

## HOW SEXISM AFFECTS VIOLENCE AGAINST WOMEN: THE MEDIATING ROLE OF MISOGYNY

Cinsiyetçilik, Kadına Yönelik Şiddeti Nasıl Etkiler: Kadın Düşmanlığının Aracı Rolü

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### Abstract

Violence against women (VAW) is a gender-based social issue. Gender indicators include benevolent sexism (BS), hostile sexism (HS), and hostility toward women (HTW). The gender basis of violence is revealed by evidence of the association between these indicators and VAW. The research traces this association by focusing on the mediating role of misogyny (hostility toward women) in the association between sexism and VAW. Five hundred seventy-nine adult male participants represented our sample ( $M_{age}= 26, SD= 6$ ). We administered the ambivalent sexism scale, using dimensions of BS ( $\alpha= .87$ ) and HS ( $\alpha= .89$ ), HTW ( $\alpha= .77$ ), and attitude toward the VAW scale ( $\alpha= .91$ ). The research results showed that HS's total, direct, and indirect effects on attitudes toward VAW were significant. However, only the total and direct effects of BS were significant, and its indirect effect was not significant. HS's prediction of negative attitudes toward VAW through HTW supported the gender basis of violence. While BS, a form of gender-based discrimination, directly predicts negative attitudes toward VAW, HTW does not strengthen the association between BS and negative attitudes toward VAW. Once more, our results underline the critical role of gender-based policies and practices in preventing VAW.

**Keywords:** Violence Against Women, Sexism, Benevolent Sexism, Hostile Sexism, Misogyny (Hostility Toward Women).

### Özet

Kadına yönelik şiddet, toplumsal cinsiyete dayalı bir sosyal sorundur. Toplumsal cinsiyet göstergeleri arasında korumacı cinsiyetçilik, düşmanca cinsiyetçilik ve kadın düşmanlığı yer almaktadır. Şiddetin, toplumsal cinsiyet temeli, bu göstergeler ile kadına yönelik şiddet tutumları arasındaki ilişkinin kanıtlarıyla ortaya çıkar. Bu anlamda araştırma, cinsiyetçilik ile kadına yönelik şiddet tutumları arasındaki ilişkide kadın düşmanlığının (mizojini) aracı rolüne odaklanarak bu ilişkinin izini sürmektedir. Örneklemimizi 579 yetişkin erkek temsil etmektedir ( $Ort.yaş= 26, SS= 6$ ). Korumacı ( $\alpha= .87$ ) ve düşmanca ( $\alpha= .89$ ) cinsiyetçilik boyutları olan çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik ölçeği, İskebe kadına yönelik şiddet tutum ölçeği ( $\alpha= .91$ ) ve kadın düşmanlığı ölçeğini ( $\alpha= .77$ ) kullandık. Araştırma sonuçları, düşmanca cinsiyetçiliğin kadına yönelik şiddet tutumu üzerindeki toplam, doğrudan ve dolaylı etkisinin anlamlı olduğunu gösterdi. Korumacı cinsiyetçiliğin kadına yönelik şiddet tutumu üzerindeki toplam ve doğrudan etkileri anlamlı iken dolaylı etkisi anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Düşmanca cinsiyetçiliğin kadın düşmanlığı aracılığıyla kadına yönelik şiddet tutumunu yordaması, şiddetin toplumsal cinsiyet temelini desteklemiştir. Cinsiyete dayalı ayrımcılığın bir biçimi olan korumacı cinsiyetçilik, kadına yönelik olumsuz tutumları doğrudan beslerken, kadın düşmanlığı üzerinden bu olumsuz tutumları güçlendirmemektedir. Sonuçlarımız bir kez daha, kadına yönelik şiddeti önlemede toplumsal cinsiyete dayalı politika ve uygulamaların kritik rolünü doğrulamıştır.

**Anahtar Kelimeler:** Kadına Yönelik Şiddet, Cinsiyetçilik, Korumacı Cinsiyetçilik, Düşmanca Cinsiyetçilik, Kadın Düşmanlığı (Mizojini).

