

PREDICTORS OF ATTITUDES TOWARD SEXUAL HARRASSMENT:  
AMBIVALENT SEXISM, AMBIVALENCE TOWARD MEN,  
AND GENDER DIFFERENCES

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO  
THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES  
OF  
MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY

BY

SİNEM TURGUT

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS  
FOR  
THE DEGREE OF MASTER OF SCIENCE  
IN  
THE DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

JUNE 2007

Approval of the Graduate School of Social Sciences

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## **ABSTRACT**

**PREDICTORS OF ATTITUDES TOWARD SEXUAL HARRASSMENT:  
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June 2007, 86 pages

This thesis investigated attitudes toward sexual harassment (SH) and relationship between these attitudes, ambivalent sexism and ambivalence toward men. 311 Middle East Technical University students with a mean age of 22 participated in this study. Attitudes toward SH was measured by Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale (SHAS), which has three subfactors; accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors of women, accepting SH as normal flirtations between men and women, and endorsement of SH as a trivial matter, respectively. Ambivalent sexism was measured by Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) and ambivalence toward men was measured by Ambivalence toward Men Inventory (AMI). Sequential regression analysis revealed that gender, Hostile Sexism (HS) and Benevolence toward Men (BM) predicted acceptance of SH as provocative behaviors of women. Additional analysis demonstrated that gender, BM, Benevolent Sexism (BS) and age predicted acceptance of SH as normal flirtations. Finally, BS, gender, economy class and department were significantly predicting endorsement of SH as a social problem.

Main contributions of this thesis were investigating (1) attitudes toward sexual harassment and its relationship with ambivalent sexist attitudes toward not only to women but also to men and (2) effects of gender, and some other demographic variables such as age, department and economy class on predicting attitudes toward SH.

Keywords: attitudes toward sexual harassment, ambivalent sexism, ambivalence toward men

## ÖZ

### CİNSEL TACİZE İLİŞKİN TUTUMLARIN YORDAYICILARI: ÇELİŞİK DUYGULU CİNSİYETÇİLİK, ERKEKLERE YÖNELİK ÇELİŞİK TUTUMLAR VE CİNSİYET

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Haziran 2007, 86 sayfa

Bu çalışmanın amacı, cinsel tacize ilişkin tutumlar, çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik ve erkeklere yönelik çelişik tutumlar arasındaki ilişkiyi araştırmaktır. Bu araştırmaya yaş ortalaması 22 olan 311 Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi öğrencisi katılmıştır. Cinsel tacize ilişkin tutumları ölçmek için Cinsel Taciz Tutumlar Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Bu ölçek cinsel tacizi kadınların kışkırtıcı davranışları, erkek ve kadın arasındaki doğal flörtleşmeler ve cinsel tacizi önemsiz bir problem olarak görmeye ilişkin tutumları ölçmektedir. Bunun yanında, Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği ve Erkeklere Yönelik Çelişik Tutumlar Ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Yapılan regresyon analizi sonuçlarına göre, cinsiyet, düşmanca cinsiyetçilik ve korumacı cinsiyetçiliğin cinsel tacizin kadınların kışkırtması sonucu olduğuna yönelik tutumları etkilediği görülmüştür. Ayrıca, katılımcıların cinsiyetinin, korumacı cinsiyetçiliğin ve erkeklere yönelik korumacı tutumların ve yaşın cinsel

tacizi normal flörtleşme olarak kabul etmeyi etkilediği ortaya çıkmıştır. Buna ek olarak, korumacı cinsiyetçilik, yaş, ekonomik sınıf ve bölümün cinsel tacizin sosyal bir problem olarak algılanmasını yordadığı bulunmuştur.

Bu tez ile literatüre cinsel tacize ilişkin tutumlar ile kadınlara ve erkeklere ilişkin çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik arasındaki ilişkinin ortaya çıkarılmasıyla ve cinsiyet, yaş, ekonomik sınıf ve bölümün cinsel tacize ilişkin tutumlara etkisini tespit ederek katkıda bulunulması amaçlanmıştır.

Anahtar Kelimeler: cinsel tacize ilişkin tutumlar, çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik, erkeklere yönelik çelişik tutumlar

For my family  
with love



## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Firstly, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my dear supervisor, Prof. Dr. Nuray Sakallı-Uğurlu, who made me get interested in this subject, guided me not only throughout this thesis writing process but from the very beginning of my social psychology career. Her enthusiastic supervision, sound advice and her great encouragement have helped me to keep on and finish this thesis.

Secondly, I am also thankful to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Bengi Öner-Özkan and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Zehra Yaşın-Dökmen for taking part in the examining committee. Their valuable comments, criticisms, suggestions and their interest in the study were greatly acknowledged.

Special thanks I owe to Selin Salman, with whom we shared the painful process of scale development. I will never forget our insightful discussions; it was a great pleasure working with you.

Above all, I am forever indebted to my mother Necla Sezen, my father Ahmet Sezen and my beloved sister, Sibel Sezen. I cannot find words to express how I feel to have you. Your love, your precious support, and your encouragement made me become what I am today.

To Özhan; this thesis would not be accomplished without the strength you gave me. You were and will always be with me during the bad days and the good days. Especially during my emotional outbursts, you were the soul who helped me to get through the difficult times. I am forever thankful to you for your endless patience, care, and help when it was most required.

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# CHAPTER I

## INTRODUCTION

Attitudes of the minority group towards the majority have been largely shaped by the stereotyped and prejudiced images of the latter. So have been the perceptions of the dominant group. Power relations, distorted images of the subordinate as incompetent but likable, all contribute to shaping of these attitudes. However, relationship between men and women are unique because of its interdependent nature. The dominant group, men, who have power over women have also dependence on women, the subordinate, who are seen as romantic partners, in need of protection, who are weak but valuable (Glick and Fiske, 1998). That is why men's attitudes toward women have been influenced by the desire to maintain this control but mixed with nice feelings because of their need for women. Men's dependence on women mostly relies on the sexual relationship between man and woman and in fact, dominating women in sexuality as well, is one of the ways men use in order to maintain this power distance (Thomas and Kitzinger, 1997).

Women, who are trying to break this inequality through getting out of the traditional, subordinate, nurturing, passive but caring gender role, have been penalized by the dominant group through derogatory and hostile attitudes directed at these women and through using aggression on them on many aspects, such as sexuality. Sexual assault, rape, sexual harassment, in other words, all forms sexual violence can be considered as reflections of these hostile and benevolent attitudes of men.

Sexual harassment, as a form of sexual violence targeted at women, because of its highly ambiguous nature is an important concept to study. Moreover, sexual harassment is very prevalent even in cultures where egalitarianism were supposed to be high. This shows that sexual harassment is lying deep in the patriarchal system that justifies men's dominance over women. In this study, it is aimed to investigate the relationship between attitudes toward sexual harassment and sexist beliefs. Furthermore, it is expected that men's attitudes toward women and women's attitudes toward men go hand in hand in predicting these attitudes toward sexual harassment. Not only dominant group's view of the subordinate but also subordinate group's attitudes toward the dominant has to be studied when trying to understand the underlying concepts of sexual harassment. This thesis intends to shed light on a lack in the literature by studying not only sexist beliefs of men toward women but also sexist beliefs of women toward men. The interdependent nature of the relationship between men and women and its role in predicting SH are examined in this study through discussing sexist beliefs, gender differences in attitudes, and gender roles.

Firstly, an overview of the sexual harassment concepts is presented. Secondly, attitudes toward women and, in turn, attitudes toward men which is explained by ambivalent sexism theory, are covered. Then, the relationship between sexual harassment and ambivalent attitudes are discussed. Turkish literature, which is not very large, is briefly put forward. Lastly, the research questions and aim of the study are mentioned with the expectations.

## **1.1 Sexual Harassment**

Although sexual harassment (SH) has been prevalent, the attention as subject matter of study dates back to late 1970s (Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995). Since SH in the workplace has tremendous hazardous effects on the harassed, her job performance and on the reputation of the organization (Terpstra & Baker, 1987), numerous studies have been undertaken, which questioned the constructs of SH, alleged its severity and prevalence, defined SH and types of SH since



1980s. Sexual harassment is not an infrequent event; according to American Association of University Women data (2005), 62% of female college students reported having been sexually harassed in campus. Moreover, each year US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC, 2006) receives approximately 14.000 sexual harassment charges, 80% filed by women. Despite the fact that numerous studies focused on this problem extensively, there is still substantial debate on how to define sexual harassment.

The legal definition of sexual harassment by the EEOC (1980, p.74677) includes:

Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature when:

- Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment or admission to an academic program
- Submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for decisions affecting the individual's employment status or academic standing, or
- Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's performance on the work or in the classroom, or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work or study environment.

As this definition suggests many types of behaviors can be considered as SH but can be divided into two main types: sexual proposition in the form of threat of job loss or demotion or in exchange of promotion (quid pro quo harassment) and sex-related behavior that results in creating a hostile or offensive environment (hostile environment). However, various definitions of sexual harassment which cover various behaviors have been used by the researchers especially when milder and ambiguous forms of harassing behaviors are concerned (McCabe & Hardman, 2005). Moreover, definition of sexual harassment as a psychological construct and a legal concept are completely different (Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995). A comprehensive definition of sexual harassment by Grahame (cited in Sev'er, 1999) states:

Persistent or abusive unwanted sexual attention made by a person who knows or ought to know that such attention is unwanted. SH includes all sexually oriented practices and actions which may create a negative psychological or emotional environment for work, study, etc. It may include implicit or explicit promise of rewards or compliance.

Ford and Donis (1996), in their study of attitudes toward sexual harassment, defined SH as “deliberate or repeated sexual or sex-based behavior, including remarks that are not welcome, not asked for, and not returned”. Tangri, Burt and Johnson (1982) proposed that “SH is one manifestation of a larger patriarchal system in which men rule and women are socialized to evaluate their self-worth in terms of what others esp. men think of them” (cited in Ford & Donis, 1996, p.628).

Although a definition of sexual harassment cannot cover all aspects, it should be carefully designed since it may cause dangerous implications or loopholes, as proposed by Crocker (1983). Thus, the importance of defining the sexually harassing behavior from the point of view of the victim was realized. An early study conducted by Powell (1983) focused on victim-based definitions. In the study, full-time employed women were asked to define sexual harassment. Although sexual proposition, touching and grabbing were perceived by the majority of participants as SH, staring and flirting were not considered as SH. Interestingly, although sexual attention was not seen as SH, women still believed that it is an important problem in the workplace.

Apart from defining SH, scholars investigated the causes behind it. Various models have been suggested explaining the reasons of sexual harassment. One of them is the biological model which states that sexual harassment occurs because of the sexual attraction between men and women and stems from males’ strong sexual needs. Men’s dominant and aggressive nature causes them to be sexually assertive, which can be perceived as SH. According to the learning/conditioning model or organizational model, socialization procedures shape sexual harassment, not the biology. Social sexual roles condition men to be sexually aggressive and

forceful; on the other hand, women are conditioned by female sex roles, which imposes being passive. Another explanation is that SH is a consequence of unequal power and status distribution in workplace. Since men possess power over women and have higher status in the organizations, they see the right to demand from the lower status, that is from women. In the socio-cultural model, sexual harassment is a motivated and conscious attempt of men to defend their economic status. Accordingly, SH is supposed to be the part of the patriarchal system, in which males are dominant in economics, politics and suppress or intimidate women (Berkem, 1993; Terpstra & Baker, 1986).

Sexual harassment has been a prevalent and serious problem also in universities. Therefore, defining sexual harassment is important for the academia as well since the relationship between the student and the professor is the crucial part of the academic life (Crocker, 1983). Sexual harassment in the university either by a teacher or a peer is a form of abuse or exploitation. Many universities in USA adopted EEOC guidelines on sexual harassment. Yale University's definition of sexual harassment, which was based on EEOC guidelines, points out that "SH consists of nonconsensual sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, or other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature on or off campus...which may be found in a single episode or in persistent behavior. Unequal institutional power inherent in the teacher-student relationship, where student has great trust in the teacher, who in turn, bears responsibility and authority, heightens the vulnerability of the student and the potential for coercion" (Yale University, web site, 2006).

Whether in the university or work environment, sexual harassment is a form of sexual discrimination and expression of derogatory attitudes. When a student is sexually harassed by her professor, the professional relationship between the teacher and the student is damaged and this reflects that the professor is interested in the sexual gratification not with the intellectual capacity of the student. In a similar vein, students might feel offended when obscene material is shown or when the instructor makes jokes about either sex in the classroom. Can sexual remarks or jokes in a classroom or in job environment be considered as SH?

What behaviors can be labeled as sexually harassing? How much sexual behavior can be tolerated? The question of whether sexually harassing behavior can be classified has long been studied by many scholars. Till (1980) recommended 5 behavioral categories of SH: gender harassment, seductive behavior, sexual bribery, sexual coercion and sexual imposition or assault. According to Till, these levels of harassment form a continuum of severity.

Gruber (1992) suggested 11 specific types of harassment grouped under 3 categories: verbal request, verbal remarks, and nonverbal displays. Of the systematic conceptualizations developed on SH, Fitzgerald et al. (1995) study is a widely accepted one. They proposed a framework which conceptualizes sexual harassment based on Till's 5 dimensions. Their construct composed of three related but conceptually different dimensions: sexual coercion, unwanted sexual attention and gender harassment. Gender harassment includes a broad range of verbal and nonverbal behaviors which convey insulting, hostile, and degrading attitudes toward women. Examples may be given as sexual epithets, slurs, taunts, gestures; the display or distribution of pornographic materials; gender-based hazing; and threatening, hostile acts, or intimidating. Unwanted sexual attention refers to verbal and nonverbal behaviors that are offensive, unwanted and unreciprocated. On the other hand, sexual coercion constitutes forcing for sexual cooperation in return to some favors or rewards (Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995). Their model fits two legal concepts proposed by EEOC (1980). Sexual coercion captures quid pro quo harassment, while, gender harassment and unwanted sexual attention form hostile environment. For example, pressure for dates from a professor who has power over a student embraces implicitly a coercive nature. In a similar vein, the acts of putting down of women through sexual jokes and insults help in forming a hostile environment.

Of the most widely used framework has been the U.S. Merit System Protection Board's (USMSPB, 1986). They developed 7 behaviors of sexual harassment which can be categorized into three levels of severity: most severe (actual or attempted rape or sexual assault), moderately severe (pressure for dates, pressure for sexual favors, and unwelcome letters and phone calls), and the less severe

(unwelcome sexual remarks, suggestive looks and gestures, and deliberate touching). The study conducted by U.S. Merit System Protection Board in 1981 surveyed 20,000 female employees to assess their perceptions of SH. The following percentages of women stated the behavior asked as harassment: %87 (letters and calls), %84 ( deliberate touching), %81 ( pressure for sexual favors), %65 ( pressure for dates), %64 ( suggestive looks), and %54 (sexual remarks). The study revealed that uninvited sexual attention and sexual physical conduct were mostly perceived as SH. However, perceptions of sexual harassment were found to be different across studies. Gutek, Nakamura, Gahart, Handschumacher, and Russell (1980) asked the question that what social-sexual behaviors in the workplace were considered as SH. Women were found to define many social-sexual behaviors (looking, making gestures, touching, positive or negative verbal comments of sexual nature, etc.) as SH more than men did. Interestingly, men who reported these behaviors also reported that they found themselves physically attractive and they received these behaviors from young and attractive females. This was explained as men perceived these behaviors as “ego-enhancing”. Gutek et al. concluded that differences in men’s and women’s experiences may be attributed to socialization and power differences. And, any sexual harassment study should take into consideration sex roles and work roles when exploring how SH in workplace was perceived. Moreover, in Terpstra & Baker (1987)’s study, subjects were asked to evaluate 18 types of social-sexual behaviors in terms of sexual harassment. Significant differences have been found between the perceptions of male versus female students and perceptions of working women versus female students. The possible causes of the gender differences which were found and underlying factors of differences in perceptions of and attitudes toward sexual harassment will be overviewed in the following sections.

One of the early studies by Lott, Reilly and Howard (1982) asked university students about their experiences of and attitudes toward SH. In their study, of the 172 respondents, 97 % of them indicated that they knew at least one woman to have been sexually assaulted on campus and the assaulter was a man. Similarly, of the 55 respondents, % 95 of them reported that they have been sexually assaulted by a man on campus. The researchers in the above mentioned study

defined sexual assault as sexual contact (touching of intimate body parts) through the use of force, threatened force, or a weapon, without consent. The conclusion of the Lott et al. (1982) is that sexual assault is not a rare incidence and 25 of all women may experience it at least once. Moreover, sexual harassment negatively affects psychological well-being and the emotional condition of the harassed women (Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995; Terpstra & Baker, 1986). SEQ score were found to be related with psychological distress in the study sample by Schneider and Swan (1994) in terms of anxiety, depression and psychological health (cited in Fitzgerald et al, 1995).

