

SYSTEM JUSTIFICATION AND TERROR MANAGEMENT:
MORTALITY SALIENCE AS A MODERATOR OF SYSTEM-JUSTIFYING
TENDENCIES IN GENDER CONTEXT

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ABSTRACT

SYSTEM JUSTIFICATION AND TERROR MANAGEMENT: MORTALITY SALIENCE AS A MODERATOR OF SYSTEM-JUSTIFYING TENDENCIES IN GENDER CONTEXT

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The aim of the current thesis was to explore the possible link between System Justification Theory (SJT) and Terror Management Theory (TMT) in gender context and from the perspective of intergroup relations in a sample of Turkish university students. Having recently attracted research attention, the relation between the two theories is based on the effect of mortality salience (MS) on the tendency to justify the existing system. Accordingly, three research questions were investigated to see whether (1) ambivalent sexism toward women (hostile and benevolent sexism; HS and BS, respectively) and gender-group favoritism (on both explicit and implicit measures; expGF and impGF, respectively) were related to gender-specific system justification (GSJ), and whether (2) gender and (3) MS moderated the relation of GSJ to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism. Based on the literature, it was hypothesized that (1) GSJ would predict HS, BS, expGF, and impGF, and that these predictions would be stronger (2) among women

than among men and (3) when mortality is made salient as compared to when it is not. The hypotheses were tested with 185 participants (86 men, 99 women) who completed a questionnaire package including the demographic information form, GSJ Scale, MS manipulation, Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, and a scale measuring expGF along with a computer-administered task for impGF. The results revealed that higher levels of GSJ predicted higher levels of benevolent and hostile attitudes toward women as well as higher levels of explicit ingroup favoritism and lower levels of favoritism toward women. Only GSJ – HS and GSJ – expGF relationships were moderated by gender. The moderating role of MS was not observed in any of the four relationships. However, GSJ scores were found to be unevenly distributed across MS conditions, thereby, casting doubt on the reliability of the results concerning the moderating role of MS. The findings, as well as the contributions and limitations of the study, were discussed.

Keywords: System Justification Theory, Terror Management, Gender, Ambivalent Sexism, Group Favoritism

ÖZ

SİSTEMİ MEŞRULAŞTIRMA VE DEHŞET YÖNETİMİ: ÖLÜMLÜLÜĞÜN HATIRLATILMASININ CİNSİYET BAĞLAMINDA SİSTEMİ MEŞRULAŞTIRMA EĞİLİMLERİNİ DÜZENLEYİCİ ROLÜ

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Bu tez çalışmasının amacı, Sistemi Meşrulaştırma Kuramı (SMK) ve Dehşet Yönetimi Kuramı (DYK) arasındaki ilişkiyi gruplar arası ilişkiler açısından ve cinsiyet bağlamında Türk üniversite öğrencilerinden oluşan bir örnekleme incelemektir. Araştırmacıların yeni yeni ilgisini çeken bu konu, ölümlülük bilgisinin (ÖB) var olan sistemi meşrulaştırma eğilimi üzerindeki etkisine dayanmaktadır. Buna göre; (1) toplumsal cinsiyete bağlı sistemi meşrulaştırmanın (TCSM) kadınlara yönelik çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik (düşmanca ve korumacı cinsiyetçilik; sırasıyla DC ve KC) ve cinsiyet grubu kayırmacılığı (hem açık hem de örtük ölçümlerde; sırasıyla açıkGK ve örtükGK) ile nasıl ilişkili olduğu, ve bu ilişkide (2) cinsiyetin ve (3) ÖB'nin nasıl bir düzenleyici rolü olduğuna dair üç araştırma sorusu yanıtlanmaya çalışılacaktır. İlgili literatür ışığında; (1) TCSM'nin DC, KC, açıkGK ve örtükGK'yi yordayacağı, bu yordamanın (2) erkeklere nazaran kadınlarda ve (3) ÖB'nin aktive edildiği durumda (aktive edilmediği duruma

nazaran) daha güçlü olacağı beklenmiştir. Hipotezler, 185 (86 erkek, 99 kadın) katılımcının demografik bilgi formu, TCSM Ölçeği, ÖB manipülasyonu, Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği ve cinsiyet grubu kayırmacılığının açık ölçümlerinden oluşan soru kitapçığı ile örtük ölçüm için bilgisayarda uygulanan testi tamamlamasıyla toplanan veriyle test edilmiştir. Sonuçlar, TCSM'nin kadınlara yönelik düşmanca ve korumacı cinsiyetçi tutumlar ile açık düzeyde iç grup kayırmacılığı ve örtük düzeyde kadınlara yönelik kayırmacılığı pozitif olarak yordadığını göstermiştir. Cinsiyetin düzenleyici rolü sadece TCSM'nin DC ve açıkGK olan ilişkilerinde gözlenmiştir. Beklentilerin aksine, ÖB'nin düzenleyici rolü dört ilişkide de gözlenmemiştir. Bununla birlikte, katılımcıların TCSM skorlarının ÖB koşullarına göre dengeli dağılmadığını gösteren bulgular, ÖB'nin düzenleyici rolüne dair sonuçlara gölge düşürmektedir. Çalışmanın bulguları, katkıları ve sınırlılıklarıyla beraber tartışılmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sistemi Meşrulaştırma, Dehşet Yönetimi, Cinsiyet, Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik, Grup Kayırmacılığı

*To My Parents Emel & Nihat Dođulu,
and
To My Dearest Sisters Nesli & Nilay*

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General Introduction

“I did not make any mistake against him, but I was beaten by him every day.”

“It was only once that I beated her. I regret it. But it was because she was beating her own child.”

These two statements are from a marriage show on a Turkish TV channel (June 19th, 2012, *Esra Erol'da Evlen Benimle*) in which the topic of the day was the physical abuse taking between a couple who married in the program two and a half years ago, but were going through a divorce during that time as their marriage had been highly conflictual after the first several months. The above statement belongs to the wife and the below one belongs to the husband. What is striking about these statements is that they qualify as good material for a social psychological analysis. Specifically, the wife's statement reflects her internalization of being beaten by her husband if she deserves it. In her opinion, he can beat her if she “makes a mistake against him” and in that case, it is *acceptable*. On the other hand, the husband's statement reflects a justification for his physical abuse toward her. He justifies his bad behavior by positioning himself as protecting the child from her mother's physical abuse. The mother denied that she was beating her baby; according to her, he was lying to justify his own abuse toward her. Yet, in this way, the husband makes the impression that he had a valid reason for beating her wife; it was for the sake of the child.

When these two statements are evaluated within a social psychological perspective, two main themes emerge: justification and threat. The first theme is present in both of the statements: The man as well as the woman justifies the social hierarchy of gender relations in which the man has the right to treat the woman badly under

certain conditions. In fact, for the woman, such tendency to justify the man's superiority, thus, her inferiority can be considered as a solution for living with the threat of male dominance (i.e., physical abuse). This threat makes up the second theme and is based on the reasoning that physical abuse by the man creates a threat for the woman. In order to avoid it, the woman has to know her place and act accordingly. If she does not, it can even cost her life.

Consistent with this thematic reasoning, social psychology offers a fruitful perspective for the above common sense analysis with two theories: System Justification Theory (SJT; Jost & Banaji, 1994) and Terror Management Theory (TMT; Greenberg, Pyszczynski, & Solomon, 1986).

Social psychological literature has witnessed the development of two prominent theories, SJT and TMT, during the last two decades. Both theories have spawned interest in many areas of social psychology, including intergroup relations, and led to a growing body of research. As revealed by the literature, SJT and TMT provide a rich context for understanding the motivational basis of a wide range of social behaviors. In fact, the theoretical importance of the two theories is evidenced by a recent special issue published for SJT in *Social Cognition* (Liviatan & Jost, 2011) and a recent meta-analysis published for TMT in *Personality and Social Psychology Review* (Burke, Martens, & Fauchner, 2010).

With regard to intergroup relations, SJT posits that members of low status groups experience conflict among ego, group, and system justification motives since the tendency to legitimize the existing social order is in conflict with the needs to maintain or enhance individual and group interests, and that outgroup favoritism on the part of low status group members is a form of system justification (Jost & Hunyady, 2002). TMT is also relevant to research on intergroup relations. Specifically, TMT posits that reminding people of their death (mortality salience, MS) increases ingroup favoritism and outgroup derogation since they serve as defense mechanisms for maintaining cultural worldviews (e.g., Castano, Yzerbyt, Paladino, & Sacchi, 2002; Greenberg et al., 1990).

The current study will investigate the possible link between SJT and TMT from the perspective of intergroup relations in gender context. Particularly, it aims to understand the relation of system justification to ambivalent sexism toward women and gender-group favoritism, and whether these relationships would be moderated by MS. To this end, first, a literature review of SJT will be presented as it constitutes the main framework of the thesis. Then, the relation of system justification to ambivalent sexism will be elaborated. It will be followed by a discussion of how SJT and TMT might be related. However, for a better understanding, both parts will be preceded by a brief explanation of the corresponding topic with its central tenets (ambivalent sexism and terror management, respectively). Finally, the rationale for the study will be presented with an overview including the aims and hypotheses.

1.2 System Justification Theory (SJT)

SJT originated with Jost and Banaji's (1994) study that addressed negative self and ingroup stereotyping by individuals who belong to disadvantaged groups, which were then unexplained by previous theories emphasizing ego justification and group justification. With an attempt to account for these phenomena and outgroup favoritism on the part of the disadvantaged, Jost and Banaji (1994) proposed the motive of system justification by drawing on research on social identity theory, belief in a just world theory, cognitive dissonance theory, Marxist-feminist theories of ideology, and social dominance theory (Jost & Hunyady, 2002). In this sense, SJT has adopted an integrated approach to the motive to view the existing social order as just, legitimate, and desirable.

As far as the theories of social identity (SIT) and social dominance (SDT) are concerned, SJT is viewed to provide a compliment, complement, and corrective basis to SIT and SDT (Jost, 2011). Particularly, the two theories have been an inspirational source for SJT with their theoretical influence, comprising the complimentary basis. To the extent that it improves some of the key concepts of the two theories, both theoretically and empirically, SJT provides a complementary basis to SIT and SDT. Most importantly, by conceptualizing the social order as a

“collaborative process by which existing structures of inequality are accommodated, justified, and rationalized by nearly everyone in society, including those who are most disadvantaged by the status quo” rather than a passive process imposed upon the disadvantaged by the advantaged, SJT brings a corrective basis to SIT and SDT (p. 225). In fact, the distinctive aspect of SJT is that it acknowledges the phenomenon of *false consciousness* as a motive for adopting system-serving beliefs that are conflicting with self and group interests for the disadvantaged (Jost, 2011; see also Jost & Banaji, 1994).

SJT has generated a substantial line of research on social and political psychology. In light of the research findings, the theory was reviewed by Jost, Banaji, and Nosek (2004) and Jost and Hunyady (2002), and it was recently updated by Jost and van der Toorn (2012). Research addressing SJT has mainly two goals, (1) to gain an understanding of *how* and *why* people provide cognitive and ideological support for the status quo, even when it entails conflict with personal and group interests, and (2) to investigate, from a social psychological perspective, the antecedents and consequences of engaging in system justification, especially for people with a disadvantaged position in various social systems (Jost, 2011).

SJT differentiates between justification motives of ego, group, and system which are potentially conflicting with each other for members of disadvantaged groups, but compatible for members of advantaged groups (Jost et al., 2004; Jost & Burgess, 2000; Jost & Thompson, 2000). Ego justification corresponds to the need to develop and maintain a positive view of oneself and to feel legitimate as an individual being, whereas group justification describes the need to develop and maintain positive view of one’s own group and to defend and justify the actions of ingroup members (Jost & Hunyady, 2002). What is referred to as system justification is the “psychological processes contributing to the preservation of existing social arrangements even at the expense of personal and group interest” (Jost & Banaji, 1994, p. 1). In view of this differentiation, SJT stands out as a prominent contribution to social psychology for its addressing the motive of system justification.

As have been noted, members of disadvantaged groups experience a psychological conflict between the motives of ego justification, group justification and system justification (Jost & Hunyady, 2002). For the disadvantaged, the tendency to justify the existing social order contradicts with the needs to maintain or enhance individual and group interests. Yet, these motives are consistent and complementary for members of advantaged groups (Jost, Burgess, & Mosso, 2001). In fact, the most paradoxical argument of SJT concerns this conflict by addressing the possibility for enhanced system justification among the disadvantaged. According to the theory, members of disadvantaged groups are more likely to justify the system than members of advantaged groups, especially when salience or strength of individual and group interests is low (Jost et al., 2004; Jost et al., 2001; Jost, Glaser, Kruglanski, & Sulloway, 2003). For instance, a study by Jost and Burgess (2000) provided empirical evidence regarding the conflict between group and system justification motives in low status groups and its manifestation as attitudinal ambivalence. Their findings revealed that for members of low status groups, increased system justification motive was associated with increased levels of attitudinal ambivalence toward ingroup members, whereas for members of high status groups, it was associated with decreased levels attitudinal ambivalence toward members of their own group.

The psychological mechanism underlying this strongest form of system justification hypothesis concerns disadvantaged group members' need to reduce ideological dissonance on behalf of the system, i.e., the source of their disadvantaged position (Jost & Hunyady, 2002). In this sense, SJT extends the rationale of cognitive dissonance theory to contexts of social inequality between groups (Jost et al., 2004). After all, "...those who suffer the most from the system are also those who have the most to explain, justify, and rationalize" (Jost et al., 2004, p. 909).

1.2.1 The Palliative Function of System Justification

The most prominent reason why people are motivated to justify the system is the palliative function it serves. Particularly, for the members of both advantaged and disadvantaged groups, system-justifying ideologies have the function of reducing

emotional distress associated with social inequality (Jost & Hunyady, 2002). However, emotional distress is likely to be experienced by the advantaged and disadvantaged group members in different ways (Jost, Pietrzak, Liviatan, Mandisodza, & Napier, 2008). Due to their superior position in the social system, members of advantaged groups might experience guilt, whereas members of disadvantaged groups might experience frustration as a result of their relatively inferior position. Hence, engaging in system justification will function to deal with the emotional distress presumably caused by their dissonance-producing positions (Jost et al., 2008). Consistent with this reasoning, a body of research has shown that system justification is associated with reduced guilt and dissonance for the advantaged, and with reduced frustration and dissonance for the disadvantaged (e.g., Kay & Jost, 2003).

The palliative function of system justification has also been studied with respect to psychological well-being (Jost & Hunyady, 2002; 2005). As mentioned earlier, motives of ego, group, and system justification are contradictory for members of disadvantaged groups, thereby causing a psychological conflict. Research has revealed this psychological conflict to have a negative influence on subjective well-being as indicated by lower levels of self-esteem and higher levels of depression among disadvantaged group members (Jost & Thompson, 2000). Members of advantaged groups, by contrast, do not experience such conflict since the three justification motives are compatible with each other. Their well-being does not suffer; in fact, system justification was found to be positively related to well-being for the advantaged (Jost & Hunyady, 2005; O'Brien & Major, 2005). Furthermore, research has confirmed that engaging in system justification was associated with decreased negative affect, increased positive affect, and increased satisfaction with life (e.g., Wakslak, Jost, Tyler, & Cohen, 2007), though the positive effects might not be equal for members of the advantaged and disadvantaged groups (e.g., Rankin, Jost, & Wakslak, 2009).

1.2.2 The Motive of System Justification

SJT provides a motivational account of the extent to which people tend to defend, justify, and rationalize the status quo (Jost et al., 2010). Specifically, the theory introduces four major arguments (Jost et al., 2004). Firstly, SJT posits that individuals have an ideological motive to justify the existing social order. Secondly, the theory states that outgroup favoritism displayed by members of disadvantaged groups and their internalization of inferiority are at least partially due to this motive (e.g., Jost & Thompson, 2000). Thirdly, according to the theory, such tendency to justify the status quo is most observable at an implicit, unconscious level of awareness (e.g., Jost, Pelham, & Carvallo, 2002). Finally, the theory posits that individuals most disadvantaged due to status quo sometimes show the strongest tendency to justify the social order (e.g., Henry & Saul, 2006; Jost, Pelham, Sheldon, & Sullivan, 2003). In guidance of these four arguments, many hypotheses were derived which has contributed to both theoretical and empirical research on SJT (see Jost et al., 2004; Jost & van der Toorn, 2012).

SJT has been contextualized within a goal pursuit framework in order to better understand the motivational processes underlying system justification tendencies (Jost et al., 2008). Accordingly, four theoretical propositions were suggested based on system justification literature. The first proposition concerns the existence of a *goal* to maintain the status quo operating at both conscious and unconscious levels. Hence, in addition to believing that the system is fair and legitimate, people do want to believe that it is so. The second proposition is about possible variables that might affect system justification tendencies. In particular, a number of situational (e.g., system threat) and dispositional (e.g., uncertainty avoidance) factors influences the strength of motivation to justify the system. The third proposition is related to the palliative function of system justification. That is, pursuing system justification goals serve to satisfy various social and psychological needs, including epistemic (needs for consistency, coherence, and certainty) and existential (need to find meaning in life and to manage threats) needs. The fourth proposition concerns the dynamics of social change. Engaging in system justification is associated with resistance to change. However, when system-level change is perceived as inevitable

in that it comes quickly and completely, the goal of justifying the old system disappears rapidly and people become motivated to justify the new one. In other words, a rapid conversion to the new status quo occurs that function as a social and psychological adaptation to the system-level change (Jost et al., 2008; e.g., Kay, Jimenez, & Jost, 2002).

