

AperTO - Archivio Istituzionale Open Access dell'Università di Torino

System Justification Moderates the Relation between Hostile (but not Benevolent) Sexism in the Workplace and State Anxiety: An Experimental Study

This is the author's manuscript

Original Citation:

Availability:

This version is available <http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1709109> since 2019-08-09T14:08:58Z

Published version:

DOI:10.1080/00224545.2018.1503993

Terms of use:

Open Access

Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available under a Creative Commons license can be used according to the terms and conditions of said license. Use of all other works requires consent of the right holder (author or publisher) if not exempted from copyright protection by the applicable law.

(Article begins on next page)

1 **System Justification Moderates the Relation between Hostile (but not Benevolent)**

2 **Sexism in the Workplace and State Anxiety: An Experimental Study**

3

4

5
6
7
8
9
10
11
12
13
14
15
16
17
18

Abstract

In an experimental vignette study performed with 92 Portuguese women, we analyzed the relations between exposure to hostile sexism (HS), benevolent sexism (BS) in a workplace context, system justification (SJ), and anxiety, measured after participants were exposed to a HS, a BS, or a neutral communication about the context of the industry they would have worked in, if selected. The results indicated that both HS and BS fostered participants' anxiety and that SJ moderated the relation between HS and anxiety: Anxiety was highest among participants low in SJ. Main contributions of the study, limitations, and possible future research directions are discussed.

Keywords: Ambivalent sexism; System justification; Anxiety; Workplace

19 Despite numerous advances that have occurred in the last few decades, gender-based
20 disparities are still widespread in economic participation and opportunity, in educational
21 attainment, in health and survival, and in political empowerment (WEF, Global Gender
22 Report, 2017). Beyond structural dimensions that obstacle equal opportunities among women
23 and men, sexism is a crucial social psychological factor that sustains gender hierarchy in
24 society. As concerns gender inequality in the workplace, that was our focus in this study,
25 sexism not only impacts women's career opportunities (Koch, D'Mello, & Sackett, 2015) and
26 quality of work outcomes (Velez, Cox, Polihronakis, & Moradi, 2018) but also women's
27 psychological and physical health (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005a; Manuel, Howansky, Chaney,
28 & Sanchez, 2017; Sojo, Wood, & Genat, 2015). Moreover, producing differentials of power,
29 gender hierarchies have an advantage of legitimacy, since, once formed and consolidated,
30 they tend to self-perpetuate through bottom-up ideological justifications, making the attempts
31 to change the existing social order much more complex (Van der Toorn et al., 2015). The
32 goal of the present paper was to examine whether and how system justification motivation
33 interacts with exposure to workplace sexism in affecting women's psychological adjustment.

34 **Ambivalent Sexism and Women's Psychological Adjustment**

35 Although the lay conception of sexism sees it as a general hostile attitude toward
36 women, research has shown that at present, as a consequence of the evolution of gender role
37 norms in Western societies, ambivalence (i.e. the coexistence of positive and negative
38 attitudes) better describes sexist attitudes towards women (Glick & Fiske, 2011).

39 According to the Ambivalent Sexism theory (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 2001), two main
40 distinct and complementary ways of expressing sexism can be identified: hostile and
41 benevolent sexism. Hostile sexism (HS) is an antagonistic and adversarial attitude towards
42 women who do not conform to traditional gender roles, and is openly intended to justify and
43 preserve male dominance. Benevolent sexism (BS) is a less confrontational but still

44 problematic attitude that regards seeing women who conform to traditional gender roles as
45 wonderful and fragile creatures who need and deserve men's protection and adoration (Glick
46 & Fiske, 1996).

47 The negative consequences of HS for women's psychological adjustment are well
48 documented. Schneider, Tomaka, and Palacios (2001) compared the effects of exposure to
49 HS (vs. egalitarian vs. female-dominant) interactions with a male confederate; they found that
50 women exposed to a HS interaction cognitively appraised the situation as more demanding
51 and experienced a more strongly negative emotional reaction. Becker and Wright (2011)
52 reported that exposure to hostile vs. gender-neutral views increased women's negative affect,
53 while Lemonaki, Manstead, and Maio (2015) found that exposure to hostile rather than
54 benevolent or neutral beliefs led to increased anger and frustration and decreased security
55 among female participants. Finally, Salomon, Burgess, and Bosson (2015) found that
56 exposure to a HS (vs. BS vs. non-sexist) comment made by a male researcher heightened
57 women's stress, measured by physiological responses (i.e., cardiovascular activity) to that
58 situation.