A closer look at what kind of behaviors was considered as sexual harassment in agreement will point interesting findings. Much agreement between subjects have been found when the behavior concerned is more unambiguous or obviously carry a sexual and threatening nature. In the above mentioned study, 99% of the subjects agreed that propositions involving job threat is sexual harassment, 98% of them stated that propositions of job promotion constituted sexual harassment. Similarly, 98% considered obvious physical sexual contact (touching to breasts) as sexual harassment.

Up to this point, how sexual harassment has been defined by various studies and the behaviors that constitute of SH were presented. In the next sections, the correlates of SH will be focused upon.

## **1.2 Correlates of Sexual Harassment**

### **1.2.1 Multidimensional Nature of SH**

The construct of sexual harassment cannot be analyzed in a vacuum. Multiple factors correlate with one another to form the concept. Of the most important correlates, organizational and individual factors require further attention (Fitzgerald et al., 1995). Organizational climate can encourage sexual harassment through norms, organizational culture, and attitudes towards complaints, how complaints will be taken seriously, and the likelihood that harassers would be

punished (Fitzgerald et al., 1995). If organizational tolerance is high and norms and procedures to combat sexual harassment is weak, it means that the organization encourage SH. Furthermore, Terpstra and Baker (1986) proposed that in order to assess the causes of SH, environmental variables such as economic conditions, current legal sanctions; organizational variables like formal status differentials, employee composition, organizational climate, sex ratios; and individual variables such as intent, motivation, attitudinal and demographic variables have to be assessed. Sexual harassment may also be predicted from social situational and personal factors. Pryor, Giedd, & Williams (1995) suggested that if the situation tolerates or is suitable for those type of behavior (through social norms) and if the person has an inclination to harass sexually; then those behaviors are likely to occur.

### **1.2.2 Severity or Seriousness of SH**

As mentioned above, theorists categorized social sexual behaviors in terms of severity or seriousness (Gruber, 1992; Terpstra & Baker, 1987; Till, 1980). Obviously, sexual coercion is a more severe or serious behavior than others in terms of the distress that has a negative effect on the psychological well-being of the harassed. However, it is also plausible that less severe behaviors like unwanted phone calls or unwanted sexual jokes about women in general by creating a hostile environment may lead to an unhealthy view of women. Fitzgerald et al. (1995) claimed that although sexual harassment has been equaled with sexual coercion, studies revealed that sexual coercion was relatively rare when compared with more blatant forms of unwanted sexual attention. Moreover, they claimed that seriousness of the sexually harassing behavior cannot be considered only at stimulus-based classification because individual differences, perceptions, and the context interplay in the evaluation of those behaviors.

Rhodes and Stern (1994) challenged the dimension of severity and proposed that traditionality and publicness are two dimensions in categorizing sexually harassing behaviors. Traditionality and publicness are two dimensions proposed originally by Carothers and Crull (cited in Rhodes & Stern, 1994). They found that in traditional female work environments (secretary, nurse, waitress, etc.),

female workers experience the quid pro quo harassment (boss offering extra pay or promotion for a date or sex). In nontraditional female work settings (construction worker, repair person, etc.), sexual harassment is more likely to occur in the form of hostile harassment (speaking using sexual disturbing words, pictures of naked women hung on near female employee's working area). In traditionality dimension, the behaviors ranked from obscene, sexually oriented gestures, explicit writings or drawings on the wall in company's restroom to touching on the shoulder, proposition of an affair to promote the female employee, threaten the job status of the female employee if she refuses to have an affair. The second dimension, publicness, refers to a public attempt to humiliate or degrade women rather than becoming intimate. The behaviors observed in this dimension are speaking loudly on the physical characteristics of the female employee, persistent requests for dates and looking over the target insistently. The findings revealed that especially in male dominated work settings, sexually harassing behavior of men who were feeling threatened by females - interfering men's status and their job- reflected sexist attitudes toward the women.

### **1.3 Attitudes toward and Perceptions of SH**

Examining attitudes toward sexual harassment and toward sexually harassed women is important because finding out what lies beneath these beliefs will help in designing prevention programs and grievance procedures. As mentioned before, perceptions of SH may be influenced by organizational procedures and climate, sex, age, marital status, job status of the harasser (Terpstra & Baker, 1986). Above all, attitudes toward sexual harassment may tend people to be more sensitive in defining sexual behavior and perceive the nuances in sexual behavior that can be considered as SH. Attitudes may also lead people to be more conscious in discerning socio-sexual behaviors and their own experiences (Mazer & Percival, 1989). The question here is that what can be the relationship between attitudes toward SH and experiences of SH, or between attitudes toward SH and defining SH and other individual differences be?



### 1.3.1 Sex Differences

One of the early studies revealed a significant finding on sex differences in tolerance of sexual harassment. Lott, Reilly and Howard (1982) asked university students how they perceived SH through Tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory. The study revealed significant sex differences in perceiving sexually harassing behavior. Men were found to be more accepting and tolerant of sexual advances, sexual attention, or provocation. Another important finding was reported from in-depth interviews with volunteer students. Many undergraduate students stated that these behaviors are “part of life” and all women must expect to be sexually approached and must learn how to deal with these approaches. Some even argued that some women take these sexist remarks as flattery. Significant sex differences in the perceptions of and attitudes toward sexual harassment were found in other studies as well. Men, generally, were found to be more tolerant of sexually harassing behaviors than women (Beauvais, 1986; Ford & Donis, 1996; Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Mazer & Percival, 1989; McCabe & Hardman, 2005; Reilly, Lott, Caldwell, & DeLuca, 1992; Reilly, Lott, & Gallogly, 1986).

In addition to that, women are more likely than men to define social-sexual behaviors as SH and interpret ambiguous forms of sexual interactions as SH (Gutek, Morasch, & Cohen, 1983). Rotundo, Nguyen and Sackett (2001) reviewed 62 studies which reported gender differences in perceptions of sexual harassment. Their meta-analysis revealed that women define broader range of behaviors as sexually harassing than men. However, these gender differences were moderated by different factors, such as type of sexual harassment behaviors, and status of the harasser. For example, women defined derogatory attitudes toward women and dating pressure as sexually harassing more than men; whereas, for behaviors involving sexual coercion or sexual propositions, this gender gap closed. The question here is whether these gender differences are the result of socialization process and of gender roles describing appropriate behavior assigned to men and women. Moreover, women found more evidence of sexual harassment in response to scenarios of hostile work environment sexual harassment more than men did (Wiener, Hurt, Russell, Mannen, & Gasper, 1997).

Wiener et al. (1997) suggested that men and women may have different perspectives in perceiving what constitutes hostile workplace sexual harassment because of the highly ambiguous nature of hostile work environment. Additionally, they claimed that those perceptions may also be affected by protectionist attitudes people held toward women.

Gender differences in perceptions of sexual harassment have also been explained by the attribution theory that explains assessments of causality of events (Kelley & Michela, 1980). According to the actor-observer effect, people have a tendency to attribute their own behavior to situational factors; whereas attribute to others behaviors to personal factors (Fiske & Taylor, 1991). In the light of attribution theory, scholars explained men's inclination to attribute sexual harassment to the "provocative behavior of women" and perceive it as women's fault. On the other hand, women were more likely to see sexual harassment from the perspective of the victim (Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Pryor & Day, 1988; Riger, 1991). However, gender differences in attributional processes may be explained by gender role identities held by men and women and by attitudes towards each group.

### **1.3.2 SH Experiences**

Are people who had experienced SH before more likely to have negative attitudes toward SH? Can we assume that people who have experienced sexual harassment may have a broader definition of sexual harassment? Powell (1983) asked this question long ago. His study, conducted only with female sample indicated that having experienced sexual harassment before did not affect women's own definitions of SH. In a later study, Mazer and Percival (1989) investigated whether ideology or SH experience has a role in attitudes toward SH. They used Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale (SHAS), which they developed to reflect attitudes toward sexual harassment. Their study conducted with university students revealed that SH experiences were not related with attitudes toward SH, indicating that high experiencers of SH do not have different definitions of or attitudes toward SH than respondents who have less SH experiences. Yet, one important construct lies in the attitudes toward SH: sexist or discriminatory attitudes toward women. Respondents, who have sexist and discriminatory

attitudes (measured by Macho scale), were found to be more likely to be tolerant to and were more accepting of sexual harassment.

### **1.3.3 Age Differences**

There were also found age differences in perceptions of SH. Younger people are found to be more tolerant of SH than older people were (Lott et al., 1982; Reilly et al., 1986). A controversial proposal was stated by Ford and Donis (1996).

Women become more tolerant of sexual harassment as they get older and opposite effect works for men, who become less tolerant as they age. In their study, younger employed women had the least tolerant attitudes toward SH and women's tolerance increased with age until 50. One possible explanation of this finding is that, younger women are more likely than older women to experience sexual harassment, which leads them to be more sensitive to SH. Another explanation by Ford and Donis (1996) is that older women tend to comply more with traditional gender roles. The differences in the findings revealed in the above mentioned studies might have occurred because of the study sample characteristics. The studies of Lott et al. (1982) and Reilly et al. (1986) were conducted among student samples, not with working women. Therefore, it may be assumed that perceptions of SH are different among university students and working women sample.

### **1.3.4 Gender Roles and Sexist Beliefs**

A lot of men believe that women who get drunk at a party or who come to man's house at first date are willing to have sex. And, if the woman refuses the man, she is the one to blame and she should feel guilty of rejecting the man. Gender stereotyping (hostile attitudes toward women, sex role stereotyping) (Blumenthal, 1998; Murrell & Dietz-Uhler, 1993), attitudes toward coercive sexual behavior and rape myths (Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002), male dominance and female passivity in romantic relationships all contribute to the attitudes toward SH, causing it to be perceived as "part of life" or "sex appeal used by women". Studies on sexual harassment indicated that sexual harassment may be a systematic form of discrimination or hostility toward women (Mazer & Percival, 1989; Reilly et al., 1992). The male dominance and female passivity were

manifested in a social environment where women were socialized to assess their self-worth through what others, especially what men think of them (Ford & Donis, 1996). People who have more traditional gender role attitudes were proposed to have more tolerant attitudes toward SH. Because in societies where traditional gender roles are highly accepted, women are seen as passive and submissive while men are viewed as active in sexual matters. For that reason, sexual harassment can be seen as normal and a way gender hierarchy is maintained and justified (Sigal & Jacobsen, 1999). Hence, gender roles and women's status in the society cause SH to be perceived as normal and "part of life".

The gender differences in perceptions of SH were also explained by sexual harassment tendencies in men. Pryor (1987) developed self-reported likelihood to sexually harass scale (LSH) to assess men's inclination to harass women sexually. It was reported that there were correlations between likelihood to harass sexually and adversarial sexual beliefs, and likelihood to rape, and rape myth acceptance. In a later study, Pryor, Giedd and Williams (1995) suggested that men, who scored high on LSH, reported themselves as "hostile", "antifeminine" and "tough". It was concluded that likelihood to harass sexually was strongly related with male gender stereotypic view of masculinity, social dominance and sexuality.

Previous studies have found that there is a relationship between attitudes toward SH and hostile attitudes toward women; and experiences of SH do not have an effect on these attitudes (Mazer & Percival, 1989; Reilly et al., 1986). Moreover, differences in perceptions of sexual conduct may be affected by different types of sexist beliefs held and by gender role stereotyping (Wiener & Gutek, 1999; Wiener & Hurt, 1999). Additionally, it was argued that women were more likely to receive sexual harassment if they would not comply with the prescriptive gender stereotypes (women are expected to be sexually attractive, open to sexual advances) and those women who diverged from these female stereotypes are more likely to be punished through sexual harassment in the form of hostile work environment (Burgess & Borgida, 1999). According to them, these component of

gender roles which women are expected to conform are more directly related with sexual harassment because these beliefs are motivated by hostile attitudes toward women and gender prejudice. Specifically, these prescriptive gender stereotypes serve to maintain power inequality and takes the form of sexual harassment directed toward women who violate gender congruent behaviors. Furthermore, differences in sexist beliefs, which were measured by Modern Sexism Scale (Swim, Aikin, Hall, & Hunter, 1995), were found to be predicting responses to sexual harassment incidents (Swim & Cohen, 1997). One of the newly developed sexism theories, the ambivalent sexism was also found to be influential on sexual harassment perceptions. Studies investigating predictive power of ambivalent sexism on tolerance of sexual harassment (Russell & Trigg, 2004), on the likelihood of sexual harassment (Begany & Milburn, 2002), and on perceptions of sexual harassment (Wiener, Hurt, Russell, Mannen, & Gasper, 1997) have reported significant relationships between ambivalent sexism and sexual harassment. That is why in this thesis it was aimed to further elaborate upon the effects of gender roles and especially of sexism on attitudes toward SH in Turkey.

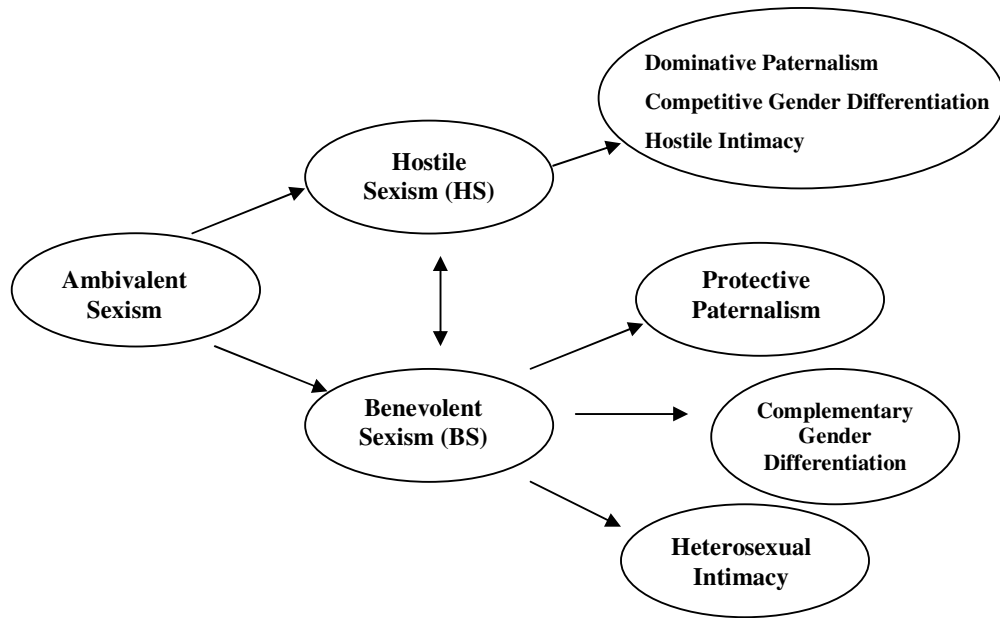
#### **1.4 Ambivalent Sexism toward Women**

Measuring sexist beliefs toward women have been focused on two dimensions: assessing endorsement of traditional gender roles and negative stereotypes of women (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 1997; Swim & Cohen, 1997). The most widely used scales for measuring sexist attitudes were Attitudes toward Women Scale (AWS; Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1973), Modern Sexism Scale (MS; Swim, Aikin, Hall, & Hunter, 1995), Neosexism Scale (NS; Tougas, Brown, Beaton, & Joly, 1995) and Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI; Glick & Fiske, 1996). AWS claims to measure overt sexist beliefs and would less likely to tap attitudes of people who would not openly indicate their subtle beliefs. Although, MS and NS were found to be better measures of subtle or covert sexist beliefs, they were only concentrating on hostility toward women (Swim & Cohen, 1997). However, ASI was claimed to be different from other scales in terms of not only measuring subtle sexist attitudes but also more distinctively distinguishing hostile and benevolent components of sexist beliefs toward women. Because of its power in

reflecting the ambivalent nature of sexism, ASI was used in this thesis as a measure of sexism. Moreover, Glick and Fiske (1997) suggested that ASI would work better in research of relationships between men and women, which is also the case in investigating sexual harassment.

Ambivalent Sexism was conceptualized by Glick and Fiske (1996, p.491) as a “deep ambivalence rather than a uniform antipathy toward women”. They claim that Ambivalent Sexism has two facets; benevolent and hostile sexism. Hostile sexism is the prejudice against women and includes hostile feelings and beliefs about women such as the belief that women are incompetent and should not interfere with males’ domains. On the other hand, people hold the opinion that women are nice and they have many positive features but as long as they continue their passive role in men’s world. Glick and Fiske (1996, p.491) defined the above mentioned benevolent sexism as “a set of interrelated attitudes toward women that are sexist in terms of viewing women stereotypically and in restricted roles, but that are subjectively in a positive tone”

In many studies hostile and benevolent sexism emerge as separate but positively correlated factors (Burn & Busso, 2005; Glick & Fiske, 1996, 2001; Glick et al., 2000; Masser & Abrams, 1999; Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002; Sakallı-Uğurlu & Glick, 2003; Sibley & Wilson, 2004; Swim, Mallett, Russo-Devosa, & Stangor, 2005). Furthermore, three benevolent sexism subfactors generally appear: protective paternalism (e.g., women should be rescued first in emergencies), complementary gender differentiation (e.g. women are purer than men), heterosexual intimacy (e.g., every man ought to have a woman whom he adores) (Glick & Fiske, 2001). (See Figure 1.1).



