



**EFFECTS OF EVALUATORS' SEXISM, CANDIDATES'
ATTRACTIVENESS, AND GENDER-CONGRUENCE OF OCCUPATIONS
ON EMPLOYEE SELECTION DECISIONS**

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ABSTRACT

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The recruitment phase and subsequent decisions regarding employee selection constitute a crucial aspect in ensuring that organizations possess the appropriate workforce to fulfill their objectives. Nevertheless, scholarly investigations indicate the potential emergence of biases during the recruitment process and the employee selection decisions. These biases can lead to inequitable candidate selection influenced by factors such as perceived physical attractiveness of the candidates, candidates' gender, and the congruence of candidates' gender with the occupation. This study aimed to explore the influence of a candidate's physical attractiveness, gender, and the gender-role congruence of the occupation on decisions related to personnel selection. These decisions encompassed the candidate's employability level, the offered wage ranges to candidates, performance expectations from the candidates, and expectations regarding the candidates' job motivation. Additionally, the present research examined the impact of evaluators' benevolent and hostile sexism tendencies on personnel selection decisions. Moreover, the moderating effects of candidates' gender and gender-congruence of the occupations on the association between evaluators' benevolent and hostile sexism and the candidates' employability level, offered wage ranges, performance expectations, and job motivation expectations were tested. The data were collected from a total of 651 participants online using Qualtrics web

application. A 2 (gender of the candidate: female – male) $\times$ 2 (physical attractiveness of the candidate: low – high) $\times$ 2 (gender-congruence of the candidate's occupation: low – high) mixed factor quasi-experimental design was utilized in the present study. Gender, physical attractiveness, and gender-congruence of the candidate's occupation were the between-sample variables. The within-sample variable was the sexism scores of the participants. Data analysis was completed using IBM SPSS 26th version software. The findings revealed that, as expected, attractive candidates and candidates with gender-congruent occupations were in a more advantageous position in personnel selection decisions compared to unattractive candidates and candidates with gender-incongruent occupations. Contrary to expectations, no significant effect of gender was found on the variables of employability level, offered wage ranges, performance expectation and job motivation expectation. Again, contrary to expectations, the moderating role of the candidate's gender in the relationship between evaluators' benevolent and hostile sexism levels and personnel selection decisions was not significant. However, as anticipated, the moderating effect of gender-congruence of candidate's occupation on the relationship between evaluators' benevolent and hostile sexism and the personnel selection decisions was significant. Exploratory analyses results, on the other hand, revealed that the physical attractiveness of the candidates moderated the relationship between the evaluators' benevolent sexism levels and the personnel selection decisions. However, no moderating effect of candidate's physical attractiveness was found on the relationship between evaluators' level of hostile sexism and personnel selection decisions. In summary, this study offered valuable insights into personnel selection dynamics, highlighting the influence of physical attractiveness of the candidates and gender-congruence of the occupations on employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectations, and job motivation expectations. Furthermore, the study underscored the pervasive influence of sexism on evaluative judgments, emphasizing the imperative for organizations to address these biases to foster equitable employee selection processes. The results were discussed by highlighting how the present study adds to existing theoretical knowledge and real-world applications, acknowledging the study's limitations, and proposing recommendations for future research.

Keywords: Benevolent sexism, Hostile sexism, Employability, Personnel selection, Physical attractiveness, Gender, Gender-congruence of the occupation

ÖZET

DEĞERLENDİRİCİLERİN CİNSİYETÇİLİĞİNİN, ADAYLARIN ÇEKİCİLİĞİNİN VE MESLEKLERİN CİNSİYETE UYGUNLUĞUNUN PERSONEL SEÇİM KARARLARI ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ

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İşe alım süreci ve bu sürece bağlı olarak personel seçimine ilişkin alınan kararlar, kurumların hedeflerini gerçekleştirmek için uygun işgücüne sahip olmalarını sağlamada çok önemli unsurlardır. Bununla birlikte, bilimsel araştırmalar, işe alım süreci ve personel seçimi kararlarının alımı sırasında önyargıların ortaya çıkabileceğini göstermektedir. Bu önyargılar, adayların algılanan fiziksel çekiciliği, cinsiyeti ve cinsiyetlerinin meslekleriyle uyumuna yönelik algılar gibi faktörlerden etkilenecek personel seçme süreçlerinde adaletsizliklere yol açabilmektedir. Bu çalışmada, adayın fiziksel çekiciliğinin, cinsiyetinin ve mesleğinin cinsiyet rollerine uyumuna yönelik algının personel seçimiyle ilgili kararlar üzerindeki etkileri araştırılmıştır. Bu kararlar, adayın istihdam edilebilirlik düzeyini, adaylara teklif edilen ücret aralıklarını, adaylardan beklenen performans düzeyini ve adayların iş motivasyonuna ilişkin beklentileri kapsamaktadır. Buna ek olarak, bu araştırmada, değerlendiricilerin korumacı ve düşmanca cinsiyetçilik eğilimlerinin personel seçimi kararları üzerindeki etkileri de incelenmiştir. Ayrıca, değerlendiricilerin korumacı ve düşmanca cinsiyetçilik eğilimleri ile adayların istihdam edilebilirlik düzeyi, teklif edilen ücret aralıkları, performans beklentileri ve iş motivasyonu beklentileri arasındaki ilişki üzerinde adayların cinsiyetinin ve mesleklerin cinsiyet rolleriyle uyumuna yönelik algının düzenleyici etkileri test edilmiştir. Veriler Qualtrics web

uygulanması kullanılarak toplam 651 katılımcıdan çevrimiçi olarak toplanmıştır. Bu çalışmada 2 (adayın cinsiyeti: kadın - erkek) $\times$ 2 (adayın fiziksel çekiciliği: düşük - yüksek) $\times$ 2 (adayın mesleğinin cinsiyet rolleriyle uyumu: düşük - yüksek) karma faktörlü yarı deneysel bir desen kullanılmıştır. Cinsiyet, fiziksel çekicilik ve meslek-cinsiyet rolü uyumu kişilerarası değişkenlerdir. Kişileriçi değişken ise katılımcıların cinsiyetçilik düzeyleridir. Veri analizi IBM SPSS 26.0 yazılımı kullanılarak tamamlanmıştır. Bulgular, beklendiği gibi, çekici ve cinsiyet rollerine uygun mesleklere sahip adayların, çekici olmayan ve cinsiyet rollerine uygun olmayan mesleklere sahip adaylara kıyasla personel seçimi kararlarında daha avantajlı konumda olduklarını ortaya koymuştur. Beklenenin aksine, istihdam edilebilirlik düzeyi, teklif edilen ücret aralıkları, performans beklentisi ve iş motivasyonu beklentisi değişkenleri üzerinde cinsiyetin anlamlı bir etkisi bulunmamıştır. Yine beklentilerin aksine, değerlendiricilerin korumacı ve düşmanca cinsiyetçilik düzeyleri ile personel seçimi kararları arasındaki ilişkide adayın cinsiyetinin düzenleyici rolü anlamlı bulunmamıştır. Ancak, beklendiği gibi, adayın mesleğinin cinsiyet rollerine uyumluluğunun, değerlendiricilerin korumacı ve düşmanca cinsiyetçilik düzeyleri ile personel seçimi kararları arasındaki ilişki üzerindeki düzenleyici etkisi anlamlıdır. Keşifsel analiz sonuçlarında ise adayların fiziksel çekiciliğinin, değerlendiricilerin korumacı cinsiyetçilik düzeyleri ile personel seçimi kararları arasındaki ilişkilerde düzenleyici rolü olduğu ortaya çıkarılmıştır. Ancak, değerlendiricilerin düşmanca cinsiyetçilik düzeyleri ile personel seçimi kararları arasındaki ilişkide adayın fiziksel çekiciliğinin düzenleyici etkisi bulunmamıştır. Özetle, bu çalışma, adayların fiziksel çekiciliğinin ve meslek-cinsiyet rolleri uyumunun istihdam edilebilirlik değerlendirmeleri, teklif edilen ücret aralıkları, performans beklentileri ve iş motivasyonu beklentileri üzerindeki etkisini vurgulayarak personel seçimi dinamiklerine ilişkin değerli bilgiler sunmuştur. Çalışma ayrıca, cinsiyetçiliğin değerlendirici yargıları üzerindeki yaygın etkisinin altını çizerek, kurumların adil personel seçimi süreçlerini teşvik etmek için bu önyargıları ele alma zorunluluğunu vurgulamıştır. Bulgular, çalışmanın mevcut kuramsal bilgiye ve iş hayatındaki uygulamalara nasıl katkıda bulunabileceği vurgulanarak, çalışmanın sınırlılıkları ve gelecekteki araştırmalar için öneriler sunulmaktadır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Korumacı cinsiyetçilik, Düşmanca cinsiyetçilik, İstihdam edilebilirlik, Personel seçimi, Fiziksel çekicilik, Cinsiyet, Mesleğin cinsiyetle uyumluluğu





To my beloved son, my cat Kaju...

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The recruitment process and employee selection decisions are an important phase in providing that organizations have the right employees to accomplish their purposes (Ahmad and Schroeder, 2002). However, research specify that biases may arise during the recruitment process and while making employee selection decisions. This may result in unfair selection of candidates based on factors such as perceived physical attractiveness, gender, and gender-congruence of the occupation (Eagly and Mladinic 1994; Koch et al. 2015). Studies have shown that individuals who have sexist attitudes are especially predisposed to these biases. Because their perceptions and decisions affected by the physical appearance and gender of the applicant (e.g., Desrumaux et al. 2009; Pansu and Dubois 2002; Stamarski and Son Hing 2015).

Perceived physical attractiveness has a crucial effect on many social interactions, including recruitment and personnel selection decisions (Carnevale et al. 1981). The effect of physical attractiveness in these contexts has been investigated in many studies, which have shown that candidates who are perceived as more physically attractive are often evaluated more positively by recruiters. Also, they have a greater chance of being selected for a job than those who are perceived as less physically attractive (Stevenage and McKay 2010; Watkins and Johnston 2000). This phenomenon, known as the “beauty bias”, has significant outputs for organizations and individuals (Messner et al. 2011: 700). For instance, recruiters and evaluators who rely on physical attractiveness in employee selection process, may be overlooking other crucial factors, such as qualifications and experience (Gilovich et al. 2002). Additionally, individuals who are perceived as less physically attractive may be confronted discrimination and disadvantages in the labor market (Cristofaro 2017). Therefore, perceived physical attractiveness may be advantageous in employee

selection decisions (Morrow 1990). Candidates who are perceived as attractive are often assumed to have other positive qualities such as competence, intelligence, and social skills (Frevert and Walker 2014). However, there are also situations where perceived physical attractiveness can be disadvantageous (Hammer 2017; Lee et al. 2015). For instance, research revealed that women who are perceived as physically attractive may face bias in certain male-dominated professions (Heilman and Saruwatari 1979), where perceived physical attractiveness can be seen as a distraction. Additionally, physically attractive individuals may be perceived as less competent in some contexts, such as when applying for positions that require high level of technical expertise. Finally, perceived physical attractiveness may also work against individuals in some situations where the job requires a high level of teamwork and cooperation. For example, physically attractive individuals may be seen as a threat or source of jealousy by their colleagues (Agthe et al. 2010; Luxen and Van De Vijver 2006). Overall, perceived physical attractiveness may be both advantageous and disadvantageous depending on the context and the nature of the job. Therefore, understanding the influence of physical attractiveness on recruitment and employee selection decisions is important for both researchers and practitioners in the field of organizational psychology (Watkins and Johnston 2000).

Sexism refers to systemic discrimination or prejudice against individuals based on their sex or gender (Swim et al. 2001). Sexism often manifests in the form of gender stereotypes, biased beliefs, and discriminatory practices that disproportionately impact women (Eagly and Steffen 1984). It can be perpetuated through various channels, including social, cultural, economic, and political institutions. Sexism has significant negative effects on the individuals who experience it, including diminished opportunities for advancement, lower wages, and decreased access to resources and services (Correll 2004). It is important to recognize and address sexism to promote equality and fairness for all individuals, regardless of their gender.

Hostile sexism and benevolent sexism are two different forms of sexism that have been identified and studied academically. Hostile sexism reflects a negative and resentful attitude towards women, while benevolent sexism refers to the belief that women are inherently weaker and in need of protection and care (Glick and Fiske 1997). Studies consistently showed that individuals who endorse higher levels of

hostile or benevolent sexism are more likely to engage in gender-based discrimination in employee selection decisions (Stamarski and Son Hing 2015). These sexist attitudes lead to biased decision-making in the workplace, resulting in women being excluded from employment opportunities or being offered positions that are stereotypically associated with their gender (Alonso et al. 2017). Furthermore, research showed that the influence of sexism on employee selection decisions is often subtle and can be difficult to detect, making it more important to address and prevent (Rubini and Menegatti 2014).

Gender discrimination based on the perceived gender-congruence of the occupation is another significant issue in the recruitment and selection process (Luzadis et al. 2008; Roberson et al. 2017). The perceived masculinity or femininity of a job often leads to discrimination against candidates of a particular gender (Eagly and Karau 2002). Research showed that job advertisements that use gendered language may deter candidates of a particular gender from applying (Gaucher et al. 2011; Tokarz and Mesfin 2021). Additionally, employers tend to favor candidates whose gender matches the perceived gender-congruence of the occupation, which may lead to discrimination against candidates who do not conform to these stereotypes (Koburtay et al. 2018). For example, a male candidate may face discrimination when applying for a job traditionally perceived as feminine such as nursing, whereas a female candidate may face similar discrimination when applying for a job traditionally perceived as masculine such as engineering. This type of discrimination can limit opportunities for qualified candidates, lead to a lack of diversity in the workplace, and perpetuate harmful gender stereotypes.

This type of discrimination is often perpetuated by individuals who score high on sexism and have traditional beliefs regarding gender roles (Glick and Fiske 1996). Individuals who exhibit hostile sexism tend to view women as inferior to men and may feel threatened by women who challenge traditional gender norms (Barreto and Ellemers 2005). Such individuals may also believe that certain jobs or roles are more appropriate for men than women and may actively work to exclude women from these positions (Eagly and Carli 2004). Similarly, individuals who exhibit benevolent sexism may believe that women need to be protected and cared for and may view women as delicate and in need of assistance (Dardenne et al. 2007). Such individuals

may be more likely to assign women to roles that they perceive as less physically demanding or risky or to discourage women from pursuing careers that they view as “male-dominated”. Ultimately, gender discrimination is rooted in cultural and social attitudes toward gender, and it will require a concerted effort to challenge and change these attitudes to achieve greater gender equity in society.

The primary purpose of this thesis is to enhance understanding of how candidates’ gender, gender-congruence of the candidates’ occupations, candidates’ perceived physical attractiveness and sexist attitudes of the evaluators may impact employee selection decisions and to contribute to the development of fair and inclusive recruitment practices. To achieve this goal, the study investigates the connection between evaluators’ (participants’) biases, hypothetical job applicants’ gender, gender-congruence of the occupations, perceived physical attractiveness, and selection decisions. By exploring whether evaluators’ sexist attitudes affect their selection decisions and whether job applicants’ gender, gender-congruence of the occupations, and perceived physical attractiveness influence evaluators’ decisions, this study provides insights into potential biases that may arise during recruitment processes. Through a comprehensive analysis of these issues and drawing on previous research in the field, the study aims to provide recommendations for organizations to ensure unbiased and equitable recruitment processes.

The existing literature on the effects of perceived physical attractiveness on the recruitment process has produced contradictory findings. Some studies found that attractiveness is advantageous while others did not find the same result. However, discrimination based on sexist attitudes, gender and gender-congruence of the occupations has been highlighted in almost every study. Importantly, no study has investigated the combined effect of these variables on selection decisions. Additionally, there is a limited number of studies examining the effect of perceived physical attractiveness on the recruitment process in Türkiye (e.g., Akgüner 2010; Taşkın 2018). Therefore, this study seeks to address these gaps in the literature by examining the effects of sexist attitudes, gender, and gender-congruence of the occupations on personnel selection decisions while also exploring the effect of physical attractiveness on personnel selection decisions with a Turkish sample. By doing so, this thesis aims to contribute to the literature by providing a more precise

understanding of the impacts of applicants' physical attractiveness and gender, evaluators' sexist attitudes, and gender-congruence of the occupation as well as the interactions of these variables on employee selection decisions and highlighting the importance of fair and inclusive recruitment practices.

1.1. EFFECTS OF PERCEIVED PHYSICAL ATTRACTIVENESS ON EMPLOYEE SELECTION DECISIONS

Physical attractiveness is a widely researched personal characteristic that has been shown to influence various aspects of social interactions, including the recruitment process and employee selection decisions (Watkins and Johnstone 2000). Individuals who are perceived as physically attractive are often perceived as having positive personality traits, such as intelligence, social skills, and competence (Langlois et al. 2000). This phenomenon is often attributed to the halo effect, which refers to the cognitive bias that occurs when individuals form an overall positive impression of a person based on one positive characteristic (Forgas and Laham 2016). In the context of recruitment and employee selection processes, the halo effect may lead to an overestimation of an applicant's qualifications, skills, and abilities based on their perceived physical attractiveness.

Several studies have demonstrated that perceived physical attractiveness plays a significant role in the recruitment process, with perceived physically attractive candidates often being preferred over perceived less physically attractive ones (Eagly et al. 1991). For example, research by Hosoda et al. (2003) found that applicants who are perceived as physically attractive were more likely to receive a job offer than their perceived less physically attractive counterparts, even when their qualifications were identical. Candidates that are viewed as being physically attractive may receive more favorable assessments during the interview process, leading to higher ratings of their qualifications and skills (LoSardo 2014). Candidates who are perceived as physically attractive may also receive more job offers, higher starting salaries, and more favorable terms of employment (Dipboye et al. 1975). Furthermore, the effects of perceived physical attractiveness on recruitment and employee selection decisions can be influenced by the type of job and the gender of the applicant. In occupations where physical appearance is considered important, such as customer service or sales,

physical attractiveness may play a more significant role in recruitment decisions (Söderlund and Julander 2009). Moreover, studies showed that physical attractiveness bias is more pronounced when the evaluator is male, and the applicant is female (Cash and Kiljullen 1985). Pansu and Dubois (2002) found that among the candidates applying for jobs with low qualifications, candidates who are perceived as physically attractive were judged more favorably than the ones who seen as being less physically attractive. In contrast, Boz and Yılmaz (2017) concluded that in the hiring process, the recruiters made decisions based on work experience rather than the perceived physical attractiveness of the candidate. However, it was also found that employers took longer time to look at photos on resumes of particularly perceived physically attractive female candidates. In another research, Usmani (2020) found that recruiters gave importance to the competence of the candidate rather than perceived physical attractiveness. However, in a more recent study, Baker and Allen (2022) revealed that women who are perceived as physically attractive were more likely to be invited for job interviews than women who are perceived as physically less attractive. Stevanegge and McKay (1999) found that among job applicants, those with facial disfigurement evoked negative perceptions in the evaluation process. However, this difference was offset when the respondent evaluating the resumes was a real recruiter rather than a student. In Wexler's (2017) study, the participants focused only on competence information when inferring about the intellectual competence of job applicants. However, when job applicants' admiration and social skills were evaluated, the participants focused more on perceived physical attractiveness. Watkins and Johnston (2000) stated that perceived physical attractiveness does not matter in above-average resumes; however, they found that perceived physical attractiveness led to more favorable outcomes in below-average resumes. Jahawar and Mattson (2005) also found that applicants who are perceived as physically attractive were preferred over applicants who are viewed as less physically attractive. These findings suggest that perceived physical attractiveness can have a substantial impact on the outcome of the recruitment process, potentially leading to a less diverse and less qualified workforce.

Research indicates that perceived physical attractiveness may also have a positive influence on offered wage to the candidates, expectation about candidate's future job performance, and expectation about candidate's job motivation. Hosoda et

al. (2003) found that individuals who are seen as physically attractive are perceived as having higher levels of competence and social skills, which may lead to higher salaries and greater job opportunities. Additionally, in a meta-analysis, Judge et al. (2009) found that perceived physical attractiveness is positively related to job performance, particularly for jobs that require social interaction. This may be due to the fact that individuals who are perceived as physically attractive are more likely to be evaluated as confident and competent, which may lead to greater success in negotiations and networking. Finally, a study by Langlois et al. (2000) found that individuals who are considered as physically attractive are more likely to be motivated to succeed in the business world, as they may receive more positive feedback and social validation from their peers and superiors. Overall, while the relationship between physical attractiveness and job success is complex and context-dependent, these findings suggest that physical attractiveness may have a positive impact on various aspects of a candidate's professional life.

The impact of perceived physical attractiveness on employee selection decisions is not limited to the initial recruitment process. Once employed, individuals who are seen as physically attractive may also be perceived more favorably by their supervisors and colleagues, leading to greater opportunities for career advancement and higher salaries (Langlois et al. 2000). This phenomenon has been referred to as the “beauty premium” (Hamermesh and Biddle 1994: 1181). It is a term that describes the advantage that individuals who are perceived as physically attractive have in the workplace, including higher salaries and more opportunities for career advancement (Dossinger et al. 2019). This phenomenon has been well-documented in academic research, with studies consistently showing a correlation between physical attractiveness and professional success (Frieze et al. 1991; Hosoda et al. 2003). However, the concept of the beauty premium is not without controversy, as it can lead to discrimination against individuals who do not conform to traditional beauty standards (Cash and Cash 1982; Swami and Tovee 2005). Additionally, the focus on physical attractiveness can distract from other important factors that should be considered in hiring and promotion decisions, such as skills, qualifications, and experience (Joseph 1982). As such, while the beauty premium is a real phenomenon,

it is important for organizations to consider a range of factors when making employment decisions to promote fairness and equality in the workplace.

In conclusion, the impact of physical attractiveness on recruitment and employee selection decisions is significant. The halo effect associated with physical attractiveness can lead to an overestimation of an applicant's qualifications, skills, and abilities. However, it is essential to note that perceived physical attractiveness bias may lead to unfair and discriminatory practices in the recruitment process, resulting in a less diverse and less qualified workforce. Therefore, employers and recruitment agencies should be aware of this bias and strive to eliminate it from the recruitment and employee selection process. Organizations should prioritize unbiased and equitable recruitment practices to ensure that they select the most qualified candidates based on their qualifications and skills, rather than their physical appearance, to avoid excluding qualified candidates and hinder organizational performance and success.

Hypothesis 1a: The employability level of candidates who are perceived as physically attractive is higher than candidates who are perceived as less physically attractive.

Hypothesis 1b: The offered wage range is higher for candidates who are perceived as physically attractive than for candidates who are perceived as less physically attractive.

Hypothesis 1c: The performance expectation for candidates who are perceived as physically attractive is higher than the performance expectation for candidates who are perceived as less physically attractive.

Hypothesis 1d: The expected level of job motivation is higher for candidates who are perceived as physically attractive than candidates who are perceived as less physically attractive.