59 Whereas the male-dominant ideology of HS is easily recognizable in its openly
60 denigrating view, women often perceive BS as a flattering attitude. This fact may partially
61 explain why studies of the effects of BS on women's psychological adjustment have yielded
62 inconsistent results. Dardenne and colleagues (2007, 2013) found that being the target of BS
63 impairs women's cognitive performance and induces changes in brain activity associated
64 with a working memory task; Barreto and Ellemers (2005b) showed that expressions of BS
65 (vs. HS) elicited a less negative reaction (measured as feelings of anger, disappointment, and
66 indignation). Becker and Wright (2011) found that exposure to BS (vs. gender neutral) views
67 increased women's positive affect. Similarly, Napier, Thorisdottir, and Jost (2010) even

68 showed that in relatively egalitarian nations, both men and women who endorsed BS (vs. HS)
69 scored higher in life satisfaction.

70 **System Justification Motive**

71 The System Justification (SJ) theory explains why and how unequal social systems can
72 be maintained and perpetuated. Indeed, it states that individuals hold at different degrees a
73 motivation to justify and rationalize the way things happen in their lives by virtue of which
74 they come to perceive the current social, economic, and political arrangement ‘as good, fair,
75 natural, desirable and inevitable’ (Jost, Banaji, & Nosek, 2004, p. 887). This motivation
76 pushes to not challenge the societal *status quo* even at the expense of one’s own interest or
77 that of their group (Jost et al., 2004). In the general motivation to justify the existing social
78 order, three class of motivation can be distinguished: (a) epistemic (connected with the
79 human need for certainty, coherence, and control of the surrounding reality), (b) existential
80 (defending the *status quo* helps satisfy the existential need for security), and (c) relational
81 (connected with the desire to affiliate with people similar to us and sharing a similar vision of
82 reality).

83 As Jost and Hunyaday (2002) argued, even though this may seem paradoxical, SJ
84 motivations can serve as both a coping resource and a stressor. By allowing individuals to
85 perceive their social context as stable and predictable, SJ beliefs, when confirmed, can
86 effectively prevent stress. However, when challenged, they can become dangerous stressors
87 (Wakslak, Jost, Tyler, & Chen, 2007).

88 Consistent with this, research on the moderating impact of SJ motives (and of related
89 constructs) on the relationship between exposure to unfair events and well-being has provided
90 inconsistent results. Levine, Basu, and Chen (2017) measured male and female participants’
91 just world beliefs and interviewed them about negative life events recently experienced. They
92 found that people with stronger just world beliefs exhibited better physiological outcomes,

93 such as lower metabolic risk, lower inflammation, and better sleep, after having reported to
94 experience unfair (vs. other negative life) events. However, a study conducted on a female
95 sample and focusing not on a general evaluation of unfairness but specifically on
96 discrimination based on gender by Eliezer, Townsende, Sawyer, Major, and Mendes (2011)
97 identified a positive relationship between perceived gender discrimination and heightened
98 blood pressure (a measure of chronic stress) only among women who endorsed SJ beliefs.

99 **The Present Study**

100 The present study is one of the first known studies to examine experimentally whether
101 exposure to gender discrimination in the workplace (i.e., hostile and benevolent expressions)
102 would affect female participants' anxiety according to participants' system justifications
103 beliefs. In line with previous research (Becker & Wright, 2011; Lemonaki et al., 2015;
104 Salomon et al., 2015; Schneider et al., 2011), we expected that exposure to HS would
105 increase anxiety (H1). With regard to BS, given the inconsistencies present in prior literature,
106 we tested two competing hypotheses. On one hand, we considered that exposure to BS in the
107 workplace may activate a perception of women as incompetent and dependent on men's help
108 (Ramos et al., 2016), thus generating anxiety (H2a). On the other hand, given the flattering
109 nature of BS, it may be perceived as consolatory and reassuring, thus facilitating a reduction
110 in anxiety (H2b).

