile or benevolent sexism to reaffirm their gender identity (Vandello et al., 2008).

This study aimed to enhance gender dynamics and prejudice, by directly tries to understand the roots of ambivalent sexism in men, it indirectly aims to protect and promote

the dignity and rights of women. Furthermore, this study, with the aim of social justice and advocacy in the frame of psychological counseling and guidance, aims to shed a light on the mechanisms that sustain gender inequality. The insights provided by this study can contribute to societal well-being. Promoting healthier, non-toxic forms of masculinity is possible and that can reduce the occurrence of harmful intentions and behaviours of men. This study can guide future research and guide specific interventions in reducing sexism.

The primary objective of this research is to examine the predictive relationships between ambivalent sexism and three psychological constructs: social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood. This study aims to enhance the understanding of how these variables interact to influence sexist attitudes, which have a persistent impact on various aspects of social and individual functioning.

Aim and Significance of the Study

The primary purpose of this research was to explore how social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood contribute to ambivalent sexism in young adult males. By examining these variables in conjunction, this study hopes to provide a deeper understanding of the psychological mechanisms that underlie sexist attitudes and behaviors of men. Furthermore, such a line of research is expected to enrich the existing literature by identifying potential interventions that target these underlying mechanisms.

Investigating ambivalent sexism is critically important due to the pervasive and severe impact of gender-based violence on women worldwide. When ambivalent sexism reaches a pathological level, it significantly exacerbates gender inequalities and perpetuates violence against women. This pathological state entails rigid, extreme beliefs in traditional gender roles, manifesting in aggressive hostility toward women who challenge these norms and condescending protectionism toward those who conform (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Glick et al, 2015).

According to WHO's (2021) global estimates, about one-third of women worldwide have experienced either physical or sexual violence. Globally, this can lead to systemic issues such as wage disparities, restricted career opportunities for women, and widespread tolerance of gender-based violence. Specifically in Türkiye, the consequences are stark, with high rates of domestic violence and femicides, often abetted by legal and institutional inadequacies. Pathological ambivalent sexism thus not only undermines women's rights but also perpetuates a cycle of violence and discrimination that impacts societal health and economic stability (Glick & Fiske, 1996; WHO, 2021).

Türkiye presents a troubling picture of sexual discrimination and violence against women. Globally, around 35% of women experience physical and/or sexual intimate partner violence or non-partner sexual violence in their lifetimes. In contrast, various reports indicate that in Türkiye, this issue is particularly acute, with an estimated four out of ten women suffering from physical and/or sexual violence during their lives (WHO, 2021; World Bank, 2022)

In the 12th Development Plan (2022) published by the Presidency of the Republic of Türkiye Strategy and Budget Directorate, several key policies for the 2024-2028 period were emphasized to enhance women's status and well-being. The plan includes objectives such as increasing female employment from the current 35.1% (as of 2022), improving the balance between work and family life for women, strengthening reproductive health services, and preventing violence against women and forced or early marriages. It also highlights the need to reinforce institutions providing protective and preventive services in the context of combating violence, support women's access to new communication technologies, and foster positive attitudes and behaviors towards women through these channels. Furthermore, it underscores the importance of implementing legal reforms to provide victim-centered justice and support for women.

Femicides, a tragic outcome of gender-based discrimination, have long been significant concern in Türkiye. There has been a notable increase in the intensity and

brutality of violence against women over the years, with reports indicating thousands of femicides over recent years, often linked to intimate partners or family members. Worldwide, almost one-third (27%) of women aged 15-49 who have been in a relationship have reported experiencing some form of physical and/or sexual violence by their intimate partner (WHO, 2020). Furthermore, the World Bank (2022) reported that their romantic partner kills up to 38% of female homicide victims worldwide.

Indeed, gender-based violence is not the only outcome of ambivalent sexism. However, it is one of the most important ones, and even though the ideas about personal freedom are on the rise globally, a population who gets used to the mistreatment of women finds a way to rationalize this with generations.

In line with the United Nations Sustainable Development Goals (2024), progress toward gender equality remains insufficient. Parity in women's participation in public life and managerial positions continues to be elusive, with projections indicating that it will take an additional 176 years to achieve gender equality at the current rate. Furthermore, many women worldwide are still unable to exercise their right to make decisions regarding their sexual and reproductive health. The prevalence of violence against women persists, disproportionately impacting those with disabilities. Alarming, one in five girls globally are married before the age of 18. Additionally, women bear an inequitable burden of unpaid domestic and caregiving work, dedicating 2.5 times more hours per day to these tasks compared to men. These disparities underscore the critical need for enhanced efforts and policies to advance gender equality and women's rights.

The importance of researching gender-based inequalities in today's digital and post-COVID world cannot be overstated. The internet has accelerated the global reach of misogyny, amplifying not only the voices of advocacy and empowerment but also those of harassment and abuse (UNICEF [The United Nations Children's Fund], 2021). Additionally, the COVID-19 pandemic has exacerbated domestic violence scenarios, with enforced isolation leading to spikes in reported cases worldwide (UNWOMEN [The United Nations

Entity for Gender Equality and the Empowerment of Women], 2021; WHO, 2020). This intersection of increased domestic abuse and pervasive online harassment presents unique challenges and risks that make contemporary research into gender inequalities more critical than ever.

Technological advancements have unfortunately facilitated more anonymous and unchecked environments, such as social media and gaming platforms, where perpetrators find it easier to harass and exploit victims. Comparatively, sexual discrimination has long existed, but the internet era has introduced new forms of abuse that are invasive and pervasive, leveraging the anonymity and reach of digital platforms to target women extensively, such as online harassment from strangers, cyberbullying, cyberstalking, unsolicited sexual messages or images, non-consensual sharing of intimate photos, child sexual exploitation and abuse, online grooming, and data security and privacy threats. Women, girls, and gender-diverse individuals face heightened vulnerability to these digital harms. This increased risk necessitates focused attention on developing protective measures and policies to ensure safer digital environments for all users, especially children and women (UNICEF, 2021).

Given the popularity of social media and opportunities provided by the digital age, individuals of contemporary societies live in a highly entangled world, and thus, they are more in need of forming their perceptions of others perhaps faster than ever before (Abrams, 2010). Individuals configure their opinions about others too quickly and are more inaccurate than they should be by categorizing and stigmatizing them. This set of behaviors can easily lead to prejudice and accusations, violation of human rights, and growing hate. Everyone who lives in this gigantic world of communication feels overwhelmed by the assumptions they feel obligated to carry in their lives, and the molds they feel obligated to fit are aware of how psychologically abrasive this is. The discriminative behavior situated as sexism within the scope of this study can be widened to other forms of prejudices with

the comprehension of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood, a list of concepts that can be applied to various forms of discrimination.

By clarifying the intricate relationships between psychological traits such as social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood and how these contribute to sexist attitudes and behaviors, the current thesis aims to advance the body of knowledge about gender discrimination. By understanding these relationships, the research hopes to inform more effective interventions and policies to combat sexism and support gender equality, ultimately reducing the prevalence and impact of violence against women. Further insight in such variables will not only guide counselors and other mental health professionals in their interventions with men. Furthermore, this is particularly crucial as gender-based violence not only affects individual women but also has broad social and economic repercussions, underscoring the urgent need for informed action and policymaking.

Research Questions

The primary aim of this research is to answer the question: "What is the predictive role of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood in explaining sexism in young adult men?"

Sub Research Questions

In response to the problem presented above, the study seeks to answer the following sub-questions:

1. Do social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood significantly predict hostile sexism in young adult men?
2. Do social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood significantly predict benevolent sexism in young adult men?

3. Do the scores of ambivalent sexism, social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility and precarious manhood in young adult males significantly differ according to sociodemographic variables (relationship status, age, education level)?

Assumptions

1. The participants responded voluntarily, correctly, and truthfully as possible to the measurement tools.
2. The scales used in the study did provide valid and reliable measurements.

Limitations

1. The sample of this research is limited to heterosexual young adult males who are between the ages of 18-35, with relatively high education levels.
2. Since the data for the study were collected through an online form, participants without internet and phone access could not be reached; similarly, since it was disseminated with social media, participants without access to social media could not be reached either.
3. The data obtained in this research is based on self-assessment and collected using a relational model. Therefore, causal relationships between the variables cannot be established.
4. Convenient sampling was used during data collection.

Definitions

Sexism: Sexism can be defined as individuals' attitudes based on their gender that relegate a gender to an inferior status (Fernandez et al., 2004) to contribute to the maintenance of inequality between genders in the range of society (Glick & Rudman, 2010). In the limits of the research, sexism is limited to the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) developed by Glick and Fiske (1996).

Ambivalent Sexism: Ambivalent sexism is characterized as a form of prejudice that involves conflicting attitudes toward women rather than straightforward hostility, Ambivalent sexism captures the complexity of gender biases, where the combination of hostile and benevolent attitudes serves to maintain and justify gender inequality through both punitive and protective justifications for maintaining traditional gender roles (Glick & Fiske, 1996; 2001).

Hostile Sexism: Hostile sexism delineates a type of gender bias marked by antagonism toward women who defy traditional gender roles or threaten male supremacy. It includes the power men derive from traditional roles and their devaluing actions against women (Ayan, 2014).

Benevolent Sexism: Benevolent sexism, on the other hand, represents a form of sexism that appears subjectively affirming but is inherently patronizing and ultimately serves to reinforce traditional gender roles and inequalities (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

Social Dominance Orientation (SDO): A complex psychological construct, social dominance orientation is defined as the level of an individual's endorsement of hierarchical relationships and inequality among social groups (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). In the limits of the research, social dominance orientation is limited to the Social Dominance Orientation Scale (SDO7) developed by Ho et al. (2015).

Cognitive Flexibility: Cognitive flexibility refers to the ability of individuals to adjust their cognitive approaches in response to new and unexpected environmental conditions (Cañas et al., 2003). In the limits of this research, the term cognitive flexibility is limited by the Cognitive Flexibility Scale (CFS) developed by Dennis and VanderWal (2010).

Precarious Manhood: Merriam Webster dictionary defines precarious as "(a) dependent on chance circumstances, unknown conditions, or uncertain developments; (b) characterized by lack of security or stability that threatens danger." Following the precarious manhood theory, manhood is presented not as a guaranteed or stable status but as a social

position that must be continuously earned and can be easily lost (Vandello & Bosson, 2013). The term precarious manhood is limited by the Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale (PTMS) developed by Türkoğlu (2013).

Chapter 2

Theoretical Basis of Research and Literature Review

In this section, starting with the criterion variable, literature information related to the variables of the study is provided. Subsequently, studies related to the variables are examined in the light of the study's variables and sociodemographic variables.

Ambivalent Sexism

From the onset of their lives, individuals are taught to discern the characteristics and expected behaviors of women and men. A myriad of stereotypes perpetuates the notion of fundamental distinctions between genders. Aligned with these stereotypes, women must be communal, caring, and concerned with others but tend to be passive and not independent or determined, and womanhood seems to be associated with a weaker self. In contrast, men are expected to be dominant, fearless, assertive, ambitious, non-emotional, and focused on self-interest, which is linked to a strong sense of self (Deaux, 1984; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Guimond, 2008; Sakallı-Uğurlu & Türkoğlu, 2019).

Researchers specializing in gender studies have posited that 'gender' should be understood as a multifaceted and multidimensional construct. They conceptualize gender as an overarching category that involves various constructs, including gender roles, gender stereotypes, gender belief systems, sexual orientation, and gender-related attitudes, among others. Furthermore, it has been suggested that these constructs have numerous types and degrees of association, and their amalgamation can affect individual experiences and behaviors distinctively (Curun et al., 2017).

According to Baron and Byrne (2000), gender is defined as the biological and physiological differences arising from genetic variations. Sexism emerges from shaping these biological differences between women and men in interpersonal and societal roles (as cited in Sakallı, 2002).

A seminal study by Hyde (2005) asserts that women and men are fundamentally similar across numerous psychological dimensions. Through a comprehensive meta-analysis, Hyde revealed that the variances in cognitive abilities, communication style, and personality characteristics between genders are predominantly small, indicating that males and females are more alike than different.

In line with this research, Guimond (2008) posits that the perceived differences and similarities between men and women are not universal and are prone to exhibiting variations across different cultures. Even though typical gender stereotypes can be found in most cultures, women and men from individualistic cultures are more likely to differ in terms of self-construal, personality, values, and emotions than individuals in collectivistic cultures, and the gender stereotypes activated based on social roles (Glick & Rudman, 2010).

European Institute for Gender Equality defines gender segregation as "unequal representation of genders in the job market, political and public life, and education" (EIGE [European Institute for Gender Equality], 2024). It leads to harmful outcomes for those affected including distress (Oswald et al., 2019), issues in relationship (Cross & Overall, 2019), lowered body confidence (Oswald et al., 2012), increased justification for marital violence (Glick et al., 2002), and feelings of incompetence (Dumont et al., 2010).

Sexism entails three components: the denial of continuing discrimination against women, adverse reactions toward complaints about inequality, and resistance to efforts to address sexism. In line with this conceptualization, sexism can be seen in expressions involving blaming women instead of systemic disadvantage for gender inequality and contributing to the maintenance of the unequal gender status quo (Glick & Rudman, 2010).

Following Allport's (1954) influential definition of prejudice, which "is an antipathy based upon a faulty and inflexible generalization" (Allport, 1979, p.9)", Glick and Fiske (1996) stated that sexism is also a form of prejudice, affecting the lives of both men and women all over the globe, as a form of oppression and unjust treatment resulting from one's sex and gender (Wade & Tavris, 1994). While sexism can affect men, it predominantly

targets women, who have historically been the principal victims and have suffered extensively due to it.

Ambivalent sexism is characterized as a form of prejudice that involves conflicting attitudes toward women rather than straightforward hostility. Glick and Fiske (1996) opposed the conceptualization of sexism as a reflection of hostility toward women. They stated that this view neglects a significant aspect of sexism: the subjectively positive feelings about women often go hand in hand with sexist antipathy. They consider sexism as a multidimensional construct that includes two kinds of sexist attitudes: hostile and benevolent sexism.

Ambivalent Sexism Theory, formulated by Glick and Fiske (1996), introduces a nuanced framework for understanding sexism and explores the complex notion that women can be loved and oppressed at the same time (Glick & Fiske, 1996). According to Glick and Fiske, this contradiction is rooted in the intimate relationship between male and female and the interplay of structural and dyadic power. In patriarchal societies, structural power is predominantly in the hands of men, whereas both women and men can exercise dyadic power in intimate relationships. Structural power leads to a negative attitude, grounded in the belief that men deserve a higher status and accompanied by a fear of feminist ideologies or women's sexuality. However, even amidst hostile sexism, a heterosexual man may seek an intimate relationship (Glick & Rudman, 2010). This desire and reliance of men grant women some degree of dyadic power, prompting men towards benevolent sexist behaviors (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Glick et al., 2002). The interdependence of men on women introduces ambivalence in sexism, manifesting as both hostile and benevolent expressions. As men constitute the majority group, they perceive a risk of potentially losing women and their esteem. Consequently, they use benevolent remarks to rationalize their prejudices easily (Glick & Fiske, 2011).

Hostile sexism aligns with Allport's (1954) classic definition of prejudice and delineates a type of gender bias marked by antagonism toward women who defy traditional

gender roles or threaten male supremacy. It includes the power men derive from traditional roles and their devaluing actions against women (Ayan, 2014). This component of sexism manifests through negative stereotypes, explicit discrimination, and general antipathy towards women, particularly those who challenge the patriarchal norms (Glick & Fiske, 2001). The hostile aspect of sexism shares the negative emotional charge of traditional sexism and considers women subordinate to men (Fernandez et al., 2004). Research has extensively documented the impact of hostile sexism on various aspects of social life, including the workplace (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005) and educational settings (Spencer, Steele, & Quinn, 1999).

Benevolent sexism, on the other hand, represents a form of sexism that appears subjectively affirming but is inherently patronizing and ultimately serves to reinforce traditional gender roles and inequalities. Benevolent sexism encompasses paternalistic attitudes that urge men to provide for and shield women, along with complementary gender differentiation that deems women as innately superior by idealizing women as "the better sex" for their nurturing capabilities and perceived purity and innocence, yet these same attitudes endorse women's subjugation and justify and necessitate their protection by men (Glick & Fiske, 2001; Glick & Rudman, 2010).

Research has demonstrated that benevolent sexism, despite being less overtly aggressive than hostile sexism, has insidious effects on women's autonomy, self-concept, and career aspirations (Dardenne et al., 2007). Studies have shown that exposure to benevolently sexist attitudes can undermine women's performance in leadership roles and discourage their pursuit of independence or nontraditional careers (Moya et al., 2007). Furthermore, benevolent sexism has been associated with an increased acceptance of gender inequality, as it disguises its harmful intentions under the guise of care and affection, making it challenging for individuals to recognize and address its harmful implications (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005).

Although benevolent sexism may appear to have more positive attitudes towards women compared to hostile sexism, it also harms women's individuality and views women as inferior to men. From this perspective, both hostile and benevolent sexism advocate the notion that men are "strong," and women are the "weak and helpless" sex (Glick and Fiske, 1996, 1997; Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002, 2003). On the other hand, benevolent sexism is a reward for conforming to traditional gender roles; hostile sexism serves to punish women who do not align themselves with their traditional gender roles (Glick & Fiske, 1999).

Hostile and benevolent sexism are underpinned by three biological and social components: patriarchy, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality. These elements reflect contradictory attitudes towards women and help explain the underlying social and biological dynamics between genders (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Patriarchy characterizes men's political, economic, and legal dominance, manifesting in oppressive and protective forms (Alptekin, 2014). From a hostile sexism standpoint, it emerges as an oppressive patriarchy, advocating that women should be controlled and managed by men because they need men (Ayan, 2014). Conversely, from a benevolent sexism standpoint, it takes a protective form, where women are seen as fragile, necessitating support and financial provision (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2003). In both manifestations, patriarchy maintains male supremacy, with a notion that women are weak and to be protected and controlled. Regardless of whether it is oppressive or protective, patriarchy maintains male dominance and perpetuates gender discrimination (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2003; Alptekin, 2014).

