

**WHEN AI DISCRIMINATES: COMPARING HOW PEOPLE
RESPOND TO GENDER DISCRIMINATION BY AI AND HUMANS**

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ABSTRACT

WHEN AI DISCRIMINATES: COMPARING HOW PEOPLE RESPOND TO GENDER DISCRIMINATION BY AI AND HUMANS

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collective action intentions, intergroup attitudes

As artificial intelligence (AI) systems become increasingly integrated into different domains, their discriminatory behaviors become more relevant than ever. AI discrimination (i.e., AI's discriminatory behaviors) can affect any group, but disadvantaged groups, such as women, may be targeted more frequently. However, it remains unclear whether AI discrimination influences people's attitudes towards targeted groups and their willingness to challenge the status quo. Thus, this thesis explores how AI discrimination affects people's collective action intentions and intergroup attitudes. In two online studies, participants in Turkey (Study 1) and the United States (Study 2) read about either (1) AI discrimination toward women, (2) humans' discrimination toward women, or (3) an unrelated topic (i.e., control condition), and reported their perceived threat toward women, collective action intentions for women's equal treatment, attitudes toward feminists, and attitudes toward women. Findings revealed that AI systems were perceived as less threatening than human discriminators but led to more perceived threat than the control condition. Contrary to expectations, neither AI nor human discriminator conditions significantly differed from the control condition in terms of collective action intentions and attitudes toward women and feminists. These findings offer insights into the group-level consequences of AI discrimination.

ÖZET

YAPAY ZEKÂ AYRIMCILIK YAPTIĞINDA: İNSANLARIN YAPAY ZEKÂ VE İNSANLAR TARAFINDAN YAPILAN CİNSİYET AYRIMCILIĞINA NASIL TEPKİ VERDİĞİNİN KARŞILAŞTIRILMASI

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Anahtar Kelimeler: ayrımcılık, yapay zekâ (AI), dezavantajlı gruplar, kolektif
eylem niyetleri, gruplar arası tutumlar

Yapay zekâ (AI) sistemleri farklı alanlara giderek daha fazla entegre oldukça bu sistemlerin ayrımcı davranışları her zamankinden daha önemli hale gelmektedir. AI ayrımcılığı (yani AI'nın ayrımcı davranışları) herhangi bir grubu etkileyebilir, fakat kadınlar gibi dezavantajlı gruplar daha sık hedef alınabilir. Ancak, AI ayrımcılığının insanların hedef alınan gruplara yönelik tutumlarını ve statükoya karşı çıkma isteklerini etkileyip etkilemediği henüz net değildir. Bu sebeple, bu tez AI ayrımcılığının insanların kolektif eylem niyetlerini ve gruplar arası tutumlarını nasıl etkilediğini araştırmaktadır. Türkiye'de (Çalışma 1) ve Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'nde (Çalışma 2) yürütülen iki çevrimiçi çalışmada katılımcılar ya (1) AI'nın kadınlara yönelik ayrımcılığı, (2) insanların kadınlara yönelik ayrımcılığı ya da (3) ilgisiz bir konu (yani kontrol koşulu) hakkında okudular ve kadınlara yönelik algıladıkları tehditi, kadınların eşit muamelesi için kolektif eylem niyetlerini, feministlere yönelik tutumlarını ve kadınlara yönelik tutumlarını bildirdiler. Bulgular, AI sistemlerinin insan ayrımcılardan daha az tehdit edici olarak algılandığını fakat kontrol koşulundan daha fazla tehdit algısına yol açtığını göstermiştir. Beklentilerin aksine, ne AI ne de insan ayrımcı koşulları, kolektif eylem niyetleri ve kadınlara ve feministlere yönelik tutumlar açısından kontrol koşulundan anlamlı ölçüde farklılaşmamıştır. Bu bulgular AI'nın ayrımcı davranışlarının grup düzeyinde sonuçlarına dair içgörü sunar.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

AI	Artificial Intelligence
ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
EEOC	Equal Employment Opportunity Commission.....
MANOVA	Multivariate Analysis of Variance.....
RD	Relative Deprivation
RDBO	Relative Deprivation on the Behalf of Others
RDT	Relative Deprivation Theory.....
SIMCA	Social Identity Model of Collective Action
SIT	Social Identity Theory
STEM	Science, Technology, Education, and Mathematics.....
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme.....

1. INTRODUCTION

The rise of new technologies such as artificial intelligence (AI) systems raises questions about their discriminatory potential. Indeed, discriminatory behaviors of AI (hereafter AI discrimination) and similar technologies can negatively affect targeted individuals, who are more likely to be members of underrepresented and disadvantaged groups such as women and racial minorities. However, whether AI discrimination can influence people's behaviors and attitudes toward the targeted groups has not been studied extensively. Thus, this thesis investigates whether AI's discriminatory behaviors affect intergroup dynamics. Using a gender context, I explored the differences in participants' willingness to engage in collective action for women's equal treatment, and their attitudes toward feminists (Study 1 & Study 2) and attitudes toward women (Study 2) in response to reading about AI's discriminatory behaviors, human's discriminatory behaviors and an unrelated text (i.e., control condition). Overall, this thesis contributes to understanding how people react to AI's discriminatory behaviors and enriches the existing literature that seeks to increase collective efforts to address inequality.

1.1 AI as Discriminators

Rapid technological developments have led to a robust increase in tools and devices available for public use, such as robots and artificial intelligence (AI). These commercialized technologies can ease people's daily routines, allowing individuals to complete tasks faster and better. People can reach natural language processing tools and similar AI technologies from the comfort of their homes (or phones) and use them for different reasons: to create fake videos of celebrities, perform data analyses, edit and rephrase paragraphs in assignments and term projects, create workout and diet programs for marathon training, fix errors in codes, provide guidance on starting a new hobby or learning a new skill, give advice about daily events

and relationships, and for many more purposes. Considering the availability of AI technologies that could be used for various reasons, researchers need to discuss the ethical implications of interacting with AI systems and explore the potential risks of incorporating these technologies into our lives (e.g., Darling 2012, 2015).

AI systems certainly contribute to our ease of living, but our interactions with them may occasionally be displeasing and even frustrating. Technologies often make seemingly avoidable ‘mistakes,’ or errors, ranging from technical errors to social norm violations (Giuliani et al. 2015; Tian and Oviatt 2021). Discrimination - the inappropriate and unfair negative treatment of others based on their group identities (Allport 1954; Dovidio et al. 2010) is one of such behaviors that AI systems occasionally display based on the user’s characteristics or the input they give to the AI. Consider two scenarios: A search engine’s selective and racially derogatory output following a racial minority’s inquiry (e.g., Sini 2016) and an object detection system of a self-driving car failing to recognize a pedestrian with a darker skin tone (e.g., Wilson, Hoffman, and Morgenstern 2019). Although the latter scenario may be considered more critical, all types of discriminatory behaviors are relevant to research because they allow us to understand how people judge the errors of AI and whether they affect users.

One explanation for AI discrimination is algorithmic biases, which occur when algorithms that constitute AI tools’ actions are trained on data with pre-existing biases (Danks and London 2017). Algorithmic biases may be encoded by designers intentionally and unintentionally. For instance, intentionally biased AI tools may be trained with incomplete datasets that contain inaccurate information related to certain groups due to the developers’ personal biases (e.g., Intahchomphoo and Gundersen 2020). Nevertheless, AI tools can also harbor unintentional biases from seemingly bias-free datasets. Researchers explain that algorithms may show bias due to the exclusionary nature of the data they feed from (e.g., Bender et al. 2021; Hall and Ellis 2023; Saka 2020). Bender and colleagues (2021) discuss that developers often use data from the Western end of the globe, which comes from predominantly White and male young adults. Inevitably, algorithms create misleading inductions and show bias when exposed to datasets representing only a fraction of the world and excluding various other populations. Such inductions occur due to the nature of algorithms, as they are prone to (over) generalizing and misinterpreting relationships that they observe from available data (e.g., Baker and Potts 2013). For example, AI hiring tools may underestimate a woman candidate’s suitability for a given job position in STEM based on their gender because the available data may show that more men work in STEM than women (e.g., Dastin 2018). While the data do not suggest that women are worse at STEM jobs, AI systems may reinforce

such a biased conclusion. Similarly, algorithms can make biased inductions about different racial identities, genders, and religions from datasets that seemingly do not contain any information that may lead to biased inferences. A relevant example is crime-risk assessment tools that estimate citizens’ risk of committing crimes in the future based on specific criteria, including postcodes (often used as a proxy for racial information) (see Allen and Masters 2020; Big Brother Watch Team 2018).

Overall, the discriminatory potential of AI systems is technically related to the amount and quality of the data they feed on. However, it is unlikely that AI and their biases on race, gender, and similar social identities will vanish any time soon. For this reason, it remains important to understand how people perceive the discriminatory behaviors of AI systems and how they may affect people’s attitudes toward these technologies and other humans.

1.2 How Might Different Groups React to AI Bias

Discriminatory behaviors of AI systems are often shaped by biased data, which may disproportionately impact disadvantaged groups such as women, racial and ethnic minorities, and sexual minorities (e.g., Ferrara 2023). Real-life examples demonstrate these biases. For instance, Amazon’s infamous AI hiring tool allegedly gave higher ratings to applications of male candidates than female candidates since the company’s history of employee composition at the time was mostly made up of men (Dastin 2018). Similarly, an English-tutoring service was sued by the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC; 2022) on the grounds of rejecting older applicants for tutoring jobs. Indeed, it is possible to read hundreds of news reports about the discriminatory behaviors of AI systems and similar technologies in different domains, such as women being given lower credit card limits and Black individuals being accused of criminal activity (Hill 2020; Nedlund 2019; Spielkamp 2017). Considering that perceiving discrimination can adversely affect targets, reduce their well-being (e.g., Bagci et al. 2020), and damage their physical and mental health (e.g., Borrell et al. 2007; Landrine and Klonoff 1996; Mays, Cochran, and Barnes 2007; Noh and Kaspar 2003; Pascoe and Smart Richman 2009; Schmitt et al. 2014; Williams, Neighbors, and Jackson 2003), it is important to understand how disadvantaged and advantaged groups would react to AI discrimination, and whether they would be willing to challenge inequality after exposure to AI discrimination. To explore these topics, it is helpful to draw on prior research that has theorized and examined how disadvantaged and advantaged groups respond to

the unequal treatment of the disadvantaged.¹

1.2.1 How Do Disadvantaged Groups React to Inequality?

Past research suggests that advantaged and disadvantaged groups perceive group-based inequality differently (e.g., Knowles and Lowery 2012). One reason for these different perceptions is the social hierarchy embedded in society. A vast history of cumulative discriminatory policies caused some groups to become *advantaged* and others to become *disadvantaged* (e.g., DiPrete and Eirich 2006; Maroto and Pettinicchio 2022). For instance, women, racial, ethnic, and sexual minorities, and any other gender identity other than men are considered disadvantaged groups in modern Western societies, as they lack the amount of power and social status that advantaged groups such as men and racial, ethnic, and sexual majorities often benefit from (e.g., Radke et al. 2020). Due to power imbalances and structural limitations, disadvantaged or low-status groups are more frequently stigmatized and discriminated against (e.g., Link and Phelan 2001). In contrast, advantaged groups are less likely to perceive discrimination compared to disadvantaged groups, and they are less likely to challenge the status quo (e.g., Brown, Jacoby-Senghor, and Raymundo 2022; Caricati and Owuamalam 2020; Lowery, Knowles, and Unzueta 2007; Sidanius and Pratto 1999).²

Many contextual factors might shape people’s reactions to discrimination, such as the cultural setting, the discriminator’s group identity, the presence of witnesses, whether the discriminator is alone, etc. According to the *Social Identity Theory* (SIT; Tajfel and Turner 1979), seeking social change through *collective action* is one of the most effective responses to inequality (Ellemers, Van Knippenberg, and Wilke 1990; Wright, Taylor, and Moghaddam 1990). *Collective action* refers to actions done individually and collectively to promote a group’s status in society (Wright and Tropp 2002; Wright, Taylor, and Moghaddam 1990; Van Zomeren, Postmes, and Spears 2008). As an example, imagine a woman who is harassed at work; she may participate in workplace equity initiatives, donate to women’s causes, or engage in public demonstrations to advocate for systemic change as a response to her discrimination. Collective action is considered a key way of addressing social

1. Throughout this thesis, all findings regarding disadvantaged groups’ reactions to discrimination against the disadvantaged will refer specifically to their responses to discrimination targeting their *own ingroup* (e.g., women’s reactions to discrimination against women), unless stated otherwise.