111 As for the moderating role of SJ, two competing hypotheses were again advanced.
112 Previous research has shown that when experiencing unfair events, stronger endorsement of
113 system justifying beliefs emerged as a protective factor and led to better health parameters
114 (Levine et al., 2017). In this vein, women with a higher need to justify the system could
115 perceive as less stressful a situation in which the discrimination is blatantly hostile, since they
116 are ideologically equipped to cope with this unjust scenario. Thus, we could hypothesize in
117 line with the palliative function of system justifying ideology (Jost & Hunyady, 2002; Napier

118 & Jost, 2008) that exposure to HS would generate lower levels of anxiety among high. (vs.
119 low) system-justifying women (H3a). On the other hand, research has shown also that when
120 women with stronger system justifying beliefs face an unequivocally blatant and unfair event
121 they perceive the situation as particularly stressful because it threatens their beliefs of the
122 system as fair (Elizier et al., 2011). Thus, we could alternatively hypothesize that exposure to
123 HS could magnify anxiety among high (vs. low) system-justifying individuals (H3b).

124 **Method**

125 **Participants**

126 Ninety-two Portuguese women ($M_{\text{age}} = 25.34$, $SD = 8.29$) participated voluntarily and
127 anonymously in an online experiment, constructed with a between-participants design. An a
128 priori power analysis estimated that a sample size of at least 68 participants was required to
129 observe a medium effect size ($f^2 = 0.15$, $\alpha = 0.05$, and power = .80).

130 **Procedure**

131 As Dardenne et al. (2007), we performed a paper-and-pencil vignette experiment,
132 presented as a simulation of a job interview at a chemical factory currently employing only
133 men. In the pre-experimental stage, we measured SJ, i.e., the variable we predicted to
134 moderate the relation between exposure to sexist messages and the dependent variable. The
135 experimental manipulation followed. We randomly assigned participants to one of three
136 experimental conditions (HS: $n = 30$; BS: $n = 31$; control condition: $n = 31$), depending on
137 the content of the instructions given by the recruiter, which again followed Dardenne and
138 colleagues (2007).

139 Specifically, participants exposed to a sexist condition were explained that a new law
140 on gender quotas obliged industries to follow specific employment rules. In the HS condition,
141 participants read, 'Industry is now restricted to employ a given percentage of people of the
142 weaker sex. I hope women here won't be offended, they sometimes get so easily upset! If

143 hired, you'll work with men only, but don't believe what those feminists are saying on TV,
144 they probably exaggerate women's situation in industry simply to get more favors!'
145 Participants exposed to the BS condition read, 'Industry is now restricted to choose women
146 instead of men in case of equal performance. You'll work with men only, but don't worry,
147 they will cooperate and help you to get used to the job. They know that the new employee
148 could be a woman, and they agreed to give you time and help'. Finally, participants in the
149 control condition just read the description of the job they would have done if hired.

150 After the experimental manipulation, we administered a question to be used to perform
151 the manipulation check and measured participants' state anxiety. A standard socio-
152 demographic form followed. After they completed the experiment, the participants were fully
153 debriefed and thanked.

154 The present research was conducted in accordance with the ethical standards
155 established in the 2013 Declaration of Helsinki, as well as with the recommended Ethical
156 Principles of Psychologists and the Code of Conduct published by the American
157 Psychological Association (APA).

158 **Measures**

159 We measured SJ using a 6-item, 7-category (from 1 = *I fully disagree* to 7 = *I fully*
160 *agree*) Portuguese translation of Jost and Thompson's (2000) SJ Scale ($\alpha = .62$). Cronbach's
161 alpha for the battery was under the conventional .70 threshold. However, their mean
162 correlation was a decent $r = .22$, and a confirmatory factor analysis showed that the scale was
163 unidimensional, $\chi^2(9) = 6.43, p = .70, TLI = 1.00, CFI = 1.00, RMSEA = .00$ (90% CI = .00,
164 .09), all standardized factor loading significant with $p < .05$, and ranging from .26 to .78.

165 We measured the effectiveness of the manipulation asking participants to rate the extent
166 to which they perceived the introductory test as sexist by the following 5-category (from 1 =
167 *definitely not* to, 5 = *definitely yes*) item: 'Do you think there is a prejudice against women in

168 this company?'. As previously done by Roccato and Russo (2017, Study 2), we measured
169 participants' state anxiety using a translation of five items from Spielberger and colleagues'
170 (1983) State Anxiety Inventory, Form Y. Participants were asked to report, on a scale from 1
171 (*not at all*) to 4 (*very much*), the degree to which they would feel each emotion after the
172 selection interview (e.g. secure, tense; $\alpha = .84$). A confirmatory factor analysis confirmed the
173 unidimensionality of the battery, $\chi^2(5) = 9.28, p = .10, TLI = .97, CFI = .98, RMSEA = .10$
174 (90% CI = .00, .19), all standardized factor loading significant with $p < .05$, and ranging from
175 .46 to .98.

176 We computed the variables as mean scores.

177 Results

178 Table 1 displays the descriptive statistics for the variables we measured and the
179 correlations among them.

180 A preliminary analysis showed that our experimental manipulation was successful.
181 Participants exposed to the HS condition ($M = 3.53, SD = .57$) perceived a higher sexism in
182 the recruiter's introduction than those in the BS condition ($M = 1.90, SD = 1.14$), and they in
183 turn had a higher perception of sexism than those in the control condition ($M = .36, SD =$
184 $.95$), $F(2,89) = 99.06, p < .001, \eta^2 = .50$. Bonferroni post hoc tests showed that all three
185 means differed from each other at the $p < .001$ level.

186 We tested our hypotheses via a moderated regression, aimed at predicting participants'
187 anxiety as a function of exposure to either HS or BS, of SJ, and of the interactions between
188 the two forms of sexism and SJ. The macro process for multicategorical independent variable
189 was adopted (Hayes & Montoya, 2017). Before entering them in the regression, we have
190 centered SJ and recoded the experimental conditions adopting dummy coding (see Figure 1).
191 Table 2 displays the results of the regression.

192 Consistent with H1 and H2a, exposure to HS as well as to BS fostered participants'
193 anxiety. SJ show a significant association with the dependent variable as well. Consistent
194 with H3a, the interaction between exposure to the HS condition and SJ showed a significant
195 association with anxiety, whereas the BS–SJ interaction did not show an association with the
196 dependent variable. A simple slope analysis showed that exposure to hostile sexism fostered
197 anxiety among both participants high in SJ (+ 1 *SD*; *simple slope* = .85, *SE* = .19, *p* < .001,
198 LLCI ULCI: .4791, 1.2218), and those low in SJ (–1 *SD*; *simple slope* = 1.51, *SE* = .20, *p* <
199 .001, LLCI ULCI: 1.107, 1.8978). However, the second path was stronger than the first,
200 $t(180) = 2.38, p = .02$. Figure 1 shows the moderating effect graphically.

201 Discussion

202 A large body of research investigated gender-based discrimination in workplace as a
203 relevant social issue. However, the combined effect of exposure to workplace sexism and
204 personal ideological tendencies has been rarely investigated. On the one hand, sexist attitudes
205 and behaviors not only undermine women's occupational opportunities and careers (Barreto
206 & Ellemers, 2005a; Dardenne et al., 2007) but also can have strong negative impact on their
207 psychological adjustment (Manuel et al., 2017). On the other hand, research has shown that
208 individuals' ideologies can affect the relationship between exposure to discrimination and
209 well-being (Levine et al., 2017; Major, O'Brien, & McCoy, 2007). Linking these two lines of
210 research, we aimed to examine experimentally the moderating impact of SJ motivations on
211 the relationship between exposure to workplace sexism and anxiety.

212 In line with prior literature (Becker & Wright, 2011; Lemonaki et al., 2015; Salomon et
213 al., 2015; Schneider et al., 2011), our study showed that exposure to HS fostered a negative
214 emotional reaction, such as anxiety, confirming that a blatant and denigrating sexist
215 environment has a detrimental impact on women's well-being. In addition, results indicated
216 that the exposure to BS has a similar detrimental effect. This finding is plausible, because

217 exposure to a noticeably condescending and paternalistic workplace implies a conception of
 218 women as incompetent and dependent on men's help, thereby generating unpleasant feelings
 219 in women (Ramos et al., 2016).

220 Regarding to the moderating role of system justification, exposure to HS increased
 221 anxiety among women endorsing low (vs. high) system-justifying beliefs. Thus, individuals
 222 with a lower need to justify the system perceived as particularly stressful a situation in which
 223 the discrimination was blatantly hostile being not ideologically equipped to justify the unfair
 224 situation. Indeed, women who do not endorse system justifying beliefs recognize gender
 225 discrimination as a structural aspect of workplace. In doing so, they may perceive the
 226 situation as stressful since their personal efforts could not suffice to improve their
 227 professional position and work life. Therefore, as previous research has shown (Napier &
 228 Jost, 2008), inequality is more troublesome for individuals who poorly (vs. highly) justify the
 229 social system, because the former lack ideological rationalizations that would help to cope
 230 with it and reframe its negative consequences. On the other hand, our results confirmed, the
 231 buffering effect of system justification motive against the negative effects of blatant
 232 inequality on women's psychological health in the workplace environment.

233 As for those exposed to BS in the workplace, holding system-justifying beliefs did not
 234 affect the degree of generated anxiety.

235 **Limitations and Future Directions**

236 Although it extended the knowledge on the impact of personal ideological standpoints
 237 on the relationship between exposure to workplace sexism and women's psychological well-
 238 being, this study had some limitations.

239 Even though our research prompted participants to focus on real simulation of a job
 240 interview, the study did not involve participants to ongoing events. Thus, future studies might
 241 complement this research by directly exposing participants to hostile (vs. benevolent)

242 episodes of sexism. Moreover, our crucial measure of SJ presented a reliability value that was
243 not fully satisfactory, even if a confirmatory factor analysis showed that it was
244 unidimensional and the scale's items showed a decent mean correlation among them.
245 Interestingly, the magnitude of the alpha of the scale was analogous to that stemming from its
246 Italian validation (Roccatò, Rosato, Mosso, & Russo, 2014), and lower to that stemming from
247 research performed in Anglo-Saxon contexts (e.g., Jost, Kivetz, Rubini, Guermandi, &
248 Mosso, 2005; Laurin, Shepherd, & Kay, 2010). Future studies could compare systematically
249 the reliability of the SJ scale across different cultural contexts, and, if needed, could develop
250 new SJ items more fitting with not-Anglo-Saxon contexts.

251 Experiences of workplace discrimination frequently present threats to individuals' well-
252 being by causing unhealthy behaviors and generating deficits in work productivity (Combs &
253 Milosevic, 2016). However, our research did not investigate the possible consequences of
254 state anxiety fostered by exposure to sexist workplace. To fill this gap, future research could
255 seek to broaden our knowledge by investigating the consequences of the increased level of
256 state anxiety that arises because of exposure to HS, considering individuals' ideological
257 tendencies. Women could more likely engage in unhealthy behaviors (such as smoking or
258 alcohol consumption) as a coping strategy to deal with perceived stress and anxiety. These
259 consequences could affect commitment to overall organizational climate, and productivity.
260 Based on previous findings from Velez et al. (2018), future research could also consider
261 whether, beyond SJ motives, holding feminist attitudes can be a protective factor against
262 experience of workplace sexism.

263 **Practical Implications**

264 Beyond their academic relevance, our results can provide useful insight for
265 organizational programs aimed at fighting workplace sexism and preventing its negative
266 consequences. Sexism in workplace is a crucial social psychological factor in sustaining

267 inequalities and in jeopardizing women's psychological wellbeing and work performance
268 (Manuel et al., 2017). Consistent with this, raising awareness about all forms of sexism in the
269 workplace is a crucial aspects in gender balance interventions (Sojo et al., 2016).

270 However, despite this strategy is fundamental to recognize and fight sexism, our results
271 indicated that is not only sexism itself that impairs women's well-being, but also their
272 ideological standpoints contribute in shaping these negative consequences. Thus, our results
273 suggest that organizations should realize multifaceted programs that, alongside with raising
274 awareness-strategies, should offer appropriate and flexible supportive strategies to women
275 who—directly or indirectly—face sexism in the workplace. Taking into account the fact that
276 the consequences of exposure to sexism for women vary according to both different forms of
277 sexist events and women's ideological standpoints, supportive strategies should provide them
278 personalized guidance and approach to cope with discriminatory events and to avoid negative
279 outcomes.

280 **Conclusion**

281 Gender-based discrimination in the workplace is a heavily investigated social problem,
282 but the effects of personal ideological tendencies in moderating the effects of exposure to
283 workplace sexism have been largely overlooked. Our results indicate that hostile work
284 environments and low-SJ tendencies work together to create a stressful environment for
285 women.

286 **References**

- 287 Barreto, M., & Ellemers, N. (2005a). The burden of benevolent sexism: How it contributes to
288 the maintenance of gender inequalities. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 35*,
289 633-642. doi:10.1002/ejsp.270
- 290 Barreto, M., & Ellemers, N. (2005b). The perils of political correctness: Men's and women's
291 responses to old-fashioned and modern sexist views. *Social Psychology Quarterly, 68*,

- 292 75-88. doi:10.1177/019027250506800106
- 293 Becker, J. C., & Wright, S. C. (2011). Yet another dark side of chivalry: Benevolent sexism
294 undermines and hostile sexism motivates collective action for social change. *Journal of*
295 *Personality and Social Psychology, 101*, 62-77. doi:10.1037/a0022615
- 296 Combs, G. M., & Milosevic, I. (2016). Workplace discrimination and the wellbeing of
297 minority women: Overview prospects and implications. In M. L. Connerley & J. Wu
298 (Eds.), *Handbook on well-being of working women* (pp.17-31). Dordrecht: Springer.
- 299 Dardenne, B., Dumont, M., & Bollier, T. (2007). Insidious dangers of benevolent sexism:
300 Consequences for women's performance. *Journal of Personality and Social*
301 *Psychology, 93*, 764-779. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.93.5.764
- 302 Dardenne, B., Dumont, M., Sarlet, M., Phillips, C., Balteau, E., Degueldre, C., Luxen, A.,
303 Salmon, E., Maquet, P. & Colette, F. (2013). Benevolent sexism alters executive brain
304 responses. *Neuroreport, 49*, 572-577. doi:10.1097/WNR.0b013e3283625b5b
- 305 Eliezer, D., Townsend, S. S., Sawyer, P. J., Major, B., & Mendes, W. B. (2011). System-
306 justifying beliefs moderate the relationship between perceived discrimination and
307 resting blood pressure. *Social Cognition, 29*, 303-321. doi:10.1521/soco.2011.29.3.303
- 308 Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1996). The ambivalent sexism inventory: Differentiating hostile and
309 benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 70*, 491-512.
310 doi:10.1037/0022-3514.70.3.491
- 311 Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (2001). Ambivalent sexism. In M.P. Zanna (Ed.), *Advances in*
312 *experimental social psychology* (Vol. 33, pp. 115-188). San Diego, CA: Academic
313 Press. doi:10.1016/S0065-2601(01)80005-8
- 314 Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (2011). Ambivalent sexism revisited. *Psychology of Women*
315 *Quarterly, 35*, 530-535. doi: 10.1177/0361684311414832
- 316 Jost, J. T., & Thompson, E. P (2000). Group-based dominance and opposition to equality as

- 317 independent predictors of self-esteem, ethnocentrism, and social policy attitudes among
318 African Americans and European Americans. *Journal of Experimental Social*
319 *Psychology*, 36, 209-232. doi:10.1006/jesp.1999.1403
- 320 Jost, J. T., Banaji, M. R., & Nosek, B. A. (2004). A decade of system justification theory:
321 Accumulated evidence of conscious and unconscious bolstering of the status quo.
322 *Political Psychology*, 25, 881-919. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9221.2004.00402.x
- 323 Jost, J., & Hunyady, O. (2002). The psychology of system justification and the palliative
324 function of ideology. *European Review of Social Psychology*, 13, 111-153.
325 doi:10.1111/j.0963-7214.2005.00377.x
- 326 Koch, A. J., D'Mello, S. D., & Sackett, P. R. (2015). A meta-analysis of gender stereotypes
327 and bias in experimental simulations of employment decision making. *Journal of*
328 *Applied Psychology*, 100, 128. doi: 10.1037/a0036734
- 329 Lemonaki, E., Manstead, A. S., & Maio, G. R. (2015). Hostile sexism (de) motivates
330 women's social competition intentions: The contradictory role of emotions. *British*
331 *Journal of Social Psychology*, 54, 483-499. doi: 10.1111
- 332 Levine, C. S., Basu, D., & Chen, E. (2017). Just world beliefs are associated with lower
333 levels of metabolic risk and inflammation and better sleep after an unfair event. *Journal*
334 *of Personality*, 85, 232-243. doi:10.1111/jopy.12236
- 335 Major, B., Kaiser, C. R., O'Brien, L. T., & McCoy, S. K. (2007). Perceived discrimination as
336 worldview threat or worldview confirmation: Implications for self-esteem. *Journal of*
337 *Personality and Social Psychology*, 92, 1068-1086. doi:10.1037/0022-3514.92.6.1068
- 338 Manuel, S. K., Howansky, K., Chaney, K. E., & Sanchez, D. T. (2017). No rest for the
339 stigmatized: A model of organizational health and workplace sexism (OHWS). *Sex*
340 *Roles*, 77, 697-708. doi: 10.1007/s11199-017-0755-x
- 341 Napier, J. L., & Jost, J. T. (2008). Why are conservatives happier than liberals? *Psychological*

- 342 *Science*, 19, 565-572. doi: 10.1111/j.1467-9280.2008.02124.x
- 343 Napier, J. L., Thorisdottir, H., & Jost, J. T. (2010). The joy of sexism? A multinational
344 investigation of hostile and benevolent justifications for gender inequality and their
345 relations to subjective well-being. *Sex Roles*, 62, 405-419. doi:10.1007/s11199-009-
346 9712-7
- 347 Ramos, M. R., Barreto, M., Ellemers, N., Moya, M., Ferreira, L., & Calanchini, J. (2016).
348 Exposure to sexism can decrease implicit gender stereotype bias. *European Journal of*
349 *Social Psychology*, 46, 455-466. doi:10.1002/ejsp.2165
- 350 Roccato, M., & Russo, S. (2017). Right-wing authoritarianism, societal threat to safety, and
351 psychological distress. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 47, 600-610. doi:
352 10.1002/ejsp.2236.
- 353 Salomon, K., Burgess, K. D., & Bosson, J. K. (2015). Flash fire and slow burn: Women's
354 cardiovascular reactivity and recovery following hostile and benevolent sexism.
355 *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, 144, 469-479. doi:10.1037/xge0000061
- 356 Schneider, K. T., Tomaka, J., & Palacios, R. (2001). Women's cognitive, affective, and
357 physiological reactions to a male coworker's sexist behavior. *Journal of Applied Social*
358 *Psychology*, 31, 1995-2018. doi:10.1111/j.1559-1816.2001.tb00161.x
- 359 Sojo, V. E., Wood, R. E., & Genat, A. E. (2015). Harmful workplace experiences and
360 women's occupational well-being: A meta-analysis. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*,
361 40, 10-40. doi:10.1177/0361684315599346
- 362 Spielberger, C. D., Gorsuch, R. L., Lushene, R., Vagg, P. R., & Jacobs, G. A. (1983). *Manual*
363 *for the state-trait anxiety inventory*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.
- 364 Van der Toorn, J., Feinberg, M., Jost, J. T., Kay, A. C., Tyler, T. R., Willer, R., & Wilmuth,
365 C. (2015). A sense of powerlessness fosters system justification: Implications for the
366 legitimation of authority, hierarchy, and government. *Political Psychology*, 36, 93-110.

- 367 <https://doi.org/10.1111/pops.12183>
- 368 Velez, B. L., Cox Jr, R., Polihronakis, C. J., & Moradi, B. (2018). Discrimination, work
369 outcomes, and mental health among women of color: The protective role of womanist
370 attitudes. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 65*, 178. doi: 10.1037/cou0000274.
- 371 Wakslak, C. J., Jost, J. T., Tyler, T. R., & Chen, E. S. (2007). Moral outrage mediates the
372 dampening effect of system justification on support for redistributive social policies.
373 *Psychological Science, 18*, 267-274. doi:10.1111/j.1467-9280.2007.01887.x
- 374 World Economic Forum. (2017). *Global Gender Gap Report*. Available online:
375 <https://www.weforum.org/reports/the-global-gender-gap-report-2017>

376 Table 1.

377 *Descriptive Statistics for the Variables We Used and Correlations among Them.*

	Mean	SD	Min	Max	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.
1. Hostile sexism	-.35	.94	-1	1	1				
2. Benevolent sexism	-.33	.95	-1	1		1			
3. System justification	.00	.67	-1.93	1.78			1		
4. Anxiety								1	

378

379

380

381

382

Table 2.

Prediction of Anxiety

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>
D1	.59***	.13	<.001
D2	1.18.***	.13	<.001
SJ	.39*	.16	.0175
D1*SJ	-.28	.22	.2063
D2*SJ	-.49*	.21	.0205

Note.

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

D1= D2=

Figure caption.

Figure 1. Moderating Effect of System Justification on the Relation between Exposure to Hostile Sexism and Anxiety.

Figure 1.