Gender differentiation, the theory's second component, consists of stereotypes about male and female characteristics, supporting the perpetuation of male dominance by assigning higher-status roles to men and relegating women to lower-status roles (Ayan, 2014). Gender differentiation can manifest in two distinct ways: competitive gender differentiation and complementary gender differentiation. Under the lens of hostile sexism, competitive gender differentiation exaggerates perceived differences between genders,

devaluing and diminishing women (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2003). On the other hand, under benevolent sexism, we observe complementary gender differentiation, which posits that the roles assigned to women complement those of men based on the dyadic power held by women. This suggests a symbiotic complementarity between men and women in social life, envisioning men and women as parts that complete each other by conceptualizing a traditional division of labor with women at home and men outside (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002). This traditional gender stereotype relegates women to being 'the other half' of men (Ayan, 2014).

The third and final component of the theory is heterosexuality, which serves as a primary source of men's ambivalent feelings toward women (Glick & Fiske, 1996). It fosters closer relationships between genders and aligns with the societal norm of heterosexuality (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002). In the context of hostile sexism, heterosexual hostility stems from the fear that women can manipulate men using their sexuality, thereby reducing women to mere sexual objects (Glick & Fiske, 1996). In the case of benevolent sexism, heterosexual intimacy positions women as romantic and emotional partners driven by men's sexual and reproductive needs (Ayan, 2014). This intimacy involves commitment and affection towards women yet still upholds the male-dominated order and facilitates the perpetuation of patriarchy.

Social Dominance Orientation

Social dominance orientation is a personality trait that predicts socio-political attitudes and reflects an individual's level of support for social hierarchy and dominance of some groups over others (Pratto et al., 1994). Developed by Pratto and colleagues (1994), social dominance orientation is a measure of an individual's degree of endorsement or opposition to existing group-based hierarchies and the associated inequalities. It characterizes the inclination towards favoring in-group dominance over out-groups.

Social dominance orientation is linked to various forms of prejudice, including racism, sexism, and xenophobia (Whitley & Lee, 2000; Sibley & Duckitt, 2008). This connection is mediated by the endorsement of legitimizing myths that justify intergroup inequalities (Jost & Banaji, 1994; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Extensive research has shown that individuals with high social dominance orientation tend to favor hierarchies and endorse ideologies that promote inequality (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999; Pratto et al., 2006).

Social dominance orientation is not only a predictor of negative intergroup outcomes but also relates to personal beliefs and behaviors regarding economic policies, political systems, and criminal justice. Individuals with high social dominance orientation levels are more likely to oppose policies aimed at reducing inequality, such as affirmative action (Federico & Sidanius, 2002), welfare (Pratto et al., 1994), and more likely to support harsh criminal punishments (Green et al., 2009).

Sidanius and Pratto (1999) intend to develop a comprehensive and multidisciplinary theory that addresses intergroup conflict and oppression and culminated their ideas in formulating Social Dominance Theory (SDT). Social Dominance Theory proposes that human societies are naturally group-based and are hierarchically structured based on various characteristics such as religion, language, race, gender, and socioeconomic status. At the top of this hierarchical structure are one or several dominant and governing groups, while disadvantaged groups are located at the lower levels of the hierarchy (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999; Sidanius & Pratto, 2004).

They posited that human societies tend to form hierarchies characterized by marked power and social status disparities. This hierarchical arrangement classifies social groups into dominant and subordinate categories. A pivotal component of this social structure is the distribution of social value, which manifests positively as elevated social status, wealth, power, and access to superior healthcare, housing, and nutrition. In contrast, negative social value is characterized by lower social status, diminished power, high-risk employment, acute negative enforcements, and poorer healthcare, housing, and nutrition.

Dominant groups typically control a disproportionately large share of positive social value and resources, while subordinate groups bear negative social value disproportionately. The primary goal of Social Dominance Theory is to establish the mechanisms by which this hierarchical system of social groups is maintained (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

Sidanius and Pratto (1999) distinguish between "group-based" and "individual-based" social hierarchies. Within an individual-based social hierarchy, people are thought to possess positive social value due to their greatly valued characteristics, such as high intelligence or talent in one or more professional spheres. However, individuals' positive social values are not devoid of influences from the positive social values of their group. Furthermore, social dominance theory posits that social group-based hierarchies consist of three central systems, making the group-based hierarchies trimorphic in structure. The systems are comprised of the gender system, the age system, and the arbitrary-set system. The gender system is defined by the disproportionate distribution of political and social power favoring men over women. The age system is defined by the disproportionate distribution of social power between middle-aged people and adults over younger adults and children. Finally, the arbitrary-set system includes social stratification based on various characteristics (i.e., race, ethnicity, social class, caste, and religious affiliation).

The comprehensive framework of Social Dominance Theory is built upon three main assumptions. Firstly, Sidanius and Pratto (1999) state that although gender and age systems are likely to play a role in the functioning of all societies, arbitrary-set systems will inevitably be formed within societies, creating long-lasting economic overabundance. Secondly, they posit that most types of oppression and intergroup conflict, such as nationalism, sexism, racism, or homophobia, can be explained as varying exhibitions of a tendency for people to form hierarchical social systems. Thirdly, Sidanius and Pratto propose that hierarchy-enhancing (supporting hierarchy) and hierarchy-attenuating (supporting equality) influences impact all hierarchical social systems. The degree of

support for legitimizing myths varies from individual to individual, depending on how extensively they support or reject the hierarchical social group system.

Cognitive Flexibility

The definition of cognitive flexibility remains a topic of ongoing debate in contemporary research. However, a common theme identified across various definitions is to modify cognitive structures in response to changing environmental conditions, enabling adaptive behavioral adjustments (Dennis & VanderWal, 2010). The term is one of the aspects of executive functioning. Executive functions are essential for successfully adapting to a changing environment. Executive functions refer to overcoming automatic thoughts and reactions in new and challenging situations and engaging in goal-directed actions (Garon, Bryson & Smith, 2008).

Cognitive flexibility commonly refers to the ability to shift cognitive set, thought, aptitude, or attention to perceive, process, or respond to situations differently (Eslinger & Gratan, 1993). Simply put, cognitive flexibility is the capability to adaptively switch between different mental strategies or approaches as the external context changes (Moore & Malinowski, 2009)

Studies on cognitive flexibility can be traced back to the 1940s, initially concentrating on the difficulty individuals experienced in altering their thinking patterns, even when better solutions existed. Scott (1962) described cognitive flexibility as the ability to adapt one's cognitive processes and behaviors in response to environmental or context changes. Research by Luchins (1942) revealed that individuals often persisted in applying the exact solutions they initially found successful, even when simpler alternatives were available for new challenges. Those who can reevaluate and adjust their solutions demonstrate cognitive flexibility, are typically adept at inductive reasoning, and show a propensity for enhanced creativity in their problem-solving approach (De Dreu et al., 2011).

When an individual performs a complex task, their behaviors must be adapted to the environmental conditions in which the task is performed. However, these conditions continue to change as the task develops and to be flexible, the individual must focus on these conditions regularly. In addition to this, individuals need to restructure their knowledge to interpret the new situation and new task requirements efficiently (Cañas, Fajardo, & Salmerón & Abascal, 2006).

Spiro and Jehng (1990) proposed the Cognitive Flexibility Theory and defined the concept as the ability of an individual to be adaptive and re-assemble his elements of knowledge and develop responses to fit the needs of a given situation (as cited in Cañas et al., 2006). According to Martin and Anderson (1998), cognitive flexibility involves skills like being aware of the feasible alternatives that can be created in interpersonal communication, being flexible about adapting to any condition, and having high levels of self-efficiency in different aspects of life. They stated that reported feelings of comfort and safety in communicating with others can be found at higher levels for individuals with higher cognitive flexibility.

Cognitive flexibility has three characteristics: awareness of available alternatives, willingness to be flexible and adapt to situations, and the required level of self-efficiency (Martin & Rubin, 1995). Payne and colleagues (1993) state that cognitive flexibility can be developed through learning and requires experience. It involves adapting cognitive processing strategies and is a process of adapting to new and unexpected changes after performing a task (as cited in Cañas et al., 2006).

Cañas and colleagues (2006) explained the concept of cognitive flexibility through four sub-concepts. Cognitive blockade can be defined as the tendency to insist on the first course of action in situations where the individual needs to implement alternative actions. This phenomenon is related to cognitive inflexibility, and with cognitive blockades, the individual seems to be focused on specific aspects of the task while ignoring others. The second is cognitive hysteresis, or cognitive narrowing, which is the tendency to stick with

the same behavior or way of thinking even though the thinking or behavior has been proved wrong. This phenomenon highlights the existence of a false diagnosis of the situation. The third concept is functional fixation, which explains the state of the individuals' perceptions as rigid or fixed. This phenomenon results in the impossibility of using available resources to overcome the barriers between the current and desired states. In cognitive flexibility, finding a new function or using the same elements with a different strategy is necessary. Lastly, functional reduction is the tendency to reduce the problem to a single cause without considering others. These four phenomena lead to a fixed action or impede a problem's solution. Although these explanations are different, they all share a point in common: they propose the existence of a failure in the process of the evaluation of the situation that leads to a failure in its execution. Cognitively flexible individuals lack the tendencies of cognitive blockade, cognitive hysteresis, functional fixation, and functional reduction.

Eslinger and Grattan (1993) emphasized the collective cognitive process contributing to flexible cognitive behavior, such as producing diverse ideas, considering response alternatives, and modifying behaviors and plans to manage changing circumstances and long-term goals. They dichotomized the terms reactive flexibility and spontaneous flexibility.

Reactive flexibility can be defined as the ability to freely shift behavior or cognition to respond to changing tasks and situational demands. Two distinct types of reactive shifts have been described: intradimensional and extradimensional. Intradimensional shifts occur when stimulus relevant and irrelevant characteristics remain constant before and after a shift occurs. In contrast, extradimensional shifting occurs when a previously irrelevant stimulus attribute becomes relevant (Rende, 2000).

Spontaneous flexibility represents the ability to produce diverse ideas, consider response alternatives, and modify plans. It can be divided into ideational fluency and semantic spontaneous flexibility. Ideational fluency reflects the ability to produce many

ideas, regardless of uniqueness or quality, whereas semantic spontaneous flexibility is the ability to produce a variety of diverse ideas (Rende, 2000).

When individuals engage in complex tasks, they must adapt their behaviors to their changing environmental conditions and situations. As tasks and responsibilities evolve, so do environmental conditions. This requires individuals to monitor and adjust to these changes continually. Moreover, to adapt behaviors to new situations, individuals must restructure their knowledge to interpret the requirements of new tasks they encounter effectively. This is why the foundation of cognitive flexibility is based on attention and information processing. High levels of attention control are required to detect changes in a situation and to plan non-routine responses. Being cognitively flexible also involves perceiving environmental conditions that could interfere with the task at hand and devising and planning a new series of actions to effectively address new task demands by canceling automatic responses and reallocating resources (Canas et al., 2006).

Individuals with high cognitive flexibility modify their cognitions in response to environmental circumstances. Their ability to generate solutions when facing challenging situations in their lives and their capacity to perceive alternatives for solutions are indicators of cognitive flexibility (Dennis & Vander Wal, 2010). The concept of cognitive flexibility is explained not only through cognitive processes but can also be observed through behaviors. Behaviors such as transitioning between current tasks, managing multiple tasks simultaneously, and developing strategies for solutions are observable indications of cognitive flexibility (Eslinger and Grattan, 1993).

Precarious Manhood

Men often respond to challenges in career or family life with self-criticism, expressing doubts about their masculinity by saying things like "I am not a real man." This suggests that many men perceive their manhood as fragile. On the other hand, women might question their femininity in the context of physical changes, such as after undergoing a mastectomy or hysterectomy, reflecting a different set of societal expectations and pressures. In many

cultures, womanhood is an enduring aspect of identity that remains intact despite deviations from traditional gender norms (Vandello et al., 2008).

From an early age, boys learn that they can only “be a man” by continually reaffirming to others that they possess the traits society deems essential (Heinrich, 2012). Theorists from various disciplines portray manhood as both an elusive and tenuous social status. The elusiveness is because, in most cultures, the transition from boyhood to manhood is not just given but must be earned (Gilmore, 1990, p. 11). Despite their cultural differences, demonstrations of manhood in an active and public form seem common (Vandello et al., 2008; Heinrich, 2012). In Türkiye, societal expectations of hegemonic society encompass achieving certain milestones such as having one's first sexual experience before college, completing military service, securing employment, marrying, supporting a family, and maintaining a physically challenging appearance (Onur & Koyuncu, 2004; Sancar, 2009 as cited in Türkoğlu 2019).

Maleness is a concept that presents at birth, but manhood status is earned and conferred socially. However, once earned, manhood status can be lost relatively easily with social transgressions and shortcomings, making it tenuous. By collaboration, these structural features of male gender roles combine to form what we refer to as precarious manhood (Bosson & Vandello, 2011).

Because of the precarious nature of manhood for men, they may try to prove their worth in various ways and actions when it is threatened. Numerous studies indicate that physical aggression is often seen by men as an effective strategy to safeguard their masculinity (Bosson et al., 2009; Bosson & Vandello, 2011; Weaver et al., 2010).

According to Vandello and his colleagues' (2008) conceptualization, the anxious and insecure context of the social structure of manhood remains stable over time. This insecurity leads to needs that should be achieved. In this vein, they introduce the uncertain, anxious, and threat-prone social status of masculinity and coined the term precarious manhood. This precarity makes men vigilant about the challenges to their masculinity because it can

destroy their hardly-achieved societal status. When threats challenge manhood status, masculinity represents itself in a violent, aggressive, and sexual form.

Threatened Masculinity Theory contents that, hypermasculinity and other forms of performing masculinity occur because of the changing gender roles throughout the 20th century, which was an era that brought increasing gender equality and societal changes. Consequently, men were left with fewer areas in which they were dominant, and this left them questioning the role of masculinity itself within society. Men began physically compensating for these vague standards, leading to hypermasculinity. Threatened masculinity theory has been linked to hypermasculinity and other forms of masculine behaviors. Hypermasculinity is associated with power and strength (Hunt et al., 2013).

Studies show that men tend to overcompensate their masculine performances following a threat. In the circumstance of a threat to masculinity, men will retaliate by being overly masculine to reinstate their standing in the gender hierarchy. Men show implications of the precariousness of masculinity and overcompensate even in the condition of the slightest threat. Following these threats, men explicitly report more masculine attitudes, such as dominance over women and homophobia (Willer, et al., 2013).

Research posits that men may display their manhood with behaviors like drinking heavily, driving fast, excelling in sports, making much money, bragging about their sexual exploits, and fathering many children. In the circumstance of perceived threat, men show a decreased liking for other non-prototypical members of their gender in-group, projected assumptions of homosexuality onto a male target, sexually harassed a woman, and overestimated their height and sexual experience (Vandello et al., 2008).

Studies on Ambivalent Sexism

Ambivalent sexism, introduced by Glick and Fiske (1996), is a framework that captures the complex and dual nature of gender biases, consisting of both hostile and benevolent sexism. Hostile sexism refers to overtly negative attitudes toward women who

challenge traditional gender roles, while benevolent sexism encompasses seemingly positive but patronizing attitudes that reinforce traditional gender roles and power dynamics (Glick & Fiske, 1996). A systematic review by Bareket and Fiske (2023) examined over 650 studies and identified five main domains in ambivalent sexism research: social ideologies, violence, workplace dynamics, stereotypes, and intimate relationships. This review underscored that hostile sexism directly reinforces male power through antagonistic prejudices, while benevolent sexism subtly enforces traditional gender norms through paternalistic attitudes.

Sexism is embedded in most of the daily practices including one's perception of beauty standards. Forbes and colleagues (2007) collected data from 353 university students, showing that the practices and endorsement of restrictive Western beauty standards were linked with increased hostility towards women, general traditional sexism, hostile sexism, and, to a lesser extent, benevolent sexism.

Chapleau and colleagues (2007) in their study with university students as participants, stated that hostile sexism positively correlated with rape myth acceptance. For benevolent sexism, the subscale of complementary gender differentiation was positively correlated with rape myth acceptance, whereas the protective paternalism subscale was negatively associated.

In Gaunt's study (2013), 311 participants were presented with a description of individuals who were either the primary breadwinners or caregivers, described as male or female. As a result, hostile sexism predicted more negative perceptions of a female breadwinner, whereas BS predicted more positive perceptions of a female caretaker.

By using two cross-sectional samples in the United States, Grubbs and colleagues (2014) tested their hypotheses that psychological entitlement would be a predictor of ambivalent sexism, but this relationship may vary by gender. Results show that psychological entitlement is a powerful predictor of ambivalent sexism in both genders. In

women, entitlement was a consistent predictor of benevolent sexism, whereas it was a consistent predictor of hostile sexism in men.

To examine levels of hostile and benevolent sexism across genders and sexual identities, including gay/lesbian, bisexual, and heterosexual individuals, Cowie and colleagues (2019), conducted their research with 18266 participants. Their findings indicated that, among different groups, men, in comparison to women, and heterosexuals, in comparison to lesbian/gay and bisexuals, exhibited significant hostile sexism and benevolent sexism among other groups. Gay men had the lowest levels of benevolent sexism, and heterosexual men had the highest levels, with bisexual men's scores falling in between those of gay and heterosexual men.

In their study, Fisher and Hammond (2019) discovered that men with higher attachment avoidance were more likely to endorse hostile sexism. This is likely because such men, especially those in relationships, face greater challenges to their autonomy, such as needing support or feeling rejected by their partners. Hostile sexism may be relatively appealing in this context because hostile beliefs toward women in general can function to regulate negative affect, such as felt vulnerability, by redirecting that negativity toward "manipulative" women in society (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2007 as cited in Fisher & Hammond, 2019). Additionally, attachment avoidance in men was linked to lower benevolent sexism, with men in relationships showing a stronger tendency toward hostile sexism compared to single men.

Studies on Social Dominance Orientation

According to Pratto et al. (1994), social dominance orientation not only predicts general social conservatism and hierarchical endorsement but also specifically fosters gender-based hierarchies through support for both hostile and benevolent sexism. Empirical research demonstrates that higher social dominance orientation is associated with more vigorous endorsements of traditional gender roles, which are foundational to the structure

of ambivalent sexism (Sibley et al., 2007). These findings suggest that individuals with high social dominance orientation see inequalities between genders as natural and desirable, thereby legitimizing discriminatory practices and paternalistic attitudes towards women. Moreover, because social dominance orientation influences both overtly antagonistic and ostensibly protective forms of sexism, it plays a crucial role in the perpetuation and reinforcement of complex sexist attitudes that can both harm and subtly undermine women (Christopher & Mull, 2006).