1.2. EFFECTS OF SEXISM ON EMPLOYEE-RELATED DECISIONS IN ORGANIZATIONS

Sexism in recruitment and employee selection processes has been an important topic of research in the field of gender and organizational psychology. Sexism refers to the negative attitudes, behaviors, and policies that result in unequal treatment of individuals based on their gender (Swim and Hyers 2009). The ambivalent sexism

theory proposed by Glick and Fiske (1996; 2001) describes how both hostile and benevolent attitudes towards women can coexist within an individual. Hostile sexism reflects the belief that women are inferior to men and should conform to traditional gender roles, while benevolent sexism portrays women as needing protection due to their perceived fragility (Barreto and Doyle 2023). Both forms of sexism reinforce patriarchal social structures and traditional gender roles, which contribute to gender barriers and male dominance (Galea and Chappell 2022). While benevolent sexism may appear positive, it is likely to actually perpetuate gender roles and stereotypes, and lead to discrimination against women who do not conform to these roles (Jones et al. 2014). In contrast, hostile sexism manifests as open aggression towards women who deviate from traditional gender norms. Research indicates that both forms of sexism are used to uphold traditional gender norms and reinforce the inferiority of women who do not conform to these expectations (Glick and Fiske 2001; Sibley and Wilson 2004).

Sexism is a pervasive issue in the workplace that affects various aspects of organizational behavior, transcending industries and geographies, and observed in both developed and developing countries (Williams and O'Reilly 1998). Research has documented the impact of sexism on recruitment and employee selection processes, with female candidates being overlooked for positions and hiring decisions based on stereotypes and assumptions about women's capabilities and roles in society (Cech and Blair-Loy 2019; Drury and Kaiser 2014; Swim and Hyers 2009). This type of discrimination is particularly problematic in male-dominated industries such as technology and engineering, where women are already underrepresented.

Efforts to address sexism in recruitment and employee selection processes have been proposed, including implementing policies that promote gender diversity and equal opportunity hiring practices (Kalev et al. 2006). Awareness training may also be conducted to reduce the impact of implicit biases on recruitment decisions (Blair et al. 2001). Such interventions may help to reduce the influence of sexism on recruitment and selection processes and promote a more inclusive workplace culture. However, the impact of sexism goes beyond the hiring process, as it can also hinder the career progression and development of female employees, resulting in gender inequality that

negatively affects organizational performance and profitability (Derks et al. 2011; Perrewe and Nelson 2004).

Research has demonstrated that a workplace culture that tolerates sexist attitudes and behavior is likely to lead to a toxic work environment, which not only affects female employees but also has a ripple effect on the entire organization (Warren et al. 2022). Therefore, it is essential for organizations to take proactive measures to address sexism in the workplace, creating a culture that values diversity, equality, and respect (Williams and O'Reilly 1998). This can be accomplished through various means, such as diversity and inclusion programs, training and development for managers and employees, and implementing policies that promote gender equality. By actively combating sexism in all its forms, organizations can establish a more inclusive and supportive work environment that benefits everyone, leading to a more engaged and productive workforce and improved organizational performance.

1.2.1. Effects of Evaluators' Sexism and Candidates' Gender on Employee Selection Decisions

Gender-based discrimination in recruitment and personnel selection processes is a pervasive problem that affects female candidates in multiple ways. Several studies have highlighted the extent of gender-based discrimination in recruitment processes. Male jurors, evaluators, and participants have been found to exhibit greater bias against female candidates, leading to lower hiring recommendations, negative abstract judgments, and salary discrimination (Ashby et al. 2006; Elkins et al. 2002). Additionally, factors such as age and physical appearance can exacerbate gender-based discrimination in recruitment processes, making it difficult for female candidates to overcome biases and stereotypes (Chan and Wang 2018).

Rubini and Menegatti (2014) found that female candidates received more negative comments than male candidates in academic personnel selection processes where male jurors decided. Similarly, Bosak and Sczesny (2011) found that male candidates were more likely to be recruited than female candidates in a recruitment simulation where male participants were in the evaluator role. Furthermore, Jackson et al. (2001) revealed that male candidates received more hiring recommendations than female candidates in a recruitment simulation.

Several factors contribute to gender-based discrimination in recruitment processes. Gao (2008) highlighted that women are often discriminated against based on factors such as age and physical appearance. Dipboye et al. (1976) found that perceived physically attractive and male candidates were preferred more than perceived less physically attractive and female candidates in the recruitment process. Additionally, salary discrimination between men and women in the same job has been reported (Terborg and Ilgen 1975). Women typically receive lower salary offers than men for the same job, despite possessing similar qualifications and experience.

To promote gender equality and diversity in the workplace, it is crucial to raise awareness about the negative effects of sexist attitudes and beliefs on recruitment processes. Organizations can implement diversity training programs and policies that promote fair and unbiased selection processes to mitigate the impact of gender-based discrimination (Kalev et al. 2006). Moreover, organizations can foster a culture of inclusivity by promoting equal opportunities for all employees and addressing any issues of gender inequality that arise in the workplace (Kossek and Buzzanell 2018). By doing so, organizations can create a more equitable and diverse workplace that benefits all employees.

Several studies have demonstrated that individuals who endorse sexist beliefs are more likely to exhibit biases against female candidates, even when they are unaware of it (Umpress et al. 2008). Male evaluators were often found to hold sexist attitudes and beliefs, which can lead to biased judgments, negative evaluations, and lower salary offers for female candidates (Cash and Kilcullen 1985; Goretzko and Israel 2021). Hostile sexism, which involves overt hostility and resentment towards women, results in negative reactions to women regardless of their traditional or non-traditional roles (Hammond and Overall 2013). Hostile sexism, characterized by antagonism and resentment towards women, can result in overt and conscious acts of discrimination, such as rejecting female candidates or offering them lower salary offers (Glick and Fiske 1996).

Research suggests that although benevolent sexism, which is characterized by positive evaluations of women as nurturing and caring, seems less harmful, it can still lead to negative reactions towards non-traditional women in organizational settings (Cikara et al. 2009). Benevolent sexism leads to more implicit and subtle forms of

discrimination, such as offering female candidates fewer challenging tasks or fewer promotion opportunities (Cross and Overall 2018). Moreover, studies have found that benevolent sexism is associated with positive reactions towards traditional women, whereas hostile sexism is linked to negative reactions towards non-traditional women (Glick et al. 2000; Glick and Fiske 2001; Sibley and Wilson 2004).

Studies have highlighted the role of sexist attitudes and beliefs in perpetuating biased judgments, negative evaluations, and lower salary offers for female candidates. While benevolent and hostile sexism can lead to different forms of discrimination, they both contribute to the marginalization and underrepresentation of women in certain fields and positions. To address this issue, it is crucial to promote awareness about the negative effects of sexism on recruitment processes and to develop policies and practices that foster gender equality and inclusion. Only by challenging and dismantling sexist attitudes and beliefs can we achieve a more equitable and diverse workplace that values and respects individuals regardless of their gender.

In conclusion, gender-based discrimination in recruitment and personnel selection processes remains a persistent problem, despite efforts to promote gender equality and diversity in the workplace. Consistent with the previous literature, it was suggested that gender of the candidate moderates the relationship between evaluators' benevolent and hostile sexism and their decisions for the candidates.

Hypothesis 2a: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism give higher employability scores for male candidates than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.

Hypothesis 2b: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism offer higher wage ranges to male candidates than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.

Hypothesis 2c: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism have a higher performance expectation for male candidates than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.

Hypothesis 2d: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism report a higher expected level of job motivation for male candidates than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.

Hypothesis 3a: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism give higher employability scores for male candidates than those with a low level of hostile sexism.

Hypothesis 3b: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism offer higher wage ranges to male candidates than those with a low level of hostile sexism.

Hypothesis 3c: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism have a higher performance expectation for male candidates than those with a low level of hostile sexism.

Hypothesis 3d: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism report a higher expected level of job motivation for male candidates than those with a low level of hostile sexism.

1.2.2. Effects of Evaluators' Sexism and Gender-Congruence of Occupations on Employee Selection Decisions

Gender role congruence has been shown to have a significant impact on the recruitment process and employee selection decisions, with gender-congruent occupations being perceived as more appropriate for a particular gender (Rice and Barth 2006). This perception is consistent with the role congruity theory, which suggests that people's attitudes and behaviors are influenced by the perceived compatibility between their personal characteristics and the characteristics of a specific role or situation (Eagly and Karau 2002). This theory is particularly relevant to the context of gender, as it helps to explain how people's attitudes and behaviors are influenced by their gender identity and the expectations and roles associated with their gender (Ritter and Yoder 2004).

However, discrimination may occur in the recruitment process based on factors such as gender, race, religion, age, and sexual orientation (Newman 1978). Gender discrimination, in particular, may happen in occupations that are traditionally associated with a particular gender (Meadus 2007). For example, in Clow et al.'s (2014) study, male nurses were rated more negatively than female nurses, indicating a gender bias in the recruitment process. Similarly, Garcia-Retamero and López-Zafra (2006) found that women who did not work in a sector deemed suitable for women

were evaluated more negatively and prejudicially, highlighting the negative impact of gender stereotypes in recruitment decisions.

Moreover, job applicants often apply for jobs they deem appropriate for their gender, contributing to the perceived relevance between gender and occupation (Hogue et al. 2019). This can perpetuate gender stereotypes and further exacerbate gender bias in the recruitment process. Liebkind et al. (2016) found that men were discriminated against in employment in jobs that were seen as feminine. While more men were hired for male-dominated jobs, and more women were hired for female-dominated jobs, consistent with the predictions of the gender-matching stereotype-based selection decisions (Jahawar and Mattson 2005).

The issue of gender role congruity in the workplace has been a topic of interest for researchers for several decades. The role congruity theory proposed by Fiske et al. (2002) suggests that individuals who work in gender-congruent professions are perceived as more competent than those who work in gender-incongruent professions. This theory has been supported by various studies, such as those conducted by Rojahn and Willemsen (1994) and Cejka and Eagly (1999), which found that gender role congruence plays a significant role in the perception of an individual's success and effectiveness in their job. However, there are some inconsistencies in the literature. To illustrate, Burton et al.'s (2011) study conducted in the USA showed that gender did not play a significant role in the evaluation of candidates for most positions, except for the athletic director position, where the female candidate was evaluated less favorably than the male candidate.

The issue of discrimination based on gender-congruence of the occupations in the workplace is also a significant concern. Studies have shown that individuals with sexist attitudes are more likely to engage in discrimination based on the gender-congruence of an occupation (Almquist et al. 1977). Benevolent sexism, which idealizes women as pure and fragile, but also reinforces traditional gender roles, and hostile sexism, which actively discriminates against women, both contribute to gender-based discrimination in the workplace (Glick and Fiske 1996; Glick and Fiske 2001). Such discrimination is likely to have detrimental effects on the recruitment and selection processes in various industries and can result in a less diverse and equitable workforce.

In conclusion, discrimination based on gender and gender-role expectations remain a big issue in workplaces. Studies consistently show that certain jobs are seen as more suitable for a specific gender, which can lead to biased attitudes and behaviors during hiring processes. Discrimination based on gender is often found in jobs that are traditionally associated with one gender. This bias is worsened by the reinforcement of gender stereotypes and the idea that certain jobs are meant for specific genders. Moreover, research highlights the negative impact of benevolent and hostile sexism on hiring decisions, as people with sexist attitudes are more likely to engage in discrimination. To tackle these complex issues, further research is needed, and strategies should be implemented to promote diversity and inclusivity. Creating a fair and supportive work environment will not only benefit organizations but also tap into a wider range of talents, which would further foster productivity and success. Consistent with the previous literature, it was suggested that gender-congruence of the occupations moderates the relationship between evaluators' benevolent and hostile sexism and their decisions for the candidates.

Hypothesis 4a: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism give higher employability scores for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.

Hypothesis 4b: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism offer higher wage ranges to candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.

Hypothesis 4c: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism have a higher performance expectation for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.

Hypothesis 4d: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism report a higher level of job motivation expectation for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.

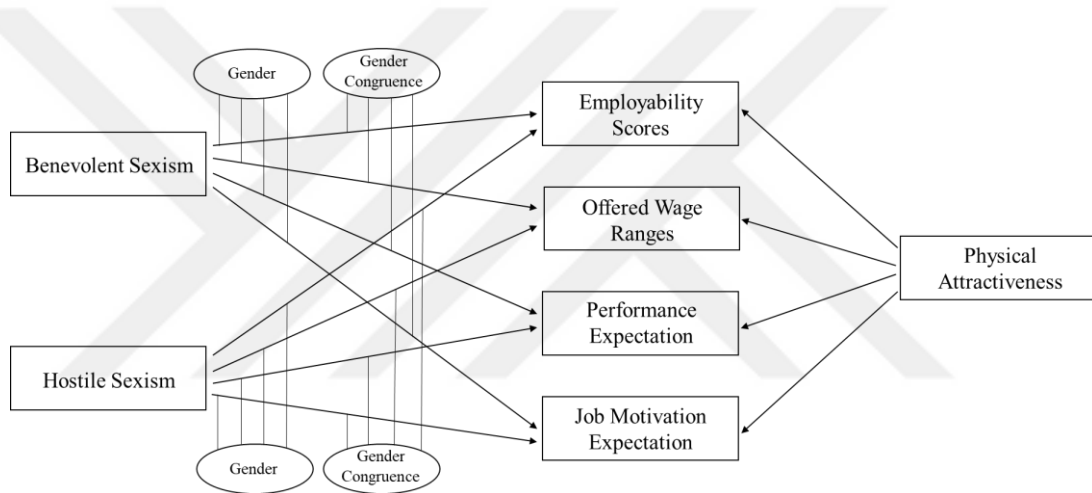
Hypothesis 5a: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism give higher employability scores for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of hostile sexism.

Hypothesis 5b: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism offer higher wage ranges to candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of hostile sexism.

Hypothesis 5c: Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism have a higher performance expectation for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of hostile sexism.

Hypothesis 5d: Participants with a high level of hostile sexism report a higher level of job motivation expectation for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of hostile sexism.

Figure 1: The Proposed Model



CHAPTER II

METHOD

2.1. PARTICIPANTS AND PROCEDURE

A 2 (gender of the fake candidate: female – male) $\times$ 2 (physical attractiveness of the fake candidate: low – high) $\times$ 2 (perceived congruence of the fake candidate's occupation with the candidate's gender: low – high) mixed factor quasi-experimental design was utilized in the present study. The gender, physical attractiveness, and perceived congruence of the fake candidate's occupation with the candidate's gender are the between-sample variables. The within-sample variable is the sexism scores of the participants.

2.1.1. Pilot Study

First of all, a pilot test was conducted to determine the male and female congruence of the chosen professions (i.e., civil engineering, electrical and electronics engineering, engine technician, surgery, nursing, preschool teaching, flight attendance, and fashion designing). The proposed pilot study participants were recruited via targeted advertisements on professional networking sites such as LinkedIn, as well as social media platforms like X.

The pilot study participants' demographics are presented in Table 1. A total of 62 individuals participated in the pilot study. The distribution of male and female participants was equal, with 31 participants of both genders. Of the 62 people who participated in the pilot study, 60 indicated their age. Age data of two people were considered as missing value and were not included in the analysis. The ages of the participants in the pilot study were between 18 and 59. In addition, the average age was 27,95. The minimum level of education was high school graduate, and the maximum level of education was doctorate degree.

Table 1: Table of Demographics of the Pilot Study Participants

Gender [N (%)]		
	Female	31 (50%)
	Male	31 (50%)
	Total	62
Age		
	Minimum	18
	Maximum	59
	Mean	27,95
	Standard deviation	6,18
Education Level [N (%)]		
	High school	5 (8,1%)
	Associate's degree	5 (8,1%)
	Bachelor's degree	34 (54,8%)
	Master's degree	15 (24,2%)
	Doctorate degree	3 (4,8%)
	Total	62

A prompt was provided to the participants requesting their evaluation of a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (Definitely not defined as a female / male occupation) to 7 (Definitely defined as a female / male occupation) for each occupation presented. The participants provided their assessment for each occupation. Following the conclusion of the pilot study, the occupation identified as the most representative of a female / male occupation was selected for inclusion in the construction of the fake resumes.

The statistical analysis of the pilot study was completed using IBM Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) version 26. In this analysis, descriptive statistics, and paired-sample t-test were used.

The minimum and maximum values, means and standard deviations of the items used in the pilot study are presented in Table 2. The participants' responses showed that preschool teaching ($M = 6.48$, $SD = 1.08$) was considered to be the most widely perceived female profession in the society. Nursing ($M = 6.21$, $SD = 1.28$) was the second most commonly perceived female profession. Moreover, the participants' responses revealed that engine technician ($M = 6.58$, $SD = 1.02$) was the most widely perceived and civil engineering ($M = 5.97$, $SD = 1.61$) was the second most commonly perceived male profession in the society.

Table 2: Table of Descriptive Statistics of the Pilot Study Items

	N	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Civil engineering - Female	62	1	7	2.56	1.30
Civil engineering - Male	62	1	7	5.97	1.61
Preschool teaching- Female	62	1	7	6.48	1.08
Preschool teaching - Male	62	1	7	2.55	1.88
Nursing - Female	62	1	7	6.21	1.28
Nursing - Male	62	1	7	2.66	1.76
Electrical and electronics engineering - Female	62	1	7	2.61	1.73
Electrical and electronics engineering - Male	62	1	7	5.79	1.61
Surgery - Female	62	1	7	3.92	1.41
Surgery - Male	62	1	7	5.13	1.26
Fashion designing - Female	62	3	7	5.79	1.27
Fashion designing - Male	62	1	6	3.21	1.48
Engine technician - Female	62	1	7	1.69	1.47
Engine technician - Male	62	2	7	6.58	1.02
Flight attendance - Female	62	1	7	4.89	1.39
Flight attendance - Male	62	1	7	3.98	1.52

Following the descriptive statistical analysis, paired sample t-test analysis was first applied to determine whether the occupations presented to the participants were seen as “female occupation” or “male occupation”. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 3. According to the results, civil engineering [$t_{(61)} = -11.91, p < .001$], electrical and electronic engineering [$t_{(61)} = -8.34, p < .001$], surgery [$t_{(61)} = -5.26, p < .001$] and engine technician [$t_{(61)} = -16.80, p < .001$] were seen as “male professions”. On the other hand, preschool teaching [$t_{(61)} = 11.93, p < .001$], nursing [$t_{(61)} = 11.78, p < .001$], fashion designing [$t_{(61)} = 8.72, p < .001$] and flight attendance [$t_{(61)} = 3.22, p < .001$] were considered as “female occupations”.

Table 3: Paired-Sample T-Test Table for Determining the Perceived Gender of Occupations

	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2- tailed)
Civil engineering	-3.40	2.25	.29	-11.91	61	.00**
Preschool teaching	3.94	2.60	.33	11.93	61	.00**
Nursing	3.55	2.37	.30	11.78	61	.00**
Electrical and electronics Engineering	-3.18	3.00	.38	-8.34	61	.00**
Surgery	-1.21	1.81	.23	-5.26	61	.00**
Fashion designing	2.58	2.33	.30	8.72	61	.00**
Engine technician	-4.89	2.29	.29	-16.80	61	.00**
Flight attendance	0.90	2.21	.28	3.22	61	.00*

Note: Each profession presented was first asked to what extent it was perceived as a “female profession” and then to what extent it was perceived as a “male profession”. Each occupation was assigned to the analysis in pairs. The first pair of variables is the question on “how much the profession is perceived as a female profession” and the second pair is the question on “how much the profession is perceived as a male profession”. Therefore, a positive value in the mean and *t* column in the table means the belief that the profession is seen as a female profession by the society, since the value of “how much the profession is seen as a female profession” is subtracted from the value of “how much it is seen as a male profession”. Similarly, a negative value in the mean column means the belief that the related profession is seen as a male profession by the society. ** means $p < .001$, * means $p < .01$.

After determining the perceived gender of the occupations presented, the two occupations with the highest mean values among both perceived female occupations and perceived male occupations were selected according to the mean values presented in Table 1. These are engine technician ($M = 6.58$, $SD = 1.02$) and civil engineering ($M = 5.97$, $SD = 1.61$) for perceived male occupations. For perceived female occupations, preschool teaching ($M = 6.48$, $SD = 1.08$) and nursing ($M = 6.21$, $SD = 1.28$) were selected. Then, a new paired sample t-test analysis was applied to analyze whether there was a significant difference between the occupations for both genders. The results of this analysis are presented in Table 4. According to the results, engine technician was rated significantly higher as a male profession than civil engineering [$t_{(61)} = 3.11$, $p < .001$]. Moreover, preschool teaching was rated significantly higher as a female profession than nursing [$t_{(61)} = 1.82$, $p = .07$], although the mean difference between pre-school teaching and nursing was marginally significant.

Table 4: Paired-Sample T-Test Table for the Analysis of the Significance of the Difference between Perceived Male Occupations and Perceived Female Occupations

	Mean	SD	Std. Error Mean	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	Sig. (2- tailed)
Engine Technician - Civil Engineering	.61	1.55	.20	3.11	61	.00*
Preschool Teaching - Nursing	.27	1.19	.15	1.82	61	.07 ⁺

Note: According to the descriptive statistical analysis, the significance of the mean difference between the two perceived male occupations with the highest means and the two perceived female occupations with the highest means was examined. * means $p < .001$, ⁺ means p is marginally significant.

In addition, to create the fake resumes, the photographs of attractive and unattractive men and women used in Özcan's (2022) study was utilized. Özcan's results demonstrated that the photograph used for the attractive female ($M = 5.90$, $SD = .91$) was perceived significantly more attractive than the photo used for the non-attractive female condition ($M = 2.05$, $SD = 1.00$) [$t_{(19)} = 11.24$, $p < .001$], and the same was true for the attractive ($M = 5.35$, $SD = 1.39$) and non-attractive ($M = 2.15$, $SD = 1.46$) [$t_{(19)} = 6.3$, $p < .001$] male photographs.

2.1.2. The Main Study

The population of the main study was all young people and adults aged 18 years and older. The sample of the study is all young people and adults aged 18 years and older living in Türkiye. The participants were recruited using a voluntary snowball sampling method. To ensure a sufficient sample size, the study was advertised through invitation posts on professional online networks, such as LinkedIn, and social media accounts, such as X. The only inclusion criterion was being 18 years of age or older. Participants participated in the study after reading and agreeing to their rights, ethical principles and confidentiality as stated in the Informed Consent Form. Prior to the study, a power analysis was conducted using G-Power 3.1 software to find the appropriate sample size. The power analysis revealed that the study should have a sample of at least 400 participants based on a medium effect size parameter [$f = .25$, $\alpha = .05$, given the intended power of .95 (Cohen 1988)].

A total of 932 people accessed the online link to participate in this study. Of the people who accessed the survey link, 670 answered all questions until the end of the survey. Mahalanobis analysis was performed to identify possible multiple outlier

respondents. As a result, 19 participants were excluded from the sample and a total of 651 participants were included in the final sample.