2. Disadvantaged group members might also try to protect the status quo as a coping mechanism to deflect the adverse effects inequality has on their identity (see System Justification Theory; Jost et al. 2003; Napier, Suppes, and Bettinsoli 2020).

inequalities especially when groups believe they can achieve social change and when they cannot change group identities (Ellemers, Van Knippenberg, and Wilke 1990) and research that seeks ways of promoting collective action is essential to break hierarchies and challenge discrimination. Moreover, collective action can directly improve the lives of the disadvantaged. Indeed, research suggests that activism and similar actions may benefit people’s healing journeys from trauma (Edström and Dolan 2019; Stidham et al. 2012; Strauss Swanson and Szymanski 2020).

Collective action research suggests that there are many drivers of collective action behaviors. For instance, Van Zomeren and colleagues’ (2008) *Social Identity Model of Collective Action* (SIMCA) highlights that ingroup identification, perceived efficacy to achieve social change (i.e., the extent people believe their actions will have an impact), and anger due to group-based inequalities are the primary motivations for collective action. Moreover, theoretical accounts suggest that disadvantaged groups’ actions against inequality are associated with the relative status of one’s group compared to others. For instance, the *Relative Deprivation Theory* (RDT) posits that when people perceive that their group is devalued compared to other groups, they may be more willing to engage in collective action to improve their group’s status (e.g., Crosby 1976; Kawakami and Dion 1995; Runicman 1966; Schmitt and Maes 2002). Indeed, researchers note that people’s recognition of group-based disadvantages drives people to challenge discrimination (Ellemers and Barreto 2009; Wright and Tropp 2002; Wright, Taylor, and Moghaddam 1990), and group-based relative deprivation (RD) can be related to collective action (e.g., Kawakami and Dion 1995; Su, Zhang, and Xia 2023; Van Zomeren and Iyer 2009). For instance, Su and colleagues (2023) recruited university students and tested whether perceived RD increases aggressive collective action behaviors. They randomly assigned university students to read a report that either highlighted the lack of opportunities at their university or another report that only suggested a slight deprivation. Their findings showed that participants who read the report highlighting the lack of opportunities at the university engaged in more aggressive collective action.

Similarly, Moscatelli and colleagues (2025) asked their women participants to read a short report that either discussed how women’s wages are less than men’s or another report that discussed how women’s and men’s wages were the same. Their results showed that women who read about the low wages of women compared to men were more willing to engage in collective action. Indeed, findings suggest that women who perceive their group to be deprived are more in favor of affirmative actions (i.e., preferential actions that only aid one group) (Ciaffoni 2024; Tougas, Beaton, and Veilleux 1991), and are more likely to participate in collective action such as protests (Kelly and Breinlinger 1995). Moreover, Uluğ and colleagues (2023) demon-

strated that women who have witnessed gender discrimination are more willing to engage in collective action for gender equality. Thus, exposure to discrimination and perceiving RD may increase disadvantaged groups' collective action intentions.

Exposure to discrimination can also improve how disadvantaged groups feel about their ingroup and other supportive groups (e.g., Becker and Barreto 2014; Dodd et al. 2001; Garcia et al. 2010). For instance, Garcia and colleagues (2010) found that women who viewed discrimination as an ongoing issue were more likely to express liking for a woman who protested discrimination, compared to a woman who did not protest. Similarly, Dodd and colleagues (2001) found that women reported greater respect and affection toward women who confronted gender discrimination, compared to non-confronters. Based on these findings, exposure to discrimination may improve disadvantaged groups' attitudes toward people who challenge inequality.

Moreover, empirical work suggests that group-based RD may increase ingroup identification, increase ingroup biases, and improve attitudes toward one's ingroup as a self-defense mechanism (Schmitt and Maes 2002). This is also in line with the *Rejection-Identification Model*, which suggests that perceiving discrimination may lead disadvantaged groups to identify with their ingroup more to protect themselves from the adverse effects of discrimination (e.g., Branscombe, Schmitt, and Harvey 1999; Jetten et al. 2001; Schmitt and Maes 2002). Similarly, findings suggest that identifying with one's ingroup after perceiving group-based prejudice may lead disadvantaged groups to evaluate their ingroup more positively (Dion and Earn 1975). Indeed, Osborne and Sibley (2015) found that group-based RD predicted how much warmth disadvantaged groups felt toward their ingroup. However, some findings indicate no significant association between group-based RD and ingroup attitudes (Tripathi and Srivastava 1981). For instance, Tripathi and Srivastava (1981) did not find a link between group-based RD and ingroup attitudes of Muslims from India; the researchers interpreted their null findings through ceiling effects.

Overall, a considerable amount of research shows that perceived discrimination and group-based inequalities may improve attitudes and lead individuals to support collective action for their group (e.g., Moscatelli et al. 2025; Osborne and Sibley 2015). Thus, exposure to AI's discrimination against disadvantaged groups may potentially improve attitudes toward the targeted group and their advocates (e.g., political groups such as feminists) and increase their willingness to engage in collective action for their equal treatment.

1.2.2 How Do Advantaged Groups React to Inequality?

In contrast to disadvantaged groups, advantaged groups can either support disadvantaged groups' challenges against inequality as allies (Kutlaca, Radke, and Becker 2022; Radke et al. 2020; Uluğ and Tropp 2021; Van Zomeren et al. 2011) or they may resist these movements and try to reinforce the status quo (Flood, Dragiewicz, and Pease 2021). Up until recently, the collective action literature has mainly evaluated advantaged groups as non-supporters of equality, as they are primarily motivated to maintain their privileges (e.g., Caricati and Owumalam 2020; Lowery, Knowles, and Unzueta 2007; Rivera-Rodriguez, Larsen, and Dasgupta 2022; Sidanius and Pratto 1999; Wilkins et al. 2015). Indeed, advantaged groups can be less likely to support equality movements because they are afraid of losing their advantages while disadvantaged groups gain theirs, as if advantages constitute a 'zero-sum game' where the winner takes it all (e.g., Brown, Jacoby-Senghor, and Raymundo 2022; Kuchynka et al. 2018; Norton and Sommers 2011).

Compared to disadvantaged groups, advantaged groups are less likely to perceive and acknowledge prejudice and discriminatory treatment toward the disadvantaged (e.g., Knowles and Lowery 2012), and they may deny and discuss their own hardships when confronted with their privileged status (e.g., Knowles et al. 2014; Phillips and Lowery 2015; Sullivan et al. 2012). In line with these findings, Miron and colleagues (2011) found that men (Study 1) and White people (Study 2) were less likely to acknowledge gender and racial inequality as unjust than women and Black people. They further demonstrated that White people were less likely to feel the desire to restore justice than Black people (Study 2). Similarly, advantaged groups may even oppose policies that seek to improve the status of disadvantaged groups (see Iyer 2022).

With the ever-increasing focus on advantaged groups' participation in solidarity-based collective action, recent research highlights that certain factors can lead advantaged groups to join the disadvantaged group's cause and stand in solidarity with them (e.g., Radke et al. 2020; Stewart 2017). Indeed, endorsing politicized identities (i.e., identification with a social movement, such as feminism; Saab et al. 2015; Subašić, Reynolds, and Turner 2008; Van Zomeren et al. 2011), moral convictions (Ochoa et al. 2019; Van Zomeren et al. 2011), feelings of anger³ (Klavina and Van Zomeren 2020; Van Zomeren et al. 2011), and sympathy (Iyer and Ryan 2009) for the disadvantaged groups' struggles increases advantaged groups' collective

3. Anger's role in predicting collective action in advantaged groups may differ according to the extent the advantaged group member identifies with *their ingroup* (Iyer and Ryan 2009), and the cultural setting (Ochoa et al. 2019; Van Zomeren 2019).

action intentions for the disadvantaged.

Another important motivator of advantaged groups' collective action intentions is *relative deprivation on behalf of others* (RDBO; Runicman 1966; Veilleux and Tougas 1989), which suggests that perceiving a group's deprived status compared to other groups can motivate advantaged groups to support equality movements. Indeed, research demonstrates that advantaged groups who perceive other groups as relatively deprived are more likely to support pro-equality policies and affirmative actions that help the disadvantaged (e.g., Tougas and Veilleux 1990; Veilleux and Tougas 1989). Relatedly, Mazzuca and colleagues (2022) demonstrated that the extent to which men believed women were relatively deprived in the workplace (e.g., were being unfairly treated, discriminated, and penalized compared to men) was associated with their collective action intentions for women's equality. Thus, one might assume that once advantaged groups face the unequal treatment of disadvantaged groups, they may be more willing to engage in collective action to support the disadvantaged.

Although perceiving discrimination can reduce prejudicial attitudes in advantaged and disadvantaged groups (especially if the discrimination is perceived as harmful and pervasive; e.g., Becker and Swim 2012), exposure to discrimination may not always lead advantaged groups to support equality movements. For example, Reimer and colleagues (2017) found no significant relationship between perceived discrimination against the disadvantaged and the advantaged groups' collective action intentions (Study 1b). Importantly, for advantaged groups to support collective action for the disadvantaged, they need to recognize that *their group is relatively privileged* and the discriminatory treatment of the disadvantaged is *illegitimate* (e.g., Buliga 2023; Uluğ and Tropp 2021). For instance, Uluğ and Tropp (2021) had half of their participants (i.e., White Americans) watch a video showing a Black individual being discriminated against by White individuals, and the other half watched a non-discriminatory video (i.e., control). Their results showed that the two conditions did not significantly differ in their collective action intentions. However, participants' awareness of White privilege mediated the relationship between witnessing discrimination and collective action intentions. These findings highlight that merely presenting advantaged groups with discrimination may not increase their support for equality. Relatedly, Jost and colleagues (2012) found that advantaged and disadvantaged groups are more willing to protest inequality when they reject the system. Thus, discrimination may increase advantaged groups' intentions to act for disadvantaged groups if their privileges, relative to the disadvantaged group, are made salient and group-based differences are perceived as illegitimate.