**Figure 1.1** Dimensions of Ambivalent Sexism Theory

Paternalism proposes dominance and affection at the same time (women are weak; men are the provider and the protector). Gender differentiation is discrimination regarding gender identity, through making categorizations. Women are not competent in intellectuality but they are tender, sensitive, emotional and nurturing. Yet, men have the social power; they are agentic, rational and logical. Congruent with the discourse that women and men complement with one another, this view is the new way to hide sexist feelings. Heterosexuality stems from men's strong tendency to form intimacy and sexual relationship with women. It also consists of hostile feelings toward women like seeing them as sexual objects and at the same time like fearing women's potential of using their sexuality to gain power over men. As a result, sexist attitudes toward women bear ambivalence and a blend of very controversial feelings.

Moreover, benevolent and hostile sexism were found to be valid across cultures (Glick & Fiske, 2000) and in Turkey (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002, 2003; Sakallı-Uğurlu & Glick, 2003). These attitudes were argued to stem from traditional gender role divisions, in which women perform domestic duties and provide nurture to

children, whereas men assume the status and structural power. While hostile beliefs characterize women as unfit and incompetent, benevolent sexism rationalizes sexist beliefs through confining women to domestic rules under the notion that they are protecting them. In these terms, benevolent sexism can be seen as a way of compensation or legitimization of hostile sexism.

Glick and Fiske (2001) suggested the name “ambivalent sexism” because hostile and benevolent sexism can be simultaneously endorsed and they can be directed at different female subtypes. Hostile sexist beliefs apply to women who are non-traditional and perceived as challenging the power of men (e.g., feminist, career women or lesbians), whereas benevolent sexist attitudes are proposed to be elicited by women who are serving conventional gender roles (e.g., housewives, mothers) (Fiske, 1998). Although it can be seen as if two opposite feelings were endorsed in ambivalent sexism, it has been shown that benevolent sexism and hostile sexism are positively correlated and they coexist, yet they serve for different functions (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 1997, 2001).

Fiske and Glick (1995) argued that workplace sexual harassment occurs because of ambivalent sexist attitudes, gender stereotyped images of women and jobs. According to them, people categorize women into three distinct clusters; “sexy” (women who are physically attractive and very concerned with their appearance), “non-traditional” (women who are feminists, ambitious, independent) and “traditional” (women who are dependent, passive, conforming, i.e. mothers). These stereotyped images of women, which are in line with men’s motives for ambivalent sexism (which stems from paternalism, gender differentiation and heterosexuality), would prime different types of sexual harassment. For instance, nontraditional and sexy women would be likely to receive “competitive ambivalence harassment”, which is primarily motivated by gender differentiation and sexual intimacy. This type of harassment would be most likely to occur where an independent and competent woman was perceived as occupying male dominant environment, thus would result in hostility and sexual intimacy seeking at the same time. The other three types of sexual harassment suggested by Fiske and Glick (1995) are “earnest/benevolent” type (motivated by sexual intimacy),



“Hostile” (motivated by male domination), “paternalistic ambivalence” (motivated by paternalism and sexual intimacy). Although, motives for harassment are claimed to be resulted from ambivalent nature of sexist beliefs or stereotyped images of women, Fiske and Glick did not empirically tested their arguments.

The theory of ambivalence sexism, yet, was tested in other studies, which investigated its effects on sexual harassment. In a recent study, Russell and Trigg (2004) examined gender, gender roles, ambivalent sexism (measured by ASI) and tolerance of sexual harassment (measured by SHAS). They found that women were less tolerant to sexual harassment than men were. Those of the participants who are ambivalent sexists and hostile sexists were more likely to be more tolerant of SH. Interestingly, ambivalence and hostility toward women were reported to be more predictive of tolerance to SH than gender roles. Begany and Milburn (2002) further analyzed whether authoritarianism, belief in rape myths, benevolent sexism and hostile sexism predicted men’s self reported likelihood of employing sexual harassment. Likelihood to Sexually Harass Scale (LSH) of Pryor, Giedd, and Williams (1995) was used to assess the male university students’ tendency to harass. It was found that authoritarianism significantly predicted likelihood of engaging in sexual harassment and this relationship was mediated by rape myth beliefs and hostile sexism. The failure to find the effect of benevolent sexism was explained by the limited capacity of LSH measuring types of sexual harassment which is characterized by benevolent sexist attitudes.

Furthermore, Wiener, Hurt, Russell, Mannen, and Gasper (1997) also investigated effects of gender, ambivalent sexism and legal standard on perceptions of hostile work environment sexual harassment. In the previous sections, it has been described that American Law accepts two forms of SH. Sexual behavior in exchange for promotion or compensation was named as “quid pro quo harassment” and sexual conduct creating intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment was named as “hostile work environment” and recognized as a form of SH. Wiener et al. suggested that people who held hostile sexists beliefs would be less likely to perceive evidence of hostile work

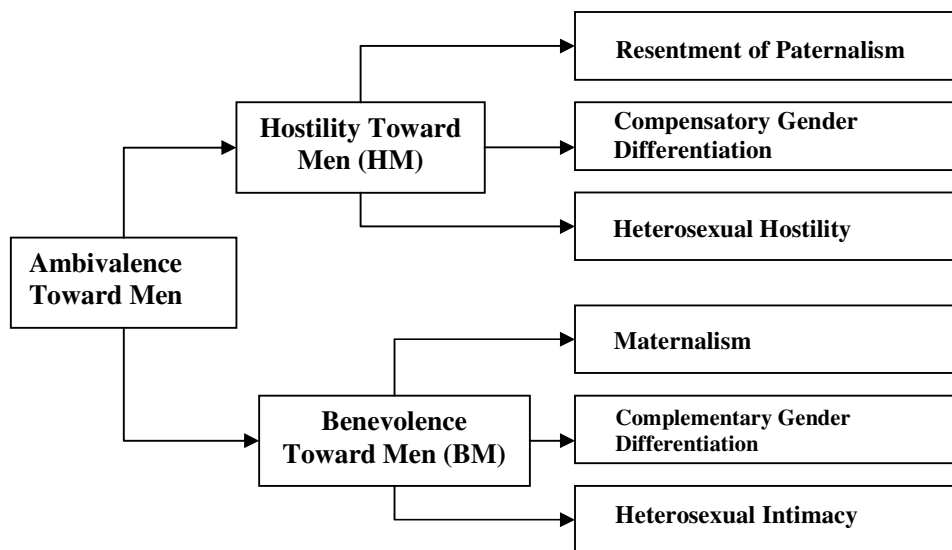
environment as sexual harassment, whereas; benevolent sexist people would be more likely to have a “protectionist” perspective towards the women who claimed to be sexually harassed when evaluating the evidence of hostile workplace environment scenarios. Thus, benevolent sexists, in the name of protecting the “weaker sex” against sexual harassment, would consider in favor of the women. Moreover, they hypothesized that not only sexist beliefs but also gender has an effect on perceptions of SH. Therefore, they claimed that men who are high on hostile and benevolent sexism would be less likely to label the sexual behaviors in the lawsuit scenario as creating a sexually harassing working environment than other women or men. Results revealed that those who held high hostile attitudes toward women perceived the alleged behavior as less severe and less negative, and thus, demonstrated less likelihood of hostile workplace sexual harassment. On the other hand, benevolent sexists were more likely to evaluate woman as the victim of the hostile workplace harassment as a result by provoked protectionist attitudes. An interesting finding emerged as the interaction of BS with HS; high HS was reported to be associated with less likelihood of sexual harassment only under the condition of low BS. Thus, it can be concluded that benevolent sexism might be playing an important role in perceptions of hostile workplace sexual harassment complaints.

However, not only gender stereotypes about women but also stereotypes about men and masculinity may also be associated with sexual harassment (Wiener & Hurt, 1999); and people who are prejudiced against women, are more likely to have prejudiced beliefs about men as well. Moreover, how women perceive male gender roles in the male-dominated environment needs further research (Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2003). Therefore investigating male gender stereotypes and sexist attitudes toward men would contribute to the understanding of attitudes toward sexual harassment. In the next section, theory of ambivalence toward men and its interplay with sexual harassment will be presented.

## **1.5 Ambivalent Sexism toward Men**

Although men are considered as the dominant group in society, they are perceived less positively than women. Gender stereotyping associates some labels

to men more than to women, such as assertiveness, aggressiveness, confidence, and independence (Bem, 1974). Male dominance is considered to lead hostile resentment towards men, but at the same time, women’s dependence on men as protectors and providers lead to benevolent beliefs about men (Glick & Fiske, 1999). Based on these concepts, Glick and Fiske (1999) developed Ambivalence toward Men Inventory, which aims to assess ambivalent attitudes toward men. Like its sister scale, AMI has two components: Hostility toward men (HM) and Benevolence toward men (BM). Hostility toward men (HM) assumes that men have always power over women but views men in a negative manner and belittle men’s abilities. Examples can be given as viewing men as sexual predators, as arrogant and abusive and incapable of doing domestic chores. On the contrary, benevolence toward men (BM) includes beliefs that accept more traditional gender roles and power relations. Examples of such beliefs are “women should take care of men”, “seeing a male partner necessary for a woman to be complete in life”, “men are protective and powerful”. Each subscale was constructed on three dimensions: power, gender differentiation and heterosexuality. (See Figure 1.2)



**Figure 1.2** Dimensions of Ambivalence toward Men Inventory

On the Hostility side of ambivalence; *resentment of paternalism* covers feelings of anger and dislike toward the dominant group – men – resulting from resentment of the power that men have over women. Women's response to being the subordinate group can be reflected as a prejudice developed against the dominant group (e.g. men will always fight for greater control in society). In terms of male gender stereotypes, women may attribute to some negative traits and view men inferior in some ways (e.g. men would be lost without women to guide them) in order to compensate for the negative stereotyping of women. This is labeled as *compensatory gender differentiation*, which is a way for women to see themselves positively different (although being treated as subordinate) than men. *Heterosexual Hostility* refers to the resentment of men's sexual aggressiveness and control over women in romantic relationships. Knowing that men have power to exert sexual violence and use sexual violence to maintain the inequality in society, women react by endorsing hostile attitudes towards men's dominance (e.g. when in position of power, men sexually harass women; men have no morals in what they will do to get sex).

Certainly, one may feel benevolent attitudes toward men which result from admiration toward men and from the belief that women are weaker than men and in need of men. These beliefs stem from maternalism, complementary gender differentiation and heterosexual intimacy. *Maternalism* covers beliefs that both sexes need each other but in a traditional sense. For example, women are better in house chores and men should not do housework because they are not capable of it. In the same token, even if woman also works, the main responsibility to take care of man belongs to the woman. Secondly, women may feel admiration toward men because of their higher status in society and believe that women are really dependent, incompetent, less ambitious and less assertive than men (e.g. men are less likely to fall apart in emergencies; men are more willing to take risks than women). These attitudes fall under the term *complementary gender differentiation*. Finally, *heterosexual intimacy* includes women's interdependence on men in romantic relationships and seeing this as an indication of self-fulfillment. For instance, many women believe that every woman needs a man who will cherish her and should have a man she adores.

As in ambivalent sexism toward women, women may also have both hostile and benevolent attitudes toward men which mean that feeling hostility towards and resentment of the power men have because of men's dominance in close relationships. But at the same time, it means having positive feelings of admiration, maternalistic protectiveness and dependence on men. Behaving congruent with these perceptions may be the only way for women to be approved by men in a world where men have the control (Glick & Fiske, 1999; Glick et al., 2004).

AMI's psychometric ability was tested with three different studies and with more than 800 participants (Glick & Fiske, 1999); moreover, AMI was cross-culturally tested in 16 different countries and was found to be reliable and valid (Glick et al., 2004). In these studies, HM and BM were found to be positively correlated with each other. This means that some people, who rated high on both subscales, are likely to accept and believe male dominance (BM) but at the same time resent this power distance (HM). The ability of AMI to measure both positive and negative attitudes towards men makes it different from other attitudes toward men scales (Glick & Fiske, 1999).

Because of their strong theoretical background, AMI is also correlated with ASI. BM was found to be strongly positively correlated with both HS and BS for both men and women. HM, on the other hand, was not found to be correlated with neither BS nor HS. The only correlation was found between HM and BS for men only. As the researchers suggest, this is not surprising since benevolent sexist men would be likely to protect women from other men, and thus, would rate high on HM (Glick & Fiske, 1999; Glick et al., 2004). Sex differences emerged as expected. Men had lower scores on HM than women in each national sample, but men had higher scores on BM than women.

AMI and ASI prove that each gender's attitudes toward each other are based upon on paternalism, gender differentiation and heterosexuality. However, exploring the relationship between perceptions of SH and attitudes toward the

perpetrators of sexual harassment is an important but neglected research subject. Since maintaining the status quo lies not only in seeing women as the low status group but also in favoring the dominant group (Glick et al., 2004); studying sexual harassment, a concept which is a way to justify and preserve this inequality, needs to be investigated by examining these mixed feelings of each group toward each other. This study is the first one aiming to examine the predictive ability of AMI for sexual harassment attitudes along with ASI. Up to date, there is not any research which reported that investigating the ambivalent attitudes toward men used as a measure for influencing SH perceptions. Hence, AMI should be used in measurement of tolerance of sexual harassment (Russell & Trigg, 2004).

## **1.6 Sexual Harassment Studies in Turkey**

In Turkey, sexual harassment continues to be an issue of growing interest. Yet, there is not large volume of empirical research and most of the organizations, including universities, lack sexual harassment policies and measures. Moreover, not much importance was given to subtle forms of sexual harassment in the previous Turkish Penal Code. The new Turkish Criminal Code was revised to broaden the definition of sexual harassment, including not just severe forms of sexual assault but also insulting and disturbing sexual behaviors that are restricting the freedom of women (Aydın, 2005). However, there is still no direct regulation in the Penal Code regarding SH.

Sexual harassment theories were developed mainly in the United States and most of the empirical studies are done with Anglo-American samples. Therefore, studies including Turkish samples are needed to further elaborate sexual harassment constructs and to create awareness and attention to the subject. Wasti, Bergman, Glomb, and Drasgow (2000) examined the generalizability of sexual harassment model of Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, and Magley (1997) in a Turkish sample, because of its remarkably different social, cultural and patriarchal system. In order to assess sexual harassment frequency in Turkey, the

researchers had 260 Turkish employed women from 5 major cities fill out the Sexual Experienced Questionnaire (SEQ) developed by Fitzgerald et al. (1988). The model found to be fitting in the Turkish sample as well. In other words, organizational context and job-gender characteristics are related with SH and victims of SH suffer from worsened job quality, and worsened psychological and health conditions. According to Turkish researchers (e.g. Sakallı-Uğurlu & Glick, 2003; Wasti et al., 2000), Turkey is a “culture of honor”, where men control sexuality over women and are proud of their male honor, whereas female virginity is valued. It is also characterized by collectivist norms although in recent years can be considered as becoming more industrial and egalitarian. However, the controversial status of women in Turkish society is still existent. In other words, a lot of Turkish women are working in high prestigious work areas as lawyers, doctors or academicians, but their second class status in the society still prevails. Therefore, both in the house and in the workplace patriarchal norms still dominate. Wasti et al., (2000) suggested that this creates an environment that encourages sexual harassment and causes it to be viewed as “normal part of life and job”.

In another study, Wasti and Cortina (2002) investigated coping strategies of four samples from three different cultures, one of which was consisted of Turkish employed women. The study revealed that, Turkish participants are more likely to avoid the harasser more than the Anglo-Americans are. However, they were surprisingly found to be more likely to engage in more confrontation with the harasser than Anglos. It was proposed that Turkish women’s tendency to deal with the harasser more directly rather than seeking social support (talking to friends, relatives, and family members) might stem from fear of blame. Another explanation for this behavior was that negotiation may include subtle and nonverbal forms of communication conveying displeasure with the situation. This is an important finding regarding the coping strategies of Turkish women because they view sexual harassment as the problem between the victim and the harasser and try firstly to avoid and, then deal with the harasser individually. Turkish women are less likely to use institutional advocacy seeking and social

support in fear of being criticized and losing reputation. Researchers explained this behavior resulting due to patriarchal norms, men's enjoyment of sexuality and unequal sexual norms applied to women.

