Nikolina KENIG

PSYCHOMETRIC CHARACTERISTICS OF THE INTERNALIZED MISOGYNY SCALE (IMS) TRANSLATED INTO MACEDONIAN LANGUAGE

Abstract:

This study examines the psychometric characteristics of the Internalized Misogyny Scale (IMS), developed by Piggot in 2004, following its translation into the Macedonian language. The sample consisted of 441 women aged 18 to 56 (M = 31.2; SD = 11.7). The data were collected online, with participants taking part voluntarily and anonymously.

Confirmatory factor analysis identified a moderate model fit. The original three-component structure was retained with minor deviations, comprising three factors: Distrust of women, Devaluation of women, and Valuing men over women.

The scale exhibited high internal consistency (α = .89), and item-total correlations ranged from r = .40 to.72. Convergent validity was supported through correlations with modern sexism (r(399) = .22,p < .01), self-silencing (r (399) = .23,p < .01), and feminist identification (r (399) = –.18,p < .01), while discriminant validity was supported by the absence of a correlation with general self-esteem, contrasted by a negative association with gender-related self-esteem (r (399) = –.15, p < .01).

These findings offer support for the use of the Macedonian IMS in research and practice. However, it warrants refinement of the identified critical items to ensure cross-cultural validity and sensitivity to the evolving social meanings of misogyny.

Keywords: *Internalized Misogyny Scale, psychometric characteristics*

Introduction

Misogyny constitutes a systemically rooted form of devaluation, distrust, or hostility toward women, expressed across social, institutional, and individual domains. Common practices of misogyny include social exclusion, devaluation of women's experiences and contributions, and the normalization of discrimination and violence against women.

Embedded within social structures, it serves as a powerful mechanism for maintaining and reinforcing patriarchal power relations, functioning as a system of control aimed at preserving traditional gender hierarchies.(Gargam & Lançon, 2020; Manne, 2017). Misogyny operates as a self-perpetuating mechanism of gender-based oppression, sustained through its internalization during socialization. It becomes ingrained in women's identities through sexist discourses that influence their early experiences and are persistently reinforced throughout their lives. (Bartky, 1990;Rahmani, 2020; Szymanski & Kashubeck-West, 2008; *Szymanski et al., 2009*). A recent qualitative study confirms that already during adolescence, girls tend to hold remarkably similar beliefs and attitudes about what it means to be a woman, and that the general concept of femininity is inherently shaped by sexist elements (Schwabe, 2024). This points to an ongoing process of reproducing culturally dominant definitions of femininity, which are closely linked to limiting and negative stereotypes and biases about women.

While boys/ men internalize experiences and messages that frame them as superior based on their gender, girls and women—consciously or unconsciously—adopt and reproduce the predominantly negative representations of women that prevail in patriarchal societies. The process by which ideas of female inferiority become ingrained and influence women's self-perception, their views of others, and their behavior is, in essence, the internalization of misogyny. In other words, misogyny is internalized when sexist ideas and practices become part of women's identity, leading them to perceive and treat other women in ways prescribed by the sexist model.

The term *internalized sexism* appears with comparable frequency to *internalized misogyny*, and is often used interchangeably in academic discourse. There is, though, a subtle distinction between the two terms (Han et al., 2023). Yet, while internalized sexism refers to the unconscious adoption of a broad range of attitudes and behaviors that uphold traditional gender roles and stereotypes about women's inferiority (Bearman & Amrhein, 2013), internalized misogyny is a specific form of internalized sexism characterized by women's acceptance of quite hostile attitudes and feelings toward their own gender.

Forms of Expression of Internalized Misogyny

Internalized misogyny can take the form of various acts of hostility toward other women. A paradigmatic examples of misogyny are the tendency of women to undervalue other women and distrust women more than men (Han et al., 2023). As empirical studies suggest, this horizontal hostility is revealed routinely in everyday interactions among women (Brogaard, 2020; Ford et al., 2013), in politics (e.g., Dehlin and Galliher, 2019), in the workplace (e.g., Dunn, 2003; Noor et al., 2023), and even within close interpersonal relationships between women, where it remains deeply embedded (Chesler, 2001). When directed toward other women, internalized misogyny is communicated through a wide range of behaviors, including malicious gossip, social exclusion, competitive comparison, body shaming, and manipulative tactics aimed at hindering the success of other women (Bearman et al., 2009; Goodwin, 2002; Underwood, 2003). This animosity is particularly pronounced toward girls and women who refuse to conform to traditional gender norms (Evteeva et al., 2024).

These behaviors contradict the typical patterns of interaction defined by identity group membership (ingroup versus outgroup). This phenomenon is accounted for by a theoretical perspective suggesting that, in contrast to dominant groups who uphold their self-esteem by devaluing out-groups, marginalized groups tend to protect their self-esteem through dissociation from their in-group. In this context, when girls and women direct hostility toward other women, it is typically aimed at a specific subgroup of women to which they do not perceive themselves as belongingto, or one that is socially defined as "worse" than the subgroup they identify with (David & Derthick, 2014; Hogg, 2003; Turner et al., 1994).

