THE PREDICTORS OF ATTITUDES TOWARD SEXUAL HARASSMENT: LOCUS OF CONTROL, AMBIVALENT SEXISM, AND GENDER DIFFERENCES

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I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

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ABSTRACT

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The aim of the present research was to investigate attitudes toward sexual harassment (SH) and the relationships of these attitudes with locus of control and ambivalent sexism. A total of 311 university students from Middle East Technical University participated to the study. In order to measure attitudes toward SH, a new scale, Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale (SHAS), was developed by the author of the thesis and another researcher (Salman & Turgut, 2006). This scale consists of three subfactors which were accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors, accepting SH as normal flirtations between men and women, and endorsement of SH as a trivial matter. Locus of control was measured with Locus of Control Scale (LCS, Dağ, 2002) having five subfactors which were personal control, belief in chance, meaninglessness of the effortfulness, belief in fate, and belief in an unjust world. Lastly, sexist beliefs were measured with Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI, Glick & Fiske, 1996) having two factors which were hostile sexism and benevolent sexism. The results revealed that some domains of locus of control were significantly associated with sexist beliefs and subfactors of attitudes toward SH. In particular, people having internal personal control were more likely to accept SH as provocative

behaviors of women. In addition, people believing in external forces, such as belief in fate and powerful others were more likely to have sexist beliefs and tolerate SH by seeing provocative behaviors as causes of SH, by accepting SH as normal flirtations and by trivializing this problem.

This thesis aims to contribute to the literature by investigating (1) attitudes toward sexual harassment and its relationship with locus of control and (2) the roles of ambivalent sexism and gender differences in this relationship.

Keywords: Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment, Locus of Control, Ambivalent Sexism

ÖZ

CİNSEL TACİZE İLİŞKİN TUTUMLARI YORDAYAN FAKTÖRLER: KONTROL ODAĞI İNANCI, ÇELİŞİK DUYGULU CİNSİYETÇİLİK VE CİNSİYET FARKLILIKLARI

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Bu çalışmanın amacı cinsel tacize ilişkin tutumların kontrol odağı inancı ve çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik ile ilişkisini araştırmaktır. Bu çalışmaya 311 Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi öğrencisi katılmıştır. Cinsel tacize ilişkin tutumlar, tez yazarı ve diğer bir araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilen Cinsel Taciz Tutumlar Ölçeği (Salman & Turgut, 2006) ile ölçülmüştür. Bu ölçek cinsel tacizi kadınların kışkırtıcı davranışları sonucu olarak görme, cinsel tacizi doğal flörtleşmeler olarak algılama ve cinsel tacizi önemsiz bir problem olarak görme olmak üzere üç faktörden oluşmaktadır. Kontrol odağı inancı beş faktörden oluşan Kontrol Odağı İnancı Ölçeği (Dağ, 2002) ile ölçülmüştür. Bu faktörler; kişisel kontrol, şansa inanma, çabalamanın anlamsızlığı, kadercilik ve adil olmayan dünya inancı'dır. Son olarak, cinsiyetçi düşünceleri ölçmek için düşmanca ve korumacı cinsiyetçilik alt faktörlerini içeren Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik Ölçeği (Glick & Fiske, 1996) kullanılmıştır. Araştırma sonuçları kontrol odağı inancının bazı alt faktörlerinin cinsiyetçi düşüncelerle ve cinsel tacize ilişkin tutumların alt boyutlarıyla anlamlı bir şekilde ilişkili olduğunu

ortaya koymuştur. Kişisel kontrol inancı yüksek olan katılımcıların cinsel tacizi daha çok kadınların kışkırtıcı davranışları sonucu olarak görme eğiliminde oldukları bulunmuştur. Bunun yanında, kader ve güçlü diğerleri gibi dışsal güçlere inanan katılımcıların daha çok cinsiyetçi düşüncelere sahip oldukları, dolayısıyla cinsel tacize ilişkin tutumların alt boyutları ele alındığında cinsel tacize karşı daha toleranslı oldukları bulunmuştur.

Bu tez literatüre (1) cinsel tacize ilişkin tutumları ve bunların kontrol odağı inancı ile ilişkisini inceleyerek ve (2) çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik ile cinsiyet farklılıklarının bu ilişki üzerinde nasıl bir rol oynadığını göstererek katkıda bulunmayı hedeflemiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Cinsel Tacize İlişkin Tutumlar, Kontrol Odağı İnancı, Çelişik Duygulu Cinsiyetçilik

To

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

In everyday life many women experience various kinds of sexual comments, insults, gender-based hazing, threatening or hostile sexual acts. For example, on the street women can be exposed to unwelcomed sexual advances through verbal or physical actions. In a university a professor might invite a graduate student to dinner to discuss her thesis but he can create intimidating and hostile environment by trying to touch her and by accusing her of wearing sexy clothes. In the class, sexual jokes or stories might disturb students. In a workplace women can experience leering or ogling, unwanted touching, patting or pinching, and inappropriate proposals. Such examples can be seen as sexual harassment and they can be experienced in any social environments.

Sexual harassment (SH) has become an important social issue, with critical implications for the society general and for universities in particular (Illies, Hauserman, Schwochaus, & Stibal, 2003). Although sexually harassing behaviors between men and women has an extensive history, it is new to talk about and conduct researches on this concern. As Steinem (1983) wrote, "a few years ago this was just called life" (p.149). On the other hand, in recent years, as Mazer & Percival (1989) stated there have been collective consciousness about such behaviors. In a function of this consciousness, such behaviors have been redefined as undesirable and problematic. In addition, regarding the negative consequences SH has been constructed as a social problem.

To understand the factors related with people's attitudes toward such an increasingly important social issue is the focus of this study. Researches have shown that there are several factors affecting attitudes toward sexual harassment such as gender (e.g.,

Beauvais, 1986; Ford & Donis, 1996; Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Mazer &Percival, 1989; McCabe & Hardman, 2005; Reilly, Lott, Caldwell, & DeLuca, 1992), exposure to sexual harassment in the past (e.g., Mazer and Percival, 1989; Powell, 1983), and sexist attitudes (e.g., Blumenthal, 1998; Mazer & Percival, 1989; Murrell & Dietz-Uhler, 1993; Reilly et al., 1992; Pryor, Giedd, and Williams, 1995; Wiener & Gutek, 1999). However, the roles of some personality variables such as locus of control have not received wide attention in the literature. In this thesis, locus of control as a personal trait was examined to understand its relationship with attitudes toward sexual harassment. In general, the aims of the thesis were to explore following questions: How locus of control is associated with attitudes toward sexual harassment? Does ambivalent sexism play a significant role on the relationship between locus of control and attitudes toward SH? Do males and females have different tendencies in terms of locus of control, ambivalent sexism and attitudes toward SH? Thus, the goal of the thesis was to examine the relationships among locus of control, ambivalent sexism, and attitudes toward SH with considering gender differences.

In this chapter, firstly, the place of SH in the literature, the definition of SH, and the problem of SH by documenting statistical findings were presented. Later, predictors of attitudes toward SH such as gender, age, experience of SH, culture, gender stereotyping, ambivalent sexism, and locus of control were given. Finally, after Turkish studies related to this concern, the aims of the study were presented.

1.2 Sexual Harassment - Growing Research Area In Psychology

Sexual harassment has been increasingly popular in psychology literature (Ilies, et al., 2003). According to Madson and Shoda (2002), more researches are needed to understand which individual and situational factors affecting perceptions and attitudes toward sexual harassment, likelihood to sexual harassment, outcomes and reactions to being sexually harassed. In addition, researches on SH are important because they can shed light on perceptions and attitudes of other forms of sexual victimizations such as rape, domestic abuse that are also topics of social psychology.

Consequently, the importance of sexual harassment has been noticed by many researchers and the number of studies published on SH has increased. A search of the keyword SH by using the PsycINFO database showed that '1223 articles' published up to 2007. When we look at the number of articles published in years, it is seen that there is an increase especially in last ten years. Indeed, first studies have been published at the end of 70s and researches produced only 58 journal articles up to 1985. On the contrary, during subsequent 5-year periods (1986-1990, 1991-1995, 1996- 2000; 2001 – 2005), authors published 93, 241, 364, and 414 articles, respectively. Moreover, some journals have produced special issues on the topic. These are; the Journal of Social Issues in 1982 and 1995, the Journal of Vocational Behaviour in 1993, and Basic and Applied Social Psychology in 1995. These publications present the growing interest on sexual harassment in the field of psychology.

Researchers have examined various topics related with SH. For example, some researchers have studied the incidence and prevalence of SH (e.g., Mazer & Percival, 1989; Popovich, Licata, Nokovich, Martelli, & Zoloty, 2001; Reilly, Lott, & Gallogly, 1986; Rubin & Borgers, 1990) while others focused on the impacts of SH (e.g., Bergman, & Drasgow, 1999; Glomb, Munson, Hulin, Thacker & Gohmann, 1996; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). Moreover, the literature on SH indicates that the most studied topics in this area are the definition of sexually harassing behaviors and perception of SH (e.g., Colarell & Haaland, 2002; Crocker, 1983; Corr & Jackson, 2001; Fitzgerald & Ormerod, 1991; Powell, 1983; Valentine-French & Radtke, 1989). In addition, affected by the recent trend toward identifying behaviors and characteristics associated with harassment, there is an increasing demand for research on attitudes toward SH (Poppen & Segal, 1988).

1.3 Definition of Sexual Harassment

Judicibus and McCabe (2001) stated that people can perceive sexual harassment differently according to their different perceptions of behaviors as acceptable or unacceptable, their personal characteristics, prevailing attitudes, context of the

situation, and culture they live in. Since everyone might have different perceptions, the definition of SH should be widely accepted.

The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission EEOC (1980, p.74677) defined sexual harassment as:

> "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".

The American Psychological Association (APA; 1992) defined SH as sexual conduct performed in the connection with a psychologist's duties that is unwelcome, that creates a hostile workplace environment, or that would be considered abusive by a reasonable person in the context. American Association of University Women (AAUW, 2007) defined SH as unwanted and unwelcome sexual behavior that interferes with your life. SH is not behaviors that you like or want (for example wanted kissing, touching, flirting).

Regarding workplace sexual harassment first definition was made by MacKinnon (1979). She used two different types of sexual harassment which are 'hostile environment' and 'quid pro quo' sexual harassment. Hostile environment defined as unwanted or offensive sex-related verbal or physical conduct, without job outcomes being related to it (MacKinnon, 2005). In condition to hostile environment, a woman may be constantly felt or pinched, visually undressed and stared at, surreptitiously kissed, commented upon, manipulated into being found alone, and generally taken advantage of at work –but never promised or denied anything explicitly connected

with her job (MacKinnon, 2005). On the other hand, quid pro quo SH refers to the incidents where sexual cooperation is tied to job related threats or employment benefits. In condition of pro quid quo the woman must comply sexually or forget an employment benefit. For example, a woman who declined to join her employer in his bed while on a business trip was remained at lunch the next day that she was soon to be reviewed for reappointment, that her chances depended largely upon his support and recommendation, and that she would be well served if she linked both her professional work and her personal life more closely with his own needs. She did not so and subsequently she was not renewed (MacKinnon, 2005).

Researchers have been used different definitions for sexual harassment. For example, Benson and Thomson (1980) defined sexual harassment as 'any unwanted sexual leers, suggestions, comments, or physical contact which you find objectionable'. Moreover, in his study of definitions of sexual harassment in universities, Crocker (1983) investigated a variety of definitions in universities. For example, in some universities it was defined as 'unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature' and in others 'actual coercing of sexual relations, to the forcing of sexual attentions, verbal or physical'. Lott, Reilly, and Howard (1982) treat the terms – sexual assault, sexual intimidation, and sexual insult- separately and stress 'a continuum of behavior' from the extreme of physical sexual assault to intimidation though threat and bribery, to verbal and nonverbal sexual insults.

Till (1980) conducted a national survey and according to experiences of college women participated to this survey he made content analysis and got five categories of SH. These categories cover the behaviors MacKinnon's (1979) SH distinction, however they are further divided. These are "gender harassment (generalized sexist remarks and behavior, conveying sexist attitudes toward, such as telling offensive or sexist jokes), seductive behavior (offensive but sanction-free sexual advances, such as attempting to develop a romantic or sexual relationship despite the opposite party's efforts to discourage), sexual bribery (solicitation of sexual activity by promise of rewards), sexual coercion (solicitation of sexual activity by threat of

punishment), and sexual assault (gross sexual imposition or assault, such as making a forceful attempt to fondle, kiss, or grab)".

Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, and Magley (1999) have conducted extensive research to understand the psychological dimensions of SH. They have determined that there are three broad categories of sexual harassment. These are: "(1) Gender harassment: involves generalized sexist comments and behavior that convey insulting, degrading, and/or sexist attitudes. 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. (2) Unwanted sexual attention: ranged from unwanted, inappropriate, and offensive physical or verbal sexual advance to gross sexual imposition, assault or rape. (3) Sexual coercion: implies the solicitation or coercion of sexual activity by promise of reward or threat of punishment"

In short, these categorizations of sexual harassment determined by MacKinnon (1979), Till (1980), and Fitzgerald (1988, 1999) are summarized by Toker (2003) in the table following.