Numerous studies conducted worldwide indicated that social dominance orientation predicts the endorsement of ideologies and policies that increase hierarchies (e.g., racism, sexism, conservatism, nationalism, gender-specific system justification, objectification of women, right-wing authoritarianism) (Pratto et al., 1994; Pratto, 1999; Van Hiel & Mervielde, 2005; Sidanius et al, 1997; Levin et al., 2012). Furthermore, social dominance orientation is negatively associated with myths that reduce hierarchies (e.g., feminism, socialism) (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999; Levin et al., 2012).

A study by Russell and Trigg (2004) explored the predictive relationship between social dominance orientation and tolerance of sexual harassment using a sample of 457 undergraduate students. When compared to women, men scored higher on social dominance orientation, sexual harassment tolerance, hostile sexism, benevolent sexism, and masculinity. Moreover, social dominance orientation, hostile sexism, and benevolent sexism correlated positively with sexual harassment tolerance.

Sibley and colleagues (2007) worked with a 340 men population and stated that social dominance orientation was moderately positively associated with hostile sexism and weakly related to benevolent sexism. Their longitudinal analyses confirm that social dominance orientation predicts an increase in hostile sexism but not in benevolent sexism over time. They stated that individual differences in men's endorsement of benevolent sexism stem from a threat-driven motivation for social control, cohesion, and security.

Individual differences in men's expression of hostile sexism, in contrast, stem from a competitive-driven motivation for intergroup dominance and superiority.

According to Christopher and Wojda's (2008) research conducted with 349 adult people, mediational analyses show that hostile sexism attenuated the relationship between social dominance orientation and skepticism of women's employment and traditional role preference. Besides, the research shows that those who have high social dominance orientations are more likely than are low in social dominance orientation to hold negative attitudes towards women as managers.

Nicol and Rounding (2013), in their research they conducted with 205 adult participants, stated that both alienation and empathy are mediators between social dominance orientation and ambivalent sexism.

In their meta-analysis, Perry and colleagues (2013) investigated the relationship between competitive and dangerous worldviews, social dominance orientation, and right-wing authoritarianism. The findings suggest that social dominance orientation strongly correlates with the competitive worldview and negatively correlates with altruism, tolerance, and concern for others.

Working with a sample of 5697 adults New Zealanders, Fraser and colleagues (2015) sought to investigate the relationship between social dominance orientation and attitudes toward gender-based affirmative action, with the possible moderating role of benevolent sexism. The authors suggested that affirmative action may be one way of actualizing these paternalistic beliefs. Results show that social dominance orientation was positively associated with opposition to gender-based affirmative action. Nevertheless, they also stated that the protective and paternalistic beliefs contained within the ideology of benevolent sexism reliably cushion this bias by attenuating the relationship between social dominance orientation and opposition to gender-based affirmative action. This result is in line with what Jackman (1994) points out: inequality is best maintained through the sweet persuasion of paternalism rather than through overt conflict and hostility.

Studies on Cognitive Flexibility

Cognitive flexibility, defined as the mental ability to switch between thinking and behavior in response to changing goals and environments (Martin & Anderson, 1998; Zhu & Deng, 2023), is thought to significantly influence discriminative behaviors (Levin et al., 2016). Then again, cognitive flexibility was mostly studied and documented as a result of such discriminative behaviors on the subjects of discrimination (Zhu & Deng, 2023; Keating et al., 2021).

In a pioneering study on gender roles, Carter (1985) discovered that individuals with androgynous traits had notably higher cognitive flexibility scores than those with feminine or undifferentiated gender roles. Interestingly, Carter's research also indicated that participants with intensely masculine traits demonstrated cognitive flexibility levels similar to androgynous individuals, surpassing those with lower masculinity scores. Furthermore, the study revealed significant gender-based differences in cognitive flexibility, with men performing better than women on these tasks. The authors posit that adopting nontraditional gender roles increases cognitive flexibility.

According to Levin and his colleagues (2016), psychological inflexibility and perspective-taking are essential predictors of many specific discriminatory attitudes. Similarly, Davis and colleagues (2021) stated that perspective-taking and individuals' anti-sexist behaviors are highly associated.

The comprehensive study involving 452 university students, Tüfekçibaşı and Şahin (2021) suggests that as cognitive flexibility increases, so does an egalitarian attitude toward gender roles and reveals that cognitive flexibility is a significant variable influencing gender role attitudes. This finding has profound implications for understanding and addressing gender-based discrimination.

Zhu and Deng's (2023) research involving 221 adults found that cognitive flexibility can act as a buffer against discrimination-induced anxiety. They also discovered that

emotional regulation difficulty played a mediating role in the relationship between discrimination and anxiety, with cognitive flexibility having a solid moderating effect. Similarly, Keating et al. (2021), using a racially diverse sample of 319 adults, found that recent exposure to racial discrimination was negatively associated with cognitive flexibility, highlighting the detrimental impact of discrimination on cognitive flexibility.

Studies on Precarious Manhood

Precarious manhood, the theory that manhood is not a stable status, but rather men must continually prove through culturally defined criteria, significantly influences ambivalent sexism. This concept posits that threats to their gender status might drive men to exhibit behaviors that affirm their masculinity, often aligning with traditional gender roles and norms (Bosson et al., 2009).

Research highlights that when men perceive their masculinity as threatened, they may be more likely to engage in aggressive behaviors (Bosson et al., 2009), sexual harassment (Maass et al., 2003), or take financial risks (Weaver et al., 2013) as compensatory measures to reaffirm their maleness state.

Research conducted by Vandello et al. (2008) indicates that such threats can increase hostile and benevolent sexism as a compensatory mechanism. This behavior seems to reassure the threatened individual of their masculinity through dominance over women (hostile sexism) or by positioning themselves as protectors of women (benevolent sexism). The adherence to these norms under the pressure of proving manhood reveals how precarious manhood can foster attitudes that uphold gender inequality, thereby reinforcing ambivalent sexist attitudes (Bosson et al., 2009).

In their research, Bosson and colleagues (2009) challenged men's gender status, which resulted in heightened physically aggressive displays, such as an aggressive boxing activity over a puzzle activity.

Kasumovic and Kuznekoff (2015) researched an online first-person shooter video game. They found that lower-skilled players were more hostile towards a female-voiced teammate; in reverse, lower-skilled players displayed submissive behavior towards a male-voiced player in the identical scenario. They posit that low-status males increase female-directed hostility to minimize the loss of status due to the reorganization of the hierarchy due to a woman entering the competitive environment.

Dahl and colleagues (2015) explored whether threats to masculinity prompted men's efforts to re-establish their power over women by endorsing ideologies that subtly subordinate women and occurred when women in masculine domains outperformed men. Men's behaviors sequentially led to worries about their social image, increased anger, and a more robust endorsement of social dominance orientation and benevolent sexism.

Türkoğlu and Cingöz-Ulu (2019) collected data from 307 adult men and investigated the effect of masculinity ideology and perceived threat to manhood to violence against women in Türkiye. Results show that endorsement of masculinity ideology and perceived threat to manhood predicts tolerant attitudes towards violence against women.

According to DiMuccio and Knowles's (2020) research, conducted with 502 males, men's concern about failing to meet masculine standards leads them to support aggressive policies and politicians. Their results indicated that politics is a domain in which males are anxious about their masculinity levels and attempt to affirm their status as "real men."

Chapter 3

Methodology

In this section, the methodology and details related to the research sampling are first presented. Subsequently, information regarding the data collection instruments is shared, followed by details about the statistical methods used in the processing and analysis stages.

Type of Research

This study aims to examine the relationship between the criterion variable, ambivalent sexism, and predictor variables of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood. It intends to explore whether predictor variables predict two subfactors of ambivalent sexism, benevolent sexism and hostile sexism.

The current work was a quantitative correlational study. Quantitative research refers to studies in which the outcomes are derived mainly from statistical analyses and summarization. In explanatory studies, researchers often investigate a number of variables they believe are related to a complex variable (Fraenkel et al., 2012). In quantitative research, the relationship between two or more variables is examined without trying to influence the variables. Correlational research is one of the quantitative methods and provides a basis for making predictions. Correlational research aims to explore relationships between naturally occurring variables to identify predictive relationships. Surveys are frequently used in correlational research, which is highly effective for achieving the scientific goals of description and prediction (Shaughnessy et al., 2000).

Convenient sampling was used in recruiting participants for the study. A convenience sample is a group of individuals who are conveniently available for study. Convenient sampling helps the researcher feel reachable and facilitated. (Fraenkel, et al. 2012).

Research Group and Sample/Study Group/Participants

For the general aim of the study, young adult men between the ages of 18 and 35 were chosen as the research group. During the data collection process, participants were asked about their sexual orientation, and only the responses of those who identified as "heterosexual male" were included in the study. Data for the study were collected online and the link to the Google Forms, which included the scales used in the study, the demographic information form, and the informed consent form, was shared through social media platforms (e.g., Instagram, WhatsApp, LinkedIn, Facebook).

The research group included 452 volunteer participants. Volunteerism was considered necessary, and only people who accepted the Volunteer Participant Form were included in the research.

32.1% of the participants (n = 145) were aged 18-23, 38.3% (n = 173) were aged 24-29, and 29.6% (n = 134) were aged 30-35. In terms of education levels, 0.4% (n = 2) had a middle school degree, 10.8% (n = 49) had a high school degree, 7.7% (n = 35) had an associate's degree, 66.7% (n = 301) had a bachelor's degree, 12.8% (n = 58) had a master's degree, and 1.5% (n = 7) had a doctorate's degree. Among the participants, 38.9% (n = 176) were currently in a relationship, while 61.1% (n = 276) were not.

Data Collection

To reach the participants and administer the data collection tools, the first step involved obtaining permission from the developers of these tools, and these permissions were secured with email (Appendix-A). Then, ethical permission was obtained from the Hacettepe University Social Sciences and Humanities Research Ethics Board. Participants completed the scales via Google Forms, an online survey provider. The study notice is published online to inform the participants about the study's aim. The participants approved the Volunteer Participant Form before filling out the scales. They completed the following four scales in this specific order: Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI), Social Dominance

Scale (SDO7), Cognitive Flexibility Scale (CFI), and Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale (PTMS). The data for the study is collected between February 2024 – April 2024. Completing all of the items in the scales takes 20-30 minutes.

Instruments

In this study, four data collection tools were used, and information about these tools is provided below.

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (AMI):

The inventory developed by Glick and Fiske (1996) involved 22 items to assess the participants' hostile and benevolent sexism levels. Participants rate the items on a 6-point Likert scale from "I strongly disagree" (1) to "I strongly agree" (6). Higher scores correspond to higher level of ambivalent sexism. Glick and Fiske reported that Cronbach's alpha values for the scale ranged from .83 to .92. For the hostile sexism subfactor, Cronbach's alpha was found in the range of .80 and .92; for the benevolent sexism subfactor, Cronbach's alphas were found in the range of .73 and .85. The adaptation of the inventory for the Turkish language and culture was conducted by Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002). Cronbach's alpha for the scale was found to be .85. The computed test-retest reliability coefficient was .87, and the original factor structure was replicated in the study. The scale had sufficiently high reliability and good validity to use as a measurement of sexism in Türkiye.

In the current study, Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale was computed to be .91. For the subfactors, Cronbach's alpha values were .93 for hostile sexism and .82 for benevolent sexism.

Social Dominance Orientation Scale (SDO):

The Social Dominance Orientation Scale is a 16-item self-report scale developed by Ho and colleagues (2015) to assess individuals' social dominance orientation levels. Participants rate the items on a 7-point Likert scale from "Strongly disagree" (1) and "Strongly agree" (7). As scores increase, so do the levels of social dominance orientation. In

the original study, Ho and colleagues calculated the internal consistency of two subscales of the scale as .82-.90 and .82-.93. Kaynak and colleagues (2020) adapted the scales to the Turkish language and culture, with an internal consistency coefficient of .90 and .87 for two separate samples.

In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale was computed to be .89. For the subfactors, the Cronbach's alpha values were .81 for alternatives and .88 for the control subfactor.

Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI):

The Cognitive Flexibility Inventory (CFI) is a 20-item self-report scale developed by Dennis and Vander Wal (2010), which focuses on assessing individuals' ability to produce alternative, adaptive, balanced thoughts in challenging situations. In the original inventory, participants rated the items on a 7-point Likert scale, from "Strongly disagree" (1) to "Strongly agree" (7). Higher scores correspond to higher level of cognitive flexibility. For the original scale, internal consistency is calculated as .91, and the Cronbach alpha values were .86 for the control subfactor and .91 for the alternatives subfactor. The scale's adaptation to the Turkish language and culture is made by Gülüm ve Dağ (2012) and they kept the two-factored structure of the scale but simplified the Likert scale from 7 to 5. The Cronbach alpha for the overall scale was .90, underscoring its applicability and relevance in diverse cultural contexts.

In the current study, Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale was computed to be .93. For the subfactors, Cronbach's alpha values were both .88 for alternatives and control subfactors.

The Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale (PTMS):

The Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale (PTMS) was developed by Türkoğlu (2013) as a measurement of precarious manhood. Scale asked the participants to imagine given situations as if they were real and state how annoyed they felt with them. The scale

consisted of 45 items and was measured with a 7-point Likert scale from “I do not feel annoyed at all” (1) and “I extremely feel annoyed” (7). Higher scores correspond to higher level of precarious manhood. The scale had five subscales: the threat of subordination to women, the threat to the protector role, the threat to decision-maker authority, the threat to breadwinner status, and the threat to the tough image. The Cronbach alpha values between subscales range from .79 to .92.

In the current study, the Cronbach's alpha for the overall scale was computed to be .89. For the subfactors, the Cronbach's alpha values were .89 for the threat of subordination to women, .90 for the threat to the protector role, .76 for the threat to decisionmaker authority, .76 for the threat to breadwinner status and .80 for the threat to the tough image subfactor.

Data Analysis

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 29 was used for the statistical analysis. Responses with reverse-coded items were corrected, and any incomplete or inaccurately coded participant responses were removed from the dataset. Preliminary analysis included calculating descriptive statistics, reliability analysis for the scales, and assessment of normality for criterion variables. Normality assumptions were evaluated by examining the normal distribution of error, outliers, histogram chart, homogeneity of the variance, independence of errors, linearity, and multi-connectivity for the criterion variable.

Z-scores were calculated from the scale scores and examined to ensure these z-scores fell within the ± 3.30 range for outliers (Howell, 2010). The Skewness and Kurtosis values were also calculated for all variables. All skewness and kurtosis values were within the range of (-.864) to (.739), which is considered necessary for normality testing. All skewness and kurtosis values that fall between -1 and 1 indicate that the data distribution has approximately normal outliers (Howell, 2010).

Multiple linear regression analysis was used in this work to explore the relationships between multiple predictor variables (social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, precarious manhood) and a criterion variable (ambivalent sexism). Multiple linear regression analysis allows you to examine how multiple predictor variables collectively influence a single criterion variable.

This technique helps to understand the combined effect of these predictors on the outcome variable. Multiple regression analysis provides coefficients for each predictor variable, indicating the strength and direction of their relationship with the criterion variable. This allows determining which predictors have the most significant impact on ambivalent sexism and its subfactors, and to what extent each predictor contributes to the variance in the criterion variable (Howell, 2010).

Cronbach's alpha values for all scales and necessary subscales were calculated and cross-validated with those of the original studies. The reliability scores for the scales and sub-scales were consistent with the scores from the original studies.

For demographic variables with two categories (relationship status), the independent group's t-test method was used to compare the scores of the four scales across groups. For demographic variables with more than two categories (education status, age), the one-way analysis of variance method (ANOVA) was employed. Because the education status did not create a fitting distribution, the education groups were merged to create a better distribution between samples. For education status, The Scheffe and for age, the Tukey multiple comparison method was used to determine between which groups the significant difference obtained from ANOVA existed. Statistical analyses were examined at a significance level of $p < .05$.

Correlation analysis was conducted to explore the relationship between the research variables, namely ambivalent sexism, social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and perceived threat to manhood. Multiple linear regression was used to determine whether the total scores for social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood

predict the total scores of ambivalent sexism and the subscales of hostile sexism and benevolent sexism. Multiple linear regression exhibits the relationship between one criterion variable and multiple predictor variables (Kılıç, 2013).

Chapter 4

Findings, Comments, and Discussion

In this section, the findings obtained are presented in detail, focusing on the problem and sub-problems of the study. The results of the regression analysis conducted to determine whether ambivalent sexism and its subfactors are predicted by social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood are focused on. Then, the differences in young adult men's ambivalent sexism, social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood scores according to relationship status, age, and education level are examined in detail, and the findings are presented.

Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

Table 1 and Table 2 present the descriptive statistics, including the number of participants, minimum and maximum total scores, means, standard deviations, variance, skewness and kurtosis.

After removing participants with outlier values from the study, results from 452 young adult males were presented. The distribution of participants by age was identified as 18-23 years (32.1%), 24-29 years (38.3%), and 30-35 years (29.6%). The distribution according to educational status was determined as middle school (0.4%), high school (10.8%), associate degree (7.7%), bachelor's degree (66.6%), master's degree (12.8%), and doctorate (1.5%). 61.1% of the participants reported being single, while 38.9% indicated they were in a relationship. The demographic characteristics of the participants were presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Distribution According to Demographic Variables

Variables	Group	Frequency	Percentage
Age	18-23	145	32.1
	24-29	173	38.3
	30-35	134	29.6
Education Status	Elementary	2	0.4

	High School	49	10.8
	Associate's	35	7.7
	Bachelor	301	66.6
	Masters	58	12.8
	Doctorate	7	1.5
Relationship Status	Single	276	61.1
	In-relationship	176	38.9
Total		452	100

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics, including the number of participants, minimum and maximum total scores, means, standard deviations, variance, skewness and kurtosis. Accordingly, the value of skewness ranged between -.864 and .739.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics Related to Ambivalent Sexism and Subfactors, Social Dominance Orientation, Cognitive Flexibility and Precarious Manhood

Variables	Min	Max	\bar{x}	SD	Variance	Skewness	Kurtosis
ASI Total Score	22	129	66.83	21.50	462.201	.059	-.729
ASI-Hostile Sexism	11	66	34.54	14.20	201.69	.211	-.864
ASI-Benevolent Sexism	11	64	32.28	11.11	123.423	.248	-.636
SDO7 Total Score	16	106	43.33	18.52	343.05	.698	.011
CFI Total Score	49	100	80.76	10.48	109.77	-.168	-.348
PTMS Total Score	45	300	175.15	37.18	1382.25	.262	.739

Note: ASI = Ambivalent Sexism Inventory SDO7 = Social Dominance Orientation Scale, CFI= Cognitive Flexibility Inventory,

PTMS= Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale.