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## Introduction

Violence against women (VAW) emerges as a profound public health and social problem, characterized by its pervasive presence across the globe (World Health Organization, 2005, 1). The World Health Organization (2013) states that 35% of women worldwide are subjected to physical or sexual violence, 30% experience violence from an intimate partner, and 38% are killed by their intimate partner. Women who are exposed to violence spend a significant part of their lives dealing with both physical and mental health problems (Campbell, 2002, 1335). The World Health Organization's 2018 study on the prevalence of VAW revealed a stark reality: Approximately one-third of women aged 15 and over have undergone one or more forms of violence at least once in their lives (World Health Organization, 2021).

As indicated by data from the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) for the year 2023, 23.4% of women between the ages of 15 and 49 have fallen upon intimate partner violence at some point during their lifetime. The country where women are most exposed to partner violence is Türkiye, with a rate of 32% (OECD, 2023). In Türkiye, where partner violence is prevalent, the rate of women who do not feel safe walking alone at night is 30.4%, while the rate of men is 13% (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2023a). The rate in 2022 is 27.4% for women and 10.2% for men (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2023b). Additionally, 36.1% of women in urban areas reported experiencing physical violence by people they did not know, 33.7% reported being followed on the street, and 5.9% reported experiencing sexual violence and attempted rape. Due to the pervasive fear of violence, women feel unsafe in public areas to a great extent (Tandogan & Ilhan, 2016).

A large-scale study accomplished by the Ministry of Family and Social Services in 2014 revealed that 36% of women surveyed reported experiencing physical violence. The percentage of women who were subjected to physical or sexual violence was determined as 38% in the same study (Republic of Türkiye, Ministry of Family and Social Services, 2015).

The phenomenon of VAW is regarded as a form of gender-based violence, manifesting as a result of prevailing gender inequalities (World Health Organization, 2005, 1). It becomes a matter of concern for the public, in which conventional gender roles, also perpetuating discriminatory practices towards women, play a crucial role (Korkut-Owen & Owen, 2008, 12). Furthermore, a key indicator of intimate partner VAW is misogyny, being a product of gender norms (DeGue et al., 2010, 421).

*Sexism* is depicted as attitudes and behaviors that contain prejudice and discrimination, notably towards the female gender, and are fed by gender norms (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 491; Liss et al., 2019). There are many types of sexism. Most of the time, implicit, latent (hidden), and sometimes blatantly sexist attitudes, behaviors, and practices can emerge (Benokraitis & Feagin, 1999). The sexism that occurs blatantly is also referred to as overt (visible) sexism. For example, men's easily understood and directly discriminatory attitudes and behaviors toward women and their clear intentions in doing so fall within the realm of overt sexism. Invisible and inconspicuous behaviors and actions that are detrimental to women and are either overlooked or deemed unimportant are known as covert sexism. These discriminatory attitudes, behaviors, or practices have become routine or normalized without any awareness or recognition of their detrimental impact on women. This phenomenon can be described as a form of latent sexism, implying that such attitudes and actions may be hidden, yet they persist and affect women in various ways over time. While there is intent in implicit sexism, in latent sexism, it is not thought that the behavior can harm women (Benokraitis & Feagin, 1999; Swim & Cohen, 1997, 104). Another distinction between sexism is between traditional sexism and modern sexism. While traditional sexism is compatible with overt sexism in that it includes overt and obvious unequal and unjust practices based on gender, modern sexism, being a new concept, has taken shape with the achievements of the feminist movement; it reflects examples of implicit and latent sexism in that it includes implicit and latent prejudiced and discriminatory practices against women (Else-Quest & Hyde, 2018; Swim et al., 1995, 199–201).

The new era of sexism focuses on two seemingly ambivalent emotions: benevolent and hostile. Benevolent sexism (BS) is predicated on the premise that women necessitate protection. In this regard, it reflects the mentality that sees women as fragile, powerless, weak, and needing support, and it makes women directly dependent on men. It may seem paradoxical to define sexism as "benevolent." However, BS is a recognized phenomenon that describes instances where perpetrators perceive and portray women in subjectively benevolent terms. These portrayals commonly present women as pure, protected,

supported, and adored beings and often emphasize the importance of women's love for men (Glick & Fiske, 2012, 70). Hostile sexism (HS) includes all sorts of negative and hostile attitudes, behaviors, and practices towards women, emerging as a product of the patriarchal mentality that supports conventional gender roles and legitimizes the subordination of women (Glick and Fiske, 1996, 1997, 2001). Additionally, HS embodies a perspective on gender relations that is characterized by a perception of women as aiming to exert dominion over men, whether via the utilization of sexuality or the espousal of feminist ideologies. It is a pivotal supplement to HS, mitigating women's opposition to prevailing gender inequality (Glick & Fiske, 2012, 70–71).

Women's failure to meet social expectations is seen as an essential factor that causes violence. In this respect, sexism based on gender norms is also the cause of VAW (Korkut-Owen & Owen, 2008, 31). Men tend to resort to violence as a form of problem-solving that aligns with gender-specific expectations. Furthermore, the experience of violence during childhood can contribute to the normalization of VAW (Heise, 2011).

*Misogyny* is also expressed as hostility towards women and can be conceptualized as a set of attitudes and beliefs attributing a proclivity toward dishonesty, manipulation, and deceit to women (Malamuth & Brown, 1994). It covers all kinds of prejudiced attitudes towards women based on gender roles. Hostility and hatred are essential among these attitudes (Baydar, 2013, 152). In addition to hostility and hatred, behaviors that belittle, underestimate, ridicule, and ignore women (by targeting their gender) are also seen as misogyny. Misogyny, as a manifestation of male dominance, is evidenced by a range of discriminatory attitudes, behaviors, and situations towards women. These may be classified as either voluntary or involuntary, conscious or unconscious, and as occurring at the level of individual or collective social actors (Daumas, 2020, 20–21).

Misogyny is expressed as a phenomenon that legitimizes VAW, normalizes harassment and rape, and as an indicator of sexism. In patriarchal and male-dominated societies, forms of misogyny emerge in the form of humiliating, despising, subordinating women, sexual objection, and legitimizing VAW (Baydar, 2013, 151). Additionally, misogyny is directly related to sexual assault being a form of VAW (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995; Abbey & McAuslan, 2004).

Misogyny represents a more pernicious aspect of sexism, referring specifically to hatred towards women, layered on top of yet interactive with the patriarchal system. Sexism encompasses the myriad ways in which women experience the effects of patriarchal structures. In contrast, the concept of misogyny asserts that these structures are not merely a collection of isolated incidents but rather a normalized and legitimized social system. Despite the analytical and ontological distinctions between sexism and misogyny, they are closely interconnected ideologically (Savigny, 2020).

The studies that include the issue and coverage of the research are limited. In a research conducted in Türkiye on the subject, it was noticed that the attitudes of men towards verbal and physical violence in marital relationships and HS were related to each other. The research demonstrated that the level of hostility (HS) in males predicted attitudes toward violence, both verbal and physical (Sakallı-Uğurlu & Ulu, 2003). In the inquiry of Sakallı (2001) with Turkish university students, it was noted that the students generally had positive attitudes towards patriarchy and HS. However, they stated that they were against physical VAW in marriage. Patriarchy and HS were expressed as two essential variables that predicted attitudes toward physical VAW in marriage in the research (Sakallı, 2001, 601). In research with college students, Forbes et al. (2004) revealed that men with hostile sexist attitudes were more prone to engage in verbal violence, sexual coercion, and duress than other men. The same study found that there was no relationship between BS and verbal violence and sexual coercion or pressure. In another research on gender roles, it was established that males who espoused traditional gender roles were more prone to engage in aggressive behavior towards their partners (Byers & Eno, 1992).

There is still much to discover when it comes to understanding the link between misogyny and VAW. Further investigation is required into this issue. However, some studies on misogyny have discovered positive relationships between misogyny and the manners of VAW (Malamuth et al., 1995; Parrott & Zeichner, 2003).

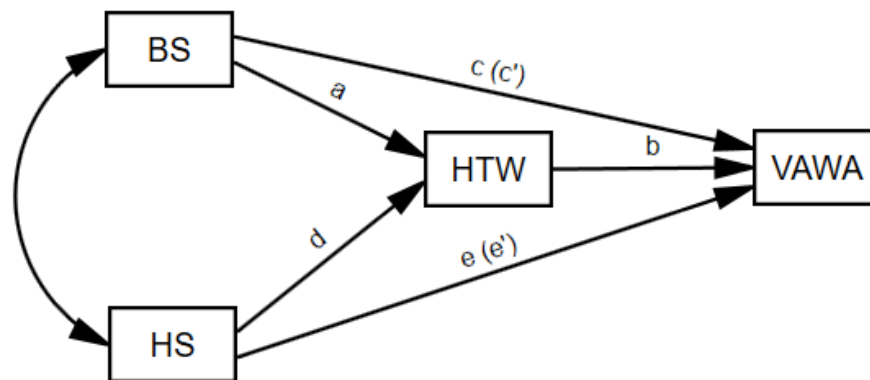
## 1. The Present Study

Perpetuating gender roles can reinforce negative attitudes and behaviors toward women, including aggression and violence (Chrisler, 2001, 299). The process of gender socialization influences the attitudes

of men towards women. It has the potential to result in VAW and even to perpetuate harmful gender norms (Good & Sherrod, 2001, 2007). This process continually constituted the basis for the evolution of a sexist society. To comprehend the process, it is essential to concentrate on the sexist attitudes that perpetuate violence against women. Accordingly, the current study dissects the influence of sexist attitudes on VAW.

A consideration of the actual literature reveals a paucity of studies examining the impacts of sexism and misogyny on VAW. Consequently, there is a need for further research in this area to attain a deeper and more comprehensive apprehension of the impact of these attitudes on VAW. The current research aimed to explore the indirect effect of misogyny, which is an essential determinant in the association between sexism and VAW and reflects the gender basis of violence. We have examined BS and HS as estimators of HTW and attitudes toward VAW. Furthermore, we have developed a model that misogyny (HTW) is a mediator. This model is based on the association between sexism (BS and HS), and attitudes toward VAW assume that HTW reinforces this relationship. Indeed, we hypothesized that misogyny mediates the observed association between both BS and HS and attitudes toward VAW.

Both HS and misogyny are sexist attitudes, and both target women. However, HS represents a moderate form of hostility than misogyny. Misogyny includes rejection or deprivation from women (Check, 1988), is shaped more by the intimate partner relationship, and is directly powered by hatred. HS, on the flip side, is associated with the adoption of inegalitarian attitudes as a requirement of traditional gender roles. Therefore, we expected HS to predict violence against women through misogyny. Since all sexist attitudes promote misogyny, we expected a similar relationship for BS. The research model is presented in Figure 1.



Note. HS: Hostile Sexism, BS: Benevolent Sexism, HTW: Hostility Toward Women, VAWA: Violence Against Women Attitude

**Figure 1.** The research model

## 2. Materials and Methods

This study is a quantitative research with a relational design. It focuses on the relationship between various variables with a quantitative systematic approach. Relational quantitative research examines the relationships between two or more variables (Bekman, 2022). The variables included in the research model are benevolent sexism, hostile sexism, misogyny, and attitude to violence against women. Standard measurement tools were operated to gather information on variables. The validity and reliability of these measurement tools used for each model variable have been proven. The research process and the methods, techniques, and tools used are detailed in the following stages.

### 2.1. Participants

The population of this study consists of adult males in Türkiye. Six hundred-one males were reached within the scope of the study. Due to missing information in the survey form and extreme values in the data set, 22 people were extracted from the data set. Thus, the study sample comprised 579 adult male participants ( $M_{age} = 26$ ,  $SD = 6$ ).

Confidence interval ( $\alpha = .05$ ), statistical power ( $1 - \beta = .80$ ), and effect size (standardized regression

coefficients) were taken into consideration to determine the sample size. According to the standardized regression coefficients, .14 represents small effects, .39 represents medium effects, and .59 represents large effects (Cohen, 1988). In terms of the sample size to be achieved, calculations were made considering the impact of the predictor variable on the mediator variable in the mediation model, the impact of the mediator variable on the outcome variable, and the effect of the independent variable on the predicted variable (direct effect) by considering the small effect size ( $\beta = .14$ ) ( $\alpha = .05$ ;  $1 - \beta = .80$ ). Calculations were performed with the MedPower Application developed by Kenny (2017) for mediator models. The results of the calculations indicated that 519 samples should be reached according to the indirect effect ( $\alpha = .05$ ;  $\beta = .14$  [standardized regression coefficients];  $1 - \beta = .80$ ). In the power analysis conducted according to the standardized regression coefficients obtained from the research and the sample size, the statistical power was found to be .99 ( $1 - \beta = .99$ ). Considering the results above, it was deduced that a sample size of 579 adult males was adequate.

## 2.2. Measures

### 2.2.1. Ambivalent Sexism

The scale was introduced by Glick and Fiske (1996) and consists of 22 items. The Turkish version was used in this study. The Turkish validity and reliability analyses of the scale were conducted by Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002). The scale consists of two dimensions: BS and HS. Scoring for the scale is based on a 6-point Likert (1=strongly disagree, 6=strongly agree). In the scale adaptation study of Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002), Cronbach's alpha was obtained as .85 for the entire scale, .87 for HS, and .78 for BS. As the scores increase, BS and HS increase (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002, p. 51). The present research obtained the Cronbach alpha as .87 for BS and .89 for HS.

### 2.2.2. Hostility Toward Women

The scale was presented by Check et al. (1985) as a 30-item scale to determine hateful, angry, hostile, and distrustful (skeptical) behaviors toward women. It was later revised by Lonsway and Fitzgerald (1995) to include ten items. Baydar et al. (2019) adapted the scale to Turkish culture. The scale is evaluated with a 7-point Likert measurement level (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) and consists of a single factor. The Cronbach alpha of the single-factor structure was uncovered to be .78. As the scale score increases, misogyny increases (Baydar et al., 2019, 68–69). The Cronbach alpha is .77 for the present research.

### 2.2.3. Violence Against Women Attitude

Kanbay et al. (2017) devised this scale to ascertain individuals' attitudes and perspectives regarding VAW. A five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree and 5 = strongly agree) was employed to code the items, which were organized into two sub-factors: attitudes toward the body (encompassing physical and sexual violence) and manners toward identity (encompassing economic and mental violence). Kanbay et al. (2017) determined Cronbach's alpha as .80 for attitudes toward the body, .83 for attitudes toward identity, and .86 for the entire scale. In this study, analyses were carried out on the scale's total score. The total score for the scale is determined by the summation of the scores derived from the two dimensions. A high score indicates high attitudes toward violence towards women (Kanbay et al., 2017, 454). Cronbach's alpha for this study was .80.

## 2.3. Procedures

The research survey was administered to participants online. The data were gathered through an online data collection tool, Google Forms. As of May 2022, an active link was created via Google Forms, and the survey was disseminated on a range of social media platforms (e.g., WhatsApp, Instagram, Twitter, and Facebook) to male individuals over eighteen to fill out voluntarily. Before filling out the survey, preliminary information about the inquiry, researcher information, and estimated completion of survey time were indicated. The research took an average of 2 months to complete.

An application was made to the XXXXXX University Social and Human Sciences Research Ethics Committee to implement the surveys. As a result of the initial application evaluation, the ethics committee was approved (approval no. 2022/04) on May 11, 2022.

## 2.4. Data Analyses

The necessary preliminary examinations and arrangements were made to make the data suitable for the analyses. Both univariate and multivariate normal distribution assumptions were examined. All the a priori assumptions were completed to test the model. The Cronbach alpha coefficient was employed as a reliability measure to assess the reliability of the scales. The association between the variables was then evaluated using the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Then, the research model was tested with the Maximum Likelihood method (Kline, 2016, 235–259). A total of 5000 bootstrap samples created from the data set with a 95% confidence interval (CI) for the mediation effect were used for the analysis. In the bootstrap method, the absence of a '0' value within the confidence interval was considered one of the indicators of the mediation effect (Preacher & Hayes, 2008).

## 3. Findings

Model variables have positive and significant relations with each other. As a consequence of correlation analyses, it was stated that there was a moderate positive correlation between BS and HS ( $r = .36$ ;  $p < .01$ ), a low positive correlation between BS and HTW ( $r = .19$ ;  $p < .01$ ), a moderate positive correlation between BS and attitudes of VAW ( $r = .37$ ;  $p < .01$ ); a moderate to the high positive correlation between HS and attitudes toward VAW ( $r = .63$ ;  $p < .01$ ); a moderate positive correlation between HS and attitudes of VAW ( $r = .48$ ;  $p < .01$ ); and a high positive association between misogyny and attitudes of VAW ( $r = .52$ ;  $p < .01$ ) (see Table 1).

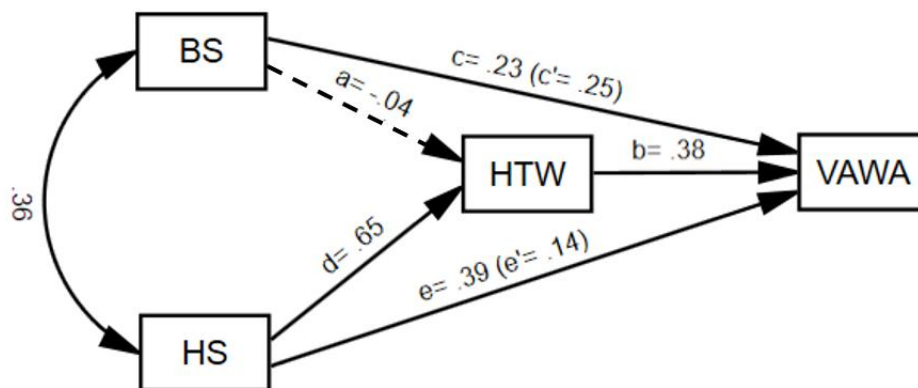
**Table 1.** Means, standard deviations, and zero-order correlations for variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4
1. Benevolent sexism	41.47	13.25	-			
2. Hostile sexism	38.01	13.12	.36**	-		
3. Hostility toward women	29.84	9.92	.19**	.63**	-	
4. Attitudes of violence against women	50.48	17.19	.37**	.48**	.52**	-

\*\*  $p < .01$

The impact of BS on HTW was not statistically significant ( $\beta = -.04$ ;  $p = .19$ ; 95% CI [-.12- .03]). HS was significantly associated to HTW ( $\beta = .65$ ;  $p < .001$ ; 95% CI [.59- .70]). As predicted, HTW was positively related to the attitude of VAW ( $\beta = .38$ ;  $p < .001$ ; CI [.30- .46]).

The total effect of BS ( $\beta = .23$ ;  $p < .001$ ; CI [.17- .29]) and HS ( $\beta = .39$ ;  $p < .001$ ; CI [.33- .45]) on the attitude toward VAW was statistically significant. In addition, the direct effect of BS ( $\beta = .25$ ;  $p < .001$ ; CI [.19- .31]) and HS ( $\beta = .14$ ;  $p < .001$ ; CI [.06- .22]) on the attitude toward VAW was significant.



Note. Dashed paths indicate nonsignificant paths.

**Figure 2.** Standardized regression coefficients in the research model

The indirect effect of the mediator variable was significant (standardized indirect effect = .25; CI [.19-.31]), and it was uncovered that HTW performed a mediating role in the relationship between HS and the attitudes of VAW. In contrast, this situation was different for BS. The indirect effect of BS on the attitude towards VAW via HTW was not significant (standardized indirect effect = -.02; CI [-.04- .01]). Findings related to the model are presented in Table 2 and Figure 2.

**Table 2.** Mediator model statistics

Predictor Variables	Outcome Variables			
	Hostility toward women		Violence against women	
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>
Benevolent sexism (a path)	-.03	.03	-	-
Hostile sexism (d path)	.49***	.03	-	-
Hostility toward women (b path)	-	-	.67***	.07
Benevolent sexism (c' path)	-	-	.32***	.05
Benevolent sexism (c path)	-	-	.30***	.04
Hostile sexism (e' path)	-	-	.19***	.06
Hostile sexism (e path)	-	-	.52***	.04
Indirect effect (BS→HTW→VAWA)	-	-	-.02 (-.06 - .01)	
Indirect effect (HS→HTW→VAWA)	-	-	.33*** (.25 - .41)	
R <sup>2</sup>	.40		.36	

*Note.* \*\*\**p* < .001. *B*: Unstandardized regression coefficients, *SE*: Standard error, values in parentheses are lower and upper CI (%95). Bootstrap resampling=5000

The findings indicated that HS predicted the attitude toward VAW through misogyny, as anticipated in the research model. The effect of BS on the attitude toward VAW was substantiated; however, the mediation of misogyny was not confirmed.