Table 1.1 *Sexual Harassment Categorizations in the Literature*

Perspective	Studies	Categories					
Legal	MacKinnon (1979)	Hostile Environment				Quid-Pro-Quo	
Psychological	Till (1980)	Gender Harassment		Seductive Behavior	Sexual Assault	Sexual Bribery	Sexual Coercion
	Fitzgerald et al. (1988)	Gender Harassment		Unwanted Sexual Attention		Sexual Coercion	
	Fitzgerald et al. (1999)	Sexist Hostility	Sexual Hostility	Unwanted Sexual Attention		Sexual Coercion	

Note: From *"Individual differences factors affecting workplace sexual harassment perceptions."* (p.49), by Toker, Y., 2003, Unpublished master thesis, METU, Ankara.

1.4 Incidence of Sexual Harassment

Although the behaviors describing sexual harassment are old, the term itself has emerged in the 1970s (Anderson, 2006). While more people started to voice questions and complaints about sexual harassment, it is still difficult to assess the actual extent of the problem (Lott et al., 1982).

Benson & Thompson (1982) conducted one of the first studies about SH and they found that 20% of 400 women at a university had been harassed by a male instructor while 20% of transfer students reported such experiences at their former schools. Similarly, Wilson and Krous (1983) showed that 33% of the 226 female students at a university reported being sexually harassed by male teachers. It was reported that type of SH experiences were verbal harassment (20.2%); leering or ogling (15.4%) ; remarks about clothing, body, or sexual attitudes (13.6%); unwanted touching, patting, or pinching (8.9%); subtle pressures for sexual activity (4.9%); demanding sexual favors (2.2%); and physical assault (.9%).

Lott et al. (1982) surveyed 927 male and female students, faculties, and staffs at a university, and 13% of the respondents reported personal knowledge of a sexual assault on someone else. 8% of the males and 7.1% of the females reported at least one incident of sexual assault as a personal experience. Knowledge of the sexual intimidation of another person was reported in 68 cases (7.3%). In contrast, only 12 incidents (1.3%) were personally experienced by respondents. Only 30% of the women reported never being sexually insulted by a man on campus whereas 82% of the men reported never being sexually insulted by another man.

Fitzgerald et al. (1988) made a survey with about 2000 people in two universities and demonstrated that SH is widespread and commonly experienced by women students. Over 31% of women students reported some forms of SH and 15% of the students experienced seductive sexual approaches from their professors. They also sampled female faculties, staffs, and administrators, and found that the administrators reported more experiences of SH.

Apart from universities, most studies were carried out to investigate rates of SH in workplaces. The United States Merit Systems Protection Board (USMSPB, 1986) surveyed federal workers and reported that, of 10644 women 42% respondents reported experiences, which could be regarded as SH that continued over a 2 year-period. In a more general community study, Gutek (1985) reported that 53% of women in a representative workforce sample had been harassed.

In Turkey, General Director of Women's Status and Problems (Kadın Statüsü ve Sorunları Genel Müdürlüğü-KSSGM) within the Women Employment Improvement Project (WEIP) conducted studies between 1996 and 1999 to understand the rates of SH in the education, banking, food, and health sectors. This project showed that in each sector, although they do not tend to report, people experience some forms of SH. In the education sector, women teachers reported that they were disturbed of male teachers telling sexual jokes or stories and joking or commenting of the woman's relationship with her spouse. In the food sector, of women 13% reported incidents such as verbal provocation, 5% reported incidents of showing an extreme interest in the woman and behaving as if they were very intimate, 2% reported men bumping into the woman intentionally and 7% reported men making inappropriate proposals in their workplace.

Despite the studies conducted by WEIP, other studies have been also conducted to find out the frequency of sexual harassment in Turkey. In the study covering secondary schools, Oktay (2001) investigated that 13% of female and 8% of male teachers reported experiencing sexual harassment, and 24% of female and 8% of male teachers indicated that they have witnessed some sort of harassment at the school. Eğitim-Sen also conducted the study in the education sector in order to identify the problems of women working in this sector. The findings indicated that 15% of 1853 women who were interviewed, in the education sector reported experiencing sexual harassment (2003, October 5, Cumhuriyet Gazetesi).

Finally, Toker (2003), in her thesis, found that 71% of the participants who were employers stated that they had unwanted personal attention, and 62% of women

indicated experiences of sexist hostility, 43% women specified verbal sexual harassment. In addition, 38% of the participants experienced physical sexual assault, 30% experienced insinuation of interest and 11% experienced sexual bribery/sexual coercion.

As seen, women in almost every country experience SH which is an important social problem. Consequently, how SH is perceived, and people's attitudes toward sexual harassment and toward sexually harassed women should be explored in order to understand and to design prevention programs and grievance procedures. In the following section, the importance of understanding of these attitudes and factors affecting these attitudes will be briefly discussed.

1.5 Attitudes toward Sexual Harassment

Most social psychologists define attitudes as positive or negative evolutions of people, objects, events, activities, ideas, or just about anything in social environment (e.g., Aronson, Wilson, & Akert, 1999). Prejudice against women refers to affective (emotional) component of attitudes and defined as hostile or negative attitudes toward them, based solely on their being women. Feeling prejudice against women primes to behave coolly or with hostility toward women, leading to gender discrimination. Sexual harassment is one of the ways to show this hostility toward women and to derogate them (Mazer & Percival, 1989). In order to understand this discrimination, it is necessary to understand factors affecting attitudes behind this. In addition, being acknowledged of attitudes toward SH can inform us people's tendency to either tolerate or not tolerate when they experience or witness to SH event.

Studies have been indicated that people have a tendency to have slightly positive attitudes toward SH, meaning that people tend to tolerate SH (e.g., Beauvais, 1986; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Mazer & Percival, 1989; McCabe & Hardman, 2005; Murrell & Dietz-Uhler,1993; Lott et al., 1982; Reilly et al., 1986; Reilly et al., 1992; Rubin & Borgers, 1990; Strouse, Goodwin, & Roscoe, 1994). However, people's attitudes toward SH might change depending on their gender, age, having experience of SH,

and sexist beliefs. Thus, these factors should be considered when attitudes toward SH is examined. In the following sections, how these factors related to attitudes toward SH will be presented separately.

1.5.1 Gender

In the literature most widely finding is that there is a gender difference in attitudes toward SH. Women have been found to be less tolerant of SH than men (e.g., Beauvais, 1986; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Mazer & Percival, 1989; McCabe & Hardman, 2005; Pryor, 1987; Reilly et al., 1992; Reilly et al., 1986; Russell & Trigg, 2004; Wiener & Hurt, 2000). This gender difference in attitudes toward SH might be related to gender difference in other related concerns such as perception of sexually harassing behaviors, acceptability of sexual behaviors, and accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors of women.

First of all, women and men differ in terms of perception of sexually harassing behaviors. Studies indicated that females perceive a broader range of behaviors comprise unacceptable social-sexual behaviors and they identify more incidents as sexual harassment which makes them have less tolerance to SH (e.g., Gutek, Morasch, & Cohen, 1983; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Powell, 1986; Strouse, Goodwin, & Roscoe, 1994; Wiener, Hurt, Russell, Mannen, & Gasper, 1997). According to minimization-maximation model proposed by Kenig and Ryan (1986) women might wish to maximize the numbers and types of behaviors defined as sexually harassed, while men would tend to minimize them. For example, females were more likely than males to define sexual harassment by including jokes or depiction, teasing remarks of a sexual nature, and unwanted suggestive looks or gestures. The authors claimed that males do not want to be blamed as perpetrator in the future they tend to minimize the behaviors as sexually harassed. Similarly, females maximize the behaviors as sexually harassed because they do not want to be blamed as provocators in the future.

Secondly, women and men have been found to have substantially different attitudes regarding the acceptability of sexually harassing behaviors. Males have been found to

be more likely than females to accept sexually harassing behaviors as a fact of life. In addition, men tend to believe sexual behaviors are more natural, more expectable, and less problematic than do women (e.g., Lott et al., 1982; Reilly et al., 1986). Thus, since males tend to perceive sexually harassing behaviors as less problematic, more normal, and as a fact of life they might tend to tolerate such behaviors and have more positive attitudes toward SH.

Thirdly, in terms of accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors of women, researches found that men were more agreed than women with the idea of women inviting sexual advances (e.g., Beauvais, 1986; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Lott et al., 1982). For example, males tended to support the ideas of women inviting sexual advances, women use their sexuality as a way of getting ahead and sexual harassment is usually invited by victim (Lott et al., 1982). Males are more likely to see the way of acting, walking, and dressing of women as causes of SH, ultimately they might tend to tolerate SH.

In the majority of studies concerning about attitudes toward SH, participants were university students. Although gender differences in attitudes toward SH have been found for student samples, this finding was not supported strongly for employers. For example, McCabe and Hardman (2005) found that while men were significantly more tolerant of sexual harassment than women in blue-collar organization, they found no gender difference regarding in white color organization. In addition, Baker, Terpstra, and Larntz (1990) also demonstrated that men's perceptions and attitudes of SH and women's perceptions of SH were similar in the workplace. The authors asserted that with experience in the workplace, a greater shared understanding of what constitutes SH appears to develop among men and women. When men and women in the workforce discuss SH, they are talking about the same types of behaviors, suggesting that gender difference regarding attitudes of sexual harassment disappears in workplace.

To sum up, females especially university students have been found to have less tolerance to SH since they perceive more behaviors as SH, less likely to accept SH as

a result of provocative behaviors, and perceive SH less natural and more problematic than males. The reason behind this difference can be related to the fact that women are the victims of sexual harassment in the great majority of cases which makes women be more sensitive to this issue. On the other hand, men, although aware of the issue of harassment, may feel threatened chiefly with regard to being accused of perpetrating harassment which makes them less tolerant of SH (Kenig and Ryan, 1986).

1.5.2 Age

There have been several studies indicating that older people are less tolerant to SH than younger people (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Lott et al., 1982; Reilly et al., 1986). The reason of this fact can be explained by the fact that people' status change as they get older. Fitzgerald et al. (1988) demonstrated that graduate students experience more sexual harassment than undergraduate students due to the fact that graduate students have closer associations with their instructors, which can lower their tolerance. On the other hand, Ford and Donis (1996) demonstrated that the effect of age was different for men and women. They found that women have more tolerance toward sexual harassment as they get older while men have less tolerance as they get older. The researchers explained these findings for women by stating two explanations. Firstly, the possibility of experiencing SH for younger women are more than for older ones, thus they become more sensitive to SH, which decreases their tolerance. Secondly, increase in sexist beliefs females have as they get older can be related to increase in their tolerance toward SH. Having sexist beliefs have been found to be related to tolerance to SH (which will be discussed later), thus, as such beliefs increase as females get older their tolerance toward SH might also increase. For men, on the other hand, the authors found that tolerance toward SH decreased as they get older. Researchers' explanation of this result is that as men age, experiential effects such as marriage and fatherhood may cause an increased awareness and sensitivity to the negative effects of SH, which lowers their tolerance toward SH.

1.5.3 Experience of SH

In terms of past experiences of SH, some studies have presented significant effects of experience of SH on attitudes toward SH (e.g., Konrad and Gutek, 1986; Murrell & Dietz-Uhler, 1993). Konrad and Gutek (1986) reported that people having experience of SH tend to have less tolerance to SH because they become more sensitive to the issue. However, Murrell and Dietz-Uhler (1993) found the effect of direct experience of SH on attitudes toward SH for only male college students, but not for females. They found that experience of SH lead to have more tolerance to SH for males. The researchers argued that experience with SH for male college students did not necessarily sensitize them to the issue, rather, it may have desensitized them to the issue.

In contrast to these findings other studies indicated no significant effect of past experiences on attitudes (e.g., Mazer & Percival, 1989; Powell, 1983; Reilly et al., 1992). According to Mazer and Percival (1989) people had had experience of SH might normalize their experience, project it into others, or generalize from it, and come to regard harassment as more common, thus they might tend to tolerance to SH.

1.5.4 Culture

Culture has been found to be a significant factor predicting coping strategies of sexual harassment experience (e.g., Wasti, Bergman, Glomb, & Drasgow, 2000; Wasti & Cortina, 2002) and attitudes toward sexual harassment (e.g., Sigal, Gibbs, Goodrisch, Rashid, Anjum, Hsu, et al., 2005; Sigal & Jacobsen, 1999). In terms of cultural differences in coping strategies, Wasti and Cortina (2002) found that Turks and Hispanics were avoiding harassers more than Anglos. The authors argued that fear of blame may play a role for Hispanics and Turks' coping strategies, reflecting a concern that friends and family would criticize or blame victims for the harassing situation. In addition, traditional norms of 'sexual silence' may inhibit Turkish and Hispanic women's discussions of SH. Interestingly, to deal with this situation, Turkish women preferred to deal with the harasser more directly, rather than rely on social support might stem from fear of blame.

With regard to general attitudes toward SH; Sigal et al. (2005) indicated differences between people living individualistic and collectivist countries. They found that participants from individualist countries were less tolerant of SH than were those from collectivist countries. The authors explained this finding by suggesting that individuals are more concerned with women's rights in individualistic countries, that's why they are more sensitive sexually harassed behaviors against women. Moreover, in individualistic countries laws against sexual harassment are more developed, so sexually harassed women can report when they face to SH, which decreasing their levels of tolerance to SH. Lastly, SH issue can easily be discussed in individualistic countries in both public and media, so it is not 'hidden' event and people do not tend to tolerate it. On the other hand, in collectivist cultures there is relative lack of legal cases, and the issue of SH is not so discussed in media and even in public. As a result of these differences people in collectivist countries perceive SH as more normal, thus their tolerance to this issue become higher in comparison with those in individualistic countries.