It is worthy of note that, according to the theory, system justification is not a motive that is present with the same strength in everyone and that is engaged at all times. In this regard, elaborating on the second proposition that both dispositional and situational factors influence system justification tendencies is deemed necessary. The general trend in system justification research has been to adopt an individual differences approach, that is, to study various dispositional factors influencing system justification tendencies (Thorisdottir, Jost, & Kay, 2009). Particularly, needs for order, structure and closure, uncertainty avoidance, and intolerance of ambiguity were found to be positively, whereas openness to experience and cognitive experience were found to be negatively associated with system justification (Jost & Hunyady, 2005). Only recently has the research focus been geared toward the contextual nature of the system justification motive. A number of situational factors that have been identified to increase the strength of motivation to justify the system are perception of a dangerous world, perceived legitimacy of the system, system threat, system dependence, system inescapability, and low personal control (Jost & Hunyady, 2005; Kay & Friesen, 2011; Kay & Zanna, 2009). Much research has confirmed that system justification motive becomes more salient under these contexts.

Having explained the basic tenets of SJT, different means of engaging in system justification will be elaborated next.

1.2.3 Multiple Means for System Justification

Research on SJT is aimed at understanding how attitudes, beliefs, and ideologies function to maintain the existing social system (Jost, 2011). The literature has shown that system justification tendency is related to increased ideological support for various forms of the social order (e.g., political system), differentiation of social

groups on stereotypical basis, and ingroup favoritism by the advantaged and outgroup favoritism by the disadvantaged (Jost et al., 2008; for a review, see Jost et al., 2004). In this sense, ideological endorsement, stereotyping, and group favoritism are the various means by which social systems are perceived as fair and legitimate. In the following three paragraphs, these three means of engaging in system justification will be mentioned.

A number of system-justifying ideologies have been identified by researchers studying the theory. Specifically, Protestant work ethic, meritocratic ideology, fair market ideology, economic system justification, belief in a just world, power distance, social dominance orientation, opposition to equality, right-wing authoritarianism, and political conservatism have been reported as several ways of ideological endorsement (Jost & Hunyady, 2005). However, it is important to note that system-justifying ideologies might show variation in their content. In different contexts, ideologies with different contents might be at work to legitimize the existing social order. Still, Jost and Hunyady (2005) argued that similar social and psychological processes would be involved for the system justification motive, irrespective of the contexts and the contents of ideologies.

Another mean by which people engage in system justification is complementary stereotyping. From a SJT perspective, it is reasonable to view complementary stereotyping as an ideological process that contributes to the maintenance of the status quo and perceived legitimacy of the system (see Jost, 2001). A body of research has shown that complementary stereotypes efficiently serve to justify the existing social inequality (e.g., Jost & Kay, 2005; Jost, Kivetz, Ruini, Guermandi, & Mosso, 2005; Kay & Jost, 2003). Particularly, representation of both advantaged and disadvantaged group members as having complementary strengths and weaknesses renders a psychological sense of equality. In turn, when activated, these stereotypes will enhance system justification to the extent they contribute to rationalization of social inequality. Researchers have provided empirical evidence for the system-justifying function of complementary stereotypes of various types, including gender (Jost & Kay, 2005), socioeconomic status (Kay & Jost, 2003), and region and ethnicity (Jost et al., 2005). For instance, a series of experimental studies

conducted by Kay and Jost (2003) revealed that exposing participants to complementary stereotype exemplars in which the poor is represented as happier and as more honest than the rich led to higher scores on a general measure of system justification. Such findings indicate that stereotypes serve to increase ideological support for the existing social system.

Group favoritism is also one manifestation of the system justification motive. Defined as “the expression of an evaluative preference for members of a group to which one does not belong” (Jost et al., 2004, p. 891), group favoritism is regarded as a means of engaging in system justification insofar as it reinforces the legitimacy of inequality between groups. Specifically, SJT argues that members of both advantaged and disadvantaged groups engage in thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that maintain existing social systems (Jost et al., 2002). According to this reasoning, ingroup favoritism displayed by members of advantaged groups and outgroup favoritism displayed by members of disadvantaged groups are forms of system justification motive (Jost & Hunyady, 2005). As related to the distinctive aspect of SJT mentioned earlier, this theory provides a direct account of outgroup favoritism on the part of the disadvantaged as a system-serving intergroup process, unlike other theories that emphasized self and group interests. SJT explains the tendency of the disadvantaged to have more favorable attitudes toward the advantaged on the basis of system justification motive (Jost & Banaji, 1994; Jost & Hunyady, 2002). Research on SJT has revealed that outgroup favoritism is displayed, at both explicit and implicit levels, by many social groups in real world on differing evaluative dimensions, including racial, ethnic and other status dimensions such as gender and age (Jost, 2011; for a review, see Jost et al., 2004).

1.2.4 Measuring System Justification

As explained above, there are multiple means of engaging in system justification. In fact, as related to one of the main arguments of SJT, research has revealed that these system-serving attitudes, beliefs, and ideologies operate at both conscious and unconscious levels. Corresponding to these two levels, forms of system justification

have been studied by using direct (or explicit) as well as indirect (or implicit) measures.

The theoretical rationale for employing both direct and indirect measures to investigate conscious and unconscious forms of system justification concerns the psychological conflict among the motives of ego, group, and system justification. Particularly, SJT posits that the motive to justify the existing social system is enhanced when salience or strength of individual or group interests and esteem is low and such condition is possible by investigating non-conscious forms of system justification via unobtrusive, i.e., indirect measures (Jost et al., 2004; Jost et al., 2002).

The methodological rationale underlying the issue is mainly based on critiques made for outgroup favoritism observed on explicit measures. Outgroup favoritism on the part of the disadvantaged has been criticized for reflecting public conformity and impression management, and being due to demand characteristics and social desirability (Dasgupta, 2004; Jost et al., 2004; Jost et al., 2002). In this regard, observation of outgroup favoritism on indirect measures, which are free of such methodological concerns, is considered as evidence for system justification among members of disadvantaged groups.

A series of studies conducted by Jost et al. (2002) to investigate non-conscious forms of system justification provide evidence for implicit and behavioral preferences for higher status groups, particularly, outgroup favoritism. In three studies, system justification was examined in different intergroup contexts regarding university status (in terms of educational achievement and social class), ethnic status, and gender status, respectively. Each study employed a different indirect measure for assessing preferences for higher status groups. In Study 1, members of the high-status group displayed significant ingroup favoritism on Implicit Association Test (IAT), which has been revealed to be a useful measure for documenting consensual, system-justifying preferences for high status groups (Jost et al., 2004; Jost et al., 2002). However, ingroup favoritism displayed by members of the low status group was not significant. Moreover, among members of the low

status group, outgroup favoritism was observed to be more than twice of outgroup favoritism displayed by members of the high status group. In Study 2, members of the low status group were found to significantly display outgroup favoritism on an unobtrusive measure such that Latinos and Asian Americans were more likely to choose White interaction partners over members belonging to their own groups. Study 3 used implicit paternalism as an indirect measure of system justification based on gender groups. Evaluation of archival data examining naming letter preference for children revealed that newborns were more likely to share first initials with their fathers compared to their mothers. In fact, such disproportionate preference was significant only for boys, not for girls. Overall, the findings provided converging evidence for outgroup favoritism on the part of low status group members and ingroup favoritism on the part of high status group members (Jost et al., 2002). Most importantly, as exemplified with this study, measuring system justification indirectly, i.e., unobtrusively, reveals non-conscious forms of justifying the existing social order and it proves enhanced system justification among members of disadvantaged (or low status) groups when salience of individual or group interests are low.

Now that SJT is introduced with a general overview, literature on system justification pertaining to gender context will be presented.

1.3 SJT in Gender Context

SJT has paved the way for an important body of research that provides an understanding of various gender issues. Particularly, system justification studies conducted in gender context bring insight on the motivational underpinnings of why women as well as men accept and internalize gender inequality, gender stereotypes, and traditional sex roles (Glick & Fiske, 2001a). Therefore, SJT is considered to be a valuable work for its addressing system justification motive in relation to gender issues.

In the current thesis, SJT will be studied with focus on ambivalent sexism toward women. For this reason, first, ambivalence toward women will be explained in the framework of Ambivalent Sexism Theory. It will be followed by a theoretical as

well as empirical discussion of how ambivalent sexism can be viewed as contributing to maintenance of gender inequality, thereby, serving a system-justifying function.

1.3.1 Ambivalent Sexism toward Women

Previous theorizing on sexism was based on the classical social psychological orientation that viewed sexism as simple antipathy (Allport, 1954). Hence, sexism was assumed to reflect hostility toward women. In reaction to this antipathy view of sexism, Glick and Fiske (1996) challenged the unidimensional nature of sexism which, according to them, was lacking subjectively positive feelings toward women. They argued with Ambivalent Sexism Theory (AST) that sexism encompassed both hostile and benevolent attitudes and proposed a multidimensional model for sexism, namely, hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS). In this way, Glick and Fiske (1996; 2001a) addressed the ambivalent nature of sexism as justifying and reinforcing gender inequality.

The complementary components of sexism, HS and BS, are characterized by opposing orientations toward women, thereby, creating ambivalence (Glick & Fiske, 1996). HS and BS share three sources of ambivalence concerning gender relations, which are patriarchy, gender differentiation, and sexuality. However, their content differs for the two components of ambivalent sexism. Specifically, HS includes dominative paternalism (acceptance of male dominance in which women are viewed as incompetent), competitive gender differentiation (acceptance of male structural power in which only men are seen as having qualities needed for governing important social institutions), and heterosexual hostility (the belief that women use their sexual attractiveness to control men). On the other hand, BS, as a subtle form of prejudice, includes protective paternalism (acceptance of women's dependency on men for protection), complementary gender differentiation (acceptance of women's having positive traits that men stereotypically do not have), and heterosexual intimacy (the belief that men's sexual motivation for women reflect their desire for psychological closeness). As revealed by their content, HS is characterized by unfavorable attitudes whereas BS is characterized by favorable

attitudes toward women. BS seems to have a subjectively affectionate orientation, yet, it corresponds to an affective expression of male dominance. Accordingly, BS is considered to be sexist for viewing women as inferior to men and in need of their protection (Glick & Fiske, 1996; 2001a).

In an attempt to develop a measure for ambivalent sexism, Glick and Fiske (1996) established the reliability and validity of Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) that differentiates between HS and BS, and demonstrated its cross-cultural prevalence (Glick et al., 2000). Accordingly, they were found to be positively related but distinct constructs, proving their complementarity. As expected, HS predicted ascription of negative, whereas, BS predicted ascription of positive traits to women. Compared to men, women were found to be less acceptive of HS than BS, i.e., they were more likely than men to endorse BS than HS, especially in nations with high levels of sexism. In fact, at the national level of analysis, averages on HS and BS were found to predict gender inequality (Glick et al., 2000).

Given its theoretical and empirical strength, ambivalent sexism has been studied in Turkey concerning different topics such as attitudes toward wife abuse (Erçan, 2009; Glick, Sakallı-Uğurlu, Ferreira, & de Souza, 2002; Sakallı, 2001), sexual harassment (Salman, 2007; Turgut, 2007), attitudes toward rape victims (Sakallı-Uğurlu, Yalçın, & Glick, 2007), understanding of honor (Işık, 2008), and attitudes toward women and men's atypical educational choices (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2010).

In the present study, ambivalent sexism will be studied in relation to SJT. Having explained the theoretical basis of ambivalent sexism, now, its role for system justification processes will be elaborated.

1.3.2 The relation between Ambivalent Sexism and System Justification

It is plausible to consider ambivalent sexism as serving to justify the social hierarchy among men and women. Such system-justifying role of ambivalent sexism is based on its dual nature. On one hand, BS offers men's affection as a "reward" for women who fulfill traditional gender ideals (BS the "carrot"). On the other hand, HS gives "punishment" to women who fail to conform to these ideals

(HS the “stick”) (Cikara, Lee, Fiske, & Glick, 2009). Through this reward-punishment process, ambivalent sexism effectively contributes to maintenance of women’s subordinate position in the very existing social system.

A body of research, most of which is correlational, has excelled in revealing the relationship between ambivalent sexism and system justification. Particularly, BS might be more appealing for women (the disadvantaged group) because HS contradicts with individual and group interests. In fact, BS might be an ideological solution for that conflict as it reinforces an image of society in which both men and women have positive and negative traits (men idealized for their competency, but in need of women’s love to become a whole; women idealized for their warmth, yet subordinated for their needing men’s protection) (Glick & Fiske, 2001a; 2001b; Glick et al., 2000). This reasoning was supported by findings revealed by research in which (1) women were found to be more acceptive of BS than men were, especially in cultures with higher levels of overall sexism, and (2) men’s HS scores were found to predict women’s BS scores. Such pattern was interpreted as, ironically, suggesting BS as a way for women to avoid men’s hostility (Glick et al., 2000). In fact, these findings are consistent with SJT’s previously mentioned notion of enhanced system justification among the disadvantaged.

The relevance of ambivalent sexism to system justification has been studied with respect to behaviors enacted in private and public spheres (Cikara et al., 2009). For instance, a study conducted by Silván-Ferrero and López (2007) with high school girls in Spain revealed that BS was significantly associated with contribution to housework by doing highly gender typed tasks. This study is important for demonstrating a behavioral aspect of how women holding benevolent attitudes toward their ingroup actively take part in, from a very young age, perpetuating the very system that put them in a disadvantaged position.

Being the first study to provide evidence for a causal link between BS and system justification, Jost and Kay (2005) investigated the system-justifying effects of complementary gender stereotypes. The authors argued that if they do serve to justify gender inequality, then, their activation would lead to enhanced support for

the existing system of gender relations. The findings of the study revealed that exposure to benevolent (when participants were asked to respond to four BS items from ASI) and complementary (when participants were asked to respond to two BS and two HS items from ASI) stereotypes increased both general and gender-based system justification tendencies among women (but not among men) (Jost & Kay, 2005). In another experimental study conducted by Becker and Wright (2011) in Germany, it was found that on explicit measure of gender-specific system justification, exposure to BS led to increased whereas exposure to HS led to decreased system justification among women.

Recently, a longitudinal study conducted with New Zealand female undergraduate samples demonstrated the system-justifying effect of BS (Sibley, Overall, & Duckitt, 2007). It was found that women's endorsement of BS positively predicted the extent to which they endorsed HS over both 6-month and 12-month time periods. In line with AST, such effect was interpreted as being due to BS decreasing women's resistance to hostile forms of sexism toward their ingroup (Sibley et al., 2007). As consistent with SJT, their findings provide evidence for how members of disadvantaged groups tend to adopt ideologies that in fact reinforce their disadvantaged position in the social system they are part of.

The relevance of ambivalent sexism to system justification was also studied in terms of their relation to well-being. A recent multinational research based on nationally representative data from 32 countries (including Turkey) investigated how endorsement of HS and BS is linked to subjective well-being for both men and women (Napier, Thorisdottir, & Jost, 2010). In other words, they examined the palliative function of hostile and benevolent justifications for gender inequality. Their findings revealed that endorsement of BS, compared to HS, was associated with higher levels of life satisfaction in relatively egalitarian nations. However, people who exclusively endorsed HS or BS did not significantly differ with respect to levels of life satisfaction (Napier et al., 2010). This study is important for providing cross-cultural evidence for how HS and BS serve a system-justifying function by demonstrating their palliative function, as well as how this function is moderated by national-level gender inequality.

Napier et al.'s (2010) findings were further supported in a more recent research that examined gender differences for the palliative function of sexist ideologies in a New Zealand sample (Hammond & Sibley, 2011). A direct association was found for BS and life satisfaction among men. However, BS was indirectly associated with life satisfaction among women in that it was mediated by gender-specific system justification. Hence, for women, endorsement of BS increased life satisfaction insofar as they perceived gender relations to be fair and equitable (Hammond & Sibley, 2011).

There are also findings from Turkey regarding the relation between ambivalent sexism and system justification, which were obtained as part of thesis studies examining different social psychological topics. In one study, scores on HS and BS were found to be significantly and positively related to economic system justification (Işık, 2008). More relevantly, a different study revealed a significant correlation between HS (but not BS) and gender-related system justification (Ercan, 2009). Most recently, both HS and BS were found to be significantly correlated with gender-related system justification (Aktan, 2012).

As revealed by the literature mentioned above, justifying gender-based social hierarchy is, both theoretically and empirically, related to ambivalent sexism in that HS and BS form an ideological system that perpetuates gender inequality (Glick & Fiske, 2001a; Glick et al., 2000). In the following section, another focus of the current study, i.e., a terror management perspective to SJT will be presented.

1.4 SJT from a Terror Management Perspective

In the current study, TMT will be studied with respect to gender group relations by exploring its influence on the motivation to justify the system on gender basis. However, for a better understanding of a terror management perspective to SJT, first, TMT will be briefly explained. It will be followed by a discussion of the relation between SJT and TMT.