Of the participants, 323 were women and 308 were men, while 20 people did not want to specify their gender. The ages of the participants ranged between 18 and 80, with an average age of 31.79. The education level of the participants ranged between primary school graduate and doctorate degree. 5 of the participants reported that they graduated from primary school, 109 from high school, 47 from associate's degree, 338 from bachelor's degree, 119 from master's degree, and 33 from doctorate degree. 151 of the participants identified themselves as "student", 412 as "employee", 13 as "retired", 45 as "unemployed" and 30 as "other". Participants who identified themselves as "other" then identified themselves as "mother, consultant, both retired and working, employer, self-employed, freelancer, businessperson, tradesman, writer, housewife, entrepreneur, business owner, brand owner, resigned civil servant, formerly employed but not currently employed, or business partner". Detailed demographic information of the participants is presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Table of Detailed Demographics of the Main Study Participants

Gender [N (%)]		
	Female	323 (49,6%)
	Male	308 (47,3%)
	Do not want to specify	20 (3,1%)
	Total	651
Age		
	Minimum	18
	Maximum	80
	Mean	31,79
	<i>SD</i>	9,46
Education Level [N (%)]		
	Primary education	5 (0,8%)
	High school	109 (16,7%)
	Associate's degree	47 (7,2%)
	Bachelor's degree	338 (51,9%)
	Master's degree	119 (18,3%)
	Doctorate degree	33 (5,1%)
	Total	651
Self-Definition [N (%)]		
	Student	151 (23,2%)

	Employee	412 (63,3%)
	Retired	13 (2%)
	Unemployed	45 (6,9%)
	Other	30 (4,6%)
	Total	651
Job Type of Working Participants [N (%)]		
	White collar	353 (85,7%)
	Blue collar	59 (14,3%)
	Total	412
Type of Work of Working Participants [N (%)]		
	Full-time	390 (94,7%)
	Part-time	22 (5,3%)
	Total	412
Sector of Working Participants [N (%)]		
	Public	136 (33%)
	Private	236 (57,3%)
	NGO	29 (7%)
	Other	11 (2,7%)
	Total	412
Institution Type of Working Participants [N (5)]		
	Education	75 (18,2%)
	Health and social services	56 (13,6%)
	Banking, finance, insurance	16 (3,9%)
	Construction and materials	11 (2,7%)
	Technology and knowledge	28 (6,8%)
	Media, communication, press, broadcasting, and journalism	7 (1,7%)
	Automotive	3 (0,7%)
	Metal	3 (0,7%)
	Fast moving consumer goods	2 (0,5%)
	Energy	7 (1,7%)
	Food industry	6 (1,5%)
	Durable consumer goods	2 (0,5%)
	Petroleum, chemicals, rubber, plastics, and pharmaceuticals	9 (2,2%)
	Hunting, fishing, agriculture, and forestry	2 (0,5%)
	Weaving, apparel, and leather	2 (0,5%)
	Wholesale and retail trade	12 (2,9%)
	Culture, arts, entertainment, recreation, and sports	3 (0,7%)
	Cement, earth, and glass	6 (1,5%)
	Transportation, shipping, and warehousing	7 (1,7%)
	Accommodation and food service	4 (1%)
	Defense and security	13 (3,2%)

	Real estate	4 (1%)
	Professional, scientific, and technical activities	23 (5,6%)
	Administrative and support services	22 (5,3%)
	Other	89 (21,6%)
	Total	412
Tenure of Working Participants [N (%)]		
	0-5 years	225 (54,6%)
	6-10 years	90 (21,8%)
	11-15 years	38 (9,2%)
	16-20 years	36 (8,7%)
	21-25 years	14 (3,4%)
	26-30 years	7 (1,7%)
	31-35 years	1 (0,2%)
	36-40 years	1 (0,2%)
	Total	412
Whether Employee Participants are Managers or not [N (%)]		
	Manager	145 (35%)
	Not manager	267 (64,8%)
	Total	412
Tenure of Participants Work as Managers [N (%)]		
	0-5	79 (54,5%)
	6-10	28 (19,3%)
	11-15	18 (12,4%)
	16-20	14 (9,7%)
	21-25	5 (3,4%)
	31-35	1 (0,7%)
	Total	145
Whether Working Participants are Experienced in Personnel Selection or Not [N (%)]		
	Experienced	200 (48,5%)
	Not experienced	212 (51,5%)
	Total	412

Eight fake resume parts were created and each reflected different combinations of gender (female / male), physical attractiveness (attractive / unattractive), and occupation's gender-congruence (occupation congruent to females / occupation congruent to males). The resume parts were created by manipulating only these three variables. In addition to these variables, in order to make the resume part look more realistic, work experience (4 years), department (Faculty of Education, Department of Preschool Teaching / Vocational School, Department of Machinery) and Grade Point

Average (GPA) (70 / 100) of the fake candidate were also added to the resume part. These variables are written the same in all fake resume parts. Thus, they were statistically controlled. The following eight conditions were evaluated by participants:

1. Female – Attractive – Female-congruent occupation found in the pilot study (Preschool teaching)
2. Female – Attractive – Male-congruent occupation found in the pilot study (Engine technician)
3. Female – Unattractive – Female-congruent occupation found in the pilot study (Preschool teaching)
4. Female – Unattractive – Male-congruent occupation found in the pilot study (Engine technician)
5. Male – Attractive – Female-congruent occupation found in the pilot study (Preschool teaching)
6. Male – Attractive – Male-congruent occupation found in the pilot study (Engine technician)
7. Male – Unattractive – Female-congruent occupation found in the pilot study (Preschool teaching)
8. Male – Unattractive – Male-congruent occupation found in the pilot study (Engine technician)

Participants were presented an online survey created using Qualtrics web application. Firstly, they randomly evaluated one of the eight fake resume parts. After that they evaluated the candidate's employability and provided the wage range they would offer, their beliefs about the candidate's potential success, and their beliefs about the candidate's motivation level for the job. And then, they answered manipulation check questions. This was to find out whether the participant really perceived the candidate's occupation as a female occupation or a male occupation. Lastly, they completed the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and provided their demographic information.

2.2. MEASURES

The current study utilized several research instruments including the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, Employability Assessment Tool, manipulation check questions, as well as questions designed to measure the other variables and gather demographic information.

2.2.1. Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, developed by Glick and Fiske (1996), is a tool that has been designed to assess both hostile and benevolent sexism. In order to adapt the scale to the Turkish context, Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002) conducted a study. The scale is comprised of 22 items, with 11 items for measuring hostile sexism and 11 for measuring benevolent sexism. The items include statements such as “Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist” (hostile sexism) and “Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility” (benevolent sexism). Respondents indicate their level of agreement with each item on a 6-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (I totally disagree) to 6 (I completely agree). The reliability of the scale was assessed using Cronbach's alpha coefficient, which yielded a value of .89 for hostile sexism and .84 for benevolent sexism (Sakallı-Uğurlu 2002). These findings indicate that the scale has good internal consistency, thereby supporting its use as a reliable tool for measuring ambivalent sexism in the Turkish context.

2.2.2. Employability Assessment Tool

The Employability Assessment Tool, developed by Cole et al. (2004), is a measure designed to evaluate the employability of job applicants. The tool comprises of four items that are rated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (very low) to 7 (very high). The employability score is computed as the average of the responses to the four items. An example item from the scale is “What is the likelihood that you would be interested in interviewing the applicant?”. The score range on the tool varies between 4 and 28, with higher scores indicating greater employability. The internal consistency of the tool was determined by Cronbach's alpha, which was found to be .94 in Cole and colleagues' study (2004). As the tool has not yet been adapted into Turkish, the questions used in Özbaş's (2020) study, which were translated into

Turkish through the translation / back-translation process, was utilized. Özbaş (2020) found the Cronbach's alpha of the translated tool as .91.

2.2.3. Other Questions

For the purposes of this study, a set of other variable questions were developed to investigate potential differences in responses based on the attractiveness, gender, and assigned occupation of the candidates, as well as the level of sexism of the participants. These questions are intended to assess the following aspects:

Offered Wage Range: Participants were asked to indicate the salary range they would consider offering the candidate if an offer were to be extended. This question was answered on a 11-point scale ranging from the minimum wage of 8500 ₺ to 53001 ₺ or above.

1. In what wage range would you consider offering the candidate if you were to extend an offer?

- a) 8500 ₺ (Minimum wage in Türkiye during the data collection period)
- b) 8501 ₺ - 13000 ₺
- c) 13001 ₺ - 18000 ₺
- d) 18001 ₺ - 23000 ₺
- e) 23001 ₺ - 28000 ₺
- f) 28001 ₺ - 33000 ₺
- g) 33001 ₺ - 38000 ₺
- h) 38001 ₺ - 43000 ₺
- i) 43001 ₺ - 48000 ₺
- j) 48001 ₺ - 53000 ₺
- k) 53001 ₺ or above

Performance Expectation: Participants were requested to assess their expectations regarding the candidate's performance after being hired. This question was evaluated using a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (very low) to 7 (very high).

2. How do you expect this candidate's performance to be once they are hired?

Job Motivation Expectation: Participants were asked to rate the level of motivation they believe the candidate possesses for the job. This question was

answered on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (extremely low) to 7 (extremely high).

3. In your opinion, what is the level of this candidate's motivation for the job?

These questions are designed to elicit information regarding key factors in the hiring decision process and allow for an exploration of potential biases based on gender, attractiveness, and assigned occupation, as well as the level of sexism of the participants.

2.2.4. Manipulation Check Questions

In the study, manipulation check questions were asked in order to understand whether the occupations used in the fake resumes, which were decided according to the results of the pilot study, were perceived by the participant as an occupation of the specified gender. Participants were asked to what extent they perceived the occupation of the candidate in the resume part they examined as a female occupation / male occupation. These two questions were rated by the participants on a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (Definitely not defined as a female / male occupation) to 7 (Definitely defined as a female / male occupation).

2.2.5. Demographic Information Questions

These questions aim to elicit further information about the individuals and examine any potential correlations between their responses and demographic data. The inquiries encompass the following aspects:

1. Gender
2. Age
3. Education level
4. Current employment position
5. Tenure at their current job
6. Type of institution where they are employed
7. Whether or not they hold a managerial position
8. The duration of their managerial tenure (if applicable)
9. Whether or not they have any experience in employee selection or hiring processes

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

3.1. RELIABILITY ANALYSES AND MANIPULATION CHECK RESULTS

SPSS version 26 was used for statistical analysis of the study. First, Cronbach's alpha values were calculated to measure the consistency of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory and Employability Assessment Tool. Cronbach's alpha values for the Benevolent Sexism and Hostile Sexism sub-scales of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory were .91 and .95, respectively. For the Employability Assessment Tool, Cronbach's alpha value was .96.

Based on an examination of the manipulation check questions, it was observed that, in cases where the candidate (either male or female) was identified as a preschool teacher, participants ($N = 315$) tended to rate the perception of the occupation as being distinctly a female job, assigning an average score of 5 points on the 7-point Likert type scale. Conversely, the evaluation of the occupation as a male job was reflected in an average score of 3.33. In contrast, when the candidate was identified as an engine technician, participants ($N = 334$) assigned an average score of 3.96 points on the 7-point Likert type scale to the perception of the occupation as a female job. Furthermore, they expressed a perception of the occupation as a male job with an average score of 5.98 points out of 7 points. The manipulation check analysis results indicate that the variable manipulated to represent female and male occupations in the study was successfully manipulated in the intended direction.

3.2. DESCRIPTIVE STATISTICS AND BIVARIATE CORRELATIONS

The means, standard deviations, minimum and maximum values, skewness, and kurtosis values of the variables in the study are presented in Table 6.

In general, the average employability level was rated as higher for female candidates compared to male candidates; attractive candidates compared to

unattractive candidates; and candidates whose gender and occupation were congruent compared to not congruent ones. Participants reported that they would offer higher wage ranges to female candidates than to male candidates; to attractive candidates than to unattractive candidates; and to candidates whose gender and occupation are congruent than to those who are not. Job motivation expectations were higher for female candidates than they were for male candidates; for attractive candidates compared to unattractive candidates; and for candidates whose gender and occupation were congruent compared to those whose were not. Performance expectations were higher for female candidates compared to male candidates; for attractive candidates compared to unattractive candidates; and for candidates whose gender and occupation were congruent compared to those whose were not.

The bivariate correlations of the variables in the study are presented in Table 7. A positive correlation was found between age and hostile sexism score. It shows that as the age of the participants increases, their level of hostile sexism also increases. A negative correlation was found between gender and managerial position. According to this result, male participants were more likely to work as managers than female participants. The positive correlation between gender and benevolent sexism and hostile sexism indicated that male participants had higher levels of benevolent and hostile sexism than female participants. A negative correlation was found between education level and benevolent sexism and hostile sexism. According to this result, as the participants' education level increased, their benevolent and hostile sexism scores decreased. There was a positive correlation between experience in personnel selection and benevolent sexism score. This result indicates that as experience in personnel selection increased, participants' benevolent sexism scores decreased. In addition, there was a negative correlation between experience in personnel selection and the employability level given to the candidates. Accordingly, the more experience the participants had in personnel selection, the higher the level of employability scores given to the candidates. As expected, benevolent sexism scores were positively correlated with hostile sexism. A negative correlation was found between benevolent sexism and the employability scores given to the candidates. Thus, as participants' levels of benevolent sexism increased, level of employability scores given to the candidates decreased. Moreover, there was a negative correlation between benevolent

sexism and job motivation and performance expectations towards the candidates. This result indicates that when the level of benevolent sexism increased, job motivation and performance expectations towards the candidates decreased. There were negative correlations between the participants' hostile sexism scores and their decisions about the candidates, including level of employability, offered wage range, job motivation expectation, and performance expectation. Levels of employability towards the candidates was positively correlated with offered wage ranges, job motivation expectations, and performance expectations. The wage range offered by the participants for the candidates was positively associated with their job motivation expectations and performance expectations. Finally, there was a strong positive correlation between job motivation expectations for the candidates and performance expectations.

Table 6: Descriptive Statistics of the Variables

Variables	Gender	Attractiveness	Gender-Congruence	Mean	N	SD	Min.	Max.	Kurtosis	Skewness
Employability Level	Female	Attractive	Congruent	4.89	75	1.18	2	7	0.10	0.34
			Not congruent	4.43	89	.99	1	7	1.45	-0.31
		Unattractive	Congruent	4.58	90	.89	3	7	0.85	0.75
			Not congruent	3.98	75	1.54	1	7	-0.11	-0.73
	Male	Attractive	Congruent	5.00	85	1.10	3	7	-0.45	0.86
			Not congruent	4.53	85	.92	2	7	0.23	0.10
		Unattractive	Congruent	4.41	87	1.02	1	7	1.78	-0.69
			Not congruent	3.83	65	1.46	1	7	0.20	-0.91
Offered Wage Range	Female	Attractive	Congruent	4.17	75	3.00	1	11	1.15	1.57
			Not congruent	3.72	89	2.14	1	11	3.02	1.53
		Unattractive	Congruent	3.26	90	1.81	1	11	4.98	1.83
			Not congruent	2.83	75	1.58	1	11	9.80	2.34
	Male	Attractive	Congruent	4.53	85	3.02	1	11	0.42	1.23
			Not congruent	3.56	85	2.24	1	11	3.10	1.73
		Unattractive	Congruent	3.07	87	1.92	1	11	3.54	1.61
			Not congruent	2.72	65	1.47	1	11	-0.00	0.62
Job Motivation Expectation	Female	Attractive	Congruent	4.87	75	1.30	2	7	-0.35	0.06
			Not congruent	4.43	89	1.02	1	7	1.85	0.04
		Unattractive	Congruent	4.36	90	1.18	1	7	0.52	0.06
			Not congruent	3.93	75	1.52	1	7	-0.12	-0.55

Performance Expectation	Male	Attractive	Congruent	4.91	85	1.15	2	7	-0.15	0.52
			Not congruent	4.4	85	1.09	2	7	-0.28	-0.07
		Unattractive	Congruent	4.31	87	1.12	1	7	1.88	-0.54
			Not congruent	3.83	65	1.59	1	7	0.12	-0.49
	Female	Attractive	Congruent	4.85	75	1.16	2	7	-0.13	0.62
			Not congruent	4.44	89	1.07	1	7	1.01	-0.09
		Unattractive	Congruent	4.67	90	1.02	2	7	0.53	-0.14
			Not congruent	4.15	75	1.55	1	7	0.06	-0.84
	Male	Attractive	Congruent	4.92	85	1.08	3	7	-0.29	0.80
			Not congruent	4.4	85	1.01	2	7	0.03	-0.04
		Unattractive	Congruent	4.48	87	1.03	1	7	1.70	-0.83
			Not congruent	3.78	65	1.51	1	7	-0.01	-0.78

Table 7: Bivariate Correlations

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age	-										
2. Gender	.16**	-									
3. Education Level	.15**	-.06	-								
4. Managerial Position	-.31**	-.13*	-.13**	-							
5. Experience in Personnel Selection	-.16**	-.05	.01	.45**	-						
6. Benevolent Sexism Score	.07	.15**	-.26**	.08	.12*	-					
7. Hostile Sexism Score	.10**	.39**	-.11**	-.02	.01	.50**	-				
8. Employability Level	-.01	-.03	.05	.01	-.10*	-.17**	-.19**	-			
9. Offered Wage Range	.04	.01	.01	-.01	-.05	-.02	-.10*	.56**	-		
10. Job Motivation Expectation	-.02	-.04	.00	-.03	-.05	-.14**	-.19**	.80**	.55**	-	
11. Performance Expectation	-.02	-.03	.00	-.05	-.08	-.17**	-.22**	.85**	.55**	.87**	-

Note: * = $p < .05$. ** = $p < .01$. Gender coding, 1 = Female, 2 = Male. Education level coding, 1 = Primary school, 2 = High school, 3 = Associate's degree, 4 = Bachelor's degree, 5 = Master's degree, 6 = Doctorate degree. Managerial position coding, 1 = Manager, 2 = Not manager. Experience in personnel selection coding, 1 = Experienced in personnel selection, 2 = Not experienced in personnel selection. There is no coding for benevolent sexism, hostile sexism, and employability level. Offered wage range coding, 1 = 8500 ₺ (minimum wage), 2 = 8501 ₺ - 13000 ₺, 3 = 13001 ₺ - 18000 ₺, 4 = 18001 ₺ - 23000 ₺, 5 = 23001 ₺ - 28000 ₺, 6 = 28001 ₺ - 33000 ₺, 7 = 33001 ₺ - 38000 ₺, 8 = 38001 ₺ - 43000 ₺, 9 = 43001 ₺ - 48000 ₺, 10 = 48001 ₺ - 53000 ₺, and 11 = 53001 ₺ or above. Job motivation expectation was measured by a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = very low to 7 = very high. Similarly, performance expectation was measured by a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = very low to 7 = very high.

3.3. INDEPENDENT SAMPLE T-TEST ANALYSES (HYPOTHESES 1A-1D)

Independent sample t-test analysis was used to analyze whether there was any difference between the employability level, offered wage range, job motivation expectation and performance expectation scores of physically attractive and physically unattractive candidates. According to the results, the employability level of physically attractive ($M = 4.70$, $SD = 1.07$) candidates was significantly higher than that of physically unattractive ($M = 4.24$, $SD = 1.26$) candidates [$t_{(649)} = 5.14$, $p < .01$]. The offered wage range to physically attractive ($M = 3.99$, $SD = 2.63$) candidates was significantly higher than the offered wage range to physically unattractive ($M = 2.99$, $SD = 1.73$) candidates [$t_{(579,016)} = 5.73$, $p < .01$]. Moreover, the performance expectation for physically attractive ($M = 4.64$, $SD = 1.10$) candidates was significantly higher than the performance expectation for physically unattractive ($M = 4.31$, $SD = 1.31$) candidates, $t_{(649)} = 3$, $p < .01$. Similarly, the job motivation expectation for physically attractive ($M = 4.64$, $SD = 1.16$) candidates was significantly higher than the job motivation expectation ($M = 4.14$, $SD = 1.36$) for unattractive candidates, $t_{(649)} = 5.12$, $p < .01$. As a result, *Hypothesis 1a*, *1b*, *1c*, and *1d* which proposed that physically attractive candidates would have higher employability level, offered wage range, performance expectation and job motivation expectation than physically unattractive candidates were supported.

3.4. MODERATION ANALYSES (HYPOTHESES 2A-5D)

Utilizing the PROCESS Macro in SPSS, a series of analyses was conducted to explore potential moderated relationships proposed in hypotheses from *2a* to *5d*. The sample comprised of 651 participants, and it was employed bootstrap resampling techniques with 5000 bootstrap samples to enhance the reliability of the results, providing robust effect estimates and confidence intervals.

3.4.1. Hypothesis 2a

It was set out to investigate whether participants with high benevolent sexism levels would assign higher employability scores to male candidates than those with low benevolent sexism. The model explained 3.07% of the variance in employability scores, with statistical significance ($F_{(3, 647)} = 6.83$, $p < .01$).

Results showed that benevolent sexism was negatively related to employability scores ($\beta = -.27$, $SE = .11$, $t = -2.33$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [-.49, -.04]). This suggests that participants with higher levels of benevolent sexism assigned lower employability scores to candidates in general. Candidates' gender had a non-significant negative association with employability scores ($\beta = -.21$, $SE = .26$, $t = -.81$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.72, .30]). This implies that the gender of the candidate did not significantly affect employability scores. The interaction effect of benevolent sexism and candidates' gender on employability scores was not significant ($\beta = .07$, $SE = .07$, $t = .96$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.07, .21]). This indicates that the relationship between benevolent sexism and employability scores was not significantly moderated by the gender of the candidate.

In conclusion, the analysis did not provide support for *Hypothesis 2a* and so did not reveal any significant moderation effect of candidates' gender on the relationship between benevolent sexism and employability scores. Participants with high benevolent sexism levels assigned lower employability scores in general, and candidates' gender did not influence this relationship significantly.

3.4.2. Hypothesis 2b

The objective was to investigate if participants with high benevolent sexism levels would offer higher wage ranges to male candidates. However, the model did not achieve statistical significance ($R^2 = .01$, $F_{(3, 647)} = .48$, $p > .05$).

The relationship between benevolent sexism and offered wage ranges was negative but non-significant ($\beta = -.26$, $SE = .22$, $t = -1.18$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.70, .17]). This suggests that participants with higher levels of benevolent sexism did not offer significantly higher wage ranges to candidates in general. Similarly, candidates' gender was negatively associated with offered wage ranges, but the relationship was not statistically significant ($\beta = -.49$, $SE = .51$, $t = -.95$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-1.49, 0.52]), indicating that the gender of the candidate did not significantly influence the offered wage ranges. The interaction effect of benevolent sexism and candidates' gender on offered wage ranges was also non-significant ($\beta = .15$, $SE = .14$, $t = 1.08$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.13, .43]). This suggests that candidates' gender did not significantly moderate the association between benevolent sexism and offered wage ranges.

In conclusion, the analysis did not provide support for *Hypothesis 2b* and did not find any significant moderation effect of candidates' gender on the relationship between benevolent sexism and offered wage ranges. Participants with high benevolent sexism levels did not significantly offer higher wage ranges to male candidates. The non-significant results in both the main effects and the interaction term indicated that benevolent sexism did not play a substantial role in determining wage range offers in this study, and candidates' gender did not significantly impact this relationship.

3.4.3. Hypothesis 2c

It was explored whether participants with high benevolent sexism levels would have higher performance expectations from male candidates. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .03$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 6.76$, $p < .01$).

Benevolent sexism was negatively related to performance expectations ($\beta = -.26$, $SE = .12$, $t = -2.21$, $p < .05$, 95% CI $[-.49, -.03]$). This indicates that participants with higher levels of benevolent sexism had lower performance expectations from candidates in general. Candidates' gender had a non-significant negative association ($\beta = -.30$, $SE = .27$, $t = -1.11$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.82, .23]$), suggesting that the gender of the candidate did not significantly influence performance expectations. The interaction effect of benevolent sexism and candidates' gender on level of performance expectation was not significant ($\beta = .07$, $SE = .07$, $t = .88$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.08, .21]$). This implies that candidates' gender did not significantly moderate the association between benevolent sexism and performance expectations.