In contrast to collective action intentions, no research to my knowledge has yet focused on whether perceived discrimination can improve advantaged groups' atti-

tudes, warmth, and feelings toward the disadvantaged group and their advocates. In one study, Becker and Baretto (2014) found that men evaluated women who confronted sexism non-aggressively more optimally than women who confronted aggressively or did not confront, implying that advantaged groups could view protesters against inequality positively. Notably, some findings indicate that inequality, historical mistreatment, and conflict with disadvantaged groups can lead advantaged groups to feel more positively about the disadvantaged and reprimand their mistreatment, due to feelings of guilt and shame (e.g., Allpress et al. 2010, 2014; Brown and Cehajic 2008; Swim and Miller 1999). For instance, Swim and Miller (1999) demonstrated that feelings of White guilt were associated with lower prejudice toward Black people. Similarly, existing findings show that empathy and perspective taking can improve attitudes toward disadvantaged groups (Batson et al. 2002, 1997; Tarrant and Hadert 2010; Vescio, Sechrist, and Paolucci 2003). Thus, it could be expected that advantaged groups will feel more positively about disadvantaged groups and their advocates after reading about their discrimination.

Overall, research suggests that perceiving discrimination and group-based inequalities may make both advantaged and disadvantaged groups more willing to engage in collective action for equality and improve their attitudes toward the disadvantaged and their advocates. Thus, empirical investigations are needed to examine how people react to discriminatory behaviors of AI, and how these reactions compare to responses to discrimination by humans. While it is plausible to assume that people’s reactions to AI’s discrimination could resemble existing intergroup dynamics, it is important to consider that AI and similar technologies are treated as novel entities (Gray et al. 2025; Kahn and Shen 2017), and are not attributed the same abilities and characteristics as humans (Bigman et al. 2023; Gray, Gray, and Wegner 2007). This indicates that further research about group members’ reactions to AI discrimination is needed.

1.2.3 Interpreting AI Discrimination

Overall, as AI systems become incorporated into domains that influence people’s lives, such as finance, education, and job recruitment, concerns about AI discrimination have become more relevant than ever. However, since AI discrimination is only a recent concern, it is unclear whether it triggers the same reactions as human discrimination. One reason why AI’s discriminatory behaviors may affect intergroup relationships differently than humans’ discriminatory behaviors is that AI and similar technologies are not attributed as much mind (i.e., agentic and experiential

capabilities) as humans (Gray, Gray, and Wegner 2007). The argument here is that people may perceive AI as less of a threat because, while AI and similar technologies are attributed some moral responsibility and intentionality, they are perceived to be less agentic compared to humans (Bigman et al. 2019; Floridi and Sanders 2004; Geiselmann et al. 2023; Shank and DeSanti 2018; Shank et al. 2021).

Empirical evidence suggests that AI’s discriminatory behaviors and moral violations are evaluated differently from humans’ discriminatory behaviors and moral violations (Bigman et al. 2023; Shank and DeSanti 2018). For instance, Bigman and colleagues (2023) compared the extent to which participants felt moral outrage (i.e., anger or disgust triggered by perceived violations of moral values) due to the discriminatory behaviors of algorithms and humans in a hiring setting. They had their participants read a short text about the discriminatory behaviors of either human recruiters or algorithms. Across 12 studies, within race and gender contexts, algorithms’ discriminatory behaviors evoked less moral outrage in participants, and participants attributed less prejudice to the algorithm than they did to the recruiter. Thus, even when a person and an AI system engage in the same discriminatory behavior, resulting in the same negative consequences, the behavior of AI discriminators may go unnoticed and may be dismissed. However, the dismissal of AI discriminators may not necessarily indicate that their discriminatory behaviors are inconsequential since such biases can lead to the perpetuation of harmful stereotypes (e.g., Vlasceanu and Amodio 2022). For this reason, it remains important to address whether AI’s discriminatory behaviors motivate people to support collective action for the better treatment of targeted groups and improve their attitudes toward the targeted group and their advocates.

To my knowledge, no study has investigated how advantaged and disadvantaged groups react to AI’s discriminatory behaviors toward disadvantaged groups. The gender context can be used as a focal case to examine people’s responses to AI’s discriminatory behaviors.

1.3 Present Studies

AI systems’ biases and discriminatory tendencies may lead to awkward, tense, or outrageous situations, perpetuate harmful stereotypes, and may cause people to be more reluctant to use these technologies. While some work has compared people’s reactions to AI’s and humans’ discrimination (Bigman et al. 2023), there is no research on whether AI’s discriminatory behaviors against disadvantaged groups affect

people’s behavioral intentions and intergroup attitudes. Among all disadvantaged groups, gender is a particularly relevant context for examining AI discrimination due to the universality and commonality of gender biases (as highlighted by the United Nations Development Programme; UNDP 2023) and the overwhelming male-female gender distribution across developers (Vargas-Solar 2022; Wajcman 2010). Although diversity initiatives within technology development have received more attention recently, the AI sector is still mostly White and male (West, Whittaker, and Crawford 2019). Without the inclusion of women in AI development and reviewing processes, seemingly unbiased developers can unintentionally transfer their gender stereotypes and biases to AI technologies (e.g., Crawford 2016; Intahchomphoo and Gundersen 2020; Nadeem, Abedin, and Marjanovic 2020). Since gender biases are found across cultures and persist in various domains, ranging from education, caregiving, and the service industry (UNDP 2023), AI systems can perpetuate these biases in any domain (e.g., Vlasceanu and Amodio 2022). Thus, it is essential to understand how people react to AI’s gender biases.

Although gender discrimination is a global issue, people’s reactions to gender inequality and discrimination against women may vary by cultural context. For instance, Turkey ranks significantly lower than most developed countries on global gender equality indices (UNDP 2023; World Economic Forum 2024) and gender discrimination is relatively pervasive and structurally embedded in Turkish society (see Kandiyoti 2016; Özdemir Sarıgil 2022). Such cultural factors may shape how people react to gender discrimination by AI systems. Thus, this research uses the gender context in two different countries to examine whether reading about AI’s discriminatory behaviors against disadvantaged groups (i.e., women) influences people’s collective action intentions for the disadvantaged group’s equality, and their attitudes toward advocates of the disadvantaged (i.e., feminists). For this reason, I employed a between-subjects experimental design and compared participants’ collective action intentions and intergroup attitudes after reading a text on either AI discriminators, human discriminators, or an unrelated topic (i.e., control condition).

Based on findings that demonstrate AI and similar technologies are not attributed as much capacity for intentional behavior and prejudice as humans (Bigman et al. 2023; Gray, Gray, and Wegner 2007; Shank and DeSanti 2018), and since AI’s discrimination evokes less moral outrage than humans’ discrimination (Bigman et al. 2023) I expect that people will perceive humans as more threatening toward women than AI systems. The related hypothesis is as follows:

H1: I expect participants who read about humans’ discriminatory behaviors to perceive more threats toward women than people who read about AIs’ discriminatory behaviors. I further expect participants who read about AIs’ discriminatory behav-

iors to perceive more threats toward women than participants who read about an unrelated topic.

Similarly, I expect that participants will have some reactions to AI’s discrimination, but not at the same level as humans’ discrimination (Mazzuca et al. 2022; Moscatelli et al. 2025), as they evoke less moral outrage, are not attributed as much prejudice, and are believed to be less agentic than humans (e.g., Bigman et al. 2023; Gray, Gray, and Wegner 2007). Thus:

H2: I expect participants who read about humans’ discriminatory behaviors toward women to be more willing to engage in collective action for women’s equal treatment than participants who read about AI’s discriminatory behaviors. I further expect participants who read about AI’s discriminatory behaviors to be more willing to engage in collective action than participants in the control condition.

In addition, I investigated whether witnessing AI’s discrimination would have any unique effect on participants’ feelings toward feminists compared to humans’ discriminatory behaviors. Considering that both advantaged (Batson et al. 2002, 1997; Swim and Miller 1999; Tarrant and Hadert 2010; Vescio, Sechrist, and Paolucci 2003) and disadvantaged groups (Becker and Barreto 2014; Dion and Earn 1975; Osborne and Sibley 2015; Uluğ, Chayinska, and Tropp 2023) are likely to approve egalitarian policies and feel more positively about the targeted group and targets who confront prejudice, they may also feel positively about people who advocate for the disadvantaged (i.e., feminists). However, it is also possible that attitudes toward feminists may not be influenced by reading about discrimination, since feminism is sometimes perceived as a radical and extremist social movement, especially by men (e.g., Buschman and Lenart 1996; Kroeper, Sanchez, and Himmelstein 2014; O’Neil et al. 1986). Moreover, people’s attitudes toward advocates of the disadvantaged may not improve after exposure to the discrimination of the disadvantaged group, since the discrimination does not directly target the advocates. Keeping in mind that AI’s discrimination may not evoke as much reaction as humans’ discrimination, I expect that:

H3: Participants who read about humans’ discriminatory behaviors will report more positive attitudes toward feminists than participants who read about AI’s discriminatory behaviors. I further expect participants who read about AI’s discriminatory behaviors to report more positive attitudes toward feminists than participants in the control condition.

2. STUDY 1

To examine how people in Turkey respond to AI’s discriminatory behaviors, I sampled the Turkish population. Turkey has been steadily integrating AI systems and similar technologies into its businesses, and into different fields such as education and healthcare (Yalçın 2024). However, the integration of AI systems is progressing relatively more slowly in Turkey compared to other nations (e.g., Eurostat 2025; Turkish Statistical Institute 2024). Nevertheless, recent investigations show that the Turkish population is relatively skilled in AI use, and frequently uses AI systems while working (Maslej et al. 2025). Moreover, gender inequality and discrimination against women are considered common in Turkey (e.g., Kandiyoti 2016; Özdemir Sarıgil 2022) as the country is relatively behind developed countries in gender equality indices (UNDP 2023; World Economic Forum 2024). Considering the Turkish population’s increasing exposure to AI systems and the country’s ongoing struggles with gender inequality, Turkey provides a relevant context for investigating how people react to AI’s gender biases.

2.1 Method

2.1.1 Participants

I recruited 350 participants through convenience sampling and an online platform for Psychology and Management students at Sabancı University (SONA). The sample size was selected based on an a priori power analysis conducted with G*Power (Faul et al. 2007), which recommended recruiting at least 330 participants to reach 80% power with a conventional alpha level of .05 and a small effect size based on similar experiments (Bigman et al. 2023).

The data of participants who did not identify as men or women were removed from all analyses ($N = 6$). This decision was made to avoid any confounding effects

that may arise due to the marginalization of different gender identities and their potential solidarity with women (Craig and Richeson 2012, 2016; Schmitt, Spears, and Branscombe 2003; Uysal et al. 2022). 7 more participants were removed from all analyses because they took significantly longer than average to complete the study.

The final sample consisted of 337 native Turkish-speaking adults ($M_{age} = 33.43$, $SD_{age} = 14.91$, 233 women, 104 men), 137 of whom were Sabancı University students. Participants completed the study in approximately 11 minutes ($M = 641.70$ seconds, $SD = 454.74$ seconds).¹

2.1.2 Procedure

Once participants consented to participate, they were assigned to one of the three conditions: AI discriminator, human discriminator, or control condition. In the AI discriminator and human discriminator conditions, participants read a fake news report discussing AI systems' or humans' discriminatory behaviors toward women. Participants in the control condition read a fake news report on an unrelated topic. After reading the fake news reports, participants responded to a questionnaire including demographic questions, a manipulation check, and scales measuring the extent to which participants perceived threats toward women, their collective action intentions for women's equal treatment, and their attitudes toward feminists.² Afterward, participants responded to a suspicion check and were debriefed. Students recruited through SONA were awarded course credits for their participation.

2.1.3 Materials

All materials were translated into Turkish unless mentioned otherwise and can be found in Appendix A.

1. Initially, participants' average duration to complete the study was heavily skewed ($M = 2337.22$ seconds, $SD = 20478.71$ seconds). Considering that extreme outliers may have forgotten about the manipulation (i.e., the content of the news report they read), I used a log10 transformation to identify outliers who took longer than average to complete the study. By doing so, 7 participants who took three standard deviations longer than average (i.e., over 109 minutes) were removed from all analyses.