1.4.1 Terror Management Theory (TMT)

Being the first theory with an empirical orientation to address the question of why people need self-esteem (Greenberg et al., 1986; Pyszczynski, Greenberg, Solomon, Arndt, & Schimel, 2004), TMT focuses on the psychological functions of culture and self-esteem. It posits that humans' unique awareness of the inevitability of death conflicting with the desire for continued survival creates an overwhelming potential for existential terror (Pyszczynski et al., 2004). According to the core premise of the theory, this fear of death is controlled by the construction and maintenance of cultural worldviews defined as "humanly constructed shared symbolic conceptions of reality that give meaning, order, and permanence to existence; provide a set of standards for what is valuable; and promise some form of either literal or symbolic immortality to those who believe in the cultural worldview and live up to its standards of value" (Pyszczynski et al., 2004, p. 436). In this sense, TMT posits that self-esteem is a culturally based belief that one's worldview is valid and that one is a valuable contributor to that meaningful reality. Hence, self-esteem is sustained by living up to the set of standards prescribed by individualized cultural worldviews (Pyszczynski, Solomon, & Greenberg, 2003).

TMT has been studied in a myriad of domains within social psychology (for a review of recent research, see Greenberg, Solomon, & Arndt, 2008). The core premise of TMT, that cultural worldviews and self-esteem serve to buffer death-related anxiety, has been supported empirically with an extensive body of research (for a review, see Burke et al., 2010; Pyszczynski et al., 2004). Hypotheses derived from TMT are typically tested by reminding people of their own death (mortality salience, MS; Greenberg et al., 2008). Particularly, empirical evidence has shown that MS increases self-esteem striving and worldview defense (the MS hypothesis; Burke et al., 2010; Greenberg et al., 1992; Pyszczynski et al., 2003). As relevant to the purpose of the current study, it is important to note that cultural worldview defense serves an anxiety buffering function to the extent that the particular worldview is capable of quelling death-related anxiety (Greenberg et al., 2008).

Having introduced TMT with its central tenets, next, the relevance of terror management to system justification processes will be outlined as the theoretical link between SJT and TMT will be explained.

1.4.2 The relation between SJT and TMT

From the perspective of intergroup relations, these two theories, SJT and TMT, can be argued to converge at some point with regard to their theoretical grounds. Specifically, system justification could be a way of bolstering and defending cultural worldview. This reasoning can be explained by considering the two theories in terms of threat, stereotyping, and self-esteem. Now, the subject matter will be elaborated with a theoretical as well as an empirical discussion.

The relation between the two theories is based on the effect of MS on the tendency to justify the existing system. As previously mentioned, MS is known to motivate the need to manage the cultural anxiety due to human awareness of mortality by increased self-esteem and faith in one's cultural worldview. In fact, MS is suggested to increase system justification to the extent that it strengthens cultural anxiety buffer (Arndt, Greenberg, Schimel, Pyszczynski, & Solomon, 2002) since cultural worldviews are rooted in the social, economic, and political ideologies of the culture one is situated in (Anson, Pyszczynski, Solomon, & Greenberg, 2009). Specifically, what has been interpreted as one's defense of individualized cultural worldview by TMT is viewed as the tendency to justify the existing social system from the perspective of SJT (Anson et al., 2009).

This relationship between SJT and TMT has only recently attracted the attention of researchers. In fact, it was supported with an empirical study by Lyons and Martens (2009) aimed at examining the moderating effect of MS on system justification processes. In particular, the researchers expected MS to positively moderate people's support for the social and political status quo evaluated in the context of the outbreak of a bacterium in National Health Service (NHS) hospitals in England. Being a bacterium that puts people at hospitals into greater risk for infections, tendency of 232 English nationals to justify the social system with respect to shortcomings and failures of NHS hospitals were assessed with both explicit and

implicit measures. The findings of the study supported their hypothesis in that MS was found to increase people's tendency to justify the system (i.e., participants tended to think that the outbreak was not due to shortcomings and failures of NHS hospitals).

The relationship between SJT and TMT can be further clarified by considering the two theories in terms of threat, self-esteem, and stereotyping. Firstly, both SJT and TMT have attempted to explain people's reactions to 9/11 terrorist attacks which qualify as both system threat and MS (Jost & Hunyady, 2005; Landau et al., 2004). One hypothesis derived from SJT is that system justifying tendencies increase in response to threats to social system (Jost et al., 2004; Kay & Friesen, 2011). That is, members of disadvantaged groups will engage more in outgroup favoritism (or less in ingroup favoritism) and members of advantaged groups will engage more in ingroup favoritism when they perceive a threat to the existing social order. In line with this hypothesis of SJT, terrorist attacks of 9/11 can be argued to have increased the need to defend and justify the existing social, political, and economic systems (Jost & Hunyady, 2005; Jost et al., 2008; Jost et al., 2004) because terrorism, by definition, is perceived as a system threat. From the perspective of TMT, threat posed by 9/11 attacks is viewed to have evoked a "natural" mortality salience (Jost & Hunyady, 2005). In line with this view, terrorism salience can be argued to produce the same effects as MS produce. Taken together, mortality salience might increase the tendency to justify the system when MS is considered as a system threat (e.g., 9/11 attacks). In fact, an experimental study conducted by Ullrich and Cohrs (2007) has revealed findings supporting this argument. Their results showed that among German citizens, terrorism salience led to increased system justification tendency as measured by using the German version of Kay and Jost's (2003) system justification scale.

Secondly, the relation between SJT and TMT can be considered with regard to self-esteem. One of the hypotheses derived from research on SJT is that system justification is positively associated with self-esteem and well-being among members of advantaged groups and negatively among members of disadvantaged groups (Jost et al., 2004; Jost & Thompson, 2000), especially for members highly

identified with their groups (O'Brien & Major, 2005). On the other hand, as mentioned before, TMT hypothesizes that MS increases self-esteem striving. In this sense, it can be argued that increased system justification can be a way for self-esteem striving (especially for the advantaged) so as to buffer against death-related anxiety.

Thirdly, SJT and TMT can be linked to each other in terms of their relation to stereotyping. Research on SJT has shown that people use stereotypes to distinguish between high- and low-status groups in order to rationalize the inequality, hence justify the system when it is threatened or attacked (Jost & Hunyady, 2002), and that stereotypes function as an ideological justification (Jost, 2001). As mentioned earlier, complementary gender stereotypes have been found to serve a system justification function in that their temporary activation was associated with increased support for the status quo (Jost & Kay, 2005). TMT research has also demonstrated that MS increases to think stereotypically of outgroup members and to prefer stereotype-confirming outgroup members (Schimel et al., 1999). Such findings point that culturally available stereotypes function to bolster individuals' faith in cultural worldview. In view of the findings of SJT and TMT with regard to stereotyping, MS can be argued to increase system justification since stereotyping is both a way of legitimizing the system and defending cultural worldview.

In light of the literature mentioned above for SJT along with its relevance to ambivalent sexism and terror management, finally, an overview of the current study will be given as well as its aims and hypotheses.

1.5 The Overview of the Current Study: Aims and Hypotheses

The aim of the current study is to investigate the possible link between SJT and TMT in gender context and from the perspective of intergroup relations in that it will focus on ambivalently sexist attitudes toward women and gender-group favoritism. Specifically, in an attempt to understand system justification tendencies in relation to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism, and whether such understanding can be enhanced by a terror management perspective, the moderating role of MS will be examined.

As revealed by the literature reviewed above for SJT as well as its relevance to ambivalent sexism and terror management, it is worthwhile to explore whether ambivalent sexism and group favoritism are means of system justification, and if so, how such processes might be influenced by MS. Taken together, these lines of research suggest that ambivalent sexism might be a system-justifying ideology and that group favoritism (i.e., outgroup favoritism by women and ingroup favoritism by men) might be a form of system justification. Furthermore, though empirical research on the relationship between SJT and TMT is limited; based on the theoretical reasoning presented earlier, MS might be expected to strengthen the relation of system justification to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism.

Given the rationale for studying SJT in gender context from a terror management perspective, the current thesis aims at providing empirical insight onto ambivalent sexism toward women and gender-group favoritism as means of system justification. Most importantly, it will examine whether MS moderates the relationship between system justification and ambivalent sexism (both HS and BS) as well as between system justification and gender-group favoritism (at both explicit and implicit levels).

The current study aims to contribute to social psychological research in Turkey in many respects. Firstly, this study aims to extend recent work on ambivalent sexism by directly addressing it as related to gender-related system justification with a Turkish sample. Secondly, it will employ both explicit and implicit measures for assessing gender-group favoritism. Essential in this regard, this study embodies a methodological strength in providing an account of gender-group favoritism as related to gender-related system justification. In fact, it is the first to employ an implicit measure of gender-group favoritism in Turkey. Thirdly, the present study aims to contribute to TMT research in Turkey as it will investigate the effect of MS in gender context, in particular, ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism. Most central to the current analysis, this study aims to address the relation between SJT and TMT in gender context, as far is known has not been demonstrated empirically hitherto. Particularly, it will reveal whether MS moderates the relation of gender-specific system justification to ambivalent sexism and to gender-group

favoritism. Concerning these points, the findings of the present study will be novel for social psychological research in Turkey.

Based on the above overview, the following three main research questions are to be explored in the current study:

1. *Is gender-specific system justification (GSJ) related to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism?*
2. *Does gender moderate the relation of GSJ to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism?*
3. *Does MS moderate the relation of GSJ to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism?*

For each of the research question, two components of ambivalent sexism (i.e., HS and BS) and the explicit and implicit measures of gender-group favoritism (expGF and impGF, respectively) will be analyzed separately. Accordingly, the hypotheses generated from these three research questions are as follows:

Hypothesis 1.1:

Consistent with the literature reviewed for the relation between system justification and ambivalent sexism, HS and BS might be considered as system-justifying ideologies. In support of this hypothesis, GSJ is expected to positively predict HS and BS.

Hypothesis 1.2:

In line with SJT research revealing group favoritism as one manifestation of the system justification motive, gender-group favoritism is hypothesized to reflect system justification at both explicit and implicit levels. Therefore, GSJ is expected to positively predict expGF (explicit ingroup favoritism for both men and women) and impGF (because impGF does not involve a reference for interpreting in/outgroup favoritism, this pre

Hypothesis 2.1:

Based on the paradoxical argument of SJT that members of disadvantaged groups are more likely to justify the system than members of advantaged groups (Jost et al.,

2004), the relation of GSJ to HS and to BS are both expected to be moderated by gender. Accordingly, GSJ – HS and GSJ – BS predictions are hypothesized to be stronger among women (i.e., members of the disadvantaged group) than among men (i.e., members of the advantaged group).

Hypothesis 2.2:

As similar to the Hypothesis 2.1, the relation of GSJ to expGF and to impGF are expected to be moderated by gender. Accordingly, GSJ – expGF and GSJ – impGF predictions are hypothesized to be stronger among women (i.e., among members of the disadvantaged group) than among men (i.e., among members of the advantaged group).

Hypothesis 3.1:

Based on the reasoning that MS strengthens system justification processes insofar as it functions to buffer death-related anxiety (Anson et al., 2009; Arndt et al., 2002), the relation of GSJ to HS and to BS are both expected to be moderated by MS. Specifically, GSJ – HS and GSJ – BS predictions are hypothesized to be stronger when mortality is made salient as compared to when it is not.

Hypothesis 3.2:

As with the same reasoning in Hypothesis 3.1, MS is expected to moderate the relation of GSJ to expGF and impGF. In particular, GSJ – expGF and GSJ – impGF predictions are hypothesized to be enhanced when mortality is made salient as compared to the control condition.

For a better understanding of the research questions and the related hypotheses to be explored in the current study, the theoretical model employed is outlined in Figure 1.

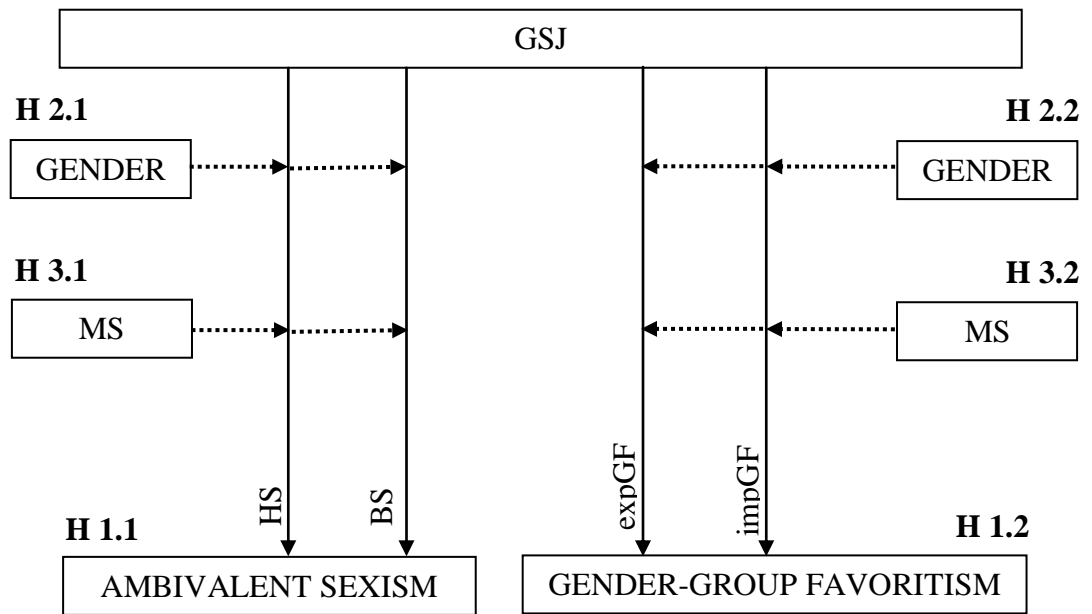


Figure 1. *Theoretical Model of the Study*

Note. MS = Mortality Salience; GSJ = Gender-specific System Justification; HS = Hostile Sexism; BS = Benevolent Sexism; expGF = Explicit Ingroup Favoritism; impGF = Implicit Group Favoritism.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1 Participants

A total of 198 students (107 female, 91 male) from various departments of Middle East Technical University (METU) in Ankara, Turkey participated in the current study. The participants were recruited through convenience sampling. Of 198 participants, 143 were students enrolled in either “General Psychology” or “Understanding Social Behavior” courses given by the Psychology department and received bonus points in return for their participation. The remaining 55 participants were volunteers who were recruited through advertisements placed around the university campus and posted in mailing lists of various student clubs and societies. All but one of the participants reported their age, which ranged from 18 to 30 ($M = 21.83$, $SD = 2.10$). Data were collected from 3 preparatory school students (1.5%), 190 undergraduate students (96%), and 5 graduate students (2.5%). A majority of the participants reported their monthly family income to be middle ($n = 130$, 65.7%) whereas 24.7% reported as high ($n = 49$) and 9.6% reported as low ($n = 19$). More than two-third of the participants reported that they spent most of their lives in a city ($n = 125$, 63.1%) and the remaining participants reported the place they mostly lived in as village ($n = 7$, 3.5%), town ($n = 10$, 5.1%), or metropolis ($n = 56$, 28.3%).

2.2 Instruments

The questionnaire package administered to the participants contained the demographic information form, Gender-specific System Justification Scale (Jost & Kay, 2005), Mortality Saliency (MS) manipulation, Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI; Glick & Fiske, 1996), and measures of gender-group favoritism, both explicit (developed for the present study) and implicit (Implicit Association Test; IAT;

Greenwald, McGhee, & Schwartz, 1998). Following the explicit measure of group favoritism, participants were provided with a brief instruction to continue with the computer-administered task (i.e., IAT). Hence, participants completed the measures in this order.

2.2.1 Demographic Information Form

In order to obtain information on demographic characteristics of the sample, participants were asked to indicate their sex, age, current education (university, department, and degree), monthly family income, and the place they spent most of their lives (see Appendix A).

2.2.2 Gender-specific System Justification (GSJ) Scale

The 8-item GSJ scale was developed by Jost and Kay (2005) to assess the extent to which people have the tendency to justify the system on gender basis. The items were adapted from general system justification items developed by Kay and Jost (2003) such that they were reworded to focus on gender inequality. Hence, the scale contained eight opinion statements regarding the current state of gender relations and gender role division (e.g., “In general, relations between men and women are fair”). Of the 8 items, 2 were reverse coded (e.g., “Gender roles need to be radically restructured”). In their study, the items were rated on a 9-point Likert type scale reflecting participants’ strength of agreement with each statement. All the responses given were coded such that high scores indicated higher levels of gender-specific system justification. The developed measure was found to have an internal consistency reliability of .65 (Jost & Kay, 2005).

The original GSJ scale was translated into Turkish by a graduate student at METU Psychology Department, Ruşen Işık, together with her supervisor Prof. Dr. Nuray Sakallı-Uğurlu. Back-translation procedure was also applied to ensure that the translated version was compatible with the original language of the scale. It was used by Ercan (2009) as a 7-point Likert type scale for her master’s thesis and was applied to a sample consisting of 385 participants. In her study, two items were eliminated due to loadings less than .30 and low item-total correlations. Cronbach’s

alpha for the remaining six items was .74, which proved that GSJ scale was reliably adapted.