#### 4. Discussion and Conclusion

The present research revealed that HS predicted HTW, and HTW predicted attitudes toward VAW. BS was found to be associated with the attitude of VAW; however, it did not have any impact on misogyny. Therefore, it was understood that misogyny was not a mediator between BS and the attitude toward VAW. Although BS does not perpetuate misogyny, HS exacerbates misogyny and contributes to a malevolent attitude toward VAW. However, it can be stated that BS also reinforces negative attitudes towards VAW. Negative attitudes indicate endorsing and legitimizing VAW.

One of the original results of the study is that HS affects HTW. According to Glick and Fiske (1996, 1997, 2001), HS is associated with a variety of hostile and controlling manners toward women, which contribute to the perpetuation of men's superiority due to gender-related learning. Another unique result is that BS does not affect misogyny. BS reflects traditional gender roles representing tolerance, understanding, and compassion against women (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 1997, 2001).

It is reasonable to posit that HS will result in a corresponding increase in HTW. In contrast, BS is associated with a moderate prejudice, meaning, and attitude toward women (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 1997), being expected to have a moderating effect on HTW. Indeed, BS is not perceived as sexism because it is seen as more positive and innocuous than HS (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005). In this sense, although the effect of BS on HTW is consistent and reasonable, this does not extend to attitudes toward VAW. Indeed, some studies do not find significant associations between verbal aggression, sexual coercion, which are forms of abuse and violence, and BS (Forbes & Adams-Curtis, 2001; Forbes et al., 2004). Even though BS may mitigate the victimization of women because, in a hierarchical relationship, women receive a status that is subordinate to that of their male partners (Allen et al., 2008, 1830), women's subservience reinforces gender inequality (Glick et al., 2002).

It is evident that misogyny does not operate as a mediating factor in the association between BS and negative manners toward VAW; however, both BS and misogyny have been observed to increase negative

attitudes toward VAW directly. This determination in the present study supports the notion that BS primarily harms women. Glick and Fiske (1996, 1997) posit that BS constitutes a form of sexism that is detrimental to women, as it serves to reinforce men's superiority and perpetuate traditional gender stereotypes and male dominance. However, they also assert that it engenders positive sentiments in the perceiver.

All kinds of sexism, including hostile and benevolent, are seen as a direct result of gender roles and stereotypes (Else-Quest & Hyde, 2018; Glick & Fiske, 2001; Swim et al., 1995). In this context, positive and egalitarian gender perception is expected to reduce HTW. In parallel with the research by Baydar et al. (2019), in which they found a negative relationship between misogyny and gender perception, in the current study, HS, being directly related to negative gender perception, increases the likelihood of misogyny in men.

The essential results of the research include that both BS and HS increase approving and supportive attitudes toward VAW. These consequences are consistent with the literature findings that sexism predicts aggression (Yeşiltepe, 2021); HS predicts attitudes toward verbal violence (Forbes et al., 2004); physical violence (Sakallı-Uğurlu & Ulu, 2003); positive dispositions toward abuse of partner and psychological aggression (Juarros-Basterretxea et al., 2019) and patriarchy and HS are variables that predict attitudes towards physical VAW in marriage (Sakallı, 2001). Considering the context of sexual violence, there are research findings that men with hostile attitudes are more prone to be sexually coerced and pressured than other men (Forbes et al., 2004), and HS predicts rape intention (Abrams et al., 2003).