Besides affecting women's attitudes toward otherwomen, internalized misogyny also mediates the relationship with the self. Among the most commonly observed forms of internalized misogyny directed toward the self are self-objectification and self-sexualization, through which women treat their own bodies primarily as objects of male desire and evaluation (Bearman & Amrhein, 2013).An equally concerning expression of internalized misogyny is the tendency among women to subordinate their own needs to those of others—a paradoxical dynamic in which the self is erased in the very act of seeking its affirmation. In striving for recognition and validation, women often relinquish personal desires, autonomy, and boundaries, seeking to establish a sense of worth through compliance with externally defined ideals. This dynamic is deeply rooted in dominant cultural narratives that associate femininity with care, self-sacrifice and emotional availability. As Bartky (1990) argues, women are under constant pressure to live "from the outside in," meaning that their value is defined through the gaze of others, particularly men. This mechanism results in a form of self-imposed marginalization, in which the woman becomes "the other"—a being whose existence is oriented toward serving the needs of others.

A qualitative study exploring women's personal experiences of everyday internalized misogyny (Rahmani, 2020) identified three central themes that characterize misogynistic experiences. The first theme was *self-blame and self-hatred*, which is primarily, although not exclusively focused on physical appearance. The second theme involves *hostility toward other women*, particularly those who dare to step outside prescribed gender norms.The third theme was the endorsement of attitudes that contribute to the *normalization of violence against women*, most commonly through the displacement of responsibility for violent acts onto the victims themselves.

Consequences of Internalized Misogyny

The literature identifies many negative consequences of internalized misogyny, including reduced self-esteem and increased stress and depression (Szymanski and Kashubeck-West, 2008; Szymanski et al., 2009), self-objectification and eating disorders (Swim et al., 2001; Moradi et al., 2005; Johnson, 2014; 2020) and painful premenstrual syndromes (Erenoğlu et al., 2023). Besides, women who internalized higher levels of mysoginy exhibited career preferences aligned with traditional gender norms (Jha & Srivastava, 2024; Montañés et al., 2012), feelings of guilt related to working outside the home (Bozkur & Cig, 2022), self-doubt regarding their own abilities, as well as unconscious rejection of opportunities that would otherwise be available to them (Constantinescu, 2021). Orientation toward traditional gender roles is an important predictor of self-suppression, which, as previously noted, is a consequence of internalized misogyny. Kurtiş (2010) found that women exhibiting high levels of self-suppression are less satisfied and more depressed compared to those with lower levels. Internalized misogyny moderates the relationship between experiencing sexist events and subsequent psychological distress such that greater levels of internalized sexism exacerbated the relationship between experiences of sexism and psychological distress (Szymanski et al., 2009).Finally, perhaps the most serious consequence is the tendency of women experiencing high levels of internalized misogyny to be less likely to report gender-based forms of violence, as they perceive them as their own responsibility or as a normal reaction to their supposed "inferiority." (Gutierrez et al., 2024; Overstreet & Quinn, 2013).

Description of the Internalized Misogyny Scale (IMS)

The Internalized Misogyny Scale, originally developed by Margaret Piggott (2004), although not formally published, is currently the most extensively used instrument for quantifying the extent to which women have internalized misogynistic attitudes and beliefs. Possibly, it is the only one instrument that measures this construct, which has been cross-culturally validated.

The scale consists of 17 items rated on a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).Through exploratory factor analysis, out of the initial pool of 76 items derived from focus group discussions and relevant questionairres, three distinct factors were extracted:1. *Distrusting women* (DIS), whichconsists of 4 statements reflecting negative generalizations and doubts about the integrity and intentions of other women; 2. *Devaluation women* (DEV), comprising 6 statements that express perceptions of women as less capable or less valuable than men; 3. *Valuing men over women*(VAL), which comprises seven statements reflecting a preferential bias toward men solely on the basis of their gender.

The psychometric properties of the scale were evaluated on a sample of 803 female participants aged 18 to 30, drawn from five countries (USA, England, Australia, Finland, and Canada). Positive correlations were found with sexist attitudes, internalized homophobia, depression, and self-objectification, while negative correlations were observed with feminist attitudes, self-esteem, and gender congruence. Subsequently, the scale was used in research related to gender identities, sexism, self-perception, women's mental health, and can also be employed to assess the impact of interventions, training, or gender equality programs.

A Proposed Outline for Psychometric Validation of the Internalized Misogyny Scale (IMS)

To determine the discriminative power of the items, an internal criterion approach will be used. Namely, statistically significant correlations between the items and the total IMS score as well as between the items and the corresponding subscale scores, will be considered ac indicators of adequate discriminative power of the items. The internal consistency of the IMS will be assessed using Cronbach's alpha coefficient. Construct validity will be examined by comparing the internal structure of the instrument with the original model proposed by the author, employing confirmatory factor analysis.Additionally, based on the findings of the original study focused on developing the instrument, as well as subsequent empirical research, several hypotheses will be proposed and tested to support the validation process.

