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Internalized Misogyny and the Perception of Sexist Microaggressions in Different Age Groups

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In recent years, the public discourse around gender inequality has become increasingly complex and emotionally charged. Movements such as #MeToo have drawn widespread attention to overt sexism and sexual violence (Gill & Orgad, 2018); while also paving the way for broader discussions about more subtle forms of discrimination — often referred to as sexist microaggressions (Sue & Spanierman, 2020). At the same time, this cultural shift has been accompanied by visible backlash, including narratives that dismiss feminist concerns as exaggerated or irrelevant (Banet-Weiser, 2018). In this contested climate, it becomes crucial to understand why some individuals recognize sexism where others do not, a phenomenon that has both psychological and social roots.

Psychological research suggests that *internalized misogyny* — the internal absorption of sexist beliefs and stereotypes — may play a key role in shaping how women perceive and respond to everyday instances of gender-based discrimination (Parks & Roberton, 2008; Swim et al., 2004). To understand how internalized misogyny may affect the perception of daily, subtle forms of sexism in different age groups, it is essential to first clarify the core concepts and examine existing research on the systemic and psychological mechanisms that shape how women see themselves and each other.

Overview of Previous Research

Misogyny

The term *misogyny* is traditionally defined as hatred, dislike, or prejudice against women (Griffin, 2017). More broadly, it encompasses a negative affective or emotional stance toward women as a group: Rather than being merely an individual bias, misogyny functions as a regulatory force within patriarchal systems, targeting women who resist traditional gender roles with emotionally charged and morally loaded reactions (Manne, 2017). Misogyny can manifest in both overt hostility and more covert, everyday forms of disdain and devaluation (Sue & Spanierman, 2020).

Modern interpretations of misogyny highlight its evolving nature: it no longer always appears in blatant acts of violence or discrimination but often hides behind claims of already-achieved equality (Banet-Weiser, 2018). Anderson (2014) describes modern misogyny as a form that downplays structural gender inequality, suggesting that feminism is obsolete and that concerns about sexism are exaggerated. In this sense, misogyny becomes increasingly insidious and difficult to detect, while continuing to reinforce gendered hierarchies (Banet-Weiser, 2018; Anderson, 2014).

It is crucial to distinguish misogyny from the related concepts of *sexism* and *patriarchy*, even though they are deeply intertwined. Sexism can be understood as the institutionalized expression of misogynistic attitudes—for example, in the form of gender pay gaps or restricted access to reproductive healthcare (Manne, 2017). Patriarchy, by contrast, refers to the overarching system of male dominance and female subordination: As Hunnicutt (2009) notes, patriarchy is not merely a cultural belief system, but a structurally embedded hierarchy that privileges masculinity and disciplines femininity. Together, misogyny, sexism, and patriarchy function to uphold a system of power that marginalizes and controls women and those who do not conform to dominant gender norms.

Internalized Misogyny

Internalized misogyny is the process by which women absorb and replicate patriarchal values, resulting in negative perceptions of their own gender and attitudes and behaviors that harm themselves and other women as well as behaviors that perpetuate gender inequality (Piggott, 2004). This internalization is shaped by cultural expectations and rigid gender roles, resulting in self-limiting beliefs and the reproduction of oppressive norms (Szymanski et al., 2009).

Piggott (2004) conceptualizes internalized misogyny as comprising three core dimensions: *Devaluing of women*, *Distrust of women*, and *Gender bias in favor of men*. These attitudes are not merely reflections of individual prejudice, but symptoms of systemic conditioning that encourages women to see themselves - and other women – as inherently less competent, less trustworthy, or less worthy than men (Piggott, 2004).

While internalized misogyny overlaps conceptually with related constructs such as *internalized sexism*, *internalized oppression* and *ambivalent sexism*, it is distinct in its explicit focus on the gendered aspects of self-directed prejudice: Internalized sexism, for instance, is a broader term encompassing beliefs that justify gender inequality in general, and internalized oppression captures a similar mechanism in marginalized groups beyond gender (Bearman et al., 2009). Another related framework is ambivalent sexism, which includes both hostile and benevolent attitudes - while the latter may appear well-intentioned, they are in fact condescending and patronizing (Riley & Yamawaki, 2018). Importantly, ambivalent sexism encompasses attitudes not only toward women but also toward men (Riley & Yamawaki, 2018).

A useful theoretical lens to understand internalized misogyny is the *System Justification Theory*, which posits that individuals, even those who are disadvantaged by the status quo, are

motivated to justify and uphold existing social systems (Jost & Banaji, 1994; Jost, 2020). Jost (1995) argues that when individuals internalize stereotypes about their own group, especially those aligned with traditional social roles, they are more likely to perceive existing inequalities as legitimate or deserved. This framework is particularly relevant to internalized misogyny, as it explains how women may come to rationalize gender hierarchies as natural or fair.

The psychological consequences of internalized misogyny can be severe: It is associated with self-devaluation, self-doubt, internalized self-hatred, and persistent feelings of inferiority (David & Derthick, 2017). These self-directed beliefs are not only psychologically harmful but also contribute to broader social dynamics: women may project these attitudes outward, expressing distrust or contempt toward other women, and showing preference for men in social or professional settings (Piggott, 2004).

Moreover, internalized misogyny is implicated in adverse mental health outcomes. Bearman et al. (2009) and Szymanski & Henrichs-Beck (2013) highlight its association with increased psychological distress, while Cherry & Wilcox (2021) found links between exposure to *sexist microaggressions* and heightened levels of anger, depression, and anxiety. Thus, internalized misogyny operates at the intersection of systemic oppression and individual well-being, sustaining patriarchal structures while simultaneously eroding women's mental health.

Sexist Microaggressions

Sexist microaggressions are subtle, often unintentional, discriminatory comments or behaviors that convey derogatory or dismissive messages based on gender (Sue et al., 2007; Sue & Spanierman, 2020). They contribute to the reinforcement of gender stereotypes and structural inequalities, and often result in women feeling disrespected, marginalized, or devalued in everyday interactions (Sue et al., 2007; Swim et al., 2001; Sue & Spanierman, 2020). These micro-level expressions of sexism are pervasive in daily life and have been shown to negatively impact women's psychological well-being.

Sue & Spanierman (2020) differentiate between various types of sexist microaggressions, offering a framework to understand the nuanced ways in which sexism manifests: First, *Microassaults* are explicit and intentional discriminatory acts. These may be verbal, nonverbal, or environmental. For example, male colleagues referring to an assertive female supervisor as "bitch" when she is not present. Second, *Microinvalidations* involve subtle messages that undermine, exclude, or negate the thoughts, feelings, or experiences of women.

An example includes telling a woman who expresses concern about sexual harassment that she is "just being too sensitive". Third, *Microinsults* are remarks or behaviors that convey insensitivity and demean a person's gender or abilities, often cloaked in backhanded compliments, such as telling a female athlete she is "really strong for a girl". Finally, *Environmental Microaggressions* are systemic or institutional manifestations of microassaults, insults, or invalidations. Examples include hypersexualized depictions of women in media or persistent wage gaps between men and women for equal work.

Beyond this typology, thematic categories help capture the breadth of *sexist microaggressions* across contexts. Adapted from the work of Sue & Spanierman (2020) and Derthick (2015), common themes are depicted in Table 1.

Table 1
Thematic Categories of Sexist Microaggressions

Term	*Explanation*	*Example*
Leaving gender at the door	Women are expected to assimilate into male-dominated environments by adopting masculine traits or suppressing femininity.	A woman is expected to "be one of the guys" in a professional setting.
Sexual objectification	Women are reduced to their bodies or sexualized, often in public or professional spaces.	Catcalling (unsolicited, often sexual comments or whistles directed at women in public spaces) or a male stranger placing his hands on a woman's hips to pass by.
Environmental invalidations	Structural disparities or symbolic messages that exclude or devalue women.	Unequal pay, lack of female role models, or constant sexualized imagery in public spaces.
Second-hand citizen	Preference for men in leadership or authority, reducing women to secondary roles.	A female doctor is mistaken for a nurse; men are hired over equally qualified women.
Invalidating women's realities	Dismissing or minimizing women's experiences of sexism, reinforcing the idea that their concerns are exaggerated.	Telling a woman she is "overreacting" when describing harassment.
Denial of individual sexism	Claiming that one cannot be sexist due to personal relationships with women.	"I can't be sexist - I was raised by a single mother and two big sisters!"
Ascription of intelligence	Women's competence is questioned or seen as surprising.	"Wow, how did you get so good at math?"
Assumptions of inferiority	Presuming that women are less capable emotionally, intellectually, or physically.	Excluding a woman from decision-making or physical tasks.

Denial of sexism	The very existence of sexism is denied.	Claiming that gender equality has already been achieved and that "sexism is no longer a problem."
Use of sexist language	Employing degrading or gendered slurs to reinforce stereotypes.	Calling assertive women "bitches" or using terms like "slut."
Assumptions of traditional roles	Expectations around domestic work, behavior, and career choices often fall along stereotypical lines.	Asking a female chemistry student, "Why do you even need to study this?"
Expectations of appearance	Judging or stereotyping women based on their conformity to conventional beauty standards.	Assuming a woman is a lesbian for not wearing makeup, or requiring high heels and makeup at formal events while men are not expected to.

Note. Based on Sue & Spanierman (2020) and Derthick (2015)

Together, these microaggressions - despite their subtlety - play a significant role in maintaining systemic sexism. Cherry & Wilcox (2021) found that their cumulative effect contributes to trauma-like symptoms like emotional distress, lowered self-esteem, and mental health issues such as anxiety and depression. Research suggests that internalized misogyny may not directly explain trauma responses to sexist microaggressions but still plays a role in how sexist messages are internalized over time (Cherry & Wilcox, 2021). Taken together, by invalidating women's realities and perpetuating traditional gender norms, sexist microaggressions help sustain an unequal social order.

Sociodemographic and Ideological Influences

To better understand the factors that may shape the relationship between internalized misogyny and the perception of sexism, it is important to consider socio-demographic and ideological influences. Previous research suggests that variables such as age, education, religiosity, political orientation, and feminist self-identification can play a significant role in shaping individuals' attitudes toward gender and their awareness of sexist dynamics. The following section provides an overview of how these factors have been linked to sexist beliefs and perceptions in existing literature.

Age and Generational Context. Age may play a role in shaping attitudes toward sexism and gender roles, though existing findings are mixed. Parks and Roberton (2008) found that older women were more critical of sexist language than younger women, potentially due to the former's exposure to *second-wave feminism* and its emphasis on gender equality and political activism. However, the effect was not statistically significant and may also reflect generational differences in political climate and socialization (Parks & Roberton, 2008).

Similarly, Duncan (2010) found no significant generational differences in gender consciousness but noted that younger women were more politically active, while older women were more likely to self-identify as feminists. Given these inconsistent findings, age is treated as a control variable in this study, acknowledging that it may influence both internalized misogyny and the perception of sexist microaggressions, although it is unsure in which direction. Furthermore, age functions as an inclusion criterion to ensure generational representation and allow additional exploratory analyses of age-related patterns.

Education

Education has consistently been associated with critical thinking and awareness of social injustices, including sexism: Higher levels of education are linked to more egalitarian gender attitudes and lower acceptance of traditional gender roles (Glick et al., 2002). Other research suggests that individuals with more education are better able to identify subtle forms of sexism such as sexist language and microaggressions (Becker & Wagner, 2009; Parks & Roberton, 2008). Thus, education is controlled for in the present study to reduce potential confounding effects on the main outcome variables, even though it could be different to achieve a representative distribution of the variable while recruiting participants.

Religiosity. Religiosity - particularly in the context of conservative or fundamentalist belief systems - has been associated with more traditional views on gender and greater adherence to patriarchal norms (Bryant, 2003; Glick et al., 2002; Dehlin & Galliher, 2019), Such belief systems may contribute to higher levels of internalized misogyny and decreased sensitivity to gender-based discrimination (Dehlin & Galliher, 2019). Since religiosity can shape both gender ideology and the perception of microaggressions, it is included as a control variable in this study.

Political Attitudes. Political orientation is another important predictor of gender attitudes. Individuals with conservative political views are more likely to endorse traditional gender roles and demonstrate less sensitivity to gender-based discrimination (Dehlin & Galliher, 2019). As political attitudes could influence both the internalization of misogynistic norms and the recognition of sexist microaggressions, it is essential to account for this variable.

Feminist Self-Identification. Identifying as a feminist has been linked to greater awareness of systemic sexism and reduced internalization of traditional gender norms: Becker & Wagner (2009) showed that Women who adopt a feminist identity are generally more likely

to recognize subtle forms of discrimination and to reject sexist stereotypes. However, feminist identification is not monolithic and can vary based on personal definitions of feminism and generational or cultural factors, as the different waves of feminism have also set different priorities in terms of content (Parks & Roberton, 2008; Rampton, 2015). Building on these findings, the present study aims to integrate these socio-demographic and ideological factors into an overarching framework that examines how internalized misogyny relates to sexism perception. While previous studies have examined internalized sexism and gendered self-concept, few have empirically tested how internalized misogyny influences the recognition of subtle sexism across generations.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

The present study investigates the role of internalized misogyny in how individuals perceive and respond to subtle forms of gender-based discrimination, such as sexist microaggressions. These are often ambiguous, socially normalized, and context-dependent (Sue et al., 2007), which can make them difficult to recognize, particularly for those who have internalized traditional gender norms. Prior research indicates that individuals with higher levels of internalized sexism are less likely to perceive certain behaviors or language as discriminatory (Swim et al., 2004; Parks & Roberton, 2008). Therefore, the primary research interest of this study centers on how internalized misogyny influences the perception of sexist microaggressions.

Furthermore, the recognition of sexism may vary across different age cohorts due to their distinct socialization experiences and exposure to feminist discourse: For example, some studies have found generational differences in feminist attitudes and sensitivity to sexist language, while others report little to no variation (Duncan, 2010; Parks & Roberton, 2008). These inconsistencies warrant a closer look at whether internalized misogyny and the perception of sexist microaggressions differ between younger and older women. The age groups included in this study (20–35 and 50–65 years) were selected to reflect generational differences in gender socialization, feminist activism, and societal discourse around sexism.

In addition, the study investigates feminist self-identification as both a control variable and a potential moderator. Identifying as a feminist has been shown to correlate with greater rejection of traditional gender stereotypes and higher recognition of sexism in various forms (Becker & Wagner, 2009). However, feminism is not a homogeneous identity, and its meaning may vary depending on personal interpretation, cultural background, and generational

affiliation. This complexity makes feminist identification an important variable to explore further, especially in its interaction with internalized misogyny.

Based on these theoretical considerations, the following research questions (RQ) and Hypotheses (H) guide the present study:

RQ1: To what extent does internalized misogyny predict the perception of sexist microaggressions among women and female-socialized individuals?

This question addresses the core relationship of interest, assuming that a higher degree of internalized misogyny may reduce the ability to detect or acknowledge subtle sexist behaviors.

H1. The level of internalized misogyny predicts the perception of sexist microaggressions, with higher internalized misogyny associated with lower recognition of sexist microaggressions (directional). A small to medium effect is expected (Parks & Roberton, 2008, Swim et al., 2004; 2005).

RQ2: Does the level of internalized misogyny or the perception of sexist microaggressions differ between younger (20–35) and older (50–65) participants?

This question allows for an exploratory analysis of generational effects, based on the assumption that different age cohorts may vary in how they have internalized societal gender norms and in their sensitivity to sexism.

H2. The level of internalized misogyny differs between the age groups (non-directional).

H3. The perception of sexist microaggressions differs between the age groups (non-directional).

RQ3: Does feminist self-identification moderate the relationship between internalized misogyny and the perception of sexist microaggressions?

Here, the study explores whether identifying as a feminist may buffer against the effects of internalized misogyny, increasing the likelihood of recognizing sexism even when internalized misogynistic beliefs are present.

H4. The self-identification as a feminist moderates the relationship between internalized misogyny and the recognition of microaggressions (exploratory).

To investigate these questions and test the proposed hypotheses, a quantitative online survey was conducted. The following section outlines the methodology, including sample description, measures, and data analysis procedures.