In conclusion, the analysis did not reveal significant moderation effect of candidates' gender on the relationship between benevolent sexism and performance expectations and did not provide support for *Hypothesis 2c*. Participants with high benevolent sexism levels had lower performance expectations from all candidates, but candidates' gender did not significantly impact this relationship.

3.4.4. Hypothesis 2d

Lastly, it was examined whether participants with high benevolent sexism levels would report higher expected job motivation from male candidates. The model achieved statistical significance ($R^2 = .02$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 4.58$, $p < .01$).

Benevolent sexism was negatively related to job motivation expectation ($\beta = -0.28$, $SE = .12$, $t = -2.24$, $p < .05$, 95% CI $[-.52, -.03]$). This suggests that participants with higher levels of benevolent sexism expected lower levels of job motivation from candidates in general. Candidates' gender had a non-significant negative association ($\beta = -.30$, $SE = .27$, $t = -1.11$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.82, .23]$), indicating that the gender of the candidate did not significantly influence job motivation expectation. The interaction effect between benevolent sexism and candidates' gender on the level of job motivation expectation was not significant ($\beta = .07$, $SE = .07$, $t = .88$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.08, .21]$). This suggests that candidates' gender did not significantly moderate the association between benevolent sexism and job motivation expectation.

In conclusion, the analysis did not provide significant evidence supporting the moderation effect of candidates' gender on the relationship between benevolent sexism and job motivation expectation and support for the *Hypothesis 2d*. While benevolent sexism was negatively related to job motivation expectation, it did not significantly influence the relationship between candidates' gender and job motivation expectation.

3.4.5. Hypothesis 3a

It was investigated whether participants with high levels of hostile sexism tend to assign higher employability scores to male candidates compared to those with lower levels of hostile sexism. The model explained 3.83% of the variance in employability scores and achieved statistical significance ($F_{(3, 647)} = 8.58$, $p < .01$).

It was found that there was a negative relationship between hostile sexism and employability scores ($\beta = -.22$, $SE = .10$, $t = -2.15$, $p < .05$, 95% CI $[-.43, -.02]$). This suggests that participants with higher levels of hostile sexism assigned lower employability scores to candidates in general. Conversely, candidates' gender did not exhibit a statistically significant association with employability scores ($\beta = -.10$, $SE = .24$, $t = -.43$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.58, .37]$). This indicates that the gender of the candidate

did not significantly influence employability scores. Furthermore, the interaction effect between hostile sexism and candidates' gender on employability scores failed to significantly moderate the relationship ($\beta = .04$, $SE = .07$, $t = .58$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.09, .17]). This implies that candidates' gender did not significantly moderate the relationship between hostile sexism and employability scores.

In conclusion, the analysis failed to provide support for the *Hypothesis 3a*. Also, the analysis did not provide evidence supporting the notion that candidates' gender significantly influences the relationship between hostile sexism and employability scores. Participants with high levels of hostile sexism assigned lower employability scores in general, and candidates' gender did not significantly impact this relationship.

3.4.6. Hypothesis 3b

The goal in this analysis was to explore whether individuals with high hostile sexism levels tend to offer higher wage ranges to male candidates compared to those with lower hostile sexism levels. The model explained 11.00% of the variation in offered wage ranges. The overall model was not statistically significant ($F_{(3, 647)} = 2.39$, $p > .05$).

Hostile sexism showed a negative relationship with offered wage ranges, although this relationship did not reach statistical significance ($\beta = -.32$, $SE = .21$, $t = -1.56$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.72, .08]). This implies that individuals with higher levels of hostile sexism tended to offer lower wage ranges to candidates, but the statistical evidence supporting this effect was weak. Candidates' gender did not exhibit a significant association with offered wage ranges ($\beta = -.30$, $SE = .47$, $t = -.64$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-1.23, .62]). This suggests that the gender of the candidate did not significantly influence the offered wage ranges. The interaction effect of hostile sexism and candidates' gender on offered wage ranges was also not significant ($\beta = .10$, $SE = .13$, $t = .79$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.15, .36]). This indicates that candidates' gender did not significantly moderate the relationship between hostile sexism and offered wage ranges.

In conclusion, the analysis did not provide evidence to support the idea that candidates' gender significantly affects the relationship between hostile sexism and

offered wage ranges. The non-significant results indicate that the effect of hostile sexism on wage range offers was not influenced by the gender of the candidate. Thus, the analysis did not provide support for the *Hypothesis 3b*.

3.4.7. Hypothesis 3c

This analysis examined whether participants with high levels of hostile sexism had higher performance expectations from male candidates compared to those with low levels of hostile sexism. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .05$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 11.19$, $p < .01$).

Hostile sexism had a significant negative association with performance expectations ($\beta = -.25$, $SE = .11$, $t = -2.34$, $p < .05$, 95% CI $[-.46, -.04]$). This implies that participants with higher levels of hostile sexism had low performance expectations from all candidates. On the other hand, candidates' gender did not have a significant main effect on performance expectations ($\beta = -.20$, $SE = .25$, $t = -.82$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.68, .28]$). This suggests that the gender of the candidate did not significantly influence performance expectations. The interaction effect of hostile sexism and candidates' gender on level of performance expectation was not statistically significant ($\beta = .04$, $SE = .07$, $t = .56$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.09, .17]$). Therefore, candidate gender did not moderate the relationship between hostile sexism and performance expectations.

In conclusion, candidates' gender did not significantly influence the relationship between hostile sexism and performance expectations. Hostile sexism had a consistent negative impact on performance expectations, and this effect was not moderated by the gender of the candidate. Therefore, the analysis did not provide support for the *Hypothesis 3c*.

3.4.8. Hypothesis 3d

In this analysis, it was investigated whether participants with high levels of hostile sexism report a higher level of job motivation expectation from male candidates compared to those with low levels of hostile sexism. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .04$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 8.46$, $p < .01$)

Hostile sexism had a non-significant negative association with job motivation expectation ($\beta = -.15$, $SE = .11$, $t = -1.31$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.37, .07]$). This suggests that participants with higher levels of hostile sexism did not significantly differ in their job motivation expectation from male candidates compared to those with lower levels of hostile sexism. Candidates' gender also did not have a significant main effect on job motivation expectation ($\beta = .09$, $SE = .26$, $t = .35$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.42, .60]$). This indicates that the gender of the candidate did not significantly influence the participants' job motivation expectation. The interaction effect of hostile sexism and candidates' gender on level of job motivation expectation was not significant ($\beta = -.02$, $SE = .07$, $t = -.30$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.16, .12]$). Therefore, candidates' gender did not moderate the relationship between hostile sexism and job motivation expectation.

In conclusion, candidates' gender did not moderate the relationship between hostile sexism and job motivation expectation. The participants' job motivation expectation remained relatively consistent, and hostile sexism did not have a statistically significant impact on this expectation. Therefore, *Hypothesis 3d* was not supported.

3.4.9. Hypothesis 4a

The purpose of this analysis was to examine whether participants with high levels of benevolent sexism would assign higher employability scores to candidates in gender-congruent occupations compared to those with low levels of benevolent sexism. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .11$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 27.00$, $p < .01$).

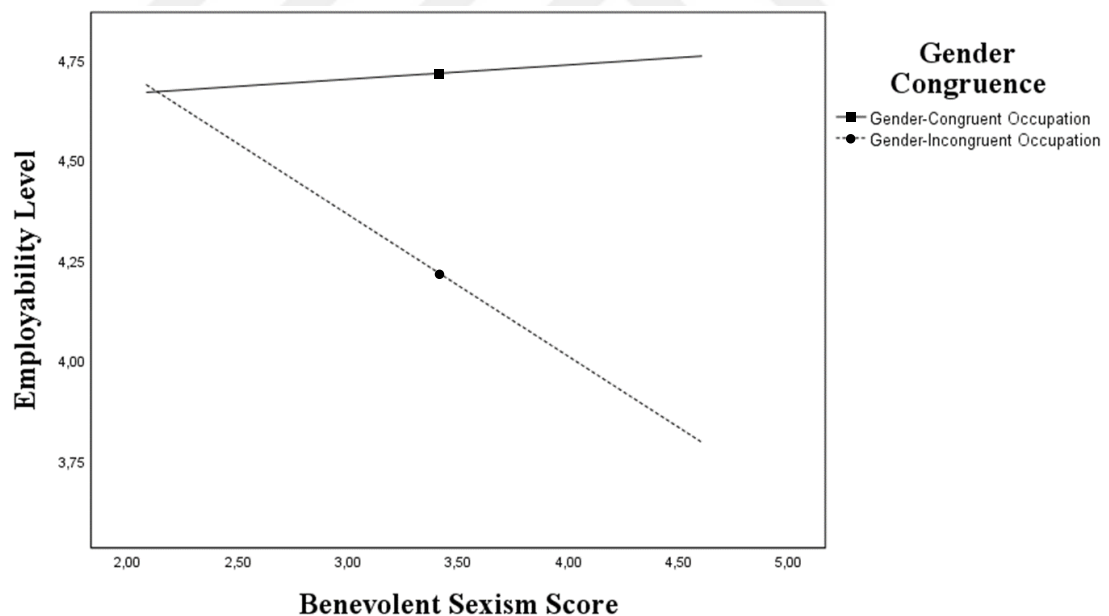
Benevolent sexism had a significant positive association with employability scores ($\beta = .42$, $SE = .11$, $t = 3.87$, $p < .01$, 95% CI $[.21, .64]$). This implies that participants with higher levels of benevolent sexism assigned higher employability scores to candidates in general. Gender-congruence also had a significant positive effect on employability scores ($\beta = .8289$, $SE = .25$, $t = 3.32$, $p < .01$, 95% CI $[.34, 1.32]$). This suggests that candidates in gender-congruent occupations received higher employability scores regardless of the level of benevolent sexism. The interaction effect of benevolent sexism and gender-congruence of occupations on employability scores was significant ($\beta = -.39$, $SE = .07$, $t = -5.56$, $p < .01$, 95% CI $[-.53, -.25]$). This

indicates that the effect of benevolent sexism on employability scores was moderated by the gender-congruence of the occupation.

To further explore this interaction, the conditional effects of benevolent sexism at different values of gender-congruent occupations was examined. For participants in gender-congruent occupations, the effect of benevolent sexism on employability scores was positive but not statistically significant ($\beta = .04$, $SE = .05$, $t = .73$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.06, .13]$). In contrast, for participants in gender-incongruent occupations, the effect of benevolent sexism on employability scores was significantly negative ($\beta = -.35$, $SE = .05$, $t = -7.06$, $p < .01$, 95% CI $[-.45, -.26]$) (Figure 2).

In conclusion, the analysis provided support for *Hypothesis 4a*. Participants with high levels of benevolent sexism assigned lower employability scores to candidates in gender-incongruent occupations compared to those with low levels of benevolent sexism.

Figure 2: Moderating Effect of Gender-Congruence on the Relationship between Benevolent Sexism and Employability Level



3.4.10. Hypothesis 4b

The aim of this analysis was to investigate whether participants with high levels of benevolent sexism would offer higher wage ranges to candidates in gender-

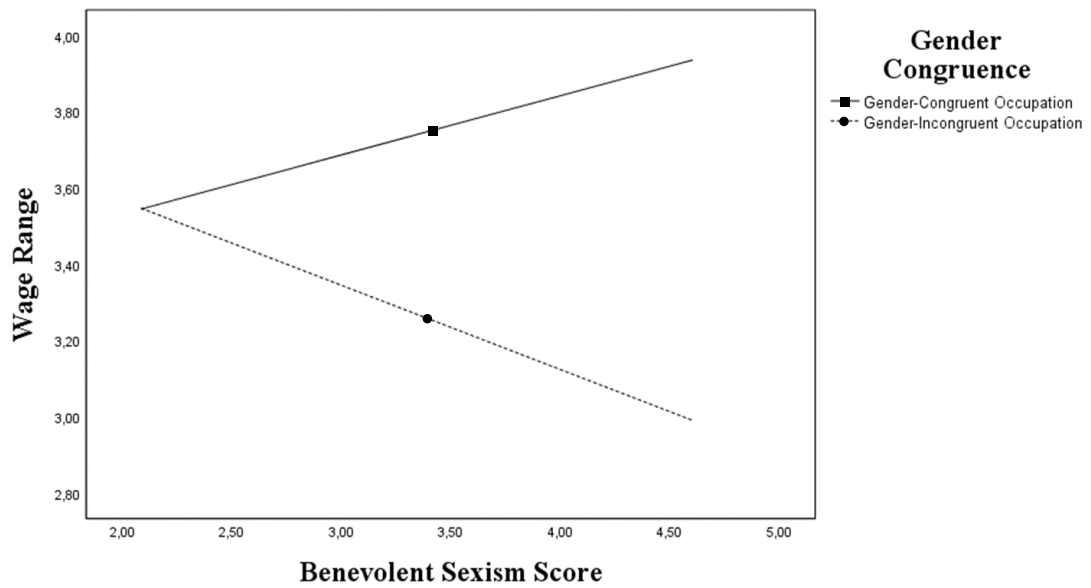
congruent occupations compared to those with low levels of benevolent sexism. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .02$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 4.77$, $p < .01$).

Benevolent sexism had a significant positive association with wage range offers ($\beta = .53$, $SE = .22$, $t = 2.39$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.10, .97]). This implies that participants with high levels of benevolent sexism offered high wage ranges to candidates in general. Gender-congruence did not have a significant main effect on wage range offers ($\beta = .79$, $SE = .51$, $t = 1.55$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.21, 1.78]). The interaction effect of benevolent sexism and gender-congruence of occupations on offered wage ranges was significant ($\beta = -.38$, $SE = .14$, $t = -2.66$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.65, -.10]). This suggests that the effect of benevolent sexism on wage range offers was moderated by the gender-congruence of the occupation.

To further explore this interaction, the conditional effects of benevolent sexism at different values of gender-congruence was examined. For participants in gender-congruent occupations, the effect of benevolent sexism on wage range offers was positive but not statistically significant ($\beta = .16$, $SE = .10$, $t = 1.57$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.04, .35]). In contrast, for participants in gender-incongruent occupations, the effect of benevolent sexism on wage range offers was significantly negative ($\beta = -.22$, $SE = .10$, $t = -2.18$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [-.42, -.02]) (Figure 3).

In summary, the analysis provided support for *Hypothesis 4b*. Participants with high levels of benevolent sexism offered lower wage ranges to candidates in gender-incongruent occupations compared to those with low levels of benevolent sexism.

Figure 3: Moderating Effect of Gender-Congruence on the Relationship between Benevolent Sexism and Offered Wage Range



3.4.11. Hypothesis 4c

In this analysis, whether participants with high levels of benevolent sexism had higher performance expectations from candidates in gender-congruent occupations compared to those with low levels of benevolent sexism was examined. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .11$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 27.15$, $p < .01$).

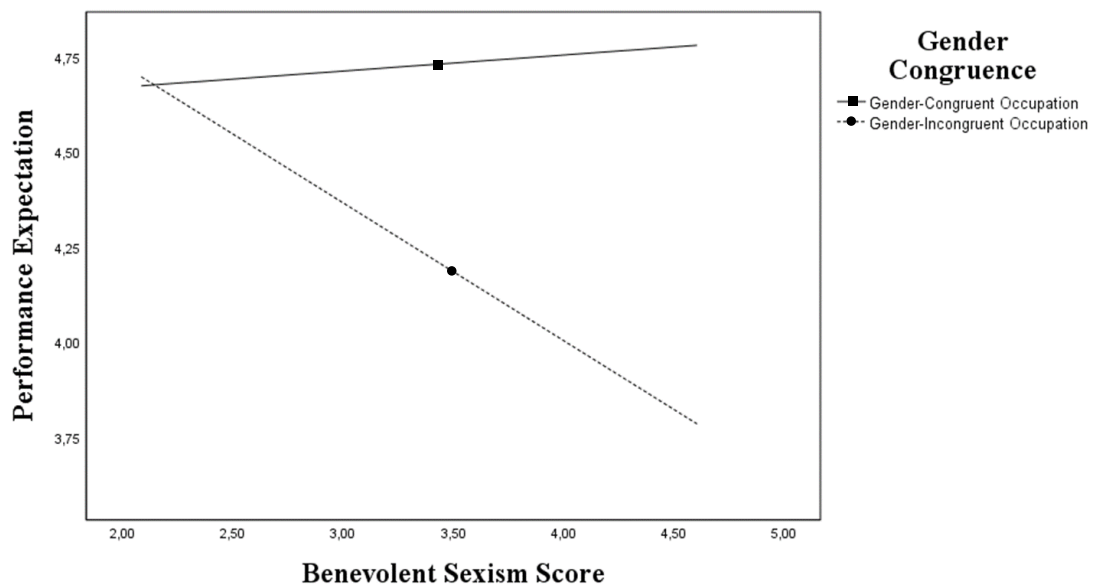
Benevolent sexism had a significant positive association with performance expectations ($\beta = .45$, $SE = .11$, $t = 3.97$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.23, .67]). This implies that participants with high levels of benevolent sexism had high performance expectations from candidates in general. Gender-congruence also had a significant positive effect on performance expectations ($\beta = .86$, $SE = .26$, $t = 3.38$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.36, 1.37]). This suggests that candidates in gender-congruent occupations were expected to perform better than those in gender-incongruent occupation. The interaction effect of benevolent sexism and gender-congruence of occupations on level of performance expectation was significant ($\beta = -.40$, $SE = .07$, $t = -5.64$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.54, -.26]). That is, the effect of benevolent sexism on performance expectations was moderated by the gender-congruence of the occupation.

To further explore this interaction, the conditional effects of benevolent sexism at different values of gender-congruence was examined. For participants in gender-congruent occupations, the effect of benevolent sexism on performance expectations

was positive but not statistically significant ($\beta = .04$, $SE = .05$, $t = .84$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.06, .14]$). In contrast, for participants in gender-incongruent occupations, the effect of benevolent sexism on performance expectations was significantly negative ($\beta = -.36$, $SE = .05$, $t = -7.06$, $p < .01$, 95% CI $[-.46, -.26]$) (Figure 4).

Hence, the analysis provided support for *Hypothesis 4c*. Participants with high levels of benevolent sexism had lower performance expectations from candidates in gender-incongruent occupations compared to those with low levels of benevolent sexism.

Figure 4: Moderating Effect of Gender-Congruence on the Relationship between Benevolent Sexism and Performance Expectation



3.4.12. Hypothesis 4d

This analysis aimed to examine whether participants with high levels of benevolent sexism would report a higher level of job motivation expectation from candidates in gender-congruent occupations compared to those with low levels of benevolent sexism. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .07$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 17.02$, $p < .01$).

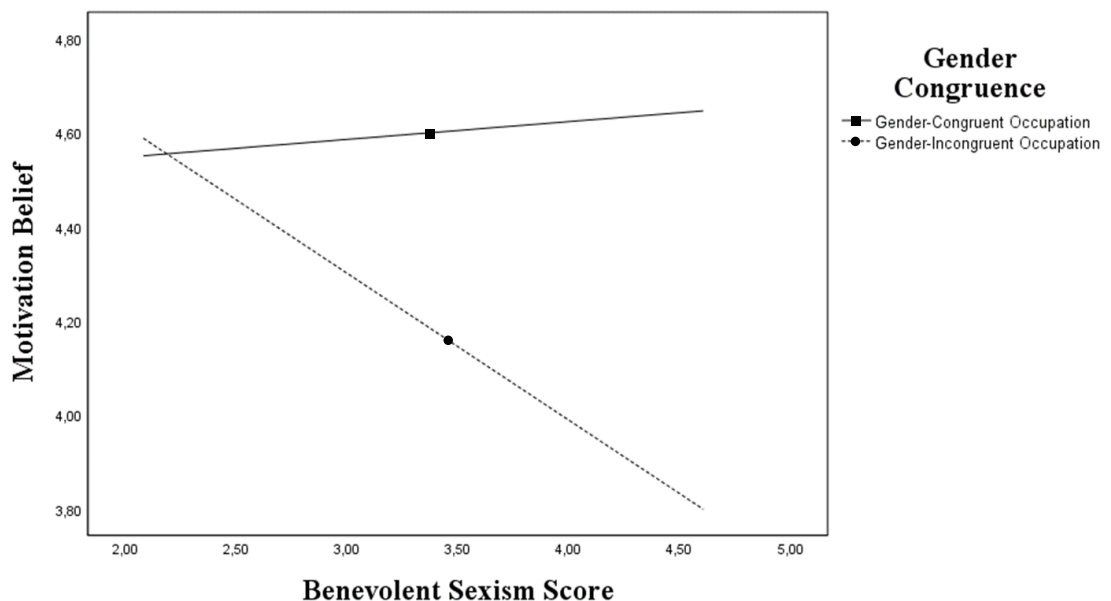
Benevolent sexism had a significant positive association with job motivation expectations ($\beta = .39$, $SE = .12$, $t = 3.21$, $p < .01$, 95% CI $[.15, .63]$). This implies that participants with high levels of benevolent sexism reported high job motivation expectations from candidates in general. Gender-congruence also had a significant

positive effect on job motivation expectations ($\beta = .77$, $SE = .28$, $t = 2.78$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.23, 1.31]). This indicates that candidates in gender-congruent occupations were expected to have higher job motivation than those in gender-incongruent occupations. The interaction effect of benevolent sexism and gender-congruence of occupations on level of job motivation expectation was significant ($\beta = -.35$, $SE = .08$, $t = -4.54$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.50, -.20]). This suggests that the effect of benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations was moderated by the gender-congruence of the occupation.

To further explore this interaction, the conditional effects of benevolent sexism at different values of gender-congruence was investigated. For participants in gender-congruent occupations, the effect of benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations was positive but not statistically significant ($\beta = .04$, $SE = .05$, $t = .70$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.07, .14]). In contrast, for participants in gender-incongruent occupations, the effect of benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations was significantly negative ($\beta = -.31$, $SE = .06$, $t = -5.66$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.42, -.20]) (Figure 5).

In summary, the analysis provided support for *Hypothesis 4d*. Participants with high levels of benevolent sexism reported lower job motivation expectations for candidates in gender-incongruent occupations compared to those with low levels of benevolent sexism.