All available data confirm the relationship between various forms of sexism and internalized misogyny (e.g., Chen & Zheng, 2023; Piggott, 2004; Szymanski et al., 2009). Therefore, *Hypothesis 1* states: As internalized misogyny increases, acceptance of modern sexism increases.

An important aspect of internalized misogyny is that it is a key factor in the enactment of self-discipline among women to achieve conformity with gender norms. Research data confirmed that internalized misogyny is associated with various aspects of self-loss to satisfy others (Bearman & Amrhein, 2013; Bozkur, 2020). Consequently, *Hypothesis 2* states: As internalized misogyny increases, self-silencing increases**.**

The assumption that self-esteem and internalized misogyny are negatively correlated has been confirmed in two earlier studies (Cowan et al., 1998; Piggott, 2004) but not in the more recent one (Dehlin & Galliher, 2019). Therefore, it was hypothesized that internalized misogyny is not related to overall self-esteem; however, as internalized misogyny increases, gender-related self-esteem decreases (*Hypothesis 3*).

Further, it was assumed that as self-identification as a woman increases, internalized misogyny increases (*Hypothesis 4*), which is based on the established link between devaluation of femininity and mysoginy (Findlay & Piggott, 2005).

Finally, from the already confirmed connections between internalized misogyny and acceptance of feminist attitudes (Chen & Zheng, 2023; Szymanski et al., 2009) comes *Hypothesis 5*: As internalized misogyny increases, self-identification as a feminist and willingness to disclose oneself as a feminist to others decreases.

Method

Participants

The sample comprised 441 women aged between 18 and 56 years (M = 31.2; SD = 11.7). The vast majority of participants (92.1%) self-identified themselves as ethnic Macedonians. The proportion of participants with completed secondary and higher education was nearly equal, and the rest 10.2% reported having obtained a master's or doctoral degree. Participation in the study was voluntary, anonymous, and did not involve any form of compensation.

Instruments Used to Test the Hypotheses Concerning the Validity of the IMS

The Modern Sexism Scale (MSS) consists of 8 items to which respondents answer using a seven-point Likert scale, indicating the extent to which they deny the ongoing discrimination against women and express antagonism toward women's demands for equality and policies designed to support gender equality. The authors (Swim et al., 1995) reported adequate internal consistency (α = .72) and construct validity well supported by empirical evidence, which has also been confirmed in subsequent research (Yoder & McDonald, 1997). For the present sample, the internal consistency of the MSS was α = .74.

The Silencing the Self Scale (STSS) is a 31-item self-report scale designed to measures the extent to which women/girls suppress (or de-prioritize) thoughts, feelings, and reactions that may threaten the establishment and maintenance of safe and stable relationships, particularly romantic or marital ones. The scale includes four subscales: *Externalized self-perception, Care as self-sacrifice, Silencing the Self,* and *Divided Self*. This internal four-factor structure

was confirmed in two independent studies (Bozkur, 2023; Cramer & Thoms, 2003). Across various samples, internal consistency ranges from Cronbach's α = .86 to α = .94, whereas test-retest correlations vary from r = .88 to r = .93 (Jack & Dill, 1992). In this study, the scale has shown excellent internal consistency, with Cronbach α = .87.

Self-esteem was measured using the **Six-Item State Self-Esteem Scale (SSES-6)**, a shortened version of the original 20-item instrument developed by Heatherton and Polivy (1991). This brief version contains 6 items that are responded on a 5-point scale of agreement. The authors of the short form report that it has adequate internal consistency (Cronbach's α = .76), while retaining the three-factor structure of the original instrument (Webster, Howell, & Shepperd, 2022). In the present sample, the reliability of the scale was adequate, with Cronbach's α = .80.

Gender self-esteem refers to the degree of self-confidence as a woman or man, and the sense of personal well-being in one's gender identity. The instrument used to measure this construct was the **Hoffman Gender Scale - Female (HGS-F)**. The instrument consists of 14 items on a 6-point agreement scale, and includes two subscales: *Gender Self-definition* and *Gender Self-acceptance* (Hoffman et al., 2000). The internal consistency of the instrument is excellent. In the present study, Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was α = .90, for the Gender Self-Definition subscale α = .89, and for the Gender Self-Acceptance subscale α = .88.

Additionally, to test the hypotheses regarding differences between known groups, participants were asked to rate their level of agreement (from 1 = strongly disagree to 10 = strongly agree) with two statements: that they identify themselves as feminists and that they declare themselves as feminists in presence of others.

Translation and Administration

Prior to administration, all instruments were translated from English by a professional translator. The translated version was then back-translated into English by another, independent translator. The two English versions were compared, confirming an acceptable level of similarity between them.

All instruments, along with the additional relevant questions, were administered via an online platform. Among other items, an attention-check item was included, based on which 22 respondents were excluded in the data analysis process. Data were collected during April 2025.

Before completing the questionnaire, potential participants were contacted via their personal email addresses and informed about the opportunity to take part in the study[1]..The research was designed and carried out in ac-

---

[1] Students from the Institute of Psychology at the Faculty of Philosophy contributed to the recruitment of participants.

cordance with the ethical standards outlined in the Declaration of Helsinki and relevant data protection regulations. Participants were informed about the purpose of the study, their right to withdraw at any time, and the anonymity and confidentiality of their responses. Informed consent was obtained electronically prior to participation.