1.5.5 Gender Stereotyping and Sexist Beliefs

Gender stereotyping and sexist beliefs have been found as powerful predictors of attitudes toward SH (e.g., Begany & Milburn, 2002; Mazer & Percival, 1989; Pryor, 1987; Reilly et al., 1986; Russell & Trigg, 2004; Sigal & Jacobsen, 1999; Swim, Aikin, Hall, & Hunter, 1995; Wiener et al., 1997). Gender stereotyping and sexist beliefs play crucial role on attitudes toward SH because of the fact that they lead people to see women as passive and submissive but see men as active in sexual matters. As such beliefs increase sexual harassment can be seen as normal and a way gender hierarchy is maintained and justified (Sigal & Jacobsen, 1999).

Accepting sexist beliefs can also lead to blame victims of sexual harassment (e.g., Jensen & Gutek, 1982; Judicibus & McCabe, 2001; Valentine-French & Radtke, 1993). People having sexist attitudes are not likely to believe an individual who objects to uninvited sexual attention or alternatively to blame the target for having in some way encouraged the perpetrator's behavior (Valentine-French & Radtke, 1993).

According to Jensen and Gutek (1982), if women has incorporated the sexist attitudes, they will be highly likely to blame other women and, as well as herself, for incidents of SH. Such an attribution process, in return, will affect whether they report the incident to someone in authority or talks to co-workers or friends about it.

While having sexist attitudes affect attitudes toward SH, it also affects likelihood to sexual harassment. Researchers (e.g., Reilly, Lott et al., 1992; Pryor, 1987) reported that, among males, likelihood to harass and tolerance for harassment were correlated with scores on the Adversarial Sex Behavior and the Rape Myth Acceptance Scale, as well as an expressed likelihood to rape. Pryor, Giedd and Williams (1995) indicated that likelihood to harass sexually was strongly related with male gender stereotypic view of masculinity, social dominance and sexuality. They found that males who defined themselves as hostile, antifeminine, and tough were found to have higher likelihood to sexual harassment.

Previous studies have shown that there is a relationship between sexist beliefs and attitudes toward SH. In this thesis the effect of sexist attitudes will be examined by using a new developed theory, ambivalent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996), which is mentioned in detail in the following section.

1.5.5.1 Ambivalent Sexism

Since earlier explanations of sexism include only unitary hostility toward women Glick and Fiske (1996) re-conceptualized sexism and developed a new concept, 'ambivalent sexism'. The reason why researchers call this term as ambivalent is that it includes both hostile and positive feelings and stereotypes toward women. They defined Hostile Sexism (HS) as "seeking to justify male power, traditional gender roles, and men's exploitation of women as sexual objects through derogatory characterizations of women" (Glick & Fiske, 1996, p. 121). Benevolent Sexism (BS), on the other hand, was defined 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" (Glick & Fiske, 1996, p. 491). Accordingly, while

hostile sexism includes negative feelings, benevolent sexism includes beliefs about women as nice and with positive features but passive roles.

According to Glick & Fiske (1996) the sources of hostile sexism and benevolent sexism are *paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality* which are the domains of both HS and BS. As seen in Figure 1.1 while hostile sexism encompasses a *dominative paternalism, competitive gender differentiation* and *hostile heterosexuality* with women, benevolent sexism encompasses *protective paternalism, complementary gender differentiation,* and *intimate heterosexuality*.

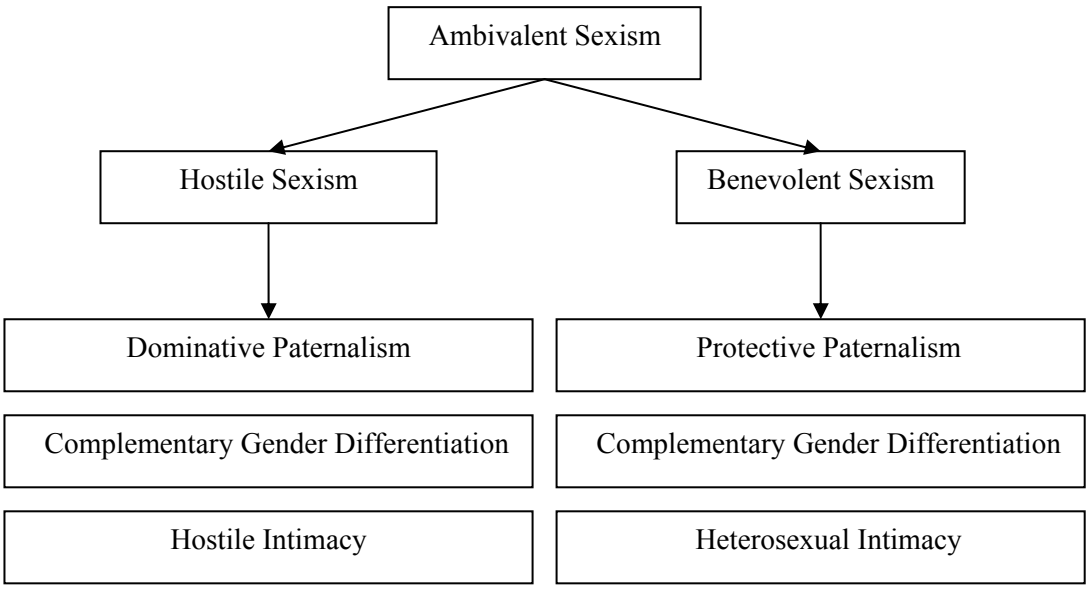

Figure 1.1 *Dimensions of Ambivalent Sexism*

Hostile sexism includes *dominative paternalism* emphasizing male domination over women. It suggests that women should be controlled by men, which is justifying patriarchy. Similarly, *competitive gender differentiation* is a social justification of men's structural power. This differentiation emphasizes the belief that men are capable of governing social institutions and this situation leads to downward comparison between males and females. Lastly, *hostile heterosexuality* emphasizes perceiving women as merely sex objects. It is believed that women should be feared, because they can use sexual attraction in order to control men (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Benevolent sexism, on the other hand, includes subjectively positive attitudes toward women while keeping inequality between men and women. Benevolent sexism includes *protective paternalism* emphasizing male affection and protection for women. It highlights that men have a responsibility to protect women since they have power. In addition, since men are dependent on them, women should be loved, respected and cherished. *Complementary gender differentiation* indicates dyadic dependency of men and women, which is justifying traditional division of labor between sexes. Women complete men by staying at home and taking care of the family members. In this way, men do not perceive women negatively, instead, perceive as the other or better half of men. Lastly, *heterosexual intimacy* is caused by men's sexual motivation toward women, their desire to have intimate feelings and heterosexual relationship. It endorses a romanticized view of women in terms of sexuality; hence women are seen as trophies to win or distant objects of admiration. (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Ambivalent sexism, which is studied widely in literature, accepted as a predictor of attitudes toward SH (e.g., Fiske & Glick 1995; Russell & Trigg, 2004; Turgut, 2007; Wiener, Hurt, Russell, Mannen, and Gasper, 1997). Wiener et al. (1997) examined the effects of gender, and ambivalent sexism on perceptions of sexual harassment. They suggested that people having hostile sexists beliefs would be less likely to perceive evidence of hostile work environment as sexual harassment than people having benevolent sexists beliefs would. Since benevolent sexists have protectionist tendency, they tend to be more sensitive to the women who claimed to be sexually harassed than hostile sexists.

Fiske and Glick (1995) claimed that ambivalent sexist attitudes and gender stereotyped images of women have crucial roles on occurrence of SH. The researchers suggested that ambivalent sexist motives, which are paternalism, gender differentiation and heterosexuality, are reflected by people's gender stereotyped images of women (suggested as sexy, traditional, and nontraditional women) and influence types of sexual harassment. Suggested types of sexual harassment were 'earnest harassment' (making repeated and unwelcome advances), 'hostile

harassment' (removing women from men's spheres), 'paternalistic ambivalence harassment' (continue to make sexual advances despite her refusals with saying "I desire her, want to love and protect her"), and 'competitive ambivalence harassment' (emphasizing 'men only' atmosphere). According to the authors, sexy women potentially arouse benevolent intimacy-seeking or hostile-sexual motivations and nontraditional women threaten motives related to both competitive gender differentiation and paternalistic domination. As a result of them, sexy and nontraditional subtypes may be the most likely to be harassed, whereas women who are classified as traditional may be more likely than the other two types to receive male protection, rather than sexual advances. Although, ambivalent sexist motives are claimed to be resulted in different types of harassment these arguments were not empirically tested by the authors.

Russell and Trigg (2004) conducted another study examining the effects of gender, gender roles (masculinity, femininity), ambivalent sexism, and social dominance orientation on tolerance of sexual harassment. In their study, ambivalent sexists (i.e., high hostility and high benevolence) and hostile sexist (i.e., high hostility and low benevolence) people were found to have more tolerance on SH. Interestingly, although gender differences are reliable and robust, regression analyses indicated that ambivalent sexists (i.e., high hostility and high benevolence) have more predictive power than gender on tolerance of SH.

As seen, the role of ambivalent sexism on tolerance of SH has been found as powerful. In the present study, it was expected to find similar results in Turkish sample with the findings obtained in North American samples. Extending previous findings, the role of ambivalent sexism in the relationship between locus of control and attitudes toward SH was aimed to be investigated. In order to understand this relationship, firstly the concept of locus of control will be presented below.

1.6 Locus of Control

According to Rotter (1966), individuals differ along a continuum on the extent which they believe that events in their lives are controlled by themselves or by external sources, such as chance, luck, or powerful others. His theory proposed that those individuals with an internal locus of control believe that reinforcements are a result of personal effort, whereas individuals with an external locus of control believe that reinforcements occur as a result of forces outside their personal control.

In the literature, the role of locus of control on tolerance to SH has not received attention. On the other hand, there have been several studies investigating the role of locus of control on blaming the victims of rape, which is end point of SH (e.g., Paulsen, 1979; Yalçın, 2006), general attitudes toward rape (e.g., Larsen and Long, 1988), and perception and reporting SH events (e.g., Baker & Tepstra, 1984).

Although sexual harassment and rape are not exactly the same things, they have very common features; one of them is including sexual force on unwilling person (Jensen and Gutek, 1982). The difference between them is that while the threat of bodily harm is used for rape, the threat of depriving individuals of their job or education and their opportunities are used for sexual harassment. As a result of this similarity, the association of locus of control with attitudes toward rape victims and general attitudes toward rape should be considered while examining its association with sexual harassment.

In the rape literature, when locus of control is measured as a personality trait, it has been found that internals assign more causality, fault and blame to victims of rape than do externals (e.g., Paulsen, 1979; Yalçın, 2006). Paulsen (1979) found that participants who scored low on I-E (internals) attributed greater fault to the rape victim, regardless of sexual status, than participants who scored high on I-E (externals). Moreover, this finding was supported in Turkish context by Yalçın (2006) who found that while internal locus of control was positively correlated with unfavorable attitudes toward rape victims; external locus of control was negatively related with unfavorable attitudes toward rape victims. She explained these findings

with the fact that respondents having high external locus of control score might perceive same incident less controllable. On the other hand people with high internal locus of control score tend to perceive the incident as more controllable, thus they tended to blame rape victims more. In the present study similar result is expected, that is people having more personal control might attribute more responsibility to sexually harassed women, and see SH as a result of provocative behaviors of women.

While previous studies indicated that internals had more unfavorable attitudes toward rape victims, the studies on general attitudes toward rape indicated the opposite. In fact, Larsen and Long (1988) examined the relationship between the participants' locus of control tendencies and their general attitudes toward rape rather than victims of rape, and they found that participants having internal locus of control have negative attitudes toward rape while external subjects have positive. To explain this finding, the authors argued that externals had more positive attitudes toward rape since this orientation essentially avoids guilt and blame of offender by attributing behaviors to external powerful forces. However, the authors did not specify these external powerful forces. In this study, these external sources are suggested as patriarchal system, and it is suggested that people having more external locus of control would have more sexist beliefs, and then would have more positive attitudes toward SH.

As mentioned above, internals blame victims more but have negative general attitudes to sexual victimization, which implies that blaming victim does not mean this negative event can be tolerated. That is, an individual can have negative attitudes toward rape or sexual harassment accepting them as sexual violence; however, they can attribute some responsibility to victims. They can think that, for example, women's walking on the street at night can be dangerous and increase the likelihood to face with sexual assault and women can control to face with such a terrible event by avoiding this behavior. Thus, people having internal locus of control might think that SH can be controllable, but they might still negative attitudes toward sexual harassment.

Since sexual harassment is suggested as a type of gender discrimination which is based on prejudice to women (Mazer & Percival, 1989), it is important to look at studies in regarding the role of locus of control on discriminations. According to Strickland (1977, as cited in Duckitt, 1984), persons of internal as opposed to external locus of control orientation have been reported to be less threatened by and more tolerant of persons who are different from them. On this basis, he suggested that internal people should be less prejudiced than external ones. Supporting this idea, studies indicated that internals had less prejudiced attitudes toward blacks (e.g., Duckitt, 1984) and toward women (e.g., Furnham, 1985).