Figure 5: Moderating Effect of Gender-Congruence on the Relationship between Benevolent Sexism and Job Motivation Expectation



3.4.13. Hypothesis 5a

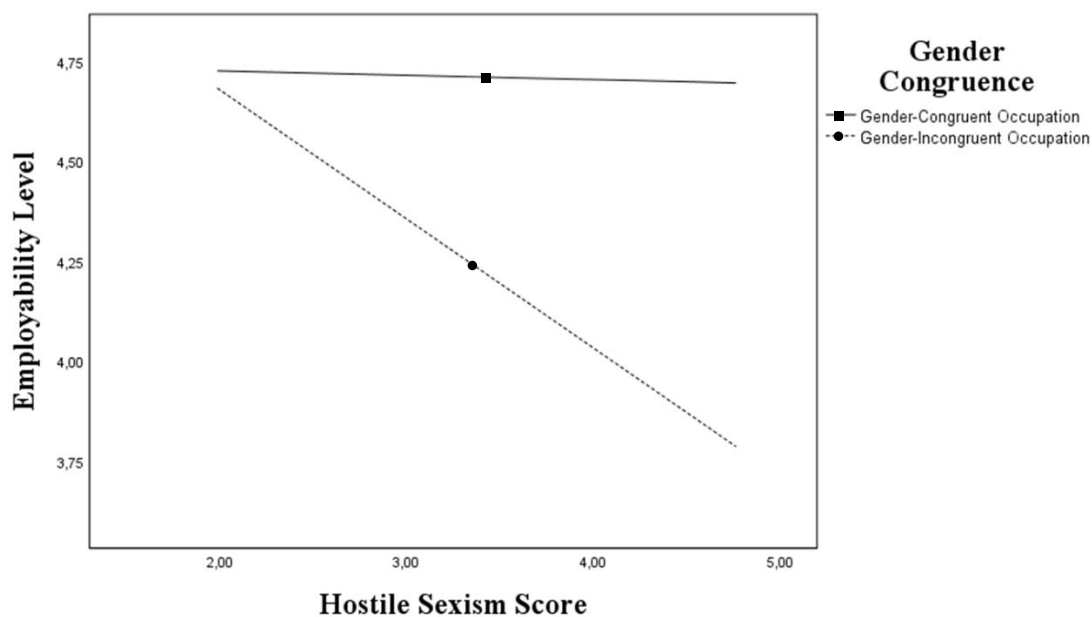
The purpose of this analysis was to investigate whether participants with varying levels of hostile sexism would assign different employability scores to candidates in gender-congruent occupations. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .11$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 26.93$, $p < .01$).

Hostile sexism demonstrated a significant positive association with employability scores ($\beta = .30$, $SE = .10$, $t = 3.02$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.11, .50]). This means that individuals with higher levels of hostile sexism tended to assign higher employability scores to candidates across different occupations. Gender-congruence also had a significant positive effect on employability scores ($\beta = .58$, $SE = .23$, $t = 2.49$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.12, 1.03]). Specifically, candidates in gender-congruent occupations received higher employability scores than those in gender-incongruent occupations. The interaction effect of hostile sexism and gender-congruence of occupations on employability scores was significant ($\beta = -.31$, $SE = .06$, $t = -4.91$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.44, -.19]). This finding suggests that the impact of hostile sexism on employability scores is influenced by the gender-congruent nature of the occupation.

To delve deeper into this interaction, the conditional effects of hostile sexism at different values of gender-congruence was examined. For participants in gender-congruent occupations, the effect of hostile sexism on employability scores was not statistically significant ($\beta = -.01$, $SE = .04$, $t = -.25$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.10, .08]). In contrast, for participants in gender-incongruent occupations, the effect of hostile sexism on employability scores was significantly negative ($\beta = -.32$, $SE = .05$, $t = -7.08$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.41, -.23]) (Figure 6).

In conclusion, the analysis provided support for Hypothesis 5a. Participants with a high level of hostile sexism assigned lower employability scores to candidates in gender-incongruent occupations compared to those with a low level of hostile sexism.

Figure 6: Moderating Effect of Gender-Congruence on the Relationship between Hostile Sexism and Employability Level



3.4.14. Hypothesis 5b

The aim of this analysis was to investigate whether participants with varying levels of hostile sexism would offer different wage ranges to candidates in gender-congruent occupations. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .03$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 5.55$, $p < .01$).

Hostile sexism did not demonstrate a significant association with wage ranges ($\beta = .18$, $SE = .20$, $t = .91$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.21, .58]). This result suggests that participants' level of hostile sexism did not significantly impact the wage range offers they extended to candidates. Similarly, gender-congruence also did not have a significant effect on wage ranges ($\beta = .32$, $SE = .47$, $t = .68$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.60, 1.24]). This finding indicates that the gender-congruence of the occupation with candidates' gender did not lead to notable variations in wage range offers. The interaction effect of hostile sexism and gender-congruence of occupations on offered wage ranges was not significant ($\beta = -.23$, $SE = .13$, $t = -1.80$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.49, .02]). This implies that the effect of hostile sexism on wage ranges was not significantly moderated by the gender-congruent nature of the occupation. In conclusion, the analysis did not provide support for *Hypothesis 5b*.

3.4.15. Hypothesis 5c

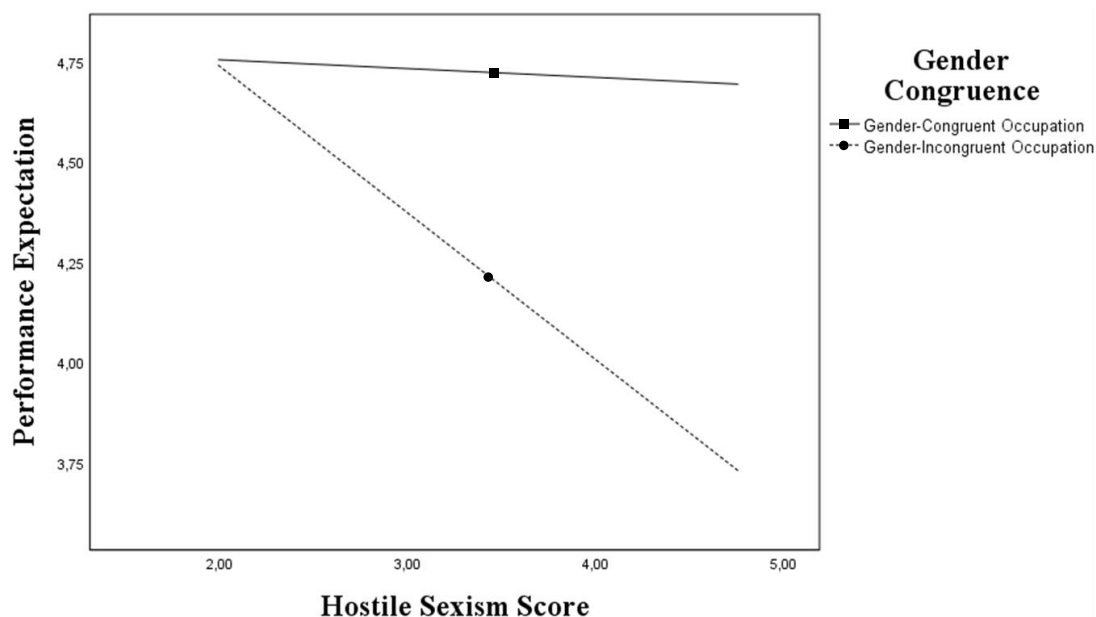
The purpose of this analysis was to determine if participants with a high level of hostile sexism had higher performance expectations for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of hostile sexism. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .13$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 31.20$, $p < .01$).

Hostile sexism exhibited a significant positive association with performance expectations ($\beta = .32$, $SE = .10$, $t = 3.17$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [.12, .52]). This implies that individuals with high levels of hostile sexism had high performance expectations from candidates in general. Gender-congruence also had a significant positive effect on performance expectations ($\beta = .67$, $SE = .24$, $t = 2.83$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.21, 1.13]). This finding suggests that candidates in gender-congruent occupations are expected to perform at a higher level than those in gender-incongruent occupations. The interaction effect of hostile sexism and gender-congruence of occupations on level of performance expectation was significant ($\beta = -.34$, $SE = .07$, $t = -5.31$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.47, -.22]). This indicates that the impact of hostile sexism on performance expectations was moderated by the gender-congruent nature of the occupation.

To further explore this interaction, the conditional effects of hostile sexism at different values of gender-congruence was examined. For participants in gender-congruent occupations, the effect of hostile sexism on performance expectations was not statistically significant ($\beta = -.02$, $SE = .05$, $t = -.49$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.11, .07]). In contrast, for participants in gender-incongruent occupations, the effect of hostile sexism on performance expectations was significantly negative ($\beta = -.36$, $SE = .05$, $t = -7.87$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.46, -.27]) (Figure 7).

In conclusion, the analysis provided support for *Hypothesis 5c*. Participants with a high level of hostile sexism had lower performance expectations for candidates in gender-incongruent occupations compared to those with a low level of hostile sexism.

Figure 7: Moderating Effect of Gender-Congruence on the Relationship between Hostile Sexism and Performance Expectation



3.4.16. Hypothesis 5d

The goal of this analysis was to determine if participants with a high level of hostile sexism reported higher job motivation expectations for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of hostile sexism. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .09$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 21.00$, $p < .01$).

Hostile sexism had a significant positive association with job motivation expectations ($\beta = .27$, $SE = .11$, $t = 2.46$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.06, .48]). This implies that individuals with high levels of hostile sexism reported higher job motivation expectations for candidates than those with low levels of hostile sexism. Gender-congruence also had a significant positive effect on job motivation expectations ($\beta = .60$, $SE = .25$, $t = 2.38$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.11, 1.10]). This finding indicates that candidates in gender-congruent occupations were expected to have higher levels of job motivation than those in gender-incongruent occupations. The interaction effect of hostile sexism and gender-congruence of occupations on level of job motivation was also significant ($\beta = -.30$, $SE = .07$, $t = -4.30$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.44, -.16]). This suggests that the impact of hostile sexism on job motivation expectations was significantly moderated by the gender-congruent nature of the occupation.

To further investigate this interaction, the conditional effects of hostile sexism at different values of gender-congruence was examined. For participants in gender-congruent occupations, the effect of hostile sexism on job motivation expectations was not statistically significant ($\beta = -.03$, $SE = .05$, $t = -.64$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.13, .06]). In contrast, for participants in gender-incongruent occupations, the effect of hostile sexism on job motivation expectations was significantly negative ($\beta = -.33$, $SE = .05$, $t = -6.61$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.43, -.23]) (Figure 8).

In conclusion, the analysis provided support for *Hypothesis 5d*. Participants with a high level of hostile sexism reported lower job motivation expectations for candidates in gender-incongruent occupations compared to those with a low level of hostile sexism.

Figure 8: Moderating Effect of Gender-Congruence on the Relationship between Hostile Sexism and Job Motivation Expectation

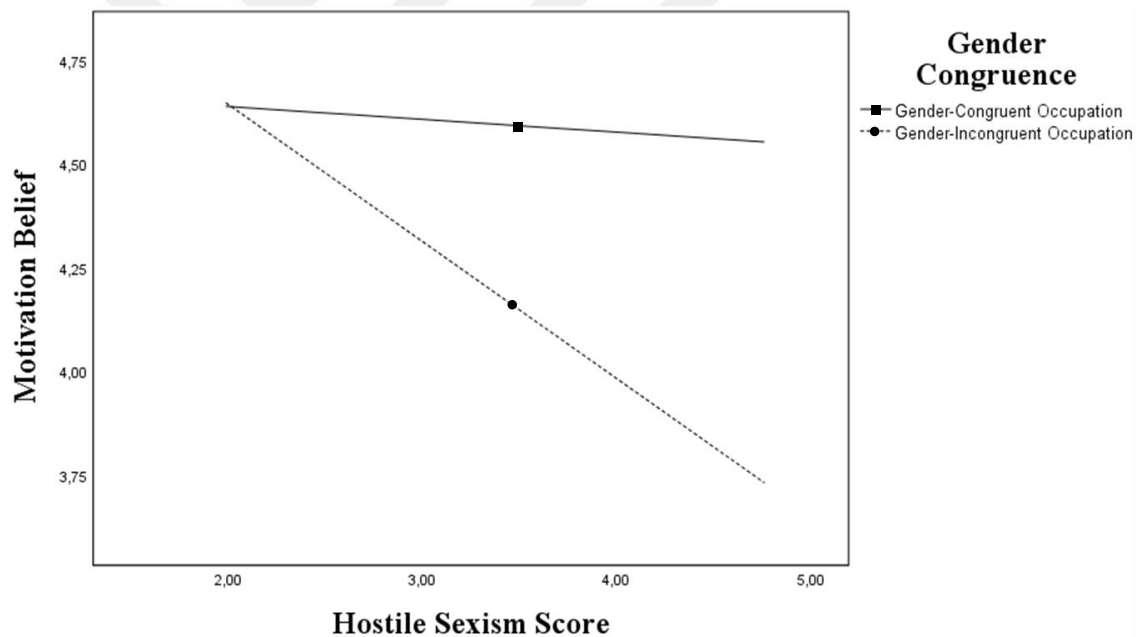


Table 8: Summary of the Study Findings

Hypothesis	Result
<i>Hypothesis 1a:</i> The employability level of candidates who are perceived as physically attractive is higher than candidates who are perceived as less physically attractive.	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 1b:</i> The offered wage range is higher for candidates who are perceived as physically attractive than for candidates who are perceived as less physically attractive.	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 1c:</i> The performance expectation for candidates who are perceived as physically attractive is higher than the performance expectation for candidates who are perceived as less physically attractive.	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 1d:</i> The expected level of job motivation is higher for candidates who are perceived as physically attractive than candidates who are perceived as less physically attractive.	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 2a:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism give higher employability scores for male candidates than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 2b:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism offer higher wage ranges to male candidates than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 2c:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism have a higher performance expectation for male candidates than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 2d:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism report a higher expected level of job motivation for male candidates than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 3a:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism give higher employability scores for male candidates than those with a low level of hostile sexism.	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 3b:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism offer higher wage ranges to male candidates than those with a low level of hostile sexism.	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 3c:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism have a higher performance expectation for male candidates than those with a low level of hostile sexism.	Not Supported

<i>Hypothesis 3d:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism report a higher expected level of job motivation for male candidates than those with a low level of hostile sexism.	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 4a:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism give higher employability scores for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 4b:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism offer higher wage ranges to candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 4c:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism have a higher performance expectation for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 4d:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of benevolent sexism report a higher level of job motivation expectation for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 5a:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism give higher employability scores for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of hostile sexism.	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 5b:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism offer higher wage ranges to candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of hostile sexism.	Not Supported
<i>Hypothesis 5c:</i> Participants (evaluators) with a high level of hostile sexism have a higher performance expectation for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of hostile sexism.	Supported
<i>Hypothesis 5d:</i> Participants with a high level of hostile sexism report a higher level of job motivation expectation for candidates in gender-congruent occupations than those with a low level of hostile sexism.	Supported

3.5. EXPLORATORY ANALYSES

This section includes exploratory analyses aimed to further investigate various relationships between the variables and were conducted to pioneer future studies.

3.5.1. Moderating Effects of Attractiveness on the Proposed Relationships¹

The purpose of this analysis was to examine how the interaction of benevolent sexism levels of the participants (evaluators) and the attractiveness of candidates influences various employment-related outcomes. It was sought to understand whether attractiveness acts as a moderator in the relationship between benevolent sexism and employability-related variables, including employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectations, and job motivation expectations. PROCESS Macro for SPSS was used to conduct the analysis.

The purpose of the first analysis is to examine the role of candidates' attractiveness in the relationship between evaluators' levels of benevolent sexism and the employability scores that evaluators give to candidates. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .09$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 20.02$, $p < .01$).

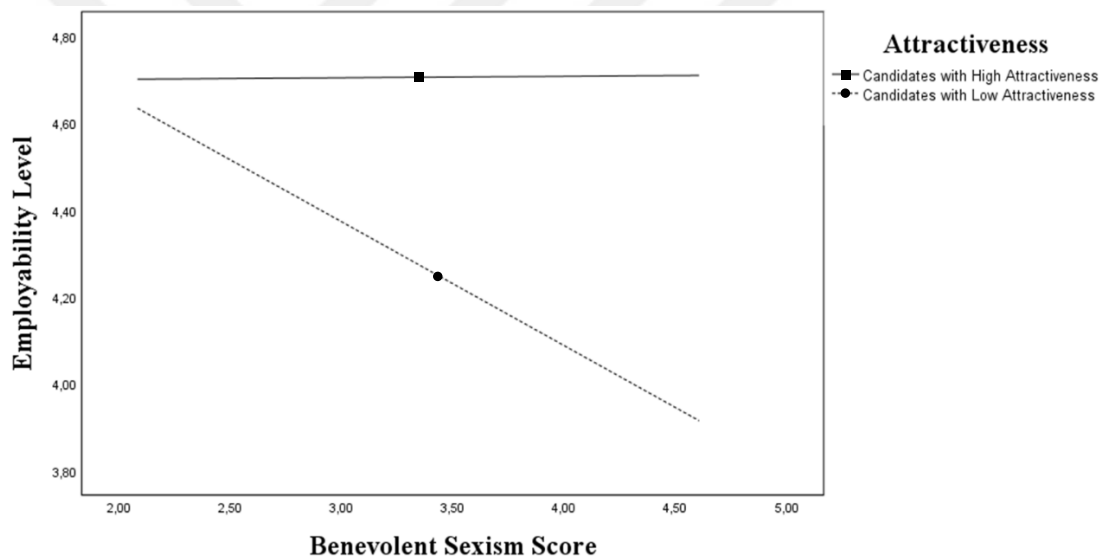
Benevolent sexism demonstrated a significant positive association with employability scores ($\beta = .29$, $SE = .11$, $t = 2.58$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.07, .51]). This means that individuals with higher levels of benevolent sexism tended to assign higher employability scores to candidates in general. Attractiveness also had a significant positive effect on employability scores ($\beta = .53$, $SE = .25$, $t = 2.09$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.03, 1.03]). Specifically, attractive candidates received higher employability scores than less attractive candidates. The interaction effect of benevolent sexism and attractiveness of the candidates on employability scores was significant ($\beta = -.29$, $SE = .07$, $t = -4.05$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.43, -.15]). This suggests that the impact of benevolent sexism on employability scores is moderated by the attractiveness of the candidates.

¹ The moderating role of the attractiveness level of the candidates in the relationship between the level of hostile sexism of the evaluators (participants) and the employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectation for the candidate, and job motivation expectation for the candidates were also analyzed. However, the main effects of both hostile sexism and attractiveness are not statistically significant. In addition, the interaction effect of hostile sexism levels and candidates' attractiveness on employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectation and job motivation expectation were not statistically significant.

To further explore this interaction, the conditional effects of benevolent sexism at different levels of attractiveness were examined. For candidates with high level of attractiveness, the effect of benevolent sexism on employability scores was not statistically significant ($\beta = .01$, $SE = .05$, $t = .07$, $p > .05$, 95% CI $[-.10, .10]$). However, for candidates with low level of attractiveness, the effect of benevolent sexism on employability scores was significantly negative ($\beta = -.29$, $SE = .05$, $t = -5.69$, $p < .01$, 95% CI $[-.38, -.19]$) (Figure 9).

In conclusion, participants with a high level of benevolent sexism assigned lower level of employability scores to unattractive candidates than those with a low level of benevolent sexism.

Figure 9: Moderating Effect of Candidates' Attractiveness on the Relationship between Benevolent Sexism and Employability Level



The aim of the second analysis was to investigate whether participants with varying levels of benevolent sexism would offer different wage ranges for candidates with different levels of attractiveness. The model was statistically significant ($R^2 = .07$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 15.89$, $p < .01$).

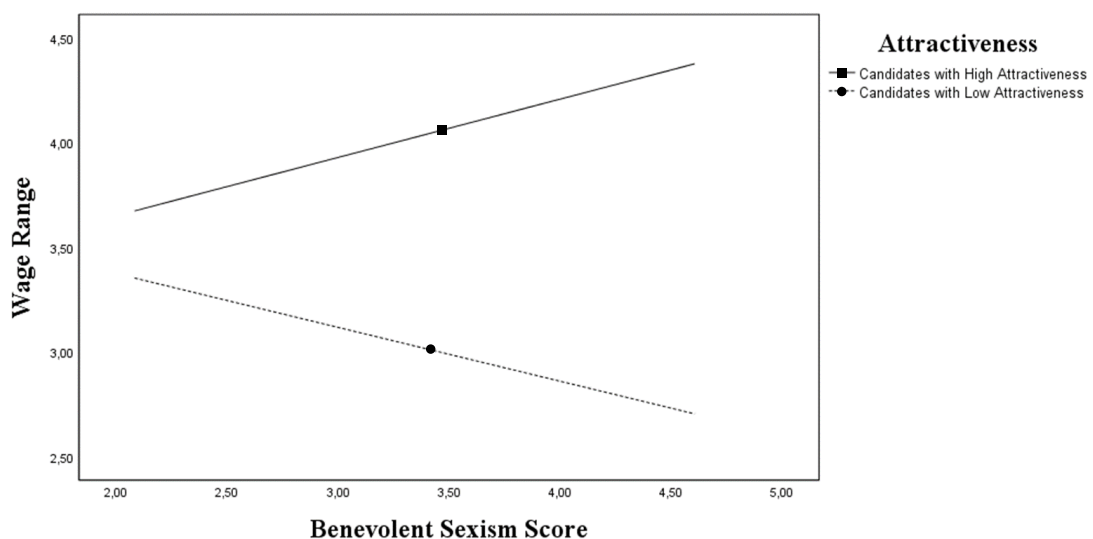
Benevolent sexism demonstrated a significant positive association with offered wage ranges ($\beta = .81$, $SE = .22$, $t = 3.70$, $p < .01$, 95% CI $[.38, 1.25]$). This indicates that participants with higher levels of benevolent sexism tended to offer higher wage ranges to candidates in general. Attractiveness, however, did not have a statistically

significant effect on wage range offers ($\beta = .79$, $SE = .50$, $t = 1.60$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [- .18, 1.77]). The interaction effect of benevolent sexism levels and attractiveness of the candidates on offered wage ranges was significant ($\beta = -.54$, $SE = .14$, $t = -3.86$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.81, -.26]). This finding indicates that the impact of benevolent sexism on offered wage ranges is moderated by the attractiveness of the candidates.

To further explore this interaction, the conditional effects of benevolent sexism at different levels of attractiveness were examined. For candidates with low attractiveness, the effect of benevolent sexism on offered wage ranges was significantly positive ($\beta = .28$, $SE = .10$, $t = 2.82$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.08, .47]). Moreover, for candidates with high attractiveness, the effect of benevolent sexism on offered wage ranges was significantly negative ($\beta = -.26$, $SE = .10$, $t = -2.64$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [-.45, -.07]) (Figure 10).

In conclusion, participants with higher levels of benevolent sexism tended to offer higher wage ranges to more attractive candidates compared to those with a low level of benevolent sexism. Also, participants with lower levels of benevolent sexism tended to offer higher wage ranges to more attractive candidates than those with a high level of benevolent sexism.