Statistical Analysis

Statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS 26, except for the confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), which was performed using JASP 16. The model was interpreted based on standard criteria: RMSEA values of.01 indicated excellent fit, up to.05 indicated good fit, and up to.08 indicated acceptable fit. For CFI and GFI, values above.90 were considered excellent, while values between.80 and.90 were interpreted as mediocre fit.

Results

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics for the Internalized Misogyny Scale, including its three subscales. In the original study, which included participants from five countries, the mean scores for the *Devaluation of women* subscale ranged from M = 2.49 to M = 3.39; for *Distrust of women*, from M = 2.41 to M = 3.20; and for *Valuation of men over women*, from M = 1.99 to M = 2.49 (Piggott, 2004). Compared to the current sample, the mean scores for all three subscales fall within the ranges reported in the original study. Comparisons with the averages reported from more recent studies could not be made, as the published articles do not include descriptive data.

The internal consistency coefficients indicate excellent homogeneity of both the overall scale and its subscales. Comparison with the previously reported Cronbach's alpha coefficients reveals a closely comparable distribution of values, with the *Valuation of men over women* subscale consistently demonstrating the lowest reliability, despite containing the largest number of items.The original version reported Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the subscales ranging from α =.70 to α =.84, with the overall scale exhibiting values between α =.85 and α =.92 (Piggott, 2004). More recently, Means and Lemm (2020) documented a high internal consistency of the total scale (α =.88), while Sözbir et al. (2020) reported a slightly lower value of α =.82.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics and Internal Consistency for the IMS Subscales and the Total Scale

Internalizaed Misogyny Scale (IMS)	n	Min.	Max	M	SD	Kur*	Skw**	α
Distrusting women (DIS)	4	1.00	6.33	2.83	1.26	-.66	.52	.82
Devaluing women (DEV)	6	1.00	7.00	3.05	1.48	-.64	.42	.81
Valuation of men over women(VAL)	7	1.00	6.14	2.07	1.01	1.36	1.19	.78
Total scale	17	1.00	5.65	2.57	1.01	-.45	.55	.89

Note.M = Mean calculated as the sum of item scores within each subscale divided by the number of items in that subscale.
* SE = .116; ** SE = .232

Table 2 presents the results of the item-level analysis, reporting each item's mean endorsement (M), its correlation with the total IMS score (r) and its respective subscale score (r_1), along with the associated Cronbach's alpha if the item were deleted, to evaluate its contribution to the internal consistency of the overall scale. All item-scale and item–subscale correlations were statistically significant, ranging from r = .40 to r = .72. This range is consistent with findings reported in previous studies. Moreover, the table shows that none of the items, if removed, would lead to a substantial increase in the overall Cronbach's alpha coefficient.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics, Item–Total and Subscale Correlations, and Internal Consistency if Item Deleted for IMS Items

IMS Items[a]	M (SD)	r	r_1	α if item dleted
Distrusting women (DIS)				
1. Women exaggerate problems they have at work	2.99 (1.74)	.61**	.79**	.878
2. Women are too easily offended.	3.32 (1.89)	.64**	.82**	.876
3. Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.	2.90 (1.90)	.69**	.81**	.874
4. When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against	3.02 (1.82)	.68**	.81**	.874

Devaluing women (DEV)				
5. It is generally safer not to trust women too much.	2.25 (1.68)	.67**	.69**	.875
6. When it comes down to it a lot of women are deceitful.	2.95 (1.82)	.72**	.82**	.873
7. I think that most women would lie just to get ahead.	3.17 (1.94)	.71**	.82**	.873
8. I am sure I get a raw deal from other women in my life.	2.76 (1.83)	.59**	.72**	.879
9.Sometimes other women bother me by just being around.	2.37 (1.75)	.62**	.68**	.877
10.I believe that most women do not tell the truth.	3.49 (1.61)	.40**	.54**	.886
Valuing men over women (VAL)				
11. When I am in a group consisting of equal numbers of men and women and a woman dominates the conversation I feel uncomfortable.	1.73 (1.25)	.52**	.62**	.881
12. I am uncomfortable when I hear a woman speaking with authority on male dominated topics such as football or horseracing.	1.86 (1.52)	.56**	.67**	.879
13. I prefer to listen to male radio announcers than female.	1.86 (1.44)	.57**	.70**	.879
14. The intellectual leadership of a community should be largely in the hands of men.	1.62 (1.20)	.48**	.63**	.882
15. I prefer to work for a male boss.	2.17 (1.69)	.59**	.75**	.878
16. If I were to beat another woman for a job I would feel more satisfied than if I beat a man.	2.58 (1.88)	.41**	.57**	.887
17. Generally, I prefer to work with men.	2.69 (1.81)	.61**	.67**	.878

Note.[a]The translation of the items is available in the version of this article published in Macedonian.