Findings on Regression Analysis Assumptions

In this part, the required assumptions for regression analysis and preceding analyses were presented.

The Normal Distribution of the Error

This assumption requires errors to be normally distributed in the frame of the criterion variable (Osborne & Waters, 2002). Field (2013) states that histogram charts and P-P plot charts can be utilized to test this assumption.

The detection of the normal distribution is conducted with a histogram and P-P plot chart for residual values. After examining the charts, it can be said that the errors are distributed normally, as shown in Figure 1 and Figure 2.

Figure 1

Histogram for the Distribution of Criterion Variable

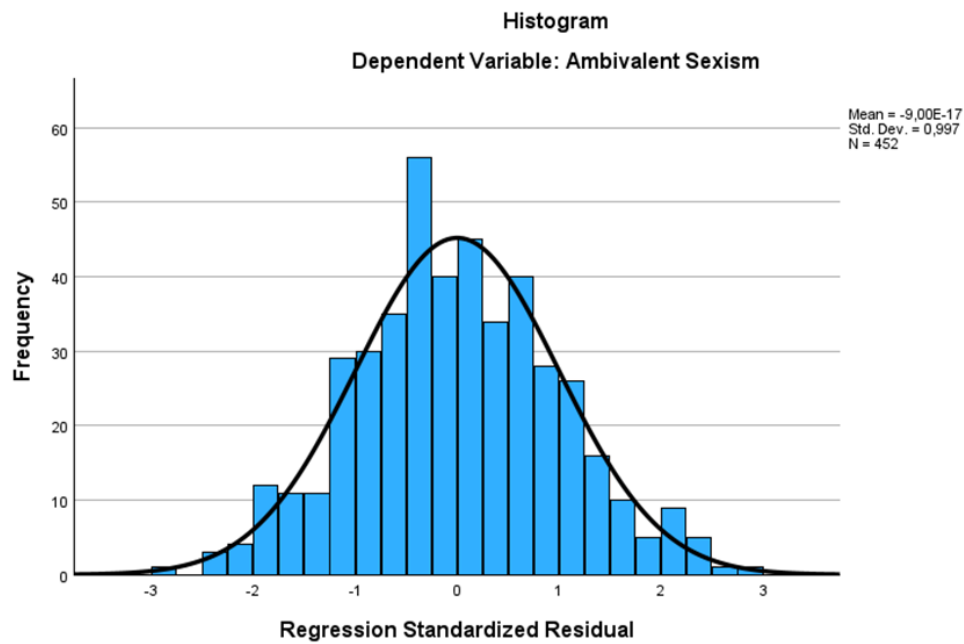
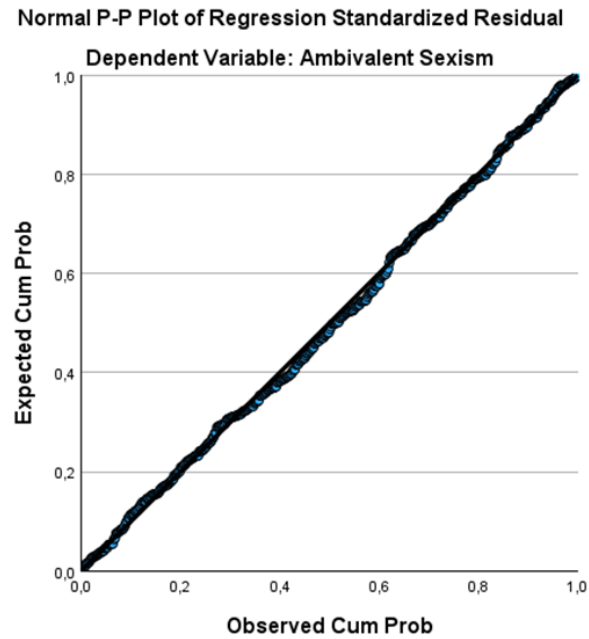


Figure 2

P-P Plot for the Distribution of Criterion Variable



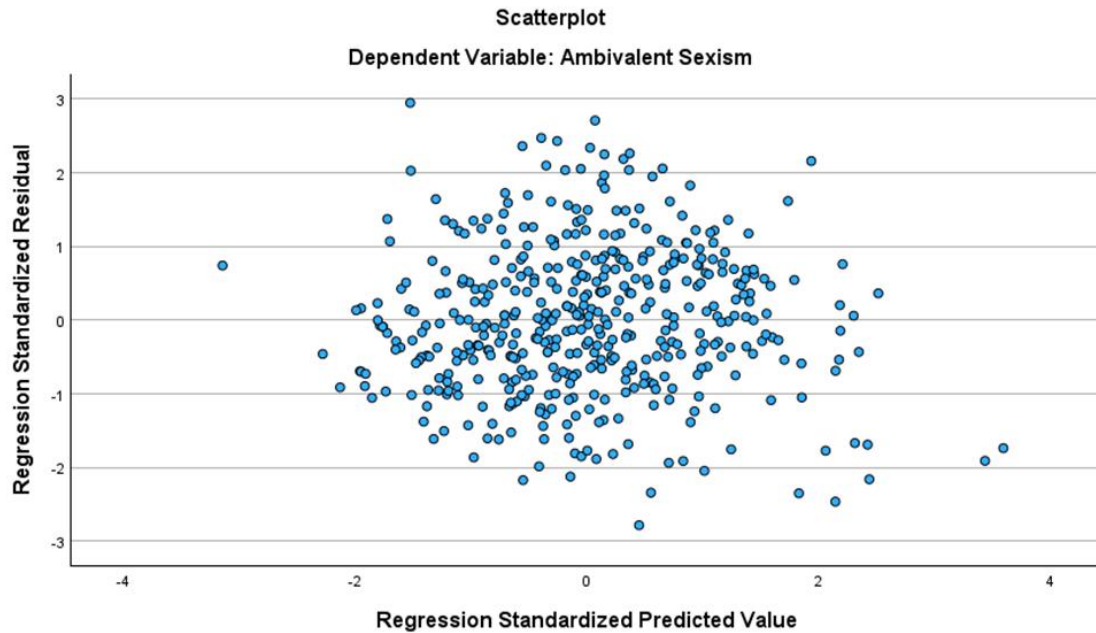
The Homogeneity of Variance

Homogeneity of variances, also known as homoscedasticity, is a fundamental assumption in multiple regression analysis. It means that the variances within each group of data or across different levels of the predictor variables are equal (Osborne & Waters, 2002).

To test the homogeneity of variance assumption, a scatter plot is used. With the acquired data, the dots on the plot are distributed normally and did not form a pattern. This is fitting for the assumption.

Figure 3

Scatterplot for the Homogeneity of Variance



The Independence of the Errors

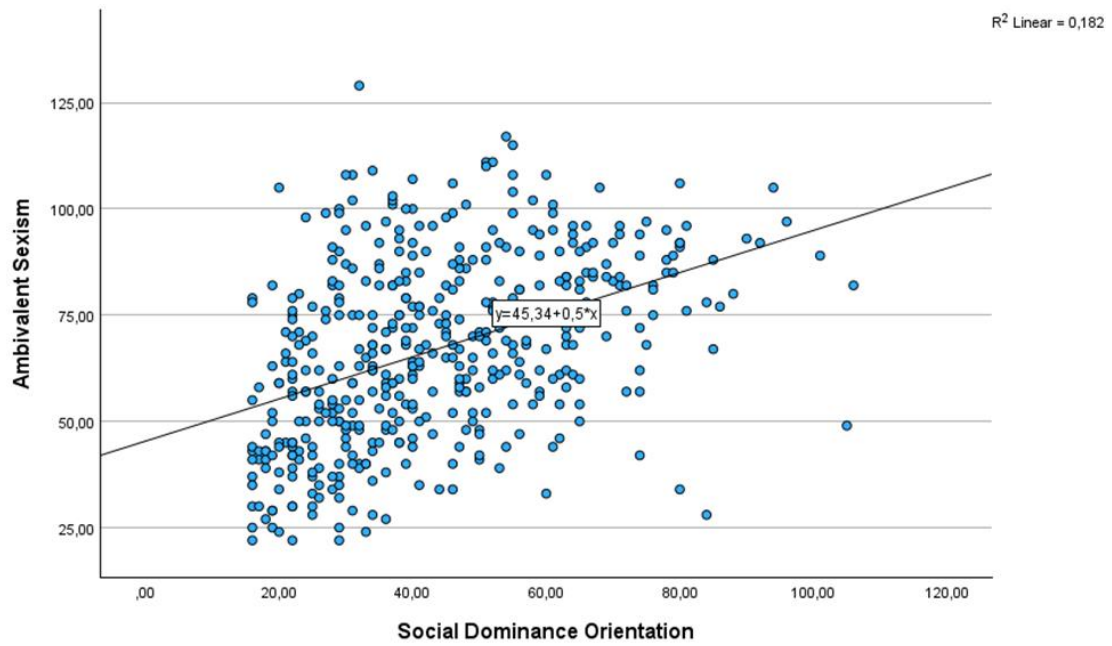
The independence of errors is related to whether errors are related to each other. This is tested with the Durbin-Watson test. Field (2013) states that the statistics value of Durbin-Watson must be close to 2. In this study, the Durbin-Watson statistics value is found to be 2.15. This value fits the independence of errors assumption.

Linearity

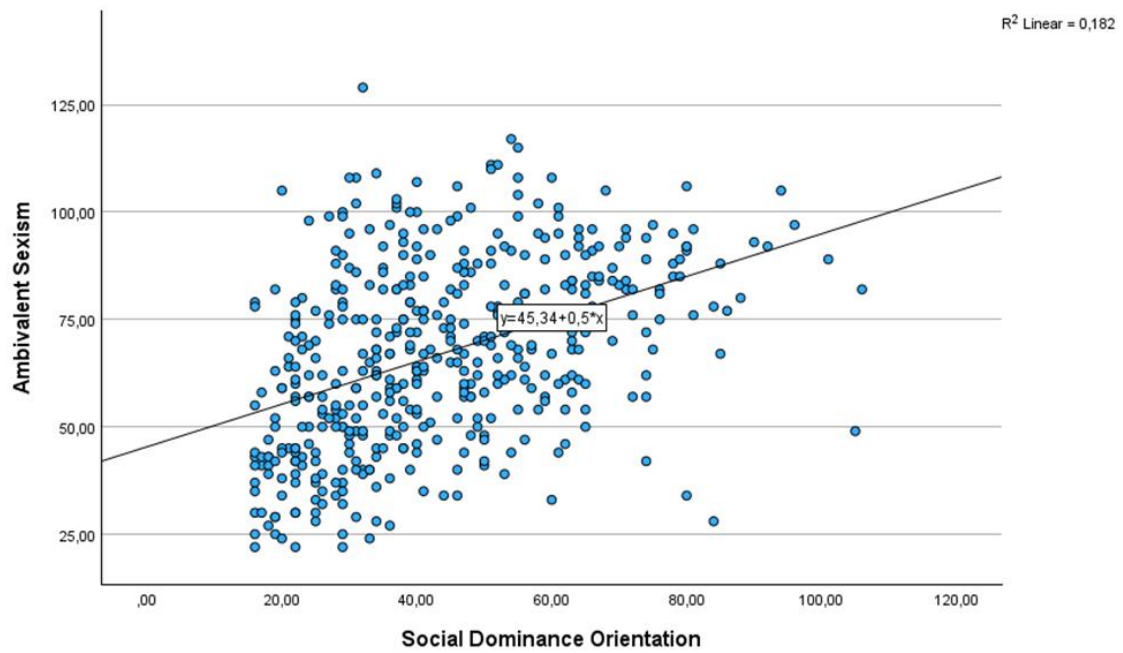
Linearity in multiple regression refers to the assumption that there is a linear relationship between the criterion variable and each predictor variable. (Field, 2013). Ideally, the plot should not show any distinct patterns such as curves, clusters, or fanning which might indicate non-linear relationships or other violations of regression assumptions. When the variables are linearly correlated, the scatter plot will show an oval-shaped distribution (Osborne & Waters, 2002; Tabachnick ve Fidell, 2013). Calculated distributions exhibited an oval-shaped distribution for the variables and plots fit the linearity assumption, as shown in Figure 4, Figure 5, and Figure 6.

Figure 4

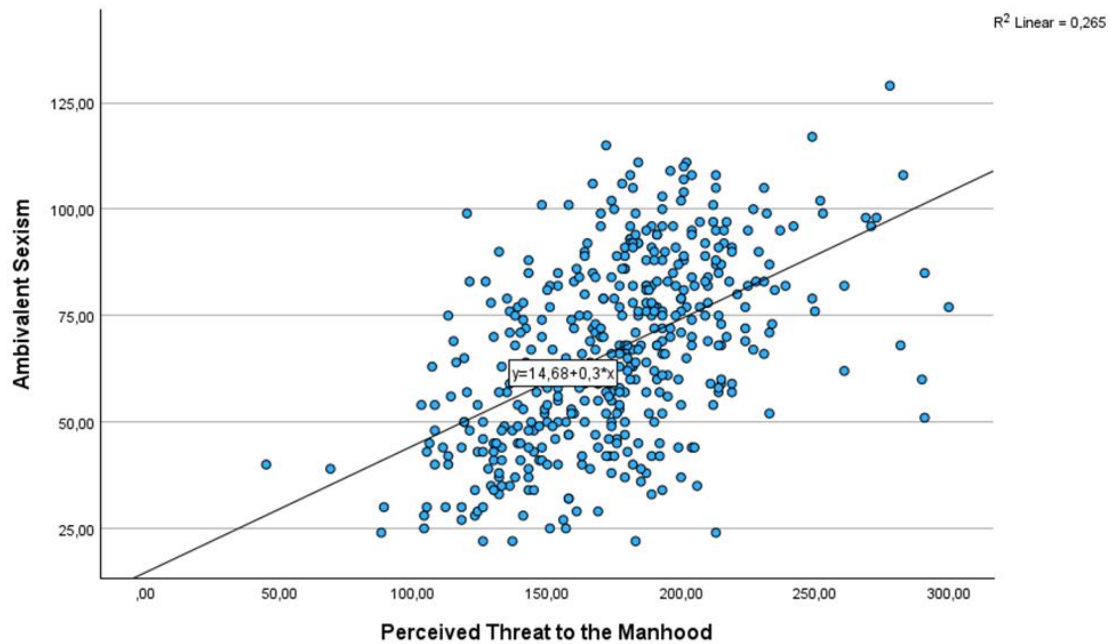
Partial Regression Distribution for Social Dominance Orientation

**Figure 5**

Partial Regression Distribution for Cognitive Flexibility

**Figure 6**

Partial Regression Distribution for Precarious Manhood



Multi-connectivity Between Variables

Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) shows whether the predictor variables are correlated strongly with each other. In the presence of multicollinearity, the standard error increases (Howell, 2010). VIF values for the study are presented in the Table 3. Bowerman and colleagues (2015) state that the VIF value must be around 1, and if it is too far from 1, multicollinearity might be a problem. When examined, VIF values have been found around 1, confirming the assumption. The VIF values are given in Table 3.

Table 3

VIF and Tolerance Values

Predictor Variables	Tolerance	VIF
Social Dominance Orientation	.896	1.117
Cognitive Flexibility	.969	1.032
Perceived Threat to Manhood	.869	1.150

Outliers

One of the assumptions checked for this study is to examine whether the observed values consist of outliers. Cook's Distance was calculated by assessing the change in the regression model when each data point is removed, and for regression analysis, there must

be no outliers. To determine this, Cook's Distance Test is used. The value for Cook's Distance was calculated as .054. This value is below 1.00 and this shows that there are no outliers (Howell, 2010). This confirms that the data for the criterion variable was normally distributed.

Correlations Between Variables

Upon confirming that the data for the criterion variable was normally distributed, Pearson correlation coefficients were examined to assess relationships between variables. A positive, moderate relationship was found between the general scores of ambivalent sexism and the scores of social dominance orientation ($r = 0.427, p < .01$). Similarly, a positive, moderate correlation was detected between the scores of precarious manhood ($r = 0.515, p < .01$). However, no significant relationship was identified between the general scores of ambivalent sexism and cognitive flexibility scores ($r = -0.017, p > .05$).

When examining the hostile sexism component of ambivalent sexism, a positive, moderate relationship was observed between this subdimension and social dominance orientation ($r = 0.496, p < .01$). Likewise, a positive, moderate correlation was found between the hostile sexism subdimension and precarious manhood ($r = 0.523, p < .01$), while no significant correlation existed with cognitive flexibility ($r = 0.003, p > .05$).

Regarding the benevolent sexism component of ambivalent sexism, a positive, low-level relationship was detected between this subdimension and social dominance orientation ($r = 0.193, p < .01$). A positive, moderate correlation was also noted between the benevolent sexism dimension and precarious manhood ($r = 0.323, p < .01$). No significant relationship was found between benevolent sexism and cognitive flexibility ($r = 0.045, p > .05$). The correlation values between predictor variables are given in Table 4.

Table 4

Correlation Between Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6
1.Ambivalent Sexism Total Score	1.000					

2.Hostile Sexism Subfactor Total Score	.885**	1.000				
3.Benevolent Sexism Subfactor Total Score	.804**	.434**	1.000			
4. Social Dominance Orientation Total Score	.427**	.496**	.193**	1.000		
5.Cognitive Flexibility Total Score	-.017	.003	-.037	-.045	1.000	
6.Precarious Manhood Total Score	.515**	.523**	.328**	.323**	-.177	1.000

Findings of the Research Question

The findings around the research question are addressed in this section. In the model, the total scores of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility and precarious manhood were simultaneously processed. The regression model, used to explore the relationships between the predictor variables of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood and participants' scores of benevolent sexism, was significant ($F(3,448) = 79.078, p < .01, R^2 = .342$). The R^2 indicates the percentage of the variability in the criterion variable that is explained by the predictor variables (Field, 2013). 34.2% of the variability in scores of ambivalent sexism can be explained by changes in the participants' social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood scores.

The changes in social domination orientation score ($\beta = .290, p < .05$) and precarious manhood score ($\beta = .434, p < .05$) were found to significantly positively predict ambivalent sexism. However, the total cognitive flexibility ($\beta = .072, p < .05$), did not significantly predict ambivalent sexism. These findings are given in Table 5.

Table 5

Multiple Regression Analysis for Predictors of Ambivalent Sexism

Predictor Variables	B	S.E.	β	t	p	Adjusted R^2
Constant	-3.707	8.173		-.454	.650	.342
Social Domination Orientation	.337	.047	.290	7.192	.001	
Cognitive Flexibility	.148	.080	.072	1.863	.063	
Perceived Threat to Manhood	.251	.024	.434	10.592	.001	

Note: $p < .05$. Adjusted R^2 is the proportion of variance explained by all predictor variables.