Figure 10: Moderating Effect of Candidates' Attractiveness on the Relationship between Benevolent Sexism and Offered Wage Range



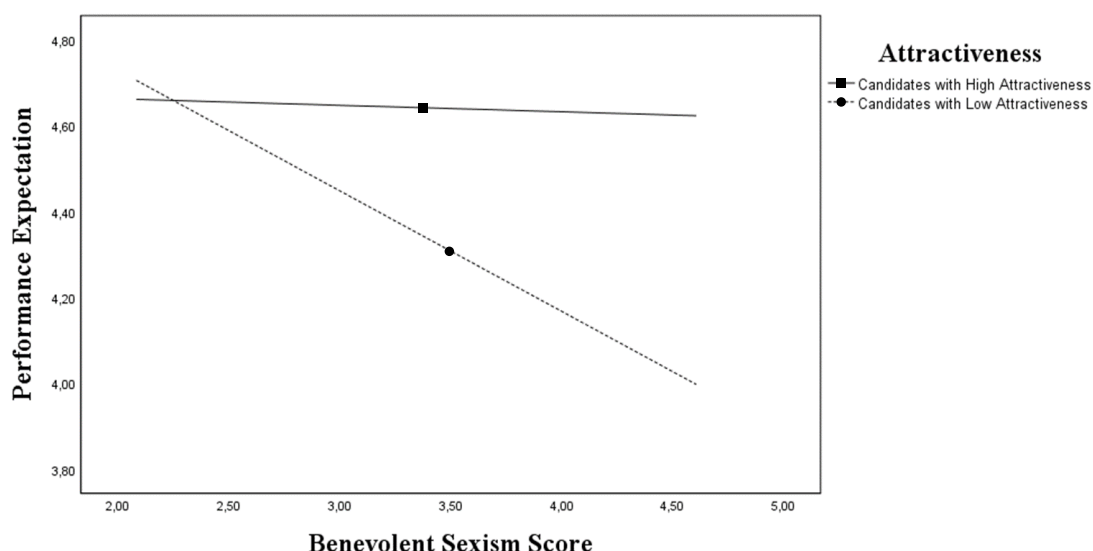
The objective of the third analysis was to investigate whether participants with varying levels of benevolent sexism would have different performance expectations for candidates with varying levels of attractiveness. The model yielded statistically significant results ($R^2 = .06$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 14.03$, $p < .01$).

Benevolent sexism demonstrated a significant positive association with performance expectations ($\beta = .25$, $SE = .12$, $t = 2.13$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.02, .48]). This indicates that participants with higher levels of benevolent sexism tended to expect higher performance for candidates in general. On the other hand, attractiveness of the candidates had a statistically significant positive effect on performance expectations as well ($\beta = .60$, $SE = .26$, $t = 2.26$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.08, 1.12]). This suggests that more attractive candidates were generally expected to perform better than less attractive candidates in general. Furthermore, the interaction effect of benevolent sexism levels and candidates' attractiveness on performance expectations was significant ($\beta = -.27$, $SE = .07$, $t = -3.59$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.41, -.12]). This interaction effect indicates that the impact of benevolent sexism on performance expectations is moderated by the attractiveness of the candidates.

To delve deeper into this interaction, the conditional effects of benevolent sexism at different levels of candidates' attractiveness were examined. For candidates with high level of attractiveness, the effect of benevolent sexism on performance expectations was not statistically significant ($\beta = -.02$, $SE = .05$, $t = -.29$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.12, .09]). In contrast, for candidates with low level of attractiveness, the effect of benevolent sexism on performance expectations was significantly negative ($\beta = -.28$, $SE = .05$, $t = -5.40$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.38, -.18]) (Figure 11).

In summary, the results indicated that participants with a high level of benevolent sexism have lower performance expectations from unattractive candidates compared to those with a low level of benevolent sexism.

Figure 11: Moderating Effect of Candidates' Attractiveness on the Relationship between Benevolent Sexism and Performance Expectation



The aim of the fourth analysis was to investigate whether participants with varying levels of benevolent sexism would have different job motivation expectations for candidates with varying levels of attractiveness. The model achieved statistically significant results ($R^2 = .07$, $F_{(3, 647)} = 15.68$, $p < .01$).

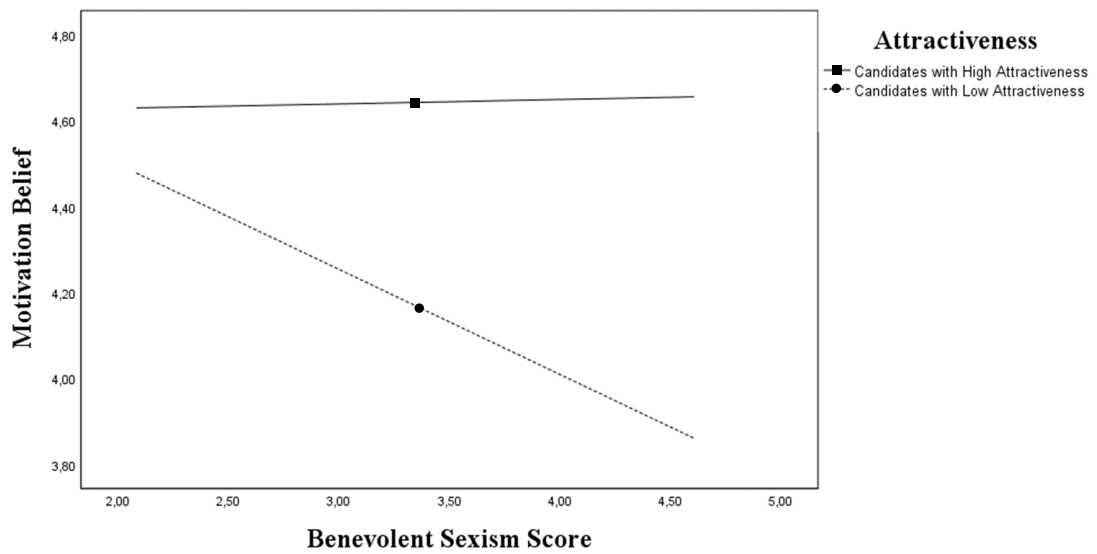
Benevolent sexism demonstrated a significant positive association with job motivation expectations ($\beta = .27$, $SE = .12$, $t = 2.15$, $p < .05$, 95% CI [.02, .51]). This indicates that participants with higher levels of benevolent sexism tended to expect higher job motivation from candidates in general. On the other hand, attractiveness of the candidates did not have a statistically significant effect on job motivation beliefs ($\beta = .38$, $SE = .28$, $t = 1.37$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.1, .93]). However, the interaction effect of benevolent sexism levels and candidates' attractiveness on job motivation expectations was significant ($\beta = -.26$, $SE = .08$, $t = -3.28$, $p < .01$, 95% CI [-.41, -.10]). This interaction effect indicates that the impact of benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations is moderated by the attractiveness of the candidates.

To explore deeper into this interaction, the conditional effects of benevolent sexism at different levels of candidates' attractiveness were investigated. For candidates with high level of attractiveness, the effect of benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations was not statistically significant ($\beta = .01$, $SE = .06$, $t = .19$, $p > .05$, 95% CI [-.10, .12]). In contrast, for candidates with low level of attractiveness,

the effect of benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations was significantly negative ($\beta = -.25$, $SE = .06$, $t = -4.48$, $p < .01$, 95% CI $[-.35, -.14]$) (Figure 12).

In conclusion, participants with a high level of benevolent sexism expected lower levels of job motivation from unattractive candidates compared to those with a low level of benevolent sexism.

Figure 12: Moderating Effect of Candidates' Attractiveness on the Relationship between Benevolent Sexism and Job Motivation Expectation



3.5.2. Independent Samples T-Test Analyses²

In these analyses, it was investigated whether there is a difference between candidates who have a congruent occupation with their gender and candidates who do not have a congruent occupation with their gender in terms of employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectation and job motivation expectation.

Candidates holding gender-congruent occupations ($M = 4.71$, $SD = 1.07$) had significantly higher employability levels in comparison to their counterparts occupying gender-incongruent roles ($M = 4.22$, $SD = 1.26$) [$t_{(649)} = 5.34$, $p < .01$]. Furthermore, participants (evaluators) offered significantly higher wage ranges to candidates with gender-congruent occupations ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 2.54$) than those with

² The effect of the fake candidate's gender on the employability level, the offered wage range, the performance expectation towards the candidate and the job motivation belief towards the candidate were also analyzed. However, the results were not statistically significant.

gender-incongruent occupations ($M = 3.26$, $SD = 1.96$) [$t_{(627, 864)} = 2.68$, $p < .01$]. Significantly higher performance expectations were observed for candidates in gender-congruent occupations ($M = 4.72$, $SD = 1.08$) in comparison to candidates occupying gender-incongruent roles ($M = 4.22$, $SD = 1.30$) [$t_{(649)} = 5.37$, $p < .01$]. Similarly, job motivation expectations for candidates with gender-congruent occupations ($M = 4.60$, $SD = 1.21$) was significantly higher than job motivation expectations for candidates with gender-incongruent occupation ($M = 4.18$, $SD = 1.32$) [$t_{(649)} = 4.21$, $p < .01$].

3.5.3. Three-Way Moderation Analyses

The purpose of these analyses was to examine the three-way moderation effects involving the binary variables of candidates' attractiveness, candidates' gender, and gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation. PROCESS Macro for SPSS was used to conduct the analysis. The findings regarding the answers to the research questions are presented in Table 9.

The first analysis revealed that the three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.15$, $p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation on employability scores was not statistically significant. Therefore, the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on candidates' employability scores did not significantly depend on the interaction between attractiveness and gender-congruence.

Three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.02$, $p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender of the candidates on employability scores was not statistically significant, indicating that the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on candidates' employability scores was not moderated by the interaction between attractiveness and gender.

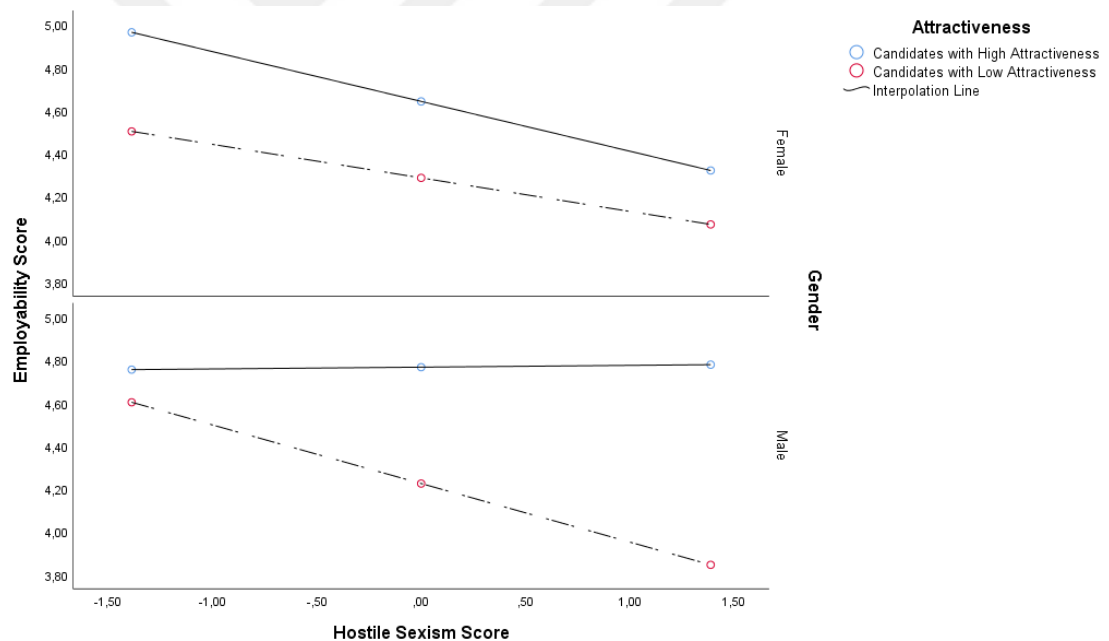
Three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.13$, $p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation, and gender of the candidates on employability scores was not statistically significant. Thus, the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on candidates' employability scores did not significantly depend on the interaction between gender-congruence and gender.

The three-way interaction term ($\beta = .01$, $p > .05$) of hostile sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation

on employability scores was also not statistically significant, indicating that the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on candidates' employability scores was not moderated by the interaction between attractiveness and gender-congruence.

However, the three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.36, p < .01$) indicated that the effect of hostile sexism on employability scores was influenced by the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and gender of the candidates. Conditional effects revealed that for candidates with high attractiveness, hostile sexism significantly reduced employability scores for only female ($\beta = -.23, p < .001$) candidates. However, for candidates with less attractiveness, hostile sexism negatively impacted both male ($\beta = -.27, p < .001$) and female candidates ($\beta = -.16, p < .01$) (Figure 13).

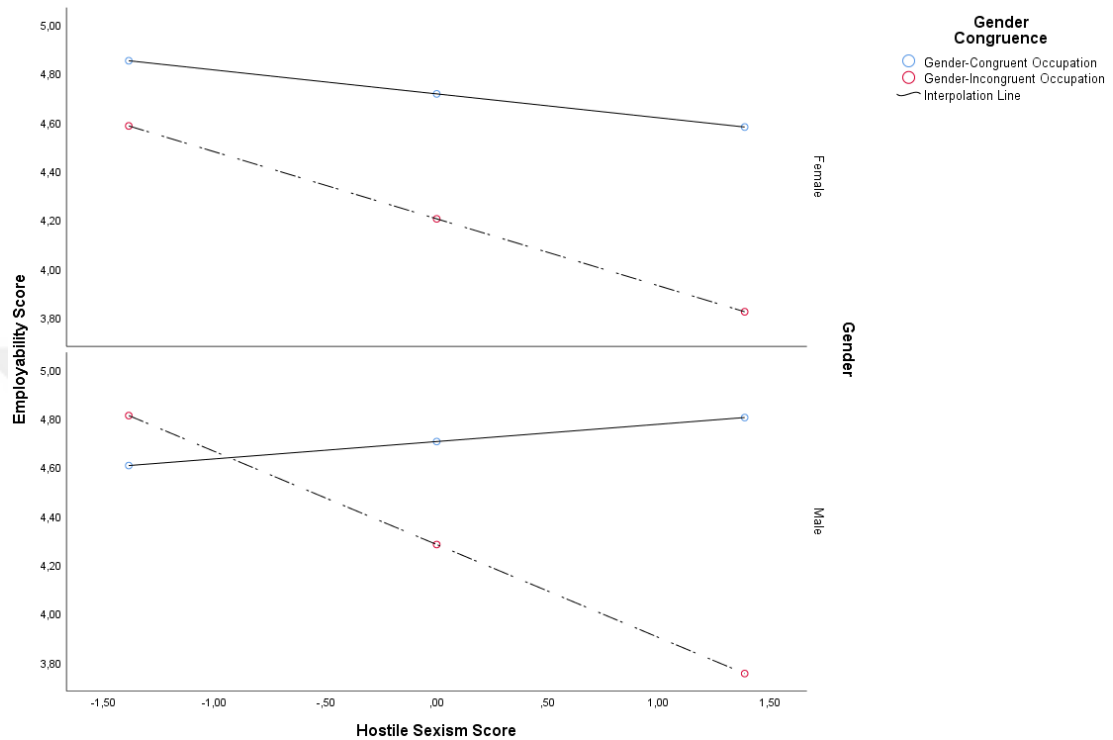
Figure 13: Moderating Effect of Interaction of Attractiveness and Gender on the Relationship between Hostile Sexism and Employability



Moreover, the three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.28, p < .05$) indicated that the effect of hostile sexism on employability scores varied based on the interaction between gender-congruence of candidates' occupations and candidates' gender. Conditional effects revealed that for candidates with gender-congruent occupations, hostile sexism's effect was non-significant for both male ($\beta = .07, p > .05$) and female ($\beta = -.10, p > .05$) candidates. In contrast, for gender-incongruent occupations, hostile

sexism significantly reduced employability scores for male candidates ($\beta = -.38, p < .001$) and for female candidates ($\beta = -.28, p < .001$) (Figure 14).

Figure 14: Moderating Effect of Interaction of Gender-Congruence and Gender on the Relationship between Hostile Sexism and Employability



The second set of analyses revealed that the three-way interaction term ($\beta = .21, p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation on offered wage ranges was not statistically significant. Therefore, the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on offered wage ranges to the candidates did not significantly depend on the interaction between attractiveness and gender-congruence.

The three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.27, p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender of the candidates on offered wage ranges was not statistically significant, indicating that the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on offered wage ranges to the candidates was not moderated by the interaction between attractiveness and gender.

Three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.25, p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation, and gender of the candidates on offered

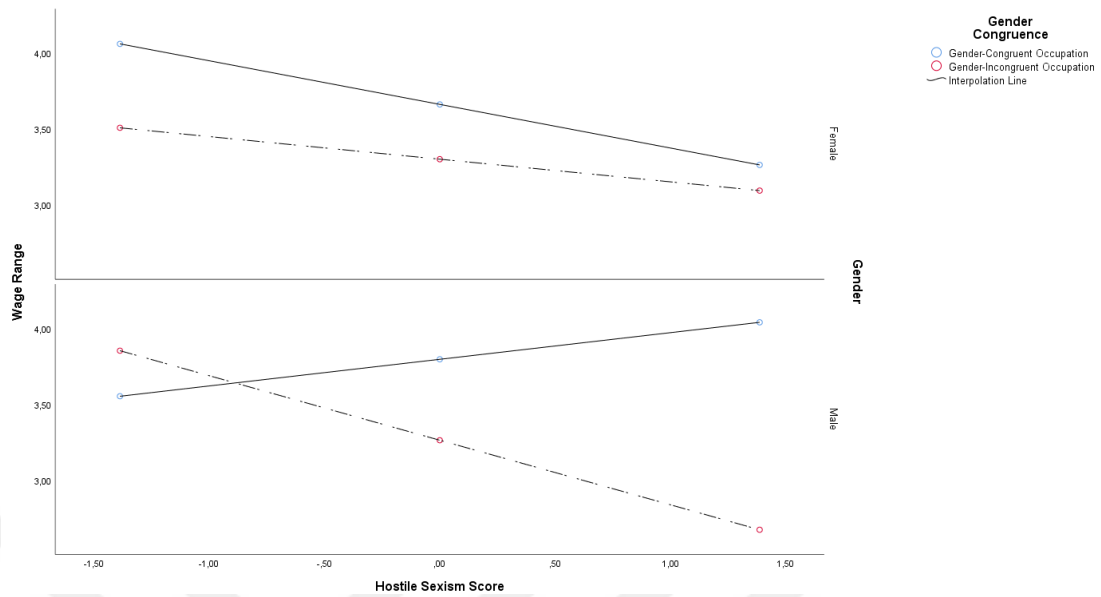
wage ranges was not statistically significant. Thus, the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on offered wage ranges to the candidates did not significantly depend on the interaction between gender-congruence and gender.

The three-way interaction term ($\beta = .05, p > .05$) of hostile sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation on offered wage ranges was not statistically significant, indicating that the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on offered wage ranges to the candidates was not moderated by the interaction between attractiveness and gender-congruence.

The three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.41, p > .05$) of hostile sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender of the candidates on offered wage ranges was not statistically significant, indicating that the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on offered wage ranges to the candidates was not moderated by the interaction between attractiveness and gender.

However, the three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.74, p < .01$) suggested that the effect of hostile sexism on offered wage ranges varied based on the interaction between gender-congruence of candidates' occupations and candidates' gender. Conditional effects indicated that for gender-congruent occupations, hostile sexism significantly diminished wage offers only for female ($\beta = -.29, p < .05$) candidates. Conversely, for gender-incongruent occupations, hostile sexism significantly reduced wage offers only for male candidates ($\beta = -.44, p < .001$) (Figure 15).

Figure 15: Moderating Effect of Interaction of Gender-Congruence and Gender on the Relationship between Hostile Sexism and Wage Range



The third set of analyses revealed that the effect of three-way interaction term ($\beta = .02, p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation on performance expectations was not statistically significant. Therefore, the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on performance expectations for the candidates did not significantly depend on the interaction between attractiveness and gender-congruence.

The effect of three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.05, p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender of the candidates on performance expectations was also not statistically significant, indicating that the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on performance expectations for the candidates was not moderated by the interaction between attractiveness and gender.

The effect of three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.01, p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation, and gender of the candidates on performance expectations was not statistically significant. Thus, the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on performance expectations for the candidates did not significantly depend on the interaction between gender-congruence and gender.

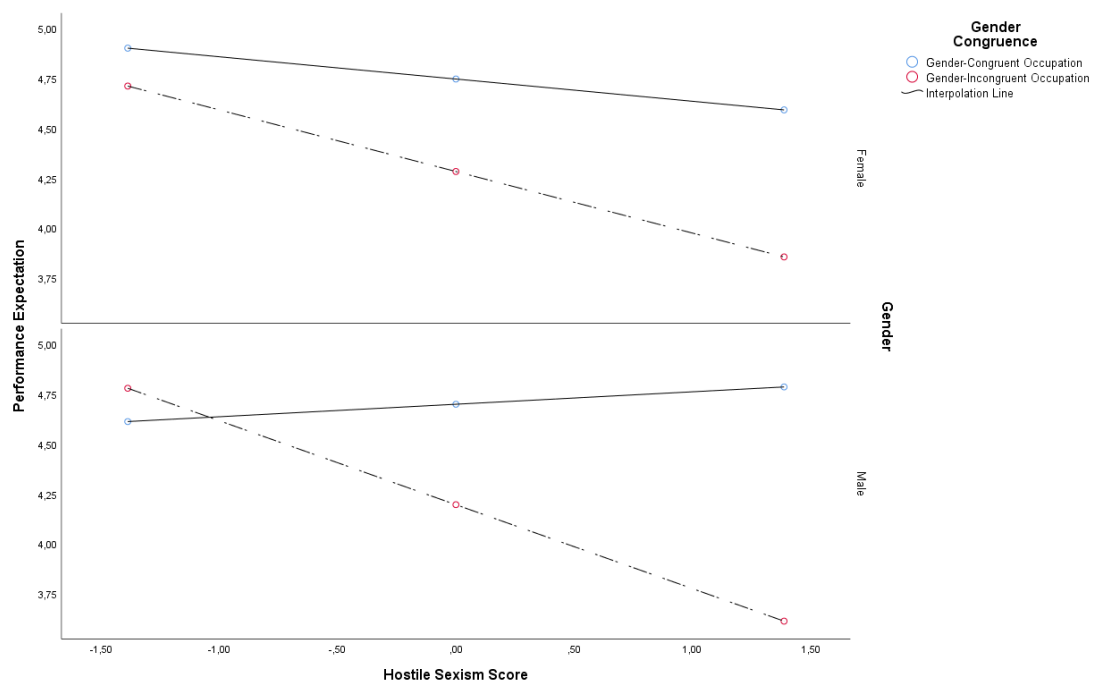
The effect of three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.01, p > .05$) of hostile sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation on performance expectations was not statistically significant, indicating that the effect

of evaluators' hostile sexism on performance expectations for the candidates was not moderated by the interaction between attractiveness and gender-congruence.

Similarly, the effect of three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.20, p > .05$) of hostile sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender of the candidates on performance expectations was not statistically significant, indicating that the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on performance expectations for the candidates was not moderated by the interaction between attractiveness and gender.

However, there was a significant effect of three-way interaction ($\beta = -.29, p < .05$) between hostile sexism, gender-congruence, and gender on performance expectations, indicating that the effect of hostile sexism on performance expectations depended on the interaction between gender-congruence of the occupation and the gender of the candidate. Further analysis revealed significant conditional effects. For candidates with gender-congruent occupations, hostile sexism's effect was non-significant for both female ($\beta = -.11, p > .05$) and male ($\beta = .06, p > .05$) candidates. However, for candidates with gender-incongruent occupations, hostile sexism significantly reduced performance expectations for female ($\beta = -.31, p < .001$) and male candidates ($\beta = -.42, p < .001$) (Figure 16).

Figure 16: Moderating Effect of Interaction of Gender-Congruence and Gender on the Relationship between Hostile Sexism and Performance Expectation



The fourth set of analyses revealed that the effect of three-way interaction term ($\beta = .13, p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation on job motivation expectations was not statistically significant. Therefore, the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations for the candidates did not significantly depend on the interaction between attractiveness and gender-congruence.