Research finding that sexism supports VAW confirms studies indicating that VAW is *gender-based violence* (Bilgili & Vural, 2011, 69–70; Scottish Government & Cosla, 2023); that men who adopt traditional gender roles and attitudes approve and support the usage of physical power against women (Finn, 1986; Mcdermott et al., 2017); that gender roles are associated with spousal violence (Butts-Stahly, 1977); and that the probability of seeing VAW as legitimate in the family increases with BS and HS (Bizancı, 2014). Addressing VAW in physical/sexual and economic/psychological contexts, Serinyel (2021, 35–36) similarly confirmed that BS and HS increase physical, sexual, economic, and psychological forms of violence.

There is proof that both BS and HS are related to dating violence, being a form of VAW, and sexism studies (Ayril, 2021; Cava et al., 2020; Erdem & Şahin, 2017; Morelli et al., 2016; Ünal et al., 2022). In addition, there are positive associations between cyber dating violence, being a form of dating violence, and BS and HS (Yeter, 2022). In Yeter's (2022) research, positive associations were obtained between BS and perpetration of cyber dating violence, subjection to cyber dating violence, perpetration of monitoring/control, perpetration of direct aggression, exposure to monitoring/control, and exposure to direct aggression. Literature findings confirm the legitimating, supporting, and approving effect of HS and BS based on gender roles on thoughts, attitudes, and behaviors that cause VAW.

One of the essential indicators of misogyny is the legitimization of VAW (Baydar, 2013; Holland, 2006; Weitzer & Kubrin, 2009). The extant literature offers limited evidence that males' hostile attitudes toward women can result in physical or sexual VAW. However, these studies have not directly addressed the potential association between misogyny and VAW (Jewkes et al., 2011; Malamuth et al., 1995; Parrott & Zeichner, 2003). In the present research, it was understood that misogyny positively affects attitudes toward VAW. In a sense, it was determined that misogyny increases attitudes that approve and legitimize VAW.

In previous studies, the theoretical framework of the positive association between misogyny, being considered a component of gender, and VAW has been drawn (Campbell, 1981; DeGue & DiLillo, 2004; Valls et al., 2016; Zawacki et al., 2003). Nevertheless, it was necessary to test this theoretical structure with the feminist empiricist methodological approach, providing a positivist perspective. In the present research, the existence of this association has been confirmed by statistical analyses, and an empirical contribution has been made to the stated theoretical affinity. Although there are no studies directly



analyzing the relevant variables, in the research of DeGue & DiLillo (2004), it has been noted that men who sexually force women, notably in the context of sexual violence, are more presumably to accept interpersonal violence than other men, confirm rape myths, are angrier towards women, find women distrustful, and exhibit hostile attitudes in male-female associations.

## 5. Limitations and Future Research

Women, as well as men, can have sexist attitudes and beliefs, have life satisfaction from this situation (Connelly & Heesacker, 2012), and even have an approving attitude towards VAW. Similarly, women, as well as men, can have misogynistic attitudes towards their fellow women (internalized misogyny) (Piggot, 2004; Saakvitne & Pearlman, 1993). Therefore, it is essential to conduct similar studies in the future that consider samples of females. Such studies, in particular with the younger generations, will show the future panorama of societies where sexist beliefs are dominant and where women predominantly undertake the care of children.

Studies can be conducted with participants who can make differences between emerging relationships. Samples of only married may exhibit disparate attitudes and behaviors due to their marital experience. Similarly, those with a daughter may demonstrate varying perspectives and attitudes due to their parental responsibilities and experiences. In addition, there is a need to replicate the research model in the same or different cultures for more evidence.

It is challenging for men to engage in gender studies unless they are motivated to do so voluntarily. In this regard, individuals residing in urban areas tend to exhibit a greater proclivity towards this behavior than those inhabiting rural settings. Generalizability may be weakened because the survey was conducted online and the study was cross-sectional. The contemporary world is witnessing rapid and profound transformation, with shifts occurring at many levels, including social organization and how individuals relate to one another. Technological advancement, climate change, global epidemics, and the increasing acceptance of sexual identities and orientations have collectively contributed to a situation where differences emerge between generations. Further insight could be gained from testing similar research models that include generations, cultures, or characteristics of the communities under study as moderators or control variables. Furthermore, longitudinal studies across generations are essential to comprehend the influence of evolving conditions on communities and the emerging differences.

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