In the studies regarding the role of locus of control on prejudiced attitudes toward women, Furnham (1985) found that external individuals had more conservative and negative beliefs for women. In addition, Lainer and Barnett (1996) examined the relationship between locus of control, perception of gender discrimination, and responses of women to perceived discrimination. They reported that women having internal locus of control were more likely to perceive gender discrimination as compared with external women. In addition, while 50% of women with an internal locus of control reported perceived sex discrimination to their supervisors, filed a grievance, or took legal action, only 23% of those with an external locus of control reported perceived discrimination. These findings suggests that while internal women are more likely to be aware of gender discrimination and take action about it, external women are more likely to underestimate the discrimination and less likely to take action when they perceive it, which makes them more tolerant to discrimination.

To sum up, the literature provides two arguments about the role of locus of control on rape. Firstly, people with internal locus of control were found to be more likely to blame victims of rape (e.g., Paulsen, 1979; Yalçın, 2006). On the other hand, in terms of general attitudes toward rape, externals were found to have more positive attitudes (Larsen and Long, 1988), meaning that externals have more tolerance to rape. In addition, external people have been found to have more prejudiced attitudes toward women (Furnham, 1985), which might be related their tolerance to sexual

victimizations of women. In the present study, the role of locus of control was examined for both attitudes toward women and attitudes toward SH.

In the literature, locus of control has been widely measured by Rotter I-E (internal-external) scale which was adapted to Turkish by Dağ (1991). However, this scale had some disadvantages such as having 2-choice response format which restricts participants, and not covering some important control areas. In order to eliminate these limitations and to consider cultural factors Dağ (2002) developed a new scale, which was used for the present study. This scale has five subfactors, which are 'personal control', 'belief in chance', 'meaninglessness of the effortfulness', 'belief in fate', and 'belief in an unjust world'. While the first factor consists of items related to personal control, the other four factors consist of items related to 'external forces' controlling our lives. The items such as "causes of most unhappiness of life are related to chance", or "chance or luck do not play significant role in life" measure 'belief in chance; while the items such as "whatever a person do, one can not get anything what he wants" or "one can not prevent bad events even if he makes effort" measure the factor called 'meaningless of effortfulness'. 'Belief in fate' factor measures how people are fatalistic with statements such as "fate has very important role in one's life". Last factor called 'belief in unjust world' measure the belief that an ordinary person is powerless and helpless because there are powerful others who control the world (e.g., "how many powerful people one knows determine how his/her life be shaped" or "the world is governed by powerful people and an ordinary person can not do anything for this"). As seen, these four factors measure whether people believe in 'external forces' as controlling their lives, while the first factor measure people's belief in personal control. This study aimed to investigate the roles of these domains with attitudes toward SH.

1.7 Turkish Studies on Sexual Harassment

Turkish researches have recently started focusing on the issues of SH. One of the recent studies was conducted by Wasti et al. (2000) who examined the measurement equivalence of survey scales in U.S. and Turkish samples and the generalizability of

sexual harassment model of Fitzgerald et al. (1999). They found that the model revealed good fit in the Turkish sample as well, meaning that organizational context and job-gender characteristics are related with incidence of sexual harassment and job quality, and worsened psychological and health conditions of victims of SH.

Another study conducted in Turkish context was done by Toker (2003) investigating individual factors on the perceptions of sexual harassment. In the study including participants from various sectors, she conducted the Social-Sexual Incidents Questionnaire (SSIQ) and revealed sexual harassment domains consistent with the literature. These domains were 'unwanted sexual attention', 'verbal sexual attention', 'sexist hostility', 'physical sexual assault', 'insinuation of interest', and 'sexual bribery / sexual coercion'. In addition, Toker (2003) found that physical sexual assault, sexual bribery / sexual coercion, and verbal sexual attention were labeled as the most severe sexually harassing behaviors. Perceived unwanted personal attention and insinuation of interest were regarded moderately harassing. Interestingly, 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) was not perceived as direct form of sexual harassment.

In another cross-cultural study, Wasti and Cortina (2002) investigated coping strategies after sexual harassment in three different cultures, one of those was Turkey. This study indicated that Turkish participants were more likely to avoid the harasser than the Anglo-Americans are. However, harassed people were surprisingly found to be more likely to engage in more confrontation with the harasser than Anglos. They found that Turkish women tried firstly to avoid and, then dealed with the harasser individually because they view sexual harassment as the problem between the victim and the harasser.

Sigal et al. (2005) conducted a cross-cultural study including Turkish sample. Tolerance for Sexual Harassment Inventory (Lott et al., 1982) was administered to participants in order to investigate their attitudes toward SH. This study indicated

that participants from individualist countries were less tolerant toward SH than were those from collectivist countries such as Turkey.

In terms of development of a scale for SH, there have been several studies in Turkish literature. For example, in order to adopt Mazer and Percival's (1989) Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale (SHAS) into Turkish, Güven (2006) conducted a recent study. She found that SHAS with 9 items having one factor was reliable and valid. The results of her study demonstrated that university students had slightly negative attitudes toward SH and there was significant gender difference in which females had more negative attitudes. Although this scale was found as reliable and valid it had some limitations. For example, this scale consists of items only from Mazer and Percival (1985)'s scale but not from other scales measuring attitudes toward SH (e.g., Beauvais, 1986). In addition, in Turkish culture SH can be perceived differently, hence, only translating other scales should not be enough but new items should be generated by Turkish people. Thus, a new scale was developed by Salman and Turgut (2007) with considering these issues. For this scale, related foreign scales were translated into Turkish and new items were generated from researchers and graduate students, then 90-item pool was developed. After analyzing these items, final 22-item Sexual Harassment Attitudes Scale (SHAS) was developed (detailed information is given in the method section). This scale consists of three subfactors which were "provocative behaviors", suggesting that viewing SH as the result of provocative behavior of women; "normal flirtations", taping attitudes towards sexual harassment as natural flirtations that occur between men and women; "trivial matter"; assessing SH as a social problem. This scale evaluates why sexual harassment occurs, how it is defined and whether it has been seen as a social problem.

The new SHAS was firstly used by Turgut (2007) who found that attitudes toward women and as well as toward men significantly contributed attitudes toward sexual harassment. She demonstrated that people having hostile sexist beliefs toward women and benevolence toward men tended to accept SH as a result of provocative behaviors of women. In addition, people having benevolence toward both men and women tend to accept SH as normal flirtations. Lastly, her study revealed that only

benevolence toward women was significantly related with accepting SH as a trivial matter. Her study was important since for the first time the roles of attitudes toward both men and women on attitudes toward SH was investigated in Turkey. On the other hand, in her study attributional tendency of people, that is explaining events according to internal or external causes was not investigated. The present study aimed to extent the relationship between ambivalent sexism and attitudes toward SH by adding attributional tendency, namely locus of control.

To sum up, in Turkish literature although there are several studies investigating coping strategies of SH, and individual factors affecting perceptions of SH, there have been little attention to attitudes toward SH. Only study dealing with these attitudes was conducted by Turgut (2007). However, in her study only the roles of attitudes toward men and women were investigated although locus of control as personal trait might be significant predictor on attitudes toward SH. For this reason, in this study the role of locus of control was investigated in order to extend the knowledge about the predictors of attitudes toward SH.

1.8 The Aim of the Study

In Turkish literature there have been some studies on sexual harassment considering coping behaviors in SH context (Wasti & Cortina, 2002), effects of culture and gender on attitudes toward SH, effects of individual differences on SH perceptions (Toker, 2003), and effects of ambivalent sexism on attitudes toward SH (Turgut, 2007). However the role of locus of control, as a personal trait, has not taken attention in Turkish literature. In order to extend previous studies, the present study aimed to investigate the association of domains of locus of control with attitudes toward SH with considering their associations with sexist beliefs.

The literature indicated that having high internal locus of control is associated with blaming sexually victimized women (e.g., Paulsen, 1979; Yalçın, 2006). On the other hand, other studies demonstrated that having external locus of control was associated with more positive attitudes toward sexual victimization (e.g., Larsen and Long, 1988). In order to clarify how locus of control is associated with tolerance to SH,

these variables were examined considering their different dimensions. Tolerance to sexual harassment was examined with three dimensions which were accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors, accepting SH as normal flirtations, and trivializing the problem of SH as found by Salman and Turgut (2006). In addition, followed by the suggestion of Dağ (2002) locus of control was examined with its domains which were 'personal control', and 'external forces', which includes belief in chance, meaninglessness of the effortfulness, belief in fate, and belief in an unjust world. The hypotheses of the present study as follows:

Hypothesis 1: There would be gender differences in terms of accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors, accepting SH as normal flirtations, and accepting SH in trivial matter.

Hypothesis 2: Subfactors of locus of control, HS, and BS would significantly predict accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors, accepting SH as normal flirtations, and accepting SH in trivial matter.

Hypothesis 3: Subfactors of locus of control would significantly predict HS and BS.

Hypothesis 4: HS and BS would play a significant role in the relationship between locus of control and attitudes toward SH.

CHAPTER 2

METHOD

2.1 Participants

Three hundred and eleven university students from Middle East Technical University participated in the present study. As seen in Table 2.1, of these participants 192 (62%) were female and 119 (38%) were male. The average age of females was 22.12 (SD = 3.93), of males was 22.23 (SD = 2.75) and of all participants was 22.16 (SD= 3.52), ranging from 17 to 35. The majority of the participants, 248 (79.7%) were undergraduate students, and 63 (20.2%) were graduate students. In terms of participants' departments, 156 (50%) of them were from natural sciences and 155 (50%) from social sciences. 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. In addition to demographic questions participants were asked whether they have ever experienced sexual harassment or not. 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.

Table 2.1 *Characteristics of the sample (N =311)*

Demographic Variables	Mean / Frequencies		
	Female	Male	Total
Participants	192	119	311
Age (Years)	22.12 (SD = 3.93)	22.23 (SD = 2.75)	22.16 (SD = 3.52)
Education			
Undergraduate	155	93	248
Graduate	37	26	63
Department			
Social Sciences	113	42	155
Natural Sciences	79	77	156
Economical Class			
Low Class	5	6	11
Middle Class	152	96	248
High Class	35	17	52
Experience of SH			
Verbal	99	23	122
Physical	64	15	79
Physical & Verbal	31	5	36
No experience	60	86	146

2.2 Instruments

Participants filled out Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale (SHAS, Salman & Turgut, 2006), Locus of Control Scale (LCS, Dağ, 2002), and Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI, Glick & Fiske, 1996). The scales are presented in the Appendices A, B and C, respectively. At the end of the questionnaire demographic questions were asked.

2.2.1 Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale (SHAS)

2.2.1.1 Development of the Items

This scale was developed by two researchers; one of them was the author of the thesis. The purpose of the scale is capturing attitudes of university students toward sexual harassment. Since there has been no instrument adopted for Turkish sample it was aimed to develop a new instrument. In the first step a pool of items was

constituted by using different sources. Nineteen items from 'The Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale' by Mazer and Percival (1989) and 14 items from 'Sexual Harassment Attitude Survey' by Beauvais (1986) were translated into Turkish by two social psychology students independently. The Turkish version after screened for wording, readability, and item compatibility, back translated by another graduate student of English literature. In addition, in the master course of 'Attitude Measurement and Scale Development' a group of judges consisting of 8 graduate students and the instructor generated 29 and 19 items, respectively. Finally, 11 items were generated from the researchers.

Total pool of 90 items was administered to 298 Middle East Technical University students on the basis of voluntary participation and in 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.

2.2.1.2 Validity of SHAS

2.2.1.2.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Prior data analysis, reverse items were recoded, missing items were replaced, multivariate items were deleted, and analyses were conducted for 284 participants. Later, to assess the structure of SHAS, factor analysis with principle components analysis was performed on 90 items. The correlations among components were mostly less than .30, thus it was decided to use varimax rotation which is an orthogonal and most commonly used rotation technique in explanatory factor analysis. After the extraction, 23 components were found having eigenvalues more than 1, and screen plot suggested 3 factors. Considering both screen plot and literature it was decided to make this analysis limited to three factors. The three-factor solution for 90 items accounted for 26.64% of the total variance.

For selecting items for the final scale; item-total correlations and pattern of loadings were examined, looking for items with high loadings on the intended factor and low loadings on the other factors. Minimum factor loading of .30 (Nunnally, 1978) was

used as a guideline for considering an item to be part of a factor. Moreover, in order to purify the list, items with loadings less than .40 or greater on more than one of the factors were eliminated. This process resulted in the elimination of 68 items from the preliminary questionnaire. The factor analysis for final list indicated that three factors accounted for 46.50% of the variance. The final 22-item SHAS, along with the factor loadings is shown in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2 *Cronbach Alphas, Eigenvalues, Explained Variances, Factor Loadings, and Item-total Correlations for Three Subfactors of SHAS*

Factor 1: Provocative Behaviors (α = .83; eigenvalue = 4.56; explained variance = 20.70%)	Loadings	Item-total
• 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 koşullarını iyileştirmek için sıkça kullanılır.	.42	.34
Factor 2: Normal Flirtations (α = .78; eigenvalue = 3.16; explained variance = 14.34%)		
• Masum flörtleşmeler iş ya da okul gününü ilginç kılar.	.80	.69
• Romantik ilişki içinde bulunmadığı biri tarafından anlamlı bakışlarla süzülmek günü zevkli kılabilir.	.73	.58
• Çekici bulunduğundan dolayı karşı cinsiyete yakınlaşmaya çalışmak doğaldır.	.72	.54
• Bir erkeğin çekici bulduğu 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
Factor 3: Trivial Matter (α = .72; eigenvalue = 2.52; explained variance = 11.45 %)		
• 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 konumdaki 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

* reverse items

As can be seen in Table 2.2, Factor 1 was identified as 'provocative behaviors' and included 10 item (e.g. "most women who are sexually insulted by a man provoke his behavior by the way they talk, act, or dress"). This factor explains 20.7% of the total variance. Factor 2 was identified as 'normal flirtations' and comprised 6 items explaining 14.34% of the total variance (e.g. "innocent flirtations make the workday or school day interesting"). Finally, Factor 3 reflected 'trivial matter' and comprised 6 items accounting for 11.45% of the total variance (e.g. "I believe that sexual intimidation is a serious social problem").