2. The survey included several other scales that were added for exploratory purposes, which were not used for this study.

2.1.3.1 Fake news reports

In each of the three conditions, participants read a fake news report discussing either AI systems' discriminatory behaviors toward women, humans' (i.e., industry experts') discriminatory behaviors toward women, or an unrelated text about the agriculture sector. The news reports were created based on examples of discrimination available from online sources and existing news articles that discuss AI's discriminatory behaviors (Dastin 2018; Jonker and Rogers 2024), and a team of researchers evaluated the texts to ensure the clarity of the writing and the manipulation. The news reports were written in Turkish and were 172-183 words long.

2.1.3.2 Manipulation check

I designed a one-item manipulation check to ensure that participants in the AI discriminator and human discriminator conditions acknowledged the discrimination discussed in the news reports. Participants rated the extent to which they perceived discrimination against women based on the news report they read. Participants indicated their responses with a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*).

2.1.3.3 Perceived threat toward women

Using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*), participants indicated the extent they perceived that AI systems, industry experts, and the agricultural sector, threatened women by responding to 3 items (e.g., '[Artificial intelligence systems/industry experts/the agriculture sector] can damage women's physical, mental, or emotional health'). Participants responded to the items based on the condition they were assigned to, in the sense that they only saw items related to the text they read (i.e., participants in the AI discriminator condition only responded to items about the threats of AI systems). The scales for AI systems ($\alpha = .89$), industry experts ($\alpha = .91$), and the agriculture sector ($\alpha = .92$) all demonstrated good reliability.

2.1.3.4 Collective action intentions

Participants’ collective action intentions for women’s equal treatment were measured with 3 items. Through these items, participants indicated their willingness to donate, attend a protest and sign a petition for women’s equal treatment (e.g., ‘How likely are you to donate to support women’s equal treatment?’) with a 7-point scale, ranging from 1 (*Very Unlikely*) to 7 (*Very Likely*). The scale was adapted from prior normative collective action measures used in the literature (e.g., Hoskin, Thomas, and McGarty 2019), and it demonstrated good reliability ($\alpha = .73$).

2.1.3.5 Attitudes toward feminists

Participants indicated their attitudes toward feminists by responding to 6 binary items with a 7-point scale (e.g., 1 = *Contempt*, 7 = *Respect*) (e.g., Bagci, Turnuklu, and Tercan 2020; Wright et al. 1997). The scale demonstrated excellent reliability ($\alpha = .92$).

2.1.3.6 Demographics

I asked participants to indicate their age, gender, ethnicity, perceived financial status, and knowledge about and experience with AI systems. The participants’ financial status and knowledge about and experience with AI systems were assessed with 7-point scales.

2.2 Results

2.2.1 Demographic Information

Participants reported having an average income ($M = 4.77$, $SD = 1.09$), were informed about AI systems ($M = 4.14$, $SD = 1.60$), and shared that they had an average amount of experience using AI systems ($M = 4.16$, $SD = 2.05$).

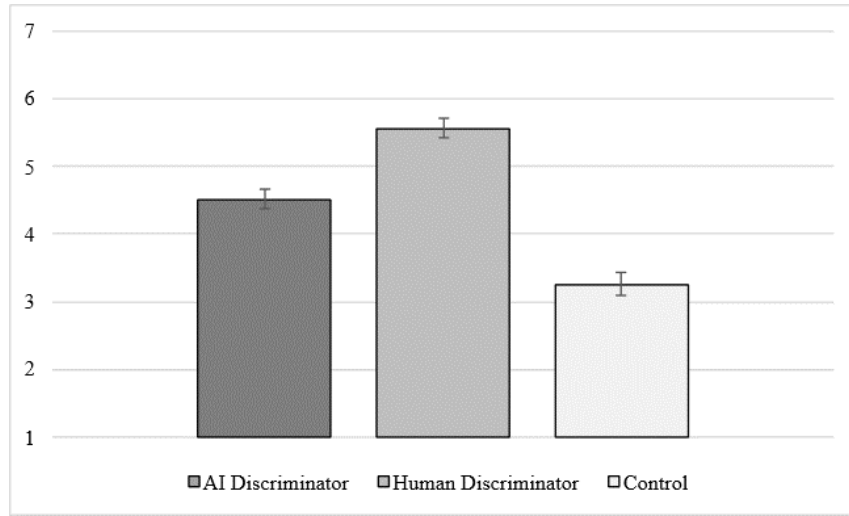
2.2.2 Manipulation Check

First, I checked whether participants in the AI discriminator and human discriminator conditions perceived discrimination against women. A two-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) with condition and gender as the predictors revealed the significant effect of the condition ($F(2, 331) = 53.05, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .243$). Tukey's HSD tests revealed that participants in the AI discriminator condition ($M_{AI} = 5.80, SD_{AI} = 1.63$) perceived discrimination against women more than those in the control condition ($M_C = 3.70, SD_C = 2.02, p < .001$). Participants in the AI discriminator condition and the human discriminator condition ($M_H = 6.06, SD_H = 1.37$) did not significantly differ in their discrimination perceptions ($p = .468$). Moreover, gender significantly influenced discrimination perceptions ($F(1, 331) = 10.32, p = .001, \eta_p^2 = .030$). Specifically, female participants ($M_F = 5.48, SD_F = 1.92$) perceived more discrimination against women than male participants ($M_M = 4.64, SD_M = 1.99$). There were no significant interaction effects ($p = .607$).

2.2.3 Main Effects of Condition

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with condition as the predictor assessed whether there are significant differences across conditions regarding perceived threat, collective action intentions for women's equal treatment, and attitudes toward feminists. Multivariate tests showed that condition had a significant effect on the dependent variables ($F(6, 666) = 16.78, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .131$). The univariate tests revealed the significant effect of condition on threat perceptions toward women ($F(2, 334) = 56.19, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .252$). Tukey's HSD tests showed that perceived threat toward women was higher for the human discriminator condition ($M_H = 5.56, SD_H = 1.53$) compared to both the AI discriminator condition ($M_{AI} = 4.52, SD_{AI} = 1.54, p < .001$) and the control condition ($M_C = 3.26, SD_C = 1.83, p < .001$). Similarly, perceived threat in the AI discriminator condition was significantly higher than the control condition ($p < .001$). Figure 2.1 shows participants' perceived threat evaluations across conditions.

Figure 2.1 Perceived threat toward women across the three conditions



Note. The error bars represent standard errors of the mean.

Participants' collective action intentions for women's equal treatment ($p = .681$) and attitudes toward feminists ($p = .096$) did not significantly differ across conditions. These findings were replicated across the student sample and the community sample. Table 2.1 presents the means and standard deviations of all variables.

Table 2.1 Means and standard deviations of the variables across conditions

	AI Discriminator		Human Discriminator		Control	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Perceived Threat	4.52	1.54	5.56	1.53	3.26	1.83
Collective Action Intentions	5.76	1.23	5.74	1.12	5.62	1.35
Attitudes Toward Feminists	5.10	1.44	4.91	1.43	4.67	1.57

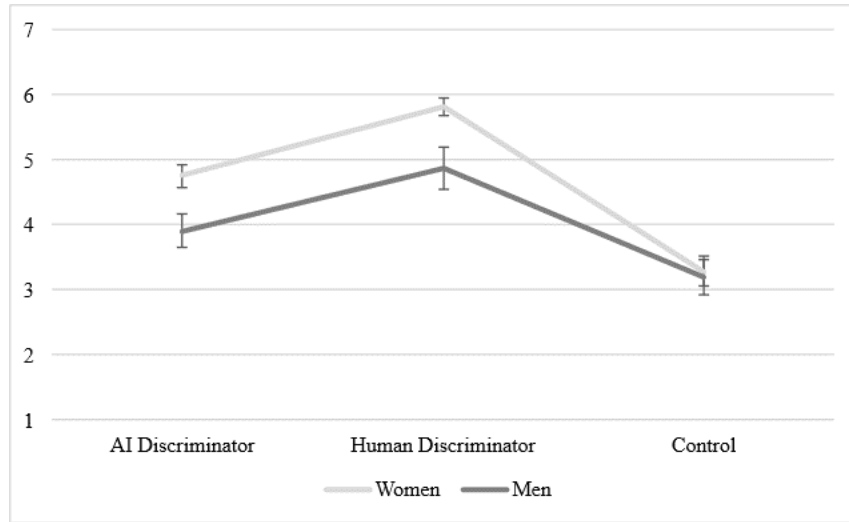
2.2.4 Exploratory Analysis of Gender and Potential Interaction Effects

An exploratory MANOVA explored whether participants' gender influenced their perceived threat toward women, collective action intentions, and intergroup attitudes. The multivariate effect of condition was significant ($F(6, 660) = 13.07$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .106$). The multivariate effect of gender was also significant ($F(3, 329) = 24.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .183$) but their interaction was not significant ($p = .138$). The unique effect of the condition on perceived threat toward women remained significant ($F(2, 331) = 41.98$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .202$). Condition did not affect participants' collective action intentions ($p = .605$) and their attitudes toward feminists ($p =$

.213).

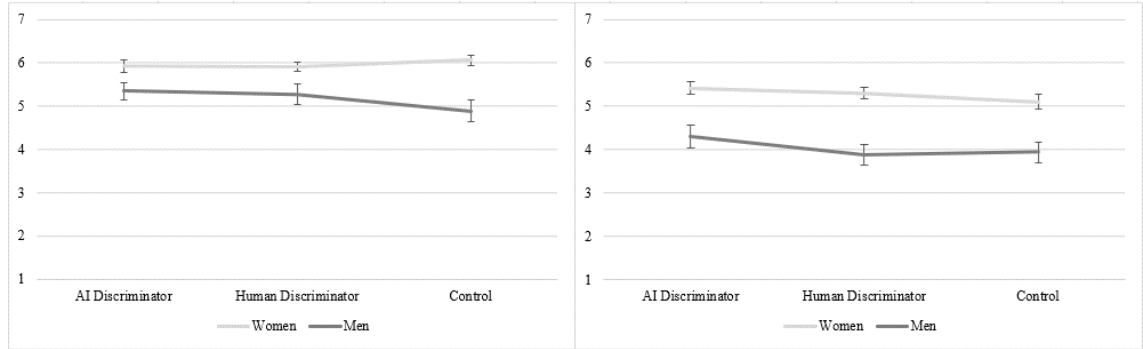
Gender significantly and uniquely affected perceived threat toward women ($F(1, 331) = 10.75$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .031$), collective action intentions for women's equal treatment ($F(1, 331) = 32.91$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .090$), and attitudes toward feminists ($F(1, 331) = 57.37$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .148$). Female participants perceived significantly more threat ($M_F = 4.72$, $SD_F = 1.87$) than male participants ($M_M = 3.95$, $SD_M = 1.82$). Similarly female participants' collective action intentions ($M_F = 5.96$, $SD_F = 1.06$) and attitudes toward feminists ($M_F = 5.28$, $SD_F = 1.33$) were significantly higher than male participants' collective action intentions ($M_M = 5.14$, $SD_M = 1.39$) and attitudes toward feminists ($M_M = 4.03$, $SD_M = 1.45$). I found no interaction effects (p 's $> .100$). These findings did not change between the student and community samples. Figures 2.2 and 2.3 present participants' perceived threat, collective action intentions for women's equal treatment, and their attitudes toward feminists across genders and conditions.

Figure 2.2 Perceived threat across genders and conditions



Note. The error bars represent standard errors of the mean.