r= item-total correlation

r_1 =correlation between the item and the score of its corresponding subscale

*p< ,05; **p<,01

The confirmatory factor analysis treated the factors as intercorrelated. Although the chi-square test was statistically significant (χ^2 = 2889.4, df = 136, p< .001), such a result was expected due to the test's sensitivity to sample size, and therefore it was not considered a reliable indicator of model fit. The CFI value fell below the recommended threshold of .90, while the RMSEA was at the upper limit of acceptable fit. On the other hand, the SRMR value was within the acceptable range (CFI = .88; RMSEA = .08; SRMR = .06). Taken together, these indicators suggest that the model demonstrates moderate, though not optimal, fit to the data. This implies that further refinement of the translation or adaptation of the items may be needed in order to improve the internal structure of the scale.

Standard coefficients indicating the relation between items and their factors are shown in Fig. 1. Items 10 and 16 contributed the least to the total explained variance and emerged as potential sources of the model's misfit. The removal of these items did not contribute sufficiently to the improvement of model fit (χ^2 = 2742.1, df = 105, p< .001, CFI = .87, RMSEA = .09, SRMR = .06) to justify proposing this model as a superior. The latent constructs shown in Graph 1 were moderately to strongly correlated (r = .60 to .75), suggesting that while being conceptually distinct, they share a common underlying dimension. All factor loadings were generally acceptable, with most exceeding the recommended threshold of .50, although the two mentioned items (10 and 16) shown relatively low loadings, suggesting potential measurement limitations.
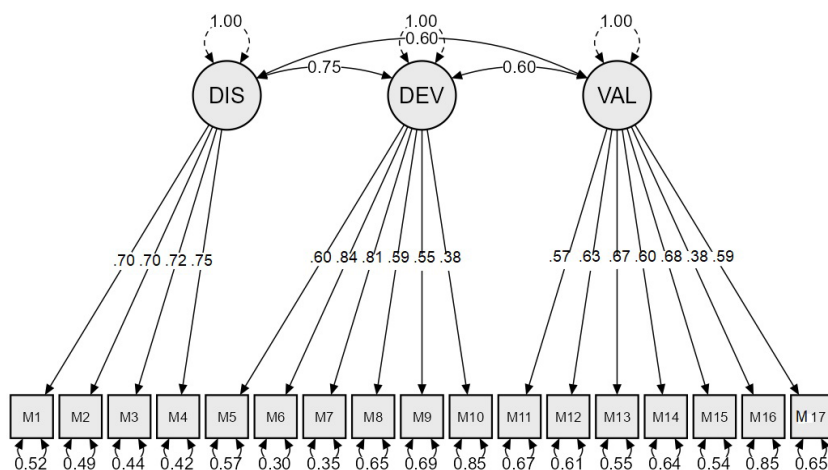

Figure 1. Standardized factor loadings and intercorrelations in the CFA of the IMS scale

Table 4 presents the results of the tested hypotheses regarding the associations between IMS (including its subscales) and the variables for which empirical data are available in the existing literature.

Table 4. Correlations of the IMS (and the Subscales) with Relevant Constructs

	IMS –вкупен скор	DIS	DEV	VAL
Modern sexism	**,22**[**]	,28[**]	,15[**]	,14[**]
Self-silencing	**,23**[**]	,09	,12[**]	,30[**]
Self-esteem	**-,02**	,05	-,04	-,06
Gender Self-definition	**,20**[**]	,12[**]	,12[**]	,26[**]
Gender Self-acceptance	**-,15**[**]	-,16[**]	-,07	-,14[**]
Self-defining as feminist	**-,18**[**]	-,17[**]	-,23[**]	-,05
Self-revealing as feminist	**-,16**[**]	-,17[**]	-,21[**]	-,03

[*]$p< ,05$; [**]$p<,01$

Convergent and discriminant validity were supported by the observed correlations between internalized misogyny, self-silencing, measures of psychosexual adjustment (self-definition as a woman and self-acceptance as a woman), and relevant attitudes (feminist self-identification and endorsement of modern sexism), all of which were in the expected directions. As shown in Table 4, internalized misogyny was negatively correlated with self-reported measures of feminist attitudes ($r(399)= -.18$, $p < .01$ and $r(399)= .16$, $p< .01$), as well as positively correlated with attitudes toward women reflected in the Modern Sexism Scale ($r(399)= .22$, $p< .01$). These findings confirm Hypotheses 1 and 5.

Hypothesis 2, which predicted a positive association between internalized misogyny and self-silencing, was also supported ($r(399)= .23$, $p< .01$). Furthermore, Hypothesis 3 was confirmed: internalized misogyny was not significantly correlated with general self-esteem ($r(399 = -.02$, $p> .05$), but was negatively associated with the gender-related self-esteem ($r(399)= -.15$, $p< .01$). Finally, Hypothesis 4 was supported by a positive correlation between internalized misogyny and self-definition as a woman ($r(399)= .20$, $p< .01$).