2.2.1.2.2 Confirmatory Factor Analysis

To verify the factor structure of SHAS obtained from the exploratory analysis, a confirmatory factor analysis using the covariance matrix obtained from the sample was conducted. It was hypothesized that SHAS has 3 latent variables; which are 'provocative behaviors', 'normal flirtations' and 'trivial matter'. Maximum likelihood solutions were obtained by using LISREL 8.30 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1989) to verify the relationships between observable items and latent factors.

Confirmatory factor analysis yielded good fit of the confirmatory model in the data [χ^2 (206, N = 298) = 480.331, $p < .001$, RMSEA = .07, GFI = .87, AGFI = .84, CFI = .75, NNFI = .83]. All items had loadings above than .30, minimum loading was .32 and the maximum loading was .83. The correlations among the three factors showed that 'normal flirtations' factor had the lowest correlation with the other factors. The highest correlation was between 'provocative behavior' and 'trivial matter' (r = .25), which were positively correlated.

2.2.1.2.3 Construct Validity

To examine the construct validity of the SHAS it was determined whether males and females displayed different attitudes with respect to both total score of SHAS and its subscales. For the total score, males (M = 2.96, SD = .36) had more tolerance to SH than did female participants (M = 2.62, SD = .31, t (286) = -7.17, $p < .001$). In terms of subscales, males (M = 3.37, SD = .95) agreed more with provocative behavior items than females did (M = 2.50, SD = .81, t (286) = -2.17, $p < .05$). Secondly, for

the factor 'normal flirtations' males (M = 3.69, SD = 1.08) had more tendency to see some sexual advances as normal flirtations than females did (M = 3.38, SD = .93, t (286) = 00, p < .001). Although there were no significant difference between men and women on their perceptions of SH as a trivial matter; men (M = 2.96, SD = .31) again scored higher than women (M = 2.62, SD = .36) on this scale. Thus, the underlying factors of the SHAS were found to be significantly related to gender, providing empirical support for the constructs measured by the SHAS.

2.2.1.3 Reliability of SHAS

2.2.1.3.1 Internal Consistency

To test the internal consistency of the SHAS, the Cronbach alpha value was calculated and found to be at a reliable level (cronbach alpha = .79). According to Schmitt (1996), a common presumption among many researchers of a coefficient alpha of .70 is adequate (as cited in McIntire and Miller, 2000). Therefore, the overall internal consistency for SHAS was reliable. In terms of subfactors of SHAS, Cronbach alphas were .83 for provocative behaviors, .78 for normal flirtations and .72 for trivial matter. As a result, the SHAS and its subfactors were found as significantly reliable.

2.2.1.3.2 Item-total Correlation

As seen in Table 2.2, the item-total correlations for the whole scale were ranging from .34 to .72. Moreover, the item-total correlations for provocative behaviors were ranging from .34 to .72; for normal flirtations from .40 to .69; and for trivial matter ranging from .36 to .57. According to Aiken (1994), the minimum score is accepted .20, thus, the item- total correlations of the SHAS were significant.

2.2.1.4 Application of SHAS for the Present Study

In the current study, the final 22-item SHAS was administered to 311 participants. The responses ranged from 1 (strongly disagree) to 6 (strongly agree); higher scores indicating more tolerance to SH. After performing principle factor analysis with varimax rotation, there were 5 components having eigen-values higher than 1, however, again 3 factors were suggested by screen plot. Rotated component analysis

indicated that items were adequately loaded, loaded in intended factors, and were not cross-loaded. Similar to previous study, factor of provocative behaviors explained majority of the total variance 19%, normal flirtations explained 15% of the total variance, and trivial matter explained 11% of the total variance. All these factors explained 46% of the total variance.

With regard to reliability of SHAS in present study, the cronbach alphas were 83 for provocative behaviors, 78 for normal flirtations, .67 for trivial matter, and 80 for the SHAS. The internal consistency of trivial matter factor was not found as reliable as in the previous study; however, it was still adequate. The item-total correlations for provocative behaviors were ranging from .37 to .71; for normal flirtations from .42 to .62; and for trivial matter ranging from .36 to .51.

2.2.2 Locus of Control Scale (LCS)

Locus of Control Scale (LCS) was developed by Dağ (2002). It consists of items adapted from Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Schedule and from some major locus of control scales. In addition to these adapted items Dağ also generated some items considering Turkish culture. This scale has 47 items which measure whether individuals attribute the consequences of their behaviors to external or internal sources. Related to the psychometric properties of LCS for Turkish university sample, Dağ (2002) found five factors 'personal control', 'believe in chance', 'meaninglessness of the effortfulness, 'belief in fate', and 'belief in an unjust word'. 40.1% of the variance was explained by these 5 factors and factor loadings range between .61 and .87. In addition, a second-order factor analysis revealed only one factor from these factors. Alpha coefficient for LCS was found as .92, and for factors as .87, .79, .76, .74, .61, respectively. Based on convergent validity analysis results, LCS showed significant correlations with other major locus of control scales, including Rotter's I-E scale (r =.67), Rosenbaum's Learned Resourcefulness Schedule (r =-.39), the SCL-90-R (r =.25), and Paranormal Beliefs Scale (r =.46). There were no significant sex differences on LCS and its subscales. These results indicated that LCS was reliable and valid measure for Turkish university students.

For the present study, 6-point Likert type was used and the higher scores indicate external locus of control, whereas lower scores indicate internal locus of control. Five factors were found and the items were loaded in intended factors. 41.66% of the variance was explained by these five factors. The alpha coefficient of LCS was found to be .89, and for factors as .89, .79, .75, .72, .56, respectively. The item-total correlations for 'personal control' were ranging from .38 to .68; for 'belief in chance' from .21 to .61; for 'meaningless of effortfulness' ranging from .27 to .54; 'for belief in fate' from .53 to .64; and for 'belief in unjust world' from .12 to .47.

2.2.3 Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI)

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) was developed by Glick and Fiske (1996) and adopted into Turkish by Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002). This instrument measures individuals' ambivalent sexism including subjectively benevolent and hostile feelings toward women. The scale constitutes two subscales which are Hostile Sexism (HS) and Benevolent Sexism (BS), each has 11 statements. In addition, the scale considers three underlying dimensions which are paternalism, gender differentiation, and heterosexuality. In Turkish version, Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002) found cronbach alphas for ASI, HS and BS as .85, 87 and .78, respectively. 51.07% of the variance was explained by factors and factor loadings ranged between .57 and .81.

In this study, factor analysis resulted in 4 components having eigenvalues higher than 1. As Glick and Fiske (1996) suggested, BS had three subfactors which were protective paternalism, complementary gender differentiation, and heterosexual intimacy. After combining subfactors of BS together, two-factor solution was conducted. 52% of the total variance was explained by two factors. The results were similar to Glick and Fiske (1996) and Sakallı-Uğurlu (2002); indeed, intended items were loaded in HS and BS. Cronbach alphas for ASI, HS and BS were .87, .88 and, .79, respectively. The item-total correlations for 'hostile sexism' were ranging from .44 to .71; for 'benevolent sexism' from .24 to .56. 6-point Likert type was used for this scale. Mean scores of HS and BS were used and the higher scores indicated relatively greater hostile and benevolent sexism.

2.3 Procedure

Most participants, 254 (81%), filled the scale out in the classroom situation and received a course credit for their participation. The rest of them, 57 (19%), were contacted on campus and they voluntarily participated. 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. Brief instruction section was written at the beginning of the scales, which required all questions to be answered with sincerely. For the SHAS additional instruction including definition of SH was given at the top of the scale. The instruction was:

> "In the items below the concept of SEXUAL HARASSMENT was mentioned. The meaning of sexual harassment here is all kinds of unwanted sexual advances. Please consider both verbal and physical unwanted sexual advances while answering the questions".

Questionnaire administration lasted about 30 minutes. After the completion of the questionnaire, the participants were informed about the real aim of the study.

CHAPTER 3

RESULTS

Prior to analyses the data was checked for missing values, normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. The missing values were below than 5% and they were replaced by mean for each case. After eliminating multivariate outliers data was reduced to 308 participants.

3.1 Descriptive Information about the Variables in the Study

Mean values of variables in the study can be seen in Table 3.1. 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. The results revealed that participants have slightly positive attitudes toward SH in terms of accepting it as a result of provocative behavior of women (M = 3.25, SD = .95) and as normal flirtations between men and women (M = 3.31, SD = 1.04). On the other hand, participants scored low on accepting SH as a trivial matter (M = 1.77, SD = 1.04) meaning that they view sexual harassment as a social problem. For domains of locus of control, the mean score of personal control was 2.61 (SD = .65), meaning that participants had more internal personal control. For other domains of locus of control which were related to external forces, participants scored high in belief in fate (M = 4.10, SD = 1.15), and slightly high in belief in chance (M = 3.41, SD = .72). On the other hand, participants were low in belief in unjust world (M = 2.93, SD = .80), and slightly low in belief in meaningless of the effortfulness (M = 3.03, SD = .74). Lastly, participants' score on HS (M = 3.69, SD = .96) and BS (M = 3.71, SD = .87) were moderately high, meaning that participants have both hostile and benevolent feelings toward women.

Table 3.1 *General Means and Gender Differences among Study Variables*

	General		Males		Females		t
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Provocative Behavior	3.25	.95	3.63	.97	3.01	.87	-5.86*
Normal Flirtations	3.32	1.04	3.64	1.05	3.12	.98	-4.40*
Trivial Matter	1.77	.71	1.98	.82	1.64	.59	-4.15*
Hostile Sexism (HS)	3.69	.96	4.11	.89	3.42	.90	-6.62*
Benevolent Sexism (BS)	3.71	.88	3.74	.84	3.69	.90	-.51
Personal control	2.61	.65	2.59	.71	2.62	.61	.45
Belief in chance	3.41	.72	3.32	.65	3.46	.75	1.75
Meaningless of the effortfulness	3.03	.74	3.11	.75	2.99	.73	-.41
Belief in fate	4.10	1.15	3.97	1.18	4.19	1.12	1.65
Belief in unjust world	2.93	.80	3.15	.80	2.79	.77	-3.81*

*$p < .001$

3.2 Gender Differences among Study Variables (Hypothesis 1)

The first hypothesis suggested that males have more tolerance on SH than females have. In order to find out this difference independent sample t-tests were performed. As seen Table 3.1, there were significant differences between males and females in subfactors of SHAS. In detail, males (M = 3.64, SD = .97) scored significantly higher than females on acceptance of SH as the result of provocative behaviors of women (M = 3.01, SD = .87, t (306) = -5.86, $p < .001$). In addition, males (M = 3.64, SD = 1.05) tended to see sexual harassing behaviors as normal flirtations than females did (M = 3.12, SD = .98, t (306) = -4.40, $p < .001$). Finally, males (M = 1.72, SD = .73) scored higher than females (M = 1.44, SD = .56) on trivial matter toward SH (t (306) = -3.87, $p < .001$). To sum up, males scored higher than females on each factor, indicating males had more tolerance on sexual harassment.

Independent samples t-test results demonstrated that hostile sexism was endorsed by men (M= 4.11, SD= .89) more than by women (M = 3.42, SD = .90, t (306) = -6.62, p

< .001). On the other hand there was no significant difference between males and females in endorsement of benevolence toward women (t (306) = -.51, *n.s*).

3.3 Inter-correlations among Variables

In order to find associations among variables Pearson bivariate correlations were computed. Table 3.2 demonstrates the correlation coefficients of variables gender, subfactors of SHAS, locus of control, HS, and BS.

The analysis indicated that age was not correlated with any variable except normal flirtations. Age was found to be negatively correlated with normal flirtations (r = -.20, p < .01). Economy class that the respondents perceived themselves belong to, was negatively correlated with provocative behavior (r = -.14, p < .01) and accepting SH as a trivial social problem (r = -.20, p < .01). In addition, perceived economy class was found to be negatively correlated with HS (r = -.11, p < .05).

For subfactors of SHAS, correlational analysis presented that accepting SH as a trivial social problem is positively correlated with provocative behaviors (r = .31, p < .01) and normal flirtations (r = .15, p < .01). On the other hand, the correlation between provocative behaviors and normal flirtations was not significant (r = .09, *n.s*).

HS was found to be positively correlated with BS (r = .36, p < .01). HS was highly and positively correlated with provocative behavior (r = .59, p < .01), with normal flirtations (r = .15, p < .01), and with perceptions of SH as a trivial matter (r = .16, p < .01). Likewise, BS was found to be positively correlated with provocative behavior (r = .30, p < .01), however, 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.*).