Figure 2.3 Collective action intentions for women’s equal treatment and attitudes toward feminists across genders and conditions, respectively



Note. The error bars represent standard errors of the mean.

2.3 Discussion

The results of Study 1 suggest that AI systems can be perceived as threats toward women. As expected (H1), perceived threat from AI systems did not match the perceived threat from industry experts (i.e., human discriminators). Moreover, those in the AI discriminator condition perceived AI systems as more threatening than participants in the control condition perceived the agriculture sector to be. Considering that the discriminatory behaviors were identical in the AI discriminator and human discriminator conditions, it is plausible that participants did not believe AI could be as threatening as humans and cause as much harm to women as humans. This finding is in line with existing evidence indicating that AI evokes less moral outrage and is attributed less prejudice (Bigman et al. 2023) and is believed to be less agentic (Gray, Gray, and Wegner 2007), which may explain why AI systems were believed to pose less of a threat to women than humans.

Unlike what I had expected, reading news reports on discrimination did not have any significant effect on collective action intentions (H2) and attitudes toward feminists (H3), as no significant differences emerged between the control condition (i.e., no discrimination) and the AI discriminator or human discriminator conditions. This finding was surprising, as prior literature and related research suggest that non-targets are willing to engage in collective action for disadvantaged groups in response to their unequal treatment (Mazzuca et al. 2022; Moscatelli et al. 2025) and report warmth and more positive attitudes toward them (Batson et al. 2002, 1997; Dion and Earn 1975; Osborne and Sibley 2015; Swim and Miller 1999; Tarrant and Hadert 2010; Vescio, Sechrist, and Paolucci 2003).

Overall, Study 1 provided remarkable insight into how discrimination by AI systems compares to discrimination by humans and a control condition. To replicate these findings, another study was conducted in a different setting with a stronger manipulation.

3. STUDY 2

To further investigate people’s reactions toward AI’s discriminatory behaviors and test the generalizability of the initial results, I conducted another study by sampling a different population, the United States. The United States hosts the headquarters of multiple major AI research and development companies, such as OpenAI, Google, and Meta (e.g., Hicks 2025; Johnson 2024; Roth 2025), and AI technologies can be found across an extensive range of sectors within the country (e.g., McElheran et al. 2024). Indeed, many real-life AI discrimination incidents occurred in companies based in the United States or involved residents of the United States (e.g., Dastin 2018; EEOC 2022; Hill 2020; Nedlund 2019; Spielkamp 2017). Given the widespread use of AI systems in the United States and the fact that multiple instances of AI discrimination have occurred and were publicized there, the sample was selected from the United States. Moreover, I added another dependent variable: attitudes toward women. While the first study focused on people’s attitudes toward egalitarian movements (i.e., feminists) and their collective action intentions for the equality of the disadvantaged, it did not investigate whether participants felt more positively about the *targeted group*. Research suggests that, upon learning about the disadvantaged groups’ struggles, both disadvantaged (e.g., Dion and Earn 1975; Osborne and Sibley 2015) and advantaged groups (e.g., Batson et al. 2002, 1997; Swim and Miller 1999; Tarrant and Hadert 2010; Vescio, Sechrist, and Paolucci 2003) may feel more positively about the targeted group. Thus, in addition to the prior hypotheses, I further speculated that:

H4: Participants who read about the discriminatory behaviors of humans will report more positive attitudes toward women than participants who read about the discriminatory behaviors of AI. I further expect that participants who read about the discriminatory behaviors of AI will report more positive attitudes toward women than participants in the control condition.

3.1 Method

3.1.1 Participants

350 participants from the United States were recruited via Prolific. Unlike Study 1, there were no extreme outliers in terms of study duration, so I made no eliminations based on timing ($M = 411.52$ seconds, $SD = 286.66$ seconds).¹ As in Study 1, the data of participants who did not identify as men or women were removed from all analyses ($N = 8$) to avoid potential confounds (e.g., Craig and Richeson 2012; Schmitt, Spears, and Branscombe 2003). The final sample included 342 participants ($M_{age} = 39.71$, $SD_{age} = 12.61$, 206 women, 136 men).

3.1.2 Procedure

The procedure of Study 2 was identical to that of Study 1. After consenting to participate, participants were assigned to one of the three conditions and read a news report. Afterward, they responded to a questionnaire that included the study's scales, demographic questions, and a suspicion check. Once they completed their participation, participants were debriefed and compensated with a small monetary reward.

3.1.3 Materials

Other than those mentioned below, the methods of Study 2 were identical to Study 1. All scales demonstrated excellent reliability ($\alpha > .90$). All materials were presented in English and are presented in Appendix B.

3.1.3.1 Fake news reports

Slight changes to the news reports were made across conditions. Specifically, the texts were adapted and translated into English, and an additional example of discrimination was included in the AI discriminator and human discriminator condi-

1. The difference in the duration across Study 1 and Study 2 is potentially due to the removal of several exploratory scales from the first study, which did not have any significant effect on the results of Study 1.

tions. Moreover, the human discriminators were changed from industry experts to specialized officials. Lastly, the topic of the news report in the control condition was changed to the service industry to match the setting of the other conditions. A team of researchers evaluated the texts in all conditions to ensure clarity and the preservation of their original meaning. The texts were 268-274 words long.

3.1.3.2 Perceived threat toward women

Due to the change in the topic of the news report for the control condition, the wording ‘agriculture sector’ was changed to service industry in this study. Due to an error in survey preparation, the items for the scale presented to participants in the human discriminator condition referred to *industry experts* instead of specialized officials: ‘[Artificial intelligence systems/industry experts/the service industry] can damage women’s physical, mental, or emotional health.’ The potential implications of this wording inconsistency are discussed in the general discussion section.

3.1.3.3 Collective action intentions

I added an item addressing participants’ collective action intentions for women’s equal treatment through social media, which was adapted from previous research (e.g., Uluğ, Chayinska, and Tropp 2023). Participants indicated their intentions to share and like social media content related to women’s equal treatment (i.e., ‘How likely are you to share and like related social media content for women’s equal treatment?’) using the same 7-point scale.

3.1.3.4 Attitudes toward women

In addition to measuring participants’ attitudes toward feminists, I used the same 6 bipolar statements to measure participants’ attitudes toward women. Participants indicated their attitudes toward women by using a 7-point bipolar scale.

3.2 Results

3.2.1 Demographic Information

Similarly to Study 1, participants reported an average economic status ($M = 4.30$, $SD = 1.35$), adequate information about AI systems ($M = 4.84$, $SD = 1.51$), and average experience using AI systems in their daily lives ($M = 4.34$, $SD = 1.96$).

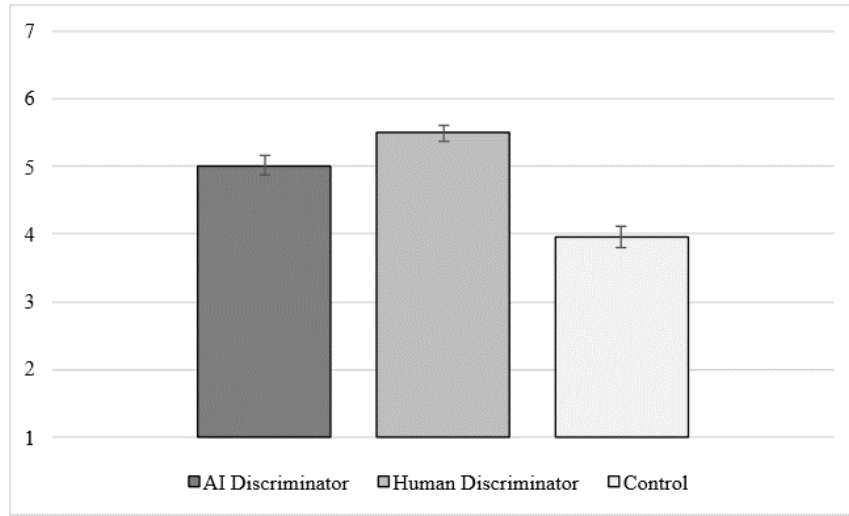
3.2.2 Manipulation Check

A two-way ANOVA revealed significant differences across the three conditions on the extent to which participants perceived discrimination against women ($F(2, 336) = 72.79$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .302$). Tukey's HSD tests showed that participants in the AI discriminator condition ($M_{AI} = 5.24$, $SD_{AI} = 1.84$) perceived discrimination against women more than those in the control condition ($M_C = 3.11$, $SD_C = 1.86$, $p < .001$). Participants in the AI discriminator condition and human discriminator condition ($M_H = 5.76$, $SD_H = 1.44$) did not significantly differ in their discrimination perceptions ($p = .060$). Unlike Study 1, gender did not affect discrimination perceptions ($p = .837$). There were no significant interaction effects ($p = .994$).

3.2.3 Main Effects of Condition

A MANOVA was conducted to assess whether the assigned condition affected perceived threat toward women, collective action intentions for women's equal treatment, and attitudes toward women and feminists. The multivariate effect of condition was significant ($F(8, 674) = 9.10$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .097$). As in Study 1, the univariate effect of condition on perceived threat toward women was significant ($F(2, 339) = 30.16$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .151$). Tukey's HSD tests showed that participants in the human discriminator condition ($M_H = 5.50$, $SD_H = 1.26$) perceived more threat toward women than those in the AI discriminator condition ($M_{AI} = 5.01$, $SD_{AI} = 1.59$, $p = .036$) and the control condition ($M_C = 3.97$, $SD_C = 1.64$, $p < .001$). Similarly, the AI discriminator condition perceived more threat toward women than the control condition ($p < .001$). Figure 3.1 shows the differences in perceived threat toward women across the three conditions.

Figure 3.1 Perceived threat toward women across the three conditions



Note. The error bars represent standard errors of the mean.

I found no significant effect of condition on collective action intentions for women's equal treatment ($p = .093$), attitudes toward feminists ($p = .089$), and attitudes toward women ($p = .168$). Table 3.1 presents the means and standard deviations of all dependent variables across conditions.

Table 3.1 Means and standard deviations of the variables across conditions

	AI		Human		Control	
	Discriminator		Discriminator			
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Perceived Threat	5.01	1.59	5.50	1.26	3.97	1.64
Collective Action Intentions	5.11	1.72	4.69	1.77	5.15	1.75
Attitudes Toward Feminists	4.95	1.68	4.90	1.79	5.35	1.59
Attitudes Toward Women	6.30	.82	6.09	1.13	6.30	1.04

3.2.4 Exploratory Analysis of Gender and Potential Interaction Effects

To explore whether gender influenced perceived threat, collective action intentions, and attitudes toward women and feminists, another MANOVA was conducted with gender and condition as predictors. The multivariate effects of the condition ($F(8, 668) = 9.01, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .097$), gender ($F(4, 333) = 4.20, p = .002, \eta_p^2 = .048$), and the interaction was significant ($F(8, 668) = 2.02, p = .042, \eta_p^2 = .024$). Consistent with the initial MANOVA, the current analysis revealed a significant difference in perceived threat toward women across conditions ($F(2, 336) = 28.10, p < .001, \eta_p^2$

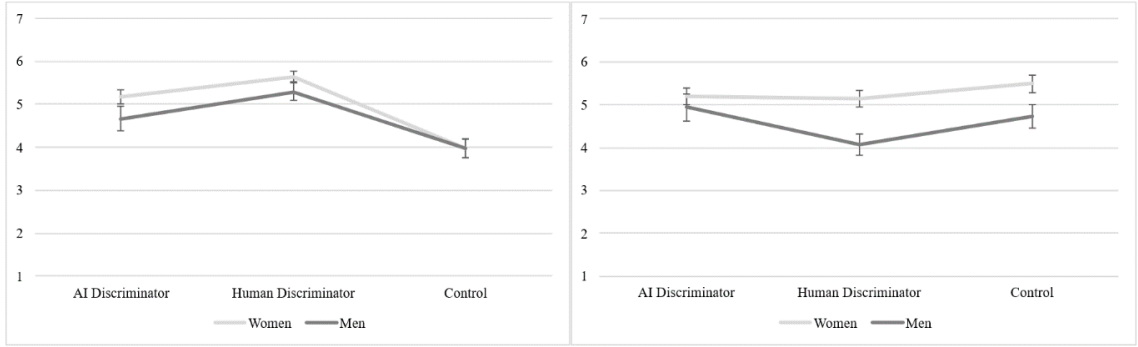
= .143). Similarly, the univariate effect of condition on attitudes toward feminists was significant ($F(2, 336) = 3.38, p = .035, \eta_p^2 = .020$). However, Tukey's HSD tests did not reflect this univariate effect, as there were no significant differences across the three conditions in participants' attitudes toward feminists (p 's $> .090$). No significant univariate effect of condition emerged for participants' collective action intentions for women's equal treatment ($p = .055$), and their attitudes toward women ($p = .058$).

Gender significantly affected participants' collective action intentions for women's equal treatment ($F(1, 336) = 13.27, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .038$), and attitudes toward feminists ($F(1, 336) = 10.11, p = .002, \eta_p^2 = .029$). The means indicate that collective action intentions for women's equal treatment were higher for female participants ($M_F = 5.26, SD_F = 1.62$) than male participants ($M_M = 4.55, SD_M = 1.87$), and attitudes toward feminists showed the same pattern ($M_F = 5.29, SD_F = 1.64; M_M = 4.72, SD_M = 1.73$). Female and male participants did not differ in their perceived threat toward women ($p = .088$), and attitudes toward women ($p = .053$).

Lastly, an interaction between condition and gender predicted attitudes toward women ($F(2, 336) = 5.59, p = .004, \eta_p^2 = .032$). To investigate this interaction further, I conducted a follow-up univariate ANOVA on attitudes toward women. Tukey's HSD tests revealed that male participants in the human discriminator condition reported less favorable attitudes toward women ($M_{MH} = 5.67, SD_{MH} = 1.25$) than male participants in the control condition ($M_{MC} = 6.37, SD_{MC} = .81, p = .006$), female participants in the human discriminator condition ($M_{FH} = 6.39, SD_{FH} = .94, p = .002$), female participants in the AI discriminator condition ($M_{FAI} = 6.32, SD_{FAI} = .85, p = .005$), and female participants in the control condition ($M_{FC} = 6.25, SD_{FC} = 1.19, p = .030$). However, the difference was not significant between male participants in the human discriminator condition ($M_{MH} = 5.67, SD_{MH} = 1.25$) and male participants in the AI discriminator condition ($M_{MAI} = 6.27, SD_{MAI} = .78, p = .061$).

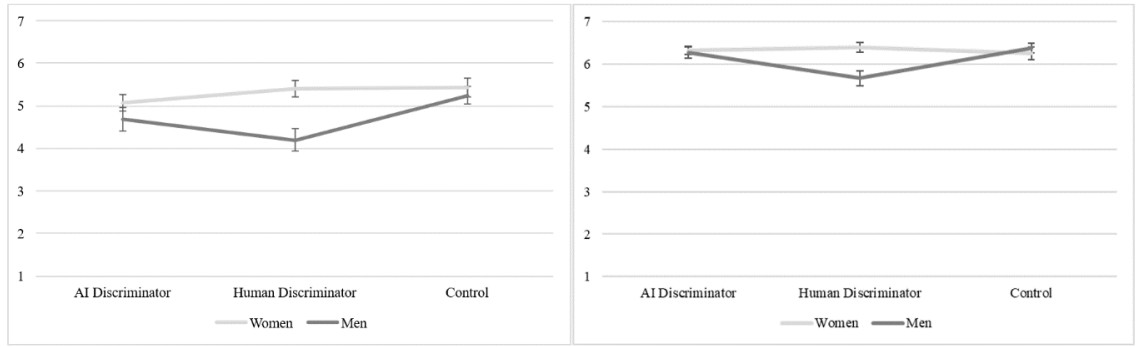
I found no significant interaction effects for perceived threat toward women ($p = .429$), collective action intentions for women's equal treatment ($p = .209$), and attitudes toward feminists ($p = .056$). Figures 3.2 and 3.3 present participants' perceived threat, collective action intentions for women's equal treatment, and their attitudes toward feminists and women across genders and experimental conditions.

Figure 3.2 Perceived threat and collective action intentions for women’s equal treatment across genders, respectively



Note. The error bars represent standard errors of the mean.

Figure 3.3 Attitudes toward feminists and attitudes toward women across genders and conditions, respectively



Note. The error bars represent standard errors of the mean.

3.3 Discussion

Study 2 offers a nuanced comparison to the findings of Study 1, as I replicated some findings but uncovered unique effects. First, Study 2 supported H1, demonstrating that AI systems are perceived as less threatening toward women than humans. Moreover, participants in the AI discriminator and human discriminator conditions perceived more threat toward women than participants in the control condition. These results are in line with Study 1 and the prior literature, suggesting that AI systems are perceived as less of a threat due to their lack of capacity for voluntary action (Gray, Gray, and Wegner 2007; Shank and DeSanti 2018). Moreover, algorithms are attributed less prejudice than humans (Bigman et al. 2023), indicating that participants may have believed that AI cannot damage women to the extent

prejudiced humans can, as AI systems cannot operate with prejudice and malicious intent.

Study 2's findings further shed light on how AI discrimination may influence inter-group dynamics. Replicating Study 1, Study 2 did not reveal significant differences in collective action intentions for women's equal treatment (H2) and attitudes toward feminists (H3) and women (H4) across the three conditions in the hypothesized direction. Based on existing findings that show discrimination or the deprived status of disadvantaged groups may motivate non-targets' collective action intentions (Mazzuca et al. 2022; Moscatelli et al. 2025) and attitudes (Batson et al. 2002, 1997; Dion and Earn 1975; Osborne and Sibley 2015; Swim and Miller 1999; Vescio, Sechrist, and Paolucci 2003), I expected to see significant differences across conditions. Nevertheless, I found in both studies that reading about discrimination did not directly affect collective action intentions for women's equal treatment and attitudes toward women and feminists. This might indicate that reading an objective news report on discrimination may not sufficiently motivate people's collective action intentions and improve their attitudes.

Lastly, an exploratory MANOVA in Study 2 revealed a significant interaction between gender and condition, demonstrating that male participants who read about humans' discriminatory behaviors reported less favorable attitudes toward women, compared to male participants in the control condition and female participants. These effects did not occur in Study 1, which may indicate that American male participants reported less favorable attitudes toward women and feminists when they read about discrimination against women. This interaction aligns with prior evidence demonstrating advantaged groups' willingness to oppose equality movements to 'protect' their privileges (e.g., Van Laar et al. 2024). Further, this difference between Study 1 and Study 2 may demonstrate that Turkish male participants were not as affected by inequality as American male participants, as it may not have threatened their privileges as much as it threatened Americans.

4. GENERAL DISCUSSION

This thesis examined whether and how discrimination by AI influences collective action intentions for the targeted group (i.e., women’s equal treatment) and attitudes toward the target group and advocating groups (i.e., women and feminists). In two studies, I compared participants’ responses to AI discrimination, human discrimination, and no discrimination (i.e., control condition). Based on the prior literature, I hypothesized that participants in the human discriminator condition would perceive more threat toward women than participants in the AI discriminator condition (H1). I also expected participants in the AI discriminator and human discriminator conditions to perceive more threat toward women than those in the control condition. This hypothesis was supported by both Study 1 and Study 2: AI systems were perceived as less threatening than humans in both studies. These findings align with prior research showing that AI and similar technologies are attributed less mind (e.g., Gray, Gray, and Wegner 2007; Shank and DeSanti 2018), are attributed less prejudice, and elicit less moral outrage than humans (e.g., Bigman et al. 2023). Based on these findings, AI systems may not be perceived as a threat toward disadvantaged groups as much as humans, at least at the current scale they operate. Future research could investigate whether informing participants about the widespread use of AI systems across domains could influence the extent to which participants believe AI can ultimately threaten disadvantaged groups.

Moreover, participants in the AI discriminator condition perceived more threat than participants in the control condition. Such threats from AI systems may negatively affect users and the targets of their biases. Overall, these results reveal that AI and its discriminatory behaviors may have some consequences that developers and policymakers could acknowledge. While further research is needed to test specific interventions (e.g., informing people about the discriminatory potential of AI technologies), recruiting more diverse development teams and ensuring their participation in bias audits could reduce the likelihood of AI discrimination.

Across studies, the AI discriminator, human discriminator, and control conditions

did not differ in terms of collective action intentions for women’s equal treatment (H2), attitudes toward feminists (H3), and attitudes toward women (H4). These findings may appear surprising, as intergroup theories and prior experiments on people’s reactions to discrimination and inequality all suggest that reading about discrimination can have a positive effect on intergroup outcomes (e.g., Ellemers, Van Knippenberg, and Wilke 1990; Kelly and Breinlinger 1995; Mazzuca et al. 2022; Moscatelli et al. 2025; Tajfel and Turner 1979). The following reasons may explain why the effect was not observed.

First, I speculate that *reading an article about discrimination* may not have induced a strong effect on collective action intentions and attitudes in both male and female participants. The null effect may be due to the objective tone of the reports that lacks emotional and motivational wording. Research highlights moral convictions and emotional reactions such as anger and sympathy as key motivators of collective action, in both advantaged (Iyer and Ryan 2009; Van Zomeren et al. 2011) and disadvantaged groups (Iyer and Ryan 2009; Van Zomeren, Postmes, and Spears 2008, 2012). It is also possible that participants did not believe that their collective efforts against discrimination would help achieve social change. Indeed, perceived efficacy of collective action (i.e., the extent people believe their actions will have an impact) is another key motivator of collective action intentions for both advantaged (e.g., Stewart 2017; Stewart et al. 2012; see Van Zomeren et al. 2011) and disadvantaged groups (e.g., Corcoran, Pettinicchio, and Young 2015; Van Zomeren, Saguy, and Schellhaas 2013; Van Zomeren, Postmes, and Spears 2008). While the texts in the AI discriminator and human discriminator conditions discussed the discriminatory events, the informational nature of the news reports may have failed to elicit the emotional arousal or a sense of efficacy necessary to inspire action. Thus, without emotionally charged language and a clear call to action, the news reports may not have affected participants’ collective action intentions. However, some research has used text-based manipulations that relay objective facts about gender discrimination and found significant effects on collective action intentions (Moscatelli et al. 2025). This contrast may be explained through methodological differences. Specifically, Moscatelli and colleagues (2025) had no control condition. Instead, the researchers compared high and low deprivation conditions, limiting our ability to understand whether exposure to information about discrimination affects collective action intentions compared to a control condition (see also Batson et al. 2002).

Moreover, some findings indicate that merely recognizing discrimination may not entail collective action intentions in advantaged groups (Reimer et al. 2017), and recognition of one’s privileges may have a more important role in predicting will-

ingness to act (e.g., Powell, Branscombe, and Schmitt 2005; Stewart et al. 2012; Uluğ and Tropp 2021). For instance, Uluğ and Tropp (2021) did not find significant differences in collective action intentions between participants who witnessed discrimination (via watching a video), compared to a control condition. Based on these findings, the objective nature of the news reports may not have been sufficient in highlighting the illegitimacy of the injustice between advantaged and disadvantaged groups, and may not have evoked sufficient emotional reactions to motivate participants' collective action intentions.

Relatedly, a significant interaction effect between participant gender and condition emerged in Study 2, suggesting that American male participants in the human discriminator condition reported less favorable attitudes toward women than male participants in the control condition and female participants. This finding is in line with prior evidence, which shows the advantaged group's disinterest in collective action and support for the better treatment of the disadvantaged due to their zero-sum beliefs about equality (e.g., Brown, Jacoby-Senghor, and Raymundo 2022; Van Laar et al. 2024). The human discriminator condition closely imitates real-life circumstances, highlighting the differential treatment of men and women. Potentially, this might have led male participants in Study 2 to react defensively and report less favorable attitudes toward women. Indeed, findings show that men's support for feminist movements drops after men feel threats toward their own group (e.g., Rivera-Rodriguez, Larsen, and Dasgupta 2022). Since the AI discriminator condition also discusses women's disadvantages compared to men, American male participants may have also felt defensive in response to AI's discrimination, as mobilization against AI's discrimination can also lead them to lose their privileges. Importantly, Tukey's HSD tests revealed a marginal p -value between male participants' attitudes toward women in human discriminator and AI discriminator conditions ($p = .60$), so this finding should be carefully interpreted. A similar interaction, albeit not significant, occurred for attitudes toward feminists ($p = .056$). These findings could be further interpreted as an indication that, regardless of the identity of the discriminating agent (i.e., whether it is human or AI), advantaged groups may be mainly motivated to protect their privileges when they are exposed to discrimination against disadvantaged groups.

The interaction effect observed in Study 2 differs from Study 1, as Turkish male participants did not report less favorable attitudes toward feminists after reading about discrimination. This difference between Study 1 and Study 2 could be linked to the pervasiveness of gender discrimination in Turkey (see Kandiyoti 2016; Özdemir Sarıgil 2022) and similar cultural differences, as the country lands in a worse spot in the global gender gap investigations than the United States (UNDP

2023; World Economic Forum 2024), which may have led Turkish male participants to not feel defensive in response to discrimination against women. Indeed, Turkish men may not be afraid to lose their privileges because the patriarchal system embedded into the sociopolitical context is perceived as stable (e.g., Bacchini et al. 2024). Thus, Turkish men might be less affected by women’s discrimination than American men because they believe challenging gender discrimination will not disrupt their own privileges. Future research should investigate Turkish men’s zero-sum beliefs on gender equality for a more in-depth interpretation. Overall, while the discrimination manipulation used in these studies may not have motivated collective action for women’s equal treatment, they might have been powerful enough to threaten American male participants’ privileges and negatively affect their attitudes toward women and feminists.

Lastly, in both studies, compared to female participants, male participants were less willing to engage in collective action for women’s equal treatment and reported less favorable attitudes toward feminists. This gender difference aligns with existing findings in the literature that show women are more motivated to defend their equality and feel more positively about feminists (e.g., Iyer and Ryan 2009; Lemaster et al. 2015). Importantly, while female participants in Study 1 perceived more threat toward women than male participants did, Study 2 did not reveal any gender differences in perceived threat. In contrast, female and male participants did not differ in their attitudes toward women in Study 2, but an interaction effect indicated that male participants’ attitudes varied depending on the condition. This contrast between the two studies is intriguing, and it may indicate that even though American men hold more egalitarian values than Turkish men, their reactions to women’s discrimination are more defensive. I speculate that this difference between Turkish men and American men is due to cultural differences in gender equality. Specifically, the United States ranks higher than Turkey on gender equality measures (UNDP 2023; World Economic Forum 2024), which may have made American male participants in Study 2 more aware of the threats women face than Turkish male participants in Study 1. This speculation is also supported by the manipulation checks: Turkish male participants perceived less discrimination against women than female participants, but American male participants did not differ from female participants in their discrimination perceptions. Nevertheless, it is important to emphasize that perceiving discrimination and being aware of the threats women face may not necessarily indicate support for equality. Instead, acknowledging group-based privileges and the illegitimacy of the discrimination influences advantaged groups’ collective action intentions for the disadvantaged group (e.g., Stewart et al. 2012; Uluğ and Tropp 2021).

4.1 Limitations and Future Directions

This thesis is a unique exploration of the potential effects of novel technologies on people’s intergroup dynamics, and its limitations should be acknowledged for future research. First, both Study 1 and Study 2 were online studies, and the manipulation was presented to the participants in a text format. While the manipulation check included in both studies showed that the manipulation was effective (i.e., participants in the AI and human discriminator conditions perceived discrimination against women significantly more than participants in the control condition did), it is unknown if participants carefully read the material. Future research could include attention checks to ensure participants read the material thoroughly or use different manipulations, such as simulating an interaction where participants directly witness the discrimination by AI vs humans.

Moreover, a second limitation concerns the inconsistent wording of the perceived threat items in Study 2. Participants in the human discriminator condition read about the discriminatory behaviors of specialized officials. While the perceived threat items should have referred to specialized officials, they referred to industry experts. Although this inconsistency could have somewhat confused participants (though no participant commented on the disjoint between specialized officials and industry experts), the results showed that participants still perceived a considerable amount of threat from industry experts, significantly higher than AI systems in Study 2, which was comparable to perceived threats by industry experts in Study 1. Since the phrases specialized officials and industry experts are conceptually relevant, this inconsistency may not have affected participants’ responses to the threat items.

Third, the political environment in Turkey and the United States before Study 1 and Study 2 may have increased participants’ baseline levels of collective action intentions. A month before the launch of Study 1, femicides were being addressed in Turkish media (Poyrazlar 2024; We Will Stop Femicides Platform 2024). Similarly, before the launch of Study 2, issues related to women’s reproductive rights, including bans on women’s emergency abortion access (Kruesi and Ungar 2025; Lee 2025), withholding payment for women’s travel for abortion in the military (Kube 2025) and defunding planned parenthood programs in multiple states (Chettiar 2025; Ollstein 2025) gathered attention. Some of this news, in addition to the unrest regarding the current government, increased public backlash, and led people to collective action for similar purposes (see 50501 protests; Deliso 2025; King, Moon, and Debushmann Jr 2025; Taylor 2025). This news in Turkey and the United States was shared through national news outlets, potentially increasing participants’ overall awareness

of gender inequality. Thus, participants in Study 1 and Study 2 may have been more prone to support collective action for gender equality at the time of the studies, which may have limited the direct effects of discrimination on collective action intentions. However, the results of Study 1 were largely replicated in Study 2, a different cultural setting, and no ceiling effects were observed in participants' collective action intentions in Study 2, which limits the impact of these contextual factors on participants' baseline attitudes and action intentions.

In contrast, the political climate and the related media exposure may have desensitized participants to the news reports presented to those in the AI discrimination and human discrimination conditions. As both discrimination texts closely resembled the news participants encounter in daily life, the manipulation may not have had a strong priming effect, and may have left participants' collective action intentions and attitudes toward feminists and women mostly unaffected. Future research could replicate this study in a less politically active climate or use different methods to manipulate discrimination, such as a simulated interaction between participants, an AI system, and a disadvantaged group member (i.e., target).

A fourth limitation is the use of self-report measures to assess intergroup attitudes and collective action intentions. These tools may not have fully captured participants' genuine responses, as some scales may have been susceptible to social desirability biases. For example, some participants may have felt uncomfortable reporting no intention to support women's equal status in society, especially during a time when femicides were being heavily discussed (Study 1). As such, participants may have been more inclined to report stronger intentions to engage in collective action and positive attitudes than they actually intend or feel. Though, the collective action intentions and attitudes measures used in this study are adapted from prior research and have been used extensively (e.g., Bagci, Turnuklu, and Tercan 2020; Hoskin, Thomas, and McGarty 2019; Tausch and Becker 2013; Van Zomeren et al. 2011; Wright et al. 1997). In addition, the findings of Study 1 and Study 2 were mostly consistent, and participants in Study 2 did not report ceiling-level collective action intentions. Thus, the potential implications of the measures seem limited. Regardless, future research could use implicit and behavioral measures to assess participants' perceived threats, collective action intentions, and attitudes toward women and feminists.

Fifth, participants' baseline attitudes toward AI technologies and collective actions were not assessed in both studies. Participants' beliefs about AI systems and whether people feel personally threatened by AI may have influenced their reactions to AI's discriminatory behaviors. Similarly, individuals' political orientation and previous engagement in collective actions could have influenced their collective

action intentions. Thus, future research could benefit from measuring relevant individual differences and investigating whether they influence people’s reactions to AI’s discriminatory behaviors.

Lastly, the identity of the discriminator in the human discriminator condition was not specified in the news reports. Specifically, the gender of human discriminators was left ambiguous. This lack of specificity may have influenced how participants interpreted the discrimination, as prior literature notes that people’s reactions to discrimination differ based on the identity of the discriminators (e.g., Schiller, Baumgartner, and Knoch 2014). The reasoning for not specifying the gender of the discriminator was not to overcomplicate the text and not confound the study design. However, future research could consider manipulating or specifying the discriminator’s identity to understand how such characteristics influence responses to discrimination, particularly in gendered contexts.

5. CONCLUSION

AI systems, despite their benefits, can exhibit bias and discriminatory behaviors against disadvantaged groups, such as women. However, how people react to AI's discrimination against disadvantaged groups is unknown. This thesis used the gender context and examined how people react to AI systems' discriminatory behaviors compared to humans' discriminatory behaviors in two online studies in Turkey and the United States. In both studies, participants perceived AI systems as less threatening to women than humans, supporting existing findings indicating that AI systems are attributed less agency and are less capable of prejudiced actions. Contrary to expectations and previous literature on discrimination and collective action, both studies demonstrated that reading about AI discrimination did not increase collective action intentions for women's equal treatment and attitudes toward the disadvantaged group (i.e., women) and their advocates (i.e., feminists), compared to human discrimination and a control condition. These null effects reflect that merely reading about discrimination may be insufficient to mobilize action and improve attitudes. An interaction effect emerged in Study 2 that showed male participants held less favorable attitudes toward women after reading about humans' discrimination and AI's discrimination. This finding indicates that advantaged groups may react defensively to protect their privileges when they perceive group-based inequalities. Overall, the findings shed light on people's reactions to AI versus human discrimination in different cultural contexts and show the role of group identities.

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APPENDIX A

Study 1 Materials

AI Discriminator Condition Fake News Report

YAPAY ZEKA SİSTEMLERİNİN AYRIMCI DAVRANIŞLARI

Yapay zeka (AI) sistemleri, birçok sektörün temeli haline geliyor. Fakat kaynaklar, AI sistemlerinin kullanımının kadınların ayrımcılığa uğramasına yol açabileceğini gösteriyor.

Güncel araştırmalar, AI sistemlerinin ayrımcı davranışlarını ortaya koyuyor

Hizmet sektörlerinde kullanılan AI sistemlerini inceleyen bir kuruluş olan AIDA, Türkiye’de kullanılan AI sistemlerinin kadınlara karşı ayrımcılık yapabildiğini raporladı.

AI sistemleri, kadınları birçok alanda haksızlığa uğratiyor Örneğin, işe alım süreçlerinde yer alan AI sistemleri, kadınlara karşı ayrımcı davranışlarda bulunabiliyor. Bu AI sistemleri, yetenekli kadınların özgeçmişlerini görmezden gelip kadınlarla eşit yetkinlikte olmalarına rağmen yalnızca erkeklerin özgeçmişlerini değerlendiriyor.