In the present study, this adapted version of the 8-item GSJ scale was used (see Appendix B). All items were scaled according to 6-point Likert type format in which participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (6). The neutral option “neither agree nor disagree” was not used for the sake of research purposes. Responses were coded in a way that higher scores on GSJ indicated higher tendency to justify the gender-related system. During computation of the scale scores, one item (item 5) was not included due to its low item-total correlation. A mean score of the responses given to the remaining 7 items was used as an overall index for GSJ. The internal consistency reliability of the scale consisting of 7 items was found to be .72.

2.2.3 Mortality Salience (MS) Manipulation

MS manipulation was induced by asking participants to answer two open-ended questions about either their own death or a neutral topic (watching television), as have been used previously in TMT research (Pyszczynski et al., 2004; e.g., Rosenblatt, Greenberg, Solomon, Pyszczynski, & Lyon, 1989). Particularly, participants responded to the questions “Please briefly describe the emotions that the thought of your own death (or watching television) arouse in you” and “Jot down, as specifically as you can, what you think will happen to you as you physically die (or as you watch television)”. Hence, the manipulation had two conditions to which participants were randomly assigned (death and control, respectively). In both conditions, the measure was introduced as “The Projective Life Attitudes Assessment” to obscure the aim of the manipulation (see Appendix C).

Following the two open-ended questions, participants were asked to complete a word search puzzle (created by the author) and rate its difficulty on a 9-point Likert scale ranging from *very easy* (1) to *very difficult* (9) (see Appendix D). The puzzle was used as a distractor task that functioned to provide a delay between MS manipulation and dependent variable assessment. In this way, death-related

thoughts would remain accessible but be outside of consciousness. Such delay was preferred because previous research has shown that MS effect is stronger when death-related thoughts are highly accessible but not conscious (e.g., Greenberg, Pyszczynski, Solomon, Simon, & Breus, 1994).

2.2.4 Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)

Originally developed by Glick and Fiske (1996) and revised by Glick et al. (2000), the current study used the 22-item ASI as a self-report measure to assess participants' ambivalent attitudes toward women. The ASI consists of two subscales for measuring sexist attitudes, which correspond to the two forms of sexism: hostile sexism and benevolent sexism (HS and BS, respectively). Both subscales have 11 items rated on a 6-point Likert type scale (without a midpoint) covering three sources of male ambivalence, namely, paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality. HS is a unidimensional scale characterized by the underlying dimensions dominative paternalism, competitive gender differentiation, and heterosexual hostility. On the other hand, BS is characterized by the underlying dimensions protective paternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual intimacy. Accordingly, contrary to HS, BS was found to have three subfactors (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Both subscales do not have any reverse items due to problems observed with reverse coding in cross-cultural studies (Glick et al., 2000). Hence, all the items reflect sexism such that higher scores on each scale indicate having more hostile or benevolent sexist attitudes toward women. The ASI was found to be a highly reliable measure as Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the 22-item scale ranged between .83 and .92, with reliability coefficients ranging between .80 and .92 for HS, and ranging between .73 and .85 for BS (Glick & Fiske, 1996). The ASI was also found to have convergent, discriminant, and predictive validity (for details, see Glick & Fiske, 1996).

The original ASI was translated into Turkish as part of a cross-cultural study (Glick et al., 2000). The reliability and validity of the Turkish version were established in an adaptation study conducted by Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002) with a sample of university students. As in the original ASI, a 6-point Likert type format without a midpoint

was used and participants were asked to indicate their degree of agreement from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (6). The Turkish version had an internal consistency reliability of .85. The Cronbach's alpha coefficients for HS and BS were .87 and .78, respectively (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002). The test-retest reliability was found to be .87. Concerning construct validity, ASI was highly correlated with Burt's Sex Role Stereotyping Scale. Moreover, the adaptation study revealed the same factor structure with the original ASI. Such findings indicated that the Turkish version of ASI was a psychometrically sound measure of sexism (both hostile and benevolent) in Turkey. In fact, studies done with Turkish ASI further demonstrate its use as a reliable and valid measure assessing both forms of sexist attitudes toward women (e.g., Ercan, 2009; Işık, 2008; Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2010).

In the present study, this adapted version of 22-item ASI was used (see Appendix E). Responses were coded in a way that higher scores on the subscales indicated higher levels of hostile and benevolent sexism. A mean score of the responses given to each subscale was used as an overall index for HS and BS. The internal consistency reliability of ASI was found to be .88. The Cronbach's alpha for the subscales HS and BS were .87 and .81, respectively.

2.2.5 Gender-Group Favoritism

The current study measured gender-group favoritism at both explicit and implicit levels.

2.2.5.1 Explicit Measure (expGF)

In order to obtain an explicit measure of gender-group favoritism, a 5-item scale assessing attitudes toward the other gender group was developed by the author and her advisor, Sakallı-Uğurlu (see Appendix F). The scale consisted of five statements for which participants were required to rate their degree of agreement on a 6-point Likert type scale from *strongly disagree* (1) to *strongly agree* (6). The neutral option "neither agree nor disagree" was not used. The items were aimed to capture participants' thoughts about gender groups on an evaluative basis (e.g., "In general, I think that my gender has more positive qualities than the other gender"). The scale

had only one was reverse coded item (“There have been times I wished that I belonged to the other gender”). However, during computation of the scale scores, this item was not included due to its low item-total correlation. Responses were coded in a way that higher scores on expGF indicated higher levels of ingroup favoritism. A mean score of the responses given to the remaining 4 items was used as an overall index for expGF. The internal consistency reliability of the scale with 4 items was found to be .68.

2.2.5.2 Implicit Measure (impGF)

An implicit measure of gender-group favoritism was used to assess the extent which participants preferred men or women on an evaluative basis (Jost et al., 2004). For this purpose, the most well-known and widely used implicit measurement method in the literature (Devos, 2008), Implicit Association Test (IAT; Greenwald et al., 1998) was employed. Basically, IAT assesses participants’ readiness to pair different concepts with words that are positively or negatively valenced (e.g., Jost et al., 2002), and provides a measure of the strength of associations between pairs of concepts and evaluative attributes. It is a computer-administered task and during an IAT session, participants are expected to categorize stimuli (concepts and attributes) as they appear on the screen, as quickly as possible (Fazio & Olson, 2003).

Accordingly, IAT measure is derived from response latencies (in milliseconds) for the tasks in which different response mappings are used for concept-attribute combinations. A critical assumption of IAT is that the ease with which participants perform the categorization task under different conditions reveals the strength of associations between pairs of concepts and evaluative attributes (Devos, 2008). In particular, participants are expected to respond more quickly when the concept and the attribute sharing the same response key are strongly associated compared to when they are weakly associated.

In the current study, IAT was used to obtain an implicit measure of gender-group favoritism. The relative strength with which women vs. men were automatically associated with pleasant vs. unpleasant words would function to denote implicit preference for one gender group over the other. The stimuli sets representing the

target concepts (male vs. female words) and the target attributes (pleasant vs. unpleasant words) were identified according to the words used for the Turkish version of IAT in Project Implicit demonstration website (2012). Specifically, words representing the gender category “male” were *man, son, father, male, grandpa, husband, boy, and uncle*, whereas the words representing the gender category “female” were *girl, female, aunt, daughter, wife, woman, mother, and grandma*. As for the words representing the “pleasant” and “unpleasant” categories, *joy, love, peace, wonderful, pleasure, glorious, laughter, happy, and agony, terrible, horrible, nasty, evil, awful, failure, hurt* were used, respectively (see Table 2.1).

Inquisit 3.0.6.0 by Millisecond Software (Inquisit, 2012) was used to conduct IAT sessions. The IAT measuring gender-group favoritism was comprised of five steps with 7 blocks (see Table 2.2 for the sequence of blocks). For each step, participants were required to press either a left or right key to rapidly categorize stimuli that would be presented randomly in the center of a computer screen as belonging to the four different categories. Initially, participants practiced a concept discrimination (male vs. female) (Step 1) followed by an attribute discrimination (pleasant vs. unpleasant) (Step 2) as they categorized items representing these four categories. For the third step, participants were expected to perform the categorization task for the combined categories including one concept and one attribute (i.e., male + pleasant *or* female + unpleasant) with the same response keys designated for the first two steps. This step included two blocks with practice trials (Block 3) followed by test trials (Block 4). For the fourth step, participants were asked to practice the concept discrimination again (male vs. female), but this time the response keys were reversed for the gender group categories. As similar to the third step, the fifth step involved the categorization task for the combined categories but with the just-reversed key response (i.e., female + pleasant *or* male + unpleasant). As in the third step, this final step consisted of two blocks, one for practice trials (Block 6) and one for test trials (Block 7).

The order of the two test blocks (Blocks 4 and 7) were counterbalanced between participants to avoid possible task order effects. In other words, whether male +

Table 2.1*Sets of Stimuli for Target Concepts and Attributes in IAT Measuring Gender-Group Favoritism*

Category Labels	Type of Stimuli	No. of Stimuli	Words Used to Represent the Categories
Target Concepts			
<i>Male</i> (“Erkek”)	Words	8	Adam, Ođlan, Baba, Erkek, Dede, Bey, Ođul, Amca
<i>Female</i> (“Kadın”)	Words	8	Kız, Diři, Teyze, Kızçocuk, Hanım, Kadın, Anne, Büyükanne
Target Attributes			
<i>Pleasant</i> (“Olumlu”)	Words	8	Neře, Sevgi, Huzur, Harika, Keyif, Muhteřem, Kahkaha, Mutlu
<i>Unpleasant</i> (“Olumsuz”)	Words	8	Istırap, Berbat, Korkunç, Çirkin, Fena, Rezil, Başarısızlık, Acı

Table 2.2*Sequence of Blocks in IAT Measuring Gender-Group Favoritism*

Step	Block	No. of trials	Function	Items assigned to the left-key response	Items assigned to the right-key response
1	B1	20	Practice	Male words	Female words
2	B2	20	Practice	Pleasant words	Unpleasant words
3	B3	20	Practice	Male + Pleasant words	Female + Unpleasant words
	B4	40	Test	Male + Pleasant words	Female + Unpleasant words
4	B5	20	Practice	Female words	Male words
5	B6	20	Practice	Female + Pleasant words	Male + Unpleasant words
	B7	40	Test	Female + Pleasant words	Male + Unpleasant words

pleasant test block was encountered first or second was counterbalanced. Participants were required to correctly categorize each stimulus to proceed. Hence, when an error was made during categorization, it had to be corrected by pairing it with the right category.

In line with the critical assumption of IAT, participants were expected to perform the categorization task more quickly when the target concept shared the same response key with the target attribute, suggesting that the two were strongly associated. Specifically, automatic association of male words with pleasant words would correspond to favoritism toward men (for male participants, ingroup favoritism; for female participants, outgroup favoritism), whereas automatic association of female words with pleasant words would correspond to favoritism toward women (for male participants, outgroup favoritism; for female participants, ingroup favoritism).

Following the improved scoring algorithm for IAT provided by Greenwald, Nosek, and Banaji's (2003), an index of impGF was computed (*D* score). Particularly, the IAT effect was based on the averaged standardized differences between mean response latencies in practice (Blocks 3 and 6) and test trials (Blocks 4 and 7). Scores on impGF (*D* scores) ranged between ± 2 with positive values indicating implicit preference for men compared to women and negative values indicating implicit preference for women compared to men ($>.15$ slight; $>.35$ moderate; $>.65$ strong). Consistent with what has been reported in IAT studies using the improved scoring procedure, impGF was found to have a mediocre reliability of .63 ($p < .01$), which was based on the correlation between *D* scores for the practice and test blocks. This is not considered to be the ideal reliability statistic because it is not exactly a split-half reliability due to unequal trial numbers in practice and test blocks. Still, it is the most commonly reported form of reliability in IAT studies (e.g., Aberson & Haag, 2007). When computed according to the Cronbach's alpha coefficient for internal consistency, gender-group favoritism IAT produced a reliability of .77.

2.3 Procedure

Prior to data collection, an institutional ethics committee approval was taken from METU Human Subjects Ethics Committee (HSEC) for conducting the study (see Appendix G). Upon obtaining the approval, students were invited to participate voluntarily in a thesis study concerning personality and gender-related beliefs. For the sake of research purposes, the study was introduced to have the ostensible purpose of investigating the relationship between personality and beliefs about gender. In this way, a rationale was provided for the MS manipulation questions. Invitations for the study were made via online, verbal, and written mediums. Students enrolled in the courses “General Psychology” or “Understanding Social Behavior” were announced during course sessions and were told that they would receive a course credit for their participation. Students were required to make an appointment to participate. They were told that the experiment would take place in a laboratory setting and that it would last approximately 45 minutes involving a questionnaire as well as a computer-administered task. In order to assure anonymity, they were asked to use nicknames for the appointment list. Data collection was carried out with students for whom appointments were made. Students were contacted a day before the appointed time to confirm their participation.

Observation and Research Laboratory at METU Psychology Department was used for data collection sessions. Up to three participants could be appointed for each session as the lab consisted of three separate rooms. Hence, experimental sessions were conducted in groups of 1 to 3 participants per session. The sessions were carried out by the author of the study, hence, participants were greeted by a female experimenter.

On arriving for their sessions, participants were asked to complete the questionnaire first and continue with the computer-administered task (as measured by IAT). The order of measures was as follows: demographic information form, GSJ Scale, MS manipulation, ASI, expGF, and impGF (i.e., the IAT). Prior to questionnaire administration, informed consent form (see Appendix H) was obtained from the

participants. They were assured of confidentiality and were informed that their responses would be used for only research purposes. Following the questionnaire and the IAT, participants were probed for suspicion as they were asked to write what they thought the study was about. None of them reported any suspicion on the research hypotheses being tested. At the end of the session, participants were given debriefing form (see Appendix I), were orally informed about the objectives of the study in detail, and were thanked for their collaboration. The sessions lasted about 30 minutes.

2.4 Data Analyses

The obtained data was analyzed by using SPSS (v.15). The analyses were run mainly in five stages. Firstly, descriptive statistics were analyzed for the major study variables. It was followed by univariate analysis of variance performed for gender differences as well as MS differences. Then, correlation analysis was conducted for the study variables. Finally, a series of moderated regression analyses were conducted to see whether GSJ predicted scores on HS, BS, expGF, and impGF, as well as whether gender and MS moderated the relation of GSJ to ambivalent sexism (HS, BS) and to gender-group favoritism (expGF, impGF).

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Prior to data analyses, data was screened for the study variables with regard to data accuracy, missing values, outliers, and fit between their distributions and the assumptions of multivariate analysis. Initially, data were evaluated for the amount and distribution of missing values. One case with missing values on expGF higher than 50% was removed from the analyses. The remaining missing values, which were revealed by the missing value analysis to be below 5%, were replaced with item means. After dealing with missing values, the independence of variables was assured as none of the study variables were highly correlated with each other. With respect to normality, all the variables had skewness and kurtosis values within the acceptable range, indicating that the normality assumption was met. Next, data was screened for multivariate outliers among cases, which were identified by examining Mahalanobis score ($\chi^2(5, n = 197) = 20.52, p < .001$) for the major study variables (namely, GSJ, HS, BS, expGF, and impGF). One case with Mahalanobis score above the critical value was removed, leaving 196 participants. Examination of z scores for each variable revealed that there were no univariate outliers for the major study variables. Yet, 11 univariate outliers were identified for the demographic variables age and education. For the sake of research findings, these 11 cases (7 women, 4 men) were also removed, leaving 185 participants. Subsequently, the study variables were assessed for linearity and homoscedasticity. Since all the variables had acceptable skewness and kurtosis values, none of the variable pairs were suspected to be nonlinearly and heteroscedastically related with each other. Hence, linearity and homoscedasticity assumptions were also assumed to be met. Finally, variables were evaluated for multicollinearity and singularity. None of the variables were found to be highly correlated with each other (i.e., $r > .90$). All the analyses were performed with 185 participants. The categorical variables gender

(99 women, 86 men) and MS (92 death, 93 control) were found to be independent ($\chi^2(1, n = 185) = .05, p > .05$).

In this chapter, first, descriptive statistics for the major study variables will be given. It will be followed by examination of gender differences as well as MS differences. Then, correlations among the study variables will be summarized. Finally, regression analyses will be presented in line with the research questions.

3.1 Descriptive Statistics for the Study Variables

Mean scores for GSJ, HS, BS, expGF, and impGF were assessed to obtain descriptive information for each of the major study variable. Participants had slightly low scores on GSJ ($M = 2.74, SD = .80$), indicating that the sample did not tend to justify the system on gender basis. Regarding the two dimensions of ASI, participants had moderate scores on both HS ($M = 3.53, SD = .85$) and BS ($M = 3.40, SD = .86$). That is, the sample endorsed moderate levels of hostile and benevolent attitudes toward women. Participants scored moderately high on expGF ($M = 3.72, SD = 1.03$). Hence, on the explicit measure of gender-group favoritism, participants displayed moderately high levels of ingroup favoritism. However, on the implicit measure of gender-group favoritism (i.e., impGF), participants had a general tendency to have a slight automatic preference for women over men ($M = -.29, SD = .50$). To put it differently, the sample displayed a slight degree of favoritism toward women.