Finally, all subfactors of locus of control were found to be significantly correlated with each other. While subfactors related to external forces was found to be positively correlated with both HS and BS, personal control was not. In detail, HS

and BS were correlated with belief in chance (r = .15, p < .01; r = .29, p < .01, respectively), meaninglessness of the effortfulness (r = .28, p < .01; r = .34, p < .01, respectively), belief in fate (r = .21, p < .01; r = .28, p < .01, respectively), and belief in an unjust world (r = .36, p < .01; r = .19, p < .01, respectively). In terms of subfactors of SHAS, accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors was negatively correlated with personal control (r = -.14, p < .01), and positively correlated with meaninglessness of the effortfulness (r = .23, p < .01), belief in fate (r = .29, p < .01), and belief in an unjust world (r = .34, p < .01). Accepting SH as normal flirtations was positively correlated with belief in chance (r = .21, p < .01), meaninglessness of the effortfulness (r = .13, p < .01), belief in fate (r = .27, p < .01), and belief in an unjust world (r = .23, p < .01). Lastly, accepting SH in trivial matter was positively correlated with only personal control (r = .14, p < .01).

Table 3.2. *Pearson Correlations between the Demographic Variables, SHAS, Provocative Behaviors, Normal Flirtations, Perceptions of SH as a Trivial Matter, Domains of Locus of Control, Hostile Sexism, and Benevolent Sexism (N = 308)*

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
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. Locus of Control	-.06	.00	-.02	-.06	.13*	.14*	.09	-							
9. Personal Control	-.08	-.03	-.02	-.03	-.14*	.06	.14*	.76*	-						
10. Belief in chance	-.09	-.09	-.07	.07	.09	.21**	.01	.78*	.42**	-					
10. Meaningless of the effortfulness	.02	.08	.01	-.09	.23*	.13*	-.01	.73*	.29*	.45**	-				
12. Belief in fate	.04	-.09	.07	-.20**	.29**	.27*	.10	.44*	.11*	.29**	.39**	-			
13. Belief in unjust world	-.04	.21*	.05	-.05	.34**	.23**	.23**	.57*	.19**	.41**	.49**	.16**	-		
14. Hostile Sexism (HS)	-.09	.35**	-.03	-.11*	.59**	.15**	.16**	.20*	-.04	.15**	.28**	.21**	.36**	-	
15. Benevolent Sexism (BS)	.01	.03	-.09	.10	.20*	.10	-.16**	.28*	.02	.29**	.34**	.28**	.19**	.36**	-

*Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2–tailed),
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed)

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3.4 The Predictive Power of Domains of Locus of Control, HS, and BS on Subfactors of SHAS (Hypothesis 2)

Because there were significant gender differences in attitudes towards sexual harassment between females and males, analyses were conducted separately for females and males. In addition, since SHAS revealed three subfactors, the predictive power of locus of control, BS, and HS in predicting attitudes toward sexual harassment were analyzed separately for each subscale (accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors; accepting SH as normal flirtations and accepting SH as trivial matter). Lastly, locus of had five domains, thus, its predictive power were analyzed for each subfactor (personal control, belief in chance, meaningless of the effortfulness, belief in fate, and belief in unjust world).

Acceptance of sexual harassment as a result of provocative behaviors among females were significantly predicted by personal control (β = -.17, p < .01), belief in fate (β =.19, p < .01), BS (β =.16, p < .01) and HS (β =.36, p < .01, R^2 =. 34, F (7, 184) = 13.79, p < .01). For males, personal control (β = -.14, p < .01), belief in fate (β =.28, p < .01), belief in unjust world (β =.35, p < .01), and HS (β =.45, p < .01), significantly predicted acceptance of sexual harassment as a result of provocative behaviors (R^2 =. 49, F (7, 111) = 15.12, p < .01).

Acceptance of sexual harassment as normal flirtations was significantly predicted by belief in chance (β = .41, p < .01), meaningless of the effortfulness (β =.17, p < .01), belief in fate (β =.49, p < .01) among female participants (R^2 = .30, F (7, 184) = 11.05, p < .001). For males, only belief in fate (β = .27, p < .01) and belief in unjust world (β = .26, p < .01) significantly predicted acceptance of sexual harassment as normal flirtations (R^2 = .15, F (7, 111) = 2.80, p < .01).

Lastly, acceptance of sexual harassment as trivial matter was predicted by personal control (β = .24, p < .01) and belief in unjust world (β = .23, p < .01) among female participants (R^2 = .09, F (7, 184) = 2.58, p < .01). In fact, females having less personal control and females believing unjust world had trivial matter for SH,

meaning they did not tend to accept SH as social problem. Among males, belief in unjust world (β = .20, p < .01), BS (β = -.36, p < .01), and HS (β =.29, p < .01) significantly predicted seeing SH as a social problem. That is, males believing unjust world and having hostile sexist beliefs tended to see SH in trivial matter, while males having benevolent sexist beliefs tended to accept SH as a social problem. (R^2 = .27, F (7, 111) = 5.72, p < .01).

Table 3.3 *Summary of Regression Analyses for Variables Predicting Attitudes toward Sexual Harassment*

Variables	Provocative Behaviors		Normal Flirtations		Trivial Matter	
	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males
	β	*β*	*β*	*β*	*β*	*β*
Personal control	**-.17***	**-.14***	.10	.05	**.24***	.10
Belief in chance	-.02	-.05	**.41****	.07	-.13	.10
Meaningless of the effortfulness	-.09	-.10	**.17***	-.05	- .09	-.11
Belief in fate	**.19***	**.28***	**.49****	**.27***	- .08	-.09
Belief in unjust world	.09	**.35***	-.03	**.26***	**.23***	**.20***
BS	**.16***	.05	.08	.13	-.03	**-.36****
HS	**.36****	**.45****	.00	.08	-.00	**.29***
R^2	.34	.49	.30	.15	.09	.27
Adjusted R^2	.32	.46	.27	.10	.06	.22
F change	13.79	15.12	11.05	2.80	2.58	5.72
Significant F change	.00	.00	.00	.01	.02	.00

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3.5 The Predictive Power of Subfactors of Locus of Control on Hostile and Benevolent Sexism (Hypothesis 3)

In order to examine predictive powers of domains of locus of control on hostile and benevolent sexism standard regression analyses were conducted. Five dimensions of locus of control (personal control, belief in chance, meaningless of the effortfulness, belief in fate, belief in unjust world) were entered as predictors and HS and BS were entered as dependent variables.

As seen in Table 3.4, for females, belief in fate (β = .17, p < .01) and belief in unjust world (β = .21, p < .01) significantly predicted females' level of hostile sexism (R^2 = .17, F (5, 186) = 7.45, p < .01). In addition, belief in chance (β = .25, p < .01) and belief in fate (β =.18, p < .01) significantly predicted their levels of benevolent sexism (R^2 = .23, F (5, 186) = 11.20, p < .01). For males, personal control (β = -.22, p < .01), belief in fate (β = .19, p < .01), and belief in unjust world (β = .24, p < .01) significantly predicted their hostile sexist beliefs. (R^2 = .16, F (5, 113) = 4.37, p < .001). Only meaningless of the effortfulness (β = .35, p < .01) significantly predicted males' benevolent sexism (R^2 = .14, F (5, 113) = 3.71, p < .01).

Table 3.4 *Regression Analyses for Subfactors of Locus of Control Predicting HS and BS*

Variables	Hostile Sexism		Benevolent Sexism	
	Females	Males	Females	Males
	β	β	β	β
Personal control	-.11	-.22	.11	-.18
Belief in chance	.09	.02	**.26***	.09
Meaningless of the effortfulness	.10	.10	.16	**.35***
Belief in fate	**.17***	**.20***	**.18***	.10
Belief in unjust world	**.21***	**.24***	.08	-.18
R^2	.17	.16	.23	.14
Adjusted R^2	.14	.13	.21	.10
F change	7.45	4.37	11.20	3.71
Significant F change	.01	.00	.00	.00

3.6 The Mediator Roles of HS and BS in the Relationships between Domains of Locus of Control and Attitudes toward SH (Hypothesis 4)

In order to understand the roles of HS and BS in the relationships between domains of locus of control and attitudes toward SH mediational analyses were conducted for both females and males. To test mediation effects, commonly used approach laid out by Baron and Kenny (1986) was used. Accordingly, each mediation analysis required three regression equations. The first tested for a significant relationship between the independent variable and the mediator. The second regression analysis looked at the relationship between the independent and the dependent variable. If both of these relations are significant, a third equation is computed in which both the independent variable and the mediator variable are included as predictors of the dependent variable. Evidence of mediation exists, if the effect of the independent variable is reduced in this third equation, a reduction that can be tested by Sobel's test.

As seen in Table 3.4 and Table 3.5, believing in fate significantly predicted females' BS, HS and accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors of women, hence mediation analyses conducted considering these variables for females. In addition, males' belief in fate and belief in unjust world significantly predicted their HS and accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors, thus, these variables were conducted for mediation analyses for males.

Firstly, for females, in order to understand the role of HS and BS in the relationship between belief in fate and accepting SH as provocative behaviors mediation analyses were conducted. Following the strategy mentioned above, firstly separate regression analyses were conducted to test significant relationships of belief in fate with hostile sexism and provocative behaviors. Belief in fate significantly predicted both hostile sexism (β = .29, p <.01) and provocative behaviors (β = .34, p <.01). When belief in fate and hostile sexism were entered in the equation, the association between belief in fate and provocative behaviors reduced (β = .21, p <.01). Thus, as seen in Figure 3.1, the relationship between belief in fate and acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behaviors was mediated by females' hostile sexism levels. Sobel test also indicated that the decrease in the beta value was significant (Z = 3.54, p <.01).

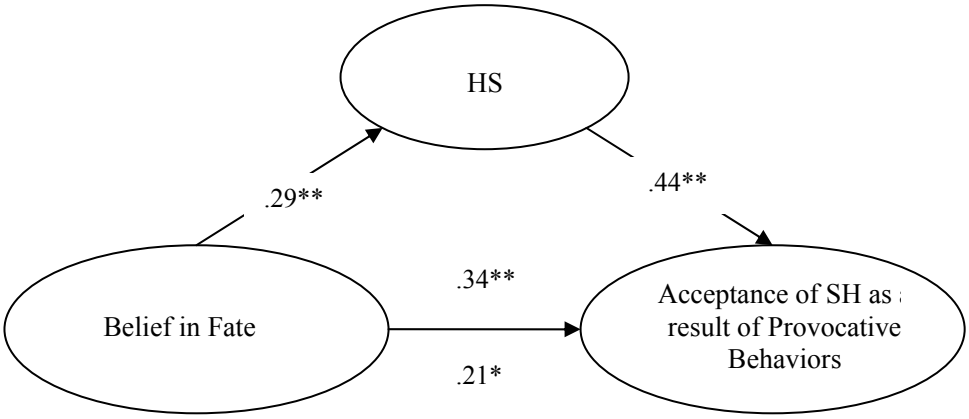


Figure 3.1 *Belief in Fate and Hostile Sexism Predicting Acceptance of SH as a Result of Provocative Behaviors for* ***Females***

Likewise, benevolent sexism was also found as mediator between females' belief in fate and their seeing SH as a result of provocative behaviors. The results indicated that belief in fate significantly predicted both benevolent sexism (β = .31, p <.01) and provocative behaviors (β = .34, p <.01). When belief in fate and benevolent sexism were entered in the equation, the association between belief in fate and provocative behaviors reduced (β = .30, p <.01). Thus, as seen in Figure 3.2, the relationship between belief in fate and acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behaviors was mediated by the females' benevolent sexism levels. Sobel test also indicated that the decrease in the beta value was significant (Z = 3.30, p <.01).