Method

Ethics and Transparency

All materials for both pretest and main study, including the full questionnaire, raw data (as downloaded from the survey platform), edited data used for the final analyses, codebook, and annotated analysis scripts, are openly available on the Open Science Framework (OSF). The study was preregistered prior to data collection, and the preregistration, as well as all associated files, can be accessed via the following link: https://osf.io/4khsq/?view_only=c7dc245fff904882800ba52b7988a073

The present study was based on the same sample and online survey as the research project conducted by a research partner, which received ethical approval from the Departmental Review Board of the Department of Occupational, Economic, and Social Psychology of the University of Vienna (Approval ID: 2024/W/013). This includes the identical informed consent procedure and debriefing information provided to participants, but not the items on sexist microaggressions, which were not part of the approved materials from the research partner's study. Although a separate ethics application was submitted for the present study, final approval was not granted due to missing supplementary documentation (i.e., example items of sexist microaggressions and an expanded debriefing section). Consequently, the study does not hold full ethical approval. This limitation is acknowledged and transparently reported.

In the preparation of this thesis, generative artificial intelligence tools (OpenAI's ChatGPT, versions GPT-4 and GPT-5) were used in a limited manner to support the author's workflow. These tools were employed exclusively for organizational and linguistic assistance. All conceptual, analytical, and interpretative decisions, as well as the full scientific content of this thesis, are solely the responsibility of the author.

Sample

Participants were recruited online through a combination of personal contacts, university groups and relevant social media platforms. In addition, older participants were specifically recruited via the German-language magazine "wechselweise.net", which focuses on menopause and conscious aging. The researcher is affiliated with this magazine, which

enabled targeted outreach to women in the older age group. Participation was voluntary and uncompensated. Notably, sampling and data collection procedures were shared with the study conducted a research partner.

To ensure comparability across different sociocultural and feminist contexts, the study employed age- and gender-specific inclusion criteria. Only individuals within the age ranges of 20–35 years and 50–65 years were eligible to participate. These age ranges were chosen to represent two distinct generational cohorts shaped by different *waves of feminism* (Rampton, 2015). The younger group (20–35 years) primarily reflects individuals influenced by the third and fourth feminist waves, which emphasize identity politics, intersectionality, personal empowerment, and digital activism (Munro, 2013; Zimmerman, 2017). This group represents the feminist perspectives of younger millennials and Generation Z. The older group (50–65 years) corresponds to individuals socialized during the second wave of feminism (1960s–1990s), which was characterized by collective struggles for legal equality, reproductive rights, and a redefinition of traditional gender roles (Rigault, 2017; Rampton, 2015), experiences typical among older Generation X and baby boomers.

Importantly, inclusion criteria were defined not only by age but also by gender socialization. Only cisgender women and non-binary individuals who are socially perceived and read as female were included in the study. This was based on the assumption that experiences of sexism and internalized misogyny are strongly mediated by being socialized and perceived as female in a patriarchal society (Bem, 1993; Lips, 2018). Exclusion criteria comprised all individuals (1) outside the defined age ranges and/or (2) without female socialization.

The selection of a binary age grouping is grounded in a *socialization hypothesis*, proposing that internalized gender norms and attitudes are shaped through social, political, and cultural experiences unique to a given generation. However, this hypothesis is not exhaustive; other plausible explanations for age-related differences in the perception of *sexism* include differential exposure to sexist experiences such as sexual harassment, which workplace-related research suggests may be more prevalent among younger women (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Buchanan et al., 2014). Nevertheless, a generational lens enables the examination of feminist identification and awareness of subtle gender-based discrimination as historically embedded constructs.

The total sample size aimed for was 200 participants, which corresponds with the sample size of the parallel study conducted by a researcher's colleague. A priori power analysis using G*Power 3.1 (Faul et al., 2009) was conducted to determine the required sample size for a

multiple linear regression with six predictors. Setting alpha at $\alpha = 0.05$ and power at 0.80, the analysis indicated that a minimum of 98 participants was needed to detect a medium effect size ($f^2 = 0.15$). However, to account for possible smaller effect sizes, missing values, and subgroup comparisons, a more conservative target sample of 200 was defined, which allows for detection of effect sizes as small as $f^2 = 0.07$. Previous studies (Swim et al., 2004; Swim et al., 2005), exploring the relationship between sexist beliefs and the perception of sexist language/ situations, suggest that the relationship between *internalized misogyny* and the perception of *sexist microaggressions* is likely to be modest. While these studies do not provide precise effect size estimates for their findings, another study (Parks & Roberton, 2008) showed a strong connection between attitude towards women and attitudes towards sexist language in all age groups, reaching a medium to large effect (Parks & Roberton, 2008). Due to a possible smaller effect in this case and to plan for missing values, the sample size was adjusted accordingly. Data collection began on December 13, 2024, and was completed on December 19, 2024, at which point the target sample size of 200 participants was reached. In accordance with the predefined stopping rule, recruitment was to end either upon reaching the target sample or by December 22, 2024, whichever occurred first.

Data exclusion was limited to the predefined eligibility criteria. Participants were excluded if they indicated that they belonged to neither of the two required age groups (20–35 or 50–65 years) or reported not having experienced female socialization. Due to a technical error in the survey logic, 18 participants who selected the third age option (i.e., did not belong to either age group) and 7 participants who selected the second gender option (i.e., not female socialized) were not automatically excluded during data collection, as initially intended. These 25 cases were removed manually from the dataset prior to analysis. No further eligibility checks were conducted beyond these exclusion criteria, and outliers were retained in the dataset.

Speeders, participants who complete the survey unusually quickly, were identified using a conventional approach by examining the distribution of survey completion times across all participants. To establish a threshold, overall completion times were analyzed, and percentiles were calculated to determine cutoff points. The 10th percentile threshold was 44.10 seconds. But based on the structure and length of the questionnaire, a conservative lower boundary for valid completion was established at approximately three minutes. No participants completed the survey in under 180 seconds, and thus no cases were excluded based on this criterion. Three participants' completion time was not recorded due to a technical error. These cases were retained in the final analysis, as their responses were complete and showed no other

indications of poor data quality. After data exclusion, the final sample consisted of $N = 175$ participants. Specifically, the younger age group included $n = 118$, $M = 24.92$, $SD = 3.20$, and the older age group included $n = 57$, $M = 55.82$, $SD = 4.36$.

Procedure

The study employed a cross-sectional between-subjects design using an online survey format. All participants completed the same questionnaire. Eligibility was restricted to participants within one of the two predefined age groups (20–35 or 50–65 years) and with female socialization. Individuals who did not meet these inclusion criteria were excluded during the initial screening process.

Following screening, participants evaluated statements representing sexist microaggressions and completed several psychological and demographic measures presented in randomized order. These included internalized misogyny, level of education, political orientation, religiosity, feminist self-identification, as well as constructs such as self-compassion, self-efficacy, and impostor syndrome. The survey concluded with a debriefing statement explaining the study's aims and providing contact information for follow-up questions.

Materials

The following section outlines the measures used to assess the key constructs of interest.

Independent Variable: Internalized Misogyny (Interval scale)

Internalized misogyny was assessed as a continuous variable using a German translation of the Internalized Misogyny Scale (Han et al., 2023; Pigott, 2004; Reiter et al., in preparation). The scale consists of 17 items rated on a 7-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). The instrument captures internalized beliefs and attitudes that reflect the internal adoption of sexist or patriarchal norms and comprises three subscales: *devaluation of women*, *distrust of women*, and *gender bias in favor of men*, which together provide a differentiated assessment of internalized misogynistic attitudes (Han et al., 2023). Example items include: "I think that most women would lie just to get ahead" and "Generally, I prefer to work with men" (Han et al., 2023).

Dependent Variable: Perception of Sexist Microaggressions (Interval scale)

The perception of sexist microaggressions was measured using participants' responses to 14 short case vignettes, each rated across three dimensions on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). These three dimensions were: (1) *Perceived sexism*

("I perceive the situation as sexist"), assessing to what extent participants classify a given scenario as sexist. This aspect is directly linked to the research question and should therefore be included but may cause bias alone as it is very abstract. (2) *Discomfort* ("I find the situation uncomfortable"), capturing the participant's emotional response to the situation and can help to understand how strongly they feel affected by the statements. And (3) *Inappropriateness* ("I perceive the situation as inappropriate"), measuring how problematic or socially unacceptable the situation is perceived to be. These three scales jointly serve to capture both cognitive and affective components of participants' evaluations, thereby allowing a nuanced assessment of their reactions to sexist content.

The vignettes were presented in randomized order to reduce fatigue and sequencing effects. Seven of the 14 items depict sexist microaggressions across different domains of everyday life: education/career, leisure, sports, public spaces, media/television, friendship/partnership, and healthcare. These vignettes were developed based on the typology of microaggressions by Sue and Spanierman (2020) as well as the thematic categorizations proposed by Derthick (2015). In addition, seven **control items** that do not contain any microaggressive content were included to test whether participants were able to distinguish between discriminatory and neutral scenarios, thereby serving as an internal validity check.

Items. Participants were asked to imagine themselves in a variety of everyday situations and indicate the extent to which they agreed with each statement on a 7-point Likert scale. The final set consisted of seven experimental items and seven control items. Below, the experimental items are described along with their theoretical classification (see Table 2).

Table 2

Final Selection of Experimental Items and Control Items

Experimental Items	**Control Items**
1. Education & Career	
During a career orientation day, a woman is encouraged to focus on "typically female" professions such as early childhood education or hairdressing. *Type.* Microinsult: Subtle derogation through stereotypical expectations regarding professional competence. *Theme.* Traditional gender roles: The woman is steered toward conventionally feminine career paths.	A new colleague is introduced to a woman and compliments her expertise after hearing about her project successes.
2. Leisure	
In a recreational tech course, a male participant unsolicitedly explains basic concepts to a woman, even after she introduces herself as an engineer. *Type.* Microinsult: suggests assumed incompetence despite her stated expertise. *Theme.* Ascription of intelligence/ Assumption of inferiority: the woman is presumed to lack knowledge due to her gender.	At a party, a woman compliments her friend's creative decoration ideas and asks whether she organizes events often.
3. Sports	
A man watches a woman lift weights and comments: "Wow, for a woman, you lift a lot!" *Type.* Microinsult: A backhanded compliment that reinforces gender stereotypes.	At the gym, a trainer invites a woman to participate in a targeted strength training program during her next visit.

Theme. Assumptions of inferiority: women are presumed to be physically less capable.	
4. Media Representation	
An advertisement for a gym features hypersexualized images of women, while men are depicted as strong and competent athletes. *Type.* Environmental microaggression: Macro-level expression of sexism embedded in media. *Theme.* Sexual objectification: Women are portrayed as sexual objects rather than as competent or athletic.	A news segment highlights a female CEO's professional achievements without referencing private aspects such as family or appearance.
5. Healthcare	
A woman reports pain during a doctor's visit, and the physician replies: "That's probably psychosomatic – women often exaggerate." *Type.* Microinvalidation: her bodily experience is dismissed. *Theme.* Invalidating women's realities: Her pain is not taken seriously because of her gender.	A doctor offers to explain all treatment options in detail before the patient makes a decision.
6. Relationships	
A woman expresses her opinion in a discussion. Her partner responds: "You're being emotional again – it's hard to stay objective." *Type.* Microinsult: her contribution is devalued by attributing it to emotion. *Theme.* Assumptions of inferiority: implies women are too emotional for rational discourse.	A man offers to cook dinner because his partner had a long day.
7. Public Spaces	

A woman complains to a shop owner about rude treatment. He replies: “That wasn’t so bad. You’re overreacting.” *Type.* Microinvalidation: her experience is minimized. *Theme.* Denial of sexism / Invalidating women’s realities: her concern is dismissed as oversensitive, and the possibility of discrimination is denied.	A woman is greeted warmly by a barista and asked whether she would like her usual coffee.

Note. Based on types and themes from Sue & Spanierman (2020) and Derthick (2015).

Item Development and selection process. 70 items (42 experimental items, 28 control items) were developed (see Appendix B1) and then subjected to several pretests for an item pool. In the pretest, one of the experimental items was accidentally presented twice. This minor duplication may have slightly affected participants’ ratings for that item, but it is unlikely to have influenced the overall pretest results or item selection process. As a prolonged study period can impair the attention and accuracy of the participants, it is important that the total number of items is not too high: As the study could be strongly influenced by sequence effects (e.g. by increasingly negative attitudes when situations containing microaggressions accumulate) and in order to have a good balance between experimental and control items, a 1:1 ratio was used: One representative experimental item for each of the seven different areas of life and one control item for each. This means a total of seven experimental items plus seven control items are included, i.e. 14 items in total.

To validate the item pool and ensure both theoretical consistency and practical feasibility for the main study, a pretest was conducted. Notably, it was conducted with a small convenience sample ($N = 11$). As such, all analyses must be interpreted cautiously. Rather than aiming for robust statistical generalizations, the pretest served as a qualitative-quantitative filter, allowing refinement of the item pool and the exclusion of clearly unsuitable items. The final item set is therefore based on a combination of statistical indicators and theoretical judgment, ensuring both psychometric adequacy and content validity for the main study. The procedure included the following steps:

Step 1: Index Formation. Each of the 70 items was evaluated across three dimensions. To simplify data handling and focus on the general impression of each item, an index score was computed by averaging the three dimensions for each item. This index served

as the basis for comparing item responses and performing item-level analyses. The rationale for this step was to ensure that each item simultaneously touches on multiple facets of sexist microaggressions - cognitive (perceived sexism), normative (inappropriateness), and emotional (discomfort) - thus reflecting the multidimensional nature of sexist experiences.

Step 2: Descriptive Statistics and Selection Criteria for Experimental Items. To identify suitable experimental items, several statistical criteria were considered. Firstly, items with a standard deviation (*SD*) between 1.00 and 2.00 were favored. A moderate *SD* suggests that an item is neither rated too uniformly - which may indicate irrelevance or lack of clarity - nor too inconsistently, which could point to confusion, ambiguity, or interpretational variability. Items with very low *SD* values may not adequately differentiate between individuals with varying sensitivity to microaggressions, whereas excessively high *SD* values might reflect inconsistent interpretations that compromise measurement reliability. Secondly, a corrected item–total correlation greater than $r = .30$ was considered desirable. This metric reflects the extent to which a given item correlates with the sum of the remaining items, indicating its contribution to the overall construct—in this case, the recognition of sexist microaggressions. A value above .30 is generally accepted in scale construction and suggests conceptual coherence within the item set. Finally, Cronbach's alpha was used as an indicator of sufficient internal consistency. A reliability coefficient above the threshold of $\alpha = .70$ is considered acceptable in psychological research and implies that the selected items function together as a coherent scale (see Appendix B2).

While statistical indicators were an important selection tool, theoretical representativeness was primarily considered. Each item was designed to reflect one of seven relevant life domains (e.g., work, family, public space) and is based on the different themes and types (Derthick, 2015, Sue & Spanierman, 2020). Items that best captured typical, relatable forms of subtle sexism in these domains—without relying on overt or controversial wording—were preferred, even if their psychometric values were slightly weaker.

Step 3: Criteria and Rationale for Control Items. Control items were designed to appear non-sexist and to serve as a comparison baseline in the main study. Their selection followed specific criteria. Firstly, items with low mean values (approximately $M = 1.00\text{-}2.00$) on all rating dimensions were prioritized. This indicates that the control items were perceived as non-problematic, neutral, or benign, thereby validating them as appropriate control stimuli. A low mean is essential to demonstrate that participants are capable of distinguishing between subtle sexist content and neutral statements. Secondly, low standard deviations

(approximately *SD* = 0.50-1.00) were considered important (see Appendix B3). A low *SD* reflects a high level of agreement among participants, suggesting that the control item was interpreted consistently and perceived as unambiguous and inoffensive. Finally, low correlations with the experimental items (i.e., $r < .20$) were deemed desirable. Such low correlations ensure that the control items do not overlap semantically or affectively with the experimental items. This distinction is crucial for maintaining discriminant validity and helps reinforce the contrast between sexist and non-sexist content, which is central to the experimental manipulation.

Step 4: Final Item Selection. After evaluating the statistical properties and ensuring domain coverage, one experimental and one control item from each life domain were selected for the main study. In some cases, items that did not fully meet every statistical criterion were still included due to their strong representational value within the theoretical framework of the study. The aim was to ensure that the final set reflects the diversity of real-life microaggressions, rather than selecting only the most extreme or obviously sexist ones.