3.2 Gender Differences

Univariate analysis of variance was conducted to examine gender differences for the major study variables, namely, GSJ, HS, BS, expGF, and impGF. The results revealed that men and women significantly differed with respect to their scores on all the major variables (see Table 3.1). Particularly, men scored significantly higher than women on GSJ ($F(1, 183) = 10.84, p < .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .06$), HS ($F(1, 183) = 6.46, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .03$), BS ($F(1, 183) = 8.52, p < .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .04$), expGF ($F(1, 183) = 8.41, p < .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .04$), and impGF ($F(1, 183) = 216.72, p < .01, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .54$). With regard to GSJ, men ($M = 2.94, SD = .82$) had a higher

tendency to justify the gender-related system as compared to women ($M = 2.76$, $SD = .74$). Concerning HS and BS, men endorsed higher levels of hostile ($M = 3.70$, $SD = .87$) and benevolent ($M = 3.59$, $SD = .84$) sexist beliefs than did women ($M = 3.38$, $SD = .82$; $M = 3.23$, $SD = .84$, respectively). With respect to expGF, men ($M = 3.95$, $SD = .98$) displayed higher levels of explicit ingroup favoritism than did women ($M = 3.52$, $SD = 1.03$). However, a different pattern emerged for impGF whose interpretation required a detailed analysis of D scores (beyond the general numerical comparison). Though men had *numerically* higher scores on impGF, evaluation of D scores revealed that female participants had a moderate implicit preference for women compared to men ($M = -.64$, $SD = .29$), whereas male participants did not have any implicit preference for one gender group over the other ($M = .11$, $SD = .50$). When interpreted in terms of group favoritism, such result indicates that implicitly, women showed ingroup favoritism at a moderate level whereas men did show neither ingroup nor outgroup favoritism (i.e., they were neutral). Still, it is important to note that the assumption of equality of variances was not met for impGF.

Table 3.1*Gender Differences for the Major Study Variables*

<i>Variables</i>	<i>General</i>		<i>Women (n = 99)</i>		<i>Men (n = 86)</i>		<i>MS Error</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Partial Eta Squared</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
1. GSJ	2.74	.80	2.56	.74	2.94	.82	.61	10.84**	.06
2. HS	3.53	.85	3.38	.82	3.70	.87	.71	6.46*	.03
3. BS	3.40	.86	3.23	.85	3.59	.84	.71	8.52**	.04
4. expGF	3.72	1.03	3.52	1.03	3.95	.98	1.01	8.41**	.04
5. impGF ^a	-.29	.50	-.64	.29	.11	.50	.12	216.72***	.54

Note. $N = 185$. MS = Mortality Salience; GSJ = Gender-specific System Justification; HS = Hostile Sexism; BS = Benevolent Sexism; expGF = Explicit Ingroup Favoritism; impGF = Implicit Group Favoritism. Higher scores on GSJ, HS and BS, and expGF (rated on a 6-point Likert scale 1 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree) indicate higher levels of tendency for gender-specific system justification, hostile and benevolent sexist beliefs, and explicit ingroup favoritism.

^a Scores on impGF (D) range between ± 2 with positive values indicating implicit preference for men compared to women and negative values indicating implicit preference for women compared to men ($> .15$ slight; $> .35$ moderate; $> .65$ strong).

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

3.3 MS Differences

In order to test MS differences for the major study variables, univariate analysis of variance was used. As expected, there was a significant effect of MS, but only on BS ($F(1, 183) = 4.58, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .02$) and impGF ($F(1, 183) = 5.07, p < .05, \text{partial } \eta^2 = .03$). The assumption of equality of variances was not met for these two variables. Nonetheless, the results revealed that participants who were reminded of death ($M = 3.53, SD = .78$) had higher scores on BS compared to the participants in the control condition ($M = 3.26, SD = .92$). That is, after MS, participants were observed to endorse more benevolent attitudes toward women. With respect to impGF, participants for whom mortality was made salient had a moderate implicit preference for women compared to men ($M = -.37, SD = .45$), whereas participants in the control condition had a slight implicit preference for women compared to men ($M = -.21, SD = .54$). Hence, after MS, there was a significantly slight increase in implicit favoritism toward women. No significant effect of MS conditions on HS and expGF was found (see Table 3.2 for details).

Univariate analysis of variance was also conducted for GSJ (a measure given before the MS manipulation), not to examine the effect of MS, but to see whether random assignment of participants to MS conditions worked well for the homogeneity of GSJ scores across death vs. control groups. Hence, this analysis would function as a check on whether participants in MS conditions differed in terms of the extent to which they justified the system on gender basis. The results revealed a significant difference in GSJ scores of participants in death vs. control conditions, $F(1, 183) = 4.83, p < .05$ (partial $\eta^2 = .03$). Particularly, participants who were reminded of death ($M = 2.87, SD = .80$) had scored higher on GSJ compared to participants in the control condition ($M = 2.61, SD = .79$). Hence, though randomly assigned, participants had not been homogeneously distributed across MS conditions regarding their GSJ scores.

Table 3.2*MS Differences for the Major Study Variables*

<i>Variables</i>	MS						<i>MS Error</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>Partial Eta Squared</i>
	General		Control (<i>n</i> = 93)		Death (<i>n</i> = 92)				
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>			
1. GSJ	2.74	.80	2.61	.79	2.87	.80	.63	4.83*	.03
2. HS	3.53	.85	3.52	.87	3.54	.84	.73	.04	.00
3. BS	3.40	.86	3.26	.92	3.53	.78	.72	4.58*	.02
4. expGF	3.72	1.03	3.73	1.15	3.71	.89	1.06	.01	.00
5. impGF ^a	-.29	.50	-.21	.54	-.37	.45	.25	5.07*	.03

Note. *N* = 185. MS = Mortality Saliency; GSJ = Gender-specific System Justification; HS = Hostile Sexism; BS = Benevolent Sexism; expGF = Explicit Ingroup Favoritism; impGF = Implicit Group Favoritism. Higher scores on GSJ, HS and BS, and expGF (rated on a 6-point Likert scale 1 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree) indicate higher levels of tendency for gender-specific system justification, hostile and benevolent sexist beliefs, and explicit ingroup favoritism.

^a Scores on impGF (*D*) range between ± 2 with positive values indicating implicit preference for men compared to women and negative values indicating implicit preference for women compared to men (> .15 slight; > .35 moderate; > .65 strong).

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

3.4 Correlations among the Study Variables

Pearson two-tailed correlation analysis was used to examine correlations between the study variables. Participant sex, age, family income, and place mostly lived in were the demographic variables included in the analysis. Education was not included because after dealing with univariate outliers for education, this variable became constant (all the remaining participants were undergraduate students). MS, GSJ, HS, BS, expGF, and impGF were the major study variables included in the analysis.

Among demographic variables, there was a significant positive correlation between age and participant sex ($r = .16, p < .05$), and between family income and place mostly lived in ($r = .32, p < .01$). Specifically, men's age tended to be higher than women's age, and family income tended to be higher as the place mostly lived in changed from village to metropolis. Only participant sex was found to have significant correlations with the major study variables. In line with gender differences revealed by univariate analysis of variance, it was significantly and positively correlated with GSJ ($r = .24, p < .01$), HS ($r = .19, p < .05$), BS ($r = .21, p < .01$), expGF ($r = .21, p < .01$), and impGF ($r = .74, p < .01$). Accordingly, compared to female participants, male participants were observed to have higher scores on GSJ, HS, BS, expGF, and impGF. That is, male participants justified the system on gender basis, endorsed hostile and benevolent beliefs toward women, displayed higher levels of explicit ingroup favoritism and exhibited lower levels of implicit preference for women over men more than female participants did.

Consistent with univariate analysis of variance results for MS differences, MS was found to have significant correlations with BS ($r = -.16, p < .05$) and impGF ($r = .16, p < .05$). Particularly, making mortality salient was associated with higher scores on BS and with increased implicit preference for women over men. Though is not of interest to the research questions, a significant correlation was found between GSJ and MS ($r = -.16, p < .05$). Considering the fact that GSJ was measured before the MS manipulation and that participants were assigned to death vs. control conditions on a random basis, such significant correlation was

unexpected. In fact, this finding is problematic because it indicates that participants who scored higher on GSJ were more likely to fall in death group, or put differently, that participants who scored lower on GSJ were more likely to fall in control group.

As expected, GSJ was significantly and positively correlated with HS ($r = .42, p < .01$), BS ($r = .36, p < .01$), expGF ($r = .25, p < .01$), and impGF ($r = .24, p < .01$). That is, higher scores on GSJ was found to be associated with higher scores on HS and BS, and with higher levels of explicit ingroup favoritism and lower levels of implicit preference for women compared to men.

Consistent with the literature, HS and BS were positively and significantly correlated with each other ($r = .43, p < .01$). HS was significantly correlated with expGF ($r = .33, p < .01$) and impGF ($r = .16, p < .05$), whereas BS significantly correlated with expGF ($r = .37, p < .01$) but not with impGF ($r = .05, p = .51$). As expected, the correlation between expGF and impGF was not significant ($r = .13, p = .08$) (see Table 3.3).

Table 3.3*Correlations between the Study Variables*

<i>Variables</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Participant Sex	-									
2. Age ^a	.16*	-								
3. Family Income	.00	-.04	-							
4. Place Mostly Lived In	-.02	-.08	.32**	-						
5. MS	-.02	.02	.02	-.10	-					
6. GSJ	.24**	-.02	-.07	-.03	-.16*	-				
7. HS	.19*	-.06	-.11	-.08	-.01	.42**	-			
8. BS	.21**	-.01	.04	.03	-.16*	.36**	.43**	-		
9. expGF	.21**	-.09	-.03	.08	.01	.25**	.33**	.37**	-	
10. impGF	.74**	.03	.01	-.08	.16*	.24**	.16*	.05	.13	-

Note. $N = 185$. MS = Mortality Salience; GSJ = Gender-specific System Justification; HS = Hostile Sexism; BS = Benevolent Sexism; expGF = Explicit Ingroup Favoritism; impGF = Implicit Group Favoritism. Participant sex coded as 0 = women; 1 = men. MS coded as 0 = death; 1 = control. Higher scores on GSJ, HS and BS, and expGF (rated on a 6-point Likert scale 1 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree) indicate higher levels of tendency for gender-specific system justification, hostile and benevolent sexist beliefs, and explicit ingroup favoritism. Scores on impGF (D) range between ± 2 with positive values indicating implicit preference for men compared to women and negative values indicating implicit preference for women compared to men ($> .15$ slight; $> .35$ moderate; $> .65$ strong). Reliabilities are presented at the diagonal in boldface.

^a $N = 184$ due to a missing value on age for one participant.

* $p < .05$, two-tailed. ** $p < .01$, two-tailed.

3.5 Regression Analyses

To investigate the relation of GSJ to HS, BS, expGF, and impGF, as well as the moderating effects of gender and MS and their interactions, four different hierarchical regressions were conducted for each dependent variable. Due to their nonsignificant correlations with the major study variables, demographic variables age, family income, and place mostly lived in were not included in the analyses. In the first step, the predictor variable GSJ (centered) and the moderators sex (dummy coded: 0 = women, 1 = men) and MS (dummy coded: 0 = death, 1 = control) were introduced to see whether they uniquely predict the dependent variables (main effects). In the second step, the possible two-way interactions between sex, MS, and the centered scores for GSJ were added to the model. Finally, in the third step, three-way interaction term for sex, MS, and GSJ (centered) was entered. The variables HS, BS, expGF and impGF were entered respectively as the dependent variable for each of the hierarchical regression conducted.

The results of the first step would be used for the first research question concerning the relation of GSJ to HS, BS, expGF, and impGF. Particularly, significance of GSJ main effects would provide evidence for whether the two components of ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism at both explicit and implicit levels serve as means of system justification. Moreover, the main effects for participant sex and MS would reveal whether they lead to significant differences on scores for HS, BS, expGF, and impGF.

The results for the second step of the hierarchical regression analyses would be used to answer the remaining two research questions. A significant interaction between participant sex and GSJ would prove the moderating role of gender for GSJ's relation to HS, BS, expGF, and impGF. Similarly, a significant interaction between MS and GSJ would reveal the moderating role of MS for GSJ's relation to HS, BS, expGF, and impGF.

The results for the third step provide further information with a possible three-way interaction between participant sex, MS, and GSJ. If significant, such interaction

would reveal that the three variables jointly influence scores on HS, BS, expGF, and impGF.

General assumptions of regression and the homogeneity of error variance assumption specific to moderated multiple regression were examined for each hierarchical regression. Particularly, whether (1) each of the predictors have a linear relationship with predicted scores for the dependent variable, whether (2) residuals are normally distributed about and (3) linearly related with predicted scores for the dependent variable, whether they (4) exhibit homoscedasticity (i.e., variance of residuals are constant for values of each predictor) and (5) are independent (independence of errors), and whether (6) there is less than complete multicollinearity were assessed. As specific to moderated multiple regression, whether residuals have a constant distribution across the moderator-based categories was examined (Aguinis, 2004; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

3.5.1 Predicting Hostile Sexism (HS)

The results of the first hierarchical analysis showed that in the first step, sex, MS, and GSJ were significantly related to HS ($R^2 = .19$, $F(3, 181) = 13.74$, $p < .001$) in that they accounted for 19% of the variance in HS scores. However, the results revealed one main effect as only GSJ was found to significantly predict HS scores, $\beta = .41$, $t(181) = 5.80$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.29, .58]. Sex ($\beta = .09$, $t(181) = 1.27$, $p = .21$, 95% CI [-.08, .38]) and MS ($\beta = .05$, $t(181) = .73$, $p = .47$, 95% CI [-.14, .31]) were not found to be significant in predicting HS. The second and the third steps were not significant either ($\Delta R^2 = .02$, $\Delta F(3, 178) = 1.52$, $p = .21$; $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $\Delta F(1, 177) = .29$, $p = .59$, respectively). However, at step 2, the interaction between sex and GSJ was marginally significant ($\beta = .19$, $t(178) = 1.92$, $p = .06$, 95% CI [-.01, .59]). This interaction effect, which was plotted according to the procedures suggested by Aiken and West (1991), indicated that sex marginally moderated the relationship between GSJ and HS (see Figure 3.1). Accordingly, simple slopes analysis showed that both male and female participants had higher HS scores when their scores on GSJ were also high ($\beta = .55$, $t(181) = 4.01$, $p < .001$; $\beta = .26$, $t(181) = 2.06$, $p < .06$, respectively). Among participants with low scores on GSJ, male

and female participants displayed similar levels of HS. Put differently, among low system-justifiers, men and women did not differ in the extent to which they endorsed hostile attitudes toward women. By contrast, among high system-justifiers, male participants endorsed greater hostile sexist beliefs toward women than female participants did. Hence, gender did moderate the relation of GSJ to HS.

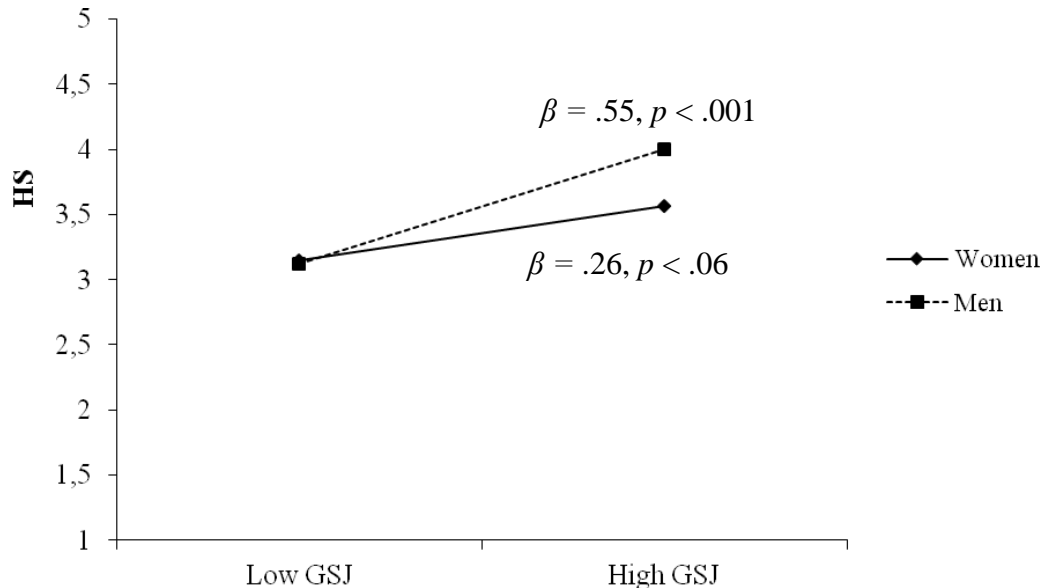


Figure 3.1 *The interaction between Participant Sex and GSJ in Predicting HS*

3.5.2 Predicting Benevolent Sexism (BS)

The results of the hierarchical analysis with BS as the dependent variable showed that in the first step, sex, MS, and GSJ were significantly related to BS ($R^2 = .16$, $F(3, 181) = 11.25$, $p < .001$) as they explained 16% of the variance in BS scores. The results revealed two main effects as sex ($\beta = .14$, $t(181) = 1.99$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.00, .48]) and GSJ ($\beta = .31$, $t(181) = 4.33$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.18, .48]) were found to significantly predict BS scores. MS did not significantly predict BS ($\beta = -.11$, $t(181) = -1.58$, $p = .12$, 95% CI [-.42, .05]). The second and the third steps were not significant ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(3, 178) = .50$, $p = .69$; $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $\Delta F(1, 177) = .93$, $p = .34$, respectively) and neither two-way nor three-way interaction effects emerged as significant for predicting BS.