Discussion

The Macedonian translation of the Piggot's Internalized Misogyny Scale demonstrated acceptable psychometric properties, including adequate internal consistency and preliminary evidence of construct validity. However, the correspondence between its internal structure and that of the original model was moderate, suggesting the need for further refinement of item content, particularly through cultural adaptation. For example, as shown by the indicators in

Figure 1, one of the items with thepoorest psychometric performances is: *"If I were to beat another woman for a job I would feel more satisfied than if I beat a man."* While this item functions well in the western cultures, where it resonates with individualistic values oriented towards competitiveness and carry the latent meaning *"if I have to lose, I'd rather lose to someone who is better than me"*—its relevance may be weaker in collectivist societies. In such contexts, informal social networks (e.g., personal connections) often play a more significant role than individual competence. Consequently, the notion of competition—especially as gender-based—may be perceived differently and thus limit the item's interpretability and validity.

There is a lack of sufficient additional studies on the psychometric properties of the IMSwhen it is translated into non-English languages. Thus, it is difficult to determine whether only culturally relevant adjustments will sufficiently improve the fit of the scale, or whether it is necessary to re-evaluate the relevance of the indicators of internalized misogyny more than two decades after the scale's initial development. However, a comparison with the CFA indices obtained from a Turkish sample (Sözbir et al., 2020) reveals nearly identical fit values, which increases the likelihood that cultural differences, rather than the relevance of the indicators, are the primary source of the observed discrepancies.

Moreover, the weaker structural fit may be attributed to the assumptions underpinning model equivalence assessments. As noted by other authors (e.g., Ramos-Villagrasa et al., 2019), confirmatory factor analysis assumes that each item loads exclusively on its predetermined factor. When this assumption is not fully met, it may unjustifiably result in a substantial reduction in overall model fit.

The appropriateness of the instrument was well supported by the confirmed hypotheses regarding the associations between internalized misogyny and other related constructs.Additionally, a detailed examination of the relationships between the IMS subscales and the other included constructs further substantiates its validity (table 4). For example, self-silencing was not significantly correlated with distrust of other women but was associated with the IMS scales concerning the evaluation of women. As argued in previous research, the relationship between self-silencing and internalized misogyny is explained by the loss of aspects of the self resulting from the devaluation of modes of existence associated with femininity, rather than by negative attitudes toward other women (Bearman & Amrhein, 2013; Bozkur, 2020).

Regarding gender self-confidence, its relationships with the various aspects of internalized misogyny align with the expected patterns, both those observed for self-definition and self-acceptance as a woman. When defining oneself as a woman is accompanied by internalized patriarchal values, levels of internalized misogyny increase—particularly the aspect of valuaing men over women, since the own gender identity is being accepted within hierarchical rather than egalitarian norms. This means that a woman may strongly identify

herself as a woman, yet still accept societal hierarchies that devalue her gender, distrust them, and regard men as superior.

In contrast, gender self-confidence, which reflects a positive evaluation of one's own gender identity, including a sense of pride in belonging to the gender group, is, logically, negatively associated only with devaluation of women and with evaluation of men over women. This self-confidence in women seems to counteract internalized beliefs that women are less valuable than men or that men should be preferred. While gender self-confidence protects against internalized gender hierarchies that favor men over women, it does not appear to influence distrust toward women, which is likely shaped by distinct social and relational factors, oreven personal experiences. Finally, feminist self-identification was negatively correlated only with aspects of internalized misogyny reflecting the rejection of women's inferiority, but not with beliefs about the superiority of men over women.Feminist self-identification typically reflects a conscious commitment to gender equality, awareness of systemic oppression, and a critical stance toward patriarchal norms.Since it does not require or imply a diminished evaluation of men, the acceptance of this standpoint is not associated with preferring men over women.

In summary, the findings of this study provide preliminary evidence that the IMS can be used in its Macedonian translation as a sufficiently reliable and valid instrument. Its factor structure marginally corresponds to that of the original language, however, it is very similar to the one previously validated in another population few years ago. Further research to examine the cross-cultural stability of the scale and to test its measurement invariance across different cultural contexts could highly contribute towards establishing the IMS as a strong tool for comparative research across cultures.

Limitations

One of the limitations of this study concerns the sample, which does not share the same characteristics as that of the original study, which limits the direct comparability between the two studies. Additionally, due to the online administration of the questionnaires, control over the conditions under which participants completed the instrument was reduced, potentially affecting the quality of the collected data. Furthermore, all measures in this study were based exclusively on self-reporting, which, given the sensitive nature of the constructs under exploration, increases the risk of obtaining socially desirable responses. Finally, this study did not assess the test-retest reliability of the instrument, which, along with its predictive validity, remains to be evaluated in future research.

BIBLIOGRAPHY:

- Bartky, S. L. (1990). *Femininity and domination: Studies in the phenomenology of oppression*. Routledge.

- Bearman, S., & Amrhein, M. (2013). Girls, women, and internalized sexism. In E. J. R. David (Ed.), *Internalized oppression: The psychology of marginalized groups* (pp. 191–225). Springer Publishing Company.

- Bearman, S., Korobov, N., & Thorne, A. (2009). The fabric of internalized sexism. *Journal of Integrated Social Sciences, 1*, 10–47.

- Bozkur, B. (2020). Developing Internalized Sexism Scale for women: A validity and reliability study. *International Journal of Eurasian Education and Culture, 5*(11), 1981–2028. https://doi.org/10.35826/ijoecc.289

- Bozkur, B. (2023). Turkish adaptation of the Silencing the Self Scale: Validity and reliability study. *Anales de Psicología, 39*(1), 45–58. https://revistas.um.es/analesps/article/download/481501/334381/2011391

- Bozkur, B., & Cig, O. (2022). Examining the relationship between maternal employment guilt and internalized sexism in mothers with preschool children. *Cukurova University Faculty of Education Journal, 51*(3), 1721–1738. https://doi.org/10.14812/cufej.1125337

- Brogaard, B. (2020). Baby, it's in your nature: Misogyny, femininity, and female filth. In *Hatred* (pp. 82–95). Oxford University Press.

- Chen, X., & Zheng, L. (2023). Relationships of modern sexism and misogyny to feminist attitudes and engagement in China. *Women's Studies International Forum*, 102847. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.wsif.2023.102847

- Chesler, P. (2001). *Woman's inhumanity to woman*. Thunder's Mouth Press/Nation Books.

- Constantinescu, S. A. (2021). How does the internalization of misogyny operate: A theoretical approach with European examples. *Research in Social Change, 13*(1), 120–128.

- Cramer, K., & Thoms, N. (2003). Factor structure of the Silencing the Self Scale in women and men. *Personality and Individual Differences, 35*, 525–535. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0191-8869(02)00216-7

- David, E. J. R., & Derthick, A. O. (2014). What is internalized oppression, and so what? In E. J. R. David (Ed.), *Internalized oppression: The psychology of marginalized groups* (pp. 1–30). Springer Publishing Company.

- Dehlin, A. J., & Galliher, R. V. (2019). Young women's sexist beliefs and internalized misogyny: Links with psychosocial and relational functioning

and sociopolitical behavior. *Psi Chi Journal of Psychological Research, 24*(4), 255–264. https://doi.org/10.24839/2325-7342.JN24.4.255

- Dunn, H. (2003). Horizontal violence among nurses in the operating room. *AORN Journal, 78*(6), 977–988.

- Erenoğlu, R., Sözbir, Ş. Y., & Erenel, A. Ş. (2023). Is there a relationship between internalized misogyny and premenstrual syndrome and dysmenorrhea in young women? *Journal of Obstetrics and Gynecology Research, 49*(8), 2157–2163. https://doi.org/10.1111/jog.15719

- Evteeva, M., Burges, L., & Gelabert, T. S. (2024). Internalized misogyny: The patriarchy inside our heads. *Journal of Integrated Social Sciences, 14*(1), 82–108.

- Findlay, B., & Piggott, M. (2005). Double jeopardy: Lesbians and the legacy of multiplestigmatized identities. *Australian Journal of Psychology, 57*, 85.

- Ford, T., Woodzicka, J., Triplett, S. R., & Kochersberger, A. O. (2013). Sexist humor and beliefs that justify societal sexism. *Current Research in Social Psychology, 21*, 64–81.

- Gargam, A., & Lançon, B. (2020). *Histoire de la misogynie* [*History of misogyny*]. Les Éditions Arkhé.

- Goodwin, M. H. (2002). Building power asymmetries in girls' interaction. *Discourse & Society, 13*, 715–730.

- Gutierrez, B. C., & Leaper, C. (2024). Ambivalent sexism to violence-against-women attitudes and behaviors: A three-level meta-analytic review. *Sexuality & Culture, 28*, 851–882. https://doi.org/10.1007/s12119-023-10127-6

- Han, E., Hoffman, L., & Wood, S. M. (2023). Using the internalized misogyny scale across sexual orientations: Measurement invariance and item factor analysis. *Sex Roles, 88*, 290–304. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-023-01357-x

- Heatherton, T. F., & Polivy, J. (1991). Development and validation of a scale for measuring state self-esteem. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 60*(6), 895–910. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.60.6.895

- Hoffman, R. M., Borders, L. D., & Hattie, J. A. (2000). Reconceptualizing femininity and masculinity: From gender roles to gender self-confidence. Journal of Social Behavior and Personality, 15(4), 475–503.

- Hogg, M. A. (2003). Social identity. In M. R. Leary & J. P. Tangney (Eds.), *Handbook of self and identity* (pp. 462–479). Guilford Press.

