

Support for Gender Equality among Men Scale: Adaptation to Turkish culture

Esma Esen Çiftçi^{1*}, Esra Daşçı², Cansu Ayan³, Zeynep Uludağ⁴

¹Anadolu University, Faculty of Humanities, Department of Psychology, Eskişehir, Türkiye

²Forward College, Department of Psychology, Lisbon, Portugal

³Ankara University, Faculty of Educational Sciences, Department of Educational Sciences, Ankara, Türkiye

⁴Ardahan University, Faculty of Humanities and Letters, Department of Psychology, Ardahan, Türkiye

ARTICLE HISTORY

Received: Mar. 22, 2025

Accepted: July 8, 2025

Keywords:

Gender equality,
Participation of men in
gender equality,
Adaptation,
Support for gender
equality scale.

Abstract: Men's participation is an important indicator for achieving gender equality. The purpose of this study is to adapt the “Support for Gender Equality among Men Scale (SGEMS)” developed by Sudkamper *et al.* (2020) to Turkish. The scale examines men's support for gender equality in two sub-dimensions: public space and household. In the study, 419 cis-heterosexual men participated. The confirmatory factor analysis results, which were used for validity evidence, showed that the Turkish version of SGEMS had the same two-factor structure as the original form. To conduct criterion-based validity, the participants answered the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) and the Gender Equality in Turkish Men Scale (GEMS) along with the SGEMS. A significant negative correlation was found between the total score obtained from the SGEMS and the total score obtained from ASI, and a significant positive correlation between the total score obtained from SGEMS and the GEMS. While Cronbach's α internal consistency reliability coefficient for the entire SGEMS was .89, the internal consistency coefficients for the Public and Household subscales were .89 and .78, respectively. Finally, it was examined whether the scale showed measurement invariance for two different age groups, and it was found that configural metric and scalar invariance were achieved. In conclusion, the SGEMS has been introduced to the literature as a valid and reliable scale measuring men's support for gender equality in the Turkish sample.

1. INTRODUCTION

Despite numerous efforts to achieve gender equality, significant barriers remain, particularly regarding women's participation in the labor force and career advancement (Bear *et al.*, 2025; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2012), perpetuating economic inequalities. Additionally, women bear a disproportionate burden in domestic work (Cho *et al.*, 2025). Historically, gender inequality research has focused on women's empowerment as the solution (Belingheri *et al.*, 2021; Ryan & Kirby, 2018). While women's efforts are essential, achieving meaningful change requires the inclusion of men, who are key agents in perpetuating inequalities. Recent gender

*CONTACT: Esma Esen ÇİFTÇİ ✉ e.ciftci@anadolu.edu.tr 📍 Anadolu University, Faculty of Humanities, Department of Psychology, Eskişehir, Türkiye

The copyright of the published article belongs to its author under CC BY 4.0 license. To view a copy of this licence, visit <http://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/>

studies emphasize the importance of men's participation in gender equality for meaningful social change (Moser & Branscombe, 2022; van Laar *et al.*, 2024). Therefore, excluding men from these efforts is no longer viable.

Indeed, research suggests that instruments that measure women's attitudes and behaviors towards gender equality are insufficient to measure men's participation in gender equality because both men and women have different ways of supporting gender equality and the reactions they receive from others when they support gender equality are different (Anderson, 2009; Cihangir *et al.*, 2014; Drury & Kaiser, 2014). For this reason, Sudkamper *et al.* (2020) developed the Support for Gender Equality among Men Scale (SGEMS). The current study will examine the adaptation of this scale to Turkish.

1.1. Related Literature and Existing Scales on Men's Participation in Gender Equality

Participation in gender equality could be in the attitudinal dimension as well as in the behavioral dimension. While the attitudinal dimension may involve opposing sexist attitudes, the behavioral dimension may involve the tendency to actively exhibit behaviors that will eliminate sexism (Manstead & Parker, 1995). Most frequently used scales in the literature, such as the Liberal Feminist Attitudes and Ideology Scale (Morgan, 1996), Traditional-Egalitarian Gender Roles Scale (Larsen & Long, 1988), Attitudes towards Women Scale (Spence *et al.*, 1973), Gender Role Stereotypes Scale (Mills *et al.*, 2012), 'Gender Role Beliefs Scale' (Brown & Gladstone, 2012), typically reveals instruments that assess the attitudinal aspect of gender equality. In addition, the discussion regarding the measurement tools for gender equality is limited to the answers to the question 'how should gender equality be?'. However, there was no questioning about how men behave in situations of inequality.

Measuring only attitudes toward gender equality may be insufficient to fully assess participation in it, and there is a lack of scales focusing on men's behavioral actions to promote equality beyond attitudes (Ajzen, 1991; Branscombe & Deaux, 1991; Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001; Zucker, 2004). Therefore, there is a need to measure behavioral steps taken by men to ensure gender equality rather than attitudes developed against sexist ideologies or stereotypes (Ajzen & Sheikh, 2013; Brown & Gladstone, 2012).

Some studies do not aim to measure men's participation in gender equality, including behavioral measurements that will also serve this purpose. For example, Cihangir *et al.* (2014) measured whether male employees react on behalf of women exposed to gender inequality in the workplace. Similarly, Iyer and Ryan (2009) measured how much men support positive discrimination to ensure gender equality in the workplace. However, as mentioned earlier, there is still a need to develop a scale that measures behavioral disposition towards gender equality, focusing on men.

In addition, most studies have only analyzed men's contribution to gender equality in the workplace. However, four main points become evident in men's attitudes and behaviors towards achieving gender equality in public spaces: Men participate in political activities for gender equality (Iyer & Ryan, 2009; White, 2006); men object when they see gender inequality (Cihangir *et al.*, 2014; Eliezer & Major, 2011; Rasinski & Czopp, 2010); men develop discourse on gender equality (Kaufman & Kimmel, 2011; Lemaster *et al.*, 2015); men support a more inclusive organizational culture (Liff & Cameron, 1997). These findings demonstrate that men's efforts toward gender equality are not confined to professional settings but manifest in broader public and social contexts.

Moreover, studies that measure men's gender equality generally focus on gender equality in the workplace and mostly overlook the domestic factor (Iyer & Ryan, 2009). Within the household, men play a crucial role in promoting gender equality by treating their partners with respect (Frei & Shaver, 2002; Hendrick & Hendrick, 2006), sharing household chores equally (Deutsch, 1999; Dotti Sani, 2014; Kosakowska-Brezecka *et al.*, 2016), and sharing parenting and childcare tasks (Deutsch, 1999; Gartner, 2007; Haas, 2003). However, the existing studies often

require participants to document their engagement in household tasks through diary records (Achen & Stafford, 2005; Bianchi *et al.*, 2000; Craig *et al.*, 2016) or respond to direct questions regarding their participation in domestic responsibilities, such as the frequency of changing their child's diaper (Kato-Wallece *et al.*, 2014). Merely participating in household chores and childcare does not fully achieve gender equality at home. A truly equitable household requires a shift in power dynamics, shared decision-making, and a deeper commitment to dismantling ingrained gender norms that shape domestic responsibilities.

Given all this, SGEMS (Sudkamper *et al.*, 2020) is a psychometric instrument designed to assess men's behavioral intentions and attitudes toward gender equality, specifically in both public and domestic spheres. The scale measures men's participation in promoting gender equality through two primary sub-dimensions: involvement in gender equality in public spaces and within the household. It aims to capture men's support for gender equality behaviours and their alignment with gender-equal practices, distinguishing it from scales focusing solely on attitudes toward women or sexism.

1.2. Existing Scales on Men's Participation in Gender Equality in Turkey

While international literature explores men's participation in gender equality, social psychology research in Turkey lacks sufficient focus on this topic, with related studies primarily addressing violence against women and men's attitudes toward gender roles.