Findings of the Sub-Research Questions

The findings around the sub-research question are addressed in this section. Normality assumptions are also tested for subdimensions of Ambivalent Sexism to examine the data. Regarding the subdimensions of Ambivalent Sexism, the independence of errors was investigated. This is tested with the Durbin-Watson test. Durbin-Watson statistics has been found as 2.04 for hostile sexism and 2.17 for benevolent sexism. This value fits the independence of errors assumption.

The detection of the normal distribution is conducted with a histogram and P-P plot chart for residual values. After examining the charts, it can be said that the errors are distributed normally for two subscales of ambivalent sexism: hostile sexism and benevolent sexism. Multicollinearity and Pearson correlation coefficients have been investigated for predictor variables and seems fitting for multiple linear regression (see Table 3 and Table 4).

Findings of the Sub-Research Question "What is the predictive role of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood in explaining hostile sexism in young adult men?"

The findings around the sub-research question "What is the predictive role of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, precarious manhood in explaining hostile sexism in young adult men?" are addressed in this section. In the model, the total scores of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility and precarious manhood were simultaneously processed. The regression model, used to explore the relationships between the predictor variables of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood and participants' scores of hostile sexism, was significant ($F(3,448) = 100.070, p < .05, R^2 = .397$). 39.7% of the variability in scores of hostile sexism can be explained by changes in the participants' social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood scores. All predictor variables explain 39.7% of the variance. The total social domination

orientation score ($\beta = .363, p < .05$), precarious manhood score ($\beta = .422, p < .05$) and total cognitive flexibility ($\beta = .094, p < .05$), were found to significantly positively predict hostile sexism. These findings are given in Table 6.

Table 6

Multiple Regression Analysis for Predictors of Hostile Sexism

Predictor Variables	B	S.E.	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	Adjusted <i>R</i> ²
Constant	-16.035	5.167		-3.103	.650	.397
Social Domination Orientation	.279	.030	.363	9.409	.001	
Cognitive Flexibility	.127	.050	.094	2.522	.012	
Perceived Threat to Manhood	.161	.015	.422	10.769	.001	

Note: $p < .05$. Adjusted R^2 is the proportion of variance explained by all predictor variables.

Findings of the Sub-Research Question "What is the predictive role of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood in explaining hostile sexism in young adult men?"

The findings around the sub-research question "What is the predictive role of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, precarious manhood in explaining benevolent sexism in young adult men?" are addressed in this section. In the model, the total scores of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood were simultaneously processed. The regression model, used to explore the relationships between the predictor variables of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood and participants' scores of benevolent sexism, was significant ($F(3,448) = 19.667, p < .05, R^2 = .110$). 11% of the variability in scores of ambivalent sexism can be explained by changes in the participants' social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood scores. All predictor variables explain 11% of the variance. The precarious manhood score ($\beta = .300, p < .05$) and social dominance orientation score ($\beta = .097, p < .05$) were found to significantly positively predict benevolent sexism. However, total cognitive flexibility score ($\beta = .020, p < .05$), did not significantly predict benevolent sexism. These findings are given in Table 7.

Table 7*Multiple Regression Analysis for Predictors of Benevolent Sexism*

Predictor Variables	B	S.E.	β	t	p	Adjusted R²
Constant	12.328	4.910		2.511	3.678	.110
Social Domination Orientation	.058	.028	.097	2.070	.039	
Cognitive Flexibility	.021	.048	.020	.447	.655	
Perceived Threat to Manhood	.090	.014	.300	6.299	.001	

Note: $p < .05$. Adjusted R² is the proportion of variance explained by all predictor variables.

Findings of the Sub-Research Question “Are the scores of ambivalent sexism, social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility and precarious manhood in young adult males significantly different according to sociodemographic variables (relationship status, age, education level)?”

The findings around the sub-research question “Are the scores of ambivalent sexism, social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility and precarious manhood in young adult males significantly different according to sociodemographic variables (relationship status, age, education level)?” are addressed in this section. The independent t-test and ANOVA method were used to examine the differences among ambivalent sexism general scores and subdimension scores, social dominance orientation general scores, cognitive flexibility general scores, and precarious manhood general scores.

Is there a difference between the scores on the ambivalent and subdimensions of ambivalent sexism, social dominance orientation, and cognitive flexibility according to relationship status?

A significant difference was found in the total scores of ambivalent sexism among participants based on relationship status ($t(450) = 2.024, p < .05$), indicating variations in scores of ambivalent sexism according to whether participants were in a romantic relationship. Participants not in a romantic relationship exhibited higher mean scores of ambivalent sexism compared to those who were in a relationship.

Regarding the subdimensions of sexism, a significant difference was observed in the scores of hostile sexism based on relationship status ($t(450) = 2.624, p < .05$), with higher scores among participants not in a relationship. However, no significant difference was found in the benevolent sexism scores ($t(450) = 0.571, p > .05$).

When examining the significance of differences in predictor variables according to romantic relationship status, no significant difference was detected in the general scores for cognitive flexibility ($t(450) = -0.608, p > .05$) and precarious manhood ($t(450) = 1.715, p > .05$). However, social dominance orientation scores showed significant differentiation ($t(450) = 2.362, p < .05$), with higher scores observed among participants without a romantic relationship. These findings are given in Table 8.

Table 8

Independent Groups t-Test Table of Variables Total Scores According to Relationship Status

Variables	Relationship Status	N	\bar{X}	SD	$t_{(450)}$	p
Ambivalent Sexism	Single	276	68.46	21.34	2.024	.044
	In-relationship	176	64.27	21.56		
Benevolent Sexism Subfactor	Single	276	32.52	11.1	0.571	.568
	In-relationship	176	31.91	11.21		
Hostile Sexism Subfactor	Single	276	35.93	14.25	2.624	.009
	In-relationship	176	32.36	13.89		
Cognitive Flexibility	Single	276	80.52	10.76	-0.608	.544
	In-relationship	176	81.14	10.03		
Precarious Manhood	Single	276	38.76	38.76	1.715	.087
	In-relationship	176	34.32	34.32		
Social Dominance Orientation	Single	276	44.96	18.85	2.362	.019
	In-relationship	176	40.76	17.74		

Note: $p < .05$

Is there a difference between the scores on the general and subdimensions of ambivalent sexism, social dominance orientation, and cognitive flexibility according to age?

The general cognitive flexibility scores of participants did not show a significant difference across age groups ($F(2,449) = 2.830, p > .05$). However, significant differences were found in ambivalent sexism scores ($F(2,449) = 6.172, p < .05$) and precarious

manhood scores ($F(2,449) = 8.593, p < .05$) across different age groups. This was also true for the subscales of ambivalent sexism: hostile sexism ($F(2,449) = 4.841, p < .05$) and benevolent sexism ($F(2,449) = 4.757, p < .05$). To determine which age groups differed, the Tukey post-hoc comparison was used.

Significant differences were found in ambivalent sexism scores among age groups ($F(2,449) = 6.172, p < .05$). A significant difference was found only between individuals aged 18-23 and those aged 30-35 ($p < .05$), with the younger group showing higher scores.

Regarding hostile sexism, a significant difference was detected among age groups ($F(2,449) = 4.841, p < .05$). The Tukey test revealed a significant difference between the 18-23 age group and the 30-35 age group ($p < .05$), with the younger participants scoring higher.

For benevolent sexism, significant differences were found among age groups ($F(2,449) = 4.757, p < .05$). Specifically, significant differences were noted between the 18-23 age group and both the 24-29 and 30-35 age groups ($p < .05$), with the youngest group again showing higher scores.

Significant differences were also found in social dominance orientation scores among age groups ($F(2,449) = 8.688, p < .05$). The Tukey test indicated significant differences between the 18-23 age group and both the 24-29 and 30-35 age groups ($p < .05$), with the youngest participants scoring higher.

Lastly, significant differences were observed in precarious manhood scores across age groups ($F(2,449) = 8.593, p < .05$). A significant difference was found only between the 18-23 and 30-35 age groups ($p < .05$), with the younger age group having higher average scores. These findings are given in Table 9.

Table 9

ANOVA Table of Variables Total Scores According to Age

Variables	Age Groups	N	\bar{X}	SD	F (2,449)	p
-----------	------------	---	-----------	----	-----------	---

Ambivalent Sexism	18-23	145	71.45	19.60	6.172	.002
	24-29	173	66.25	22.45		
	30-35	134	62.57	21.39		
Hostile Sexism	18-23	145	36.86	13.94	4.841	.008
	24-29	173	34.86	14.78		
	30-35	134	31.64	13.30		
Benevolent Sexism	18-23	145	34.59	10.03	4.757	.009
	24-29	173	31.39	11.45		
	30-35	134	30.93	11.46		
Social Dominance Orientation	18-23	145	48.01	17.90	8.688	<.001
	24-29	173	42.77	18.38		
	30-35	134	38.98	18.34		
Cognitive Flexibility	18-23	145	79.20	10.87	2.830	.060
	24-29	173	81.01	10.36		
	30-35	134	82.13	10.05		
Precarious Manhood	18-23	145	184.13	38.98	8.593	<.001
	24-29	173	174.72	34.06		
	30-35	134	165.99	37.00		

Note: $p < .05$

Is there a significant difference in ambivalent sexism general and subscale scores, social dominance orientation general scores, cognitive flexibility general scores, and precarious manhood general scores based on education level?

No significant differences were found in the social dominance orientation ($F(2,449) = 1.340, p > .05$) and cognitive flexibility ($F(2,449) = 2.255, p > .05$) scores among participants according to their educational levels. However, significant differences were found in ambivalent sexism scores ($F(2,449) = 11.716, p < .05$) and precarious manhood scores ($F(2,449) = 5.292, p > .05$) across different educational levels. This was also true for the subscales of ambivalent sexism: hostile sexism ($F(2,449) = 6.369, p < .05$) and benevolent sexism ($F(2,449) = 11.926, p < .05$). To determine which educational levels differed, the Scheffe post-hoc comparison was used.

For ambivalent sexism total scores, significant differences were found between first group and both the second and third groups ($p < .05$). The average ambivalent sexism scores were higher in the first group compared to both the second and third groups.

No significant differences were found between the first and second groups for hostile sexism. However, the first group significantly differed from the third group ($p < .05$).

Additionally, a significant difference was observed between the second and third groups ($p < .05$). The average hostile sexism scores were higher in the first group compared to the third group. The second group's hostile sexism scores were also higher than the third group.

Significant differences were found in the precarious manhood scores across different educational levels ($p < .05$). No significant differences were found between the first and second groups. However, the first group significantly differed from the third group ($p < .05$). Similarly, significant differences were observed between the second and third groups ($p < .05$). The average precarious manhood scores were higher in the first group compared to the third group, and the second groups scores were also higher than the third group. These findings are given in Table 10.

Table 10

ANOVA Table of Variables Total Scores According to Education Status

Scores	Education Status	N	\bar{X}	SD	F (2, 449)	p
Ambivalent Sexism	1	86	74.52	21.11	11.716	<.001
	2	301	66.56	21.15		
	3	65	57.86	20.20		
Hostile Sexism	1	86	37.77	14.18	6.369	.002
	2	301	34.70	14.08		
	3	65	34.54	13.64		
Benevolent Sexism	1	86	36.76	11.52	11.926	<.001
	2	301	31.87	10.92		
	3	65	28.29	9.54		
Social Dominance Orientation	1	86	44.36	18.24	1.340	.263
	2	301	43.77	18.74		
	3	65	39.89	17.75		
Cognitive Flexibility	1	86	80.35	11.88	2.255	.106
	2	301	80.33	10.20		
	3	65	80.76	9.51		
Precarious Manhood	1	86	182.14	40.79	5.292	.005
	2	301	175.83	35.63		
	3	65	162.74	36.81		

Note: $p < .05$. 1: Below bachelor's degree, 2: Bachelor's degree, 3: Above bachelor's degree

Comments and Discussion

Overall, this study examined the relationships of individual differences related to social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, precarious manhood, and socio-demographic variables like relationship status, age, and educational level with attitudes

toward ambivalent sexism. In this section, the main findings of the current study are discussed in relation to the literature.

Discussion on Social Dominance Orientation, Cognitive Flexibility, and Precarious Manhood as Predictors of Ambivalent Sexism and Its Subfactors

The research question "What is the predictive role of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, precarious manhood in explaining sexism in young adult men?" was investigated using multiple linear regression analysis. Findings showed that, when the total scores of social dominance orientation, total scores of cognitive flexibility and total scores of precarious manhood were simultaneously processed in the model, they explained 34.2% of the variance. While the total scores for social dominance orientation and precarious manhood significantly predicted ambivalent sexism at a medium level, the total score for cognitive flexibility did not significantly predict ambivalent sexism.

Findings for sub-problems were also obtained using multiple linear regression analysis. The first sub-problem investigated the question: "What is the predictive role of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood in explaining hostile sexism in young adult men?" Multiple regression analysis is used to evaluate whether predictor variables predict hostile sexism. According to the findings, when the social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility and precarious manhood were simultaneously processed in the model, they explained 39.7% of the variance. Thus, it was concluded that predictor variables of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood significantly predict hostile sexism. Additionally, while the total scores for social dominance orientation and precarious manhood significantly predicted hostile sexism at a medium level, the total score for cognitive flexibility significantly predicted hostile sexism at a low level.

The second sub-problem explored the question: "What is the predictive role of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood in explaining benevolent sexism in young adult men?" Regression analysis is used to evaluate whether

predictor variables predict benevolent sexism. According to the findings, when the total scores of social dominance orientation, total scores of cognitive flexibility, and total scores of precarious manhood were simultaneously processed in the model, they explained 11% of the variance. Thus, it was concluded that the predictor variables of social dominance orientation and precarious manhood significantly predict benevolent sexism. Additionally, while the total score for precarious manhood significantly predicted benevolent sexism at a medium level, the total score for social dominance orientation predicted benevolent sexism at a low level and cognitive flexibility did not significantly predict benevolent sexism.

In this study, the total scores of social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility and precarious manhood significantly predict ambivalent sexism in a positive direction. Considering all these findings, it can be concluded that there are existing relationships between ambivalent sexism and the current predictor variables of the study.

For social dominance orientation, research consistently shows a positive correlation between ambivalent sexism and social dominance orientation. Studies indicate that individuals high in social dominance orientation are more likely to endorse both forms of ambivalent sexism as a means to maintain gender hierarchies, and social dominance orientation predicts an increase, especially in hostile sexism, but also in benevolent sexism (Sibley et al., 2007). Social domination orientation was a predictor of ambivalent sexism and its subfactors. This is in line with the findings of this study since social dominance orientation correlates with hostile and benevolent sexism (Christopher and Wojda, 2008; Austin & Jackson, 2018). The research generally indicates the relationship between social dominance orientation and hostile sexism is stronger in line with the findings of this study.

Gender is a factor of group distinction; that is, men place themselves as the dominant group, while women fall into inferior positions (Rollero et al., 2019). From the perspective of Social Dominance Theory, both benevolent and hostile sexism legitimize beliefs that justify and maintain inequality between men and women (Sidanius et al., 1994).

Given the relationship between Ambivalent Sexism Theory and Social Dominance Theory, studies point out that social dominance orientation predicts both forms of sexism since hostile sexism acts on male domination over women and benevolent sexism conveys women's subordination role (Christopher & Wojda, 2008; Malatyali et al., 2017; Rollero et al., 2019). Benevolent sexism, on the other hand, involves seemingly positive attitudes that idealize women in traditional roles (e.g., as nurturing and needing male protection). While social dominance orientation also predicts benevolent sexism, the relationship is typically weaker compared to hostile sexism. Research generally indicates that the relationship between social dominance orientation and hostile sexism is stronger than the relationship between social dominance orientation and benevolent sexism. Sibley et al (2007), found that hostile sexism is moderately associated with hostile sexism but not with benevolent sexism. This might be because benevolent sexism, despite being patronizing and reinforcing traditional gender roles, does not directly involve the overt antagonism and conflict inherent in hostile sexism.

For cognitive flexibility, even though there is no correlation between total scores of ambivalent sexism and benevolent sexism and cognitive flexibility, for hostile sexism, cognitive flexibility appears as a positive predictor. The positive correlation between hostile sexism and cognitive flexibility is intriguing and somewhat counterintuitive, given the common understanding of these constructs. This outcome may have resulted from measurement errors and should be interpreted with caution because even though these two concepts haven't been researched together, it seems unlikely for people with high cognitive flexibility would be tended to show hostile sexism. Previous research reports that individuals with higher cognitive flexibility may be less likely to hold rigid sexist beliefs and easily shift their perspective to challenge and change sexist attitudes, rather than adhering to strict gender norms.

Typically, cognitive flexibility is associated with open-mindedness and the ability to adapt to new information, which would suggest a negative correlation with rigid and

traditionalist views like those found in hostile sexism. One explanation can be that individuals with high cognitive flexibility may be adept at rationalizing and justifying their hostile sexist beliefs. Besides, the nature of cognitive flexibility enables individuals to navigate and adapt to different social environments more effectively (Vescio et al., 2005).

When Carter (1985) discovered that androgynous traits had notably higher cognitive flexibility scores, the research also found that masculine traits demonstrated similar results to androgynous individuals. In contexts where hostile sexism is prevalent or socially accepted, individuals with higher cognitive flexibility might adopt and express these attitudes to fit in or avoid conflict, thereby maintaining their social harmony and status. And because Türkiye is a country where gender hierarchies are prominent, individuals may use hostile sexist beliefs to assert dominance or control in social interactions. This strategic use of sexism can be a way to navigate power dynamics (Rudman & Mescher, 2012).

Lastly, precarious manhood was a positive predictor for ambivalent sexism and its two subfactors hostile and benevolent sexism. Men who perceive their manhood as precarious are more likely to exhibit both hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes. Hostile sexism serves as a way to assert dominance and deter challenges to their manhood, while benevolent sexism can be used to reinforce traditional male roles by portraying men as protectors and providers. This dynamic perpetuates a cycle where the need to continually prove manhood exacerbates sexist attitudes and behaviors (Vescio et al., 2005; Bosson & Vandello, 2010). Threats to manhood can lead to increased hostile and benevolent sexism as a compensatory mechanism (Vandello et al., 2008). In this study, both hostile and benevolent sexism is predicted by precarious manhood, with a higher relation with hostile sexism. This is in line with previous findings suggesting that hostile sexism is more strongly related to precarious manhood in Türkiye (Öztemür & Toplu-Demirtaş, 2023). This can suggest that men use hostile remarks more than benevolent ones in the case of threatened masculinity, and this finding can be useful to enlighten violence and aggression against women in Türkiye.

Discussion on the Comparison of Ambivalent Sexism, Hostile Sexism, Benevolent Sexism, Social Domination Orientation, Cognitive Flexibility, and Precarious Manhood Scores Based on Certain Sociodemographic Characteristics

Research indicates that ambivalent sexist attitudes, comprising hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS), differ according to relationship status. In previous research, it was posited that men in romantic relationships tend to exhibit higher levels of both hostile and benevolent sexism compared to single individuals (Cross et al., 2016). This is partly because benevolent sexism promotes traditional gender roles that align with romantic and protective notions within relationships. Hostile sexism, involving antagonistic attitudes towards women who challenge traditional gender norms, can also be higher in those in relationships. This may be due to the reinforcement of power dynamics and control within intimate partnerships, where men might feel the need to assert dominance, and women may experience more direct forms of sexist hostility if they deviate from expected roles (Cross et al., 2017). Previous research reveals that benevolent sexism in men tends to increase when they are in a romantic relationship or as they gain more experience in forming romantic relationships (De Lemus et al., 2010).

However, in this study, single participants reported higher ambivalent and hostile sexism compared to those in relationships. For benevolent sexism, no significant difference was observed between groups. A possible explanation could be that being in a relationship often requires negotiation and compromise, fostering a sense of equality and mutual respect between partners. This dynamic can reduce the endorsement of traditional gender roles and sexist attitudes. Similarly, intimate relationships can heighten awareness of the challenges and inequities faced by one's partner. This increased sensitivity can lead to a greater rejection of sexist attitudes and a commitment to supporting each other as equals.

Since mate selection is an integral part of relationships, various studies have reported that women tend to choose men who exhibit benevolent attitudes and avoid those who display hostile sexism (Bohner et al., 2010; Waddell et al., 2018). This finding aligns

with the results of the present study, which indicate that single participants reported higher levels of hostile sexism compared to those in relationships. A possible explanation for this is that both men and women who endorse hostile sexism are more likely to fear intimacy (Yakusho, 2005).

Social dominance orientation scores showed a significant difference according to relationship status with higher scores observed among participants without a romantic relationship. Social dominance orientation is associated with prejudicial ideologies and hierarchical attitudes, men with high social dominance orientation exhibit adverse reactions and trying to regain control the relationship. This can create a dynamic that men who has more social dominance orientation because they tend to seek out and maintain hierarchical structures, including romantic relationships. But being in a heterosexual relationship is actually forming strong ties with another group, women, that can create empathy that lowers the social dominance orientation levels of men with a romantic relationship.

When comparing groups, it was found that participants aged 18-23 significantly differ in their average scores of ambivalent sexism and its two subdimensions, hostile sexism, and benevolent sexism, from those in the age group of 30-35. This finding aligns with the literature on the relationship between ambivalent sexism and age. For instance, Hammond, et al., (2017) reported that acceptance of sexist attitudes decreases over time for both men and women. Similar to this study, they found that hostile sexism declines with age. However, unlike this study, they noted that benevolent sexism remains constant among men over time.

In a study conducted in Spain, Fernandez et al. (2004) found that participants aged 18-22 exhibited more sexist behaviors than those aged 38-42. Studies that include younger individuals further support the idea that sexist attitudes decrease with age. For example, Zakrisson, Andersson, Lenel, and Sandelin (2012) conducted a study with Swedish adults and adolescents, finding that high school students scored higher on both benevolent and hostile sexism compared to adults. Contrary to expectations that younger individuals would

exhibit less sexist behavior due to social changes, these studies indicate otherwise. One possible explanation is that young participants' behaviors reflect familial views and their lack of experience in real-world environments such as work and competition.

Both predictor variables, social dominance orientation and precarious manhood, exhibit variations across different age groups. Younger individuals tend to have higher levels of social dominance orientation, likely due to the significant influence of social environments and peer dynamics during young adulthood (Pratto et al., 1994; Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Developmental changes that men undergo can also impact this relationship.

Similarly, precarious manhood is more pronounced among younger males. This increased need to assert masculinity aggressively may stem from social and developmental pressures. Younger men might engage in risky behaviors, display aggression, or uphold traditional gender roles to demonstrate their manhood. As men age, the constant need to prove their masculinity diminishes, likely due to achieving more stable social and professional statuses.

Glick and Fiske (1996) stated that higher educational attainment is generally associated with lower hostile and benevolent sexism levels. This correlation may be attributed to increased exposure to egalitarian values, and critical thinking skills fostered in higher education environments. The result seems in line with this, as ambivalent sexist attitudes, both hostile and benevolent, decrease with higher education levels.

Precarious manhood also decreases in parallel to individuals' levels of education. This might in part be due to the fact that persons with lower levels of education might have fewer opportunities to achieve traditional markers of success and status, leading them to rely more on demonstrating masculine traits to validate their manhood. Men with higher levels of education might feel more secure in their social status and less compelled to engage in behaviors to prove their masculinity.

Chapter 5

Conclusion and Suggestions

Based on the results of this research and the literature, several recommendations are provided for researchers, practitioners, and policymakers.

This study investigated whether social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility and precarious manhood predict ambivalent sexism. Three multiple regression analysis are conducted to enlighten ambivalent sexism and subfactors of ambivalent sexism: hostile and benevolent sexism. Subsequently, it was investigated whether adult men's scores on ambivalent sexism, social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood differ according to relationship status, age, and education variables.

According to the results:

- The social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood scores of men aged 18-35 significantly predict ambivalent sexism.
- The social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood scores of men aged 18-35 significantly predict hostile sexism.
- The social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, and precarious manhood scores of men aged 18-35 significantly predict benevolent sexism.
- The ambivalent sexism scores of men aged 18-35 show a statistically significant difference based on relationship status, age, and education level. Participants who are not in a relationship have significantly higher ambivalent sexism scores. Regarding age differences, men in the 18-23 age group have significantly higher ambivalent sexism scores. In terms of education level, individuals with less than a bachelor's degree have significantly higher ambivalent sexism scores.
- The hostile sexism scores of men aged 18-35 show a statistically significant difference based on relationship status, age, and education level. Participants who are not in a relationship have significantly higher hostile sexism scores. Regarding

age differences, men in the 18-23 age group have significantly higher hostile sexism scores. In terms of education level, individuals with less than a bachelor's degree have significantly higher hostile sexism scores.

- The benevolent sexism scores of men aged 18-35 show a statistically significant difference based on age and education level. Regarding age differences, men in the 18-23 age group have significantly higher benevolent sexism scores. Regarding education level, individuals with less than a bachelor's degree have significantly higher benevolent sexism scores.
- The social domination orientation scores of men aged 18-35 show a statistically significant difference based on age and relationship status. Regarding age differences, men in the 18-23 age group have significantly higher social domination orientation scores. In terms of relationship status, individuals with a relationship have significantly lower social domination orientation scores.
- The cognitive flexibility scores of men aged 18-35 do not show a statistically significant difference based on age, education status, or relationship status.
- The precarious manhood scores of men aged 18-35 show a statistically significant difference based on age and education level. Regarding age differences, men in the 18-23 age group have significantly higher precarious manhood scores. In terms of education level, individuals with less than a bachelor's degree have significantly higher precarious manhood scores.

Recommendations

Based on the results of this research and the existing literature, several recommendations have been provided for researchers, practitioners, and policymakers. The recommendations for researchers can be listed as follows:

Recommendations For Researchers:

- This study was conducted with a young adult group. It is suggested that further studies be conducted with other age groups to delve deeper into the subject.
- This study was conducted with a heterosexual male group. It is suggested that further studies include other sex and gender orientations in the groups for the subject to be better understood.
- The concept of ambivalent sexism in this study is addressed with social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility and precarious manhood. It is recommended that ambivalent sexism to be investigated in conjunction with other variables for a better understanding.
- Future studies should consider a more diverse sample, including participants from different cultural backgrounds and varying age groups to enhance the generalizability of the findings.
- Longitudinal studies are recommended to better understand the causal relationships between social dominance orientation, cognitive flexibility, precarious manhood, and ambivalent sexism.
- Utilizing mixed methods approaches, combining quantitative and qualitative data, could provide a deeper insight into the psychological mechanisms underlying ambivalent sexism.
- Since a convenience sampling method was used, expanding participant groups with a different sampling method will be important for generalizability.

Recommendations For Practitioners:

- Develop and implement intervention programs aimed at reducing social dominance orientation, and precarious manhood and promoting cognitive flexibility to mitigate ambivalent sexism.

- Offer relationship counseling that addresses the impact of precarious manhood on relationship dynamics. Help men develop more secure and less domineering approaches to their relationships.
- Provide support for men during critical transitional periods, such as late adolescence and emerging adulthood. Interventions should focus on helping young men navigate these transitions while developing healthy and secure gender identities.
- Counselors should ensure that interventions respect the dignity and rights of all individuals, regardless of gender. This involves creating a safe and non-judgmental environment where clients can explore and challenge their sexist attitudes without fear of stigma. Integrate findings into counselor training programs to better prepare future counselors to address issues related to sexism and gender equity. Including findings into counseling and therapy practices, especially in settings dealing with gender-related issues, to address and reduce ambivalent sexism and its associated behaviors is regarded as important.

Recommendations For Policymakers:

- Policies should be developed to promote gender equality and challenge social norms that reinforce traditional gender roles.
- Supporting educational reforms that include gender studies in the curriculum to raise awareness about sexism and its impacts from an early age is essential.
- Advocate for stronger anti-discrimination laws that specifically address both hostile and benevolent sexism. Ensure that these laws are enforced effectively to protect individuals from gender-based discrimination.
- Encourage businesses to implement gender equity programs that address both hostile and benevolent sexism. These programs should include training, mentoring, and support for employees to foster an inclusive workplace culture.

- Promote diversity and inclusion initiatives that support the representation and advancement of women in the workplace. Ensure that these initiatives are backed by policies that hold organizations accountable for their progress.
- Fund and support public awareness campaigns that challenge traditional gender stereotypes and promote gender equality. These campaigns should target various media platforms to reach a broad audience and change societal attitudes.

References

- Abrams, D. (2018). *Processes of prejudice: Theory, evidence and intervention*. Equality and Human Rights Commission.
<https://www.equalityhumanrights.com/sites/default/files/research-report-56-processes-of-prejudice-theory-evidence-and-intervention.pdf>
- Akarsu, A. S., & Sakallı, N. (2021). The associations among self-silencing, ambivalent sexism, and perceived devaluation of women in Turkey. *Current Psychology*, 1-13.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12144-021-02353-8>
- Allport, G. W. (1979). *The nature of prejudice: 25th-anniversary edition*. Basic Books.
- Alptekin, D. (2014). Inquiry of gender discrimination in contrast emotions: A study on perception of gender of youth University. *Journal of Institute of Social Sciences*, 32, 203-211. <https://dergipark.org.tr/tr/download/article-file/1724811>
- Arnett, J. J. (2000). Emerging adulthood: A theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. *American Psychologist*, 55(5), 469-480.
- Ayan, S. (2014). Cinsiyetçilik: Çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik [Sexism: Ambivalent sexism] *Cumhuriyet Medical Journal*, 36(2), 147-156.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.7197/1305-0028.2533>
- Bareket, O., & Fiske, S. T. (2023). A systematic review of the ambivalent sexism literature. *Psychological Bulletin*, 149(11-12), 637-698.
- Barreto, M., & Ellemers, N. (2005). The burden of benevolent sexism: How it contributes to the maintenance of gender inequalities. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 35(5), 633–642. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.270>
- Bohner, G., Ahlborn, K. & Steiner, R. How sexy are sexist men? Women's perception of male response profiles in the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory. *Sex Roles* 62, 568–582 (2010). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-009-9665-x>

- Bosson, J. K., Vandello, J. A., Burnaford, R. M., Weaver, J. R., & Arzu Wasti, S. (2009). Precarious manhood and displays of physical aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 35(5), 623–634. doi:10.1177/0146167208331161
- Bosson, J.K., Pinel, E.C., & Vandello, J.A (2010). The emotional impact of ambivalent sexism: Forecasts versus real experiences. *Sex Roles* 62, 520–531.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-009-9664-y>
- Bosson, J. K., & Vandello, J. A. (2011). Precarious manhood and its links to action and aggression. *Current Directions in Psychological Science*, 20(2), 82–86.
- Bowerman B. L., O'Connell R. T., & Murphree E. S. (2015). *Regression analysis unified concepts, practical applications, and computer implementation*. Business Expert Press.
- Cañas, J., Quesada, J. F., Antolí, A., & Fajardo, I. (2003). Cognitive flexibility and adaptability to environmental changes in dynamic complex problem-solving tasks. *Ergonomics*, 46(5), 482–501. <https://doi.org/10.1080/0014013031000061640>
- Cañas, J. J., Fajardo, I., Salmerón, L., & Abascal, J. (2006). Improving deaf users' accessibility in hypertext information retrieval: Are graphical interfaces useful for them? *Behaviour & Information Technology*, 25(6), 455–467.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/01449290500331180>
- Carter, D. B. (1985). Relationships between Cognitive Flexibility and Sex-Role Orientation in Young Adults. *Psychological Reports*, 57(3), 763-766.
<https://doi.org/10.2466/pr0.1985.57.3.763>
- Chapleau, K. M., Oswald, D. L., & Russell, B. L. (2007). How ambivalent sexism toward women and men support rape myth acceptance. *Sex Roles*, 57(1-2), 131–136.
doi:10.1007/s11199-007-9196-2
- Christopher, A. N., & Wojda, M. R. (2008). Social Dominance Orientation, Right-Wing Authoritarianism, Sexism, and Prejudice Toward Women in the Workforce.

Psychology of Women Quarterly, 32(1), 65-73. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.2007.00407.x>

- Cihangir, S., Barreto, M., & Ellemers, N. (2014). Men as allies against sexism. *SAGE Open*, 4(2). doi:10.1177/2158244014539168
- Cowie, L. J., Greaves, L. M., & Sibley, C. G. (2019). Sexuality and sexism: Differences in ambivalent sexism across gender and sexual identity. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 148, 85–89. doi:10.1016/j.paid.2019.05.023
- Cross, E., & Overall, N. C. (2019). Women experience more serious relationship problems when male partners endorse hostile sexism. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 1-20. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.2560
- Cross, E. J., Overall, N. C., Hammond, M. D., & Fletcher, G. J. (2017). When does men's hostile sexism predict relationship aggression? The moderating role of partner commitment. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 8(3), 331–340.
- Cross, E. J., Overall, N. C., & Hammond, M. D. (2016). Perceiving partners to endorse benevolent sexism attenuates highly anxious women's negative reactions to conflict. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 42(7), 923–940.
- Curun, F., Taysi, E., & Orcan, F. (2017). Ambivalent sexism as a mediator for sex role orientation and gender stereotypes in romantic relationships: A study in Turkey. *Interpersonal: An International Journal on Personal Relationships*, 11(1), 55-69.
- Dahl, J., Vescio, T., & Weaver, K. (2015). How threats to masculinity sequentially cause public discomfort, anger, and ideological dominance over women. *Social Psychology*, 46(4), 242.
- Dardenne, B., Dumont, M., & Bollier, T. (2007). Insidious dangers of benevolent sexism: Consequences for women's performance. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 93(5), 764–779. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.93.5.764>

- Davis, C. H., Krafft, J., Hicks, E. T., & Levin, M. E. (2021). The role of psychological inflexibility and perspective taking in anti-racism and anti-sexism. *Personality and Individual Differences, 175*, 1-7.
- Deaux, K. (1984). From individual differences to social categories: Analysis of a decade's research on gender. *American Psychologist, 39*, 105–116.
- De Dreu, C. K. W., Nijstad, B. A., Bechtoldt, M. N., & Baas, M. (2011). Group creativity and innovation: A motivated information processing perspective. *Psychology of Aesthetics, Creativity, and the Arts, 5*(1), 81–89. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0017986>
- Dennis, J. P., & Vander Wal, J. S. (2010). The Cognitive Flexibility Inventory: Instrument development and estimates of reliability and validity. *Cognitive Therapy and Research, 34*(3), 241–253. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10608-009-9276-4>
- De Lemus, S., Moya, M., & Glick, P. (2010). When contact correlates with prejudice: Adolescents' romantic relationship experience predicts greater benevolent sexism in boys and hostile sexism in girls. *Sex Roles, 63*(3-4), 214–225.
- Dilli, S., Carmichael, S., G., & Pijpma, A. (2019). Introducing the historical gender equality index. *Feminist Economics, 25*(1), 31-57, DOI:10.1080/13545701.2018.1442582
- DiMuccio, S. H., & Knowles, E. D. (2021). Precarious manhood predicts support for aggressive policies and politicians. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 47*(7), 1169-1187. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167220963577>
- Dumont, M., Sarlet, M., & Dardenne, B. (2010). Be too kind to a woman, she'll feel incompetent: Benevolent sexism shifts self-construal and autobiographical memories toward incompetence. *Sex Roles, 62*(7-8), 545-53. doi: 10.1007/s11199-008-9582-4
- EIGE. (2024). Gender segregation. Retrieved 14 March 2024 from <https://eige.europa.eu/thesaurus/terms/121>

- Erikson, E. H. (1968). *Identity: Youth and crisis*. Norton.
- Eslinger, P.J., & Grattan, L.M. (1993). Frontal lobe and frontal-striatal substrates for different forms of human cognitive flexibility. *Neuropsychologia*, 31, 17–28.
- Federico, C. M., & Sidanius, J. (2002). Racism, ideology, and affirmative action revisited: the antecedents and consequences of "principled objections" to affirmative action. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 82(4), 488–502.
- Fernández, M. L., Castro, Y. R., & Lorenzo, M. G. (2004). Evolution of hostile sexism and benevolent sexism in a Spanish sample. *Social Indicators Research*, 66(3), 197-211.
- Field, A. (2013). *Discovering statistics using IBM SPSS statistics* (4th ed.). Sage.
- Fisher, J., Languilaire, J. C., Lawthom, R., Nieuwenhuis, R., Petts, R. J., Runswick-Cole, K., & Yerkes, M. A. (2020). Community, work, and family in times of COVID-19. *Community, Work & Family*, 23(3), 247–252.
<https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2020.1756568>
- Forbes, G. B., Collinsworth, L. L., Jobe, R. L., Braun, K. D., & Wise, L. M. (2007). Sexism, hostility toward women, and endorsement of beauty ideals and practices: Are beauty ideals associated with oppressive beliefs? *Sex Roles*, 56(5-6), 265–273.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-006-9161-5>
- Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. Mc Graw Hill.
- Fraser, G., Osborne, D., & Sibley, C.G. (2015) "We want you in the workplace, but only in a skirt!" Social dominance orientation, gender-Based affirmative action and the moderating role of benevolent sexism. *Sex Roles* 73, 231–244.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-015-0515-8>

- Garon, N., Bryson, S. E., & Smith, I. M. (2008). Executive function in preschoolers: a review using an integrative framework. *Psychological Bulletin*, *134*(1), 31–60. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-2909.134.1.31>
- Gaunt, R. (2013). Ambivalent sexism and perceptions of men and women who violate gendered family roles. *Community, Work & Family*, *16*(4), 401–416. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13668803.2013.779231>
- Gilmore, D.D. (1990). *Manhood in the making: Cultural concepts of masculinity*. Yale University Press.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. (2001). An ambivalent alliance: Hostile and benevolent sexism as complementary justifications for gender inequality. *American Psychologist*, *56*(2), 109-118.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (2011). Ambivalent sexism revisited. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *35*(3), 530-535. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0361684311414832>
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1997). Hostile and benevolent sexism: Measuring ambivalent sexist attitudes toward women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *21*(1), 119-135. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-6402.1997.tb00104.x
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1996). The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Differentiating hostile and benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *70*,491-512.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1999). The Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory: Differentiating hostile and benevolent beliefs about men. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *23*(3), 519-536.
- Glick, P., & Rudman, L. (2010). Sexism. In J. F. Dovidio, M. Hewstone, & P. Glick, *The handbook of prejudice, stereotyping and discrimination* (pp. 328-344).

- Glick, P., Sakalli-Ugurlu, N., Ferreira, M. C., & Souza, M. A. D. (2002). Ambivalent sexism and attitudes toward wife abuse in Turkey and Brazil. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 26*(4), 292-297.
- Glick, P., Wilkerson, M., & Cuffe, M. (2015). Masculine identity, ambivalent sexism, and attitudes toward gender subtypes: Favoring masculine men and feminine women. *Social Psychology, 46*(4), 210–217. <https://doi.org/10.1027/1864-9335/a000228>
- Green, E.G.T., Thomsen, L., Sidanius, J., Staerklé, C., & Potanina, P. (2009). Reactions to crime as a hierarchy regulating strategy: The moderating role of Social Dominance Orientation. *Social Justice Research 22*, 416–436. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11211-009-0106-3>
- Grubbs, J.B., Exline, J.J., & Twenge, J.M. (2014). Psychological entitlement and ambivalent sexism: Understanding the role of entitlement in predicting two forms of sexism. *Sex Roles 70*, 209–220 (2014). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-014-0360-1>
- Guimond, S. (2008). Psychological similarities and differences between women and men across cultures. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass, 2*(1), 494-510.
- Gutierrez, B.C., Leaper, C. Linking ambivalent sexism to violence-against-women attitudes and behaviors: A three-level meta-analytic review. *Sexuality & Culture 28*, 851–882 (2024). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12119-023-10127-6>
- Gülüm, İ. V., Dağ, İ. (2012). The Turkish adaptation, validity and reliability study of the Repetitive Thinking Questionnaire and the Cognitive Flexibility. *Anatolian Journal of Psychiatry, 13*(3), 216-223.
- Hammond, M. D., Milojev, P., Huang, Y., & Sibley, C. G. (2018). Benevolent sexism and hostile sexism across the ages. *Social Psychological and Personality Science, 9*(7), 863-874. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1948550617727588>

- Hammond, M. D., Sibley, C. G., Overall, N. C., & Huo, Y. J. (2014). The allure of sexism: Psychological entitlement fosters women's endorsement of benevolent sexism over time. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, *5*(4), 422-429.
- Hanchard, M. G. (2018). *The spectre of race: How discrimination haunts western democracy*. Princeton University Press.
- Heinrich, J. (2012). The making of masculinities: Fighting the forces of hierarchy and hegemony in the high school setting. *The High School Journal*, *96*(2), 101–115.
<http://www.jstor.org/stable/23351964>
- Ho, A. K., Sidanius, J., Kteily, N., Sheehy-Skeffington, J., Pratto, F., Henkel, K. E., ... ve Stewart, A. L. (2015). The nature of social dominance orientation: Theorizing and measuring preferences for intergroup inequality using the new SDO7 scale. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *109*(6), 1003-1028.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/pspi0000033>
- Howell, D.C. (2010). *Statistical Methods for Psychology* (7th ed.). Wadsworth Cengage Learning
- Hunt, C. J., Gonsalkorale, K., & Murray, S. B. (2013). Threatened masculinity and muscularity: An experimental examination of multiple aspects of muscularity in men. *Body Image*, *10*(3), 290-299.
- Hyde, J. S. (2005). The gender similarities hypothesis. *American Psychologist*, *60*(6), 581–592.
- Jackson, P. B., & Mustillo, S. (2001). I am woman: The impact of social identities on african american women's mental health. *Women & Health*, *32*(4), 33–59.
https://doi.org/10.1300/J013v32n04_03
- Jones, K. P., Peddie, C. I., Gilrane, V. L., King, E. B., & Gray, A. L. (2016). Not so subtle: A meta-analytic investigation of the correlates of subtle and overt discrimination.

Journal of Management, 42(6), 1588-1613.

<https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206313506466>

Jost, J. T., & Banaji, M. R. (1994). The role of stereotyping in system-justification and the production of false consciousness. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 33(1), 1–27. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8309.1994.tb01008.x>

Kasumovic, M. M., & Kuznekoff, J. H. (2015). Insights into sexism: Male status and performance moderates female-directed hostile and amicable behaviour. *PLoS One*, 10(7). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0131613>

Kaya Bican, E. (2022). *Development of attitudes toward Maternal Gatekeeping Scale and its associations with sexism in Turkey*. [Unpublished Master Thesis], Middle East Technical University.

Kaynak, B. D., & Kaynak Malatyalı, M., & Hasta, D (2020). Turkish adaptation of New Social Dominance Orientation Scale (SDO7), *Studies in Psychology*. Advance online publication. doi: 10.26650/SP2020-0108

Kaynak Malatyalı, M., Kaynak, B. D., & Hasta, D. (2017). A social dominance theory perspective on attitudes toward girl child marriages in Turkey: The legitimizing role of ambivalent sexism. *Sex Roles*, 77(9), 687-696.

Keating, L., Kaur, A., Mendieta, M., Gleason, C., Basello, G., Roth, A., & Brondolo, E. (2022). Racial discrimination and core executive functions. *Stress and health: Journal of the International Society for the Investigation of Stress*, 38(3), 615–621. <https://doi.org/10.1002/smi.3116>

Kılıç, S. (2013). Linear regression analysis. *Journal of Mood Disorders*, 3(2), 90-92. <https://doi.org/10.5455/jmood.20130624120840>.

Kirton, G., & Greene, A. (2005). *gender, equality and industrial relations in the 'new europe': An introduction*. *European Journal of Industrial Relations*, 11(2), 141-149. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0959680105053960>

- Levin, M. E., Luoma, J. B., Vilaradaga, R., Lillis, J., Nobles, R., & Hayes, S. C. (2016). Examining the role of psychological inflexibility, perspective taking, and empathic concern in generalized prejudice. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 46*(3), 180-191.
- Levin, S., Matthews, M., Guimond, S., Sidanius, J., Pratto, F., Kteily, N., Pitpitan, E. V., & Dover, T. (2012). Assimilation, multiculturalism, and colorblindness: Mediated and moderated relationships between social dominance orientation and prejudice. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 48*(1), 207–212.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jesp.2011.06.019>
- Levinson, D. J. (1978). *The seasons of a man's life*. Ballantine Books.
- Lisnek, J. A., Wilkins, C. L., Wilson, M. E., & Ekstrom, P. D. (2022). Backlash against the #MeToo movement: How women's voice causes men to feel victimized. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations, 25*(3), 682-702.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/13684302211035437>
- Luchins, A. S. (1942). Mechanization in problem solving: The effect of Einstellung. *Psychological Monographs, 54*(6). <https://doi.org/10.1037/h0093502>
- Maass, A., Cadinu, M., Guarnieri, G., & Grasselli, A. (2003). Sexual harassment under social identity threat: the computer harassment paradigm. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85*(5), 853–870. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.85.5.853>
- Martin, M. M., & Anderson, C. M. (1998). The Cognitive Flexibility Scale: Three validity studies. *Communication Reports, 11*(1), 1-9.
- Martin, M. M., & Rubin, R. B. (1995). A new measure of cognitive flexibility. *Psychological Reports, 76*(2), 623-626.
- Mikołajczak, M., & Pietrzak, J. (2014). Ambivalent sexism and religion: connected through values. *Sex Roles, 70*, 387–399. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-014-0379-3>

- Moore, A., & Malinowski, P. (2009). Meditation, mindfulness and cognitive flexibility. *Consciousness and Cognition, 18*(1), 176–186.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.concog.2008.12.008>
- Moya, M., Glick, P., Expósito, F., De Lemus, S., & Hart, J. (2007). It's for your own good: Benevolent sexism and women's reactions to protectively justified restrictions. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 33*, 1421–1434
- Nicol, A. A. M., & Rounding, K. (2013). Alienation and empathy as mediators of the relation between social dominance orientation, right-wing authoritarianism and expressions of racism and sexism. *Personality and Individual Differences, 55*, 294–299.
- Osborne, J. W., & Waters, E., (2002) Four assumptions of multiple regression that researchers should always test, *Practical Assessment, Research, and Evaluation 8*(1). doi: <https://doi.org/10.7275/r222-hv23>
- Oswald, D., Baalbaki, M., & Kirkman, M. (2019). experiences with benevolent sexism: Scale Development and associations with women's well-being. *Sex Roles, 80*(5-6), 362-80. doi: 10.1007/s11199-018-0933-5
- Oswald, D. L., Franzoi, S. L., & Frost, K. A. (2012). Experiencing sexism and young women's body esteem. *Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 31*(10), 1112-37. doi: 10.1521/jscp.2012.31.10.1112
- Perry, R., Sibley, C. G., & Duckitt, J. (2013). Dangerous and competitive worldviews: A meta-analysis of their associations with social dominance orientation and right-wing authoritarianism. *Journal of Research in Personality, 47*(1), 116–127.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jrp.2012.10.004>
- Pratto, F., Sidanius, J., & Levin, S. (2006). Social dominance theory and the dynamics of intergroup relations: Taking stock and looking forward. *European Review of Social Psychology, 17*(1), 271–320. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10463280601055772>

- Pratto, F., Sidanius, J., Stallworth, L. M., & Malle, B. F. (1994). Social dominance orientation: A personality variable predicting social and political attitudes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 67(4), 741–763.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.67.4.741>
- Rende B. (2000). Cognitive flexibility: theory, assessment, and treatment. *Seminars in speech and language*, 21(2), 121–133.
- Rollero, C., & Tartaglia, S. (2018). The effect of sexism and rape myths on victim blame. *Sexuality & Culture: An Interdisciplinary Quarterly*, 23(1), 209–219.
<https://doi.org/10.1007/s12119-018-9549-8>
- Rudman, L. A., & Mescher, K. (2012). Of animals and objects: Men's implicit dehumanization of women and likelihood of sexual aggression. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 38(6), 734-746.
- Russell, B.L., & Trigg, K.Y (2004). Tolerance of sexual harassment: An examination of gender differences, ambivalent sexism, social dominance, and gender roles. *Sex Roles* 50, 565-573 <https://doi.org/10.1023/B:SERS.0000023075.32252.fd>
- Sakall, N. (2001). Beliefs about wife beating among Turkish college students: The effects of patriarchy, sexism, and sex differences. *Sex roles*, 44(9), 599-610.
- Sakalli Uğurlu, N. (2002). Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: A study of reliability and validity. *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi*, 17(49), 59-61.
- Sakalli-Uğurlu, N. (2003). Sexism: Attitudes towards women and men and ambivalent sexism theory. *Türk Psikoloji Yazıları*, 6(11-12), 1–20.
- Sakallı-Uğurlu, N., & Türkoğlu, B. (2019). To Be or Not to Be “Man”: Masculinity/Manhood Studies from Social Psychological Perspective. *Türk Psikoloji Yazıları*, 22(44), 77-79

- Scott, W. A. (1962). Cognitive complexity and cognitive flexibility. *Sociometry*, 25(4), 405–414. <https://doi.org/10.2307/2785779>
- Sibley, C. G., & Duckitt, J. (2008). Personality and prejudice: A meta-analysis and theoretical review. *Personality and Social Psychology Review*, 12(3), 248–279. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1088868308319226>
- Sibley, C. G., Wilson, M. S., & Duckitt, J. (2007). antecedents of men's hostile and benevolent sexism: The dual roles of social dominance orientation and right-wing authoritarianism. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 33(2), 160-172. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167206294745>
- Sidanius, J., Feshbach, S., Levin, S., & Pratto, F. (1997). The interface between ethnic and national attachment: Ethnic pluralism or ethnic dominance? *The Public Opinion Quarterly*, 61(1), 102–133. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/2749514>
- Sidanius, J., & Pratto, F. (1999). Social dominance: An intergroup theory of social hierarchy and oppression. Cambridge University Press. <https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139175043>
- Sidanius, J., & Pratto, F. (2004). Social dominance theory: A new synthesis. In J. T. Jost & J. Sidanius (Eds.), *Political psychology: Key readings* (pp. 315–332). Psychology Press. <https://doi.org/10.4324/9780203505984-18>
- Shaughnessy, J. J., Zechmeister, E. B., & Zechmeister, J. S. (2000). *Research methods in psychology* (5th ed.). McGraw-Hill.
- Spencer, S. J., Steele, C. M., & Quinn, D. M. (1999). Stereotype threat and women's math performance. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, 35(1), 4–28. <https://doi.org/10.1006/jesp.1998.1373>

- Tire, O., & Yeşiltepe, A. (2023). Examining the relationship between attitudes of ambivalent sexism and dating violence. *Fırat Üniversitesi Journal of Social Sciences*, 33, 3, 1401-1411.
- Tabachnick, B.G., Fidell, L.S. (2013). *Using Multivariate Statistics*. Boston: Pearson.
- The Presidency of the Republic of Türkiye Strategy and Budget Directorate. 12th Developmental Plan. https://www.sbb.gov.tr/wp-content/uploads/2023/12/On-ikinci-Kalkinma-Plani_2024-2028_11122023.pdf (Accessed July 10, 2024).
- Troxel, W. M., Matthews, K. A., Bromberger, J. T., & Sutton-Tyrrell, K. (2003). Chronic stress burden, discrimination, and subclinical carotid artery disease in African American and Caucasian women. *Health Psychology*, 22(3), 300–309.
<https://doi.org/10.1037/0278-6133.22.3.300>
- Tufekcibası, S., & Şahin, M. (2021). Examining gender role attitude: The roles of cognitive flexibility, authenticity, gender, age, number of siblings, and working status of the mother. *e-Kafkas Journal of Educational Research*, 8(2), 397-412.
- Türkoğlu, B., & Cingöz-Ulu, B. (2019) Masculinity ideology and threat to manhood as precursors of violence against women in Turkey. *Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi Edebiyat Fakültesi Dergisi*, 6(1), 183-207.
- Türkoğlu, B. (2019). *Precarious manhood in Turkey: Earned, lost, and threatened status of manhood* [Unpublished Doctoral thesis], Middle East Technical University.
- Türkoğlu, B. (2013). *Violence as a way of reconstructing manhood: The role of threatened manhood and masculine ideology on violence against women* [Unpublished Master's thesis], Middle East Technical University.
- UN (2022). Progress on the sustainable development goals: The gender snapshot. <https://www.unwomen.org/en/digitallibrary/publications/2022/09/progress-on-the-sustainabledevelopment-goals-the-gender-snapshot-2022> (Accessed March 25, 2024).

UN (2024). The sustainable development goals report.

<https://unstats.un.org/sdgs/report/2024/The-Sustainable-Development-Goals-Report-2024.pdf> (Accessed July 10, 2024).

UNICEF (2021). What we know about the gender digital divide for girls: A literature review, <https://www.unicef.org/eap/reports/innovation-and-technology-gender-equality-0> (Accessed May 3, 2024).

UNWOMEN (2021). Facts and figures: Ending violence against women. Retrieved 23 March, 2024 from <https://www.unwomen.org/en/what-we-do/ending-violence-against-women/facts-and-figures#83919>

Waddell, N., Sibley, C. G., & Osborne, D. (2019). Better off alone? Ambivalent sexism moderates the association between relationship status and life satisfaction among heterosexual women and men. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 80(5-6), 347–361. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-018-0935-3>

Wade, C., & Tavis, C. (1994). The longest war: Gender and culture. *Psychology and culture*, 121-126.

Van Laar C., Van Rossum, A., Kosakowska-Berezecka, N., Bongiorno, R., & Block, K. (2024) MANDatory - why men need (and are needed for) gender equality progress. *Frontier Psychology*. doi: 10.3389/fpsyg.2024.1263313

Vandello, J., & Bosson, J. (2013). Hard won and easily lost: A review and synthesis of theory and research on precarious manhood. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 14(2), 101-113.

Vandello, J. A., Bosson, J. K., Cohen, D., Burnaford, R. M., & Weaver, J. R. (2008). Precarious manhood. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 95(6), 1325–1339.