Control Variables

Several control variables were included in the analysis to account for potential confounding effects. Age was recorded as a ratio-scale variable and used to assign participants to one of two groups: younger individuals aged 20–35 and older individuals aged 50–65. Education was measured on an ordinal scale using a single-item question: *"What is your highest level of education?"*, with multiple categorical response options reflecting the German education system. Religiosity was assessed on an interval scale via a single-item measure from Reiter et al. (in preparation): *"Many people officially belong to a religion but practice it very differently. How is it for you: Do you consider yourself a religious person?"*, rated on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*completely*). Political orientation was also measured on an interval scale using a single item adapted and translated from Hadler et al. (2024) asking participants to place themselves on a scale from 0 (*left*) to 7 (*right*), "*In politics, people sometimes talk about 'left' and 'right'. Where would you place yourself on this scale, where 0 stands for left and 7 for right?*". In addition, self-identification as a feminist was measured on an interval scale with the single item *"I consider myself a feminist and actively support gender equality"*, adapted and translated from the Feminist Identity Development Scale (Bargad & Hyde, 1991), rated on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (*not at all*) to 7 (*completely*). Further psychological variables, including self-efficacy, impostor syndrome, self-compassion,

and ethnicity, were also collected as part of a research partner ‘s study. To minimize order effects, the presentation of all items was randomized across participants.

Data Analysis

The data analysis was conducted using the software SPSS Statistics (Version 29.0; IBM Corp., 2022), instead of JASP (JASP Team, 2023) as originally preregistered. The online survey was designed in a way that required participants to answer all items, which effectively prevented missing data. This approach ensured complete datasets for each participant, improving the reliability of the results and eliminating the need for multiple imputations or other procedures to handle missing values.

Prior to the descriptive and inferential analyses, composite scores were created and prepared for both the independent variable (*internalized misogyny*) and the dependent variable (*perceived sexist microaggression*s). For the *Internalized Misogyny Scale*, Item 10 was reverse-coded and a mean scale was calculated ($M = 2.21$). To improve the interpretability of regression coefficients and reduce multicollinearity, a mean-centered score for *internalized misogyny* was computed.

Regarding the dependent variable, individual scores were first computed for each item depicting sexist microaggressions. From these, an overall experimental score was calculated for each participant by averaging the responses across all experimental items ($M = 5.60$). This variable was also mean-centered for use in regression analysis. Additionally, a separate control score was computed based on the control items without sexist content, yielding a substantially lower mean ($M = 1.49$), which supported the successful differentiation between experimental and neutral stimuli.

For the variable education, 10 participants who selected “other” provided categorizable responses and were recoded accordingly. To test whether internalized misogyny positively predicts the perception of sexist microaggressions (H1), a linear regression model was used, with age, political attitudes, education, religion and feminism as control variables. Two-tailed *t*-tests were applied to test for differences in internalized misogyny and perception of sexist microaggressions between age groups (H2, H3), deviating from the preregistered plan to use a multiple linear regression. This analytic decision was made based on the structure of the hypotheses, which focused on group comparisons rather than prediction. Additionally, *t*-tests were more straightforward and appropriate for testing mean differences in this context. Age group served as the predictor variable, and internalized misogyny (H2) and the recognition of

sexist microaggressions (H3) as the dependent variables. The same control variables as in H1 were included.

To explore whether self-identification as a feminist moderates the relationship between internalized misogyny and the recognition of sexist microaggressions (H4), a moderation analysis was conducted. Internalized misogyny (mean centered) was used as predictor, self-assigned feminism as the moderator, and their interaction term were entered into a multiple linear regression model, with the recognition of sexist microaggressions (mean centered) as the dependent variable. Control variables were included. To further explore the relationships between the key variables, two exploratory moderation analyses were conducted to examine whether the association between feminist self-identification and (H4a) the perception of sexist microaggressions and (H4b) internalized misogyny differed between age groups. An interaction term (Feminist Identification x Age Group) was computed for each model. Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression was used in both cases.

For all analyses, the standard significance threshold of $p < 0.05$ was used to determine whether results are statistically significant. Effect sizes were also reported to evaluate the magnitude of the observed effects.

Assumption Checks

To ensure the validity of the planned regression analyses, several assumptions were tested in advance. First, the standard assumptions for linear regression were evaluated. The assumption of independence of residuals was tested using the Durbin-Watson test. The result was $D = 1.93$, which falls within the acceptable range of 1.5 to 2.5, indicating that there was no relevant autocorrelation in the residuals. Linearity between the independent variables (internalized misogyny, age, political attitude, religiosity, self-identification as feminist, and education) and the dependent variable was assessed using scatterplots. The plots indicated linear relationships between each predictor and the outcome variable (see Appendix C1-C6). To assess homoscedasticity, unstandardized residuals were plotted against unstandardized predicted values. The resulting scatterplot showed a random distribution of residuals along the x-axis, indicating that the assumption of equal variances was met (see Appendix C7). Multicollinearity among predictors was examined using tolerance and variance inflation factor (VIF) values. All tolerance values were above 0.10 and all VIF values were below 10, indicating that multicollinearity was not a concern in this model (see Appendix C8). Finally, the normality of residuals was assessed using both the Shapiro-Wilk test and the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. Both tests yielded significant results ($p < .001$), indicating a statistical deviation from normality. However, visual inspection showed that the residuals were approximately

normally distributed with data points clustering around the diagonal line in the Q-Q plot and forming a roughly bell-shaped curve in the histogram (see Appendix C9 and C10). Given that linear regression is robust to minor violations of normality in larger samples, this deviation was considered negligible and did not meaningfully violate the assumption of normally distributed residuals.

Results

Preliminary Analyses

Before conducting inferential analyses, descriptive statistics were computed to provide an overview of scale characteristics and distributions of all variables.

Scale Characteristics

Descriptive statistics and internal consistencies (Cronbach's α) were calculated for the two scales used in the study:

The translated and adapted version of the *Internalized Misogyny Scale* (Han et al., 2023, Pigott, 2004, Reiter et al., in preparation) showed good internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha of α = .86. The mean score was $M = 38.93$, with a standard deviation of $SD = 13.35$.

The newly developed Scale for the perception of sexist microaggressions also demonstrated high reliability, with α = .87 for the seven experimental items, indicating that they reliably measure the same underlying construct. The mean score was $M = 5.60$, $SD = 1.16$. The seven control items, which were designed to represent neutral (non-sexist) situations, also showed good internal consistency (α = .73), with a mean score of $M = 1.50$, $SD = 0.56$. A very low correlation between the experimental and control item scores ($r = .06$) supports the conceptual distinction between the two sets. Furthermore, a one-sided t-test confirmed that the mean ratings for the control items were significantly lower than those for the experimental items $t(174) = 43.32$, 95% CI [3.92, 4.29], $p < .001$), with a large effect size of Cohen's $d = 1.25$.

Key Variables

Age Group 1 (20–35 years) included $n = 118$ (67.4%), $M = 24.92$, $SD = 3.20$, and Age Group 2 (50–65 years) included $n = 57$ (32.6%), $M = 55.82$, $SD = 4.36$.

The overall mean score for internalized misogyny was $M = 2.21$ ($SD = 0.86$). In the younger age group, internalized misogyny scores were lower ($n = 118$, $M = 1.94$, $SD = 0.69$) compared to the older age group ($n = 57$, $M = 2.75$, $SD = 0.12$).

The mean score for the perception of microaggressions in the experimental items was M = 5.60 (SD = 1.16). Participants in the younger age group reported higher perception scores (n = 118, M = 6.01, SD = 0.87), while participants in the older age group reported lower scores (n = 57, M = 4.73, SD = 1.21).

For the control items (depicting no sexist microaggressions), the overall mean score was M = 1.49 (SD = 0.56). The younger group showed a slightly lower mean (n = 118, M = 1.47, SD = 0.47) than the older group (n = 57, M = 1.54, SD = 0.72).

The distributions of the variables were evaluated using visualizations (see Appendix D1-D10), and skewness and kurtosis values were assessed to check for substantial deviations from normality (see Appendix D11). All variables fell within acceptable ranges, with skewness values between -1 and 1 and kurtosis values between -2 and 2, which are considered tolerable for parametric analyses.

Control Variables (across all participants)

As the main analysis was conducted using a linear regression model, with age group included as a control variable (or predictor), it was not necessary to report descriptive statistics separately for each age group for all variables – only for those used for group comparisons, namely internalized misogyny (H2) and perception of microaggression (H3), individual descriptives for every age group were relevant for this study (as reported above). The regression analysis accounts for group differences statistically by modeling group membership directly. Therefore, overall descriptive statistics of the control variables across the entire sample (see table 3) are sufficient to address the main research questions. The sample was predominantly highly educated, non-religious, politically left leaning and feminist (see Table 3).

Table 3

Control Variables Across All Participants

	M	*SD*
Education (1–5)	2.69	1.05
Religiosity (1-7)	2.57	1.70
Political attitude (0 - 7)	2.86	1.29
Self-identified feminism (1-7)	5.13	1.78

Notes: N= 175

All variables were significantly intercorrelated ($p < .001$; see Table 4). Higher levels of religiosity and more conservative political attitudes were associated with greater internalized misogyny and lower identification as a feminist. In contrast, identifying as a feminist was strongly linked to lower levels of internalized misogyny and a higher sensitivity to sexist microaggressions. As expected, internalized misogyny was negatively correlated with the perception of sexist microaggressions, indicating that participants with more internalized sexist beliefs were less likely to recognize microaggressive behavior. Additionally, individuals with stronger religious beliefs and more conservative political orientations tended to be less likely to perceive sexist microaggressions.

Table 4

Correlational Matrix of all Variables (except age and education)

Variables	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1. Religiosity	1				
2. Political Attitude	.41**	1			
3. Self-Assigned Feminism	.28**	-.46**	1		
4. Internalized Misogyny	.27**	.45**	-.56**	1	
5. Perception of Sexist Microaggressions	-.49**	-.44**	.54**	-.60**	1

*Notes: N= 175, **p < .001*

These descriptive analyses provide a foundation for the subsequent inferential tests and serve to check basic assumptions for linear regression analyses.

First Research Question: To what extent does internalized misogyny predict the perception of sexist microaggressions among women and female-socialized individuals?

Hypothesis 1 (directional): Internalized misogyny positively predicts recognition of sexist microaggressions. The overall regression model was statistically significant, $F(6, 168) = 28.92$, $p < .001$. The adjusted coefficient of determination was $R^2 = .49$, indicating a medium to large effect size. As hypothesized (H1), internalized misogyny significantly predicted the recognition of sexist microaggressions, with higher levels of internalized misogyny being associated with lower recognition, $\beta = -.31$, $t(168) = -4.44$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [−0.60, −0.23].

Among the control variables, age emerged as a significant predictor, $\beta = -.29$, $t(168) = -4.45$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [−0.03, −0.01], indicating that higher age was associated with lower recognition of sexist microaggressions. Political orientation also significantly predicted recognition, $\beta = -.13$, $t(168) = -2.00$, $p = .047$, 95% CI [−0.24, −0.00], with more

conservative views being associated with lower recognition. Education showed a significant positive association, $\beta = .15$, $t(168) = 2.69$, $p = .008$, 95% CI [0.04, 0.29], suggesting that higher educational attainment predicted greater recognition. Furthermore, self-identification as a feminist was positively associated with microaggression recognition, $\beta = .17$, $t(168) = 2.34$, $p = .021$, 95% CI [0.02, 0.20]. Religiosity, however, did not significantly predict the outcome, $\beta = .02$, $t(168) = 0.40$, $p = .692$, 95% CI [-0.07, 0.10].

Second Research Question: Does the level of internalized misogyny or the perception of sexist microaggressions differ between younger and older participants?

To test differences in the level of internalized misogyny between age groups (H2), an independent samples t-test was conducted. Levene's test indicated a violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variances, $F(173) = 11{,}19$, $p = .001$. Therefore, Welch's *t*-test was used to evaluate the group difference. The results revealed a significant difference, $t(87.74) = 34.52$, 95% CI [-1.08, -0.53], $p < .001$ with the older age group ($M = 2.75$, $SD = 0.91$) reporting higher scores of internalized misogyny than the younger age group ($M = 1.94$, $SD = 0.67$). The effect size was large, $d = 0.77$.

An independent samples t-test was also conducted to assess whether the perception of sexist microaggressions differed between the age groups (H3). Again, Levene's test indicated a violation of the assumption of homogeneity of variances, $F(173) = 9.20$, $p = .003$. Therefore, Welch's *t*-test was used to evaluate the group difference. The results revealed a significant difference $t(1, 87.14) = 51.33$, 95% CI [0.93, 1.64], $p < .001$ with the younger age group ($M = 6.01$, $SD = 0.986$) rating sexist microaggressions higher than the older age group ($M = 4.73$, $SD = 1.21$). The effect size was very large, $d = 0.99$.

Given the preregistered plan to control for multiple comparisons, a Bonferroni correction was considered for the two independent *t*-tests (H2 and H3). However, both tests yielded *p* values < .001, which remained statistically significant even after correction (adjusted $\alpha = .025$). Therefore, no adjustment was necessary.

Exploratory Analysis

Third Research Question: Does feminist self-identification moderate the relationship between internalized misogyny and the perception of sexist microaggressions?

To explore whether self-identification as a feminist moderates the relationship between internalized misogyny and the recognition of sexist microaggressions (H4), a moderation analysis was conducted. In line with the hypothesis, the regression model was statistically

significant overall, F= 24.64, p < .001, explaining 48.7% of the variance in microaggression recognition. However, the interaction term was not significant (β = .006, p = .928, 95% CI [-0.08, 0.06]), indicating that feminist identification did not moderate the relationship between internalized misogyny and the perception of sexist microaggressions. This suggests that the negative association between internalized misogyny and the recognition of sexist microaggressions is consistent regardless of one's degree of feminist self-identification.

Further Exploration: Age Group as a Moderator.

H4a. In the first model, with perception of sexist microaggressions as the dependent variable, the interaction between age group and feminist self-identification was not statistically significant, β = .01, p = .95, 95% CI [−.15, .16]. This indicates that the strength and direction of the relationship between feminist identification and the perception of sexist microaggressions did not differ significantly across age groups.

H4b. The second model, which examined internalized misogyny as the outcome variable, showed no significant interaction between feminist self-identification and age group, β = .27, p = .21, 95% CI [−.05, .21]. This suggests that the relationship between feminist identification and internalized misogyny did not vary between age groups. Among both younger and older participants, higher feminist identification was associated with substantially lower levels of internalized misogyny.

Sensitivity Analysis

To ensure the robustness of the results and to detect potential multivariate outliers, a sensitivity analysis was conducted using *Mahalanobis distance*. Since no substantial violations of the assumptions of classical linear regression (i.e., normality, homoscedasticity, linearity, and independence of residuals) were identified in the preliminary diagnostics, a comprehensive robust method comparison was deemed unnecessary. However, as preregistered, outliers were not excluded from the main analysis. The sensitivity analysis was therefore conducted post hoc to assess the potential influence of extreme cases.

First, Mahalanobis distance was computed using all six predictor variables included in the main regression model: internalized misogyny (mean-centered), feminist identification, age, political attitude, education, and religiosity. Given the number of predictors, the degrees of freedom for the chi-square distribution were set to df = 6. A conservative alpha level of p = .001 was chosen to define the threshold for multivariate outliers. The corresponding critical value from the chi-square distribution was χ^2 (6) = 22.46. Cases exceeding this value were

flagged as potential multivariate outliers. One participant was identified as a multivariate outlier and temporarily excluded from analyses for the purpose of the sensitivity check.

The main regression model was then recalculated without this case. The results remained stable: the relationship between internalized misogyny and sexist microaggression recognition remained statistically significant at $p < .001$, with an adjusted $R^2 = .49$. These findings indicate that the results are robust and not unduly influenced by extreme multivariate cases. Therefore, the inclusion of this case in the final model is justified. Given that only one case exceeded the critical threshold, a full table of Mahalanobis values is not included here. The syntax used for the calculation of Mahalanobis distance and the corresponding sensitivity analysis is available via the OSF-link that is reported above.

Discussion

This study examined how internalized misogyny relates to the perception of sexist microaggressions and whether age groups differ in these variables. Results showed that higher internalized misogyny was associated with lower recognition of microaggressions, with older participants reporting more internalized misogyny and less recognition than younger ones. Feminist self-identification did not moderate this relationship.

First Research Question

The results indicated a significant negative association between internalized misogyny and the recognition of sexist microaggressions, controlling for age, political orientation, education, religiosity, and feminist self-identification. The effect size was medium to large, with the overall model explaining a substantial proportion of variance ($R^2\_adj = .49$), which aligns with and extends prior findings on the influence of internalized sexist beliefs on perception (Swim et al., 2004, 2005; Parks & Roberton, 2008). This suggests that internalized misogyny may be linked to lower sensitivity to subtle sexist behaviors, potentially by shaping cognitive and interpretative frameworks.