The effect of three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.08, p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender of the candidates on job motivation expectations was not statistically significant, indicating that the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations for the candidates was not moderated by the interaction between attractiveness and gender.

The effect of three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.09, p > .05$) of benevolent sexism, gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation, and gender of the candidates on job motivation expectations was not statistically significant. Thus, the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations for the candidates did not significantly depend on the interaction between gender-congruence and gender.

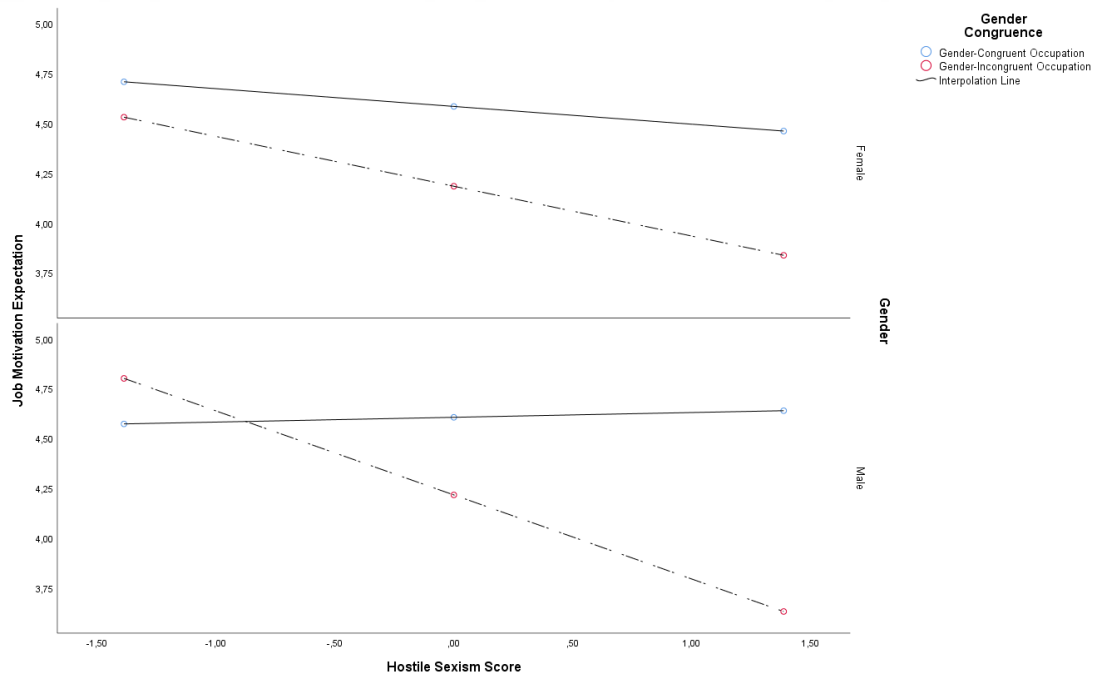
The effect of three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.02, p > .05$) of hostile sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation on job motivation expectations was not statistically significant. Therefore, the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations for the candidates did not significantly depend on the interaction between attractiveness and gender-congruence.

On the other hand, the effect of three-way interaction term ($\beta = -.26, p = .07$) of hostile sexism, attractiveness of the candidates, and gender of the candidates on job motivation expectations was marginally significant. This suggests that there may be a potential relationship worth further exploration, indicating that the effect of hostile sexism on job motivation expectations might depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and their gender. While the interaction did not reach conventional levels of significance, its marginal significance warrants attention and suggests the need for additional research to fully understand its implications.

A significant effect of three-way interaction ($\beta = -.29, p < .05$) between hostile sexism, gender-congruence, and gender on job motivation expectations indicated that

the impact of hostile sexism on job motivation expectations was contingent on the interaction between gender-congruence of the occupation and the gender of the candidate. Further analysis revealed significant conditional effects. For candidates with gender-congruent occupations, hostile sexism did not significantly affect job motivation expectations for both female ($\beta = -.09, p > .05$) and male candidates ($\beta = .02, p > .05$). However, for gender-incongruent occupations, hostile sexism significantly reduced job motivation expectations for both female ($\beta = -.25, p < .001$) and male candidates ($\beta = -.42, p < .001$) (Figure 17).

Figure 17: Moderating Effect of Interaction of Gender-Congruence and Gender on the Relationship between Hostile Sexism and Job Motivation Expectation



3.5.4. MANCOVA Analysis

MANCOVA analysis was conducted to understand the effect of the triple interaction of the variables of attractiveness level of the candidates, gender of the candidates, and gender-congruence level of the candidates' occupation on the level of employability, offered wage range, performance expectation and job motivation expectation towards candidates. Before the analysis, participants' (evaluators') benevolent and hostile sexism scores were added as covariates and their effects on the analysis were removed.

Attractiveness * gender * gender-congruence interaction had no significant effect on employability scores [$F_{(1)} = .01, p > .05$], offered wage ranges [$F_{(1)} = .91, p > .05$], performance expectations [$F_{(1)} = .07, p > .05$] and job motivation expectations [$F_{(1)} = .00, p > .05$].

3.5.5. Moderating Effects of Evaluator's Gender on the Proposed Relationships

The purpose of these analyses was to examine the possible moderating roles of gender of the evaluator on the relationships between evaluators' benevolent and hostile sexism scores and candidates' employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectations and job motivation expectations. PROCESS Macro for SPSS was used to conduct the analysis. The findings regarding the answers to the research questions are presented in Table 9.

The interaction term of benevolent sexism and the gender of evaluators, indicated by $\beta = .06$ with $p > .05$, had no statistically significant impact on candidates' employability scores. This means that the influence of evaluators' benevolent sexism on candidates' employability scores remained consistent regardless of the gender of the evaluators.

Similarly, the effect of interaction term of benevolent sexism and the gender of evaluators on offered wage ranges, represented by $\beta = -.04$ with $p > .05$, lacked statistical significance. Consequently, the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on the offered wage ranges for candidates did not vary significantly based on the gender of the evaluators.

Likewise, the effect of interaction term of benevolent sexism and the gender of evaluators on performance expectations, with $\beta = -.02$ and $p > .05$, did not reach statistical significance. Therefore, the impact of evaluators' benevolent sexism on performance expectations for candidates remained unaffected by the gender of the evaluators.

Moreover, the effect of interaction term between benevolent sexism and the gender of evaluators on job motivation expectations, denoted by $\beta = .01$ with $p > .05$, lacked statistical significance. Consequently, the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations for candidates did not significantly differ based on the gender of the evaluators.

The effect of interaction term of hostile sexism and the gender of evaluators on candidates' employability scores, indicated by $\beta = -.02$ with $p > .05$, was not statistically significant. Thus, the influence of evaluators' hostile sexism on candidates' employability scores did not significantly differ based on the gender of the evaluators.

Similarly, the effect of interaction term of hostile sexism and the gender of evaluators on offered wage ranges, represented by $\beta = .12$ with $p > .05$, lacked statistical significance. Therefore, the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on offered wage ranges for candidates remained consistent regardless of the gender of the evaluators.

Additionally, the effect of interaction term of hostile sexism and the gender of evaluators on performance expectations, with $\beta = -.05$ and $p > .05$, did not reach statistical significance. Hence, the impact of evaluators' hostile sexism on performance expectations for candidates did not significantly vary based on the gender of the evaluators.

Finally, the effect of interaction term of hostile sexism and the gender of evaluators on job motivation expectations, denoted by $\beta = -.03$ with $p > .05$, was not statistically significant. Consequently, the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on job motivation expectations for candidates did not significantly depend on the gender of the evaluators.

Table 9: Summary of the Exploratory Analyses Findings

Research Questions	Result
1. Are candidates' employability scores influenced by evaluators' levels of benevolent sexism, varying based on the candidates' attractiveness?	Yes
2. Are wage ranges offered to candidates influenced by evaluators' levels of benevolent sexism, varying based on the candidates' attractiveness?	Yes
3. Are performance expectations for candidates influenced by evaluators' levels of benevolent sexism, varying based on the candidates' attractiveness?	Yes
4. Are job motivation expectations for candidates influenced by evaluators' levels of benevolent sexism, varying based on the candidates' attractiveness?	Yes
5. Are candidates' employability scores influenced by evaluators' levels of hostile sexism, varying based on the candidates' attractiveness?	No

6. Are wage ranges offered to candidates influenced by evaluators' levels of hostile sexism, varying based on the candidates' attractiveness?	Yes
7. Are performance expectations for candidates influenced by evaluators' levels of hostile sexism, varying based on the candidates' attractiveness?	No
8. Are job motivation expectations for candidates influenced by evaluators' levels of hostile sexism, varying based on the candidates' attractiveness?	No
9. Is there a significant difference in employability levels depending on the gender-congruence of the occupations?	Yes
10. Is there a significant difference in wage ranges offered to candidates depending on the gender-congruence of the occupations?	Yes
11. Are performance expectations significantly different in gender-congruent and gender-incongruent occupations?	Yes
12. Are job motivation expectations significantly different for candidates with gender-congruent occupations and for candidates with gender-incongruent occupations?	Yes
13. Is there a significant difference in employability levels depending on the gender of the candidate?	No
14. Is there a significant difference in wage ranges offered to candidates depending on the gender of the candidate?	No
15. Do performance expectations significantly differ depending on the gender of the candidate?	No
16. Do job motivation expectations significantly differ depending on the gender of the candidate?	No
17. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on candidates' employability scores depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and the gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation?	No
18. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on candidates' employability scores depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and gender of the candidates?	No

19. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on candidates' employability scores depend on the interaction between the gender-congruence of candidates' occupation and gender of the candidates?	No
20. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on candidates' employability scores depend on the interaction between the attractiveness of candidates and gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation?	No
21. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on candidates' employability scores depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and gender of the candidates?	Yes
22. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on candidates' employability scores depend on the interaction between the gender-congruence of candidates' occupation and gender of the candidates?	Yes
23. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on offered wage ranges to the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and the gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation?	No
24. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on offered wage ranges to the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and gender of the candidates?	No
25. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on offered wage ranges to the candidates depend on the interaction between the gender-congruence of candidates' occupation and gender of the candidates?	No
23. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on offered wage ranges to the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and the gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation?	No
24. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on offered wage ranges to the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and gender of the candidates?	No
25. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on offered wage ranges to the candidates depend on the interaction between the gender-congruence of candidates' occupation and gender of the candidates?	Yes
26. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on performance expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and the gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation?	No

27. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on performance expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and gender of the candidates?	No
28. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on performance expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between the gender-congruence of candidates' occupation and gender of the candidates?	No
29. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on performance expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and the gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation?	No
30. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on performance expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and gender of the candidates?	No
31. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on performance expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between the gender-congruence of candidates' occupation and gender of the candidates?	Yes
32. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and the gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation?	No
33. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and gender of the candidates?	No
34. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between the gender-congruence of candidates' occupation and gender of the candidates?	No
35. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on job motivation expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and the gender-congruence of the candidates' occupation?	No
36. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on job motivation expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between attractiveness of the candidates and gender of the candidates?	Yes
37. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on job motivation expectations for the candidates depend on the interaction between the gender-congruence of candidates' occupation and gender of the candidates?	Yes

38. Is there a significant effect of the triple interaction between attractiveness level, gender of candidates, and gender-congruence level of candidates' occupation on employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectations, and job motivation expectations towards candidates?	No
39. Are candidates' employability scores influenced by evaluators' levels of benevolent sexism, varying based on the gender of the evaluators?	No
40. Does the effect of evaluators' benevolent sexism on offered wage ranges for candidates vary based on the gender of the evaluators?	No
41. Are performance expectations for candidates influenced by evaluators' levels of benevolent sexism, with potential variations based on the gender of the evaluators?	No
42. Does the impact of evaluators' benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations for candidates vary based on the gender of the evaluators?	No
43. Are candidates' employability scores influenced by evaluators' levels of hostile sexism, varying based on the gender of the evaluators?	No
44. Does the effect of evaluators' hostile sexism on offered wage ranges for candidates vary based on the gender of the evaluators?	No
45. Are performance expectations for candidates influenced by evaluators' levels of hostile sexism, with potential variations based on the gender of the evaluators?	No
46. Does the impact of evaluators' hostile sexism on job motivation expectations for candidates vary based on the gender of the evaluators?	No

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of the candidate's physical attractiveness, candidate's gender, and the congruence between the candidate's gender and occupation in personnel selection related decisions such as the candidate's level of employability, the wage range offered to the candidate, performance expectation towards the candidate, and the job motivation expectation towards the candidate. In addition, another aim was to examine the effect of evaluators' level of benevolent and hostile sexism on personnel selection decisions. Furthermore, the moderating effects of candidates' gender and gender-congruence of the occupations on the relationship between evaluators' benevolent and hostile sexism and candidates' level of employability, offered wage range, performance expectation and job motivation expectation were examined.

It is important to address these issues of gender bias in recruitment and selection processes, as they can significantly impact the overall diversity and equity of the workforce. This is especially important given the increasing emphasis on diversity and inclusion in today's workplace. In addition to addressing gender bias, it is essential to promote and encourage diversity in all its forms, including gender, race, ethnicity, and sexual orientation. By creating a more diverse and equitable workforce, organizations may benefit from the unique perspectives and talents of their employees and create a more inclusive and innovative workplace culture.

One of the main contributions of the present study to the literature was investigating the effects of candidates' physical attractiveness and gender-congruence of the occupations on personnel selection decisions in a non-Western context, namely, Türkiye. As expected, when comparing employability levels, offered wage ranges, performance expectations, and job motivation expectations; more attractive candidates got higher scores than less attractive candidates. This finding is similar to the results

of Dipboye et al. (1975), Pansu and Dubois (2002), Hosoda et al. (2003), Dossinger et al. (2019), and Baker and Allen (2022), which concluded that more attractive candidates are considered more advantageous in personnel selection processes. Similarly, physical attractiveness is associated with a positive bias in offered salary, hiring rates, and post-hiring performance evaluations (Cash et al. 1977; Dipboye et al. 1975; Dipboye et al. 1976). Shahani-Denning (2003) also emphasized that physically attractive individuals are in a much more advantageous position in success and performance evaluations. In addition, although attractive men and unattractive women were evaluated based on the test scores they received, job interviews of attractive women were always positively evaluated independent of the test scores they got. This result highlights the advantages of conforming to traditional beauty standards for female candidates in job assessments. Thus, future studies should be encouraged to explore the relationship between gender and physical attractiveness in more detail.

Likewise, candidates with gender-congruent occupations scored higher than candidates with gender-incongruent jobs in all personnel selection related decisions. As expected, this result is in line with the findings of Jahawar and Mattson (2005), Garcia-Retamero and López-Zafra (2006), Clow et al. (2014), and Liebkind (2016), which presented that individuals who did not have gender-congruent occupations were more disadvantaged in various decisions including recruitment. Schmidt and Hunter (1998) recommended highly structured interviews in job interviews to minimize biases towards applicants in gender-incongruent occupations. Subsequently, Pogrebtsova et al. (2019) found that in a male-dominated job field, structured interviews prevented men from being favored over women. In a different approach to gender-congruence in the literature, the “beauty is beastly” effect, coined by Heilman and Saruwatari (1979), suggests that attractive candidates evaluated for gender-incongruent roles are perceived more negatively compared to unattractive candidates. Therefore, it is believed that future studies conducting a detailed investigation based on both the gender-congruence levels of professions and the physical attractiveness levels of candidates would contribute to the literature.

Contrary to expectations, the effect of candidate's gender on employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectation, and job motivation expectation was not significant. This finding contradicts Terborg and Ilgen's (1975) finding that

women receive lower salary offers than men for the same job. Similarly, this finding is not in line with Jackson et al. (2001) who found that women received less recruitment recommendations than men in a recruitment simulation. One of the reasons for this contradictory result may be that women are more discriminated by age and physical attractiveness, as emphasized by Gao (2008). Another explanation related to the offered wage ranges is that in Türkiye, wages are usually fixed on the occupational title or position, especially in public sector, which make them independent of the gender of the candidate. On the other hand, Rubini and Menegatti (2014) and Bosak and Sczesny (2011) attributed women's disadvantage in organizational settings and recruitment simulations to the gender of the evaluator. However, the moderating effect of the gender of the evaluator on the relationship between the gender of the candidate on employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectation for the candidate and job motivation expectation for the candidate was not significant. As a result, a more detailed examination of the relationship between the gender of the candidate, the gender of the evaluator and personnel selection decisions in future studies will contribute to the literature.

The results of the analyses in which the gender of the candidate is examined as a moderator variable in the relationship between evaluators' sexism and the outcome variables are contrary to expectations. As expected in *Hypotheses 2a* and *3a*, participants with higher benevolent sexism level/hostile sexism level assigned lower employability scores to candidates overall, however candidate gender did not significantly impact this relationship. This result suggests that assessors' level of benevolent sexism and hostile sexism put all candidates at a position of disadvantage. However, Good and Rudman (2009) reported that in job interviews conducted by individuals with highly benevolent sexist attitudes, women were seen as weaker and subjected to more disadvantageous decisions. In particular, evaluators who scored high on benevolent sexism emphasized that female candidates for managerial positions were perceived to be less employable. Therefore, for future studies, it is necessary to determine in more detail whether the occupation chosen should be a managerial position or not. Contrary to expectations, findings also suggest that employability scores are consistent across genders, challenging assumptions about differential effects.

Similarly, for *Hypothesis 2b* and *3b*, the analysis did not support the idea that benevolent sexism/hostile sexism influences offered wage ranges, and candidate's gender did not moderate this relationship. These findings suggest that benevolent sexism and hostile sexism may not lead to giving special wage range offer, emphasizing the importance of understanding compensation decisions in a more detailed way. In contrast to this finding, as Barreto and Ellemers (2005) emphasize, benevolent sexism as an implicit form of discrimination is harmful for women because it supports gender hierarchy and prevents women for certain roles. Considering that benevolent sexism attitudes cannot be completely separated from hostile sexism attitudes (Glick and Fiske 2001), the nonsignificant results related to the gender of the candidate become even more surprising and future studies on this issue are inevitable.

In terms of performance expectations (*Hypothesis 2c* and *3c*), higher benevolent sexism/hostile sexism levels were associated with lower performance expectations overall, with no significant moderation by candidate's gender. This implies that the underestimated performance expectations associated with benevolent sexism/hostile sexism are consistent across genders, raising questions about its broader implications for career advancement.

For expected job motivation (*Hypothesis 2d* and *3d*), participants with higher benevolent sexism level/hostile sexism level expected lower job motivation levels from candidates in general, however candidate's gender did not moderate this association. These findings indicate that impact of benevolent sexism and hostile sexism on expected job motivation is consistent, irrespective of the candidate's gender, prompting further exploration into the consequences for workplace dynamics. The non-significant moderation effects highlight the robust impact of benevolent sexism and hostile sexism on evaluative judgments, emphasizing the importance of addressing such biases in organizational contexts for fair decision-making. An interesting finding in the literature is from Chawla and Gabriel (2022). They found that women who were exposed to benevolent sexist behaviors in job interviews experienced more anxiety in their next job search. This finding raises the possibility that with increased anxiety in women, job motivation and performance at work may also decrease. Thus, women who are exposed to benevolent sexist behaviors may indeed be perceived to be weaker,

less motivated, and lower performing in the future. Therefore, it is suggested that future studies should also investigate the candidate's mood during job interviews.

Another explanation may be related to the design of the present study. More specifically, since presenting all conditions at the same time to the participants would be highly overwhelming in terms of filling out the study questionnaire, the gender of the fake candidate was the between-subjects variable in the present study. That is, participants either evaluated a female candidate or a male candidate during the study. Gender of the candidate might have moderated the relationship between the evaluators' sexism levels and the outcome variables if the evaluators (participants) were presented both female and male candidates at the same time in the study questionnaire. In Hiçcan's (2023), which has a similar design with this study, non-significant results were found for the gender variable used as between-subjects variable and it was emphasized that these results may stem from the similar design of the study. For this reason, it is recommended that using gender as a within-subjects variable in future studies may reveal the moderating effect of target gender on the relationship between sexist attitudes and outcome variables.

The findings of the analyses examining the moderating role of the congruence of the candidate's gender and occupation support Eagly and Karau's (2002) role congruity theory. As expected, when the candidate's gender and occupation were not perceived as congruent, evaluators with higher levels of benevolent and hostile sexism made more negative judgments about the candidates than those who scored low on benevolent and hostile sexism. Consistently, Jahawar and Mattson (2005) found that candidates applying for gender-incongruent occupations were less likely to be hired than candidates applying for gender-congruent occupations. Similarly, García-Retamero and López-Zafra's (2006) finding that women working in occupations that were not perceived as suitable for women were evaluated in a more negative and prejudiced manner was supported by the finding that women applying for gender-incongruent occupations were offered lower wages than women applying for gender-congruent occupations in this study. Almquist et al. (1977), and Glick and Fiske (1996; 2001) reported that such gender-based discrimination was mostly perpetrated by individuals with sexist attitudes. The findings of the present study are in line with this view. As a different perspective in the literature, Shirazi et al. (2002) emphasized that

gender pay gaps are more likely to be caused by sexism and it is not likely to be based on the number of men and women working in a particular occupation (a form of gender-congruence). Moreover, Johnson et al. (2014) emphasized the increased discrimination faced by physically attractive women candidates applying for masculine positions. This highlights the significance of not only the gender-congruence of professions but also the physical attractiveness of the candidate.

Assessors with high levels of benevolent sexism gave lower employability scores and offered lower wage ranges for candidates with gender-incongruent occupations. However, contrary to expectations, evaluators with high levels of hostile sexism did not offer lower wage ranges for candidates with gender-incongruent occupations. This finding contradicts Hideg and Ferris' (2016) finding that individuals with high levels of benevolent sexism adopt more egalitarian policies in recruitment processes than individuals with high levels of hostile sexism when the role is gender-congruent (e.g; feminine occupation for females). These results also challenge the idea that participants' levels of hostile sexism and gender-congruence significantly affect wage range offers in this context. The interaction effect's p-value was close to the conventional threshold ($p = .07$), suggesting the need for further exploration in future studies. The low overall explained variance ($R^2 = .03$) indicates other unconsidered factors may be likely to influence wage range offers, highlighting the complex interplay between attitudes, gender, and economic decisions in this scenario.

The finding that candidates with gender-incongruent occupations have lower expected performance and job motivation supports Fiske et al.'s (2002) suggestion that individuals working in gender-congruent occupations are perceived as more competent than those working in gender-incongruent occupations. Similarly, Rojahn and Willemsen (1994) and Cejka and Eagly (1999) emphasized that the perception of individuals as successful varies according to the congruence of the occupation with gender. The results of this study have taken these findings one step further. Evaluators with higher levels of benevolent and hostile sexism made more negative evaluations about the performance and job motivation of candidates with gender-incongruent occupations. This finding demonstrates the negative effects of benevolent and hostile sexism on personnel selection related decisions.

The results of the exploratory analysis of the study also provide support for the effects of the moderating role of physical attractiveness in the literature. More specifically, the physical attractiveness of the candidate moderated the relationship between benevolent sexism and employability only for unattractive candidates. This raises concerns about the possibility of hiring decisions being influenced more by looks than actual qualifications especially when the evaluator scores high on benevolent sexism and the candidate scores low on attractiveness. In an early study, Sigelman et al. (1986) found that men consciously or unconsciously had more sexist attitudes towards female candidates than women and therefore favor male candidates more than female candidates. In addition, it was also found that attractive men were in a more advantageous position than attractive women. Therefore, future studies should also consider the interaction effects of evaluators' gender and candidates' gender on the selection decisions.