AI sistemlerinin kadınlara yaptığı ayrımcılık finansal hizmetlerde de görülüyor. Birçok banka, müşterilere kredi koşulları hazırlamak için AI sistemleri kullanıyor ve bu sayede müşteriler anında kredi alabiliyor. Ancak AI sistemleri, kadınlara, erkeklere kıyasla daha az avantajlı kredi koşulları sunuyor.

AI sistemlerinin ayrımcı davranışlarını eğitim alanında da görmek mümkün. AIDA’nın bulguları, AI sistemlerinin kızlara, erkeklerden daha limitli iş önerilerinde bulunduğunu gösteriyor. Örneğin, kız çocuklarına hemşirelik ve ilkokul öğretmenliği gibi hizmet ve bakım içeren kariyer rotalarını takip etmelerini daha çok önerirken, müdürlük, mühendislik gibi liderlik ve bilim bazlı alanlarda ilerlemelerini daha az öneriyor.

Human Discriminator Condition Fake News Report

ENDÜSTRİ UZMANLARININ AYRIMCI DAVRANIŞLARI

Endüstri uzmanları, birçok sektörün temelini oluşturuyor. Fakat kaynaklar, endüstri uzmanlarının davranışlarının kadınların ayrımcılığa uğramasına yol açabileceğini gösteriyor.

Güncel araştırmalar, endüstri uzmanlarının ayrımcı davranışlarını ortaya koyuyor

Farklı sektörlerdeki çalışanların davranışlarını inceleyen bir kuruluş olan AIDA, Türkiye'deki endüstri uzmanlarının kadınlara karşı ayrımcılık yapabildiğini raporladı.

Endüstri uzmanları kadınları birçok alanda haksızlığa uğratıyor

Örneğin, işe alım süreçlerinde yer alan uzmanlar, kadınlara karşı ayrımcı davranışlarda bulunabiliyor. Bu uzmanlar, yetenekli kadınların özgeçmişlerini görmezden gelip kadınlarla eşit yetkinlikte olmalarına rağmen yalnızca erkeklerin özgeçmişlerini değerlendiriyor.

Uzmanların kadınlara yaptığı ayrımcılık finansal hizmetlerde de görülüyor. Birçok banka, müşterilere kredi koşulları hazırlamak için kredi analistlerini görevlendiriyor ve bu sayede müşteriler arasında kredi alabiliyor. Ancak kredi analistleri, kadınlara, erkeklere kıyasla daha az avantajlı kredi koşulları sunuyor.

Benzer bir şekilde, uzmanların ayrımcı davranışlarını eğitim alanında da görmek mümkün. AIDA'nın bulguları, eğitim görevlilerinin kızlara, erkeklerden daha limitli iş önerilerinde bulunduğunu gösteriyor. Örneğin, kız çocuklarına hemşirelik ve ilkokul öğretmenliği gibi hizmet ve bakım içeren kariyer rotalarını takip etmelerini daha çok önerirken, müdürlük, mühendislik gibi liderlik ve bilim bazlı alanlarda ilerlemelerini daha az öneriyorlar.

Control Condition Fake News Report

TARIM SEKTÖRÜNDEKİ ZORLUKLAR

Tarım sektörü, mahsul veya hayvancılık ürünleri gibi çeşitli ürünlerin üretimini içeren geniş bir endüstridir. 2022'den beri, mahsul ve hayvancılık ürünlerine olan talepte önemli bir artış olmuştur ve dolayısıyla bahsi geçen sektörler büyümüştür.

Zorluklara rağmen gelişmekte

Sadece 2024 yılı başındaki veriler, Türkiye'deki tarım sektörünün ihracat değerinin geçen yıla göre

İklim değişikliğinden geç kalınmış modernleşmeye

Birçok sektörü sarstığı gibi iklim değişikliği, tarım sektörüne de zarar veriyor. İklim değişikliği, ürün hasılatını, toprak verimliliğini ve su mevcudiyetini derinden etkiliyor. Bu etkiler ise ürün verimini ve sürdürülebilirliğini sarsıyor.

Kuraklıklar, seller, aşırı sıcak veya soğuk sıcaklıklar ve değişen yağış düzenleri, iklim değişikliğinin tarım üretimini nasıl etkilediğine dair sadece birkaç örnektir.

Dünya her ne kadar önemli bir seviyede modernleşmiş olsa da, tarım hala çoğunlukla kırsal alanlarda yaşayan ve eski ve geleneksel tarım yöntemlerine güvenen insanların mesleği olmaya devam ediyor. AIDA'nın bulguları, güncel olmayan tarım yöntemlerinin kullanımının, üretimi tehdit edebileceğini gösteriyor. Bu yöntemler verimli toprakları kaplıyor, su ve toprak gibi doğal kaynakları tüketiyor ve yine de düşük hasılat elde ediyor.

Measures

Manipulation Check

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeyi okuduğunuz makaleye göre değerlendirin: Kadınlar ayrımcılığa uğruyor.

Perceived Threat Toward Women

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelerle ne derecede katıldığınızı belirtin.

[Yapay zeka sistemleri/Sektör uzmanları/tarım sektörü], kadınların fiziksel, zihinsel veya duygusal sağlığını bozabilir.

[Yapay zeka sistemleri/Sektör uzmanları/tarım sektörü], kadınların fiziksel veya ekonomik güvenliğini tehdit edebilir.

[Yapay zeka sistemleri/Sektör uzmanları/tarım sektörü], uzun vadede kadınlara zarar verebilir.

Collective Action Intentions for Women's Equal Treatment

Aşağıdaki sorular çeşitli eylemlere katılma isteğinizi öğrenmeyi amaçlıyor. Aşağıdaki eylemleri kadınların eşit muamele görmesi için yapma olasılığınız nedir:

Bir dilekçeye imza atmak.

Barışçıl bir protestoya katılmak.

Bağış yapmak.

Attitudes Toward Feminists

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri kullanarak feministlere yönelik hislerinizi belirtin.

Negatif – Pozitif

Soğuk – Sıcak

Şüpheli – Güven dolu

Düşmanca – Arkadaşça

Küçümseyici – Saygılı

İğrenti – Hayranlık

APPENDIX B

Study 2 Materials

AI Discriminator Condition Fake News Report DISCRIMINATION BY AI SYSTEMS

Artificial intelligence (AI) systems are important decision makers in many sectors. However, sources indicate that the use of AI systems can be discriminatory toward women. AIDA, an establishment that monitors the behaviors of officials working in the service industry, reported that AI systems in the US can discriminate against women.

Research sheds light on the discriminatory behaviors of AI systems

For example, AI systems used in hiring processes can exhibit discriminatory behaviors toward women. These AI systems overlook the CVs of competent women and only evaluate the CVs of men, despite their equal level of competence with women.

AI systems in the service industry discriminate against women

Discrimination by AI systems against women is also evident in financial services. Many banks use AI systems to prepare credit terms for customers, allowing them to get instant credit. However, AI systems offer women much less favorable credit terms than men.

Another field where women are discriminated against by AI systems is medicine. Although AI systems are trained to precisely diagnose and treat patients, they are more likely to misdiagnose and mistreat female patients. In fact, women's symptoms are often interpreted as an overreaction.

It is also possible to notice the discriminatory behaviors of AI systems in educational settings. AIDA's findings show that AI systems are more selective in the career suggestions they provide to girls than they do to boys. For example, girls are more likely advised to follow career routes that prioritize service and care, such as nursing and elementary school teaching, while they are less likely advised to pursue fields that involve leadership and science, such as management and engineering.

Human Discriminator Condition Fake News Report

DISCRIMINATION BY SPECIALIZED OFFICIALS

Specialized officials are important decision makers in many sectors. However, sources indicate that the behaviors of specialized officials can be discriminatory toward women. AIDA, an establishment that monitors the behaviors of officials working in the service industry, reported that specialized officials in the US can discriminate against women.

Research sheds light on the discriminatory behaviors of specialized officials

For example, recruitment officials involved in hiring processes can exhibit discriminatory behaviors toward women. These recruitment officials overlook the CVs of competent women and only evaluate the CVs of men, despite their equal level of competence with women.

Specialized officials in the service industry discriminate against women

Discrimination by officials against women is also evident in financial services. Many banks employ credit analysts to prepare credit terms for customers, allowing them to get instant credit. However, credit analysts offer women much less favorable credit terms than men.

Another field where women are discriminated against by officials is medicine. Although healthcare personnel are trained to precisely diagnose and treat patients, they are more likely to misdiagnose and mistreat female patients. In fact, women's symptoms are often interpreted as an overreaction.

It is also possible to notice the discriminatory behaviors of officials in educational settings. AIDA's findings show that educators are more selective in the career suggestions they provide to girls than they do to boys. For example, girls are more likely advised to follow career routes that prioritize service and care, such as nursing and elementary school teaching, while they are less likely advised to pursue fields that involve leadership and science, such as management and engineering.

Control Condition Fake News Report

ACHIEVING SUCCESS IN THE SERVICE INDUSTRY

The success of companies within different industries depends on qualities that drive success in an ever-evolving economic landscape. However, some qualities are more essential than others for companies to achieve success. AIDA, an establishment that surveys growth and development in different industries, reports four key qualities companies need to possess to survive in the service industry.

Researchers are investigating unique qualities that drive success in different industries

One key quality is personalization. For example, in hiring settings, recruitment officials seek to identify candidates who align with their values, culture, and long-term goals. Tailored hiring processes, from customized job descriptions to skill-based assessments, allow organizations to attract the right talent, contributing to the overall productivity and stability of businesses.

What determines success within the service industry

Another important factor is efficiency, which is evident in financial institutions. Banks prioritize streamlined processes to ensure swift transactions, secure account management, and effective customer service. By refining their operations, banks enhance accessibility and reliability, meeting the ever-growing demands of clients.

Precision is another key element. In medicine, healthcare professionals must make accurate diagnoses, administer precise treatments, and rely on cutting-edge technology to ensure patient safety and successful outcomes. For instance, in surgery, miscalculations can have serious consequences, which is why surgeons rely on careful and precise methods to minimize risks and improve patient recovery.

Adaptability is also essential in many industries, especially in education. Institutions must continuously adjust and expand their methods to accommodate diverse learning styles, evolving curricula, and the needs of both students and educators. Changing course structures, assessment methods, and instructional approaches help keep these institutions adaptable.

Measures

Manipulation Check

Please respond to the item below according to the article: Women are being discriminated against within the service industry.

Perceived Threat Toward Women

Please state whether you agree or disagree with the following statements.

[AI systems/Industry experts/The service industry] can damage women's physical, mental, or emotional health.

[AI systems/Industry experts/The service industry] can threaten the physical or economic security of women.

[AI systems/Industry experts/The service industry] can harm women in the long run.

Collective Action Intentions for Women's Equal Treatment

Here you will be asked about your willingness to participate in various actions. How likely are you to engage in the following actions to support women's equal treatment:

Sign a petition.

Attend a peaceful protest.

Donate.

Share and like related social media content.

Attitudes Toward Feminists

Please indicate your feelings towards feminists below.

Negative – Positive

Cold – Warm

Suspicious – Trusting

Hostile – Friendly

Contempt – Respect

Disgust - Admiration

Attitudes Toward Women

Please indicate your feelings towards women below.

Negative – Positive

Cold – Warm

Suspicious – Trusting

Hostile – Friendly

Contempt – Respect

Disgust - Admiration