When interpreting the role of control variables, several sociocultural patterns emerged that provide insight into the mechanisms shaping individuals' sensitivity to sexist microaggressions. Age was a significant predictor, with younger participants being more likely to recognize microaggressions than older individuals. This aligns with prior research suggesting that younger generations tend to be more attuned to issues of social justice, including gender-based discrimination (Duncan, 2010; Munro, 2013; Zimmerman, 2017). These generational differences may stem from increased exposure to feminist discourses and

shifting societal norms, whereas older individuals may have internalized more traditional gender ideologies (Rampton, 2015; Rigault, 2017). Political orientation was marginally associated with microaggression recognition, with more conservative individuals showing lower sensitivity. Although the effect size was small, this pattern is consistent with literature that has found associations between conservative ideology and more traditional gender role attitudes as well as lower recognition of structural inequality (Dehlin & Galliher, 2019). The current sample, however, was rather left leaning and therefore not representative). Further research may be needed to explore the underlying mechanisms linking political ideology to microaggression recognition. It is possible that conservative individuals tend to view subtle forms of sexism differently, possibly reflecting stronger endorsement of traditional gender roles and social hierarchies. Education was another significant predictor, with higher educational attainment associated with greater recognition. This is consistent with the view that education may be linked to greater critical engagement with normative social structures, including gendered power relations (Becker & Wagner, 2009; Glick et al., 2002; Parks & Roberton, 2008). Similarly, feminist self-identification was positively associated with recognition of sexist microaggressions, in line with previous findings showing that feminists often report higher awareness of gender-based discrimination (Becker & Wagner, 2009). In contrast, religiosity was not significantly related to microaggression recognition in this sample, which diverges from earlier studies that associated religiosity with more traditional gender attitudes (Bryant, 2003; Dehlin & Galliher, 2019; Glick et al., 2002). This discrepancy may reflect the specific characteristics of the current sample, which consisted primarily of young, urban, and politically progressive individuals, a demographic notably less religious than the Austrian general population, where most of the participants were from (Statistik Austria, 2024). Taken together, these findings emphasize the relevance of ideological positioning and socialization processes—such as education, feminist identity, and generational context—in shaping the recognition of subtle sexism. Practical implications may include the promotion of critical feminist education and targeted awareness efforts for subgroups with more traditional worldviews.

On the Limits of Causal Conclusions

While the findings support the hypothesis that internalized misogyny predicts the recognition of sexist microaggressions, it is important to consider the possibility of *reversed causality* - that is, whether experiencing more microaggressions throughout one's life might contribute to the development of higher levels of internalized misogyny. This alternative explanation suggests that individuals who are exposed to more instances of sexism or discrimination could

internalize these experiences, leading to a stronger acceptance of traditional gender roles and stereotypes. Research has shown that repeated exposure to microaggressions can negatively affect psychological well-being and self-perception, potentially reinforcing the internalization of societal norms that marginalize women (Sue et al., 2007, Sue & Spanierman, 2020).

In the context of this study, it is possible that women who have experienced higher levels of microaggressions may be more likely to internalize the misogynistic attitudes and beliefs they encounter in society, which, in turn, could reduce their ability to recognize sexist microaggressions. This would suggest a bidirectional relationship, where internalized misogyny and the recognition of microaggressions influence each other. Although the current study does not address this aspect explicitly, future research could explore this dynamic in greater depth. For example, a longitudinal design could track changes in internalized misogyny and the perception of microaggressions over time, allowing researchers to assess potential causal pathways. Alternatively, experimental approaches could manipulate exposure to sexist content or interventions aimed at reducing internalized misogyny and then measure participants' sensitivity to microaggressions. Such studies would help clarify whether *internalized misogyny* reduces recognition of sexism, or whether frequent exposure to microaggressions fosters internalized beliefs. Additionally, qualitative methods, such as in-depth interviews or diary studies, could capture the lived experiences of women navigating both internal and external sexism, offering nuanced insights into how these processes unfold in everyday life.

In conclusion, while the results of this study support the notion that internalized misogyny can reduce the recognition of microaggressions, it is crucial to acknowledge that the relationship between these variables may be complex and reciprocal. Future studies should investigate the potential for reversed causality and bidirectional influences to fully capture the dynamics between internalized misogyny and the perception of microaggressions.

Second Research Question

Regarding the second research question, the data confirmed significant generational differences in both levels of internalized misogyny and the perception of sexist microaggressions. As hypothesized (H2), older participants reported significantly higher levels of internalized misogyny than younger participants, with a large effect size. This result aligns with feminist theoretical assumptions and empirical findings indicating that exposure to more overtly patriarchal norms during formative years may be associated with deeper internalization of sexist beliefs (Bearman et al., 2009; Szymanski & Henrichs-Beck, 2013).

Women raised in earlier decades were more likely to encounter rigid gender roles and traditional expectations, often reinforced through family, media, education, and religion. The large effect size further emphasizes that internalized misogyny is not evenly distributed across age cohorts but shaped by sociohistorical context. The lower mean level and reduced variability of internalized misogyny in the younger group may be linked to more egalitarian socialization environments and increasing access to feminist narratives through education and digital platforms. The violation of the homogeneity of variance assumption offers additional insight: The older group exhibited more variability in internalized misogyny, possibly reflecting divergent life trajectories—ranging from continued adherence to traditional gender roles to later-life engagement with feminist critique. This heterogeneity is theoretically relevant, as it highlights the role of lifelong social learning and unlearning processes. In contrast, the lower variability among younger participants could indicate more homogeneous exposure to egalitarian discourses, particularly in environments where feminist perspectives have become more culturally embedded.

Hypothesis 3 (H3), which predicted generational differences in the perception of sexist microaggressions, was also supported. Younger women rated the microaggressions as significantly more sexist and uncomfortable than older women, again with a large effect size. This finding is consistent with prior literature suggesting that younger generations, particularly those socialized during the rise of fourth-wave feminism and digital activism, exhibit heightened sensitivity to subtle forms of sexism (Munro, 2013; Zimmerman, 2017). The significant violation of the variance assumption—indicating greater heterogeneity in the older group—may similarly point to a wider range of attitudes shaped by differing degrees of feminist engagement and life experiences with sexism. These findings support the view that generational position appears to be related to differences in internalized beliefs and perceptual thresholds for recognizing sexism.

The consistent significance across both t-tests and robust alternatives confirms the reliability of the observed generational differences. These insights contribute to a more nuanced understanding of how internalized misogyny and perceptual sensitivity to sexism develop in response to shifting cultural and historical conditions. From a practical perspective, the findings underline the necessity of tailoring feminist education and awareness initiatives to account for generational differences in socialization, language use, and lived experience. They also suggest that empowerment efforts may benefit from explicitly addressing these generational dynamics to foster mutual understanding and solidarity across age groups.

Third Research Question

The exploratory findings related to the third research question provide valuable insight into the role of feminist self-identification in the relationship between internalized misogyny and the recognition of sexist microaggressions. Contrary to expectations (H4), feminist self-identification did not moderate this relationship, indicating that the negative association between internalized misogyny and microaggression recognition persisted regardless of one's degree of feminist identification. This result challenges prior assumptions that feminist identification necessarily enhances awareness of subtle forms of sexism (Becker & Wagner, 2009). One possible explanation is that feminist self-identification may not capture the complexity or depth of feminist engagement required to sensitize individuals to microaggressions, which are often ambiguous, culturally normalized, and context-dependent.

While feminist self-identification was significantly associated with lower levels of internalized misogyny across age groups, its lack of a moderating effect on microaggression recognition suggests that identification alone may be insufficient to translate into heightened perceptual sensitivity. Recognizing sexist microaggressions may instead require more extensive exposure to feminist discourse, critical reflection, or lived experience with gender-based discrimination—factors that go beyond self-labeling. The small effect sizes further indicate that even though feminist identification has a beneficial association with internalized misogyny, its practical impact on perception processes may be limited within the scope of the present study.

In addition, no significant interaction effects emerged between age group and feminist self-identification in predicting either microaggression recognition (H4a) or internalized misogyny (H4b). This suggests that the observed relationships were consistent across generational lines in this sample. Nevertheless, the question of whether different modes of feminist socialization—such as varying exposure to feminist media, activist contexts, or intersectional perspectives—shape perception differently across age cohorts remains open. Given the evolving nature of feminist discourse and its diverse expressions across generations, future research should explore more differentiated indicators of feminist engagement to clarify these dynamics.

Taken together, these findings emphasize the need for more nuanced conceptualizations of feminist identification in psychological research. While aligning with earlier work on the buffering effects of feminist beliefs against internalized sexism (Becker & Wagner, 2009), the present results underscore that the mere adoption of a feminist identity label may not

sufficiently empower individuals to recognize subtle sexist acts. This highlights the importance of feminist education and consciousness-raising efforts that go beyond self-identification and actively foster critical awareness of structural and interpersonal forms of sexism.

Strengths and Limitations

One of the key strengths of the present study lies in the rigorous validation of the item sets used to measure the perception of sexist microaggressions. The high internal consistency of the experimental items suggests strong coherence in the construct being measured, while the control items also demonstrated acceptable reliability. The minimal correlation between the two item sets and the significant difference in their mean ratings further support the successful differentiation between neutral and sexist statements. These psychometric results strengthen the validity of the dependent variable and thus the interpretation of the main regression findings. Moreover, all statistical assumptions for the linear regression analysis were met. Given the robustness of Ordinary Least Squares regression to minor deviations from normality, especially in larger samples, this is unlikely to have biased the results in a meaningful way. Other critical assumptions, such as homoscedasticity, independence of residuals, absence of multicollinearity, and linearity of relationships, were all satisfactorily met. Another notable strength is the relatively large and diverse sample, which fulfilled all formal statistical requirements and included participants across a broad age range. However, the sampling method also introduces some limitations that must be considered when interpreting the results. Participants in the two age groups were recruited through different channels: younger participants were primarily recruited via university platforms and social media, while the older sample was largely recruited through *wechselweise.net*, a website dedicated to women's health 40+. These recruitment strategies likely captured individuals from distinct sociocultural "bubbles", resulting in potential group differences that go beyond age. Indeed, the descriptive statistics for the control variables reflect a relatively progressive, educated, and tech-savvy sample. The average level of education was high, and participants reported low levels of religiosity and rather left-leaning political views. Notably, the sample showed a strong tendency to self-identify as feminist. These distributions suggest that the findings may not be generalizable to more conservative or less politically engaged populations, where different dynamics of internalized misogyny and microaggression recognition may be at play. While the significant predictors strengthen confidence in the model, the sample's specific characteristics—especially its skew toward younger, educated, politically left-leaning, and secular participants—pose limits to generalizability. The findings

may be most applicable to populations already engaged in feminist or progressive spaces. Future research should seek to include a more diverse sample in terms of age, religiosity, and political ideology to test whether the observed patterns hold across sociocultural contexts. Furthermore, due to the cross-sectional and non-experimental design, causal interpretations cannot be made. The observed associations, although theoretically and empirically grounded, remain correlational. A key limitation of the present study is the lack of formal ethical approval for the entire research project. Due to lacking supplementary information, the application for this study remained without final approval. This procedural shortcoming is acknowledged and transparently reported. Finally, the exclusive reliance on self-report measures, administered online without verification mechanisms, introduces potential biases such as social desirability or lack of introspective accuracy. Nevertheless, the study provides valuable insights into the psychological mechanisms underlying the recognition of everyday sexism. It highlights the importance of internalized gender beliefs and offers a robust measurement approach for future research in this domain. Future studies may benefit from diversifying recruitment channels and incorporating behavioral or experimental measures to further elucidate the causal relationships between internalized misogyny and microaggression sensitivity.

Implications for Research and Practice

The findings of this study have several important implications for both research and practice. First, they highlight the need to treat internalized misogyny not merely as an internal psychological variable but as a product of socialization that has tangible effects on perception and behavior. In research contexts, this underscores the importance of including internalized misogyny as a moderating or mediating variable in studies investigating responses to gender-based discrimination. For practitioners - such as educators, therapists, and diversity trainers - these results point to the relevance of actively addressing internalized gender norms and biases in educational and therapeutic settings. Promoting feminist consciousness, critical media literacy, and gender-reflective education may be key strategies in increasing individuals' sensitivity to subtle forms of sexism and enhancing collective resistance to gender-based microaggressions.

Future research should investigate the bidirectional nature of the relationship between internalized misogyny and the recognition of microaggressions. Longitudinal designs or experimental interventions could provide more clarity on causality and directionality. Additionally, research should aim to include more diverse samples in terms of age, cultural

background, religiosity, and political orientation, in order to examine how these factors interact with internalized misogyny and shape perception. Qualitative studies might also offer deeper insight into the subjective experiences of those who do not perceive certain statements as sexist, thereby revealing the internal logics and narratives that maintain misogynistic beliefs. Finally, given the age-related differences found in this study, future research should further explore the role of generational socialization, intergenerational feminist transmission, and shifting cultural norms in shaping internalized sexism.

Conclusion

In sum, this study confirms that higher levels of internalized misogyny are associated with a decreased likelihood of recognizing sexist microaggressions. Furthermore, significant age-related differences were observed, with older participants reporting higher levels of internalized misogyny and lower sensitivity to microaggressions compared to younger participants. These findings highlight the psychological and social correlates of internalized misogyny and point to the importance of feminist awareness in addressing these patterns. By highlighting the perceptual impact of internalized gender beliefs, the study contributes to a growing body of literature that calls for a deeper understanding of how internal psychological factors interact with broader societal structures to shape individuals' experiences of sexism. As such, this research serves as a foundation for further inquiry into the invisible mechanisms that maintain gender inequality in everyday life.

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Appendix A

English Abstract

This study examines the effect of internalized misogyny on the perception of sexist microaggressions among women and female-socialized individuals, controlling for factors such as age, education, political orientation, religiosity and self-identification with feminism. A total of $N = 175$ participants from two different generations (20–35 and 50–65 years) participated in an online survey, where they evaluated a series of scenarios depicting sexist microaggressions in different areas of everyday life and completed validated measures of internalized misogyny. Findings revealed a significant negative relationship between internalized misogyny and the perception of sexist microaggressions, supporting the hypothesis that higher levels of internalized misogyny are associated with reduced recognition of sexism (H1). Additionally, internalized misogyny levels differed significantly between age groups (H2), as did the perception of sexist microaggressions (H3). Exploratory analyses showed that feminist identification doesn't moderate the relationship between internalized misogyny and perception of sexist microaggressions. These results highlight the psychological impact of internalized sexism and underline the importance of feminist consciousness in recognizing and resisting gender-based microaggressions. The study contributes to the growing literature on microaggressions, gendered socialization, and feminist resistance by offering empirical evidence on generational and ideological differences in the experience of everyday sexism.

German Abstract

Die vorliegende Studie untersucht, wie internalisierte Misogynie mit der Wahrnehmung sexistischer Mikroaggressionen bei Frauen und weiblich sozialisierten Personen zusammenhängt. Berücksichtigt wurden dabei Einflussfaktoren wie Alter, Bildung, politische Orientierung, Religiosität und die feministische Selbstidentifikation. Insgesamt nahmen N = 175 Personen aus zwei Altersgruppen (20–35 und 50–65 Jahre) an einer Onlinebefragung teil. Die Teilnehmenden bewerteten eine Reihe alltagsnaher Szenarien, die verschiedene Formen sexistischer Mikroaggressionen darstellten, und füllten validierte Skalen zur Erfassung internalisierter Misogynie aus. Die Ergebnisse zeigen einen signifikanten negativen Zusammenhang zwischen internalisierter Misogynie und der Wahrnehmung sexistischer Mikroaggressionen: Je stärker die internalisierte Misogynie ausgeprägt war, desto geringer war die Sensibilität für sexistische Aussagen und Verhaltensweisen (H1). Darüber hinaus unterschieden sich sowohl die Ausprägung internalisierter Misogynie (H2) als auch die Wahrnehmung sexistischer Mikroaggressionen (H3) signifikant zwischen den beiden Altersgruppen. Die Befunde verdeutlichen den psychologischen Einfluss internalisierter Formen von Sexismus auf die Wahrnehmung alltäglicher Diskriminierung und betonen die Bedeutung eines feministischen Bewusstseins für das Erkennen und Zurückweisen geschlechtsbezogener Mikroaggressionen. Die Studie trägt zur wachsenden Forschung über Mikroaggressionen, geschlechtsspezifische Sozialisation und feministische Widerstandsfähigkeit bei, indem sie empirische Hinweise auf generationale und ideologische Unterschiede in der Wahrnehmung und Bewertung alltäglichen Sexismus liefert.