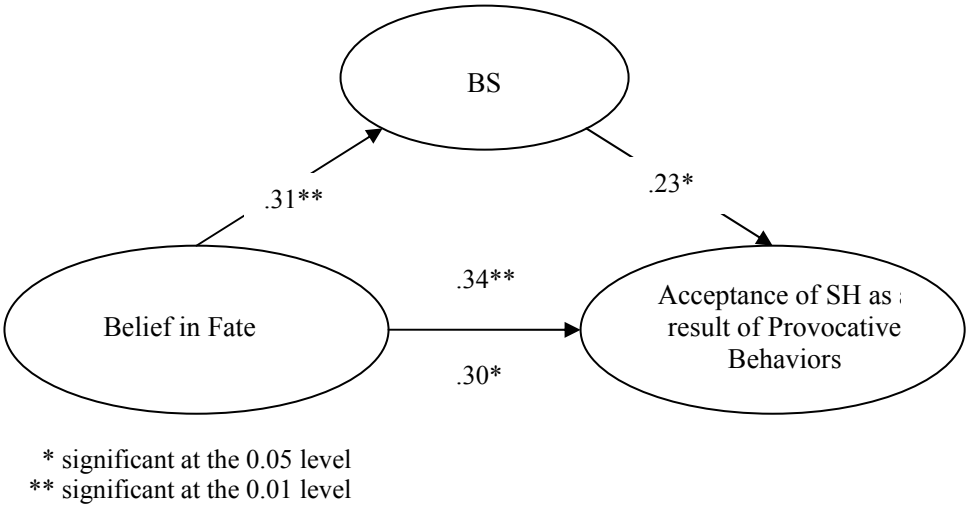
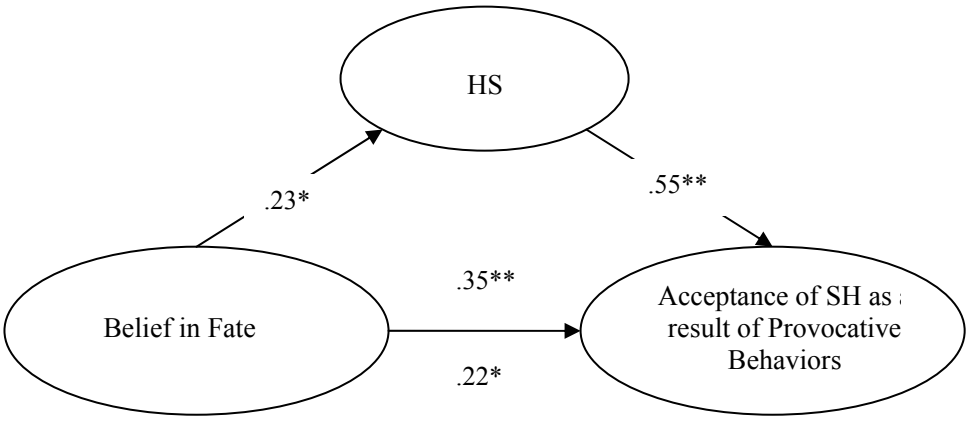


Figure 3.2 *Belief in Fate and Benevolent Sexism Predicting Acceptance of SH as a Result of Provocative Behaviors for* ***Females***

For males, in order to test mediational role of hostile sexism on the relationships of belief in fate and belief in unjust world with accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors, same procedures with above were followed. Results revealed that belief in fate (β = .23, p <.01) and belief in unjust world (β = .27, p <.01) significantly predicted hostile sexism and provocative behaviors (β = .35, p <.01; β = .36, p <.01, respectively). When belief in fate and hostile sexism were entered in the equation, the association between belief in fate and provocative behaviors reduced (β = .22, p <.01). Similarly, when belief in unjust world and hostile sexism were entered in the equation, the association between belief in unjust world and provocative behaviors reduced (β = .21, p <.01). Thus, as seen in Figure 3.3 and Figure 3.4, the relationships of belief in fate and belief in unjust world with acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behaviors were mediated by the males' hostile sexism levels. Sobel test also indicated that the decreases in the beta values were significant (Z = 2.43, p <.01, Z = 3.13, p <.01, respectively).



* significant at the .01 level
** significant at the .001 level

Figure 3.3 *Belief in Fate and Hostile Sexism Predicting Acceptance of SH as a Result of Provocative Behaviors for* ***Males***

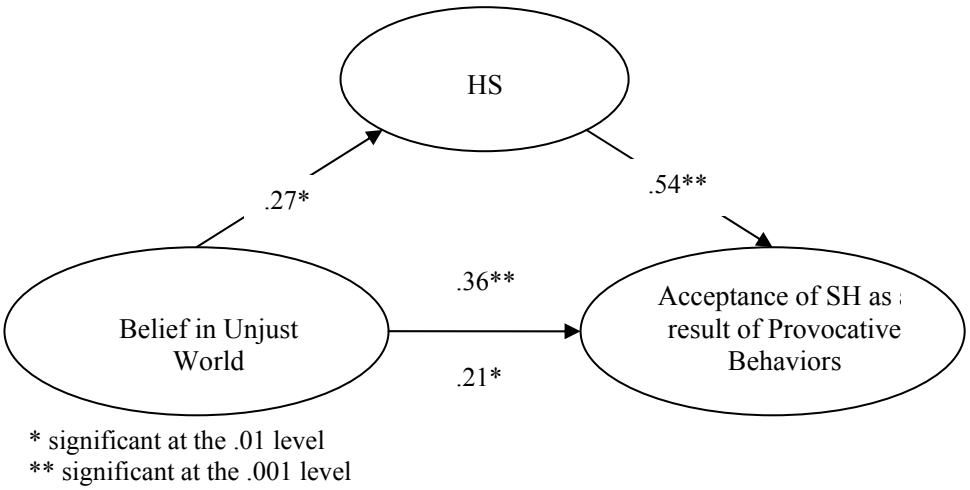


Figure 3.4 *Belief in Unjust World and Hostile Sexism Predicting Acceptance of SH as a Result of Provocative Behaviors for* ***Males***

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The main aim of this thesis was to explore the relationships among locus of control, ambivalent sexism, and attitudes toward sexual harassment. Firstly, sexual harassment attitudes scale (SHAS) was developed by Salman and Turgut (2006) for the purpose of measuring these attitudes. Since SHAS has three domains (accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors, accepting SH as normal flirtations, and accepting SH in trivial matter), the predictive powers of locus of control and ambivalent sexism were investigated for each subscale separately. Locus of control was also examined in its dimensions, which are personal control, belief in chance, meaninglessness of the effortfulness, belief in fate, and belief in an unjust world. In this chapter, the results of the analyses will be discussed. Subsequently, the importance and the limitations of the study and the possible implications of the findings will be discussed.

4.1 Gender Differences in Attitudes toward Sexual Harassment

Gender differences were examined for each subscale of attitudes toward sexual harassment scale. In detail, males were found to be more likely than females to accept SH as a result of provocative behaviors and as normal flirtations. In addition, males were found to be more likely to trivialize the problem, meaning males less than females accept SH as a social problem. These findings were in line with the literature (Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002; Murrell & Dietz-Uhler, 1993; Sigal & Jacobsen, 1999).

In terms of accepting SH as a result of provocative behaviors of women, men agreed more than women, for example, that women who have been sexually harassed are likely to have provocated this behavior by the way they talk, act, or dress; that an attractive woman (or man) must expect and learn how to handle sexual advances; and that flirtations make interest by teachers or assistants to get better grades or to

improve their school situation. These findings were in light with the literature (e.g., Beauvais, 1986; Jensen & Gutek, 1982; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Lott et al., 1982) indicating that men are more accepting sexually harassing behaviors than women as a result of provocative behaviors of women. Thus, it seems that males were more likely to perceive victims of SH as contributing to their own harassment, either by provoking it directly or by not properly handling sexual attention from males. Jensen and Gutek (1982) explained this difference by using defensive attribution theory (Shaver 1970), which proposes that the threat posed by an event with negative consequences can lead to an exaggeration of the responsibility assigned to an innocent victim. Since they do not want to be blamed as provocator in the future women were less likely to blame women sexually harassed. On the other hand, males who do not want to be blamed as perpetrator in the future see SH as results of women's behaviors.

In addition, males were found to be more likely to consider SH as natural outcome of the relationship between men and women. Males stated more than women that it is natural for men to make sexual advances to a woman he finds attractive, and they stated that innocent flirtations make the workday or school day interesting. According to these results it is possible to claim that males tend to see natural being assertive to start a relationship, to flirt with a woman they found attractive and with who are not in romantic relationship. These results can be explained by the general expectancies of males in the context of romantic relationships. Sakallı and Curun (2001) demonstrated that men were considered to be initiators of the intimate relationships and they were expected to be more assertive and dominant in a romantic relationship, thus, it is conceivable that sexual advances made by men can be seen as normal and acceptable.

Similar to other subscales males and females were significantly differentiated in terms of perceiving SH as a trivial matter. In fact, women were more likely to state that SH is a social problem and a very disturbing situation and a way of degrading women, while males were more likely to trivialize the SH problem. Since women are the victims of harassment in the great majority of cases (Kenig & Ryan, 1986) it is

conceivable that women are more sensitive for such a concern and they are more likely to accept SH as a social problem.

4.2 Predictors of Attitudes toward Sexual Harassment

Since the main aims of this thesis were to explore how locus of control and ambivalent sexism are associated with attitudes toward sexual harassment on three distinct factors (provocative beliefs, normal flirtations and trivial matter), predictive power of the concerned variables were investigated. Locus of control have five subscales (personal control, belief in chance, meaninglessness of the effortfulness, belief in fate, and belief in an unjust world), thus, these subscales were analyzed separately. In addition, because there were significant gender differences regarding attitudes toward SH, analyzes were conducted for males and females separately.

Firstly, regression analysis demonstrated that acceptance of sexual harassment as a result of provocative behaviors was significantly predicted by personal control, belief in fate, and HS for both females and males, and predicted by BS for only females. Specifically, both males and females, who have internal personal control, tend to attribute more responsibility to women's behaviors as a cause of SH. This result suggests that participants having higher personal control perceived the incidence of SH as a more controllable and stable event, thus attribute more responsibility to the victims of SH. Such people might think that women can control facing with SH by being careful of their dress, talking and behaviors. This can be consistent with Weiner's (1985) arguments about attributions. He proposed that the assignment of responsibility requires internal and controllable causality and having internal locus of control leads people to think that victims had control and if they face to bad incident they would deserve it. Empirical studies supported this argument by showing that internal people are more likely to blame victims in various stigmatized samples such as cancer patients, alcoholic, blind, obese, and poor people etc (e.g., Phares and Wilson, 1972; Wallster, 1966; Weiner, 1995). Similarly, people having internal locus control have been found to be more likely to blame rape victims (e.g., Paulsen, 1979; Yalçın, 2006). Consistent with these findings it is plausible that people having higher personal control perceive SH as a preventable event which further contributed to their acceptance of SH as a results of provocative behaviors of women.

Hostile sexism was also found as significant predictor in identification of acceptance of SH as results of provocative behaviors of women. This finding is consistent with previous studies which reported HS was important predictor of tolerance to SH (Russell & Trigg, 2004); and HS in predicting men's likelihood to harass sexually (Begany & Milburn, 2001). Since HS encompasses the ideas of women who try to gain control over men through using sexual attraction and their sexuality to tease men, it is conceivable that hostile sexist people tend to see women's behaviors as provocative and ultimately causes of SH. Therefore, as Turgut (2007) suggested that people having more HS might be more likely to believe that women's acts and sexual teases cause to SH, and they utilize such attribution as a way of justification for sexual harassment.

In terms external domains of locus control, both males and females having higher 'belief in fate' and males having higher 'belief in unjust world' were more likely to accept SH as a result of provocative behaviors. That is, people believing that their lives are controlled by 'fate' and 'powerful others' tended to have more tolerance to SH. The reason behind this finding might be explained by the relationship between believing these external forces and having sexist beliefs. In the literature, people having external locus of control have been found to have more prejudiced attitudes toward subordinates (e.g., Duckitt, 1984; Furnham, 1985). Duckitt (1984) argued that people having internal locus of control as opposed to external locus of control are less threatened by and more tolerant of persons who are different from them, thus external people have more prejudiced attitudes. With regard to women, Furnham (1985) argued that since external people tended to confirm authority and norms they are more likely to have conservative attitudes toward women. Therefore, it is possible that believing in fate and unjust world lead to have more sexist beliefs, and then ultimately lead to attributing responsibility to sexually harassed women. This indirect effect of believing external forces was examined by mediation analysis, which is discussed in the following section.

It is noteworthy that the concept of 'just world belief' proposed by Lerner (1965) and 'belief in unjust world', subfactor of locus of control scale, should not be considered

as opposite concepts. 'Just world belief' encompasses the belief that the world is just and people get what they deserve. By blaming victims of misfurtunes as being responsible for their own fate, people try to mintain their just world belief. Consistent with this, people having strong just world belief have been found to attribute more responsibility to rape victims (e.g., Aderman, Brehm, & Katz, 1974; Kleinke & Meyer, 1990; Sakallı-Uğurlu, Yalçın, & Glick, 2007). On the other hand, although the name implies the opposite 'belief in unjust world', which is a subfactor of locus of control scale, has different meaning. As Dağ (2002) presented, this factor respresents the beliefs that the world is unjust becouse it is controlled by powerful people, thus ordinary person is powerless and helpless which make people feel less control over their lives. The present study indicated that this factor also positively related with attributing responsibility to victims of sexual harassment. That is, people having high belief in unjust world tend to see the world controlled by powerful others, then accept sexist beliefs easily and ultimately have more tolerance to SH.

Acceptance of sexual harassment as normal flirtations was significantly predicted by belief in chance, meaningless of the effortfulness, and belief in fate among females, by belief in fate and unjust world among males. That is, females who believe that their lives are controlled by chance and fate and their efforts are meaningless and males who have fatalistic beliefs and beliefs that the world is controlled by powerful others were more likely to accept SH as normal flirtations. Similar to explanations above having external locus of control by believing in chance, fate, and powerful others might be related with sexist beliefs and then related with tolerance to SH. For females, the predictive power of these factors was higher than those for males. This can be explained by the association between believing in external forces controlling their lives and confirming social norms for females. According to Lefcourt (1976), people who attribute the control of their lives to external forces are more likely to confirm norms, thus people believing that chance, fate and powerful others control their lives are more likely to confirm patriarchal system and sexist beliefs. Supporting this argument, believing in external forces was found to be significantly correlated with BS and HS, meaning that people accepting 'external forces' as controlling one's life were more likely to accept sexist beliefs. Since sexist beliefs endorse men's dominance and justify men's control over women having external

locus of control might lead females to accept men's power of control. Although HS was found to be significantly correlated with accepting SH as normal flirtations the regression analysis did not support its predictive power on this factor. As a result of this, mediation analysis could not be conducted to test whether believing in external forces as controlling the life lead to having sexist beliefs and ultimately lead to accept SH as normal flirtations. However, the results supported that believing in external forces, chance and fate, in particular, controlling one's life is associated with both sexist beliefs and accepting SH as normal flirtations.