A couple of studies were reported on sexual harassment of nurses in Turkey. For example, majority of the nurses who participated in the study were found to have faced verbal abuse at the hospitals from patients' relatives (Öztunç, 2006; Uzun, 2002). Verbal abuse was defined as disturbing communication directed at nurses personally or professionally such as swearing, shouting, rude words, and verbal insult. Moreover, studies investigating more direct forms of sexual harassment directed at nurses again revealed that majority of the nurses in the sample, experienced sexual harassment during their work at hospitals from doctors, patients, and patients' relatives. The sexual harassment generally took the form of sexual teasing, jokes, remarks or pressure for dates. The respondents indicated that sexual harassment affected their job quality (Kısa & Dziegielewski, 1996; Kısa, Dziegielewski, & Ateş, 2002)

One of the recent comprehensive study conducted by Toker (2003) presented significant findings regarding Turkish women's perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment. Toker (2003) investigated individual differences factors on perceptions of sexual harassment. 353 Turkish women employed in various sectors ranging from education, health, service, banking, research organization, construction, production, and textile to telecommunication participated in the study. The jobs held by the participants also varied from engineers, teachers, academicians, secretaries, nurses, to white and blue collar workers. The Social-Sexual Incidents Questionnaire (SSIQ) revealed that 6 domains, consistent with the literature, were regarded as sexual harassment by Turkish women. These are Unwanted Sexual Attention (trying to get close to the woman by use of compliments, by requests for romantic relationship, looks directed at woman, to see the woman by using various forms of excuses), Verbal Sexual Attention (making sexual jokes, man although not asked talking about his sex life and sexual preferences, talking about sex, looking pornographic material when



woman at present), Sexist Hostility (man not giving importance to woman's ideas, turning down her suggestions, regarding woman as worthless, using coarse language when referring to a woman or talking to a woman), Physical Sexual Assault (trying to kiss the woman, sitting very close to her in a sexual way, looking at woman's sexual body parts), Insinuation (Implication) of Interest (man trying to imply his interest to the woman in a subtle way such as making suggestions, implying a relationship, wanting to give a ride home, implying that woman is interested in him) and Sexual Bribery / Sexual Coercion (supervisor trying to have a romantic or close relationship by use rewards or threats). The researcher especially noted that perception Insinuation of Interest as SH appeared to be a unique case of the Turkish context.

In terms of severity, physical sexual assault, sexual bribery / sexual coercion, and verbal sexual attention were labeled as the most sexually harassing behaviors. Perceived unwanted personal attention and insinuation of interest were regarded a moderately harassing. Sexual Hostility was not perceived to be a direct form of sexual harassment. But, it is an important indication that it was found to be very disturbing as suggested by Toker (2003). It is noteworthy that SH experience was not found to be predicting sexual harassment perceptions. The percentage of sexual harassment incidents were as follows: 71% of the participants stated that they had unwanted personal attention, and 62% of women indicated experiences of sexist hostility, next, 43% women specified verbal sexual harassment. The following percentages of experiences are physical sexual assault (38%), insinuation of interest (30%), and sexual bribery/sexual coercion (11%).

The above studies were conducted with working women samples. In a cross-cultural study with 9 nations, Turkish university students were used as respondents. Their tolerance of sexual harassment tested through Tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory (Lott, Reilly, & Howard, 1982) were found to be higher than American, Canadian, German and Dutch students' tolerance levels (Sigal et al., 2005).

In a recent study conducted by Güven (2006), Mazer and Percival's (1989) Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale was adapted to Turkish and validated by a Turkish sample. Güven (2006) used 15 items out of 19 original items of SHAS and found that SHAS has one factor. The scale was administered to Middle East Technical University students and female students were found to be less tolerant to sexual harassment compared to male students. Although, one factor SHAS was shown to be valid and reliable, it was suggested that this finding had to be supported by future studies. Least but not last, the final SHAS used in the study included only 9 items, which are not likely to cover main concepts underlying attitudes toward SH. However, Reilly et al. (1982) proposed that SHAS had three subfactors which are named as "flirtations are natural", "provocative behavior" and "feminists beliefs". Hence, 9-item SHAS is not covering fundamental constructs that need to be assessed by an effective attitude scale. For this reason, the need to form a new scale fully covering the constructs of SH has been emerged. Turgut and Salman (2006) developed a scale, which will be discussed later in detail, which is aimed to be relevant to Turkish culture and covering three main concepts, which were also suggested by SH literature. The new SHAS revealed three subfactors, namely; "provocative behaviors", suggesting that viewing SH as the result of provocative behavior of women; "normal flirtations", tapping attitudes towards sexual harassment as natural flirtations that occur between men and women; "trivial matter"; assessing SH as a social problem. Basically, the new SHAS was aimed to evaluate why sexual harassment occurs, how it is defined and whether it has been seen as a social problem.

## **1.7 Purpose of This Study**

Sexual harassment is not a simple act of a certain behavior but is the expression of sexist attitudes and a form of sexual discrimination against women (Crocker, 1983; Mazer & Percival, 1989; Powell, 1983; Thomas & Kitzinger, 1997) and the most frequent form of sexual victimization of women (Fitzgerald, 1993). Baker & Terpstra (1984) suggested that perceptions of SH is a function of interaction between attitudes toward women, sex, and religiosity (cited in Terpstra & Baker,

1986). Therefore, it is important to study the attitudinal dimensions behind this offensive behavior. Fitzgerald et al. (1995) argued that since sexual harassment studies have focused mostly on finding practical solutions for sexual harassment as a social problem, the SH literature has lacked academic or theoretical considerations for a long time. With this study, it was aimed to contribute to the existing body of SH literature by investigating attitudes toward SH based on three different dimensions, which have not been extensively tested in previous studies.

In the light of the previously mentioned studies, this thesis has two main aims: It is expected to fill a gap in the Turkish literature by investigating attitudes toward sexual harassment and underlying ambivalent sexist attitudes behind these attitudes. Wasti et al. (2000) proposed that patriarchal norms prevalent in Turkish society may encourage sexual harassment; Toker (2003) studied individual difference factors in perceptions of Turkish employed women; however, sexist beliefs and the underlying constructs (paternalism, gender differentiation and heterosexuality; Glick & Fiske, 1996) and their influence on attitudes toward sexual harassment have not been investigated in Turkey before.

Secondly, this thesis aims to fill the gap in the sexual harassment literature by studying not only the relationship between ambivalent attitudes toward women (ASI) but also ambivalent attitudes toward men (AMI) and the predictive power of them on each of subfactors of attitudes toward sexual harassment. Up to now, no study is known to examine the effects of attitudes toward men on SH attitudes. Since ASI and AMI are relatively new theories; but cross-culturally tested, reliable and valid tests (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 1997, 1999; Glick et al., 2000, 2004) which measures sexist beliefs, taking them into consideration when exploring attitudes toward SH is necessary.

Another contribution of this thesis will be providing evidence for the newly developed sexual harassment attitude scale (Turgut & Salman, 2006), which is more comprehensive and fully covering basic but important concepts behind how people view why and how sexual harassment occurs. As a conclusion, I would like to explore following research question:

Are HS, BS, HM and BM significantly predicting attitudes toward sexual harassment? Since attitudes toward sexual harassment were expected to be based upon on three distinct constructs (provocative behaviors, normal flirtations and trivial matter), each construct will be investigated separately.

**Hypothesis 1:** It was expected that HS, BS, HM and BM are predictors of acceptance of SH as provocative behaviors of women. Since HS includes male hostile sexuality, and hostile feelings toward women, and BS covers more positive feelings and a protectionist view (Wiener et al., 1997), the predictive power of HS is expected to be higher than BS. Similarly, HM is expected to appear as accepting of SH less as a result of provocative behavior of women because HM covers resentment of male power and dominance.

**Hypothesis 2:** It was expected that HS, BS, HM and BM predict acceptance of SH as normal flirtations between men and women. People who are high on BS would view women as dependent on men and as obliged to be passive in intimate relationships; therefore, women are expected to be more accepting of SH as normal flirtations where men generally are expected to be initiators and assertive (Sakallı & Curun, 2002). Moreover, BM is expected to reflect tolerance to men's sexual advances and accept their dominance in relationships. Therefore, BM would also predict acceptance of sexually harassing behaviors as normal flirtations that occur between men and women.

**Hypothesis 3:** It was expected that HS, BS, HM and BM predict acceptance of SH as a trivial matter. Specifically, BS and HM are expected to appear as strong predictors because they reflect protectionist views regarding women and rejecting male power, respectively. Thus both constructs are expected to affect views of accepting of SH as a social problem.

**Hypothesis 4:** Gender is expected to predict each subfactor of sexual harassment attitudes. Women are expected to be less tolerant of sexual harassment on each of the three constructs than men. Moreover, younger participants are expected to be more tolerant to SH when compared with older participants.

## CHAPTER II

### METHOD

#### 2.1 Participants

311 Middle East Technical University students participated in this study. Out of the participants, 192 were women (62%) and 119 were men (38%). The average participant was 22.16 (SD=3.52) years old ranging from 17 to 35. 248 of the respondents were undergraduate students and 63 of them were graduate students. Half of the participants were enrolled in social sciences departments and the other half in science departments. In order to capture the socio economic status of the respondents, the perceived income level was also asked. 80% of the sample indicated that they belong to middle income class, 16.5% were from upper class and 3.5% were from lower income class. To assess the level of sexual harassment experience, the participants were asked whether they have ever experienced sexual harassment; if they had, they were asked to indicate whether it was verbal or physical. Among the 311 participants, 122 of them (39 %) responded that they had experienced verbal sexual harassment and 79 (25 %) of them indicated that they were the victims of physical sexual harassment. Those of the respondents who reported to be harassed verbally or physically, 81% of them were females. The detailed information about the participant characteristics is presented in Table 2.1.

**Table 2.1** Sample Characteristics

Demographic Variables	Female	Male	Participants
Age (Mean)	22.12	22.23	22.16
Participants (Percentages)	192 (62%)	119 (38%)	311 (100%)
	Frequencies (Percentages)		
Education			
Undergraduate	155 (81%)	93 (78%)	248 (80%)
Graduate	37 (19%)	26 (22%)	63 (20%)
Department			
Social Sciences	113 (59%)	42 (35%)	155 (50%)
Natural Sciences	79 (41%)	77 (65%)	156 (50%)
Economic Class			
Low Income	5 (3%)	6 (5%)	11 (4%)
Middle Income	152 (79%)	96 (81%)	248 (80%)
Upper Class	35 (18%)	17 (14%)	52 (17%)
Sexual Harassment Experience			
No experience	60 (31%)	86 (72%)	146 (47%)
Verbal SH	99 (52%)	23 (19%)	122 (39%)
Physical SH	64 (33%)	15 (13%)	79 (25%)

## 2.2 Measures

Three scales were used in the study, which were included in a battery of other scales for another research study. The scales used are Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale, which was originally developed by Turgut & Salman (2006), Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996), and Ambivalence toward Men Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1999). The scales are presented in the Appendices A, B and C, respectively.

### 2.2.1 Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale (SHAS)

SHAS was originally developed by Mazer and Percival (1989). It's a 19-item survey, which aims to assess tolerance of and acceptance of sexual harassment. The Cronbach alpha of the scale was reported as .84 by Mazer and Percival (1989). Since SHAS is known to be the only scale tapping attitudes toward sexual harassment, it has been used by many other researchers. However, many different

versions of SHAS were used. In Russel and Trigg (2004)'s study, 17 items of 19-item SHAS were used and a coefficient alpha of .81 was reported. Ford and Donis (1996) used a modified version of SHAS with 15 items in their study investigating the relationships between attitudes toward sexual harassment, gender and age. Furthermore, 9-item version of SHAS was tested among a Turkish sample by Güven (2006) and Cronbach alpha was found to be .79. As discussed in the previous section, Güven's study revealed only one factor. Moreover, the items neither were fully covering whether people see SH as a social problem nor differentiating between seeing SH as normal flirtations or blaming women for causing SH.

In the light of the above results, a new version of SHAS was decided to be developed, which aims to cover broader concepts related with attitudes towards sexual harassment. As indicated in above studies, researchers tended to eliminate some of the items from the original SHAS and used shorter versions. However, one of the earlier studies revealed that attitudes toward sexual harassment have three factors related with tolerance for SH, which are "natural flirtations", "feminist beliefs", and "provocative behavior" (Reilly, Lott, Caldwell, & DeLuca, 1992). This factor structure was not reported in neither of the above mentioned studies. Secondly, Güven (2006) has also used shorter version and found only one factor. Therefore, the major concern underlying was to develop a sound and valid scale assessing attitudes towards SH and to validate it with a Turkish sample.

### ***2.2.1.1 Development of SHAS***

In the preliminary study, an initial item pool of 90 items was developed. A group of 8 judges, who were psychology graduate students and a psychology professor, firstly, were briefly described the aim of the study and then, were requested to generate statements depicting attitudes toward SH. Then, original 19-item SHAS was translated into Turkish by two social psychology graduate students independently. The Turkish version after screened for wording, readability, and item compatibility, back-translated by another graduate student of English literature. The Turkish version of 19-item SHAS was also compared with the

translation made by Güven (2006). The 56 statements generated by the judges, Turkish translation of 19 items of SHAS (Mazer & Percival, 1989) and 14 items from Beavis (1986), which was translated into Turkish in the same way, formed the initial item pool. The final version of the initial scale was examined then by two graduate students, one of whom was the author, for wording and item meaning. The scale was administered to 298 Middle East Technical University students on the basis of voluntary participation and in a general psychology course classroom. Participants rated items on a 6 point Likert-type response set, where 1 stands for disagree and 6 stands for agree strongly. Higher scores indicate high tolerance to and more acceptance of sexual harassment.

To assess the structure of the 90-item SHAS, exploratory principal components analysis with varimax rotation was conducted. Before going into detail with factor analysis, it should be stated that the SHAS had half of the items as reverse items, and they were recoded for the analysis. Missing items were treated with mean replacement method and 14 cases were deleted which were considered to be multivariate. The final data set was comprised of 284 respondents. Initial run of exploratory principal components analysis revealed 23 factors with eigenvalues greater than one; however only 6 factors had items more than three. After close examination of the six factors, three strongest factors consistent with the literature findings and which are of theoretical considerations were determined. The 3-factor structure explained a total variance of 26.64 % ; Factor 1, which reflects “provocative behavior”, with an eigenvalue of 10.02 and accounting for 12.85% variance, Factor 2 reflecting “normal flirtations” with an eigenvalue of 6.43, accounting for 8.25% variance and Factor 3, which is “trivial matter”, with an eigenvalue of 4.33 and accounting for 5.55 % of the variance. In selecting items for the final scale, pattern of loadings were examined, looking for items with high loadings on the intended factors. Minimum factor loading of .40 was used as a guideline for considering an item to be part of a factor. Also, items loaded on more than one factor were eliminated. After trial runs of factor analysis 68 items were eliminated from the preliminary item list due to cross loadings or weak factor loadings. The three-factor scale with 22 items accounted for 46.50 %



of the variance. The final scale along with factors loadings is presented in Table 2.2.

Factor 1, “provocative behaviors” suggests that sexual harassment is what women provoke by the way they dress or behave. Examples from this factor are: “Most women who are sexually insulted by a man provoke his behavior by the way they talk, act or dress”, “Most men are sexually teased by many of the women with whom they interact on the job or at school”, “An attractive person has to expect sexual advances and should learn how to handle them”, “Encouraging a supervisor’s sexual interest is frequently used by women to get better grades or to improve their work situations”. These items express the view that women who dress in an exposing way or who behave sexually are more likely to be harassed and women use their sexuality to seduce men. Hence, women who are attractive have to be aware that sexual advances are directed against them and if women do not want these advances, they would not permit it. In fact, these beliefs reflect sexist beliefs towards women and put the blame on the women who violates gender role incongruent behaviors.

Factor 2, which is comprised of 6 items, reflected perceptions of sexual harassment as “normal flirtations” and as being a natural result of the sexual interaction between men and women. Items under factor 2 can be given as “Innocent flirtations make the workday or school day interesting”, “It is only natural for a man to make sexual advances to a woman he finds attractive”, “It is not a problem to touch the other sex, with whom there is no intimate relationship”. People who rated high on this factor are likely to perceive that sexual advances between men and women are expected and unavoidable, and what people call SH is more serious forms of sexual aggression. Moreover, this factor identifies beliefs that women should expect sexual advances because as men being the initiators of social sexual behavior, it is normal for them to show their interest.

**Table 2.2** Factor loadings, item-total correlations and Cronbach alphas for SHAS items

Items	Loadings	Item-Total
<b>Factor 1 “Provocative Behaviour”</b>		
eigenvalue = 4.56, variance = 20.70%, $\alpha = .83$		
• Tahrik edici kıyafetler giyen kadınlar cinsel tacize davetiye çıkartırlar	.83	.72
• Bir erkek tarafından cinsel olarak rahatsız edilen pek çok kadın erkeğin bu davranışını konuşmaları, hareketleri ya da giyinişleriyle kışkırtmışlardır	.78	.68
• Cinsel tacize uğramış insanlar genelde buna davetiye çıkarmış insanlardır	.76	.65
• Oturmasına, eğilmesine dikkat etmeyen kadın tacize maruz kalır	.66	.53
• Bir kadın eğer gerçekten istemezse hiçbir erkeğin ona cinsel tacizde bulunmasına fırsat vermez	.61	.49
• Pek çok kadın, işyerinde ya da okulda iletişim halinde olduğu erkekleri birlikte olmayacakları halde cinsel açıdan kışkırtmaktan zevk alırlar	.59	.50
• Açık kıyafet giyinmiş kadınların baştan aşağı süzülmesini normal karşılarım	.54	.46
• Bir kişiyle cinsel birlikteliği olan biri, artık o kişi hakkında cinsel taciz suçlamasında bulunamaz	.53	.41
• Çekici bir kişi kendisine cinsel yaklaşımların olabileceğini bilmeli ve bunlarla başa çıkmayı öğrenmelidir	.48	.38
• Üst konumdaki birinin cinsel ilgisine yüz vermek, kadınlar tarafından kendi iş/okul koşullarını iyileştirmek için sıkça kullanılır	.42	.34
<b>Factor 2 “Natural Flirtations”</b>		
eigenvalue = 3.16, variance = 14.34%, $\alpha = .78$		
• Masum flörtleşmeler iş ya da okul gününü ilginç kılar	.80	.69
• Romantik ilişki içinde bulunmadığı biri tarafından anlamlı bakışlarla süzülme günü zevkli kılabilir	.73	.58
• Çekici bulunduğundan dolayı karşı cinsiyete yakınlaşmaya çalışmak doğaldır	.72	.54
• Bir erkeğin çekici bulunduğu bir kadına cinsel yaklaşımlarda bulunması doğaldır	.69	.55
• Cinsel içerikli şakaların yapılması beni rahatsız eder*	.55	.40
• Samimi arkadaşlık olmadığı halde karşı cinsiyete sık sık dokunulmasında bir sakınca görmüyorum	.53	.41
<b>Factor 3 “Trivial Matter”</b>		
eigenvalue = 2.52, variance = 11.45%, $\alpha = .72$		
• İstenmediği halde bir kişinin romantik ilişkiye zorlanması rahatsız edici bir durumdur*	.77	.57
• Cinsel taciz oldukça rahatsız edici bir durumdur*	.76	.58
• Üst konumdaki bir kişinin alt konumundaki birinin gözünü korkutarak cinsel birlikteliğe zorlaması ciddi bir sosyal problemdir*	.69	.51
• Cinsel tacizin ciddi bir sosyal problem olduğunu düşünüyorum*	.65	.43
• Cinsel taciz kadınlara yapılan bir hakarettir*	.53	.40
• Cinsel taciz kadınların uydurmasıdır	.43	.36
* Items reverse-coded		

Factor 3, which is consisted of 6 items, is the dimension of perceptions which reflects sexual harassment as a form of discrimination and hostility towards women. Items loaded under that factor are “Sexual harassment is a very serious social problem”, “Sexual harassment is a concept women make up”, “Sexual intimidation is a serious social problem”. This factor taps the positive attitudes toward the sexual harassment as a concept and considering it as a trivial social problem. Since five items were reverse coded, people show greater agreement with these items view SH as a trivial matter. It was defined originally as feminist beliefs by Reilly, Lott, Caldwell and Deluca (1992), but for this study it was found that this factor covers more than degrading attitudes toward women, including sexual harassment as an unimportant problem in the society. Hence, it was named as “trivial matter”.

#### ***2.2.1.2 Reliability Analysis of SHAS***

Reliability Analysis was conducted with the final 22-item SHAS to examine scale consistency and inter-item correlations. Cronbach alpha for the whole scale was found to be at reliable level ( $\alpha = .79$ ). Moreover, for the three factors Cronbach alpha values were at the levels .83 for Factor 1 (provocative behavior), .78 for Factor 2 (normal flirtations) and .72 for Factor 3 (trivial matter). Split-half reliabilities for Factor 1 (provocative behavior), were found to be Cronbach alpha for part 1= .71; Cronbach alpha for part 2= .67; for Factor 2 (normal flirtations) Cronbach alpha for part 1= .60; Cronbach alpha for part 2= .65; and for Factor 3 (trivial matter) Cronbach alpha for part 1= .69; Cronbach alpha for part 2= .52.

For each of the factor corrected item total correlations were checked and were found to be between .30 and .70, which are at accepted reliability levels. Furthermore, square multiple correlations (SMC) were not lower than .20 and all alpha if item deleted scores were higher than alpha score for each of factor.

#### ***2.2.1.3 Construct Validity of SHAS***

Finally, construct validity of SHAS and the whole scale was tested by comparing whether men and women displayed different attitudes towards SH. Since higher total score on SHAS would indicate higher tolerance of SH, it was expected that

men and women would differ in their scores on SHAS. Independent t-tests revealed that there are significant differences between males and females on the total score of SHAS,  $t(199) = -7.17, p < .01$ . Women ( $M = 2.62, SD = .31$ ) were found to score lower on SHAS than men ( $M = 2.96, SD = .36$ ). In other words, women's attitudes toward sexual harassment are more negative than men's attitudes. Independent t-tests were also conducted for each factor. Significant differences were found between men and women on their scores for provocative behavior subscale,  $t(199) = -6.92, p < .01$ ; and on their scores for normal flirtations subscale,  $t(199) = -2.17, p < .05$ . Men ( $M = 3.37, SD = .95$ ) were found to be more accepting of SH as a result of provocative behavior of women than were women ( $M = 2.50, SD = .81$ ) and men ( $M = 3.69, SD = 1.08$ ) were more likely to accept SH as normal flirtations than were women ( $M = 3.38, SD = .93$ ). Although, there were no significant difference between men and women on their perceptions of SH as a trivial matter ( $t(199) = -2.77, n.s.$ ); men ( $M = 2.96, SD = .31$ ) again scored higher than women ( $M = 2.62, SD = .36$ ) on this subscale.

#### ***2.2.1.4 Application of SHAS for the Current Study***

For this study, 311 Middle East Technical University students completed SHAS. The sample characteristics were presented in Table 2.1. Factor analysis of SHAS offered three-factor solution like the preliminary study finding. The scale accounted for the 46 % of variance, with variances of 19 %, 15 %, and 11 % for factors 1, 2 and 3, respectively, which are consistent with the previous study. Items loaded to the same factors found in the preliminary study. The reliability analysis of SHAS revealed an overall scale consistency ( $\alpha = .80$ ). In the current study, the Cronbach alpha score was found to be .79, which shows that the scale has a strong internal overall consistency. The internal consistencies were .83, .78 and .67 for factors 1, 2 and 3, respectively. Split-half reliability coefficients were found as part 1  $\alpha = .73$  and part 2  $\alpha = .72$  for factor 1; part 1  $\alpha = .63$  and part 2  $\alpha = .75$  for factor 2; part 1  $\alpha = .58$  and part 2  $\alpha = .50$  for factor 3. This finding was again proves that factors have acceptable internal consistencies. Item total correlations were between .36 and .72 for factor 1 (provocative behavior); between .42 and .62 for factor 2 (natural flirtations); between .40 and .51 for factor 3 (trivial matter).

Both in the preliminary study and in the current study, SHAS was proved to be a valid and a reliable scale to assess attitudes toward sexual harassment. The three-factor structure of SHAS, which was confirmed again in this study along with the preliminary one, was presented as a new and original instrument conducted with a Turkish sample.

### **2.2.2 Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)**

ASI was developed by Glick and Fiske (1996) and validated by 5 national samples (more than 2000 respondents, mostly undergraduate university students but also small amount of community people) (Glick & Fiske, 1996, 1997) and a cross-cultural study including 19 nations with 15,000 respondents (Glick et al., 2000). ASI is comprised of 22 items, assessing two related but different constructs of sexist attitudes toward women. Respondents were requested to indicate agreement or disagreement on a response set ranging from 1 (disagree strongly) to 6 (agree strongly). The two factors of ASI, Hostile Sexism and Benevolent Sexism, tap sexist attitudes on three dimensions: power (dominative or protective paternalism), gender differentiation (competitive or complementary) and heterosexuality (hostile or intimate heterosexuality). The Benevolent Sexism (BS) subscale (11 items) assesses subjectively positive attitudes toward women but in a way that justifying gender inequality and patriarchy hidden behind. The subfactors of BS are Protective Paternalism (e.g. “women should be cherished and protected by men”, “men should sacrifice to provide for women”); Complementary Gender Differentiation (e.g. women have a more refined sense of culture and taste”); Heterosexual Intimacy (e.g. “men are incomplete without women”, “every man ought to have a woman he adores”). The Hostile Sexism (HS) subscale (11 items) covers statements on derogatory and negative attitudes toward women indicating dominative paternalism, competitive gender differentiation and heterosexual hostility, all loading under HS. For HS, the three subfactors were not found to be separate but loaded to one factor. These findings explained by the researchers that the three subfactors are linked together so strongly that it is not possible to distinguish them as separate subfactors empirically (Glick & Fiske, 1997).

ASI was proved to be a very strongly reliable scale. The reported alpha coefficients are between .83 and .92 for overall scale; between .73 and .85 for BS and between .80 and .92 for HS across 6 different samples (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

ASI was adapted to Turkish by Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002). The Cronbach alpha coefficients were reported as .85, .87 and .78 for ASI, HS and BS, respectively. Factor analysis revealed the 2 factors, which were HS and BS with BS having three subfactors. The total variance explained was 51.07 %. HS accounted for 25.69 % of variance and BS accounted for 25.37% of variance.

For the current study, similar to previous studies (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002) the factor analysis confirmed the four-factor structure, BS with three subfactors and HS as a single factor. The total variance explained by this structure is 52.70%. HS accounted for 27.82 % of variance (eigenvalue = 6.12), Heterosexual Intimacy accounted for 12.69 % of variance (eigenvalue = 2.80), Protective Paternalism accounted for 6.87 % of variance (eigenvalue = 1.51), Complementary Gender Differentiation accounted for 5.32 % of variance (eigenvalue = 1.17). All items were loaded to same factors as original ASI suggests, with factor loadings between .80 and .45 for HS, between .80 and .67 for Heterosexual Intimacy, between .75 and .45 for Protective Paternalism and between .79 and .50 for Complementary Gender Differentiation. Cronbach alpha coefficients were found to be .87, .88 and .79 for ASI, HS and BS, respectively. Item-total correlations for all items for ASI, HS and BS were between .23 and .70.

### **2.2.3 Ambivalence toward Men Inventory (AMI)**

AMI was developed by Glick and Fiske (1999). AMI is a self report 20-item scale which was designed to measure hostile and benevolent attitudes toward men. Like ASI, AMI has two subscales of each with 10 items; Hostility toward Men (HM) and Benevolence toward Men (BM). Each factor has 3 subfactors that are based on male's structural power (Resentment of Paternalism for HM and Maternalism for BM), gender differentiation (Compensatory Gender Differentiation for HM and Complementary Gender Differentiation for BM) and

sexuality (Heterosexual Hostility for HM and Heterosexual Intimacy for BM). Participants rated items on a 6 point Likert-type response set, where 1 stands for disagree strongly and 6 stands for agree strongly. Higher scores indicate ambivalence toward men. Reliability scores were reported as ranging from .83 to .87 for AMI, .81 to .86 for HM and .79 to .83 for BM scores across the 3 different samples. A cross-cultural study including a Turkish sample including samples from 15 different nations also validated the structure of AMI and yielded reliable scale consistencies (Glick et al., 2004).

AMI was translated into Turkish by Sakallı-Uğurlu for a cross cultural study (Glick et al., 2004). They reported reliability coefficients for the Turkish sample as  $\alpha = .81$  for BM and  $\alpha = .81$  for HM. Consistent with the Glick et al. (2004) findings, reliability coefficients were found to be high in the current study ( $\alpha = .85$  for AMI,  $\alpha = .83$  for BM,  $\alpha = .83$  for HM). Item-total correlations were ranged between .28 to .58 for AMI, .39 to .64 for HM and .36 to .63 for BM.

### **2.3 Procedure**

Most of the participants filled the 8 pages of a battery of scales in a classroom setting and they received a bonus point for their final grades. The participation was on a voluntary basis and students were told that they may leave the classroom if they would like to. A cover page consisting of the aim of the study and the instruction was attached to the front page of the survey. Also, the purpose of the study was described briefly by saying that this study was being done for master's thesis research project of two social psychology graduate students and they were told that they can get into contact with either of the researchers for detailed information. Participants were required not to write their names or ID to assure anonymity and they were informed that their responses will only be used for academic purposes. It took approximately 30 minutes to fill all the scales. Demographic information and question on sexual harassment experience were requested at the end of the instrument for the purpose of avoiding negative feelings and attitudes towards the survey.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **RESULTS**

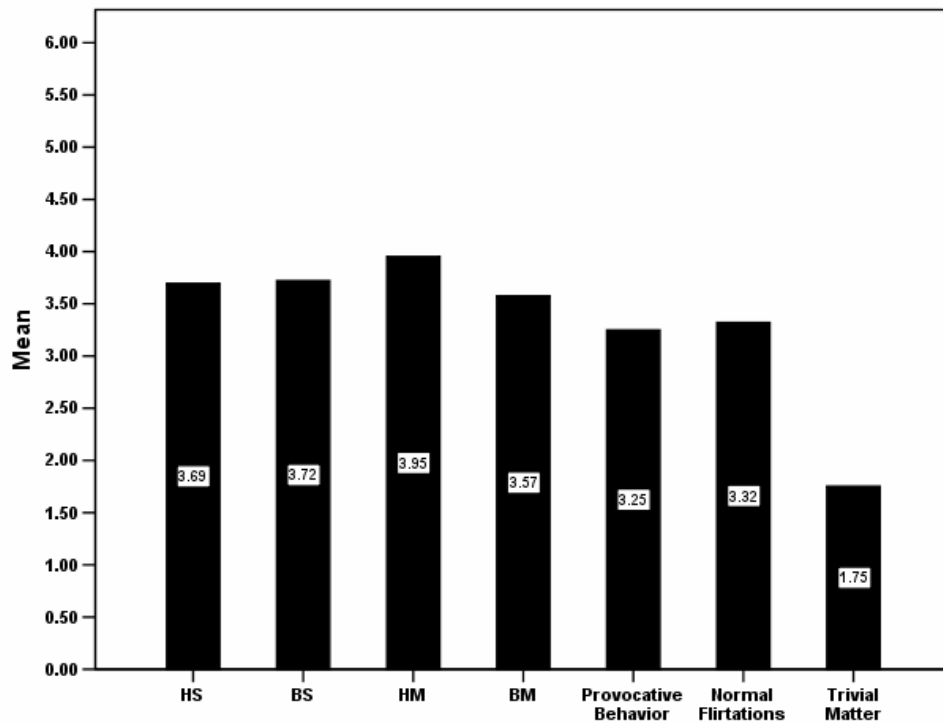
Prior to analysis, subscales of attitudes toward sexual harassment (provocative beliefs, normal flirtations and perceptions of SH as a trivial social problem), ambivalence toward women (benevolent sexism and hostile sexism), ambivalence toward men (hostility toward men and benevolence toward men) and demographic variables such as gender, age, department, economy class were examined through various SPSS programs for data accuracy, missing values, fit between the distributions and assumptions of multivariate analysis. After eliminating univariate and multivariate outliers data was reduced to 308 participants. In this section, basic information will be presented about the properties of the observed variables. After a brief summary of correlational analyses of concerned variables, regression analyses according to the hypothesis will be presented.

#### **3.1 Descriptive Information about the Study Variables**

For all study variables, participants' scores were examined. It should be noted that highest possible mean score would be 6; indicating an extreme level of agreement with the construct and a mean score of 1 would show extreme level of disagreement with the construct. It was found that, participants have a tendency to have positive attitudes toward sexual harassment in terms of accepting it as a result of provocative behavior of women ( $M = 3.25$ ,  $SD = .95$ ) and again have slight tendency to accept sexual harassment as normal flirtations between men



and women (  $M = 3.31$ ,  $SD = 1.04$ ). Although participants have slightly favorable attitudes towards sexual harassment; they scored low on accepting SH as a trivial matter ( $M = 1.77$ ,  $SD = .70$ ); meaning that they view sexual harassment as a social problem. Participants' scores on HS ( $M = 3.69$ ,  $SD = .96$ ) and BS ( $M = 3.71$ ,  $SD = .87$ ) were moderately high, meaning that people have both hostile and benevolent feelings toward women. Additionally, HM score was ( $M = 3.94$ ,  $SD = .85$ ) and BM score was ( $M = 3.57$ ,  $SD = .94$ ). Detailed information can be seen in Figure 3.1.



**Figure 3.1** Mean Values of Hostile Sexism, Benevolent Sexism, Hostility toward Men, Benevolence toward Men, Attitudes toward Sexual Harassment

### 3.1.1 Gender Differences among the Study Variables

Main effects of gender on study variables were assessed by one way ANOVA analysis. Analysis revealed significant main effects of gender on accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors of women ( $F(1, 309) = 34.33, p < .01$ ), accepting SH as normal flirtations between men and women ( $F(1, 309) = 19.37, p < .01$ ), on HS ( $F(1, 309) = 43.83, p < .01$ ), on HM ( $F(1, 309) = 46.80, p < .01$ ), and on BM ( $F(1, 309) = 30.43, p < .01$ ). Men ( $M = 3.64, SD = .97$ ) were found to score higher than women ( $M = 3.01, SD = .86$ ) on acceptance of SH as the result of provocative behavior of women. Similarly, men ( $M = 3.64, SD = 1.04$ ) scored higher than women ( $M = 3.12, SD = .98$ ) on acceptance of SH as normal flirtations between men and women. Men and women were not significantly different in their scores for accepting SH as a trivial matter. Furthermore, men ( $M = 4.11, SD = .89$ ) scored on HS more than women ( $M = 3.42, SD = .90$ ). On the other hand, in terms of HM, women ( $M = 4.19, SD = .81$ ) endorsed more on HM than men ( $M = 3.55, SD = .78$ ). However, men ( $M = 3.93, SD = .91$ ) endorsed BM more than women ( $M = 3.35, SD = .89$ ). Although, men ( $M = 3.74, SD = .84$ ) scored higher on BS than women ( $M = 3.69, SD = .90$ ), this difference was not significant,  $F(1, 309) = .26, n.s$ . More information is available in Table 3.1

**Table 3.1** Descriptive Information about and Gender differences among Study Variables

<i>Variables</i>	<i>General</i>		<i>Men</i>		<i>Women</i>		<i>MS Error</i>	<i>F</i>
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>		
SH as Provocative Behavior	3.25	.95	3.63	.97	3.01	.87	28.26	34.33*
SH as Normal Flirtations	3.32	1.04	3.64	1.05	3.12	.98	19.66	19.37*
SH as a Trivial Matter	1.77	.71	1.98	.82	1.64	.59	8.14	17.21
HS	3.69	.96	4.11	.89	3.42	.90	35.33	43.83*
BS	3.71	.88	3.74	.84	3.69	.90	.20	.26
HM	3.95	.86	3.55	.78	4.19	.81	29.84	46.80*
BM	3.57	.94	3.93	.91	3.35	.89	24.72	30.43*

df =1,309; \* p<.01

### 3.2 Inter-Correlations among the Study Variables

By using Pearson bivariate correlations, association between the observed variables were examined. Information about the correlations between demographic variables, SH as a result of provocative behavior, SH as normal flirtations, perception of SH as a trivial matter, HS, BS, HM and BM are summarized in Table 3.2.

The analysis revealed that age was significantly and negatively correlated with normal flirtations ( $r = -.20, p < .01$ ); however it was not correlated with the other DVs (provocative behavior and perceptions of SH as a trivial matter). Age was also found not to be correlated with other IVs as well. Another demographic variable, economy class the respondents perceive themselves belong to, was significantly and negatively correlated with provocative behavior ( $r = -.14, p < .05$ ) and perceiving SH as a trivial social problem ( $r = -.20, p < .01$ ). Moreover, economy class was found to be significantly and again negatively correlated with HS ( $r = -.11, p < .05$ ).

According to Pearson bivariate correlation analysis, seeing SH as a result of women's provocative behavior was found to be significantly and positively correlated with perceptions of SH as a trivial matter ( $r = .31, p < .01$ ); however it was not correlated with normal flirtations ( $r = .09, n.s.$ ). Interestingly, normal flirtations was found to be significantly and positively correlated with perceptions of SH as a trivial matter ( $r = .16, p < .01$ ).

When the correlations with sexist attitudes and the DVs were examined, findings consistent with expectations were found. HS was significantly and positively correlated with provocative behavior ( $r = .60, p < .01$ ), with normal flirtations ( $r = .15, p < .01$ ), and with perceptions of SH as a trivial matter ( $r = .16, p < .01$ ). Similarly, BS was significantly and positively correlated with provocative behavior ( $r = .30, p < .01$ ), and significantly but negatively correlated with perceptions of SH as a trivial matter ( $r = -.16, p < .01$ ). There was no significant

correlation between BS and normal flirtations ( $r = .11$ , n.s.). Moreover, HM was correlated significantly and positively with provocative behaviors ( $r = .20$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and negatively correlated with perceptions of SH as a trivial matter ( $r = -.15$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The correlation between HM and normal flirtations was insignificant. Lastly, the correlation between BM and provocative behavior was significant and positive ( $r = .57$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and there was a significant and negative correlation between BM and perceptions of SH as a trivial matter ( $r = -.12$ ,  $p < .05$ ). However, the correlation between BM and normal flirtations were found to be insignificant.

Finally, HS was found to be significantly and positively correlated with BS ( $r = .36$ ,  $p < .01$ ), with BM ( $r = .63$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and with HM ( $r = .25$ ,  $p < .01$ ). BS was found to be significantly and positively correlated with BM ( $r = .61$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and with HM ( $r = .42$ ,  $p < .01$ ). The correlation between HM and BM was also significant ( $r = .33$ ,  $p < .01$ ).

**Table 3.2** Pearson correlations between demographic variables, provocative behavior, normal flirtations, perceptions of SH as a trivial matter, HS, BS, HM and BM (N=308)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. Age	-										
2. Sex	.01	-									
3. Department	.15**	.23**	-								
4. Economy Class	-.06	-.04	-.12*	-							
5. Provocative Behavior	-.03	.32**	-.01	-.14*	-						
6. Normal Flirtations	-.20**	.24**	-.02	.10	.09	-					
7. SH as a Trivial Matter	-.05	.23**	-.02	-.20**	.31**	.15**	-				
8. BS	.01	.03	-.09	.10	.30**	.10	-.16**	-			
9. HS	-.09	.35**	-.03	-.11*	.59**	.15**	.16**	.36**	-		
10. HM	-.10	-.36**	-.14*	-.01	.20**	-.07	-.15*	.42**	.25**	-	
11. BM	.02	.30**	.01	-.09	.57**	.04	.12*	.61**	.63**	.33**	-

\*\* Correlation is significant at the .01 level 2-tailed.

\* Correlation is significant at the .05 level 2-tailed.

### **3.3 Regression Analyses Regarding Research Question**

**Are demographic variables (gender, age, department, and economy class), HS, BS, HM and BM significantly predicting attitudes toward sexual harassment?**

SHAS revealed three subfactors, therefore, the predictive power of demographic variables, HS, BS, BM and HM in predicting attitudes toward sexual harassment were analyzed separately for each subscale.

In a two-step sequential regression analysis, the unique contribution of demographic variables, HS, BS, HM, and BM on three subscales of attitudes toward sexual harassment (provocative behavior, normal flirtations, and perceptions SH as a trivial matter) were investigated. In Step I, age, economy class, department, and gender were entered, followed by HS, BS, HM and BM in Step II. Although, gender is not a continuous variable, but it can be entered into the regression equation by coding is as dummy variable. Hence, gender was coded as a dummy variable for regression analyses. With sequential multiple regression, it was assessed if addition of HS, BS, HM and BM improved prediction of each subfactor of attitudes toward SH, beyond that explained by differences in demographic variables.

#### **3.3.1 The Predictive Power of Demographic Variables and HS, BS, HM, BM on Acceptance of SH as a Result of Provocative Behavior of Women**

The regression analysis result indicated that R was significantly different from zero at the end of Step I,  $F(4, 303) = 10.12, p < .01$ . In other words, age, economy class, gender and department play a significant role in predicting acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behavior. The squared multiple correlation coefficient,  $R^2$  was .12. This indicates that 12% of variance in acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behavior was accounted by demographic variables. Out of demographic variables, only gender and economy class were significantly

predicting acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behavior;  $\beta = -.33$ ,  $t = -5.96$ ,  $p < .01$  and  $\beta = -.12$ ,  $t = -2.24$ ,  $p < .05$ , respectively. As can be seen in Table 3.3, neither age nor department was played a significant role in predicting the attitudes toward SH.

In Step II after the inclusion of second group of variables (HS, BS, HM and BM), R was significant,  $F(4, 299) = 139.15$ ,  $p < .01$ , meaning the entering HS, BS, HM and BM improved  $R^2$ . The change in  $R^2$ , in this step, was .30, which indicates that 30% of variance in acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behavior was accounted by the second block of variables. After Step 2, only gender ( $\beta = -.14$ ,  $t = -2.49$ ,  $p < .05$ ), HS ( $\beta = .34$ ,  $t = 5.65$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and BM ( $\beta = .30$ ,  $t = 4.31$ ,  $p < .01$ ) significantly predicted acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behavior (See Table 3.3). Economy class was not found to be significant predictor, although it was in Step I.

**Table 3.3** Summary of Sequential Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Acceptance of Sexual Harassment as a Result of Provocative Behavior

Variable	Model 1				Model 2			
	B (Std. Error)	$\beta$	t	p	B (Std. Error)	$\beta$	t	p
Age	-.05 (.15)	-.02	-.35	n.s.	-.03 (.13)	-.01	-.21	n.s.
Department	-2.08 (1.06)	-.11	-1.96	n.s.	-.67 (.88)	-.04	-.77	n.s.
Economy Class	-1.52 (.67)	-.12	-2.24	.05	-.73 (.56)	-.06	-1.30	n.s.
Gender	-6.40 (1.07)	-.33	-5.96	.01	-2.77 (1.11)	-.14	-2.50	.05
BS					-.027 (.06)	-.03	-.46	n.s.
HS					.30 (.054)	.34	5.65	.01
HM					.09 (.06)	.08	1.40	n.s.
BM					.30 (.07)	.30	4.31	.01
R		.34				.65		
$R^2$		.12				.42		
Adjusted $R^2$		.11				.41		
$R^2$ Change		.12				.30		
F Change in $R^2$		10.12*				39.15**		
Sig. F Change		.01				.01		

\*df = 4, 303, \*\*df = 4, 299 Predictors: Age, Department, Economy Class, Gender, Benevolent Sexism (BS), Hostile Sexism (HS), Hostility toward Men (HM), Benevolence toward Men (BM). Criterion Variable: Acceptance of Sexual Harassment as Provocative Behavior.



### **3.3.2 The Predictive Power of Demographic Variables and HS, BS, HM, BM on Acceptance of SH as Normal Flirtations**

In order to investigate variables predicting acceptance of SH as normal flirtations, sequential multiple regression was again run. Demographic variables (age, gender, department, and economy class) were entered the regression equation first, followed by HS, BS, HM and BM in the second step. In Step I, it was found that R was significantly different from zero,  $F(4, 303) = 9.19, p < .01$ ; meaning that at least one of the demographic variables significantly predicts acceptance of SH as normal flirtations. The squared multiple correlation coefficient,  $R^2$  was .11, indicating that 11% of variance in acceptance of SH as normal flirtations was uniquely accounted by demographic variables. Gender ( $\beta = -.25, t = -4.49, p < .01$ ), age ( $\beta = -.18, t = -3.27, p < .05$ ) and economy class ( $\beta = -.12, t = 2.1, p < .05$ ) were found to be significant predictors. As can be seen in Table 3.4, department was not played a significant role in predicting attitudes toward SH.

In Step II, HS, BS, HM and BM were entered in the regression equation. According to this equation, inclusion of second group of variables, the F change was  $F(4, 299) = 2.91, p < .05$ , which means that the second group of variables (HS, BS, HM and BM) were significantly predicting acceptance of SH as normal flirtations. In Step II, the change in  $R^2$  was .03, which indicates that 3 % of variance in acceptance of SH as normal flirtations was accounted uniquely by the HS, BS, HM and BM. Furthermore, standardized coefficients ( $\beta$ ) and t values indicated that after Step 2, gender ( $\beta = -.26, t = -3.70, p < .01$ ), BM ( $\beta = -.23, t = -2.70, p < .05$ ), BS ( $\beta = .22, t = 3.03, p < .05$ ) and age ( $\beta = -.18, t = -3.29, p < .05$ ) significantly predicted acceptance of SH as normal flirtations (See Table 3.4 for detailed information). Economy class was not found to be significant predictor, although it was in Step I.

In summary, the analysis revealed that gender, BM and age was negatively and significantly associated with the participants' agreement on the favorable attitudes toward SH an acceptance of SH as normal flirtations between men and women.

On the other hand, BS has a significant and positive role in predicting SH as normal flirtations. Although not significant, HS has a positive ( $\beta = .10$ ,  $t = 1.38$ , n.s) and HM has a negative ( $\beta = -.04$ ,  $t = -.54$ , n.s) association with favorable attitudes toward SH as normal flirtations.

**Table 3.4** Summary of Sequential Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Acceptance of Sexual Harassment as Normal Flirtations

Variable	Model 1				Model 2			
	B (SE)	$\beta$	t	p	B (SE)	$\beta$	t	p
Age	-.33 (.10)	-.18	-3.27	.01	-.33 (.10)	-.18	-3.30	.01
Department	-.51 (.70)	-.04	-.72	n.s.	-.31 (.70)	-.03	-.45	n.s.
Economy Class	.93 (.45)	.12	2.10	.05	.76 (.45)	.09	1.70	n.s.
Gender	-3.17 (.70)	-.25	-4.50	.01	-3.27 (.89)	-.26	-3.70	.01
BS					.14 (.05)	.22	3.03	.01
HS					.06 (.04)	.10	1.37	n.s.
HM					-.03 (.05)	-.04	-.54	n.s.
BM					-.15 (.06)	-.23	-2.70	.01
R		.33				.38		
R <sup>2</sup>		.11				.14		
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.01				.12		
R <sup>2</sup> Change		.11				.03		
F Change in R <sup>2</sup>		9.19*				2.90**		
Sig. F Change		.01				.05		

\*df = 4, 303, \*\*df = 4, 299 Predictors: Age, Department, Economy Class, Gender, Benevolent Sexism (BS), Hostile Sexism (HS), Hostility toward Men (HM), Benevolence toward Men (BM). Criterion Variable: Acceptance of Sexual Harassment as Normal Flirtations.

### 3.3.3 The Predictive Power of Demographic Variables and HS, BS, HM, BM on of SH as a Trivial Matter

Sequential multiple regression was conducted to examine whether acceptance of SH as a trivial matter was predicted by HS, BS, HM, BM and demographic variables (age, gender, department, and economy class). Demographic variables

were entered the regression equation first, followed by HS, BS, HM, and BM in the second step.

As can be seen in Table 3.5, it was found that R was found significantly different from zero in Step I, ( $F(4, 303) = 6.92, p < .01$ ). This means that demographic variables play a significant role in predicting unfavorable attitudes of SH as a trivial matter.  $R^2$  was .08 ; indicating that 8 % of variance in acceptance of SH as a trivial matter was uniquely accounted by age, gender, economy class and department. Unique contributions of demographic variables revealed that, only gender ( $\beta = -.25, t = -4.38, p < .01$ ) and economy class ( $\beta = -.15, t = -2.61, p < .05$ ) were found to be significantly predicting unfavorable attitudes toward SH as a trivial matter. Department and age were not played a significant role in predicting attitudes toward SH.

HS, BS, HM and BM were added in the regression equation in Step II after controlling the influence of demographic variables. With the inclusion of the second group of variables, the F change was  $F(4, 299) = 2.88, p < .05$ , meaning that the second group of variables (HS, BS, HM and BM) were significantly predicting acceptance of SH as a trivial matter. In Step II, the change in  $R^2$  was .03, which indicates that 3 % of variance in acceptance of SH as a trivial matter was accounted uniquely by the HS, BS, HM and BM. In addition, BS ( $\beta = -.20, t = -2.66, p < .05$ ), gender ( $\beta = -.16, t = -2.19, p < .05$ ), economy class ( $\beta = .12, t = -2.16, p < .05$ ) and department ( $\beta = -.11, t = -1.98, p < .05$ ) were found to be significantly predicted acceptance of SH as a trivial matter. (See Table 3.5 for detailed information).

In summary, the analysis indicated that BS, gender, economy class and department were negatively and significantly associated with the participants' agreement on the unfavorable attitudes toward SH as a serious issue. BS was found to be the strongest predictor. Although not significant, BM ( $\beta = .139, t = 1.62, n.s$ ) and HS ( $\beta = .07, t = 0.95, n.s$ ) has positive; HM has a negative ( $\beta = -.10, t = -1.39, n.s$ ) association with favorable attitudes toward SH as a trivial matter.

**Table 3.5** Summary of Sequential Regression Analysis for Variables Predicting Acceptance of Sexual Harassment as a Trivial Matter

Variable	Model 1				Model 2			
	B (SE)	$\beta$	t	p	B (SE)	$\beta$	t	p
Age	-.086 (.06)	-.07	-1.33	n.s.	-.08 (.06)	-.07	-1.29	n.s.
Department	-.82 (.44)	-.11	-1.85	n.s.	-.88 (.44)	-.11	-1.98	.05
Economy Class	-.73 (.28)	-.15	-2.61	.01	-.61 (.28)	-.12	-2.16	.05
Gender	-1.96 (.45)	-.25	-4.38	.01	-1.23 (.56)	-.16	-2.19	.05
BS					-.08 (.03)	-.20	-2.66	.01
HS					.03 (.03)	.07	.95	n.s.
HM					-.04 (.03)	-.10	-1.39	n.s.
BM					.06 (.04)	.14	1.62	n.s.
R		.29				.34		
R <sup>2</sup>		.08				.12		
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>		.07				.09		
R <sup>2</sup> Change		.08				.03		
F Change in R <sup>2</sup>		6.92*				2.88**		
Sig. F Change		.01				.05		

\*df = 4, 303, \*\*df = 4, 299 Predictors: Age, Department, Economy Class, Gender, Benevolent Sexism (BS), Hostile Sexism (HS), Hostility toward Men (HM), Benevolence toward Men (BM). Criterion Variable: Acceptance of Sexual Harassment as a Social Problem.

## **CHAPTER IV**

### **DISCUSSION**

The main aim of this thesis was to explore the relationship between attitudes toward sexual harassment and ambivalent sexist attitudes toward women and toward men. In order to reach this aim, sexual harassment attitudes scale developed by Turgut and Salman (2006); which was covering three main constructs underlying these attitudes were used. Since, SHAS with three subscales have not been tested previously; their relationship with ambivalent sexism (ASI) and ambivalence toward men (AMI) were tested through regression analyses with each SHAS subfactor held as dependent variable. Specifically, predictive powers of some descriptive variables, especially gender, and HS, BS, HM and BM in explaining attitudes toward sexual harassment (provocative behavior, normal flirtations and trivial matter) were investigated. In this section, after evaluating the main findings in the order of analyses given above, main contributions of the study will be presented. Afterwards, limitations of the study and future directions for researchers will be elaborated upon.

#### **4.1 General Evaluation of the Findings**

##### **4.1.1 Gender Differences among the Study Variables**

Main effects of gender on study variables were assessed by one way ANOVA analysis. Analysis revealed significant main effects of gender on accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors of women and on accepting SH as normal

flirtations between men and women. Men were found to score higher than women on acceptance of SH as the result of provocative behavior of women. Similarly, men scored higher than women on acceptance of SH as normal flirtations between men and women. This was an expected finding because they were in line with previous studies' findings of sex differences in tolerance towards sexual harassment (Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Murrell & Dietz-Uhler, 1993; Sigal & Jacobsen, 1999). Past researches also reported that men defined SH narrower than women (Gutek et al., 1980; Mazer & Percival, 1989; Rotundo, Nguyen, & Sackett, 2001). However, this study differs from previous studies in differentiating the subfactors underlying attitudes toward sexual harassment. As results revealed, attitudes toward sexual harassment scale has three factors; meaning that unfavorable or favorable thoughts regarding sexual harassment stem from these three distinct dimensions. Although men and women did not differ from each other in endorsing SH as a trivial social problem, men are more likely to believe that SH occurs because of the way women dress and behave and SH can be considered as natural outcome of the relationship between men and women. Present study's findings demonstrated that men endorse more than women that SH was provoked by the way women dress, behave or talk; that if a woman really do not want sexual advances from men, she can prevent it and women sometimes use their sexuality as an advantage to get better grades or promotion. Therefore, if a woman was sexually harassed, it was her fault and she was the one who is to blame.

On the other hand, men and women were not significantly different in their scores for accepting SH as a trivial matter. The reason men and women resisted in accepting SH as a trivial problem may be reluctance to overtly state that SH is an issue that is exaggerated. It is noteworthy that although both men and women acknowledged that SH is a social problem, men stated more than women that it is natural for men to be assertive to start a relationship and to flirt with a woman they found attractive, and with who they are not in a romantic relationship. This shows that as long as gender role specific behaviors were not violated by women and women stayed in line with these roles, SH was perceived as a social problem.

That's why sexist beliefs toward women and moreover sexist beliefs toward men were also examined to further explore attitudes toward SH.

Analyses revealed that there were significant gender differences in endorsement of HS, BS, HM and BM. In terms of HS, as expected, men scored higher than women did. This finding is in line with what was reported by Glick and Fiske (1996) and Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002). In other words, men endorse dominative paternalism, competitive gender differentiation and heterosexual intimacy more than women. Therefore, male participants can be considered as being more hostile sexists when compared to female participants of this study. Although, men also scored higher on BS than women, this difference was not significant. Similar results were found by other researchers (Glick et al., 2000; Gülçür, 2006; Sakallı-Uğurlu, 2002). The reason why female and male participants were not differed in BS was explained by Glick et al. (2000) as reflections of females' reaction to HS by endorsing more BS; a pattern claimed to be observed in more gender traditional countries. Another explanation of women's endorsement of BS can be based on system-justification theory (Jost & Banaji, 1994); which suggests that subordinate group's tendency to accept its own inferiority against the dominant group. Specifically, women tended to score high in BS, a tendency related with men's high levels of BS and HS and that helps women to perceive themselves under the protection of idealized image BS promises (Sakallı-Uğurlu & Glick, 2003).

In terms of HM and BM, men and women differed significantly in both constructs. Women endorsed more on HM and less on BM than men did. Additionally, men endorsed BM more and HM less than did women. These findings are similar with Glick and Fiske (1996) and Gülçür (2006). Consistent with expectations, women resent power of men and their sexual aggressiveness and ascribe negative traits to men more than men do. On the other hand, men are more likely to embrace the positive side of sexism towards their own sex when compared with women. This tendency was explained by Glick and Fiske (1999) as bias against outgroup (women's hostility towards men) and being in favor of one's ingroup (men's benevolence towards men). Also, Chapleau, Oswald and

Russell (2007) suggested that men's tendency to score high on BM when compared to women explains men's willingness to subordinate women.

Since the main research questions of this thesis were to explore whether gender, ambivalence towards women and ambivalence toward men predicted attitudes toward sexual harassment on three distinct factors (provocative beliefs, normal flirtations and trivial matter), predictive power of the concerned variables were investigated separately. In the below sections, main findings will be discussed.

#### **4.1.2 The Predictive Power of Demographic Variables, HS, BS, HM, and BM on Acceptance of SH as a Result of Provocative Behavior of Women**

The regression analysis results indicated that in Step I, demographic variables (age, economy class, gender and department) played a significant role in predicting acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behavior. This indicated that 12% of variance in acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behavior was accounted by demographic variables. Upon investigating unique contributions of demographic variables, only gender and economy class were found to be significantly predicting acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behavior. In other words, gender and how participants see their income level were affecting their attitudes toward sexual harassment. Male participants were more likely to believe that SH occurs because of the provocative behaviors of women. Although, economy class contributed little to the model, it was a significant predictor. Interestingly, participants who view themselves belonging to the lower economy class had scores higher on accepting SH as provocative behaviors of women.

In Step II after the inclusion of second group of variables (HS, BS, HM and BM) the variance explained by the model increased by 30%. After Step II, gender, HS and BM significantly predicted acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behavior. Economy class was not found to be a significant predictor, although it was in Step I. This finding suggests that HS and BM along with gender are significantly predicting endorsement of SH as provocative behaviors of women;



thus reflecting more tolerance to SH. Although men were more likely to believe that SH occurs because of women's provocative behavior; ambivalent attitudes toward women and men, specifically, HS and BM explained these attitudes more than gender did. In other words, HS and BM are stronger predictors than gender in identification of acceptance of SH as provocative behaviors of women. These findings were similar to previous studies which reported ambivalent sexism and HS were important predictors of tolerance to sexual harassment (Russell & Trigg, 2004), and HS in predicting men's likelihood to harass sexually (Begany & Milburn, 2002). Both men and women who were high in HS were found to be more accepting of SH as a result of women's provocative behaviors. This was an expected finding because HS covers ideas of women who try to gain control over men through using sexual attraction and their sexuality to tease men. Thus, people who endorse HS might be more likely to believe that women's acts as sexual teases and this may be perceived as a justification for sexual harassment. The stronger contribution of HS suggests that acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behaviors of women is more related to the general derogation of females than subjectively positive and affectionate attitudes regarding to the idealization of women who conform to the traditional norms.

In a similar vein, participants who are high on BM are more accepting of SH as the result of women's provocative behavior. Since BM presumes men as protectors and providers and taps positive evaluation of traditional gender roles, those who are high on BM would likely to believe that SH occurs because some women who are incongruent with these gender roles, who seduce men via provocative dressing, or behaviors. A similar finding was found by Chapleau, Oswald and Russell (2007), which indicated that not HM but BM predicted rape myth acceptance. Another explanation may be that since women had to assume status through men, the only way to be approved by the dominated group is to follow positive attitudes toward them. Thus, seeing sexual harassment is an event resulted by provoking behavior of "other" women, would protect women from being out of the system if they behave consistent with the traditional gender roles. This line of reasoning was also applicable to what system-justification theory suggests. People want to justify the existing system through accepting status quo

(Jost & Kay, 2005). It has been argued that gender stereotyping of men's superiority in achievement domains and gender stereotypes of women as communal are embraced both by the subordinate group and the dominant group because it contributes to the image that the existing role division is fair and legitimate. Therefore, endorsing BM, which covers seeking company of men, accepting them as protectors and providers, taking care of men in domestic needs, would be affecting acceptance of sexual harassment of women who tease or provoke men through using sexuality and who invited sexually harassing behavior.

#### **4.1.3 The Predictive Power of Demographic Variables and HS, BS, HM, BM on Acceptance of SH as Normal Flirtations**

In order to investigate variables predicting acceptance of SH as normal flirtations, sequential multiple regression was again run. Demographic variables (age, gender, department, and economy class) were entered the regression equation first, followed by HS, BS, HM and BM in the second step. In Step I, it was found that 11% of variance in acceptance of SH as normal flirtations was uniquely accounted by demographic variables. In particular, gender, age and economy class were found to be significant predictors. However, department was not played a significant role in predicting attitudes toward SH. Firstly, participants' gender again explained how they scored on accepting SH as normal flirtations. Men are more likely to view SH as a natural outcome of the relationship between men and women. Since men are considered to be initiators of the intimate relationship and were the ones who are more assertive and dominant in a romantic relationship (Sakallı & Curun, 2001), it is plausible that sexual advances made by men can be seen normal and acceptable (e.g. it is only natural that man to make sexual advances to a woman he finds attractive). It is the woman who misunderstood these behaviors.

Age was found to be predicting of SH as normal flirtations, although it was not found to be significant in predicting SH as provocative behaviors of women. However, the relationship was negative, suggesting that younger participants

endorsed more than older participants that the beliefs reflecting sexually harassing behaviors as normal flirtations. This is not surprising because at early ages of adulthood, young people may not have developed rational ideas of what constitutes an intimate relationship, causing them fail in discerning sexually harassing behavior. Reilly, Lott and Gallogly (1986) also reported that younger participants were more accepting of sexual harassment. This study contributes their finding through testing three different dimensions of attitudes towards sexual harassment. It is interesting to find age as a significant predictor of this factor; because viewing SH as normal flirtations encompasses very ambiguous forms of sexual harassment such as sexual jokes, touching body parts of opposite sex, looking, making sexual advances to women who are attractive. In sum, younger university students were expected to be not very critical and sensitive to milder forms of SH.

Another interesting result was the effect of economy class in acceptance of SH as normal flirtations, because with this factor the relationship was positive; indicating that participants who view themselves in high income class are more likely to state that sexually harassing behavior is natural in daily life. Although, this finding might be seen as contradicting, in fact it is not. Since high socio economic status can be assumed to be associated with more egalitarian beliefs, and being liberal, people who stated that they belong to high income status, may view flirtations in job or in school and being tolerant of sexual jokes or behaviors are a sign of being egalitarian. Since METU students were argued to be liberal (Sakallı-Uğurlu & Glick, 2003), those who also view themselves belonging to high income class were unlikely to accept that the behaviors given in the factor were perceived as SH.

Since ambivalent attitudes towards men and women were claimed to be significant predictors; in Step II, HS, BS, HM and BM were entered in the regression equation. Inclusion of second group of variables significantly predicted acceptance of SH as normal flirtations. Furthermore, after Step 2, BM and BS significantly predicted acceptance of SH as normal flirtations. After inclusion of

sexism variables, economy class was not found to be significant predictor. In detail, BS has a significant and positive role in predicting SH as normal flirtations. Participants who are high on BS are more likely to endorse SH as normal flirtations; thus believing that it is natural for men to make sexual advances to the woman he finds attractive and touching to and looking at the opposite sex is normal. Since high BS people are more likely to accept or tolerate sexual advances when these behaviors are interpreted as protective or affectionate and as flattering of women by showing interest as long as women conform to traditional roles and not question the authority of men. Similarly, Sakalli and Curun (2001) found that high BS participants were more positive towards stereotypes of romantic relationships; meaning that they agree that in romantic relationships man should be dominant and initiator and woman should be submissive and accepting or receptive. Another explanation of this can be found in what Viki, Abrams and Masser (2004) suggested. In their study, Viki et al. (2004) tested role of BS in participants' evaluation of rape. They found that high BS accounted less blame on the rape perpetrator and more on rape victim, claiming that BS protection was not for all women. They proposed that those high in BS implicitly based their judgments on inappropriate behaviors of the rape victim even if it had been stated that the perpetrator used force to have intercourse with the victim. As put by Glick and Fiske (1996) BS generally goes unnoticed and unchallenged but is another way of discrimination of women. Hence, BS assumes submissiveness of women and actually justifies gender inequality.

On the other hand, although BM was found to be a significant predictor, contrary to expectations, it was negatively associated with the participants' agreement on the favorable attitudes toward SH and acceptance of SH as normal flirtations between men and women. Participants who were high on BM were less accepting of SH as normal flirtations. In the attitudes toward sexual harassment scale, this factor reflected views that sexual harassment is a natural outcome of relationships where men supposed to be active, assertive and insistent. But, those of the participants who are high on BM would like see men as admirable and women need men as romantic partners and without them women would be incomplete.

Therefore, these participants might have rejected the idea that this balanced system of interdependence was argued to be labeled as SH. As previously stated in the introduction section, BM and BS presume positive aspects of sexist beliefs toward men and women. However, these positive beliefs also serve to maintain and justify male dominance and power and female traditional gender roles. As O’Brein and Major (2005) found, system-justifying beliefs (accepting the existing gender role stereotypes and status quo) were associated with more positive well being among members of low ethnic group who are not highly identified themselves with their group. Since, system justifying beliefs contribute to cope with the disadvantaged status of and the prejudice against the low status group (i.e. women). Thus, participants with high BM had a tendency not to accept SH as normal flirtations that might be resulted from the beliefs underlying in BM reflecting that men have to be cherished by women and have to be taken care of them.

#### **4.1.4 The Predictive Power of Demographic Variables and HS, BS, HM, BM on of SH as a Trivial Matter**

In another analysis, whether acceptance of SH as a trivial matter was predicted by HS, BS, HM, BM and demographic variables (age, gender, department, and economy class) were examined. Demographic variables were entered the regression equation first, followed by HS, BS, HM, and BM in the second step. It was found that, demographic variables play a significant role in predicting unfavorable attitudes of SH as a trivial matter. 8% of variance in acceptance of SH as a trivial matter, was uniquely accounted by age, gender, economy class and department. Unique contributions of demographic variables revealed that, only gender and economy class were found to be significantly predicting unfavorable attitudes toward SH as a trivial matter. As discussed previously, this finding was expected. Men who were more accepting of SH as a result of provocative behavior and as natural flirtations, also stated that SH is a trivial matter.

HS, BS, HM and BM were added in the regression equation in Step II after controlling the influence of demographic variables. Second group of variables

(HS, BS, HM and BM) were significantly predicting acceptance of SH as a trivial matter. In addition, BS, gender, economy class and department were found to be significantly predicted acceptance of SH as a trivial matter. It should be noted that the relationship with all variables were negative. BS and gender were found to be the stronger predictors on this factor. Women are more likely to state that SH is a social problem more than men do; moreover women are expected to believe that SH is a very disturbing situation and a way of degrading women. Secondly, in terms of the effect of department, it can be concluded that participants who were in social sciences are less likely to view SH as a trivial matter; meaning that accepting SH as a social problem. The effect of department was not expected but this relationship is meaningful, since social sciences students are more familiar with gender issues and are more likely to overtly state that SH exists as a serious problem in the society.

As in the framework of BS, it has a negative association with trivial perceptions of SH, meaning that participants who were high on BS were less likely to view SH a trivial problem; and accepting SH as a serious problem. It is meaningful to find BS as a significant predictor because this factor taps the ideas that SH are not a disturbing social problem, is not a way of degrading women. Participants who were high on BS would more likely to oppose these explicit arguments. Moreover, BS covers protectionism towards women and seeing them as pure and the weak sex, who needs protection from men, hence high BS would be expected to acceptance of SH as a disturbing social problem. As people may have ambivalent attitudes toward women, so they have ambivalent attitudes toward sexual harassment. High BS was associated with considering flirtations as natural and men's sexual advances toward woman they found attractive as normal, and approve men's assertive and dominant role as initiators, sometimes, aggressively, in romantic relationships; it is at the same time associated with viewing SH as a serious social problem. This situation is line with what system justification theory suggests. Endorsing BS contributes increased tolerance to gender inequality and acceptance of existing state of gender roles in society; because BS gives the false image that women are valued and evaluated positively, flattered by increased

attention of men, as long as they assume their submissive role. Since, these beliefs help perceptions of the system as whole and legitimate and fair (Jost & Kay, 2005)

## **4.2 Main Contributions and Conclusions of the Thesis**

This thesis contributed to the literature in two main ways. Firstly, for the first time relationship between attitudes toward women and men and their effects on attitudes toward sexual harassment were investigated. Secondly, this relationship was examined with three different factors of attitudes toward sexual harassment. Finally, this thesis is the first one in Turkish literature which examined ASI, AMI and their relationship with sexual harassment.

This thesis is the first study, which examined the association between attitudes toward sexual harassment and not only ambivalent attitudes toward women but also toward men. Previous studies analyzed relationship between ambivalent sexism toward women and tolerance and perceptions of sexual harassment (Russell & Trigg, 2004; Wiener et al., 1997), hostile sexism as a predictor of sexual harassment (Begany & Milburn, 2002), predicting likelihood to harass by traditional gender roles (Pryor et al., 1995). However, effects of ambivalence toward men on perceptions of sexual harassment were not tested up to now. With this thesis; an important gap in the attitudes toward sexual harassment was filled. Furthermore, by integrating demographic variables such as gender, age, economy class, HS, BS, HM and BM and by investigating their interplay with sexual harassment, supporting evidence to the current literature was provided. It has been found that HS, BS, HM and BM are predictors of different subfactors of attitudes toward SH; thus each has different functions in endorsement of each subfactor. This also shows that attitudes toward sexual harassment can not be considered as a single factor but it includes three distinct but related constructs.

Moreover, another important contribution of this thesis was to the Turkish literature. Sexual harassment is a subject that has not yet attracted enough

attention. Wasti et al. (2000) study revealed that sexual harassment is evident in Turkish culture. They suggested that in patriarchal cultures like Turkey, it is natural for men to enjoy sexuality whereas not for women, thus in organizations this is reflected as more tolerance to sexual harassment. In three other studies that have used Turkish samples, sexual harassment were studied; coping behaviors in SH context (Wasti & Cortina, 2002); effects of culture and gender on attitudes toward sexual harassment (Sigal et al., 2005); effects of individual differences on SH perceptions (Toker, 2003). Current study contributed to previous findings of abovementioned studies by analyzing a pervasive phenomenon apparent in Turkey also in different aspects. This thesis was first to study the sources of attitudes toward sexual harassment in a Turkish sample and found that gender, HS, BS and BM predicted these attitudes. It has been shown that not only traditional female gender roles but also their link with male gender roles and attitudes toward men affected how people view sexual harassment.

Finally, Sexual Harassment Attitudes Scale (SHAS) developed by Turgut and Salman (2006) was tested with another independent sample; a supportive finding for its psychometric abilities was presented. SHAS was first developed by Mazer and Percival (1989) based on Tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory (TSHI; Lott, Reilley, & Howard, 1982). Since then, SHAS was used in various studies (Ford & Donis, 1996; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Mazer & Percival, 1989; Sigal et al., 2005). However, neither of the studies analyzed factors lying behind the attitudes towards sexual harassment. Lott, Reilly and Howard (1982) proposed that tolerance for sexual harassment has three factors; “flirtations are natural”, “feminist beliefs” and “provocative behavior”. Based on their conceptualization, this study proved that SHAS was a reliable and valid sexual harassment attitudes scale with 3 different factors; namely “provocative behaviors”, “natural flirtations” and “trivial matter”. As discussed in the above sections, different aspects of attitudes toward sexual harassment are tapped into each factor; therefore this scale provides to be an influential tool fully covering the construct.



### **4.3 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

This study is not free of limitations and some precautions are needed for future studies. First of all, the sample participated in this study was comprised of Middle East Technical University (METU) students. Therefore, generalizations based on findings are limited. Moreover, METU students can be considered as more egalitarian and liberal (Sakallı-Uğurlu & Glick, 2003) than Turkish population. This explains the relatively lower mean values for attitudes toward sexual harassment and towards women and men. Thus, future studies are advised to use samples from different cities, age groups, political views. Moreover, working professional views for sexual harassment might vary from student samples, hence studying with the employed is strongly recommended.

Secondly, although SHAS scale was found to be reliable and valid, the “trivial matter” factor’s reliability level was lower than expected. This may be due the wording of statements in an explicit way. The scale may be revised to tap more overt ideas concerning accepting SH as a trivial matter. In addition to that, most of that factors items were reverse coded, which caused inconvenience in interpretation in findings. Therefore reverse coded statements are better rewritten to tap not “factual” but more attitudinal aspects. Additionally, SHAS was tested for only METU students with two different samples; it has to be tested with different samples to provide support for its psychometric abilities.

Least but not last, AMI can be considered a new construct. There have been only two studies that have used Turkish samples (Glick et al, 2004; Gülçür, 2006). However, up to now any Turkish study examined AMI and sexual harassment; hence comparisons of thesis findings with other studies could not be done.

As mentioned previously in the discussion section, system justification theory might explain the reason for why there are associations between the study variables. Future studies should specifically examine the relationships between system justification theory and examined variables to find empirical support for the arguments suggested in this thesis.

Finally, it is hoped that this thesis provides ground for developing sexual harassment policies in universities, which are places where the relationship between professors and students and peer students are very valuable and sensitive.

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## APPENDICES

### APPENDIX A

SEXUAL HARASSMENT ATTITUDE SCALE  
CİNSEL TACİZE İLİŞKİN TUTUMLAR ÖLÇEĞİ

**ÖNEMLİ:** Aşağıda verilen maddelerin bazılarında “CİNSEL TACİZ” kavramından bahsedilmektedir. Burada cinsel taciz ile kastedilen her türlü istenmeyen cinsel içerikli yaklaşımlardır. Lütfen hem fiziksel hem de tüm sözel cinsel içerikli yaklaşımları göz önünde bulundurarak soruları cevaplandırınız.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç					Çok
Katılmıyorum					Katılıyorum
___	1)- Samimi arkadaşlık olmadığı halde karşı cinsiyete sık sık dokunulmasında bir sakınca görmüyorum.				
___	2)- Cinsel içerikli şakaların yapılması beni rahatsız eder.*				
___	3)- Romantik ilişki içinde bulunmadığı biri tarafından anlamlı bakışlarla süzülme günü zevkli kılabilir.				
___	4)- Çekici bulunduğundan dolayı karşı cinsiyete yakınlaşmaya çalışmak doğaldır.				
___	5)- İstenmediği halde bir kişinin romantik ilişkiye zorlanması rahatsız edici bir durumdur.*				
___	6)- Açık kıyafet giyinmiş kadınların baştan aşağı süzülmesini normal karşılarım.				
___	7)- Çekici bir kişi kendisine cinsel yaklaşımların olabileceğini bilmeli ve bunlarla başa çıkmayı öğrenmelidir.				

- \_\_\_ 8)- Pek çok kadın, işyerinde ya da okulda iletişim halinde olduğu erkekleri birlikte olmayacakları halde cinsel açıdan kışkırtmaktan zevk alırlar.
- \_\_\_ 9)- Bir erkek tarafından cinsel olarak rahatsız edilen pek çok kadın; erkeğin bu davranışını konuşmaları, hareketleri ya da giyinişleriyle kışkırtmışlardır.
- \_\_\_ 10)- Cinsel tacizin ciddi bir sosyal problem olduğunu düşünüyorum.\*
- \_\_\_ 11)- Üst konumdaki birinin cinsel ilgisine yüz vermek, kadınlar tarafından kendi iş/okul koşullarını iyileştirmek için sıkça kullanılır.
- \_\_\_ 12)- Bir erkeğin çekici bulunduğu bir kadına cinsel yaklaşımlarda bulunması doğaldır.
- \_\_\_ 13)- Masum flörtleşmeler iş ya da okul gününü ilginç kılar.
- \_\_\_ 14)- Üst konumdaki bir kişinin alt konumundaki birinin gözünü korkutarak cinsel birlikteliğe zorlaması ciddi bir sosyal problemdir.\*
- \_\_\_ 15)- Cinsel tacize uğramış insanlar genelde buna davetiye çıkarmış insanlardır.
- \_\_\_ 16)- Bir kişiyle cinsel birlikteliği olan biri, artık o kişi hakkında cinsel taciz suçlamasında bulunamaz.
- \_\_\_ 17)- Tahrik edici kıyafetler giyen kadınlar cinsel tacize davetiye çıkartırlar.
- \_\_\_ 18)- Cinsel taciz kadınların uydurmasıdır.
- \_\_\_ 19)- Oturmasına, eğilmesine dikkat etmeyen kadın tacize maruz kalır.
- \_\_\_ 20)- Cinsel taciz kadınlara yapılan bir hakarettir.\*
- \_\_\_ 21)- Bir kadın eğer gerçekten istemezse hiçbir erkeğin ona cinsel tacizde bulunmasına fırsat vermez.
- \_\_\_ 22)- Cinsel taciz oldukça rahatsız edici bir durumdur.\*

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\* Items reverse-coded.

## APPENDIX B

THE AMBIVALENT SEXISM INVENTORY (GLICK & FISKE, 1996)  
ÇELİŞİK DUYGULU CİNSİYETÇİLİK ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen her bir ifade ile ne derece hemfikir olup olmadığınızı verilen ölçekteki sayılardan birini seçerek ifadenin yanındaki boşluğa yazınız.

1                      2                      3                      4                      5                      6  
**Hiç**                                                                                                                               **Çok**  
**Katılmıyorum**                                                                                                                               **Katılıyorum**

- \_\_\_ 1)- Ne kadar başarılı olursa olsun bir kadının sevgisine sahip olmadıkça bir erkek gerçek anlamda bütün bir insan olamaz.
- \_\_\_ 2)- Gerçekte birçok kadın “eşitlik” arıyoruz maskesi altında işe alınmalarda kendilerinin kayırılması gibi özel muameleler arıyorlar.
- \_\_\_ 3)- Bir felaket durumunda kadınlar erkeklerden önce kurtarılmalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 4)- Birçok kadın masum söz veya davranışları cinsel ayrımcılık olarak yorumlamaktadır.
- \_\_\_ 5)- Kadınlar çok çabuk alınırlar.
- \_\_\_ 6)- Karşı cinsten biri ile romantik ilişki olmaksızın insanlar hayatta gerçekten mutlu olamazlar.
- \_\_\_ 7)- Feministler gerçekte kadınların erkeklerden daha fazla güce sahip olmalarını istemektedirler.
- \_\_\_ 8)- Birçok kadın çok az erkekte olan bir saflığa sahiptir.
- \_\_\_ 9)- Kadınlar erkekler tarafından el üstünde tutulmalı ve korunmalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 10)- Birçok kadın erkeklerin kendileri için yaptıklarına tamamen minnettar olmamaktadırlar.
- \_\_\_ 11)- Kadınlar erkekler üzerinde kontrolü sağlayarak güç kazanmak hevesindedir.



- \_\_\_ 12)- Her erkeğin hayatında hayran olduğu bir kadın olmalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 13)- Erkekler kadınsız eksiktirler.
- \_\_\_ 14)- Kadınlar işyerlerindeki problemleri abartmaktadırlar.
- \_\_\_ 15)- Bir kadın bir erkeğin bağlılığını kazandıktan sonra genellikle o erkeğe sıkı bir yular takmaya çalışır.
- \_\_\_ 16)- Adaletli bir yarışmada kadınlar erkeklere karşı kaybettikleri zaman tipik olarak kendilerinin ayrımcılığa maruz kaldıklarından yakınır.
- \_\_\_ 17)- İyi bir kadın erkeği tarafından yüceltilmelidir.
- \_\_\_ 18)- Erkeklere cinsel yönden yaklaşılabilir olduklarını gösterircesine şakalar yapıp daha sonra erkeklerin tekliflerini reddetmekten zevk alan birçok kadın vardır.
- \_\_\_ 19)- Kadınlar erkeklerden daha yüksek ahlaki duyarlılığa sahip olma eğilimindedirler.
- \_\_\_ 20)- Erkekler hayatlarındaki kadın için mali yardım sağlamak için kendi rahatlarını gönüllü olarak feda etmelidirler.
- \_\_\_ 21)- Feministler erkeklere makul olmayan istekler sunmaktadırlar.
- \_\_\_ 22)- Kadınlar erkeklerden daha ince bir kültür anlayışına ve zevkine sahiptirler.

## APPENDIX C

### AMBIVALENCE TOWARD MEN INVENTORY (GLICK & FISKE, 1999) ERKEKLERE YÖNELİK ÇELİŞİK DUYGULAR ÖLÇEĞİ

Lütfen her bir ifade ile ne derece hemfikir olup olmadığınızı verilen ölçekteki sayılardan birini seçerek ifadenin yanındaki boşluğa yazınız.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç					Çok
Katılmıyorum					Katılıyorum

- \_\_\_ 1)- Çiftlerden ikisi de çalışıyor olsa bile, kadın evde erkeğine bakma konusunda daha fazla sorumluluk üstlenmelidir.
- \_\_\_ 2)- Bir erkek cinsel açıdan çekici bulduğu kadını yatağa atmak için ne gerekiyorsa yapmak konusunda tipik olarak hiç bir ahlaki değere sahip değildir.
- \_\_\_ 3)- Acil durumlarda erkekler kadınlara göre daha düşük olasılıkla kendilerini kaybedeceklerdir.
- \_\_\_ 4)- Erkekler kadınlara “yardım ediyor” gibi gözükrken, çoğunlukla kendilerinin kadınlardan daha iyi olduklarını kanıtlamaya çalışırlar.
- \_\_\_ 5)- Her kadının kendisini el üstünde tutacak bir erkeğe ihtiyacı vardır.
- \_\_\_ 6)- Eğer kendilerine yol gösterecek kadınlar olmasaydı erkekler dünyada kaybolurlardı.
- \_\_\_ 7)- Eğer kadının bir erkekle uzun süreli, bağlılık içeren bir ilişkisi yoksa bu hayatta gerçek anlamda kendini tamamlamış sayılmaz.
- \_\_\_ 8)- Erkekler hasta olduklarında bebekler gibi davranırlar.
- \_\_\_ 9)- Erkekler toplumda kadınlardan daha fazla kontrole sahip olmak için her zaman çabalarlar.

- \_\_\_ 10)- Erkekler temelde kadınlara maddi güvence sağlamak açısından yararlıdırlar.
- \_\_\_ 11)- Kadın haklarına duyarlı olduğunu iddia eden erkekler bile aslında ev işlerinin ve çocuk bakımının çoğunu kadının üstlendiği geleneksel bir ilişki isterler.
- \_\_\_ 12)- Her kadının hayran olduğu bir erkeği olmalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 13)- Erkekler başkalarını korumak için kendilerini tehlikeye atmaya daha gönüllüdürler.
- \_\_\_ 14)- Erkekler kadınlarla konuşurken genellikle baskın olmaya çalışırlar.
- \_\_\_ 15)- Çoğu erkek kadınlar için eşitliği sözde savunur ama bir kadını kendilerine eşit olarak görmeyi kaldıramazlar.
- \_\_\_ 16)- Kadınlar erkeksiz eksiktirler.
- \_\_\_ 17)- Özüne bakıldığında, çoğu erkek gerçekten çocuk gibidir.
- \_\_\_ 18)- Erkekler kadınlara oranla risk almaya daha gönüllüdürler.
- \_\_\_ 19)- Çoğu erkek, kadınlar üzerinde güç sahibi oldukları bir pozisyonda buldukları anda, üstü kapalı yolla bile olsa kadınları cinsel açıdan taciz ederler.
- \_\_\_ 20)- Kadınlar evde erkeklerine bakmalıdırlar çünkü eğer erkekler kendi kendilerine bakmak zorunda kalırlarsa bunu beceremezler.

## APPENDIX D

### DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

**Aşağıdaki demografik bilgileri lütfen eksiksiz olarak doldurunuz:**

- 1)- Cinsiyetiniz:      Kadın      Erkek
- 2)- Yaşınız: \_\_\_\_\_
- 3)- Bölümünüz:  Sosyal Bilimler      Fen Bilimleri
- 4)- Eğitim düzeyiniz nedir?
- a)- Resmi eğitimim yok     b)- İlkokul     c)- Ortaokul     d)- Lise
- f)- Yüksekokul mezunu     e)- Üniversite öğrencisi     g)- Üniversite mezunu
- h)- Yüksek lisans - doktora
- 5)- Ailenizin toplam aylık geliri ne kadardır? \_\_\_\_\_
- 6)- Ekonomik açıdan kendinizi aşağıdaki ölçek üzerinde nereye yerleştireceğinizi işaretleyiniz.
- Alt sınıf     1     2     3     4     5     6     7     Üst sınıf
- 7)- Hayatınızın bir döneminde herhangi bir cinsel tacize uğradınız mı?
- \_\_\_ Hayır     \_\_\_ Evet, sözel tacize uğradım     \_\_\_ Evet, fiziksel tacize uğradım

***KATILDIĞINIZ İÇİN  
TEŞEKKÜRLER...***