- Jack, D. C., & Dill, D. (1992). The Silencing the Self Scale: Schemas of intimacy associated with depression in women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 16*(1), 97–106. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1471-6402.1992.tb00242.x

- Jha, I., & Srivastava, A. S. (2024). To explore the relationship between internalized misogyny and career choices among Indian women. *International Journal of Indian Psychology, 12*(2), 2809–2822. https://doi.org/10.25215/1202.245

- Johnson, S. (2014). *Perfectionism, the thin ideal, and disordered eating: Does internalized misogyny play a role?* [Master's thesis]. http://hdl.handle.net/11244/8107

- Kurtiş, T. (2010). *Self-silencing and well-being among Turkish women* (Doctoral dissertation). University of Kansas. https://hdl.handle.net/1808/6443

- Lachance-Grzela, M., Liu, B., Charbonneau, A., & Bouchard, G. (2021). Ambivalent sexism and relationship adjustment among young adult couples: An actor-partner interdependence model. *Journal of Social and Personal Relationships, 38*(7), 2121–2140. https://doi.org/10.1177/02654075211005549

- Leikas, S., Ilmarinen, V. J., Verkasalo, M., Vartiainen, H. L., & Lönnqvist, J. E. (2018). Relationship satisfaction and similarity of personality traits, personal values, and attitudes. *Personality and Individual Differences, 123*, 191–198.

- Manne, K. (2017). *Down girl: The logic of misogyny*. Oxford University Press.

- Means, K. (2021). *Not like other girls: Implicit and explicit dimensions of internalized sexism and behavioral outcomes* (Master's thesis). WWU Graduate School Collection. https://cedar.wwu.edu/wwuet/1020

- Montañés, P., de Lemus, S., Bohner, G., et al. (2012). Intergenerational transmission of benevolent sexism from mothers to daughters and its relation to daughters' academic performance and goals. *Sex Roles, 66*, 468–478. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-011-0116-0

- Montañés, P., de Lemus, S., Moya, M., Bohner, G., & Megías, J. L. (2013). How attractive are sexist intimates to adolescents? The influence of sexist beliefs and relationship experience. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 37*(4), 494–506.

- Moradi, B., Dirks, D., & Matteson, A. V. (2005). Roles of sexual objectification experiences and internalization of standards of beauty in eating disorder symptomatology: A test and extension of objectification theory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 52*(3), 420–428. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-0167.52.3.420

- Noor, N., Faisal, F., & Farooq, M. (2023). Horizontal hostility: A subset of glass ceiling. *Journal of Development and Social Sciences, 4*(3), 649–663. https://doi.org/10.47205/jdss.2023(4-III)61

- Overstreet, N. M., & Quinn, D. M. (2013). The intimate partner violence stigmatization model and barriers to help-seeking. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology, 35*(1), 109–122. https://doi.org/10.1080/01973533.2012.746599

- Piggott, M. (2004). *Double jeopardy: Lesbians and the legacy of multiple stigmatized identities* (Unpublished honors thesis). Swinburne University of Technology.

- Rahmani, S. (2020). *Women's experiences of internalized sexism* (Doctoral dissertation). https://digitalcommons.nl.edu/diss/451

- Ramiro-Sánchez, T., Ramiro, M. T., Bermúdez, M. P., & Buela-Casal, G. (2018). Sexism in adolescent relationships: A systematic review. *Psychosocial Intervention, 27*, 123–132. https://doi.org/10.5093/pi2018a19

- Røysamb, E., Vittersø, J., & Tambs, K. (2014). The Relationship Satisfaction Scale – Psychometric properties. *Norsk Epidemiologi, 24*, 187–194. https://doi.org/10.5324/nje.v24i1-2.18

- Sánchez, V., Muñoz-Fernández, N., & Vega-Gea, E. (2017). Peer sexual cybervictimization in adolescents: Development and validation of a scale. *International Journal of Clinical and Health Psychology, 17*, 171–179. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijchp.2017.04.001

- Swim, J. K., Aikin, K. J., Hall, W. S., & Hunter, B. A. (1995). Sexism and racism: Old-fashioned and modern prejudices. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 68*(2), 199–214. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.68.2.199

- Swim, J. K., Hyers, L. L., Cohen, L. E., & Ferguson, M. J. (2001). Everyday sexism: Evidence for its incidence, nature, and psychological impact from three daily diary studies. *Journal of Social Issues, 57*(1), 31–53. https://doi.org/10.1111/0022-4537.00200

- Szymanski, D. M., & Kashubeck-West, S. (2008). Mediators of the relationship between internalized oppressions and lesbian and bisexual women's psychological distress. *Counseling Psychologist, 36*, 575–594.

- Szymanski, D. M., Gupta, A., Carr, E. R., & Stewart, D. (2009). Internalized misogyny as a moderator of the link between sexist events and women's psychological distress. *Sex Roles, 61*(1), 101–109. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-009-9611-y

- Turner, J., Oakes, P., Haslam, S., & McGarty, C. (1994). Self and collective: Cognition and social context. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 20*, 454–463. https://doi.org/10.1177/0146167294205002

- Underwood, M. (2003). *Social aggression among girls*. Guilford Press.

- Webster, G. D., Howell, J. L., & Shepperd, J. A. (2020). Self-esteem in 60 seconds: The six-item state self-esteem scale (SSES-6). *Assessment, 29*(2), 152–168. https://doi.org/10.1177/1073191120958059

- Yoder, J. D., & McDonald, T. W. (1997). The generalizability and construct validity of the Modern Sexism Scale: Some cautionary notes. *Sex Roles, 36*(9), 655–663. https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1025674209