- Van Hiel, A., & Mervielde, I. (2005). Authoritarianism and social dominance orientation: Relationships with various forms of racism. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 35*(11), 2323–2344. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2005.tb02105.x>
- Vescio, T. K., Gervais, S. J., Snyder, M., & Hoover, A. (2005). Power and the creation of patronizing environments: The stereotype-based behaviors of the powerful and their effects on female performance in masculine domains. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 88*(4), 658-672.
- Weaver, J. R., Vandello, J. A., & Bosson, J. K. (2013). Intrepid, imprudent, or impetuous? The effects of gender threats on men's financial decisions. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity, 14*(2), 184–191.
- Weichselbaumer, D., & Winter-Ebmer, R. (2005). A meta-analysis of the international gender wage gap. *Journal of Economic Surveys, 19*(3), 479–511.
doi:10.1111/j.0950-0804.2005.00256.x
- Whitley, B. E., Jr., & Lee, S. E. (2000). The relationship of authoritarianism and related constructs to attitudes toward homosexuality. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 30*(1), 144–170. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2000.tb02309.x>
- WHO (2020). COVID-19 and violence against women.
<https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/WHO-SRH-20.04>
- WHO (2021). Violence Against Women Prevalence Estimates.
<https://www.who.int/publications/i/item/9789240022256>
- Williams, D. R., Mohammed, S. A., Leavell, J., & Collins, C. (2010). Race, socioeconomic status, and health: complexities, ongoing challenges, and research opportunities. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences, 1186*, 69–101.
<https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-6632.2009.05339.x>

- Willer, R., Rogalin, C. L., Conlon, B., & Wojnowicz, M. T. (2013). Overdoing gender: A test of the masculine overcompensation thesis. *American Journal of Sociology*, 118(4), 980-1022.
- World Bank (2022). Violence against women and girls – what the data tell us Retrieved from: <https://liveprod.worldbank.org/en/data-stories/overview-of-gender-based-violence>
- Yakushko O. (2005). Ambivalent sexism and relationship patterns among women and men in Ukraine. *Sex Roles*, 52(9–10), 589–596. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-005-3727-5>
- Yeşiltepe, M. Ö. (2021). Çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik ile saldırganlık arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi: Savunma mekanizmalarının aracı rolü [Examination of the relationship between ambivalent sexism and aggression: The mediator role of defense mechanisms], [Unpublished Master Thesis], İstanbul Gedik Üniversitesi.
- Yurrebaso Macho, A., Guzmán-Ordaz, R., Picado-Valverde, E., & González, Á. J. (2024). Toward gender understanding: Examining ambivalent sexism among university students and its impact on faculty evaluation. *Societies*, 14(4), 48.
- Zakrisson, I., Anderzen, M., Lenell, F. & Sandelin, H. (2012). Ambivalent sexism: A tool for understanding and improving gender relations in organizations. *Scandinavian Journal of Psychology* 53, 64–70.
- Zhu, Y., & Deng, W. (2023). Moderating the link between discrimination and adverse mental health outcomes: Examining the protective effects of cognitive flexibility and emotion regulation. *PloS one*, 18(10), <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0282220>

APPENDIX-A: Permissions For Instruments

APPENDIX-A1: Permission to Use the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

Fwd: Ölçek Kullanım İzni Ricası Gelen Kutusu x

İbrahim Keklik
Alıcı: ben ▼

----- Forwarded message -----
From: **Prof. Dr. Nuray Sakalli** - [Redacted]
Date: Wed, Mar 29, 2023, 17:52
Subject: Re: Ölçek Kullanım İzni Ricası
To: İbrahim Keklik - [Redacted]

Merhaba

Ölçek ektedir. Kullanabilirsiniz. İlgili yayınlarıma alttaki linkten ulaşabilirsiniz:
https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Nuray_Sakalli

KOlay gelsin

APPENDIX-A2: Permission to Use the Social Dominance Orientation Scale

Fwd: Ölçek Kullanım İzni Ricası Gelen Kutusu x

İbrahim Keklik
Alıcı: ben ▼

----- Forwarded message -----
From: **Bağdat Deniz Kaynak** - [Redacted]
Date: Fri, Nov 10, 2023, 10:01
Subject: Re: Ölçek Kullanım İzni Ricası
To: İbrahim Keklik <[Redacted]>

Merhaba İbrahim Hocam,

İlgili ölçeği çalışmanızda kullanabilirsiniz. Çalışmanızda başarılar dilerim.

APPENDIX-A3: Permission to Use the Cognitive Flexibility Inventory

Fwd: Ölçek Kullanım İzni > Gelen Kutusu x

İbrahim Keklik ·

Alıcı: ben ▾

----- Forwarded message -----

From: **Volkan Gülüm** [REDACTED]

Date: Wed, Mar 29, 2023, 08:01

Subject: Re: Ölçek Kullanım İzni

To: İbrahim Keklik [REDACTED]

Merhaba,

Ölçeği kullanmanızdan memnuniyet duyarız.

Ölçek ile ilişkili bilgilere aşağıdaki bağlantı aracılığıyla ulaşabilirsiniz.

İyi çalışmalar dileriz.

APPENDIX-A4: Permission to Use the Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale

Fwd: Ölçek Kullanım İzni > Gelen Kutusu x

İbrahim Keklik

Alıcı: ben ▾

----- Forwarded message -----

From: **Beril Türkoğlu Demirel** [REDACTED]

Date: Wed, Mar 29, 2023, 12:13

Subject: Ynt: Ölçek Kullanım İzni

To: İbrahim Keklik [REDACTED]

Merhaba İbrahim hocam,

Elbette kullanabilirsiniz.

Kolaylıklar,

APPENDIX-B: Informed Consent Form

Sayın Katılımcı,

Öncelikle çalışmamıza göstermiş olduğunuz ilgi ve ayırdığınız zaman için şimdiden teşekkür ederim. Bu form, araştırmanın amacını tanıtmayı ve bir katılımcı olarak haklarınızı tanımlamayı amaçlamaktadır. 18-35 yaş arası erkeklerin bazı yaşantı ve algılarının incelendiği bu araştırma, Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Bilim Dalı tezli yüksek lisans öğrencisi Nazlı Eylül Uşaklı'nın Prof. Dr. İbrahim Keklik danışmanlığında yürütülen yüksek lisans tez çalışması kapsamında gerçekleştirilmektedir.

Bu araştırmanın amacı, sosyal baskınlık yöneliminin, bilişsel esnekliğin ve kırılan erkeklğin, çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçiliği yordayıp yordamadığını ortaya koymaktadır. Bu çalışmanın katılımcılarını 18-35 yaş aralığındaki erkek bireyler oluşturmaktadır. Çalışmada kullanılan ölçekler için Hacettepe Üniversitesi Etik Komisyonundan kurul onayı alınmıştır. Araştırmaya katılmayı onayladığınızda ölçekte yer alan her maddeyi içtenlikle yanıtlamanız beklenmektedir. Araştırma esnasında sizden isim ya da kimliğinizi ortaya çıkartacak bir bilgi istenmeyecektir. Verdiğiniz yanıtlar doğrultusunda elde edilen bilgiler yalnızca araştırmacılar tarafından bilimsel amaç ile kullanılacak olup, üçüncü şahıslar ile paylaşılmayacaktır. Çalışmaya katılım gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Çalışma yaklaşık 30-45 dakika sürecek olup çalışmada yer alan hiçbir aşama, kişisel rahatsızlık verecek nitelikte değildir. Ancak herhangi bir nedenle kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz, soruları yanıtlamayı bitirmeden araştırmadan ayrılabilirsiniz. Çalışmaya katıldıktan sonra istediğiniz an verileri paylaşmaktan vazgeçebilirsiniz. Katılım esnasında yahut katılımın ardından araştırmaya katılmaktan vazgeçmek size hiçbir sorumluluk getirmeyecektir. Araştırmacılara bilgi almak için istediğiniz zaman ulaşabilirsiniz.

Çalışma ile ilgili detayları bilgi alabilmek için araştırmacılara aşağıdaki iletişim bilgileri aracılığı ile ulaşabilirsiniz.

Arařtırmacılar:

Prof. Dr. İbrahim Keklik

Nazlı Eylül Uřaklı

Sorumlu Arařtırmacı İletişim Bilgisi:



Formu okudum, anladım. Çalışmaya gönüllü olarak katılacağım. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel yayınlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum.

APPENDIX-C: Instruments

APPENDIX-C1: Ambivalent Sexism Inventory Sample Items

Dear Participant,

Below you will find 22 statements intended to help you describe yourself. You are requested to indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you. You only need to fill in one box for each statement.

SAMPLE ITEMS	1.Strongly Disagree	2.Disagree	3.Slightly Disagree	4.Slightly Agree	5.Agree	6.Strongly Agree
1. No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman.						
4. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist						
7. Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men.						
10. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them						
19. Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility.						
22. Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste.						

APPENDIX-C2: Social Dominance Orientation Scale Sample Items

Dear Participant,

Below you will find 16 statements intended to help you describe yourself. You are requested to indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you. You only need to fill in one box for each statement.

SAMPLE ITEMS	1.Strongly Disagree	2.Disagree	3.Slightly Disagree	4.Neutral	5.Slightly Agree	6.Agree	7.Strongly Agree
1. No matter how much effort it takes, we ought to strive to ensure that all groups have the same chance in life.							
4. Groups at the bottom should not have to stay in their place							
7. We shouldn't try to guarantee that every group has the same quality of life.							
10. We should work to give all groups an equal chance to succeed.							
12. It is unjust to try to make groups equal							
16. It's probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom.							

APPENDIX-C3: Cognitive Flexibility Inventory Sample Items

Dear Participant,

Below you will find 20 statements intended to help you describe yourself. You are requested to indicate the degree to which each statement applies to you. You only need to fill in one box for each statement.

SAMPLE ITEMS	1. Not at all suitable	2. Not very suitable	3. Neutral	4. Suitable	5. Completely suitable
1. I am good at “sizing up” situations.					
4. When I encounter difficult situations, I feel like I am losing control					
7. When encountering difficult situations, I become so stressed that I can not think of a way to resolve the situation					
13. When in difficult situations, I consider multiple options before deciding how to behave.					
17. I feel I have no power to change things in difficult situations.					
20. I consider multiple options before responding to difficult situations.					

APPENDIX-C4: The Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale Sample Items

Dear Participant,

Below are some situations that you might encounter throughout your life. These situations may or may not have been experienced by you. Please consider how much discomfort these situations would cause you and mark the appropriate number for each item on the scale provided from 1 to 7.

SAMPLE ITEMS	1. Not at all uncomfortable	2. Slightly uncomfortable	3. Not uncomfortable	4. Unsure	5. Uncomfortable	6. Quite uncomfortable	7. Very uncomfortable
1. Being unemployed							
7. Your partner getting very drunk while out							
16. Your partner working while you are not							
22. A woman in your close circle demonstrating that she is more intelligent than you							
34. Showing too much attention to your partner in front of others							
42. Not having a steady income							

APPENDIX-D: Research Ethics Committee Approval



T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırma Etik Kurulu

Sayı : E-66777842-300-00003257318
Konu : Etik Kurulu İzni (Nazlı Eylül UŞAKLI)

15/12/2023

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 07.12.2023 tarihli ve E-51944218-300-00003241413 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitünüz Eğitim Bilimleri Anabilim Dalı Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencilerinden **Nazlı Eylül UŞAKLI**'nın, **Prof. Dr. İbrahim KEKLİK** danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "*Cinsiyet Ayrımcılığının Sosyal Baskınlık Eğilimi, Bilişsel Esneklik ve Kırılgan Erkeklik ile Yordanması*" başlıklı tez çalışması Üniversitemiz Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırma Etik Kurulunun **12 Aralık 2023** tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. İsmet KOÇ
Kurul Başkanı

Bu belge güvenli elektronik imza ile imzalanmıştır.

Belge Doğrulama Kodu: 5C225246-584A-4D59-B331-81CAE5864295

Belge Doğrulama Adresi: <https://www.turkiye.gov.tr/hu-cbys>

Adres:

Bilgi için: Burak CİHAN

E-posta: Elektronik Ağ: www.hacettepe.edu.tr

Bilgisayar İşletmeni

Telefon: Faks:

Telefon: 03123051082

Keç:



APPENDIX-E: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

I hereby declare that...

- I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing guidelines of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University;
- all information and documents in the thesis/dissertation have been obtained in accordance with academic regulations;
- all audio visual and written information and results have been presented in compliance with scientific and ethical standards;
- in case of using other people's work, related studies have been cited in accordance with scientific and ethical standards;
- all cited studies have been fully and decently referenced and included in the list of References;
- I did not do any distortion and/or manipulation on the data set,
- and **NO** part of this work was presented as a part of any other thesis study at this or any other university.

.... /.../.....

(Signature)

Nazlı Eylül UŞAKLI

APPENDIX-F: Thesis/Dissertation Originality Report

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
Graduate School of Educational Sciences
To The Department of Guidance and Psychological Counseling

Thesis Title: PREDICTING AMBIVALENT SEXISM WITH SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION, COGNITIVE FLEXIBILITY AND PRECARIOUS MANHOOD

The whole thesis that includes the *title page, introduction, main chapters, conclusions and bibliography section* is checked by using **Turnitin** plagiarism detection software take into the consideration requested filtering options. According to the originality report obtained data are as below.

Time Submitted	Page Count	Character Count	Date of Thesis Defense	Similarity Index	Submission ID
18/07/2024	113	155891	26/06/2024	%12	2418723774

Filtering options applied:

1. Bibliography excluded
2. Quotes included
3. Match size up to 5 words excluded

I declare that I have carefully read Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences Guidelines for Obtaining and Using Thesis Originality Reports; that according to the maximum similarity index values specified in the Guidelines, my thesis does not include any form of plagiarism; that in any future detection of possible infringement of the regulations I accept all legal responsibility; and that all the information I have provided is correct to the best of my knowledge.

I respectfully submit this for approval.

Name Lastname: Nazlı Eylül Uşaklı
Student No.: N21137987
Department: Educational Sciences
Program: Guidance and Psychological Counseling
Status: Masters Ph.D. Integrated Ph.D.

Signature

ADVISOR APPROVAL

APPROVED
(Title, Name Lastname, Signature)

APPENDIX-G: Yüksek Lisans/Doktora Tez Çalışması Orijinallik Raporu

24/07/2024

HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık Ana Bilim Dalı Başkanlığına,

Tez Başlığı: SOSYAL BASKINLIK YÖNELİMİ, BİLİŞSEL ESNEKLİK VE KIRILGAN ERKEKSİLİĞİN ÇELİŞİK DUYGULU CİNSİYETÇİLİĞİ YORDAMASI

Yukarıda başlığı verilen tez çalışmamın tamamı (kapak sayfası, özetler, ana bölümler, kaynakça) aşağıdaki filtreler kullanılarak **Turnitin** adlı intihal programı aracılığı ile kontrol edilmiştir. Kontrol sonucunda aşağıdaki veriler elde edilmiştir:

Rapor Tarihi	Sayfa Sayısı	Karakter Sayısı	Savunma Tarihi	Benzerlik Oranı	Gönderim Numarası
18/07/2024	114	155891	26/06/2024	%12	2418723774

Uygulanan filtreler:

- Kaynaklar hariç
- Alıntılar dâhil
- 5 kelimedenden daha az örtüşme içeren metin kısımları hariç

Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Tez Çalışması Orijinallik Raporu Alınması ve Kullanılması Uygulama Esaslarını inceledim ve çalışmamın herhangi bir intihal içermediğini; aksinin tespit edileceği muhtemel durumda doğabilecek her türlü hukuki sorumluluğu kabul ettiğimi ve yukarıda vermiş olduğum bilgilerin doğru olduğunu beyan eder, gereğini saygılarımla arz ederim.

Ad Soyadı: Nazlı Eylül Uşaklı

Öğrenci No.: N21137987

Ana Bilim Dalı: Eğitim Bilimleri

Programı: Rehberlik ve Psikolojik Danışmanlık

Statüsü: Y.Lisans Doktora Bütünleşik Dr.

İmza

DANIŞMAN ONAYI

UYGUNDUR.

Prof. Dr. İbrahim KEKLİK

APPENDIX-H: Yayınlama ve Fikrî Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

Enstitü tarafından onaylanan lisansüstü tezimin/raporumun tamamını veya herhangi bir kısmını, basılı (kâğıt) ve elektronik formatta arşivleme ve aşağıda verilen koşullarla kullanıma açma iznini Hacettepe Üniversitesine verdiğimi bildiririm. Bu izinle Üniversiteye verilen kullanım hakları dışındaki tüm fikri mülkiyet haklarım bende kalacak, tezimin tamamının ya da bir bölümünün gelecekteki çalışmalarda (makale, kitap, lisans ve patent vb.) kullanım hakları bana ait olacaktır.

Tezin kendi orijinal çalışmam olduğunu, başkalarının haklarını ihlal etmediğimi ve tezimin tek yetkili sahibi olduğumu beyan ve taahhüt ederim. Tezimde yer alan telif hakkı bulunan ve sahiplerinden yazılı izin alınarak kullanılması zorunlu metinlerin yazılı izin alınarak kullandığımı ve istenildiğinde suretlerini Üniversiteye teslim etmeyi taahhüt ederim.

Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından yayınlanan "**Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge**" kapsamında tezim aşağıda belirtilen koşullar haricince YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi / H.Ü. Kütüphaneleri Açık Erişim Sisteminde erişime açılır.

- Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulu kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihinden itibaren 2 yıl ertelenmiştir.⁽¹⁾
- Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihimden itibaren ... ay ertelenmiştir.⁽²⁾
- Tezimle ilgili gizlilik kararı verilmiştir.⁽³⁾

..... / /

(imza)

Nazlı Eylül UŞAKLI

"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge"

- (1) Madde 6.1. Lisansüstü teze ilgili patent başvurusu yapılması veya patent alma sürecinin devam etmesi durumunda, tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu iki yıl süre ile tezini erişime açılmasının ertelenmesine karar verebilir.
- (2) Madde 6.2. Yeni teknik, materyal ve metotların kullanıldığı, henüz makaleye dönüşmemiş veya patent gibi yöntemlerle korunmamış ve internetten paylaşılması durumunda 3 şahıslara veya kurumlara haksız kazanç; imkanı oluşturabilecek bilgi ve bulguları içeren tezler hakkında tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile altı ayı aşmamak üzere tezin erişime açılması engellenebilir.
- (3) Madde 7.1. Ulusal çıkarları veya güvenliği ilgilendiren, emniyet, istihbarat, savunma ve güvenlik, sağlık vb. konulara ilişkin lisansüstü tezlerle ilgili gizlilik kararı, tezin yapıldığı kurum tarafından verilir*. Kurum ve kuruluşlarla yapılan işbirliği protokolü çerçevesinde hazırlanan lisansüstü tezlere ilişkin gizlilik kararı ise, ilgili kurum ve kuruluşun önerisi ile enstitü veya fakültenin uygun görüşü üzerine üniversite yönetim kurulu tarafından verilir. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler Yükseköğretim Kuruluna bildirilir.

Madde 7.2. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler gizlilik süresince enstitü veya fakülte tarafından gizlilik kuralları çerçevesinde muhafaza edilir, gizlilik kararının kaldırılması halinde Tez Otomasyon Sistemine yüklenir

*Tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu tarafından karar verilir.