3.5.3 Predicting Explicit Group Favoritism (expGF)

The results of the hierarchical analysis for expGF showed that in the first step, sex, MS, and GSJ were significantly related to expGF ($R^2 = .09$, $F(3, 181) = 5.78$, $p < .01$) in that they accounted for 9% of the variance in expGF scores. Two significant main effects emerged from this analysis as sex ($\beta = .16$, $t(181) = 2.15$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.03, .62]) and GSJ ($\beta = .22$, $t(181) = 2.94$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.09, .47]) were found to significantly predict expGF scores. The main effect for MS was not significant ($\beta = .04$, $t(181) = .56$, $p = .58$, 95% CI [-.21, .37]). The second step was also significant ($\Delta R^2 = .05$, $\Delta F(3, 178) = 3.64$, $p < .05$). However, only the interaction between sex and GSJ was significant ($\beta = .31$, $t(178) = 2.91$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.18, .93]). This interaction effect, which was plotted according to the procedures suggested by Aiken and West (1991), indicated that sex moderated the relationship between GSJ and expGF (see Figure 3.2).

The simple slopes analysis showed that GSJ scores predicted scores on expGF for male participants ($\beta = .73$, $t(181) = 4.17$, $p < .001$), but not for female participants ($\beta = .18$, $t(181) = 1.16$, $p = .25$). In particular, men with high GSJ scores had the highest expGF scores (i.e., displayed explicit ingroup favoritism the most) and men with low GSJ scores had the lowest expGF scores (i.e., displayed explicit ingroup favoritism the least). However, the extent to which female participants displayed explicit ingroup favoritism was not predicted by their GSJ tendency. The third step of the analysis was not significant ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(1, 177) = 1.62$, $p = .21$), hence no significant three-way interaction emerged.

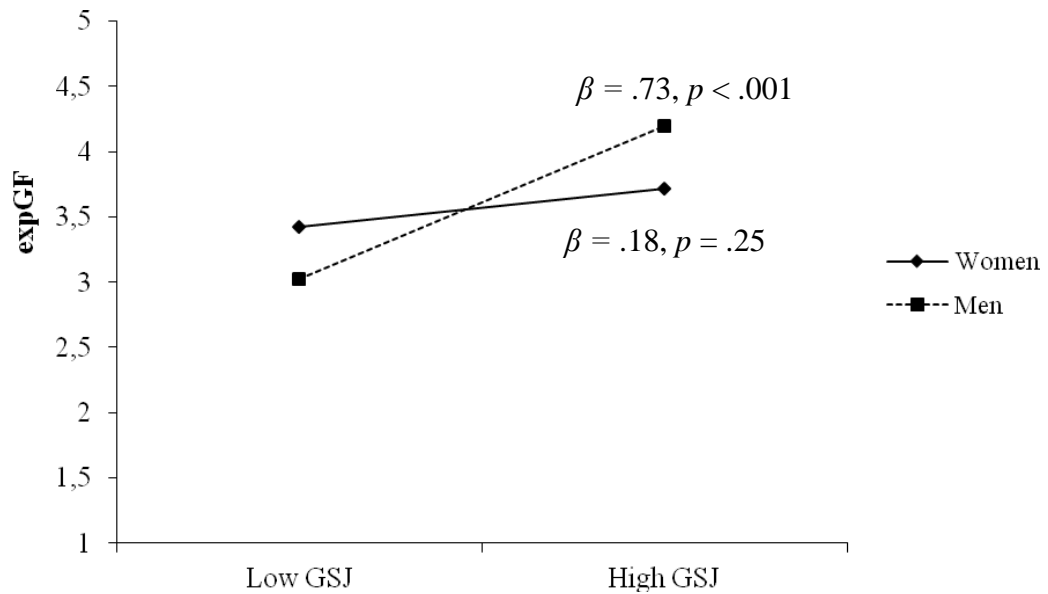


Figure 3.2 *The interaction between Participant Sex and GSJ in Predicting expGF*

3.5.4 Predicting Implicit Group Favoritism (impGF)

The results of the hierarchical analysis conducted for predicting impGF showed that in the first step, sex, MS, and GSJ were significantly related to impGF ($R^2 = .57$, $F(3, 181) = 81.11$, $p < .001$). The three variables accounted for 57% of the variance in D scores for impGF. According to the results, three main effects emerged. Sex ($\beta = .71$, $t(181) = 14.21$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.62, .82]), MS ($\beta = .17$, $t(181) = 3.40$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.07, .27]), and GSJ ($\beta = .09$, $t(181) = 1.86$, $p = .06$, 95% CI [-.004, .12]) were found to significantly predict impGF, though the main effect for GSJ was only marginally significant. The second and the third steps were not significant ($\Delta R^2 = .01$, $\Delta F(3, 178) = .72$, $p = .54$; $\Delta R^2 = .00$, $\Delta F(1, 177) = .00$, $p = .95$, respectively) and the results did not reveal any interaction effects for predicting impGF.

The above reported results of the four hierarchical regression analyses conducted to examine the relation of GSJ to HS, BS, expGF, and impGF (GSJ main effects) along with the moderating effects of gender (Participant Sex x GSJ interaction term) and MS (MS x GSJ interaction term) are summarized in Table 3.4. The schematic

representation of the results for hierarchical regression analyses on the theoretical model of the study can be seen in Figure 3.3.

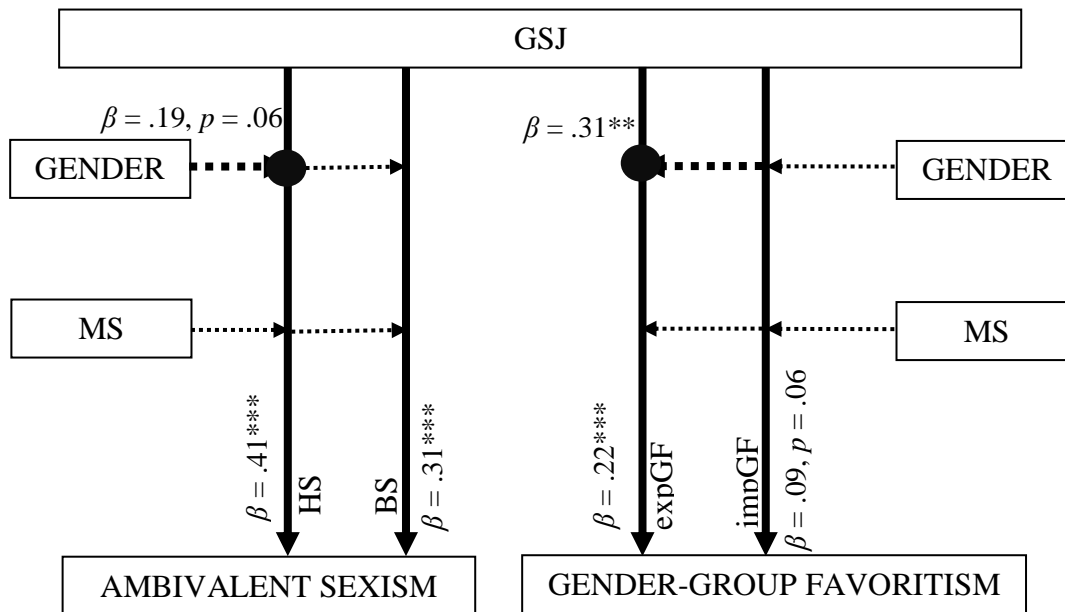


Figure 3.3 Results for the Hierarchical Regression Analyses Depicted on the Theoretical Model of the Study

Note. MS = Mortality Salience; GSI = Gender-specific System Justification; HS = Hostile Sexism; BS = Benevolent Sexism; expGF = Explicit Ingroup Favoritism; impGF = Implicit Group Favoritism.
 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Table 3.4*Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting HS, BS, expGF, and impGF from Participant Sex, MS, and GSJ*

Predictor	Dependent Variables							
	HS		BS		expGF		impGF ^a	
	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β	ΔR^2	β
Step 1	.19***		.16***		.09**		.57***	
Sex		.09		.14*		.16*		.71***
MS		.05		-.11		.04		.17**
GSJ		.41***		.31***		.22**		.09 [†]
Step 2	.02		.01		.05*		.01	
Sex X MS		-.05		.09		.21		.09
Sex X GSJ		.19 [†]		.11		.31**		.01
MS X GSJ		.03		-.04		-.19		.06
Step 3	.00		.00		.01		.00	
Sex X MS X GSJ		.08		.15		.20		-.01
Total R^2	.18		.17		.15		.58	

Note. $N = 185$. Participant sex coded as 0 = women; 1 = men. MS coded as 0 = death; 1 = control. MS = Mortality Salience; GSJ = Gender-specific System Justification; HS = Hostile Sexism; BS = Benevolent Sexism; expGF = Explicit Ingroup Favoritism; impGF = Implicit Group Favoritism. Higher scores on GSJ, HS and BS, and expGF (rated on a 6-point Likert scale 1 = strongly disagree; 6 = strongly agree) indicate higher levels of tendency for gender-specific system justification, hostile and benevolent sexist beliefs, and explicit ingroup favoritism.

^aScores on impGF (D) range between ± 2 with positive values indicating implicit preference for men compared to women and negative values indicating implicit preference for women compared to men ($> .15$ slight; $> .35$ moderate; $> .65$ strong).

[†] $p < .10$. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The present study aimed at exploring the possible link between SJT and TMT in gender context and from the perspective of intergroup relations in a sample of Turkish university students. With an effort to understand system justification tendencies in relation to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism, and to see whether such understanding can be improved by a terror management perspective, three research questions were dealt with. Firstly, whether ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism were related to system justification was investigated. Secondly, concerning the gendered context of the study, whether gender moderated the relation of system justification to ambivalent sexism and to gender group favoritism was examined. Finally, as most central to the current analysis, the moderating role of MS for the two relationships was explored.

During the chapter, the main findings of the current study will be discussed in connection with the research questions and the related hypotheses presented in the first chapter. To this end, first, an overview of the findings obtained will be given. Secondly, contributions of the study to the literature will be mentioned. Thirdly, certain limitations involved in the present study will be defined along with which directions for future research will be provided. Finally, it will be concluded with the importance of continuing this line of research.

4.1 Overview of the Research Findings

An overview of the research findings will be given by referring to six topics. The first two topics will elaborate on gender and MS differences for the major study variables, respectively. The third topic will discuss on the correlations between the variables of major interest. In the fourth topic, the predictive power of GSJ on HS, BS, expGF, and impGF will be explained. Lastly, in the next two topics, the

moderating roles of gender and MS on the link between GSJ and the outcome variables (i.e., HS, BS, expGF and impGF) will be discussed.

Before moving on to discussion of the findings, the descriptive characteristics of the major study variables will be noted. Concerning the first measure, participants had low ratings on GSJ scale with a mean of 2.74, suggesting that they were not high system-justifiers. Participants' mean GSJ scores had a range of 3.71 (min. 1; max. 4.71), which can be considered as limited for a 6-point scale. Hence, it appears that the sample did not much tend to justify the gender-related system. On ASI, participants showed moderate ratings for HS and BS, indicating that they endorsed moderate levels of hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes toward women. Such moderate scores on HS and BS is consistent with previous research demonstrating that Turkish university students endorse moderate to moderately high hostile and benevolent attitudes toward women (Ercan, 2009; Işık, 2008; Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2010; Sakallı-Uğurlu et al., 2007). With regard to gender-group favoritism, participants' ratings on expGF were moderately high, suggesting that they explicitly favored their own gender group to a moderately high extent. However, participants had a slight automatic preference for women over men on impGF, that is, the sample demonstrated a slight degree of implicit favoritism toward women.

4.1.1 Gender Differences

As revealed by univariate analysis of variance results, male participants scored significantly higher than women on all the major study variables.

Regarding GSJ scores, male participants were observed to justify the gender-related system more than female participants did. This finding is consistent with research by Ercan (2009) who found in a sample consisting of both student and non-student participants that men scored higher than women on GSJ scale. However, such higher GSJ tendency on the part of male participants is conflicting with the SJT's notion that members of disadvantaged groups tend to justify the system more than members of advantaged groups (Jost et al., 2004). At this point where use of GSJ scale with Turkish samples has only recently begun, it is hard to explain this gender difference in the opposite direction with what SJT suggests. Perhaps, this finding

might be attributed to social desirability; male participants might have justified the system more as it would imply a positive self-image for them, an image that portrays them as living in a gender-equal society. Further speculating on this image, it might not bear any guilt due to their relatively advantaged status for which it would be tempting to justify the system as fair and legitimate (though this speculation is based on the assumption that men might feel guilty for their superior position over women). Alternatively, higher system justification among male participants might be interpreted as reflecting the androcentric bias that the gender-related system is fair and legitimate only to the extent that men perceive it to be so.

As for the two components of ambivalent sexism, male participants endorsed higher levels of hostile and benevolent attitudes toward women than female participants did. Though men's higher scoring on HS is compatible with previous research on ambivalent sexism (e.g., Sakallı-Uğurlu et al., 2007), gender difference observed for BS scores was unexpected in view of the findings which consistently found that men and women do not differ in the extent to which they endorse benevolent attitudes toward women. However, considering higher system justification found among male participants in this study, it seems plausible that they displayed higher levels of benevolent sexism than female participants. As explained previously in the first chapter, benevolently sexist attitudes toward women are based on the belief that both gender groups have positive and negative qualities (Glick & Fiske, 1996), and perception of the gender-related system as fair and legitimate might foster this benevolence. Still, it should be noted that male participants' higher scores on both GSJ and BS are inconsistent with SJT's notion of enhanced system justification among disadvantaged group members.

With regard to gender-group favoritism, male participants were found to explicitly favor their own gender group more than female participants did. This finding is compatible with research on SJT that ingroup favoritism displayed by members of advantaged groups and that outgroup favoritism (or, as in this case, less ingroup favoritism) displayed by members of disadvantaged groups are manifestations of the system justification motive (Jost et al., 2004). On the implicit measure, female participants had a moderate preference for women compared to men, whereas male

participants showed a preference neither for women nor for men. Put differently, female participants displayed ingroup favoritism at a moderate level, but male participants were neutral – they displayed neither ingroup nor outgroup favoritism on the implicit measure.

These results concerning the gender difference for impGF is contrary to SJT research demonstrating greater outgroup favoritism among the disadvantaged and greater ingroup favoritism among the advantaged on implicit measures than on explicit measures (Jost et al., 2004). Though male participants displayed ingroup favoritism on the explicit measure at a moderate level, there was no evidence of ingroup favoritism on the implicit measure. According to SJT, an increase in the strength of implicit ingroup favoritism as compared to the strength of explicit ingroup favoritism might have been expected for members of advantaged groups. Yet, an opposite pattern was found such that the moderate strength with which male participants explicitly favored their ingroup was not observed implicitly, in fact, they were observed to be neutral. For female participants, ingroup favoritism displayed at both explicit and implicit measures were found to be at moderate levels. SJT research suggests an increase in outgroup favoritism or a decrease in ingroup favoritism displayed by members of disadvantaged group members on implicit measures relative to explicit measures (Jost et al., 2004). However, the strength of explicit and implicit ingroup favoritism displayed by female participants did not change. Most interestingly, on the implicit measure, female participants were observed to have a moderate level of ingroup favoritism whereas male participants did not show any favoritism toward their own gender group. Overall, the gender difference found for the implicit measure of group favoritism did not support earlier findings on system justification research (e.g., Jost et al., 2002).

4.1.2 MS Differences

According to univariate analysis of variance results, participants' scores on BS and impGF significantly differed across death and control conditions, but the effect of MS was not observed for HS and expGF.

Concerning the MS effect on BS, participants who were reminded of death scored higher on BS compared to participants in the control condition, suggesting that they endorsed more benevolent attitudes toward women after MS. This finding provides evidence for increased level of BS as cultural worldview defense in that endorsing benevolently sexist attitudes toward women was capable of quelling death-related anxiety caused by mortality salience. As for the other component of ambivalent sexism, there was not an increase in the extent to which participants endorsed hostile attitudes toward women when mortality was made salient. Hence, BS, but not HS, was found to serve an anxiety-buffering function. In fact, considering its subjectively positive orientation, it is possible that endorsing benevolent (yet sexist) beliefs toward women might be related to increased self-esteem. BS might be appealing for both men and women as it fosters the belief that they are complementary beings in need of each other (women in need of men's protection, men in need of women's love). Viewing this complementarity as related to enhanced feelings of worth, endorsing BS might be a way of self-esteem striving. However, this reasoning remains as a speculation. The fact that there is no direct empirical evidence in the literature on how MS influences ambivalently sexist beliefs makes it difficult to interpret the findings.

With regard to gender-group favoritism, participants in the death condition displayed a moderate implicit preference for women compared to men, whereas for participants in the control condition, only a slight preference for women over men was observed. Hence, MS led to an increase in implicit favoritism toward women. In line with TMT reasoning, this finding indicates that implicitly favoring women functioned as a defense mechanism for maintaining cultural worldviews. Yet, no inference can be made for whether ingroup or outgroup favoritism was displayed as they require analysis of MS effect separately for men and women. Results of univariate analysis of variance conducted separately for the two gender groups revealed a significant effect of MS on impGF scores for both men and women. Particularly, male participants for whom mortality was made salient showed implicit preference neither for men nor for women (they were neutral), but male participants in the control condition showed a slight implicit preference for men.