The scales of violence against women are Attitudes towards Violence against Women in Marriage Scale (Sakallı-Uğurlu & Ulu, 2003), Intimate Violence Responsibility Scale (Akin *et al.*, 2012), Attitudes towards Violence Honour Scale (Işık & Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2009), Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (Boyacıoğlu *et al.*, 2020), Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory (Cem-Ersoy *et al.*, 2017). However, these measurements include men's attitudes and behaviours related to violence against women, which is a sub-dimension of sexism. On the other hand, the SGEMS (Sudkamper *et al.*, 2020) measures how men contribute to the division of labor within the household and gender equality in public spaces; it doesn't include attitudes and behaviors towards violence against women's movements or tendencies.

Another group of measures focuses on measuring men's perceptions of gender roles are Masculine Gender Role Stress Scale (Bayar *et al.*, 2018), the Perceived Threat to Manhood Scale (Türkoğlu, 2013), and the Gender Roles Attitude Scale (Zeyneloğlu & Terzioğlu, 2011). In these studies, men's attitudes and perceptions towards gender roles are prioritised rather than the steps to be taken for gender equality and behavioral dimensions. These existing scales may provide preliminary information about men's participation in gender equality, but they do not measure the extent to which they participate.

1.3. Current Study

This study aims to adapt the SGEMS (Sudkamper *et al.*, 2020) to Turkish, a scale originally developed with heterosexual men in North America and the UK. The confirmatory factor analysis stated that the factor structure that best represents SGEMS consists of participation in gender equality in public and domestic places. Public Domain Sub-scale measures men's intentions and behaviors regarding gender equality in public and societal contexts such as work, politics, and public decision-making. Domestic Domain Sub-scale focuses on men's behavioral intentions and actions within the household, specifically related to the division of labor and involvement in domestic responsibilities such as housework and childcare. Together, these sub-scales assess men's participation in gender equality across public and domestic spheres.

In this context, one of the possible results expected in this study is as follows:

1. As in the original scale, the scale is expected to consist of two sub-dimensions in adapting the scale to the Turkish culture. In these sub-dimensions, it is expected that the first nine items in the scale will be grouped to form the sub-dimension of participation in gender

equality in the public sphere, and the remaining seven items will be grouped to form the sub-dimension of participation in gender equality in the household.

2. The overall score of the SGEMS, the domestic sub-dimension, and the public sub-dimension scores show a negative and statistically significant correlation with the Hostile Sexism sub-dimension and the Benevolent Sexism sub-dimension of ASI.

In the original development study, the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI: Glick & Fiske, 1996; Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002) was one of the main measurement tools used for criterion validity. The scale comprises two subscales: Hostile Sexism reflects negative, antagonistic attitudes towards women, emphasizing beliefs in women's inferiority and their roles as manipulative or demanding. Benevolent Sexism, while seemingly positive, encompasses patronizing attitudes towards women that reinforce traditional gender roles. It suggests that women are deserving of protection and care, reinforcing gender inequality through idealized, yet restrictive, perceptions of femininity. The SGEMS general, domestic, and public subscales showed a moderate negative correlation with Hostile Sexism, while correlations with Benevolent Sexism were negative but not statistically significant. As this study adapts the scale to Turkish culture, different results may emerge.

3. There will be a positive and statistically significant correlation between the scores obtained from each sub-dimension of the GEMS and the scores of participation in gender equality in the household of the SGEMS.

The Gender Equitable Men Scale (GEMS: Pulerwitz & Barker, 2008; Uçan & Baydur, 2016) was administered alongside the SGEMS. While both scales address gender-related issues, they differ fundamentally: the GEMS focuses on attitudes justifying violence against women and stereotypes about female roles, such as 'women should obey their husbands in all matters,' rather than measuring men's active participation in gender equality. In contrast, the SGEMS directly assesses men's involvement in fostering equality, both at home (e.g., 'I make all important decisions together with my partner') and in public spaces. Thus, while the GEMS complements the SGEMS in validation, it is insufficient to fully capture men's participation in gender equality across private and public domains.

The pre-registration of the study can be viewed on the OSF (Open Science Framework) page: <https://osf.io/9bu8g>.

2. METHOD

2.1. Participants

The sample consisted of only cisgender, heterosexual men over 18 from Turkey, selected using criterion sampling (Büyüköztürk *et al.*, 2008), as the original scale was developed for this group (Sudkamper *et al.*, 2020), and social psychological experiences differ between cisgender and trans men (American Psychological Association, 2015; Morgenroth & Ryan, 2018; Tate *et al.*, 2014). The study focused on heterosexual men, as the 'domestic' subscale is more relevant to those in romantic relationships with women (Sudkamper *et al.*, 2020). Data from participants under 18 or those who did not complete at least one item of the adapted SGEMS were excluded.

Following the recommendations of Catell (1978), Everitt (1975), and Kline (2013), the minimum number of participants per item was set at 20, resulting in a required sample size of 320 for the 16-item scale adaptation. The estimated effect size and power were based on the original scale development (Sudkamper *et al.*, 2020). Data were collected from 453 participants for the SGEMS adaptation study. Detailed information about the participants is provided in Table 1. Missing data and outlier analyses were conducted to prepare the data for analysis. Data from 11 participants who left all items unanswered were excluded. Multivariate normality was checked using Mahalanobis distance, revealing 23 outliers at the $p = .001$ significance level, which were also excluded. The final analysis included data from 419 participants, ages 18 to 70 ($M = 31.8$, $SD = 11.2$).

Table 1. *Participants' relationship, divorce, and household sharing statutes.*

		N	%
Relationship status	legally married.	152	36.2
	not legally married, but have a partner.	125	29.8
	neither married nor in a partnership.	141	34
Have you been divorced before	yes	16	4.7
	no	403	95.3
Household sharing status	living with spouse	142	33.5
	living with unmarried partner	9	2.3
	living with unrelated female housemates	3	0.9
	living with unrelated male housemates	26	6.3
	living with unrelated male and female housemates	1	0.5
	living with family	149	35.4
	living alone	89	21.1

2.2. Data Collection Tools

2.2.1. Support for gender equality amongst men scale

The SGEMS, developed by Sudkamper *et al.* (2020), includes 16 items rated on a 7-point Likert scale (1 represents "completely disagree" and 7 "completely agree."), with higher scores indicating greater support for gender equality. Their CFA with heterosexual cis-men from North America and the UK revealed a two-factor structure: public and domestic support.

The scale was translated into Turkish for cultural adaptation. The authors independently translated the scale, and the translations were compared for technical accuracy, word choice, readability, and comprehension. The Turkish version was then translated into English by two individuals: one a PhD student in Psychology at a UK university, and the other a lecturer with a PhD from a UK university, now working at a Turkish university. Two Turkish language experts were included to resolve discrepancies and finalize the scale items. The finalized Turkish version of the scale is available in the [Appendix 1](#).

2.2.2. Ambivalent sexism inventory

The ASI (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002) was administered alongside the SGEMS as a criterion measure. It includes 22 items across two sub-dimensions: hostile sexism (e.g., "Women exaggerate problems in the workplace") and benevolent sexism (e.g., "Women should be cherished and protected by men"). Participants rated items on a 6-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 6 = strongly agree), with higher scores indicating greater sexism.

The scale's adaptation study assessed validity through factor analysis and criterion-based validity by examining correlations with similar scales. Reliability was measured using Cronbach's alpha (.85) and test-retest correlation (.87). The ASI showed a .60 correlation with Burt's (1980) sex-role stereotyping measure, and its original factor structure was confirmed in the Turkish version.

2.2.3. The gender equality in Turkish men scale

The Gender Equitable Men Scale, first developed by Pulerwitz and Barker (2008) and updated by Nanda (2011), was adapted to Turkish by Uçan and Baydur (2016). The scale aims to measure men's attitudes towards gender inequality. The GEMS includes four sub-dimensions and 23 items in total. These are: domestic violence (6 items), assessing attitudes toward violence against wives/partners; sexual relationships (7 items), reflecting beliefs about male dominance in sexual matters; health and disease prevention (5 items), covering stigmatizing views on

sexual health; and household chores (5 items), addressing domestic roles and decision-making. Items are rated on a 3-point Likert scale (1 = *agree*, 2 = *somewhat agree*, 3 = *disagree*), with higher scores indicating greater support for gender equality.

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted to assess validity, confirming the original scale structure. The goodness-of-fit indices indicated an adequate model fit. The correlation of the scale with similar measures and the Cronbach's alpha coefficient were examined to evaluate reliability. The results revealed a moderate to strong correlation between the GEMS and other gender-related scales ($p < 0.05$). The overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient for the scale was .85, while the sub-dimension coefficients ranged from .41 to .78.

2.3. Data Collection

Ethics committee approval was obtained from Anadolu University Social Sciences and Humanities Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee. The participants were reached via social media and answered the demographic questionnaire, SGEMS, ASI, and GEMS, respectively. The analyses were conducted using SPSS and the Mplus package programmes. The data and materials of the study can be accessed from the following link: https://osf.io/rvamu/?view_only=eb79d4a20ecc40e5bf3596ee3c4d7b7d.

2.4. Data Analysis

For the Turkish adaptation of the SGEMS, a CFA was conducted to assess validity and test the fit of the original scale's two-factor structure (Hypothesis 1). In the estimations, since it was determined that the data met the multivariate normality condition as a result of the assumption checks, the Maximum Likelihood (ML) method, which is widely preferred in parameter estimation for data that meet the normality condition, was preferred (Kline, 2019). In order to evaluate the fit of the data to the predicted structure, comparative fit index (CFI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and standardized root mean square error of squares (SRMR) values were examined (Kline, 2019). CFI and TLI values $\geq .90$ and RMSEA and SRMR values $\leq .08$ were considered as acceptable goodness values (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Schermelleh-Engel *et al.*, 2003; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

For the validity study, the correlations between the scales measuring similar constructs and the data obtained from SGEMS were examined (Hypothesis 2 and Hypothesis 3). For the reliability study of the scale, internal consistency coefficients were calculated for the whole scale and the sub-dimensions. Since Cronbach's α coefficient shows bias in congeneric measurements, it is recommended to calculate McDonald's Omega (ω) coefficient, which produces more consistent results (Zinbarg *et al.*, 2005). In this context, both Cronbach's α and McDonald's Omega (ω) coefficients were reported for this scale.

Finally, to prove that the scale measures the same construct in different groups, the participants were divided into two groups using the 'age' information obtained from the participants in the demographic section. The age groups are those younger than 29 years old and those who are 29 years old and above. Emerging adulthood is a developmental stage proposed by Arnett (2000), typically spanning from ages 18 to 29. This phase is characterized by significant exploration in identity, relationships, career, and lifestyle choices, as individuals transition from adolescence to full adulthood (Arnett, 2000; Nelson & Barry, 2005). After the age of 29, people are considered to have entered adulthood. The multiple-group CFA measurement invariance model was tested to examine whether the scale shows measurement invariance for these two groups. For these two groups, it was gradually checked whether configural, metric, and scalar invariance was achieved. Brown (2015) states that in invariance checks with multiple group CFA, the CFA model should first be tested separately in each group. The CFA model was first tested separately for emerging adults (18-29) and adult (30 and over) groups, and the goodness of fit values were examined. Then, the measurement invariance steps were tested step by step. In the controls of the invariance steps, the observed change in chi-square, CFI, and RMSEA

values was analyzed. For measurement invariance, the observed change in chi-square values ($\Delta\chi^2$) should be insignificant ($p > .05$), the observed change in CFI values (ΔCFI) should be less than .01, and the observed change in RMSEA values (ΔRMSEA) should be less than .015 (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002).

The data set must meet certain assumptions for the validity and reliability analyses. In this context, multivariate and univariate normality, multicollinearity, multicollinearity and linearity checks of the data set were performed first to prove the relevant analyses could be used. For assumption controls, descriptive statistics, skewness (-0.789), and kurtosis (0.934) coefficients of the data set calculated to examine normality were examined, and it was seen that these values were within the range of (± 1). In addition, kurtosis and skewness also showed that histogram graphs were close to a normal distribution, and Q-Q Plot graphs followed a linear distribution, and it was accepted that the data showed a normal distribution with no significant deviation (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Bartlett's test of sphericity was performed for the multivariate normality assumption of the data, and it was determined that the multivariate normality condition was also met ($\chi^2_{(120)} = 3236.84, p < .001$). Multicollinearity checks of the data set and inter-item correlation values were calculated, and these values are presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Inter-item correlation coefficients.

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1	1	0.44	0.58	0.44	0.41	0.44	0.47	0.46	0.39	0.31	0.23	0.30	0.33	0.29	0.14	0.27
2		1	0.63	0.45	0.38	0.37	0.44	0.32	0.37	0.10	0.15	0.19	0.28	0.25	0.26	0.17
3			1	0.61	0.40	0.47	0.50	0.41	0.45	0.23	0.18	0.23	0.30	0.32	0.19	0.23
4				1	0.33	0.39	0.41	0.40	0.42	0.26	0.19	0.24	0.30	0.29	0.23	0.18
5					1	0.73	0.58	0.45	0.44	0.22	0.18	0.30	0.36	0.30	0.16	0.21
6						1	0.60	0.51	0.46	0.25	0.23	0.31	0.35	0.32	0.19	0.24
7							1	0.62	0.59	0.33	0.22	0.31	0.33	0.33	0.17	0.23
8								1	0.64	0.40	0.24	0.35	0.35	0.34	0.18	0.26
9									1	0.33	0.26	0.28	0.36	0.34	0.24	0.24
10										1	0.32	0.25	0.32	0.34	0.20	0.19
11											1	0.49	0.41	0.36	0.26	0.22
12												1	0.59	0.48	0.26	0.31
13													1	0.76	0.37	0.21
14														1	0.46	0.22
15															1	0.18
16																1

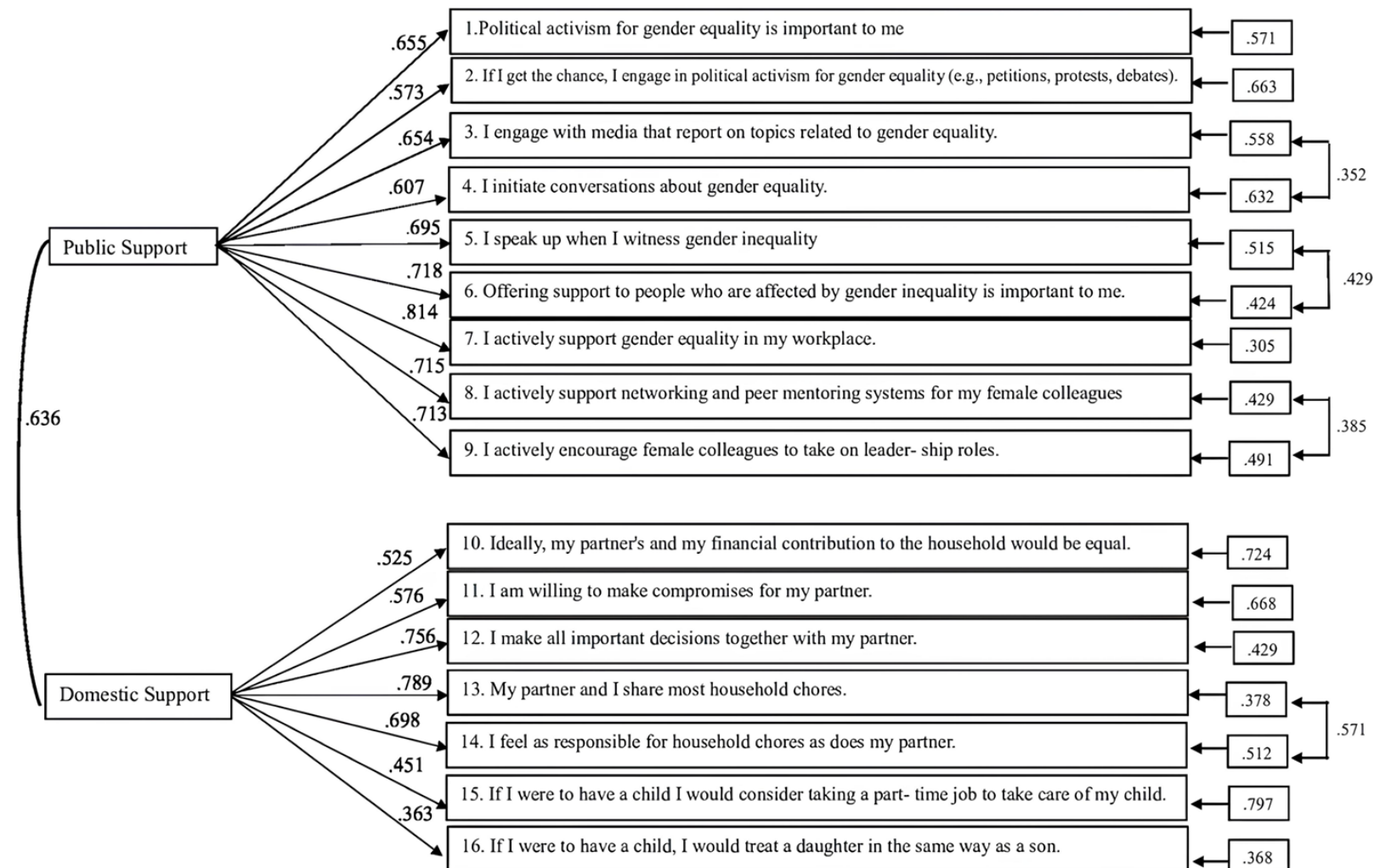
Table 2 shows that the correlation values vary between .14 - .76. There is no correlation value exceeding .90 in the data set; generally, the variables show moderate correlation with each other. Accordingly, there is no multicollinearity problem in the data set.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Results Related to Validity

3.1.1. Confirmatory factor analysis

As a result of the CFA conducted to confirm the two-factor structure that emerged in the original scale, the first goodness of fit values obtained for the model were estimated as $\chi^2/df = 599/103 = 5.81, p < .001$, CFI = .84, TLI = .82, RMSEA = .11 (90% CI: .09, .12), SRMR = .07. When these values were analyzed, it was seen that except SRMR, the other indices were not within the acceptable limits of goodness of model fit ($\chi^2/df < 3$, TLI and CFI $> .09$, RMSEA and SRMR $< .08$) (Kenny et al., 2015).

Figure 1. CFA diagram for SGEMS.

In this context, modification suggestions were analyzed. While selecting the ones to be applied among the modification proposals, the proposals with the highest MI values, the scale's original structure, and the experts' logical evaluations about the item contents were all examined together. In this context, it was decided to implement the 3 proposals with the highest MI values. These suggestions are the suggestions for defining a connection between items 3-item 4, item 5-item 6, items 13-item 14, and item 9-item 8 residuals. When the CFA application performed in the development of the scale was examined, it was seen that the same connections were established in the original development study of the scale. On the other hand, when the item contents were analyzed, it was seen that these item pairs were intended to measure quite similar variables. When all these analyses were evaluated holistically, it was decided to apply these modifications. The goodness of fit indices obtained after the modifications are as follows: $\chi^2/df = 328/99 = 3.31$, $p < .001$, CFI = .928, TLI = .913, RMSEA = .07 (90% CI: .06, .08), SRMR = .074. The coefficients of the tested model are presented in Table 3, and the CFA diagram is presented in Figure 1.

Table 3. SGEMS factor loadings.

Items	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	Item-Total Correlation	Public Support	Domestic Support
1	5.43	1.57	.66**	.65	
2	3.37	1.98	.62**	.58	
3	4.10	1.84	.70**	.66	
4	3.92	1.84	.64**	.61	
5	5.40	1.49	.65**	.69	
6	5.45	1.47	.69**	.72	
7	5.42	1.59	.72**	.83	
8	5.43	1.42	.69**	.71	
9	5.41	1.59	.69**	.71	
10	5.33	1.73	.52**	.31	.52
11	5.17	1.55	.49**		.58
12	5.76	1.28	.57**		.76
13	5.56	1.47	.66**		.79
14	5.65	1.51	.64**		.70
15	4.47	1.97	.47**		.45
16	6.25	1.39	.43**		.36
Eigenvalue				6.24	1.79
Explained variance (%)				38.99	11.22
Cronbach's α				.89	.78
McDonald's Omega				.90	.81

3.1.2. Criterion-based validity findings

The study aimed to assess the criterion-related validity of the SGEMS by examining the correlations between SGEMS scores and scores from the ASI and GEMS, both for sub-dimensions and total scores. Based on the constructs measured by the scales, negative significant correlations were expected between SGEMS and ASI scores, and positive significant correlations with GEMS. The correlation coefficients for the total scores and sub-dimensions are provided in Table 4.

As expected, the total score obtained from the SGEM scale has a significant negative correlation with the total score obtained from the ASI. Similarly, the hostile sexism sub-dimension of the ESLS has a significant negative correlation with the total score obtained from the ECEK scale and the scores obtained from the public and domestic sub-dimensions. These correlations indicate low-strength relationships ranging between $-.17$ and $-.31$. On the other hand, benevolent sexism showed a negative correlation with the SGEMS total score and the public sub-dimension, as expected, while it showed an insignificant but positive correlation with domestic participation in gender equality. However, since the correlation coefficients range between $-.07$ and $.03$, there is a weak relationship between protectionist sexism and the total and sub-dimensional scores of the SGEM scale.

Significant and positive relationships exist between the total scores obtained from the SGEM scale and GEMS and the scores obtained from the sub-dimensions of both scales. The correlations between the SGEMS total score and the total score obtained from the GEMS and the scores obtained from the sub-dimensions of the GEMS scale vary between $.24$ and $.43$, corresponding to a moderate strength of relationship. The correlations between the SGEMS public sub-dimension and the total and sub-dimensions of the GEMS also show that there are moderate relationships (ranging between $.26$ and $.43$). When the total scores and sub-dimensions of SGEMS in domestic sub-dimension and GEMS were analyzed, weak positive significant correlations ranging between $.14$ and $.30$ were found.

3.2. Results Related to Reliability

Internal consistency coefficients were calculated to obtain reliability evidence for the SGEM Scale. In the study, two different internal consistency coefficients (Cronbach's α and McDonald's Omega (ω)) were reported. Cronbach's α coefficient was reported in the report in which the scale was developed, and Cronbach's α coefficient was reported for this adaptation study in order to make comparative discussions, on the other hand, since Cronbach's α coefficient shows bias in congeneric measurements in the literature, it is recommended to calculate McDonald's Omega (ω) coefficient, which produces more consistent results (Yurdugül, 2006; Zinbarg *et al.*, 2005). In this context, McDonald's Omega (ω) coefficient was reported in addition to Cronbach's α coefficient.

When Table 3 is analyzed, it is seen that Cronbach's α coefficient is between $.78$ -. 90 and McDonald's Omega (ω) coefficient is between $.81$ -. 90 . These values obtained can be interpreted as quite high-reliability coefficients.

3.3. Findings Related to Measurement Invariance

One of the important pieces of evidence that should be presented in scale development/adaptation studies is the measurement invariance study to show that the scale works similarly for some subgroups. In this study, measurement invariance analyses were conducted by testing measurement invariance models with the help of multi-group CFA analyses. It was tested whether the emerging adulthood (18-29) and adulthood (30 and above), which appeared in 2 groups formed based on age variable, worked similarly. Brown (2015) states that in invariance checks with multiple group CFA, the CFA model should first be tested separately in each group. In this context, the CFA model was first tested separately for emerging adult and adult groups, and then the measurement invariance steps were tested. The goodness of fit is presented in Table 5.

Table 5 shows that the goodness of fit indices related to the model validation process are presented separately for the two groups. When the goodness of fit indices are examined, it is seen that the indices are within the desired limits ($\chi^2/df < 3$, TLI and CFI $> .90$, RMSEA and SRMR $< .08$) for both groups. Accordingly, it can be said that the CFA model was confirmed for both groups separately.

Table 4. Means, standard deviations, and correlation coefficients for the factors of the SGEMS and related variables.

	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. SGEMS Total	5.13	0.99	1	.92**	.82*	-.17*	-.14*	-.18**	.41**	.24**	.34**	.33**	.42**
2. SGEMS Public	4.88	1.19		1	.53**	-.22**	-.18**	-.23**	.43**	.26**	.34**	.35**	.42**
3. SGEMS Domestic	5.45	1.03			1	-.04	-.04	-.05	.26**	.14*	.22**	.20**	.30**
4. ASI Total	81.76	20.22				1	.97**	.97**	-.49**	-.27**	-.52**	-.36**	-.33**
5. ASI Benevolent Sexism	41.95	10.58					1	.87**	-.48**	-.26**	-.51**	-.34**	-.33**
6. ASI Hostile Sexism	39.79	10.41						1	-.47**	-.29**	-.50**	-.35**	-.31**
7. GEMS Total	65.99	6.44							1	.74**	.88**	.80**	.81**
8. GEMS Domestic Violence	17.29	1.46								1	.49**	.52**	.53**
9. GEMS Sexual Relationships	20.82	3.00									1	.60**	.58**
10. GEMS Health and Disease Prevention	13.98	1.52										1	.59**
11. GEMS Household Chores	13.88	1.84											1

Note. * represents significance at .01 and ** at .001 level. SGEMS: Support for Gender Equality Amongst Men, ASI: Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, GEMS: Gender Equitable Men Scale.

Table 5. Goodness of fit indices for measurement invariance.

	χ^2	<i>df</i>	RMSEA	SRMR	CFI	TLI	$\Delta\chi^2$	Δdf	<i>p</i>	Δ RMSEA	Δ CFI	Δ TLI
Single Group Solution												
Emerging Adulthood (<i>n</i> = 218)	194.95	98	.067	.058	.941	.928						
Adulthood (<i>n</i> = 184)	211.49	98	.091	.066	.909	.889						
Measurement Invariance												
Configural	406.44	196	.073	.062	.927	.911	-	-	-	-	-	-
Metric	423.13	210	.071	.070	.927	.916	16.69	14	0.273	.002	.000	.005
Scalar	455.15	224	.072	.073	.920	.915	32.02	14	0.004	.001	.007	.001

For measurement invariance, the observed change in chi-square, CFI and RMSEA values for each step was analyzed. For measurement invariance, the observed change in chi-square values ($\Delta\chi^2$) should be insignificant ($p > .05$), the observed change in CFI values (ΔCFI) should be less than .01 and the observed change in RMSEA values (ΔRMSEA) should be less than .015 (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). In this sense, when the $\Delta\chi^2$ and p values in Table 5 are analyzed, it is seen that the scale provides Configural and Metric change ($p > .05$) but the scalar invariance step is not provided ($p < .05$). Another evaluation criterion when examining measurement invariance is to look at the difference between CFI and RMSEA. On the other hand, it is stated that χ^2 value is not a useful criterion for model fit because it is sensitive to sample size (Cheung & Rensvold, 2002). In this context, it is seen that $\Delta\text{CFI} < .01$ and $\Delta\text{RMSEA} < .015$ in metric and scalar invariance steps. When the CFI and RMSEA values are taken into consideration, it can be said that the scale provides configural, metric and scalar invariance steps.

4. DISCUSSION and CONCLUSION

Gender equality studies typically focus on women's empowerment and the steps they can take to achieve equality (Ryan & Kirby, 2018). However, it is crucial to consider men's participation in these efforts (Cihangir *et al.*, 2014; Drury & Kaiser, 2014). Existing measures of men's engagement with gender equality are insufficient. Nevertheless, this issue is partially addressed by the Support for Gender Equality among Men Scale (SGEMS: Sudkamper *et al.*, 2020). This study adapts the SGEMS to Turkish, providing evidence of its validity and reliability in Turkey. The factor analysis confirmed the construct validity of the SGEMS, aligning with the original study's two-factor structure: participation in gender equality in public and domestic domains (Sudkamper *et al.*, 2020).

In this study, both SGEMS sub-dimensions showed reliability above .70 (Cronbach's α), meeting the threshold for reliability (DeVellis, 1991; Kline, 1986). However, the domestic sub-dimension ($\alpha = .89$) had lower reliability than the public sub-dimension ($\alpha = .89$), consistent with the original scale development. To ensure accuracy, McDonald's Omega (ω) was also used, as it is considered a more robust reliability measure than Cronbach's α , particularly after CFA (Hayes & Coutts, 2020; Sijtsma, 2009). Using ω , the reliability gap between the public and domestic subscales was minimized.

The lower reliability for the domestic subscale may be linked to participants' demographics. Specifically, 33.7% were single, 95.3% had never married, 6.3% lived with only male housemates, and 21.1% lived alone, potentially leading them to answer household-related questions hypothetically. Additionally, 35.4% lived with family members, often in traditionally patriarchal households (Bozok, 2018), limiting their opportunities to practice or advocate for gender equality at home.

The domestic sub-dimension of the SGEMS is a crucial tool for assessing men's involvement in gender equality within the Turkish context. While research on gender roles in Turkey has primarily focused on women's perspectives (Yüksel-Kaptanoğlu & Çavlin, 2015), with studies showing that 71% of married women believe men should share housework equally and 65% support their active role in childcare, the SGEMS provides a valuable means to directly evaluate men's attitudes and behaviors regarding domestic responsibilities. This shift in focus is essential for promoting men's active participation in achieving gender equality in household spheres.

Criterion-referenced validity was evaluated by examining correlations between SGEMS, ASI, and GEMS scores. As expected, SGEMS total and subscale scores showed significant negative correlations with ASI, particularly its hostile sexism sub-dimension, aligning with the original study and literature. However, no significant correlation was found between benevolent sexism and SGEMS scores. While benevolent sexism was negatively associated with the total SGEMS score and public sub-dimension, it showed a weak, insignificant positive link with the household sub-dimension. This aligns with Sudkamper *et al.* (2020) and Glick and Fiske's (1996, 2001) argument that men may not recognize benevolent sexism as discriminatory, often

viewing protective behaviors as supportive. For example, actions like compromising to reconcile with a partner may reinforce traditional roles rather than promote equality. The weak negative correlation with the public subscale suggests men with high benevolent sexism may perceive public gender equality efforts as personal sacrifices rather than shared responsibilities.

Another possible explanation for the lack of a significant relationship between benevolent sexism and SGEMS total and subscale scores is the tendency of individuals from advantaged groups to feel a sense of responsibility toward disadvantaged groups, a phenomenon known as *noblesse oblige* (Fiddick & Cummins, 2007; Vanbeselaere et al., 2006). In a similar vein, Glick et al. (2004) suggest that benevolent sexism allows men to present themselves as supportive of gender equality while maintaining their societal advantages, making sexism more implicit in contemporary contexts. Consequently, in this study, men with higher benevolent sexism scores may still appear to support gender equality despite underlying biases.

A positive and significant correlation between GEMS and SGEMS was expected, and the findings support this expectation. All sub-dimensions of both scales exhibit significant positive relationships. However, unlike GEMS, which primarily assesses negative attitudes toward women, SGEMS specifically measures men's participation in gender equality. For instance, GEMS includes items reflecting acceptance of violence against women (e.g., *"There are times when a woman deserves to be beaten"*). In contrast, SGEMS focuses on positive behaviors (e.g., *"I make all important decisions together with my partner"*). These differences highlight the necessity of adapting SGEMS to Turkish, as it captures men's active participation in gender equality rather than merely assessing negative attitudes toward women. While GEMS provides insight into sexist beliefs, SGEMS offers a complementary perspective by focusing on behavioral intentions. Therefore, the adaptation of SGEMS contributes to a more comprehensive assessment of men's engagement with gender equality in Turkey.

A potential limitation is the high proportion of partnered participants (over 60%), as men in partnerships often show greater support for gender equality. Such relationships can increase awareness of gender roles, promote empathy, and reinforce egalitarian values through shared experiences and mutual influence (Olliffe, Kelly, Gonzales et al., 2022). While initial findings support the SGEMS as a reliable tool for assessing men's support for gender equality, further research is needed to confirm its factor structure across diverse populations and cultural contexts in Turkey. In regions with limited gender equality, some items—particularly those on inclusive workplace practices—may require adaptation to reflect local socio-cultural conditions.

The findings indicate that the Turkish adaptation of the SGEMS is a valid and reliable measure of men's behavioral intentions to engage in gender equality in both domestic and public domains. Consistent with the original scale by Sudkamper et al. (2020), a two-factor structure emerged. Unlike existing gender equality scales in Turkey, SGEMS assesses men's participation, contributing to contemporary gender research.

Acknowledgments

We thank Dr. Antonia Sudkämper and her team for allowing us to adapt their scale and for their kind support throughout the process.

Declaration of Conflicting Interests and Ethics

The authors declare no conflict of interest. This research study complies with research publishing ethics. The scientific and legal responsibility for manuscripts published in IJATE belongs to the authors. **Ethics Committee Number:** Anadolu University Social Sciences and Humanities Scientific Research and Publication Ethics Committee, ID: 269759.

Contribution of Authors

Esma Esen Çiftçi: Investigation, Resources, Formal analysis, Methodology, Writing-original draft, Revisions. **Esra Daşçı:** Investigation, Resources, Methodology, Writing-original draft,

Revisions. **Cansu Ayan:** Investigation, Resources, Methodology, Formal analysis, Revisions. **Zeynep Uludağ:** Investigation, Resources, Methodology, Writing-original draft, Revisions.

Orcid

Esma Esen Çiftçi  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3545-0998>

Esra Daşçı  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0124-9380>

Cansu Ayan  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0773-5486>

Zeynep Uludağ  <https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0447-2158>

REFERENCES

- Achen, A.C., & Stafford, F.P. (2005). *Data quality of housework hours in the panel study of income dynamics: Who really does the dishes*. University of Michigan.
- Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organisational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 50, 179-211. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978\(91\)90020-T](https://doi.org/10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T)
- Ajzen, I., & Sheikh, S. (2013). Action versus inaction: Anticipated affect in the theory of planned behavior. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 43, 155-162. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1559-1816.2012.00989.x>
- Akın, A., Gülşen, M., Aşut, S., & Akca, M. (2012). Yakın İlişkilerde Şiddet Sorumluluğu Ölçeği Türkçe formunun geçerlik ve güvenirliği [Validity and reliability of the Turkish version of the Intimate Partner Violence Responsibility Scale]. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 12(2), 175-184.
- American Psychological Association. (2015). Guidelines for psychological practice with transgender and gender nonconforming people. *American Psychologist*, 70(9), 832–864. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0039906>
- Anderson, V.N. (2009). What's in a label? Judgments of feminist men and feminist women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 33, 206-215. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.2009.01490.x>
- Arnett, J.J. (2000). Emerging adulthood: A theory of development from the late teens through the twenties. *American Psychologist*, 55(5), 469-480. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.55.5.469>
- Bayar, Ö., Haskan Avcı, Ö., & Koç, M. (2018). Erkek Toplumsal Cinsiyet Rolü Stresi Ölçeği'nin (ETCRSÖ) geliştirilmesi: Geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması [Development of the Male Gender Role Stress Scale (MGRSS): A validity and reliability study]. *Abant İzzet Baysal Üniversitesi Fakültesi Dergisi*, 18(1), 57-76.
- Bear, J.B., Treviño, L.J., & Aguinis, H. (2025). A star is born or not: Understanding the star emergence gender gap. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 46, 351-367. <https://doi.org/10.1002/job.2858>
- Belingheri, P., Chiarello, F., Fronzetti Colladon, A., & Rovelli, P. (2021) Twenty years of gender equality research: A scoping review based on a new semantic indicator. *PLoS ONE* 16(9). <https://doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0256474>
- Bianchi, S.M., Milkie, M.A., Sayer, L.C., & Robinson, J.P. (2000). Is anyone doing the housework? Trends in the gender division of household labor. *Social Forces*, 79, 191-228.
- Boyacıoğlu, İ., Uysal, M.S., & Erdugan, C. (2020). Psikolojik şiddetin ölçümü: Psikolojik İstismar Profiline ve Kadına Kötü Muamele Envanterinin Türkçe'ye uyarlanması [Measuring psychological violence: Adaptation of the Psychological Abuse Profile and the Inventory of Violence Against Women into Turkish]. *Psikoloji Çalışmaları*, 40(1), 19-55. <https://doi.org/10.26650/SP2019-0027>
- Branscombe, N.R., & Deaux, K. (1991). Feminist attitude accessibility and behavioral intentions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 15(3), 411-418. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.1991.tb00417.x>

- Breinlinger, S., & Kelly, C. (1994). Women's responses to status inequality: A test of social identity theory. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 18(1), 1-16. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.1994.tb00293.x>
- Brown, M.J., & Gladstone, N. (2012). Development of a short version of the gender role beliefs scale. *International Journal of Psychology and Behavioral Sciences*, 2, 154-158. <https://doi.org/10.5923/j.ijpbs.20120205.05>
- Brown, T.A. (2015). *Confirmatory factor analysis for applied research* (2nd ed.). Guilford Publications.
- Burt, M.R. (1980). *Sex Role Stereotyping Scale* [Database record]. APA PsycTests. <https://doi.org/10.1037/t06663-000>
- Büyüköztürk, Ş., Çakmak, E.K., Akgün, Ö.E., & Karadeniz, Ş. (2008). *Bilimsel araştırma yöntemleri [Scientific research methods]*. Pegem Akademik Yayıncılık.
- Bozok, M. (2018). *Ebeveynlik, erkeklik ve çalışma hayatı arasında Türkiye’de babalık [Fatherhood in Turkey: Between parenthood, masculinity, and work life]*. AÇEV. <https://dspace.ceid.org.tr/handle/1/801>
- Catell, R.B. (1978). *The scientific use of factor analysis*. Plenum.
- Cem-Ersoy, N., Hünler, O.S., & Namer, Y. (2017). Kadına Psikolojik Eziyet Envanteri kısa formu Türkçe uyarlaması [Turkish adaptation of the short form of the Psychological Maltreatment of Women Inventory]. *Klinik Psikiyatri*, 20, 276-286.
- Cheung, G.W., & Rensvold, R.B. (2002). Evaluating goodness-of-fit indexes for testing measurement invariance. *Structural equation modeling*, 9(2), 233-255.
- Cho, E., Allen, T.D., & Meier, L.L. (2025). Is ‘me-time’selfish?: Daily vitality crossover in dual-earner couples. *Applied Psychology: Health and Well-Being*, 17(1). <https://doi.org/10.1111/aphw.70004>
- Cihangir, S., Barreto, M., & Ellemers, N. (2014). Men as allies against sexism: The positive effects of a suggestion of sexism by male (vs. female) sources. *Sage Open*, 4, 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1177/2158244014539168>
- Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Publishers.
- Craig, L., Perales, F., Vidal, S., & Baxter, J. (2016). Domestic outsourcing, housework time, and subjective time pressure: New insights from longitudinal data. *Journal of Marriage and Family*, 78, 1224-1236. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jomf.12321>
- Deutsch, F. (1999). *Halving it all: How equally shared parenting works*. Harvard University Press.
- DeVellis, R.F. (1991). *Scale development: Theory and applications*. Sage Publications, Inc.
- Dotti Sani, G.M. (2014). Men's employment hours and time on domestic chores in European countries. *Journal of Family Issues*, 35, 1023-1047. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0192513x14522245>
- Drury, B.J., & Kaiser, C.R. (2014). Allies against sexism: The role of men in confronting sexism. *The Journal of Social Issues*, 70, 637-652. <https://doi.org/10.1111/josi.12083>
- Eagly, A.H., & Karau, S.J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, 109(3), 573-598. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0033-295X.109.3.573>
- Eliezer, D., & Major, B. (2011). It's not your fault: The social costs of claiming discrimination on behalf of someone else. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations*, 15, 487-502. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1368430211432894>
- Estevan-Reina, L., de Lemus, S., & Megías, J.L. (2017, June). *Can men be allies of women in fight against sexism? Feminist identity and benevolent sexism as predictors of sexism confrontation for paternalistic vs. egalitarian reasons* [Poster presentation]. EASP: Gender Roles in the Future? Theoretical Foundations and Future Research Directions, Berlin, Germany.

- Everitt, B.S. (1975). Multivariate analysis: The need for data, and other problems. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, 126(3), 237-240. <https://doi.org/10.1192/bjp.126.3.237>
- Fiddick, L., & Cummins, D. (2007). Are perceptions of fairness relationship-specific? The case of noblesse oblige. *Quarterly Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 60(1), 16-31. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17470210600577266>
- Frei, J.R., & Shaver, P.R. (2002). Respect in close relationships: Prototype definition, self-report assessment, and initial correlates. *Personal relationships*, 9(2), 121-139.
- Gärtner, M. (2007). *FOCUS: Fostering caring masculinities*. Dissens e.V. and genderWerk.
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S. (1996). The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Differentiating hostile and benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 70(3), 491-512. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.70.3.491>
- Glick, P., & Fiske, S.T. (2001). An ambivalent alliance: Hostile and benevolent sexism as complementary justifications for gender inequality. *American Psychologist*, 56(2), 109-118. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0003-066X.56.2.109>
- Glick, P., Lameiras, M., Fiske, S.T., Eckes, T., Masser, B., Volpato, C., Manganelli, A.M., Pek, J.C.X., Huang, L.-l., Sakalli-Uğurlu, N., Castro, Y.R., D'Avila Pereira, M.L., Willemsen, T.M., Brunner, A., Six-Materna, I., & Wells, R. (2004). Bad but bold: Ambivalent attitudes toward men predict gender inequality in 16 nations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 86(5), 713-728. <https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.86.5.713>
- Gurin, P., & Townsend, A. (1986). Properties of gender identity and their implications for gender consciousness. *British Journal of Social Psychology*, 25(2), 139-148. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.2044-8309.1986.tb00712.x>
- Heilman, M.E. (2012). Gender stereotypes and workplace bias. *Research in Organisational Behavior*, 32, 113-135. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.riob.2012.11.003>
- Hendrick, S.S., & Hendrick, C. (2006). Measuring respect in close relationships. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships*, 23(6), 881-899. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0265407506070471>
- Haas, L. (2003). Parental leave and gender equality: Lessons from the European Union. *Review of Policy Research*, 20, 89-114. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1541-1338.d01-6>
- Hayes, A.F., & Coutts, J.J. (2020). Use Omega Rather than Cronbach's Alpha for Estimating Reliability. But.... *Communication Methods and Measures*, 14(1), 1-24. <https://doi.org/10.1080/19312458.2020.1718629>
- Hopkins-Doyle, A., Sutton, R.M., Douglas, K.M., & Calogero, R.M. (2019). Flattering to deceive: Why people misunderstand benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 116(2), 167-192. <https://doi.org/10.1037/pspa0000135>
- Hu, L., & Bentler, P.M. (1999). Cutoff criteria for fit indexes in covariance structure analysis: Conventional criteria versus new alternatives. *Structural Equation Modeling: A Multidisciplinary Journal*, 6(1), 1-55. <https://doi.org/10.1080/10705519909540118>
- Işık, R., & Sakallı-Uğurlu, N. (2009). Namusa ve Namus Adına Kadına Uygulanan Şiddete İlişkin Tutumlar Ölçeklerinin öğrenci örneklemiyle geliştirilmesi [Development of the Attitudes Toward Honor and Violence Against Women in the name of honor scales with a student sample]. *Türk Psikoloji Yazıları*, 12(24), 16-24.
- Iyer, A., & Ryan, M.K. (2009). Why do men and women challenge gender discrimination in the workplace? The role of group status and in-group identification in predicting pathways to collective action. *Journal of Social Issues*, 65, 791-814. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1540-4560.2009.01625.x>
- Kato-Wallace, J., Barker, G., Eads, M., & Levto, R. (2014). Global pathways to men's caregiving: Mixed methods findings from the international men and gender equality survey and the men who care study. *Global Public Health*, 9, 706-722. <https://doi.org/10.1080/17441692.2014.921829>
- Kaufman, M., & Kimmel, M. (2011). *The guy's guide to feminism*. Seal Press.

- Kelly, C., & Breinlinger, S. (1995). Identity and injustice: Exploring women's participation in collective action. *Journal of Community & Applied Social Psychology*, 5(1), 41-57. <https://doi.org/10.1002/casp.2450050104>
- Kenny, D.A., Kaniskan, B., & McCoach, D.B. (2015). The performance of RMSEA in models with small degrees of freedom. *Sociological Methods & Research*, 44(3), 486-507. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0049124114543236>
- Kline, P. (1986). *A handbook of test construction: Introduction to psychometric design*. Methuen.
- Kline, R.B. (2013). Exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis In Y. Petscher & C. Schatsschneider (Eds.), *Applied quantitative analysis in the social sciences* (pp. 171- 207). Routledge.
- Kline, R.B. (2019). *Yapısal eşitlik modellemesinin ilkeleri ve uygulaması [Principles and Practice of Structural Equation Modeling]* (S. Şen, Ed. & Trans.). Nobel Akademik Yayıncılık. (Original work published 2016)
- Kosakowska-Berezecka, N., Besta, T., Adamska, K., Jaskiewicz, M., Jurek, P., & Vandello, J. A. (2016). If my masculinity is threatened, I won't support gender equality? The role of agentic self-stereotyping in restoration of manhood and perception of gender relations. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 17, 274-284. <https://doi.org/10.1037/men0000016>
- Larsen, K.S., & Long, E. (1988). Attitudes toward sex-roles: Traditional or egalitarian? *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 19(1-2), 1-12. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF00292459>
- Lemaster, P., Strough, J., Stoiko, R., & DiDonato, L. (2015). To have and to do: Masculine facets of gender predict men's and women's attitudes about gender equality among college students. *Psychology of Men & Masculinity*, 16, 195. <https://doi.org/10.1037/a0036429>
- Liff, S., & Cameron, I. (1997). Changing equality cultures to move beyond “women's problems”. *Gender, Work & Organisation*, 4, 35-46. <https://doi.org/10.1111/1468-0432.00022>
- Manstead, A.S.R., & Parker, D. (1995). Evaluating and Extending the Theory of Planned Behaviour. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 6(1), 69-95. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14792779443000012>
- Mills, M.J., Culbertson, S.S., Huffman, A.H., & Connell, A.R. (2012). Assessing gender biases: Development and initial validation of the Gender Role Stereotypes Scale. *Gender in Management*, 27, 520-540. <https://doi.org/10.1108/17542411211279715>
- Morgan, B.L. (1996). Putting the feminism into feminism scales: Introduction of a Liberal Feminist Attitude and Ideology Scale. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 34(5-6), 359-390. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF01547807>
- Morgenroth, T., & Ryan, M. (2018). Gender trouble in social psychology: How can Butler's work inform experimental social psychologists' conceptualization of gender? *Frontiers In Psychology*, 9. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2018.01320>
- Moser, C.E., & Branscombe, N.R. (2022). Male allies at work: Gender-Equality supportive men reduce negative underrepresentation effects among women. *Social Psychological and Personality Science*, 13(2), 372-381. <https://doi.org/10.1177/19485506211033748>
- Nanda, G. (2011). *Compendium of Gender Scales*. FHI 360/C-Change.
- Nelson, L.J., & Barry, C.M. (2005). Distinguishing features of emerging adulthood: The role of self-classification as an adult. *Journal of Adolescent Research*, 20(2), 242-262. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0743558404273074>
- Noonan, R.K. (1995). Women against the state: Political opportunities and collective action frames in Chile's transition to democracy. *Sociological Forum*, 10, 81-111. <https://doi.org/10.1007/BF02098565>
- Oliffe, J.L., Kelly, M.T., Gonzalez Montaner, G., Seidler, Z.E., Maher, B., & Rice, S.M. (2022). Men building better relationships: A scoping review. *Health Promotion Journal of Australia*, 33(1), 126-137. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hpja.463>