Appendix B – Pretest Materials and Item Selection

Table B1

Overview of 70 Pretest Items (German Original Version)

42 Experimental Items	28 Control Items
Education & Career	
(1) Eine Kollegin äußert während eines Teammeetings einen Vorschlag. Ein männlicher Kollege ignoriert sie, wiederholt aber denselben Vorschlag später und erhält Zustimmung vom Team. (2) Ein Chef sagt bei der Besprechung von Beförderungen: „Frauen sind einfach weniger risikobereit – das passt nicht zu Führungsrollen." (3) Eine Frau leitet ein Teammeeting. Nachdem sie den Raum verlassen hat, sagt ein männlicher Kollege: „Sie ist wirklich ein Kontrollfreak – kein Wunder, dass sie keine Freunde hat." (4) Während eines Arztbesuchs wird die Ärztin von einem neuen Patienten als Krankenschwester angesprochen, obwohl ihr Namensschild deutlich „Dr. Meier" anzeigt. (5) Ein Professor spricht die weiblichen Studierenden mit Vornamen an, während er die männlichen Studierenden mit Nachnamen anspricht. (6) Einer Frau wird im Rahmen eines Berufsorientierungstages vorgeschlagen, sich auf „frauentypische Berufe" wie Erzieherin oder Friseurin zu konzentrieren.	(1) Eine Frau schlägt während eines Meetings eine neue Strategie vor. Der Teamleiter bedankt sich und nimmt die Idee für die Diskussion in die Agenda auf. (2) Während eines Meetings wird eine Frau vom Teamleiter um ihre Meinung zu einer strategischen Entscheidung gebeten (3) Ein neuer Kollege wird einer Frau vorgestellt, und er lobt ihre Expertise, nachdem er von ihren Projekterfolgen gehört hat. (4) Ein Professor lobt die analytischen Fähigkeiten einer Studentin und bietet an, sie bei einem Forschungsprojekt zu unterstützen. (5) Ein Bewerbungsinterviewer fragt eine Kandidatin nach ihren Erfahrungen und Kompetenzen ohne geschlechtsspezifische Fragen zu stellen. (6) Eine Vorgesetzte lobt eine Mitarbeiterin für ihre innovative Idee und schlägt vor, diese bei der nächsten Team-Besprechung zu präsentieren.

(7) Während eines Bewerbungsgesprächs fragt der Interviewer eine Frau: „Planen Sie in den nächsten Jahren Kinder?“"	
(8) Eine Mentorin im Studium sagt zu einer Studentin: „Du solltest dir ein bisschen mehr Mühe mit deinem Äußeren geben – das hilft in dieser Branche.“	
(9) In der Geschäftsleitung einer Firma sind alle Top-Positionen mit Männern besetzt, obwohl es qualifizierte Frauen gibt.	
(10) Ein Professor sagt einer Studentin, die eine schildert: „Ich denke, Sie interpretieren zu viel in diese Situation hinein.“	
(11) Ein Professor sagt einer Studentin, die eine schildert: „Ich denke, Sie interpretieren zu viel in diese Situation hinein.“ *	
Leisure	
(12) Während einer Feier rückt ein Mann auf einer überfüllten Tanzfläche dicht an eine Frau heran und legt ungefragt seine Hände auf ihre Taille, um an ihr vorbeizugehen.	(7) Während einer Party lobt eine Freundin eine andere Frau für ihre kreativen Deko-Ideen und fragt sie, ob sie öfter solche Veranstaltungen organisiert.
(13) In einem Freizeitkurs über Technik erklärt ein männlicher Teilnehmer einer Frau ungefragt die Grundlagen, obwohl sie sich als Ingenieurin vorstellt.	(8) Während eines Kochabends lobt eine Frau ihren Freund für seine außergewöhnlichen Kochkünste und fragt nach seinem Rezept.
(14) Während einem Ausflug sagt ein Mann: „Ich übernehme lieber die Navigation – Frauen verfahren sich immer.“	(9) Ein Mann schlägt vor, die nächste Urlaubsreise der Freundesgruppe gemeinsam zu planen, und bittet um Ideen von allen.
(15) Eine Frau kommt ungeschminkt und in Jeans zu einem formellen Event. Eine Bekannte fragt sie: „Wolltest du dich nicht ein bisschen mehr zurechtmachen?“	

(16) Bei einer Diskussion in einem Buchclub wird eine Frau mehrfach unterbrochen, während die Männer im Raum ungestört ihre Meinung äußern können.	
Sports	
(17) Ein Mann beobachtet eine Frau beim Gewichtheben und sagt: „Wow, für eine Frau hebst du echt viel!“ (18) Ein Mann schaut eine Frau an, die in Shorts trainiert, und sagt lachend: „Trainierst du hier wirklich oder bist du nur hier, um gut auszusehen?" (19) Nach einer Fitnessklasse gratuliert ein Trainer den Männern für ihre Leistung und ignoriert die Frauen im Raum. (20) Ein männlicher Mitspieler sagt zu einer Frau im Mixed-Volleyball-Team: „Du solltest das nicht persönlich nehmen, aber wir vertrauen dir einfach nicht in wichtigen Situationen.“ (21) Ein Teamkollege aus einer gemischten Basketballmannschaft scherzt: „Pass auf, dass dir dein Make-up beim Schwitzen nicht verläuft.“	(10) Eine Frau wird im Fitnessstudio von einem Trainer gefragt, ob sie beim nächsten Training an einem spezifischen Kraftaufbauprogramm teilnehmen möchte. (11) Eine Frau trainiert im Fitnessstudio an einem Gerät, und ein Mann fragt sie höflich, ob er es nach ihr benutzen kann. (12) Nach einer Trainingseinheit gratuliert der Trainer allen Teilnehmer*innen zu ihren Fortschritten und gibt Tipps zur Verbesserung.
Media Representation	
(22) Eine Werbeanzeige für ein Fitnessstudio zeigt ausschließlich hypersexualisierte Bilder von Frauen, während Männer als starke, leistungsfähige Athleten dargestellt werden. (23) Ein großes Unternehmen hat auf seiner Website nur Bilder von männlichen	(13) Ein Nachrichtenbeitrag porträtiert eine weibliche Wissenschaftlerin und hebt ihre Arbeit ohne Erwähnung persönlicher Details oder Klischees hervor. (14) Eine TV-Werbung zeigt Männer und Frauen gleichermaßen in Führungsrollen, die gemeinsam ein Projekt abschließen.

Führungskräften, während Frauen nur in Unterstützungsrollen gezeigt werden. (24) Ein Werbeplakat für eine Baufirma zeigt eine Gruppe lachender Männer mit dem Slogan: „Für harte Arbeit – Männer wissen, wie's geht." (25) Ein Reality-TV-Moderator macht während einer Show einen Kommentar wie: „Frauen lieben es einfach zu streiten – typisch Dramaqueens!" (26) Eine Talkshow lädt ausschließlich Männer ein, um über die Herausforderungen berufstätiger Mütter zu diskutieren. (27) Eine Werbung für Kinderkleidung bewirbt Jungen-T-Shirts mit „stark" und „Abenteuer" und Mädchen-T-Shirts mit „süß" und „Prinzessin". (28) In einem Interview wird eine weibliche Kandidatin gefragt, wie sie ihre Arbeit und ihre Familie unter e einen Hut bringt, während männliche Kandidaten diese Frage nicht gestellt bekommen.	(15) Eine Nachrichtensendung berichtet über eine weibliche CEO, die ein erfolgreiches Unternehmen aufgebaut hat. Der Beitrag hebt ihre beruflichen Errungenschaften hervor, ohne auf private Aspekte wie Familie oder Aussehen einzugehen.
Healthcare	
(29) Eine Frau äußert Schmerzen bei einem Arztbesuch, und der Arzt sagt: „Das ist bestimmt psychosomatisch – Frauen übertreiben oft." (30) Eine Frau äußert beim Arztbesuch, dass sie unter starker Müdigkeit leidet. Der Arzt sagt: „Vielleicht sind Sie einfach überarbeitet – Frauen tendieren dazu, sich zu viel vorzunehmen."	(16) Ein Arzt nimmt sich Zeit, die Symptome einer Patientin genau zu besprechen und schlägt eine umfassende Diagnose vor. (17) Eine Ärztin lobt ihre Patientin dafür, dass sie regelmäßig Vorsorgeuntersuchungen wahrnimmt. (18) Ein Physiotherapeut erklärt einer Patientin sachlich die Übungen, ohne auf ihr Geschlecht einzugehen.

(31) Eine Patientin bittet um Schmerzmittel, doch der Arzt sagt: „Sie sind doch stark – Frauen brauchen so etwas nicht.“ (32) Ein Arzt kommentiert bei einer Vorsorgeuntersuchung: „Schön zu sehen, dass Sie sich um Ihren Körper kümmern – das tun viele Frauen in Ihrem Alter nicht.“	(19) Ein Arzt bietet einer Patientin an, die Behandlungsmöglichkeiten ausführlich zu erklären, bevor sie eine Entscheidung trifft.
Relationships	
(33) Eine Frau berichtet in einer Unterhaltung von ihren beruflichen Erfolgen. Ein Freund kommentiert: „Du hattest bestimmt Glück mit deinem Chef.“ (34) Eine Frau erzählt, dass sie sich bei einem neuen männlichen Kollegen unwohl fühlt, weil er sie ständig unterbricht. Ein Freund erwidert: „Du übertreibst bestimmt. Männer reden halt einfach direkter.“ (35) Eine Frau wird bei Familienessen immer gebeten, den Tisch zu decken, während die Männer Gespräche führen. (36) Eine Frau äußert eine emotionale Meinung in einer Diskussion. Ihr Partner kommentiert: „Du bist wieder so emotional – das macht es schwer, sachlich zu bleiben.“ (37) Ein Paar besucht eine Baustelle. Alle Bauarbeiter ignorieren die Frau und sprechen nur mit ihrem männlichen Partner über das Projekt.	(20) Eine Freundin gibt einer anderen Frau den Rat, sich für ein anstehendes Bewerbungsgespräch so zu kleiden, dass sie sich selbstbewusst und wohlfühlt. (21) Während eines Brettspiels lobt ein Freund die strategische Denkweise einer Frau und merkt an, dass er von ihrem Spielstil lernen könnte. (22) Eine Gruppe von Freunden plant ein gemeinsames Projekt, und allen wird zugehört, als sie ihre Vorschläge mit. (23) Ein Mann schlägt vor, dass er heute kocht, da seine Partnerin einen langen Tag hatte. (24) Ein Paar plant gemeinsam den nächsten Urlaub und teilt sich die Aufgaben gleichberechtigt. (25) Ein Mann gratuliert seiner Partnerin zu einem beruflichen Erfolg und zeigt aufrichtiges Interesse an ihren Leistungen.
Public Spaces	
(38) In einem Gespräch über geschlechtsspezifische Gewalt meint ein Mann: „Sexismus gibt es doch heute gar nicht mehr. Frauen haben es mittlerweile viel einfacher als Männer.“	(26) Ein Mann bietet an, einer Frau mit einer schweren Einkaufstasche zu helfen, und fragt höflich, ob sie Unterstützung benötigt.

(39) Während sie an einer Baustelle vorbeigeht, hört eine Frau Pfiffe und jemanden rufen: „Lächel doch mal!“	(27) Eine Frau wird von einem Barista freundlich begrüßt und gefragt, ob sie wie üblich ihren Lieblingskaffee möchte.
(40) In einem Restaurant wird der männliche Partner gefragt, ob „die Dame“ noch etwas trinken möchte, ohne die Frau direkt anzusprechen.	(28) Ein Mann bedankt sich höflich, als ihm eine Frau im Supermarkt hilft, ein Produkt aus dem oberen Regal zu nehmen
(41) Eine Frau beschwert sich bei einem Ladenbesitzer über unhöfliche Behandlung, woraufhin er sagt: „Ach, das war doch nicht so schlimm. Sie sollten sich nicht so anstellen.“	
(42) "Eine Frau diskutiert mit einem Mann über Politik in einem Park, und er sagt: „Ich mag es, wenn Frauen versuchen, bei solchen Themen mitzuhalten.“	

Note. Items 10 and 11 are identical by accident.

Table B2

Descriptive Statistics of Experimental Items for Preselection

	M	SD	Corrected Item–Total Correlation
EX1	6.64	0.46	.33
EX2	6.55	0.85	.70
EX3	6.79	0.37	.24
EX4	6.24	1.35	.74
EX5	6.67	0.65	.27
EX6	6.36	1.79	.19
EX7	6.61	0.49	.35
EX8	6.12	1.59	.64
EX9	6.30	0,98	.52
EX10	6.70	0.62	-.11
EX11	6.64	0.64	.00
EX12	5.94	1,74	.37
EX13	6.21	1.00	.84
EX14	6.70	0.38	.40
EX15	5.88	1.07	.43
EX16	6.85	0.27	-.09
EX17	5.88	1.78	.81
EX18	6.39	1.80	.69
EX19	5.88	1.79	.25
EX20	6.36	0.78	.70
EX21	5,85	2.41	.72
EX22	6.61	0.65	-.35
EX23	6.39	0.90	.54
EX24	6.58	0.40	-.56
EX25	6.09	1.08	.13
EX26	6.85	0.27	.18
EX27	6.61	0.89	-.18
EX28	6.06	0.81	.76
EX29	6.64	0.48	-.03
EX30	6.36	0.82	.67

EX31	6.27	1.31	.84
EX32	6.79	0.31	-.07
EX33	5.39	1.86	.39
EX34	6.88	0.22	.01
EX35	6.91	0.22	.07
EX36	5.36	2.08	.52
EX37	6.73	0.44	.12
EX38	5.09	2.28	.78

Note. A Cronbach's alpha of α = .88 represents a sufficient internal consistency.

Table B3

Descriptive Statistics of Control Items for Preselection

	M	SD
KO1	1.50	0.97
KO2	1.45	1.04
KO3	1.00	0.00
KO4	1.15	0.31
KO5	1.35	0.75
KO6	1.39	0.88
KO7	1.39	0.66
KO8	1.21	0.52
KO9	1.44	1.09
KO10	1.56	0.67
KO11	1.10	0.36
KO12	1.15	0.50
KO13	1.00	0.00
KO14	1.19	0.50
KO15	1.03	0.10
KO16	1.27	0.90
KO17	1.64	1.32
KO18	1.48	0.98
KO19	1.03	0.10
KO20	1.27	0.77
KO21	1.03	0.10
KO22	1.00	0.00
KO23	1.00	0.00
KO24	1.00	0.00
KO25	1.58	1.80
KO26	2.12	1.60
KO27	1.44	1.03
KO28	1.09	0.30

Appendix C – Assumption Checks

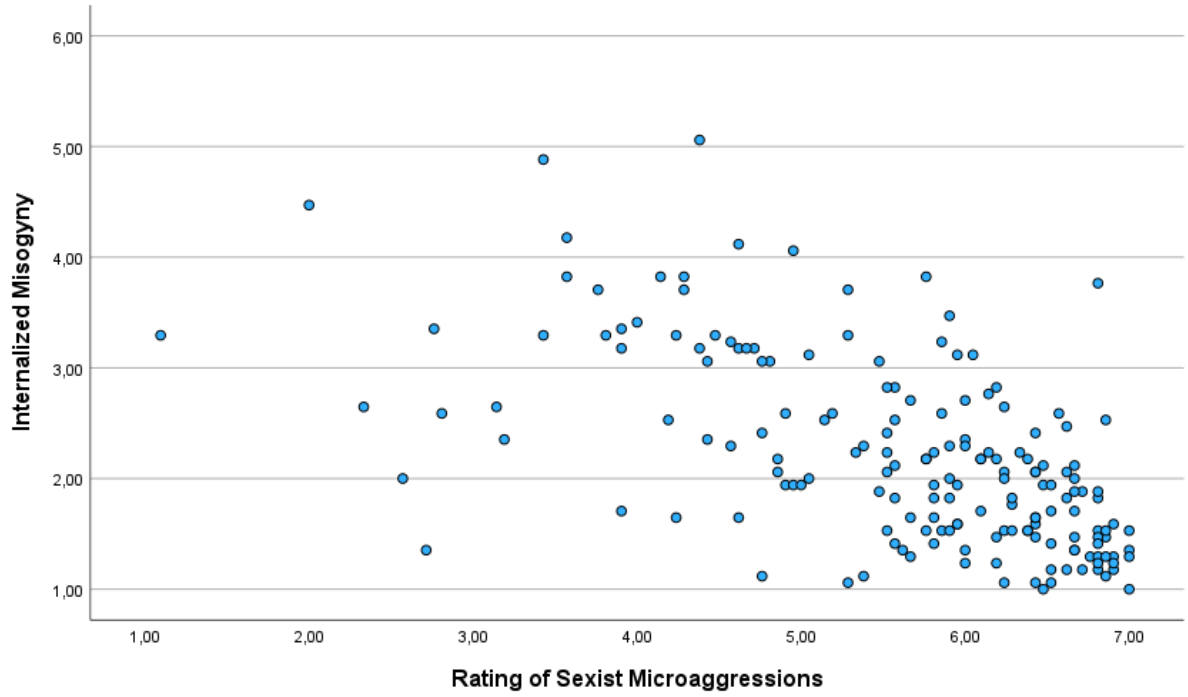

Figure C1. Linearity between Internalized Misogyny and Dependent Variable

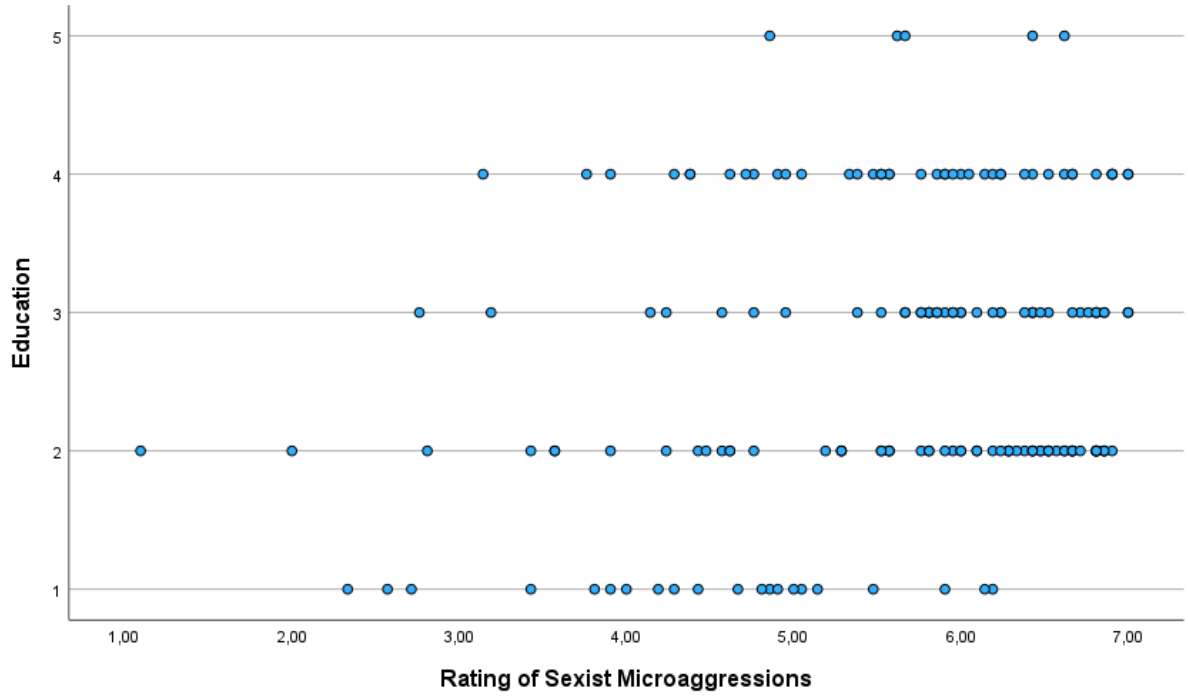

Figure C2. Linearity between Education and Dependent Variable

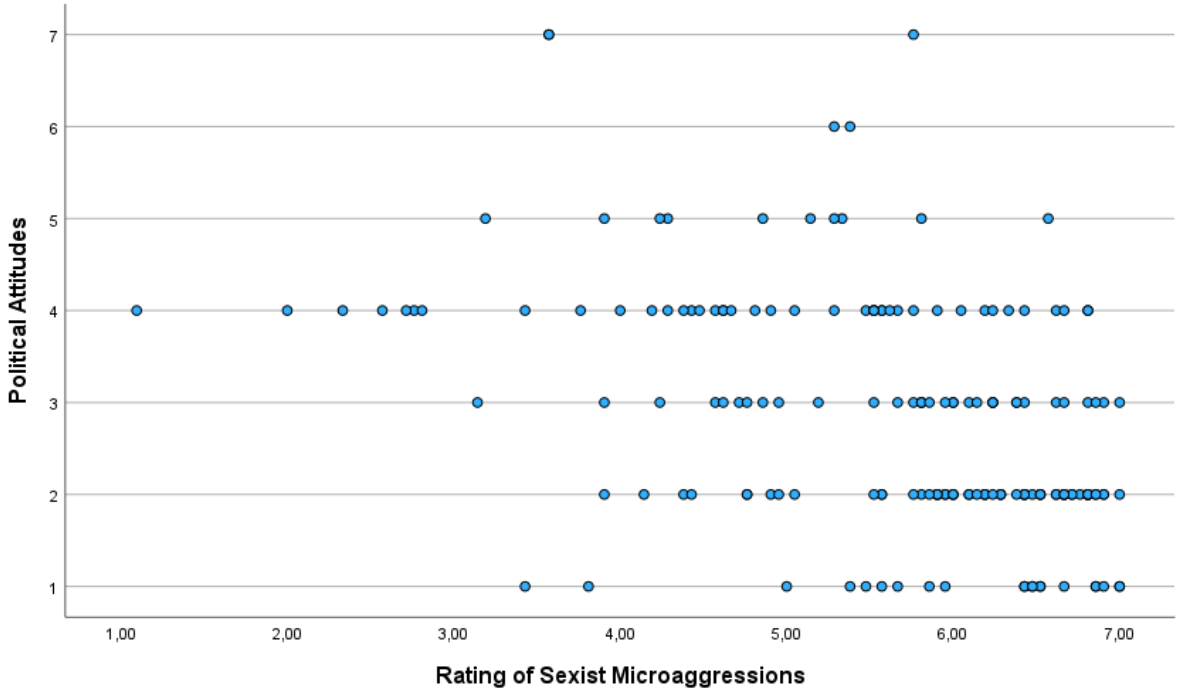

Figure C3. Linearity between Political Orientation and Dependent Variable

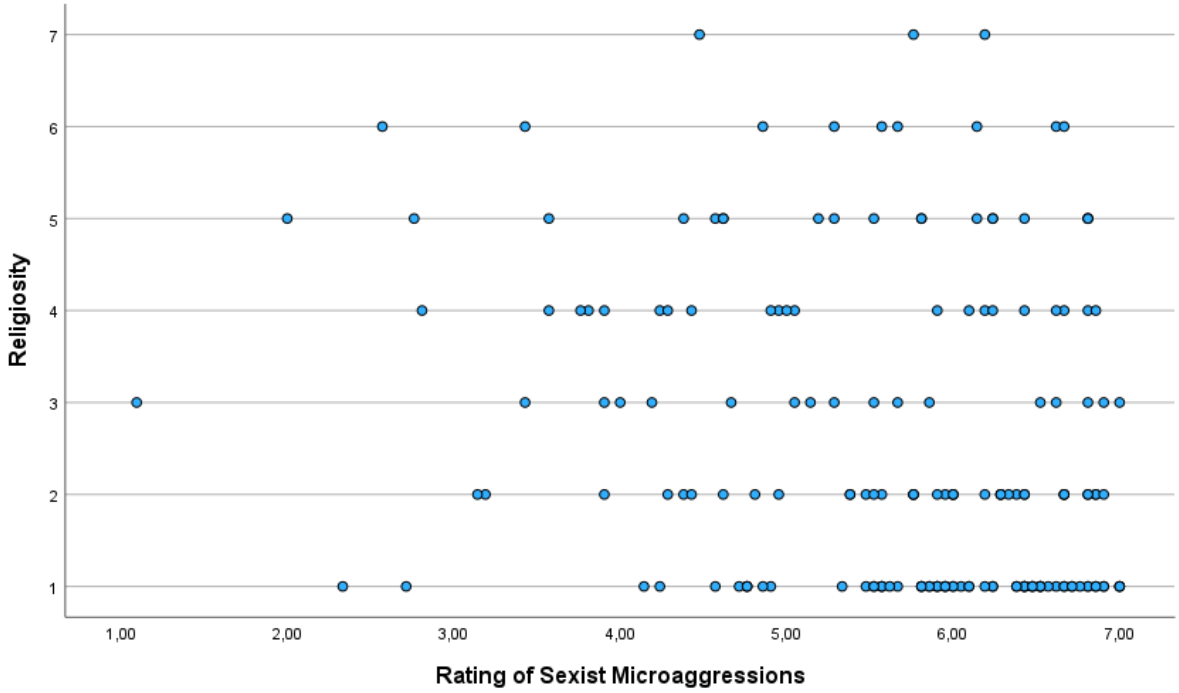

Figure C4. Linearity between Religiosity and Dependent Variable

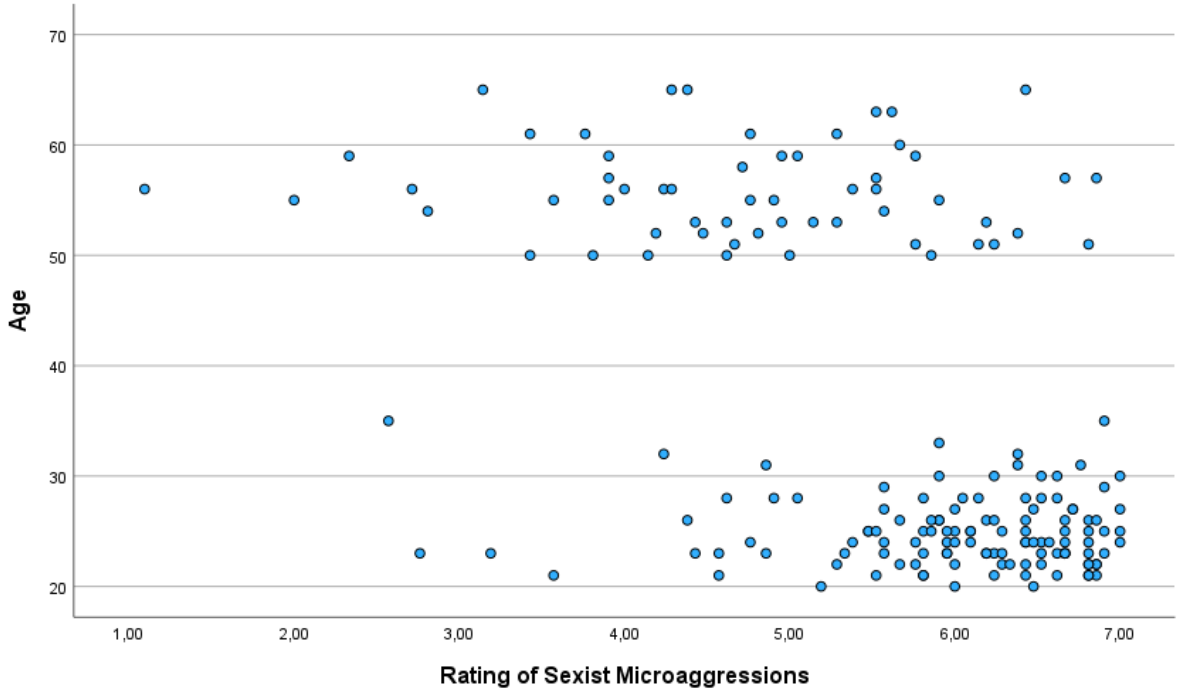

Figure C5. Linearity between Age and Dependent Variable

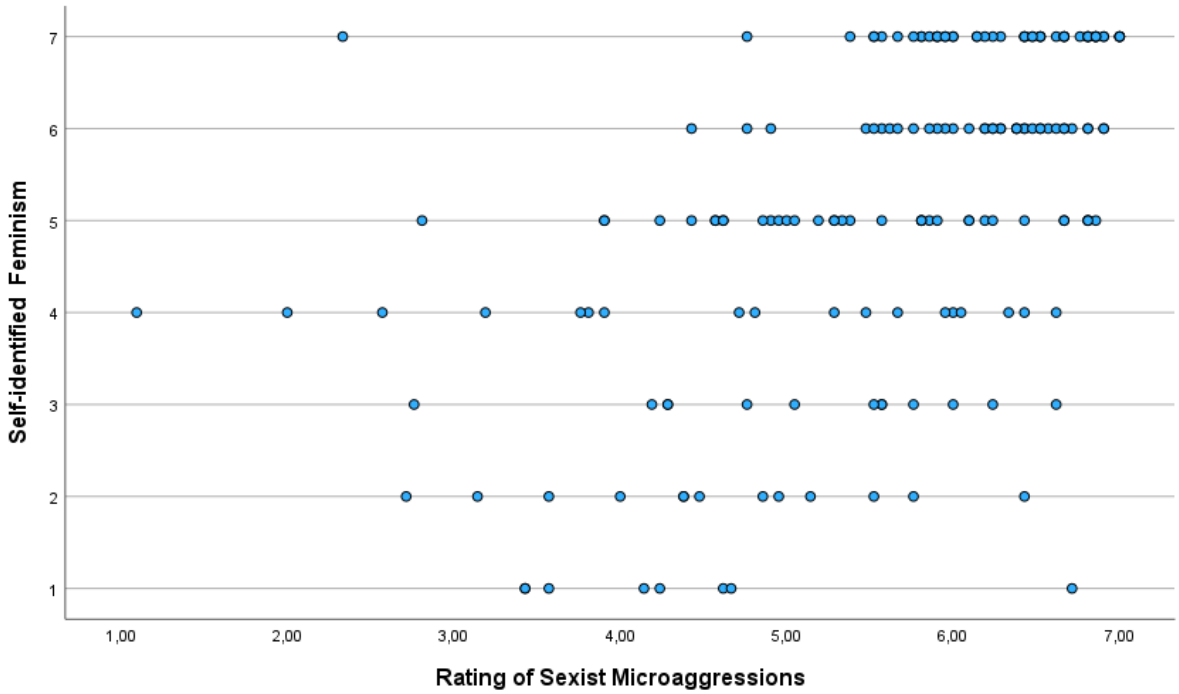

Figure C6. Linearity between Self-Identified Feminism and Dependent Variable

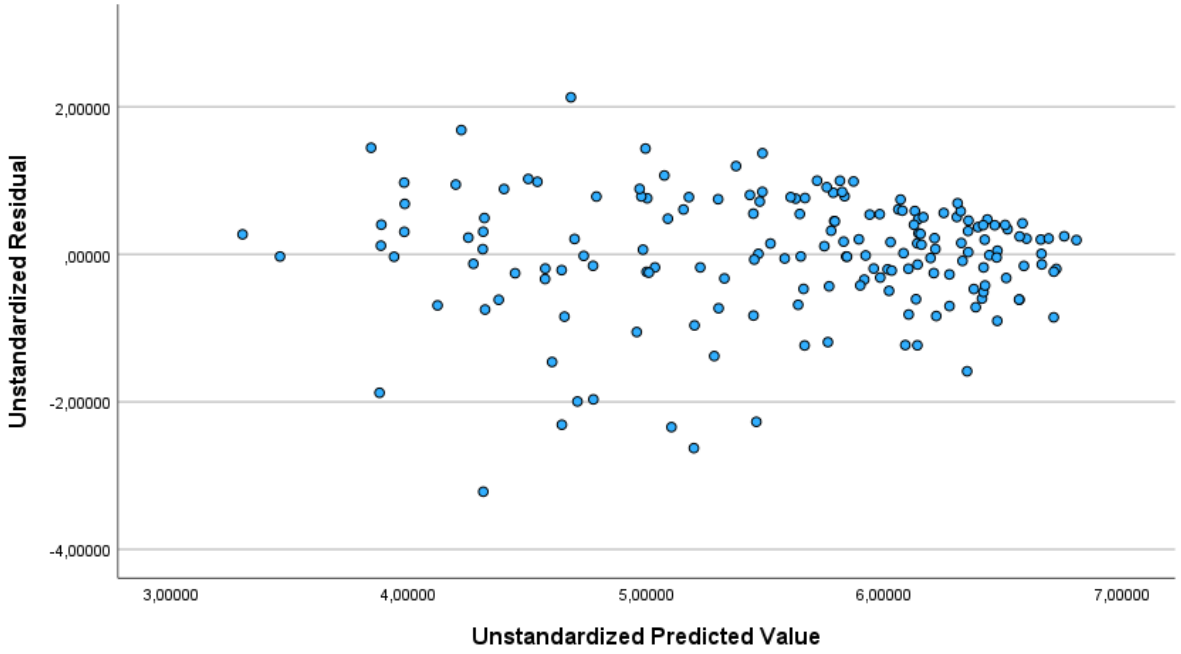

Figure C7. Assessment of Homoscedasticity: Unstandardized Residuals vs. Predicted Values

Table C8

Multicollinearity Statistics of Predictors (Tolerance and VIF)

	Tolerance	**VIF**
Internalized Misogyny	0.60	1.65
Age	0.74	1.35
Self-idenfified Feminist	0.58	1.72
Religiosity	0.80	1.24
Political Attitude	0.66	1.53
Education	0.94	1.07

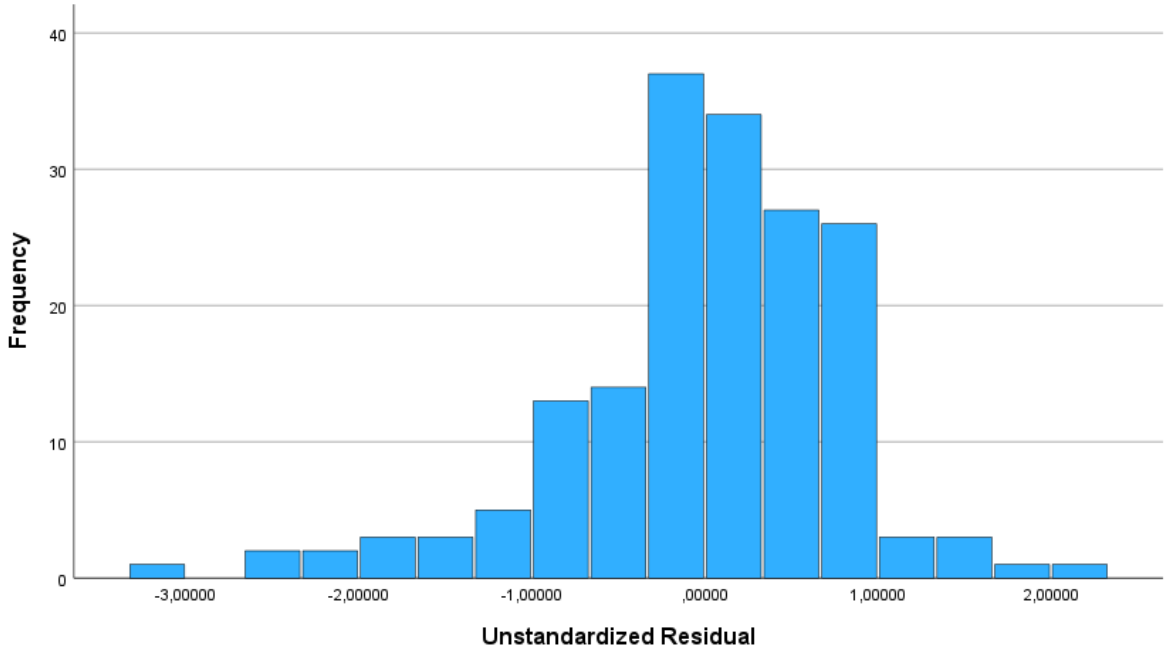

Figure C9. Histogram of Unstandardized Residuals

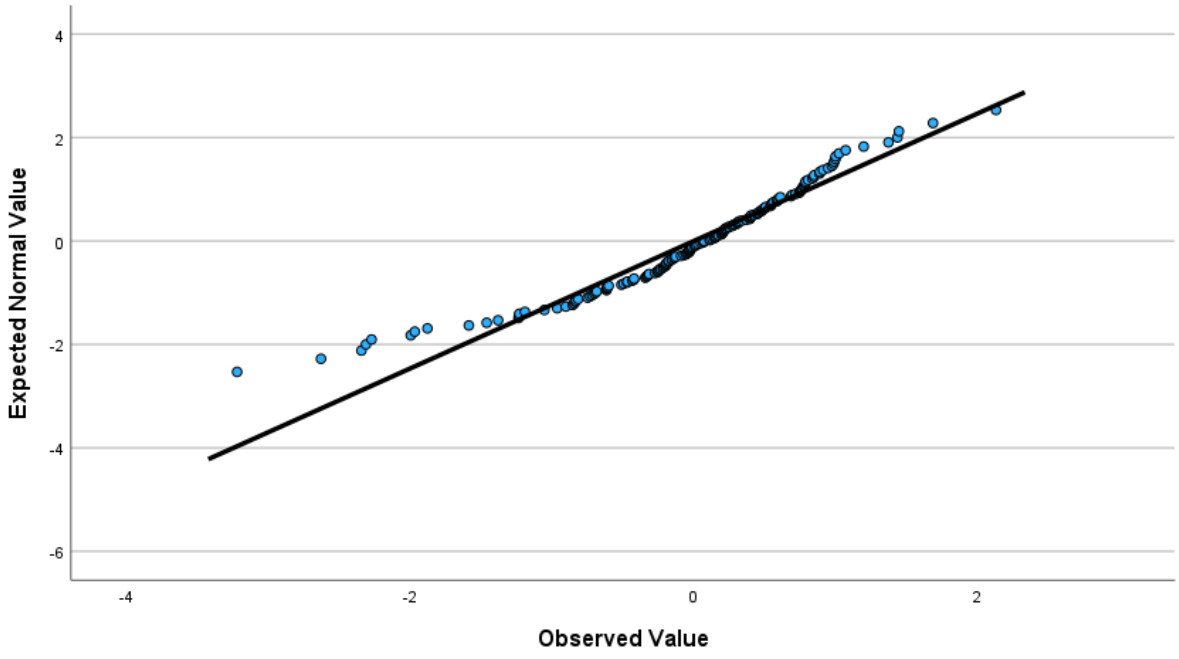

Figure C10. Q-Q Plot of Unstandardized Residuals

Appendix D - Preliminary Analyses

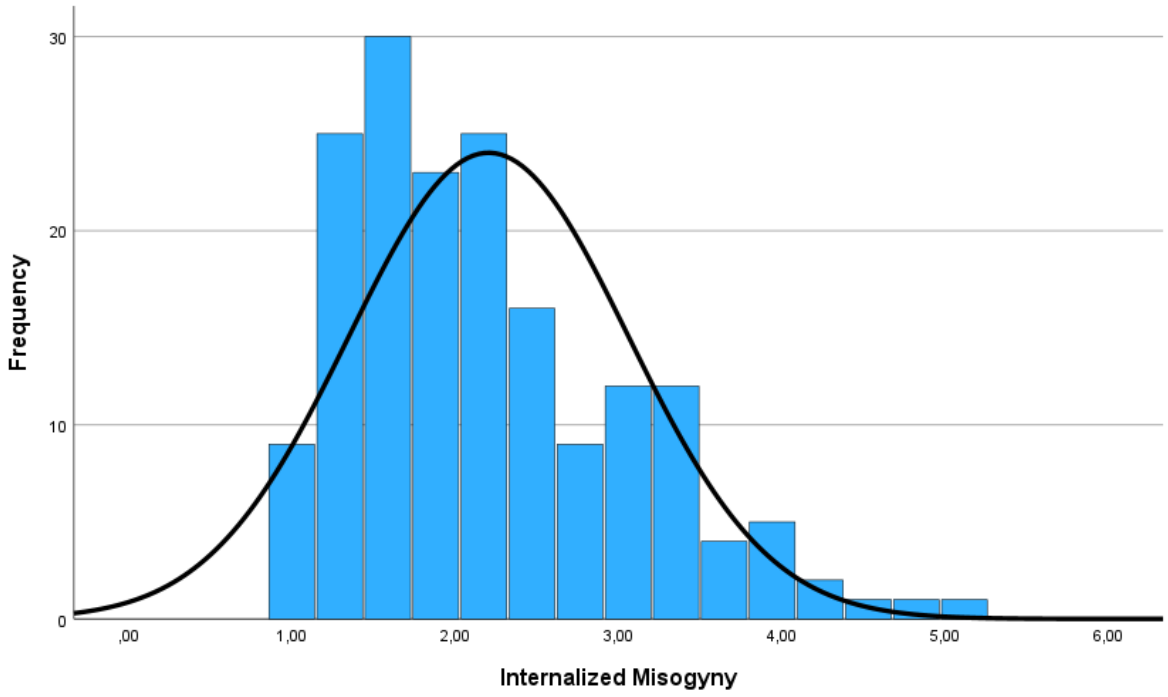

Figure D1. Distribution of Internalized Misogyny Across Age Groups (Histogram)

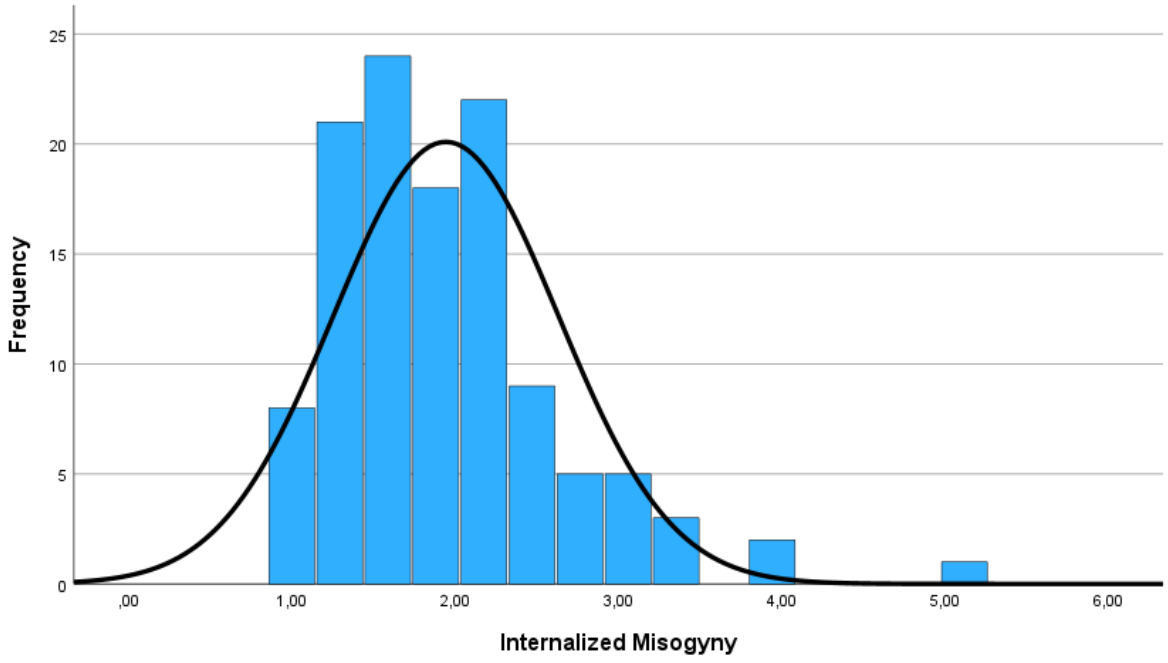

Figure D2. Distribution of Internalized Misogyny in 20–35-Year-Olds (Histogram)

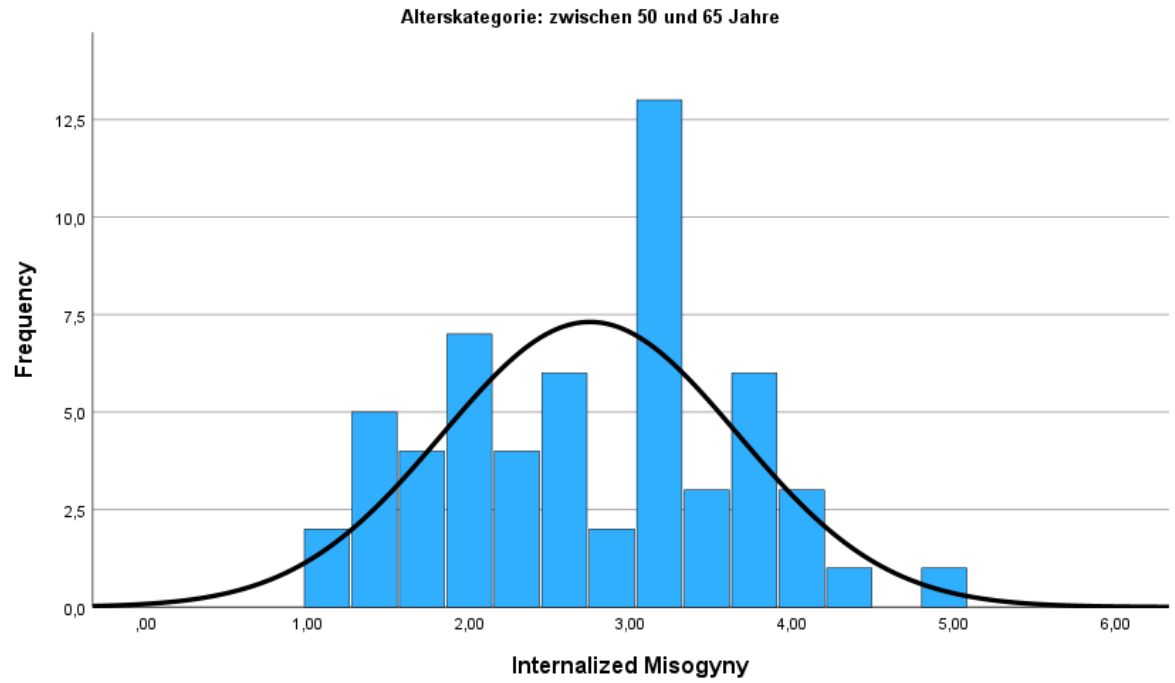

Figure D3. Distribution of Internalized Misogyny in 50–65-Year-Olds (Histogram)

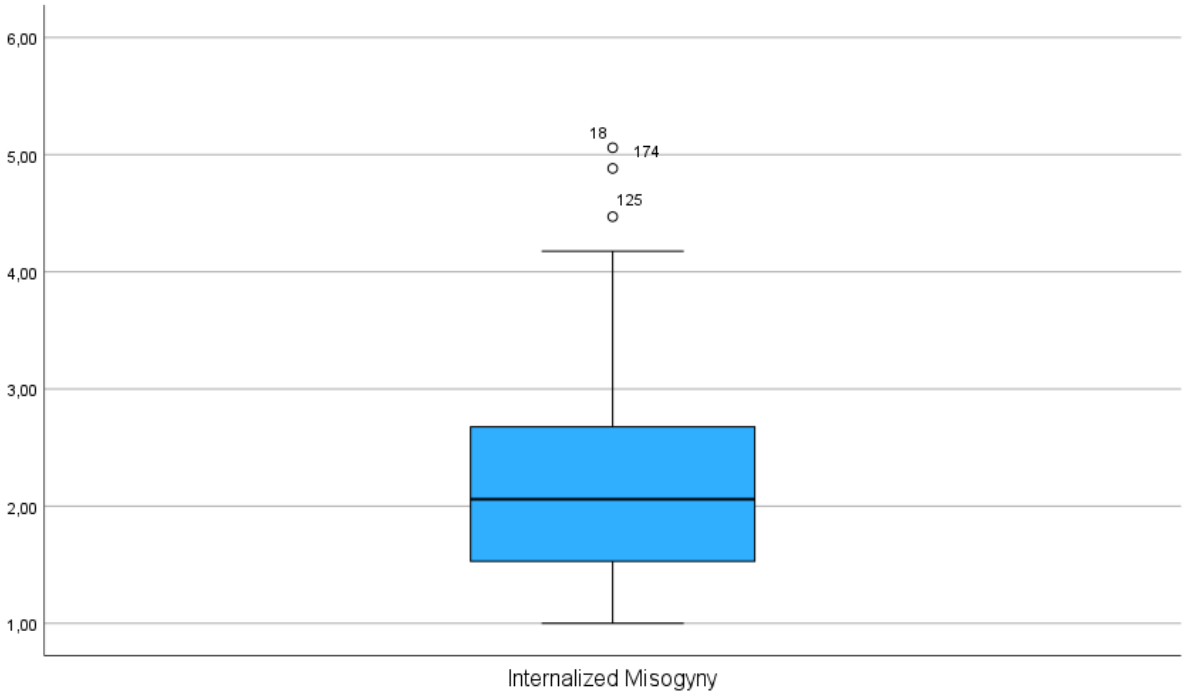

Figure D4. Internalized Misogyny Across Age Groups (Boxplot)