Likewise, the interaction between attractiveness and benevolent sexism when deciding offered wage ranges adds an interesting complexity to the process of establishing wages. People with high benevolent sexism levels tended to offer better pay for attractive candidates. On the other side, those with low benevolent sexism levels were also more generous to attractive candidates. Similarly, those with both high and low levels of benevolent sexism offered lower wage ranges to unattractive candidates. This suggests that attractive candidates might be favored in salary negotiations, potentially contributing to pay differences. More interestingly, evaluators who scored high on benevolent sexism offered the highest wage ranges to highly attractive candidates and the lowest wage ranges to unattractive candidates. On the other hand, evaluators who scored low on benevolent sexism offered higher wage ranges to unattractive candidates than those who scored high on benevolent sexism. They also offered lower wage ranges to attractive candidates than the participants with high scores on benevolent sexism. In Cash and Kilcullen's (1985) study, sex-typed people (with more masculine or feminine stereotypical attitudes) gave more hiring recommendations for attractive candidates than people with more neutral attitudes. Moreover, they gave more disadvantageous evaluations to unattractive candidates. However, contrary to what was expected, the study found no difference in sexism attitudes between sex-typed evaluators and neutrals. In addition, sex-typed individuals

were found to have significantly higher levels of beautyism [i.e., making social judgments based on physical attractiveness/beauty (Cash and Kilcullen 1985)] and were noted to place more importance on physical attractiveness. Considering the relationship between gender role attitudes and sexism, it appears that individuals with sexist attitudes may also have a favoritism towards physical attractiveness. Similarly, Marvelle and Green (1980) reported that attractive candidates were evaluated more favorably than unattractive candidates in recruitment processes. However, it is emphasized that this positive evaluation only occurs when the candidate applies for a position that is perceived to be appropriate for their gender. Therefore, this behavior, which may be an example of a sexist attitude, is another support for sexist individuals' favoritism towards physical attractiveness.

The findings on performance expectations shed light on the possible consequences of benevolent sexism on how people perceive candidates' abilities. High benevolent sexism levels were linked to lower performance expectations for unattractive candidates. This suggests that individuals with benevolent sexist beliefs might unknowingly create a situation where biased expectations lead to less favorable performance evaluations for certain candidates. Organizations should be mindful of these dynamics to ensure fair and accurate assessments of employees' capabilities. Lastly, the impact of benevolent sexism on job motivation expectations, especially concerning candidate's attractiveness, indicates that physical appearance might influence how people see job motivation. Those with high benevolent sexism levels expected lower job motivation from unattractive candidates, highlighting the potential for unfair judgments based on appearance. Cassidy and Krendl (2019) revealed that individuals with high levels of benevolent sexism made more negative evaluations of women's competencies than those who scored low on benevolent sexism. In Uyar's (2011) analysis, it was noted that people with high levels of benevolent sexism found female candidates more suitable for an organization with declining performance. This is another result that shows the negative effects of benevolent sexism on women's performance evaluations. There are also studies showing that the actual capacities of women exposed to benevolent sexism in the workplace are reduced (e.g. Dardenne et al. 2007). For example, Shepherd et al. (2010) found that women who were exposed to benevolent sexism made more comparisons about their physical appearance by

remembering traditional gender roles and beauty standards in society. Moreover, Latu et al. (2015) reported that the performance of female candidates was indirectly affected by male evaluators with gender biases. Based on this finding, it should be kept in mind that benevolent sexist behaviors in the workplace may cause a self-fulfilling prophecy by reducing women's job motivation and job performance.

The absence of significant results regarding hostile sexism suggests potential differences in its impact compared to benevolent sexism on employment-related outcomes. One explanation may be that the overtly negative and antagonistic nature of hostile sexism might not translate into observable biases in the specific employment contexts explored. Dardenne et al. (2007) found that benevolent sexism is more dangerous for women's performance evaluations at workplace than hostile sexism. The multifaceted nature of employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectations, and job motivation expectations could also contribute to the non-significant findings, indicating a need for a more nuanced examination or inclusion of additional outcomes in future studies. Complex interactions between hostile sexism and physical attractiveness may be context-dependent or contingent on unexplored factors. Cultural, organizational, or regional differences might influence how hostile sexism manifests in the workplace. Incorporating diverse samples and exploring alternative measures of hostile sexism could enhance the generalizability of findings. Additionally, investigating temporal aspects and how attitudes evolve over time or in response to organizational interventions could provide valuable insights into the dynamic nature of hostile sexism in employment contexts.

This study also provides insights into the intricate relationship between sexism, attractiveness, gender stereotypes, and candidate evaluations. One key finding is the differential impact of benevolent and hostile sexism on candidate-related outcomes. While benevolent sexism showed consistent effects across various conditions, hostile sexism revealed more nuanced patterns, particularly concerning attractiveness and gender congruence in job roles. The results underscore the disproportionate burden placed on highly attractive female candidates, especially when applying for roles traditionally associated with the opposite gender. Lizotte and Meggers-Wright (2019) found that attractive women who were candidates for political occupations perceived as gender-incongruent for women were evaluated more negatively than attractive men.

This suggests that attractiveness may exacerbate the negative effects of hostile sexism, potentially leading to biased evaluations and reduced opportunities for these candidates. This finding highlights the importance of addressing both gender biases and appearance-based stereotypes in candidate evaluations to ensure fair and equitable treatment. Furthermore, the interaction between hostile sexism and gender-congruence of job roles significantly influence job motivation expectations. Candidates in roles that defy gender stereotypes are particularly vulnerable to the detrimental effects of hostile sexism on job motivation. Anderson (2018) emphasized that employees in professions that do not fit traditional roles are evaluated more negatively, especially by managers with sexist attitudes. In addition, female employees, especially in gender-incongruent occupations, demand feedback from their managers in order to be perceived as more competent in the workplace, which leads them to have lower likability by their managers (Anderson 2018: 68). These findings emphasize the need for organizations to address gender biases not only in hiring and pay but also in fostering a supportive work environment where all employees feel valued and motivated. Practically, these findings suggest the importance of implementing measures to mitigate the influence of hostile sexism in candidate evaluations, especially in contexts where gender stereotypes are salient. Organizations should prioritize promoting diversity and inclusion initiatives to combat bias and create a more equitable workplace.

The MANCOVA results revealed that the interaction between attractiveness, gender, and gender-congruence did not significantly affect any of the dependent variables. Specifically, the triple interaction showed no significant influence on employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectations, or job motivation expectations. These findings suggest that, when controlling for evaluators' levels of benevolent and hostile sexism, the combined effect of these candidate characteristics does not substantially alter evaluative outcomes. These results highlight the complexity of candidate evaluation processes and suggest that other factors, beyond the examined variables, might play a more critical role in shaping evaluators' judgments. It is possible that individual biases, organizational culture, or other contextual factors could be more influential in determining these outcomes. Future

research should consider exploring additional variables and contexts to further understand the dynamics of candidate evaluation.

The last moderation analysis results showed that the gender of the evaluator did not significantly moderate the relationship between benevolent and hostile sexism and any of the candidate evaluation outcomes. Reilly et al. (2017) also investigated the moderating role of the gender of the evaluator in the study in which female and male interns' abilities were evaluated by benevolent and hostile sexist evaluators and did not find significant results. These findings suggest that the biases introduced by benevolent and hostile sexism in candidate evaluations are pervasive and do not depend on the evaluator's gender. This highlights the importance of addressing these forms of sexism in organizational contexts through comprehensive training and policy interventions that target all evaluators, irrespective of gender.

4.1. PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS AND SUGGESTIONS

The results of this study show how the sexist attitudes of those in charge of personnel selection processes, such as subject matter experts (SMEs), human resources specialists, unit chiefs or organizational managers, as well as those who conduct performance appraisals within the organization, can have a negative impact on selection decisions. Individuals with sexist attitudes may make discriminatory decisions by prejudging candidates in recruitment and selection processes simply because they do not perceive candidates' occupations as gender-congruent or do not perceive candidates' physical appearance as attractive. Not only against candidates in recruitment processes, but also during the performance evaluation of current employees in the organization, employees may be discriminated against simply because their occupation is not perceived as gender-congruent or their physical appearance is perceived as unattractive. In the organization, such glass ceilings may be an obstacle for some employees in terms of promotion, bonuses or salary increases. People involved in personnel selection and evaluation should be free from discrimination not only on the basis of gender, but also on the basis of religion, language, race, age, sexual orientation, political opinion, physical disability and etc. It is recommended that future studies investigate the impact of such discrimination on personnel selection and appraisal decisions.

According to Article 5 of the Labor Law No. 4857 of the Republic of Turkey, entitled the principle of equality, “No discrimination based on language, race, sex, political opinion, philosophical belief, religion and sect and similar reasons shall be made in the employment relationship.” (Labor Law Article 5: 4). According to this article, the employer is obliged to protect its employees from all forms of discrimination. Otherwise, the organization and decision-makers may even be sued for discrimination. For this reason, trainings should be provided to increase diversity and equity in organizations. Otherwise, an organization that harbors different forms of mistreatment, including gender discrimination, is inevitably under threat, both economically and in terms of general well-being (Sümer 2022). In our country, unfortunately, despite the prevalence of all forms of mistreatment in organizations, there is no effective intervention program except Sümer et al.’s (2022) “Workplace Mistreatment Awareness Training”. Hunt et al. (2010, *as cited in* Sümer 2022) emphasized that the most important step that can be taken before mistreatment occurs in organizations is initiating preventive strategies that aim to raise awareness. These types of strategies should include an information and awareness raising training that starts with a needs analysis and then both deters the perpetrator of mistreatment and encourages potential victims to report the mistreatment in addition to teaching them coping strategies. Hunt et al. (2010, *as cited in* Sümer 2022) also emphasized the need for organizations to have a formal unit that employees might contact after mistreatment has occurred. In addition, victims need to be supported and assured that the grievance mechanism operates in a fair manner. Finally, the provision of a service such as a psychosocial support unit within the organization to enable individuals who have been subjected to mistreatment in organizations to cope with this negative experience better is among the therapeutic interventions of mistreatment (Sümer 2022). In organizations, even simply raising knowledge and awareness about mistreatment including gender discrimination and sexism may lead to attitudinal change in individuals, supporting both behavioral change and increasing their coping skills against possible mistreatment.

In summary, it is crucial for future research to investigate the various forms of discrimination in organizations. By uncovering the detailed impacts of these discriminatory actions, researchers can help create targeted programs to intervene and

prevent such practices. These efforts are important not only for fostering a better mental well-being in the workplace but also for boosting employee productivity. In the end, the organization's success greatly benefits from these initiatives, highlighting the utmost importance of tackling and reducing workplace discrimination.

4.2. LIMITATIONS AND CONCLUSION

While this study contributes valuable insights into the effects of candidates' physical attractiveness, candidates' gender, and congruence between candidates' gender and occupation on personnel selection decisions, it is essential to acknowledge certain limitations. Firstly, the study's reliance on hypothetical scenarios may not fully capture the complexities of real-world recruitment and selection processes. The artificial nature of the semi-experimental design might have influenced participant responses which would be different in actual workplace situations. Additionally, the study may not have covered all potential variables that could influence personnel selection decisions, and there may be unexplored contextual factors that play a role in shaping evaluators' judgments. Another limitation pertains to the generalizability of the results, as the study focused on specific industries, occupations, and was conducted in Turkish cultural contexts. The effects observed could vary across different organizational settings and diverse populations, warranting caution in applying these findings universally. Moreover, the study predominantly relies on self-report measures, which could be subject to social desirability bias, potentially impacting the accuracy of participants' responses. Future research should consider incorporating more diverse samples and real-world recruitment scenarios or settings to enhance the external validity of the findings.

In conclusion, this study provides valuable insights into the dynamics of personnel selection decisions concerning candidates' physical attractiveness, gender, and gender-congruence of the occupation. The results underscore the significant impact of these factors on employability scores, offered wage ranges, performance expectations, and job motivation expectations. Notably, the study reveals the pervasive influence of benevolent and hostile sexism on evaluative judgments, emphasizing the need for organizations to address these biases to ensure fair decision-making processes. However, the study also highlights certain unexpected findings, such as the

non-significant impact of candidate's gender on personnel selection decisions. These nuances suggest that the relationship between gender and employability outcomes is complex and may be influenced by various factors. The moderating effects of candidate's gender and gender-congruence of the job on the relationship between evaluator's sexism level and personnel selection decisions further underscore the intricate nature of these dynamics. In light of these findings, organizations should be vigilant about combating gender bias in recruitment and personnel selection processes. The study suggests practical implications, emphasizing the importance of training programs to raise awareness about gender-based discrimination and promoting diversity in organizational practices. Addressing these issues is not only crucial for creating a more inclusive and equitable workplace but also for enhancing overall organizational success and employee well-being. Future research should delve deeper into the intricacies of gender bias and sexism in personnel selection, exploring additional factors and interventions to promote fairness and diversity in organizational contexts.

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APPENDIX A

KATILIMCI ONAM FORMU

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu çalışma, Çankaya Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü Sosyal ve Örgütsel Psikoloji Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Psk. Eda MAT tarafından, Prof. Dr. Aslı GÖNCÜ-KÖSE danışmanlığında yürütülen yüksek lisans tezi kapsamında yapılmaktadır. Çalışmanın amacı, değerlendiricilerin cinsiyetçiliğinin, adayların çekiciliğinin, cinsiyetinin ve cinsiyete uygun bir mesleğe sahip olup olmamasının personel seçimi kararları üzerindeki etkisini araştırmaktır.

Bu çalışmaya katılım tamamıyla gönüllülük esasına dayanmaktadır. Çalışmada fiziksel veya psikolojik olarak size zarar verecek herhangi bir aşama bulunmamaktadır. Katılım sırasında herhangi bir nedenden ötürü kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz çalışmayı istediğiniz anda bırakmakta serbestsiniz. Ancak, çalışmanın amacına ulaşılması için çalışmaya sonuna kadar katılmanız önemlidir.

Anketin cevaplanmasında süre sınırlaması yoktur. Anketin doldurulması, katılımcının okuma hızına bağlı olarak değişmekle birlikte yaklaşık 3-5 dakika sürmektedir. Hiçbir sorunun doğru veya yanlış cevabı yoktur. Sizin içtenlikle vereceğiniz cevaplar bizim için en yararlı olanlardır. Lütfen her soruyu dikkatle okuyunuz ve hiçbir soruyu yanıtsız bırakmayınız. Çalışmaya yalnızca 18 yaşından büyük olan kişiler katılabileceklerdir.

Verdiğiniz bilgiler gizli tutulacak ve sadece araştırmacılar tarafından değerlendirilecektir. Elde edilecek bilgiler yalnızca bilimsel yayınlarda kullanılacak, kesinlikle hiçbir kişi veya kurumla paylaşılmayacaktır. Çalışmanın verileri anonim bir şekilde analiz edilecektir.

Çalışmamıza katılımınız ve yaptığınız katkı bizim için çok değerlidir. Bu çalışmaya katılmaya zaman ayırdığınız için teşekkür ederiz. Herhangi bir sorunuz veya şüphemiz varsa, lütfen iletişim adreslerinden iletişime geçmekten çekinmeyin.

APPENDIX B

ANKET PAKETİ-PİLOT ÇALIŞMA

Lütfen aşağıda sunulan her bir mesleğin toplumumuzda ne derecede kadın mesleği/erkek mesleği olarak görüldüğünü değerlendiriniz.

[illegible]

APPENDIX C

ANKET PAKETİ-ANA ÇALIŞMA

Sahte Özgeçmiş Bölümü Örneği

Aşağıda, bir kişinin özgeçmişinden bir bölüm yer almaktadır. Lütfen verilen özgeçmiş bölümünü dikkatlice inceleyiniz. Bir sonraki bölümde, size özgeçmişinden bir bölüm verilen aday ile ilgili sorular sorulacaktır. Verilen özgeçmiş bölümünü yeterince inceledikten sonra bir sonraki bölüme geçiniz.



Meslek: Okul Öncesi Öğretmeni

İş Tecrübesi: 4 yıl

Bölüm: Eğitim Fakültesi Okul Öncesi Öğretmenliği

Mezuniyet Ortalaması: 70 / 100

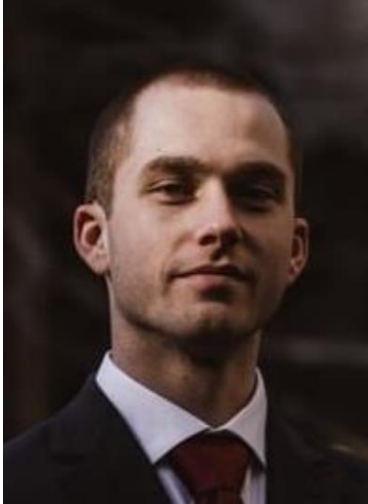
Sahte Özgeçmiş Bölümünde Kullanılan Görseller



Çekici kadın aday



Çekici olmayan kadın aday



Çekici erkek aday



Çekici olmayan erkek aday

APPENDIX D

İSTİHDAM EDİLEBİLİRLİK DEĞERLENDİRME ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen size gösterilen özgeçmiş bölümündeki adayı göz önüne alarak adayın mesleğindeki pozisyon için bir personel seçeceğinizi düşününüz. Ardından aşağıdaki her bir maddeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve aşağıdaki değerlendirme ölçeğine göre aday için en uygun olduğunu düşündüğünüz seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Çok düşük	Çoğunlukla düşük	Kısmen düşük	Kararsızım	Kısmen yüksek	Çoğunlukla yüksek	Çok yüksek
1- Adayı mülakata çağırma olasılığımız nedir?							
2- Adayın işe alınmasını tavsiye etme olasılığımız nedir?							
3- Eğer bu pozisyon için işe alınırsa; bu adayın başarılı olma olasılığı nedir?							
4- Adayın özgeçmişi ile ilgili her şeyi göz önünde bulundurduğunuzda, adayla ilgili genel değerlendirmeniz nedir?							

APPENDIX E

DİĞER SORULAR

Aşağıdaki soruların her birini dikkatlice okuyunuz ve özgeçmiş bölümünü incelediğiniz adayı düşünerek cevaplandırınız.

Maaş Aralığı

Adaya teklif etmek için hangi maaş aralığını düşünürdünüz?	
8500 ₺ (asgari ücret)	
8501 ₺ - 13000 ₺	
13001 ₺ - 18000 ₺	
18001 ₺ - 23000 ₺	
23001 ₺ - 28000 ₺	
28001 ₺ - 33000 ₺	
33001 ₺ - 38000 ₺	
38001 ₺ - 43000 ₺	
43001 ₺ - 48000 ₺	
48001 ₺ - 53000 ₺	
53001 ₺ veya daha yüksek	

Performans Beklentisi

Bu adayın işe alındıktan sonraki performansının nasıl olacağını düşünüyorsunuz?	
1 (Çok düşük)	
2 (Çoğunlukla düşük)	
3 (Kısmen düşük)	
4 (Kararsızım)	
5 (Kısmen yüksek)	
6 (Çoğunlukla yüksek)	
7 (Çok yüksek)	

İş Motivasyonu Beklentisi

Bu adayın iş için ne kadar motivasyona sahip olduğunu düşünüyorsunuz?	
1 (Çok düşük)	
2 (Çoğunlukla düşük)	
3 (Kısmen düşük)	
4 (Kararsızım)	
5 (Kısmen yüksek)	
6 (Çoğunlukla yüksek)	
7 (Çok yüksek)	

APPENDIX F

ÇELİŞİK DUYGULU CİNSİYETÇİLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen her bir maddeyi dikkatlice okuyunuz ve aşağıdaki değerlendirme ölçeğine göre kendiniz için en uygun olan seçeneği işaretleyiniz.

	1	2	3	4	5	6
	Tamamen katılıyorum	Çoğunlukla katılıyorum	Kısmen katılıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılmıyorum	Kesinlikle katılmıyorum
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 alınır.						
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 sağlığa sahiptir.						
9- Kadınlar erkekler tarafından el üstünde tutulmalı ve korunmalıdır.						
10- Birçok kadın erkeklerin kendileri için yaptıklarına tamamen minnettar olmaktadır.						
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 abartmaktadır.						
15- Bir kadın bir erkeğin bağlılığını kazandıktan sonra genellikle erkeğe sıkı, bir yular takmaya çalışır.						
16- Adaletli bir yarışmada kadınlar erkeklerle karşı kaybettikleri zaman tipik olarak kendilerinin ayrımcılığa maruz kaldıklarından yakınırlar.						
17- İyi bir kadın erkeği tarafından yüceltilmelidir.						
18- Erkekler 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 kendilerini gönüllü olarak feda etmelidirler.						
21- Feministler erkekler makul olmayan istekler sunmaktadır.						
22- Kadınlar erkeklerden daha ince bir kültür anlayışına ve zevkine sahiptirler.						

APPENDIX G

DEMOGRAFİK BİLGİ SORULARI

Aşağıdaki maddelerin her birini dikkatlice okuyunuz ve sizin için doğru olan şekilde cevaplandırınız.

1- Cinsiyetiniz:	Kadın () Erkek () Belirtmek istemiyorum ()
2- Yaşınız:	
3- Eğitim düzeyiniz (En son aldığınız derece):	İlköğretim () Lise () Ön Lisans () Lisans () Yüksek Lisans () Doktora ()
4- İş türünüz:	Beyaz yaka () Mavi Yaka ()
5- Şu anda çalıştığınız kurumda toplam çalışma süreniz (1 yıldan az ise lütfen ay olarak belirtiniz):	
6- İşiniz:	Yarı Zamanlı (Part-Time) () Tam Zamanlı (Full Time) ()
7- Çalıştığınız sektör:	Kamu () Özel () STK () Diğer ()
8- Kurumunuzun faaliyet gösterdiği iş kolu:	Eğitim () Sağlık ve Sosyal Hizmetler () Bankacılık, Finans, Sigorta () Teknoloji ve Bilgi () Savunma ve Güvenlik () Gıda Endüstrisi () Dokuma, Giyim ve Deri () Enerji () İnşaat ve Malzeme () Gayrimenkul () Otomotiv () Metal () Hızlı Tüketim Malları () Dayanıklı Tüketim Malları () Turizm () Toptan ve Perakende Ticaret ()) Medya, İletişim, Basın, Yayıncılık, ve Gazetecilik () Kültür, Sanat, Eğlence, Rekreasyon ve Spor () Konaklama ve Yemek Servisi () Nakliye, Sevkiyat ve Depolama () Petrol, Kimyasallar, Kauçuk, Plastik ve Eczacılık Ürünleri () Çimento, Toprak ve Cam () Avcılık, Balıkçılık, Tarım ve Ormancılık () Mesleki, Bilimsel ve Teknik Faaliyetler () İdari ve Destek Hizmetleri () Diğer ()
9- Yönetici pozisyonunda mı çalışıyorsunuz?	Evet () Hayır ()
10- Yönetici pozisyonunda çalışıyorsanız, yönetici olarak çalışma süreniz:	
11- Personel seçimi veya işe alımında deneyim sahibi misiniz?	Evet () Hayır ()