Lastly, trivializing the problem of sexual harassment was significantly predicted by personal control and belief in unjust world among females, and hostile and benevolent sexism among males. Females feeling less personal control and believing unjust world which powerful others have control around them tended to trivialize this problem. Trivializing the problem of SH might be a coping strategy for females who feel less control over their lives. As Leontopoulou (2006) found, people having external locus of control tend to choose avoidance as a coping strategy when they face to problem. Similarly, females feeling less control over their lives and believing their lives are controlled by powerful others might avoid gender problems and might not see them as a social problem. This is also consistent with the idea of system justification theory (Jost & Bajani, 1994) suggesting that subordinates accept the situation justifiable.

For males, not locus of control but having sexist beliefs was found to be significantly associated with seeing SH as a social problem. Interestingly, BS had negative association with trivial perceptions of SH. This means that males having BS were less likely to accept SH in a trivial matter; and more likely to see SH as a social problem. This finding can be related with the fact that BS encompasses protectionism towards women and seeing them as pure and the weak sex, who needs protection from men (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Since BS covers such protectionist beliefs, males having BS believed that women should be protected, thus they were more likely to accept SH as a important social problem.

4.3 Does Sexist Beliefs Play a Role in the Relationship between Females' Locus of Control and Their Attitudes toward SH?

As results indicated, females scored low in personal control (having more internal personal control), and females scored high in belief in fate (having more fatalistic beliefs) tended to see SH as a result of provocative behaviors. As literature indicated, people having internal locus of control tend to see bad events as controllable and blame innocent victims more (e.g., Phares and Wilson, 1972; Wallster, 1966; Weiner, 1995). This was supported in the present study by indicating that people having internal 'personal control' were more likely to see SH as a result of provocative behaviors. On the other hand, for other domain of locus of control, belief in fate, externals were more likely to see SH as a result of provocative behaviors. This situation can be explained with the association between believing in external forces, fate in particular, and having sexist beliefs. This indirect effect of believing external forces was tested with mediation analysis, and results supported this expectation. Indeed, both HS and BS mediated the relationship between females' belief in fate and their acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behaviors of women. This means that fatalistic females were more likely to accept sexist beliefs which make them more tolerant to SH.

One reason why fatalistic females tended to have more sexist beliefs might be explained by the relationship between conformity and locus of control. For example, Ryckman, Rodda, and Sherman (1972) found that externals were more conforming to the opinions of powerful others. Aspiring from this, females who were high in belief in fate were more likely to accept the norms which patriarchy encompasses. It might be easy for fatalistic females to accept males' control over their life and conform what patriarchal system imposes. In addition, it was not tested but fatalism can be related with system justification suggesting subordinates might accept their own inferiority against dominant group and tend to see the system as a whole as fair legitimate, and justifiable (Jost & Bajani, 1994). In the case of females, in order to justify gender related problems and patriarchal system females might use fatalistic explanations. So, fatalistic females might have more gender specific system-justification tendencies, thus they have more sexist beliefs which ultimately make them more tolerant to SH.

4.4 Does Sexist Beliefs Play a Role in the Relationship between Males' Locus of Control and Their Attitudes toward SH?

In order to investigate the role of sexist beliefs in the associations of males' locus of control their acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behaviors mediation analyses were conducted. Results revealed that males' belief in fate and belief in unjust world were significantly associated with their hostile sexist beliefs and ultimately associated with their acceptance of SH as a result of provocative behaviors. The reason why males' levels of hostile sexist beliefs increase as their belief in fate and unjust world increase can be explained by 'projection model', which was proposed by Cowan and Mills (2004). According to the authors, males tend to show hostility toward women in order to maintain their sense of control. The authors claimed that males' tendency to deny the uncertainties lends itself to the projection of these uncertainties onto others –namely women. They found that external locus of control accounted for the most variance in hostility toward women. Consistent with these arguments in the present study, males having more fatalistic and believing unjust world were found to have more hostile sexist beliefs. Ultimately their sense of this adequacy was manifested in their hostile sexist beliefs, which further contributed to their attributing guilt to women who are sexually harassed.

4.5 Conclusions and Main Contributions of the Thesis

The aim of the thesis was investigate how domains of locus of control are associated with ambivalent sexism and attitudes toward sexual harassment with considering gender differences. The results indicated some domains of locus of control were significantly associated with both males and females' levels of sexist beliefs and tolerance to sexual harassment. In detail, this study indicated that people having internal personal control were more likely to attribute responsibility to sexually harassed women. Females believing external forces such as belief in fate and powerful others were more likely to have sexist beliefs and tolerate SH by seeing provocative behaviors as causes of SH, and trivializing this problem. Other important findings were found for males which showing that males who believe external forces such as belief in fate and powerful others tended to have more hostile sexist beliefs and ultimately have more tolerance to SH by blaming sexually harassed women

more. On the other hand, benevolent sexism was found positively related with males' tendency to see SH as a social problem since benevolent sexism leads to protection of women from disturbing events.

This thesis contributed to the literature by demonstrating the relationships among domains of locus of control, ambivalent sexism, and attitudes toward sexual harassment for the first time. In Turkish literature in particular, sexual harassment has not attracted enough attention. Some studies regarding sexual harassment were conducted with Turkish sample, which considered coping behaviors in SH context (Wasti & Cortina, 2002), effects of culture and gender on attitudes toward SH, effects of individual differences on SH perceptions (Toker, 2003), and effects of ambivalent sexism on attitudes toward SH (Turgut, 2007). The present study contributed to previous studies by investigating the roles of locus of control, HS, and BS on attitudes toward SH. It has been shown that not only ambivalent sexism but also its link with domains of locus of control were related how people view sexual harassment. In addition to attitudes toward sexual harassment, this study contributed to literature by demonstrating the relationship between domains of locus of control and sexist beliefs.

Finally, a new scale measuring attitudes toward sexual harassment was brought to Turkish literature with this study. Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale (SHAS, Salman & Turgut, 2006) was tested with another independent sample. Psychometrics abilities of SHAS were proved, suggesting that it can be used as a reliable and valid instrument for future studies.

4.6 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Researches

This thesis has some limitations which should be taken consideration for the future studies. Firstly, there are some limitations about SHAS, which is newly developed scale. The statements in 'normal flirtations' factor, for example, "innocent flirtations make the workday or school day interesting", "it is only natural to make advances to a person one finds attractive" could be understood by participants as flirtations are normal in life, rather than sexual harassment is normal. As a result of this, in the future studies, these statements of this factor should be revised. Likewise, the third

factor, trivial matter, had less reliability score than expected. This can be related with the wordings of statements in an explicit way. As Turgut (2007) suggested this factor may be revised to tap more overt ideas concerning accepting SH as a trivial matter.

Lastly, participants of the study were from only Middle East Technical University, which leads to making generalizations from findings difficult. According to Sakallı-Uğurlu and Glick (2003) METU students can be considered more egalitarian and liberal as compared with rest of the population, hence people from different contexts should be used in future studies. In addition, as Murrell and Dietz-Uhler (1993) suggested attitudes toward SH were different between students and employees, thus employees also should be studied in the future studies.

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APPENDIX A

SEXUAL HARASSMENT ATTITUDE SCALE
CİNSEL TACİZE İLİŞKİN TUTUMLAR ÖLÇEGİ

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 sözel olan tüm cinsel içerikli yaklaşımları göz önünde bulundurarak soruları cevaplandırınız.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç Katılmıyorum					**Çok 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 süzülmek günü zevkli kılabilir.

___ 4)- Çekici bulunduğundan dolayı karşı cinsiyete yakınlaşmaya çalışmak doğaldır.

___ 5)- İstenmediği halde bir kişinin romantik ilişkiye zorlanılması 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 cinsel ilgisine yüz vermek, kadınlar tarafından kendi okul koşullarını iyileştirmek için sıkça kullanılır.

___ 12)- Bir erkeğin çekici bulduğu 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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* Reverse items

APPENDIX B

LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE (DAĞ, 2002)
KONTROL ODAĞI ÖLÇEĞİ

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

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

____ 1) İnsanın yaşamındaki mutsuzlukların çoğu, biraz da şanssızlığına bağlıdır.
____ 2) İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın üşütüp hasta olmanın önüne geçemez.
____ 3) Bir şeyin olacağı varsa eninde sonunda mutlaka olur.
____ 4) İnsan ne kadar çabalarsa çabalasın, ne yazık ki değeri genellikle anlaşılmaz.
____ 5) İnsanlar savaşları önlemek için ne kadar çaba gösterirlerse göstersinler, savaşlar daima olacaktır.
____ 6) Bazı insanlar doğuştan şanslıdır.
____ 7) İnsan ilerlemek için güç sahibi kişilerin gönlünü hoş tutmak zorundadır.
____ 8) İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın, hiç bir şey istediği gibi sonuçlanmaz.
____ 9) Bir çok insan, rastlantıların yaşamlarını ne derece etkilediğinin farkında değildir.
____ 10) Bir insanın halen ciddi bir hastalığa yakalanmamış olması sadece bir şans meselesidir.
____ 11) Dört yapraklı yonca bulmak insana şans getirir.
____ 12) İnsanın burcu hangi hastalıklara daha yatkın olacağını belirler.
____ 13) Bir sonucu elde etmede insanın neleri bildiği değil, kimleri tanıdığı önemlidir.
____ 14) İnsanın bir günü iyi başladıysa iyi; kötü başladıysa da kötü gider.
____ 15) Başarılı olmak çok çalışmaya bağlıdır; şansın bunda payı ya hiç yoktur ya da çok azdır.*

____ 16) Aslında şans diye bir şey yoktur.*

____ 17) Hastalıklar çoğunlukla insanların dikkatsizliklerinden kaynaklanır.*

____ 18) Talihsizlik olarak nitelenen durumların çoğu, yetenek eksikliğinin, ihmalin, tembelliğin ve benzeri nedenlerin sonucudur.*

____ 19) İnsan, yaşamında olabilecek şeyleri kendi kontrolü altında tutabilir.*

____ 20) Çoğu durumda yazı-tura atarak da isabetli kararlar verilebilir.

____ 21) İnsanın ne yapacağı konusunda kararlı olması, kadere güvenmesinden daima iyidir.*

____ 22) İnsan fazla bir çaba harcamasa da, karşılaştığı sorunlar kendiliğinden çözülür.

____ 23) Çok uzun vadeli planlar yapmak her zaman akıllıca olmayabilir, çünkü bir çok şey zaten iyi ya da kötü şansa bağlıdır.

____ 24) Bir çok hastalık insanı yakalar ve bunu önlemek mümkün değildir.

____ 25) İnsan ne yaparsa yapsın, olabilecek kötü şeylerin önüne geçemez.

____ 26) İnsanın istediğini elde etmesinin talihle bir ilgisi yoktur.*

____ 27) İnsan kendisini ilgilendiren bir çok konuda kendi başına doğru kararlar alabilir.*

____ 28) Bir insanın başına gelenler, temelde kendi yaptıklarının sonucudur.*

____ 29) Halk, yeterli çabayı gösterse siyasal yolsuzlukları ortadan kaldırabilir.*

____ 30) Şans ya da talih hayatta önemli bir rol oynamaz.*

____ 31) Sağlıklı olup olmamayı belirleyen esas şey insanların kendi yaptıkları ve alışkanlıklarıdır.*

____ 32) İnsan kendi yaşamına temelde kendisi yön verir.*

____ 33) İnsanların talihsizlikleri yaptıkları hataların sonucudur.*

____ 34) İnsanlarla yakın ilişkiler kurmak, tesadüflere değil, çaba göstermeye bağlıdır.*

____ 35) İnsanın hastalanacağı varsa hastalanır; bunu önlemek mümkün değildir.

____ 36) İnsan bugün yaptıklarıyla gelecekte olabilecekleri değiştirebilir.*

____ 37) Kazalar, doğrudan doğruya hataların sonucudur.*

____ 38) Bu dünya güç sahibi bir kaç kişi tarafından yönetilmektedir ve sade vatandaşın bu konuda yapabileceği fazla bir şey yoktur.

____ 39) İnsanın dini inancının olması, hayatta karşılaşacağı bir çok zorluğu daha kolay aşmasına yardım eder.

____ 40) Bir insan istediği kadar akıllı olsun, bir işe başladığında şansı yaver gitmezse başarılı olamaz.

____ 41) İnsan kendine iyi baktığı sürece hastalıklardan kaçınabilir.*

____ 42) Kaderin insan yaşamı üzerinde çok büyük bir rolü vardır.

____ 43) Kararlılık bir insanın istediği sonuçları almasında en önemli etkendir.*

____ 44) İnsanlara doğru şeyi yaptırmak bir yetenek işidir; şansın bunda payı ya hiç yoktur ya da çok azdır.*

____ 45) İnsan kendi kilosunu, yiyeceklerini ayarlayarak kontrolü altında tutabilir.*

____ 46) İnsanın yaşamının alacağı yönü, çevresindeki güç sahibi kişiler belirler.

____ 47) Büyük ideallere ancak çalışıp çabalayarak ulaşılabilir.*

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* Reverse items

APPENDIX C

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 bosluga yazınız.

1	2	3	4	5	6
Hiç Katılmıyorum					**Çok 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 hevesindeler.

___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 yakınırlar.

___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 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 Üst sınıf

7)- Hayatınızın bir döneminde herhangi bir cinsel tacize uğradınız mı?

___ Hayır ___ Evet, sözel tacize uğradım ___ Evet, fiziksel tacize uğradım

KATILDIĞINIZ İÇİN TEŞEKKÜRLER…