Hence, MS led to a decrease in implicit ingroup favoritism among male participants to the degree that it was not even observed. On the other hand, female participants who were reminded of death displayed a strong preference for women over men, and female participants in the control condition displayed a moderate degree of preference for women. That is, MS led to an increase in implicit ingroup favoritism among female participants. When interpreted in terms of TMT, MS effect found for men is inconsistent with previous research demonstrating an increase in ingroup bias after MS (e.g., Castano et al., 2002). Still, MS effect found for women is consistent with TMT research that provided evidence for increased ingroup favoritism after MS. With respect to MS effect for explicit ingroup favoritism, no significant difference was observed on expGF scores such that in both conditions participants displayed moderate levels of ingroup favoritism.

Before proceeding with the correlational findings, results for univariate analysis of variance conducted for GSJ is in order. Although this measure was given before the MS manipulation, they are important for they allowed to see whether participants randomly assigned to MS conditions were homogeneously distributed in terms of their GSJ tendency. Unfortunately, a significant difference was found in GSJ scores of participants in death vs. control conditions. Participants with higher system justification tendency were more likely to fall in mortality salient group, whereas participants with lower system justification tendency were more likely to fall in the control condition. This finding is problematic as it appears to cast doubt on results concerning the MS effect. Participants were unevenly distributed across MS conditions regarding their system justification tendencies, hence, findings demonstrating whether MS moderated the relation of GSJ to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism requires cautious interpretation. After all, for reliable results, it is important that participants had not significantly differed in their GSJ scores.

4.1.3 Correlations between the Major Study Variables

As expected, correlational findings were in parallel with gender and MS differences revealed by univariate analysis of variance results, and intercorrelations among the

major study variables seemed to support the hypotheses. Now, correlational findings which are of major interest to the current analysis will be discussed.

In line with univariate analysis of variance results for gender differences, gender was significantly and positively correlated with GSJ, HS, BS, expGF, and impGF. This finding suggests that male participants were more likely to justify the gender-related system, to endorse hostile and benevolent attitudes toward women, to display explicit ingroup favoritism, and to display implicit outgroup favoritism more than female participants did. Interestingly, the correlation between gender and impGF was quite large ($r = .74$), whereas the remaining variables GSJ, HS, BS and expGF were correlated with gender only to a small extent ($r \leq .24$). Hence, it was implicit group favoritism which revealed the strongest difference between impGF scores of male and female participants.

Consistent with MS differences revealed by univariate analysis of variance results, MS correlated significantly only with BS and impGF, further providing support for enhanced levels of endorsing benevolent attitudes toward women and displaying implicit favoritism toward women after MS. Further, the problematic finding that participants in the MS conditions differed significantly in their GSJ scores also emerged as a significant correlation between GSJ and MS. Because participants for whom mortality was made salient had scored higher on GSJ than participants in the control condition, it appears that, in terms of their system justification tendencies, participants were not distributed homogeneously across MS conditions. Therefore, MS difference could be attributed to GSJ difference as well.

As related to the research question concerning whether GSJ was associated with ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism, GSJ was found to be significantly and positively correlated with HS, BS, expGF, and impGF. Though the correlation between GSJ and measures of gender-group favoritism was rather low ($r = .24$ for expGF, $r = .25$ for impGF), GSJ was moderately related to endorsement of hostile and benevolent attitudes toward women. The moderate correlations for GSJ – HS and GSJ – BS, which is compatible with previous research (Aktan, 2012; Işık,

2008) indicate that GSJ and ambivalent sexism are related, yet distinct social psychological constructs.

As consistent with earlier research on ambivalent sexism (e.g., Glick & Fiske, 1996; Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2010), HS and BS were moderately and positively correlated with each other ($r = .43$) suggesting that they are related constructs but are still distinct forms of sexist ideologies. However, it is crucial to note that this moderate correlation typically ranged around .30 in previous studies, whereas in the current study as well as in recent research by Işık (2008), it was higher than .40. Hence, there seems to be a slight increase in HS – BS correlation in Turkish samples.

Regarding the correlations between ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism, significant correlations were found for HS – expGF ($r = .33$), HS – impGF ($r = .16$), and BS – expGF ($r = .37$), except for BS – impGF. The finding that explicit ingroup favoritism was moderately correlated with both HS and BS suggests that higher endorsement of hostile and benevolent sexist ideologies toward women is associated with self-reports of higher ingroup favoritism. Yet, implicit group favoritism did not reveal any significant correlation with BS, and elicited only a weak correlation with HS.

Furthermore, in view of variability in the correspondence between explicit and implicit attitudes (Devos, 2008), explicit and implicit measures of gender-group favoritism revealed a weak and statistically nonsignificant correlation ($r = .13$). This weak correlation might be due to lack of conceptual fit between explicit and implicit assessments (Devos, 2008). Specifically, expGF measure mostly reflected participants' evaluations of their *own* gender relative to the other gender group. By contrast, impGF was relatively *impersonal* in that it was based on the strength of associations between men vs. women with pleasant vs. unpleasant words, thereby, reflecting participants' implicit evaluative preference for one gender group over the other.

4.1.4 Predictive Powers of GSJ, Gender, and MS

The predictive power of GSJ on HS, BS, expGF, and impGF was tested for the first research question explored in the current study. In an attempt to see whether GSJ was related to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism, GSJ main effects were examined with regression analyses conducted for each of the outcome variables.

The results revealed GSJ main effects to be significant for all the four variables in that GSJ scores predicted scores on HS, BS, expGF, and impGF (though it was marginally significant for impGF). That is, higher levels of GSJ tendency predicted higher levels of benevolent and hostile attitudes toward women as well as higher levels of explicit ingroup favoritism and higher levels of favoritism toward men (or, lower levels of favoritism toward women). These findings regarding the predictive power of GSJ suggest that both components of ambivalent sexism and both forms of group favoritism might be ways of justifying the system on gender basis. Consistent with what had been mentioned in the first chapter for means of system justification, it appears clearly that ambivalent sexism (both HS and BS) is a system-justifying ideology and that group favoritism (on both explicit and implicit levels) is one manifestation of the system justification motive in gender context. At this point, it should be noted that the predictive power of GSJ on HS was greater than on BS, and the predictive power of GSJ on expGF was greater than on impGF. These findings suggest that HS served more as a system-justifying ideology compared to BS, and that system justification tendency manifested itself stronger on the explicit measure than on the implicit measure.

However, the finding that GSJ had greater impact on expGF scores than on impGF scores is inconsistent with SJT's notion that system justification is more observable at implicit measures than at explicit measures. In the current study, GSJ – expGF prediction was stronger compared to GSJ – impGF prediction. Still, it is important to note that the picture is somewhat confusing for interpreting the predictive power of GSJ on impGF for it involves no reference for ingroup or outgroup favoritism. Since expGF is a direct measure with higher scores indicating greater ingroup

favoritism, GSJ – expGF prediction has a straightforward interpretation: Higher system justification predicted higher ingroup favoritism for both male and female participants. The case is different for interpreting GSJ – impGF prediction. As explained in the second chapter, impGF scores require a detailed analysis as positive scores indicate an implicit preference for men over women (i.e., favoritism toward men) and negative scores indicate an implicit preference for women over men (i.e., favoritism toward women). Accordingly, these scores require separate interpretations for male and female participants so that whether ingroup or outgroup favoritism was displayed can be determined. In fact, when different regression analyses were conducted for the two groups, the predictive power of GSJ on implicit gender-group favoritism disappeared for both men and women.

In addition to GSJ, the predictive powers of gender and MS were also examined to see whether they lead to significant differences for scores on HS, BS, expGF, and impGF. Partially confirming the univariate analysis of variance results for gender differences, the main effect of participant sex was significant for all the outcome variables except HS. This finding suggests that being male predicted higher levels of benevolent attitudes toward women, higher levels of explicit ingroup favoritism, and lower levels of favoritism toward women (considering the fact that the sample had a general implicit preference for women over men, $M = -.29$, it is appropriate not to interpret the results for impGF as reflecting higher levels of favoritism toward men). Similarly, as for the MS main effect, univariate analysis of variance results for MS differences were partially confirmed in that it was significant for only impGF, but not for BS. However, because these main effects could be qualified by GSJ, it would be better to inspect on the moderating roles of gender and MS in GSJ's relation to the outcome variables.

4.1.5 Moderating Role of Gender

The moderating role of gender on HS, BS, expGF, and impGF was tested for the second research question explored in the current study. In an attempt to see whether gender moderated the relation of GSJ to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism, the joint effect of gender and GSJ (i.e., Participant Sex x GSJ interaction

term) on the outcome variables (i.e., HS, BS, expGF, and impGF) were examined with multiple regression analyses conducted for each. A significant interaction was found only for HS and expGF (though the interaction for HS was marginally significant), suggesting that gender moderated the relation of GSJ to HS and expGF.

Concerning HS, both male and female participants had higher levels of HS when their GSJ tendency was also high. In fact, men who had higher GSJ tendency showed the highest level of HS. However, both male and female participants who had lower tendency to justify the gender-related system showed similar levels of HS. In other words, among low system-justifiers, men and women did not differ in the extent to which they endorsed hostile attitudes toward women. But, among high system-justifiers, male participants endorsed greater hostile sexist beliefs toward women than female participants did. Though the main effect of gender on HS was not significant, this significant interaction between gender and GSJ revealed that GSJ – HS prediction was stronger for male participants compared to female participants. This finding is incompatible with SJT's notion of enhanced system justification among the disadvantaged. Still, in view of the finding that men tended to justify the gender-related system more than women in the current study, it is not surprising that the impact of GSJ on HS was stronger for male participants.

With respect to the moderating role of gender on the relation of GSJ to explicit ingroup favoritism, results revealed that GSJ scores predicted scores on expGF for only male participants, but not for female participants. Hence, GSJ – expGF prediction was in effect for only male participants. Specifically, men who tended to justify the gender-related system more displayed the highest levels of explicit ingroup favoritism, whereas men with the least motivation to justify the system on gender basis displayed the lowest levels of explicit ingroup favoritism. This finding suggests that in gender context, explicit ingroup favoritism might be a manifestation of the system justification motive only for men. After all, the extent to which women displayed explicit ingroup favoritism did not differ among low- and high-system justifiers.

Overall, the moderating role of gender on the relation of GSJ to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism emerged only for HS and expGF. At this point, it is hard to explain why this hypothesis was not supported for BS and impGF. The only thing that can be inferred is that although BS and impGF were found to be related to GSJ, their social psychological function as system-justifying means seems to be of the same strength for both between and within men and women.

4.1.6 Moderating Role of MS

The moderating role of MS on HS, BS, expGF, and impGF was tested for the third research question explored in the current study. With an effort to see whether MS moderated the relation of GSJ to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism, the joint effect of MS and GSJ (i.e., MS x GSJ interaction term) on the outcome variables (i.e., HS, BS, expGF, and impGF) were examined with multiple regression analyses conducted for each. None of the interactions were found to be significant, suggesting that MS did not moderate the relation of GSJ to outcome variables. In other words, prediction of ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism from the tendency to justify the gender-related system was not enhanced when mortality was made salient. Normally, because GSJ was found to significantly predict HS, BS, expGF, and impGF, GSJ's relation to ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism might have functioned more as cultural worldview defense when participants experienced death-related anxiety. Hence, it was unexpected that the moderating role of MS was not observed, at least for the variables BS and impGF on which a significant MS effect was found.

This finding contrary to what had been hypothesized should be interpreted cautiously, as mentioned earlier in the chapter, for the uneven distribution of participants' GSJ scores across MS conditions. The moderating role of MS might have been significant if participants in death vs. control groups had not differed in terms of their tendency to justify the gender-related system. Because participants who were reminded of death seemed to be high system-justifiers and control participants seemed to be low system-justifiers, it is possible that MS manipulation did not work out properly.

4.2 Contributions of the Study

The major contributions of the current study to social psychological research can be highlighted in a number of points.

Firstly, the current thesis contributes to recent work conducted in Turkey on ambivalent sexism by addressing its relation to legitimization of the social hierarchy among men and women. Being the first study to directly examine the relation of GSJ to hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes toward women, HS and BS were revealed to qualify as system-justifying ideologies, thereby, perpetuating gender inequality. Moreover, this study enabled an enhanced understanding of ambivalent sexism in the framework of SJT as it provided a motivational account for the two components of ambivalent sexism, which is the psychological need to perceive the system as fair and legitimate. In this respect, an implication of this work concerns the possible importance of running social campaigns to raise awareness on the issue of gender inequality. Emphasizing the very existence of gender inequality prevalent in society in the eyes of both men and women via these campaigns might be an option for reducing people's dispositional tendency to perceive the gender-related system as fair and legitimate. In this way, endorsement of ambivalently sexist attitudes toward women can be lessened and this would be a good step for Turkey becoming a society in which men and women are really equal.

Secondly, the current study stands out for its methodology in assessing gender-group favoritism as both explicit and implicit measures were utilized with a Turkish sample. Therefore, this study provides the first findings on the extent to which Turkish college students favor their gender group both explicitly and implicitly, hence, allowing for a comparison of both. In addition, findings of this study are important for addressing gender-group favoritism in relation to GSJ in a sample of Turkish university students.

Thirdly, the present study contributes to TMT research in Turkey by examining the effect of MS in gender context, in particular, ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism. In this regard, it reveals the first findings on how MS influences ambivalent sexism and gender-group favoritism. Most importantly, this study is the

first empirical study conducted in Turkey to investigate the possible link between SJT and TMT. Though the findings for the moderating role of MS on system-justifying tendencies were ineffective due to a methodological concern (GSJ scores were unevenly distributed across MS conditions), this work is promising for pointing out the need to explore system justification processes from a TMT perspective.

Finally, the current study contributes to the social psychological research in Turkey by being the second study to use Turkish adaptation of the GSJ scale. Moreover, a new scale assessing attitudes toward the other gender group was developed for this thesis to function as a self-report measure of gender-group favoritism. Although its reliability was not that satisfactory, this scale can be improved psychometrically for future use.

4.3 Limitations and Directions for Future Research

There are certain limitations to the present study that should be noted. It is important that these are kept in mind when interpreting the findings obtained. Now, the limitations will be elaborated, based on which directions for future research are provided.

One limitation is that, in the current study, system justification tendency was not measured by using experimental methods (for instance, by inducing system threat to participants via exposure to a passage criticizing the system, or by manipulating how various social groups are perceived in terms of their status; see Thorisdottir et al., 2009). It was assessed with a scale reflecting participants' dispositional tendencies to justify the gender-related system in Turkey. Hence, use of this scale revealed stable individual differences in system justification tendency. It has been pointed out that due to the contextual nature of the system justification motive, intergroup phenomena are more pronounced when the need to justify the system is heightened as in conditions of system threat (Kay & Zanna, 2009). For this reason, replicating this research by manipulating the system justification motive would be an alternative route.

One other limitation of this study concerns GSJ scores. The sample mean score on the 6-item GSJ scale was 2.74 and the mean scores of the participants ranged between 1 and 4.71. Hence, there seems to be a restricted range for the variable GSJ and the sample did not much tend to justify the gender-related system. Moreover, GSJ scores were unevenly distributed across MS conditions, casting doubt on the reliability of findings for the moderating role of MS. Therefore, the same hypotheses should be tested with a different study in which extra attention is given to make sure that participants in death vs. control conditions do not differ in their GSJ tendency. This would be possible when GSJ scale is given as a pre-measure and participants are randomly assigned to the conditions after assuring that both groups justify the gender-related system to the same extent.

Another point that can be considered as a limitation for the current study is that self-esteem was not measured. Studying system justification processes from a TMT perspective can be enhanced by utilizing a measure of self-esteem before and after the MS manipulation, whose comparison would allow for a complementary test of the MS hypothesis. In addition, because system justification is differentially associated with self-esteem for members of advantaged/disadvantaged groups, it would be better to use a self-esteem measure. This would contribute to a more thorough analysis of MS effect on system justification processes.

Concerning the generalizability of the findings, participants of the current study were university students mostly from middle- to upper-class background. In fact, this might account for participants' low ratings on GSJ scale. Future research could eliminate this limitation by testing the same hypotheses with more representative samples from Turkey.

The context of the current thesis was chosen in line with the intended area of study, which concerned the moderating role of MS on system justification processes focusing on GSJ, ambivalent sexism and group favoritism. In doing so, an experimental design was applied to test the hypotheses with the appropriate measures. Alternatively, the context could be chosen more *naturally* in that it can originate from an ongoing issue in the world/country that is conducive for people's

evaluation on a system-justifying basis or that provides a natural MS condition. For instance, the Kurdish case in Turkey can be one context for it enables evaluation of people's support for the social and political status quo in Turkey. In this relatively more *natural* context, the government's approach to the Kurdish issue can be evaluated regarding its shortcomings and failures to solve this political issue. Such evaluation would qualify as an assessment of system justification on political basis. In view of this context, the Kurdish issue, which also inheres intergroup phenomena, might be studied to investigate how system justification is related to attitudes toward Kurdish people as an ethnic group. Further, TMT might well be integrated to this line of research by examining whether MS (which would be manipulated as in typical TMT research) moderates the relationship between system justification and intergroup attitudes in the context of Kurdish case.