- Pulerwitz, J., & Barker, G. (2008). Measuring attitudes toward gender norms among young men in Brazil: Development and psychometric evaluation of the GEM Scale. *Men and Masculinities*, 10(3), 322-338. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1097184X06298778>
- Rasinski, H.M., & Czopp, A.M. (2010). The effect of target status on witnesses' reactions to confrontations of bias. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 32, 8-16. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01973530903539754>
- Ryan, M., & Kirby, T. (2018, April 12). Lean in – but how? *BPS*. <https://www.bps.org.uk/psychologist/lean-how>
- Sakallı-Uğurlu, N. (2002). Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği: Geçerlik ve güvenirlik çalışması [Ambivalent Sexism Inventory: Validity and reliability study]. *Türk Psikoloji Dergisi*, 17(49), 47-58.
- Sakallı, N., & Ulu, S. (2003). Evlilikte kadına yönelik şiddete ilişkin tutumlar: Çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik, yaş, eğitim ve gelir düzeyinin etkileri [Attitudes toward domestic violence: The effects of ambivalent sexism, age, education, and income]. *Türk Psikoloji Yazıları*, 6(11-12), 53-65.
- Schermelleh-Engel, K., Kerwer, M., & Klein, A.G. (2014). Evaluation of model fit in nonlinear multilevel structural equation modeling. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 5, 181. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2014.00181>
- Sijtsma K. (2009). On the use, the misuse, and the very limited usefulness of Cronbach's Alpha. *Psychometrika*, 74(1), 107–120. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11336-008-9101-0>
- Spence, J.T., Helmreich, R., & Stapp, J. (1973). A short version of the Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS). *Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society*, 2(4), 219-220. <https://doi.org/10.3758/BF03329252>
- Stewart, A.L. (2016). Men's collective action willingness: Testing different theoretical models of protesting gender inequality for women and men. *Psychology of Men and Masculinity*, 18, 1-10. <https://doi.org/10.1037/men0000068>
- Streiner, D.L. (2003). Starting at the beginning: An introduction to Coefficient Alpha and internal consistency. *Journal of Personality Assessment*, 80(1), 99-103. https://doi.org/10.1207/S15327752JPA8001_18
- Sudkämper, A., Ryan, M., Kirby, T., & Morgenroth, T. (2020). A comprehensive measure of attitudes and behaviour: Development of the Support for Gender Equality among Men Scale. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 50(2), 256-277. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.2629>
- Tabachnick, B.G., & Fidell, L.S. (2001). *Using Multivariate Statistics* (4th ed.). Allyn and Bacon.
- Tate, C.C., Youssef, C.P., & Bettergarcia, J.N. (2014). Integrating the study of transgender spectrum and cisgender experiences of self-categorization from a personality perspective. *Review of General Psychology*, 18(4), 302-312. <https://doi.org/10.1037/gpr0000019>
- Türkoğlu, B. (2013). *Violence as a way of reconstructing manhood: The role of threatened manhood and masculine ideology on violence against women* [Unpublished master's thesis]. Middle East Technical University.
- Uçan, G., & Baydur, H. (2016). Türk Erkeklerinde Toplumsal Cinsiyet Eşitliği Ölçeğinin geçerlilik ve güvenirlik çalışması [Validity and reliability study of the Gender Equality Scale among Turkish men]. *The Journal Of Academic Social Science Studies*, 6(47), 289-289. <https://doi.org/10.9761/jasss3495>
- Vanbeselaere, N., Boen, F., Van Avermaet, E., & Buelens, H. (2006). The janus face of power in intergroup contexts: A further exploration of the noblesse oblige effect. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 146(6), 685–699. <https://doi.org/10.3200/SOCP.146.6.685-699>
- Van Laar, C., Van Rossum, A., Kosakowska-Berezecka, N., Bongiorno, R., & Block, K. (2024). MANDatory-why men need (and are needed for) gender equality progress. *Frontiers in Psychology*, 15. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fpsyg.2024.1263313>

- White, A.M. (2006). Racial and gender attitudes as predictors of feminist activism among self-identified African American feminists. *Journal of Black Psychology*, 32(4), 455-478. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0095798406292469>
- Woodzicka, J.A., & LaFrance, M. (2001). Real versus imagined gender harassment. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(1), 15-30. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00199>
- Yurdugül, H. (2006). The comparison of reliability coefficients in parallel, tau-equivalent, and congeneric measurements. *Ankara University Journal of Faculty of Educational Sciences*, 39(1), 15-37. https://doi.org/10.1501/Egifak_00000000127
- Yüksel-Kaptanoğlu, İ., & Çavlin, A. (2015). Kadına yönelik şiddet yaygınlığı [Prevalence of violence against women]. In *Türkiye’de kadına yönelik aile içi şiddet araştırması [Domestic violence against women in Türkiye]* (pp. 81-122). Hacettepe Üniversitesi Nüfus Etütleri Enstitüsü.
- Zeyneloğlu, S., & Terzioğlu, F. (2011). Toplumsal Cinsiyet Rollerini Tutum Ölçeğinin geliştirilmesi ve psikometrik özellikleri [Development and psychometric properties of the Gender Roles Attitude Scale]. *Hacettepe Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Dergisi*, 40, 409-420.
- Zinbarg, R.E., Revelle, W., Yovel, I., & Li, W. (2005). Cronbach’s α , Revelle’s β , and McDonald’s ω H: Their relations with each other and two alternative conceptualisations of reliability. *Psychometrika*, 70(1), 123-133. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11336-003-0974-7>
- Zucker, A.N. (2004). Disavowing social identities: What it means when women say, “I’m not a feminist, but ...”. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 28(4), 423-435. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.2004.00159.x>

APPENDIX

Appendix 1. *Subdimensions and items of the Support for Gender Equality Among Men Scale (SGEMS)-Turkish version.*

Public Support for Gender Equality (Kamusal Alanda Destek)

1. Cinsiyet eşitliğine yönelik politik faaliyetler benim için önemlidir.
2. Fırsatım oldukça cinsiyet eşitliğine yönelik politik faaliyetlere katılım (örneğin; imza kampanyası, protestolar, münazaralar)
3. Medyada yer alan, cinsiyet eşitliği ile ilgili yayınlarla yakından ilgilenirim.
4. Sohbet sırasında cinsiyet eşitliği ile ilgili konular açarım.
5. Cinsiyet eşitsizliğine şahit olduğumda sesimi çıkarırım.
6. Cinsiyet eşitsizliğinden etkilenen kişilere destek olmayı önemserim.
7. İşyerimde cinsiyet eşitliğini aktif olarak desteklerim.
8. Kadın iş arkadaşlarımla ağ kurma ve akran danışmanlığı sistemlerine sahip olmasını etkin bir şekilde desteklerim.
9. Kadın iş arkadaşlarımla liderlik rollerini üstlenmeleri için etkin bir şekilde cesaretlendiririm.

Domestic Support for Gender Equality (Hane İçi destek)

10. Tercihen ben ve partnerim ev ekonomisine eşit katkıda bulunmalıyız.
 11. Partnerimle uzlaşmak için ödün vermeye istekliyimdir.
 12. Bütün önemli kararları partnerimle birlikte alırım.
 13. Partnerim ve ben ev işlerinin pek çoğunu paylaşıyoruz.
 14. Ev işlerinde kendimi partnerim kadar sorumlu hissedirim.
 15. Çocuğum olsaydı, ona bakmak için yarı zamanlı bir işte çalışmayı düşünürdüm.
 16. Çocuğum olsaydı, oğluma nasıl davranıyorsam kızıma da aynı şekilde davranırdım.
-