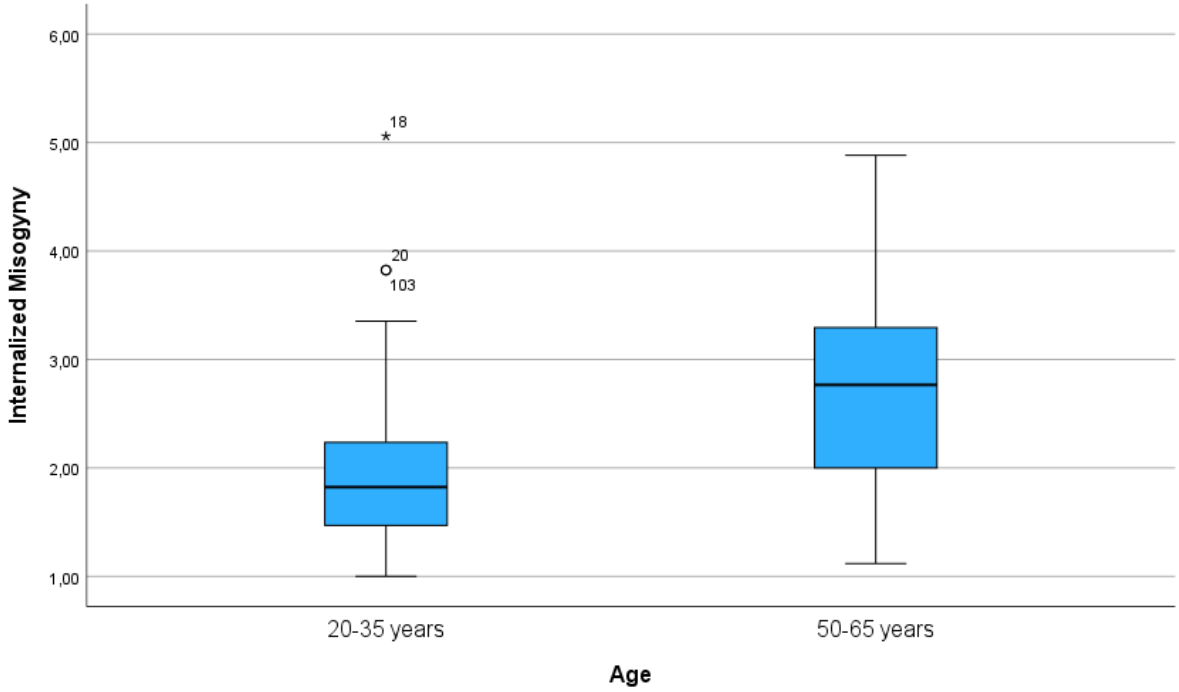

Figure D5. Internalized Misogyny by Age Group (Boxplot)

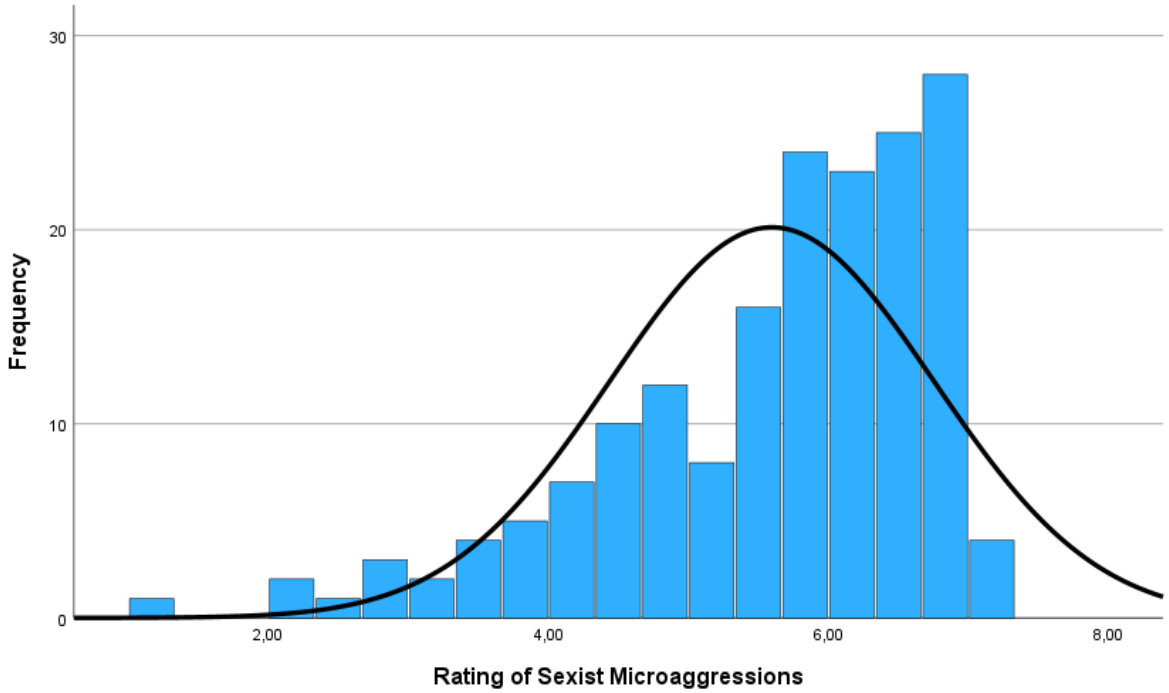

Figure D6. Distribution of Perceived Sexist Microaggressions Across Age Groups (Histogram)

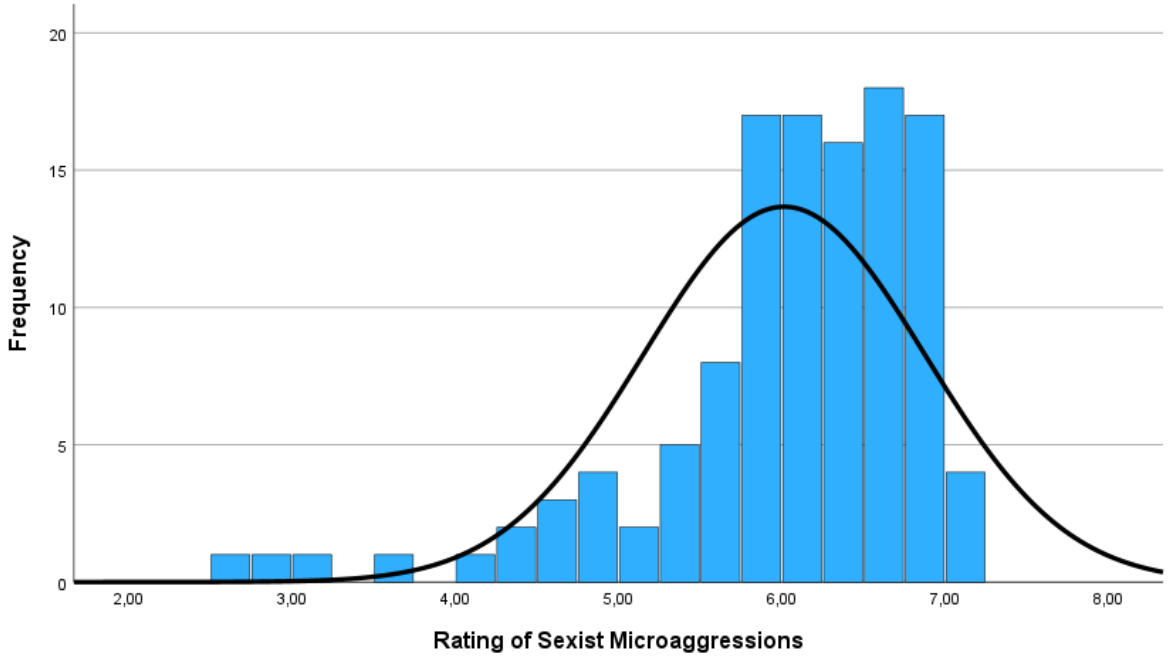

Figure D7. Distribution of Perceived Sexist Microaggressions in 20–35-Year-Olds (Histogram)

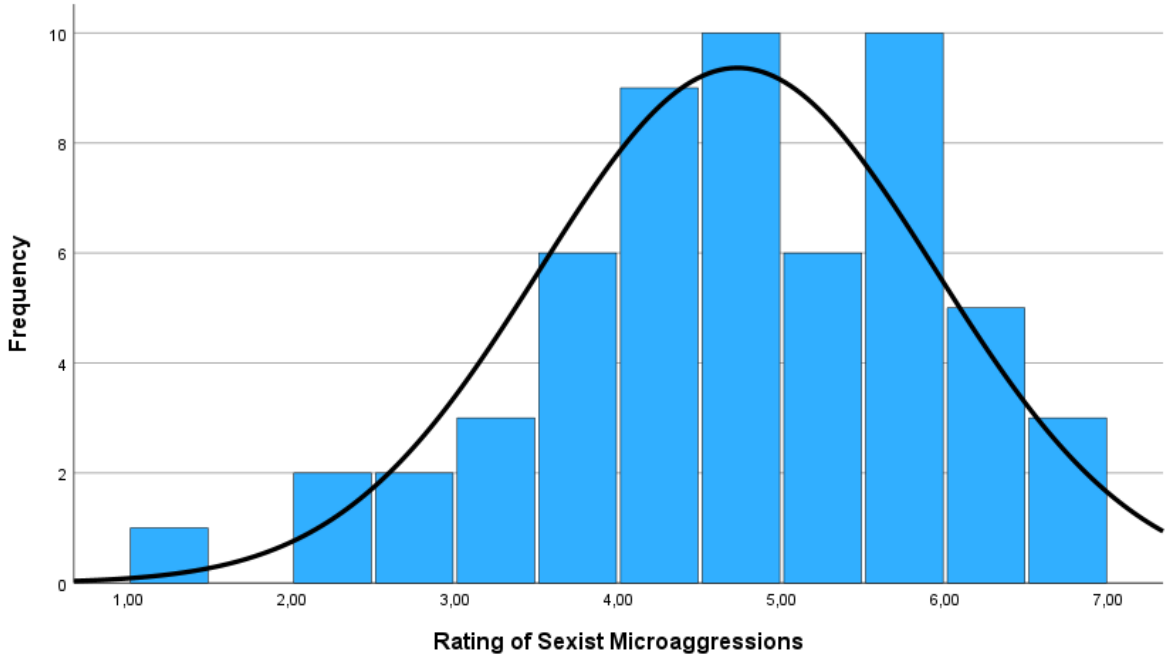

Figure D8. Distribution of Perceived Sexist Microaggressions in 50–65-Year-Olds (Histogram)

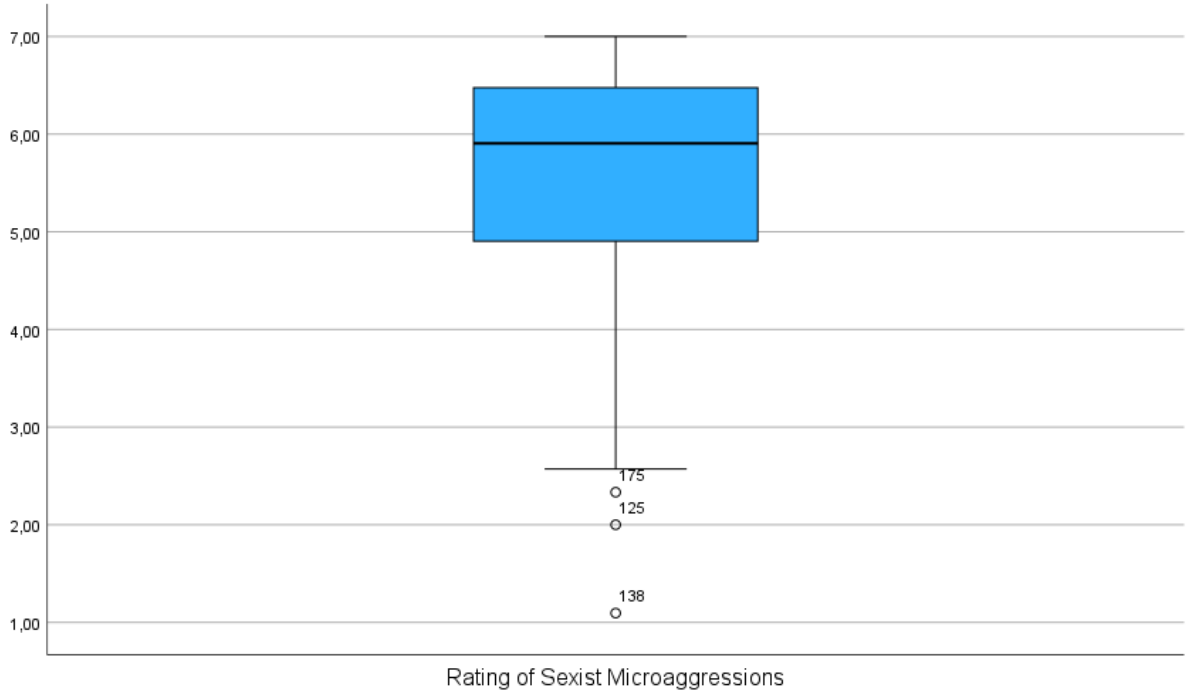

Figure D9. Perceived Sexist Microaggressions Across Age Groups (Boxplot)

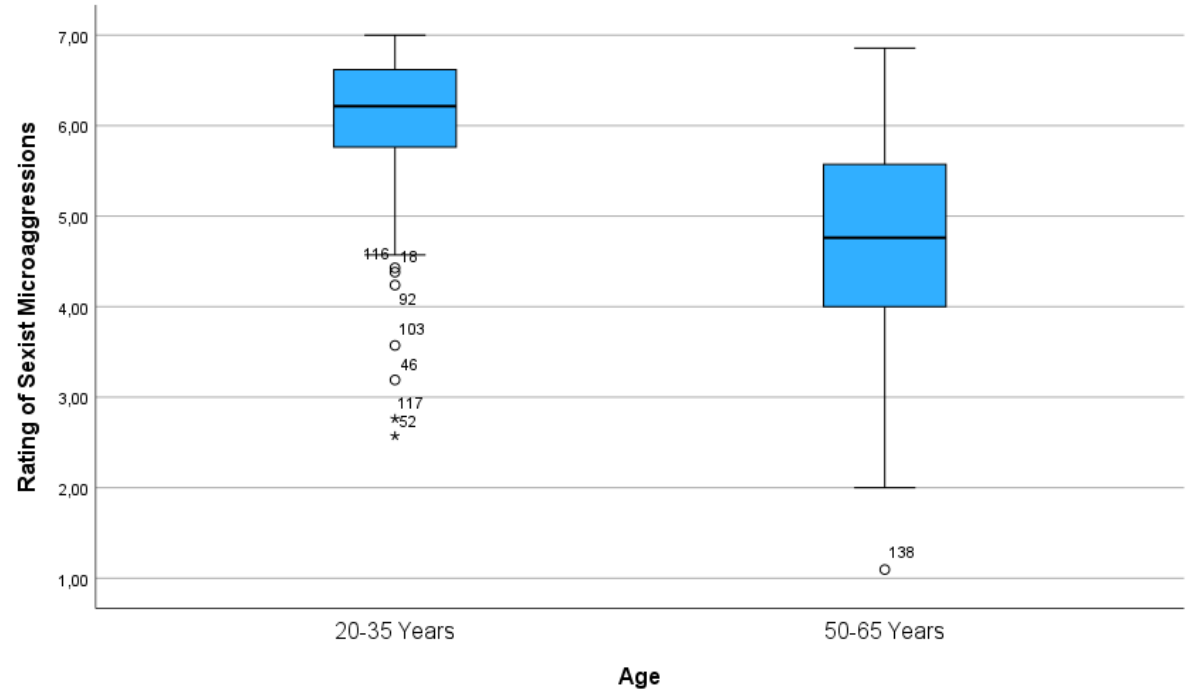

Figure D10. Perceived Sexist Microaggressions by Age Group (Boxplot)

Table D11

Descriptive Statistics of Skewness and Kurtosis

	M	**SD**	**Skewness**	**Kurtosis**
Age Group 1 (20–35)	24.92	3.20	0.950	0.711
Age Group 2 (50–65)	55.82	4.36	0.563	-0.503
Education (1–5)	2.69	1.05	0.169	0.365
Religiosity (1-7)	2.57	1.70	0.823	-0.503
Political Attitude (1-7)	2.86	1.29	0.704	0.436
Self-identified Feminism (1-7)	5.13	1.78	-0.783	-0.371