Lastly, the current thesis employed a TMT perspective in understanding the motivational underpinnings of ambivalently sexist beliefs. In particular, MS was studied as a situational factor that might have bearing on system justification processes in gender context. Future research should be geared toward examining other dispositional and situational antecedents of endorsing hostile and benevolent attitudes toward women.

4.4 Concluding Remarks

In view of the contributions as well as the limitations of the current thesis, it is crucial that the link between SJT and TMT be studied with further research in different contexts. This study should be regarded as initial exploration; it needs to be supported with more empirical evidence for a better understanding of how MS influences system justification processes. Eventually, this line of research will fill the gap in the literature regarding the two prominent theories of social psychology. After all, we are living in a world of social, political, and economic systems in which we are too often exposed to cases that confront us with the fact that death is inevitable (e.g., disasters, terrorist attacks, war, etc.). It would be promising to study how these cases facilitate, in different forms, the legitimization of the societal status

quo. Implications of this line of research might well be used to promote social change that is potentially undermined by the motive of system justification.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

1. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın Erkek
2. Yaşınız : _____
3. Okuduğunuz Üniversite: _____
Bölüm: _____
 Lisans Yüksek Lisans Doktora
4. Ailenizin aylık geliri (TL olarak): 500 altı
 500 – 1000
 1000 – 2000
 2000 – 4000
 4000 ve üstü
5. Yaşamınızın çoğunun geçtiği yer: Köy
 Kasaba
 Şehir
 Metropol

APPENDIX B

GENDER-SPECIFIC SYSTEM JUSTIFICATION SCALE

(JOST & KAY, 2005)

TOPLUMSAL CİNSİYETLE İLGİLİ SİSTEMİ MEŞRULAŞTIRMA ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen her bir ifade ile ne derece hemfikir olup olmadığınızı verilen ölçekteki sayılardan uygun olanı ifadenin yanındaki boşluğa yazarak belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç	Oldukça	Birazcık	Birazcık	Oldukça	Çok
Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum

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

* Items were reverse-scored prior to analysis.

APPENDIX C

MORTALITY SALIENCE MANIPULATION

TELEVİZYON İZLEMENİN YA DA ÖLÜMLÜLÜK BİLGİSİNİN AKTİVE EDİLDİĞİ MANİPÜLASYON SORULARI

Sonraki sayfada iki tane açık uçlu soru yer almaktadır.

Lütfen, aklınıza ilk gelen olağan cevabı yansıtacak şekilde bu soruları yanıtlayınız.

Katılımcıların bu sorulara sezgisel tepkiler vermelerini bekliyoruz.

PROJEKTİF YAŞAM TUTUMLARI DEĞERLENDİRMESİ

Aşağıdaki iki madde, yakın zamanda geliştirilen yenilikçi bir kişilik değerlendirme aracı olarak oluşturulmuştur. Yapılan araştırmalar, yaşama dair duygu ve düşüncelerin kişilik hakkında çok önemli miktarda bilgi sağladığını göstermektedir. Aşağıdaki sorulara vereceğiniz yanıtlar, kişiliğinizin bazı boyutlarını değerlendirmek için analiz edilecektir. Lütfen, söz konusu maddeleri tam olarak cevaplayınız.

- 1. Lütfen, televizyon seyrettiğinizi düşünmenin sizde uyandırdığı duyguları kısaca açıklayınız.**

- 2. Lütfen, televizyon izlediğinizde size fiziksel olarak ne olacağı konusundaki düşüncelerinizi olabildiğince açık bir biçimde yazınız.**

PROJEKTİF YAŞAM TUTUMLARI DEĞERLENDİRMESİ

Aşağıdaki iki madde, yakın zamanda geliştirilen yenilikçi bir kişilik değerlendirme aracı olarak oluşturulmuştur. Yapılan araştırmalar, yaşama dair duygu ve düşüncelerin kişilik hakkında çok önemli miktarda bilgi sağladığını göstermektedir. Aşağıdaki sorulara vereceğiniz yanıtlar, kişiliğinizin bazı boyutlarını değerlendirmek için analiz edilecektir. Lütfen, söz konusu maddeleri tam olarak cevaplayınız.

- 1. Lütfen, kendi ölümünüzü düşünmenin sizde uyandırdığı duyguları kısaca açıklayınız.**

- 2. Lütfen, fiziksel olarak ölmekte olduğunuzda ve fiziksel olarak artık ölü olduğunuzda size ne olacağı konusundaki düşüncelerinizi olabildiğince açık bir biçimde yazınız.**

APPENDIX D

WORD SEARCH PUZZLE

(DELAY TASK)

KELİME BULMACASI

Aşağıda bulunan 12x12'lik tabloda, kutuda listelenmiş olan 12 kelime gizlenmiştir.
Lütfen bu 12 kelimeyi bulup işaretleyiniz.

Kitap	Bilgisayar	Telefon	Tren	Okul	Bira
Masa	Film	Kağıt	Müzik	Çim	Aktör

A	S	F	K	E	Ö	R	P	T	İ	S	R
Y	Ş	İ	V	T	Ğ	E	O	E	S	A	Ö
T	E	L	E	F	O	N	T	K	Y	R	T
O	B	M	Y	Ö	C	A	B	A	U	Z	K
K	Ç	Z	O	T	S	A	S	Ğ	R	L	A
N	A	İ	R	A	Z	İ	T	İ	K	U	N
I	F	O	M	E	G	S	O	T	K	E	T
E	C	A	U	L	R	A	Ğ	E	R	S	İ
M	Ü	Z	İ	K	E	K	İ	T	A	P	E
Ü	H	B	Ş	E	S	U	P	O	R	O	S
S	L	A	M	R	V	F	Ö	L	İ	R	İ
A	D	U	J	P	A	Ç	S	U	B	A	N

Sonraki uygulamalar için geribildirim olması için lütfen çözdüğünüz bulmacanın zorluk derecesini belirtiniz.

(1) (2) (3) (4) (5) (6) (7) (8) (9)
Çok Kolay Çok Zor

APPENDIX E

AMBIVALENT SEXISM INVENTORY

(GLICK & FISKE, 1996)

ÇELİŞİK DUYGULU CİNSİYETÇİLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

(SAKALLI-UĞURLU, 2002)

Lütfen her bir ifade ile ne derece hemfikir olup olmadığınızı verilen ölçekteki sayılardan uygun olanı ifadenin yanındaki boşluğa yazarak belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Kesinlikle Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılmıyorum	Biraz Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Kesinlikle Katılıyorum

___ 1. Ne kadar başarılı olursa olsun bir kadının sevgisine sahip olmadıkça bir erkek gerçek anlamda bütün bir insan olamaz.

___ 2. Gerçekte birçok kadın “eşitlik” arıyoruz maskesi altında işe alınmalarda kendilerinin kayırılması gibi özel muameleler arıyorlar.

___ 3. Bir felaket durumunda kadınlar erkeklerden önce kurtarılmalıdır.

___ 4. Birçok kadın masum söz veya davranışları cinsel ayrımcılık olarak yorumlamaktadır.

___ 5. Kadınlar çok çabuk alınırlar.

___ 6. Karşı cinsten biri ile romantik ilişki olmaksızın insanlar hayatta gerçekten mutlu olamazlar.

___ 7. Feministler gerçekte kadınların erkeklerden daha fazla güce sahip olmalarını istemektedirler.

___ 8. Birçok kadın çok az erkekte olan bir saflığa sahiptir.

___ 9. Kadınlar erkekler tarafından el üstünde tutulmalı ve korunmalıdır.

___ 10. Birçok kadın erkeklerin kendileri için yaptıklarına tamamen minnettar olmamaktadırlar.

___ 11. Kadınlar erkekler üzerinde kontrolü sağlayarak güç kazanmak hevesindedir.

- ___ 12. Her erkeğin hayatında hayran olduğu bir kadın olmalıdır.
- ___ 13. Erkekler kadınsız eksiktirler.
- ___ 14. Kadınlar işyerlerindeki problemleri abartmaktadırlar.
- ___ 15. Bir kadın bir erkeğin bağlılığını kazandıktan sonra genellikle o erkeğe sıkı bir yular takmaya çalışır.
- ___ 16. Adaletli bir yarışmada kadınlar erkeklere karşı kaybettikleri zaman tipik olarak kendilerinin ayrımcılığa maruz kaldıklarından yakınır.
- ___ 17. İyi bir kadın erkeği tarafından yüceltilmelidir.
- ___ 18. Erkeklere cinsel yönden yaklaşılabilir olduklarını gösterircesine şakalar yapıp daha sonra erkeklerin tekliflerini reddetmekten zevk alan birçok kadın vardır.
- ___ 19. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha yüksek ahlaki duyarlılığa sahip olma eğilimindedirler.
- ___ 20. Erkekler hayatlarındaki kadın için mali yardım sağlamak için kendi rahatlarını gönüllü olarak feda etmelidirler.
- ___ 21. Feministler erkeklere makul olmayan istekler sunmaktadırlar.
- ___ 22. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha ince bir kültür anlayışına ve zevkine sahiptirler.

APPENDIX F

EXPLICIT MEASURE OF GENDER-GROUP FAVORITISM

DİĞER CİNSİYET GRUBUNA KARŞI TUTUMLAR ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen her bir ifade ile ne derece hemfikir olup olmadığınızı verilen ölçekteki sayılardan uygun olanı ifadenin yanındaki boşluğa yazarak belirtiniz.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç	Oldukça	Birazcık	Birazcık	Oldukça	Çok
Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum

___ 1. Kadın olmak erkek olmaktan iyidir.

___ 2. Kendi cinsiyetimde olduğum için şanslı hissediyorum.

___ 3. Kendi cinsiyetimin diğer cinsiyetten daha iyi olduğunu düşünüyorum.

___ 4. Diğer cinsiyete göre kendi cinsiyetimin genel olarak daha olumlu özelliklere sahip olduğumu düşünüyorum.

___ 5. Keşke diğer cinsiyetten biri olsaydım dediğim olmuştur.*

* Items were reverse-scored prior to analysis.

APPENDIX G

ETHICS COMMITTEE APPROVAL



1956

Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi
Middle East Technical University

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Graduate School of
Natural and Applied Sciences

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www.fbe.metu.edu.tr

Sayı: B.30.2.ODT.0.AH.00.00/126/13-453

27 Şubat 2012

Gönderilen: Prof. Dr. Nuray Sakallı Ugurlu

Psikoloji Bölümü

Gönderen : Prof. Dr. Canan Özgen

IAK Başkan Yardımcısı

İlgi : Etik Onayı

"Sistemi Meşrulaştırma ve Dehşet Yönetimi: Ölümlülüğün Hatırlatılmasının Cinsiyet Bağlamında Sistemi Meşrulaştırma Eğilimlerini Düzenleyici Rolü" isimli araştırmanız "İnsan Araştırmaları Komitesi" tarafından uygun görülerek gerekli onay verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinize saygılarımla sunarım.

Etik Komite Onayı

Uygundur

27/02/2012

Prof.Dr. Canan ÖZGEN
Uygulamalı Etik Araştırma Merkezi
(UEAM) Başkanı
ODTÜ 06531 ANKARA

28.02.2012

08

APPENDIX H

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

GÖNÜLLÜ KATILIM FORMU

Bu çalışma, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü Sosyal Psikoloji yüksek lisans öğrencisi Canay Doğulu'nun tezi kapsamında ve Prof. Dr. Nuray Sakallı-Uğurlu danışmanlığında yürütülen bir araştırmadır. Çalışmanın amacı, kişilik ile cinsiyetle ilgili düşünceler arasındaki ilişki üzerine bilgi toplamaktır. Çalışmaya katılım tamamen gönüllülük temelinde olmalıdır. Çalışma süresince, sizden kimlik belirleyici hiçbir bilgi istenmemektedir. Cevaplarınız tamamen gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir; elde edilecek bilgiler bilimsel yayımlarda kullanılacaktır.

Çalışma sırasında bilgisayarda uygulanacak test ve doldurulması talep edilecek anketler, genel olarak kişisel rahatsızlık verecek sorular içermemektedir. Ancak, katılım sırasında sorulardan ya da herhangi başka bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz cevaplama işini yarıda bırakıp çıkmakta serbestsiniz. Böyle bir durumda anketi uygulayan kişiye, anketi tamamlamadığınızı söylemek yeterli olacaktır. Çalışmanın veri toplama aşamasının sonunda, bu çalışmayla ilgili sorularınız cevaplanacaktır. Bu çalışmaya katıldığınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz. Çalışma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim elemanı Prof. Dr. Nuray Sakallı-Uğurlu (Tel: 0312 210 5106; E-posta: nurays@metu.edu.tr) ve yüksek lisans öğrencisi Canay Doğulu (Tel: 0538 648 2014; E-posta: canaydogulutez@gmail.com) ile iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu çalışmaya tamamen gönüllü olarak katılıyorum ve istediğim zaman yarıda kesip çıkabileceğimi biliyorum. Verdiğim bilgilerin bilimsel amaçlı yayımlarda kullanılmasını kabul ediyorum. (Formu doldurup imzaladıktan sonra uygulayıcıya geri veriniz).

Ad Soyad

Tarih

İmza

___/___/___

APPENDIX I

DEBRIEFING FORM

KATILIM SONRASI BİLGİ FORMU

Bu çalışma, daha önce de belirtildiği gibi, ODTÜ Psikoloji Bölümü öğretim üyelerinden Prof. Dr. N. Nuray Sakallı-Uğurlu danışmanlığında Sosyal Psikoloji yüksek lisans öğrencisi Canay Doğulu'nun tezi kapsamında yürütülen bir araştırmadır. Üniversite öğrencilerinin katılımcı olarak yer alacağı bu çalışmada temel olarak, Sistemi Meşrulaştırma Kuramı (SMK) ile Dehşet Yönetimi Kuramı (DYK) arasındaki ilişki gruplar arası ilişkiler açısından ve cinsiyetçilik bağlamında incelenecektir.

Sosyal psikoloji literatüründe çoğunlukla bağımsız olarak çalışılan SMK ve DYK arasındaki teorik bağlantı, DYK'nın ana hipotezi olan ölümlülüğün hatırlatılmasının mevcut sistemi meşrulaştırma eğilimi üzerindeki etkisine dayanmaktadır. Kuramsal olarak, ölümlülüğün hatırlatılmasının sistemi meşrulaştırma eğilimlerini artıracığına dikkat çekilmiştir. Bu kuramsal ilişki temelinde ve çalışmacının amacına uygun olarak, ölümlülüğün hatırlatılmasının toplumsal cinsiyete bağlı sistemi meşrulaştırmanın çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik ve iç-dış grup kayırmacılığı ile arasındaki ilişkiyi düzenlemesi beklenmektedir. Bu ilişkiyi ortaya çıkarmak amacıyla bu çalışmada, bir grup katılımcıya ölümlülük, kontrol prosedürü olarak da diğer gruba daha nötr olan televizyon izlemek hatırlatılmıştır. Katılımcıların verecekleri cevapların, sistemi meşrulaştırma eğiliminin cinsiyetçilik ve grup kayırmacılığı arasındaki ilişki açısından buldukları gruba göre değişmesi beklenmektedir.

Bu çalışmadan alınacak ilk verilerin Nisan 2012 sonunda elde edilmesi amaçlanmaktadır. Elde edilen bilgiler sadece bilimsel araştırma ve yazılarda kullanılacaktır. Çalışmanın sonuçlarını öğrenmek ya da bu araştırma hakkında daha fazla bilgi almak için aşağıdaki isimlere başvurabilirsiniz. Bu araştırmaya katıldığınız için tekrar çok teşekkür ederiz.

Prof. Dr. Nuray Sakallı-Uğurlu (Oda: B127; Tel: 210 5106; E-posta: nurays@metu.edu.tr)
Y.L. öğrencisi Canay Doğulu (Tel: 0538 648 2014; E-posta: canay.dogulu@metu.edu.tr)

APPENDIX J

THESIS PHOTOCOPYING PERMISSION FORM

TEZ FOTOKOPİSİ İZİN FORMU

ENSTİTÜ

Fen Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Uygulamalı Matematik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Enformatik Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>
Deniz Bilimleri Enstitüsü	<input type="checkbox"/>

YAZARIN

Soyadı : DOĞULU
Adı : CANAY
Bölümü : PSİKOLOJİ

TEZİN ADI (İngilizce) : SYSTEM JUSTIFICATION AND TERROR MANAGEMENT: MORTALITY SALIENCE AS A MODERATOR OF SYSTEM-JUSTIFYING TENDENCIES IN GENDER CONTEXT

TEZİN TÜRÜ : Yüksek Lisans Doktora

1. Tezimin tamamından kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
2. Tezimin içindekiler sayfası, özet, indeks sayfalarından ve/veya bir bölümünden kaynak gösterilmek şartıyla fotokopi alınabilir.
3. Tezimden bir bir (1) yıl süreyle fotokopi alınamaz.

TEZİN KÜTÜPHANEYE TESLİM TARİHİ: