# The Effects of Race and Gender on Victim-Blaming in the Workplace

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# ABSTRACT

Sexual assault is a prevalent issue in the North of Cyprus, particularly among students working in the workplace. This thesis aims to explore the complex interplay of gender and race in shaping victim blaming attitudes towards students who experience sexual assault in the workplace. The main hypothesis of this study is that participants will exhibit more victim blaming and negative perceptions towards female and foreign victims compared to male and local victims. Additionally, an interaction effect of race and gender is expected, such that women of a foreign race will be blamed more and targeted with more negative attitudes. To test these hypotheses, an online questionnaire was carried out to assess participants' victim blaming attitudes towards hypothetical sexual assault scenarios involving students from different genders and races through the use of vignettes. The survey measured participants' levels of ambivalent sexism, masculinity endorsement, modern racism, prior experience of sexual assault, and workplace harassment. Findings revealed that victim blaming, and victim perception were significantly related to ambivalent sexism, modern racism, nationality, and prior experience of sexual assault and workplace harassment. However, the study did not find a significant interaction effect between race and gender. Additionally, participants who were more ambivalent sexist, modern racist, and had more experience with sexual assault and workplace harassment were more likely to blame and have negative perceptions of victims. The findings of the study are illuminated amidst the tapestry of existing research.Thus they can be further used in various places such as work spaces in the development of better work policies. Future research may consider the effects of femininity or religiosity as covariates when controlling for the effects of victim blaming on race and gender.

**Keywords:** victim blaming, victim perception, gender, race, ambivalent sexism, masculinity, modern racism, sexual assault, workplace harassment

# ÖZ

Cinsel saldırı, Kıbrıs'ın kuzeyinde, özellikle de işyerinde çalışan öğrenciler arasında yaygın bir sorundur. Bu tez, işyerinde cinsel saldırıya maruz kalan öğrencilere yönelik mağduru suçlayıcı tutumların şekillenmesinde cinsiyet ve ırkın karmaşık etkileşimini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Çalışma, katılımcıların kadın ve yabancı mağdurları erkek ve yerli mağdurlara kıyasla daha fazla suçlayacağını ve onlara karşı daha olumsuz algı sergileyeceğini varsaymaktadır. Buna ek olarak, ırk ve cinsiyet arasında bir etkileşim etkisi beklenmektedir; öyle ki yabancı ırktan kadınlar daha fazla suçlanacak ve daha olumsuz tutumlara hedef olacaktır. Bu hipotezleri test etmek amacıyla, katılımcıların farklı cinsiyet ve ırklardan öğrencilerin yer aldığı varsayımsal cinsel saldırı senaryolarına yönelik mağdur suçlama tutumlarını vinyetler aracılığıyla değerlendirmek üzere çevrimiçi bir anket gerçekleştirilmiştir. Anket ayrıca katılımcıların Çelişik Duygulu cinsiyetçilik, erkeklik onayı, modern ırkçılık, geçmiş cinsel saldırı deneyimi ve işyeri tacizi düzeylerini de ölçmüştür. Bulgular, mağduru suçlama ve mağdur algısının çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik cinsiyetçilik, modern ırkçılık, milliyet ve daha önce cinsel saldırı ve işyeri tacizi deneyimi ile anlamlı şekilde ilişkili olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Ancak, çalışmada ırk ve cinsiyet arasında anlamlı bir etkileşim etkisi bulunmamıştır. Ayrıca, daha çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik cinsiyetçi, modern ırkçı ve cinsel saldırı ve işyeri tacizi konusunda daha fazla deneyime sahip olan katılımcıların mağdurları suçlama ve olumsuz algılara sahip olma olasılığı daha yüksektir. Calışmanın bulguları, mevcut araştırmaların dokusu içinde aydınlatılmış olup, daha iyi çalışma politikalarının geliştirilmesinde çalışma alanları gibi çeşitli yerlerde daha fazla kullanılabilir. Gelecekteki araştırmalar, mağduru suçlamanın ırk ve cinsiyet üzerindeki etkilerini kontrol ederken kadınlık veya dindarlığın etkilerini ortak değişkenler olarak dikkate alabilir.

**Anahtar Kelimeler**: mağdur suçlama, mağdur algısı, toplumsal cinsiyet, ırk, çelişik duygulu cinsiyetçilik, erkeklik, modern ırkçılık, cinsel saldırı, işyeri tacizi

# DEDICATION

TO MY MOTHER PRISCA KABANDA

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| | |
|---|---|
| ANCOVA | Analysis of Covariance |
| APA | American Psychology Association |
| BS | Benevolent Sexism |
| HS | Hostile Sexism |
| SA | Sexual Assault |
| UNW | United Nations Women |
| WHO | World health Organisation |

# Chapter 1

# INTRODUCTION

The concept of victim blaming is a complex and multifaceted one, with far-reaching implications for victims of violence, particularly those of gender-based violence. As evidenced by the literature, sexual assault is a pervasive global issue, affecting individuals from all walks of life     (World Health Organisation, 2013). It occurs not only in homes and on the streets but also in the workplace, where victims often face a range of discouraging attitudes that deter them from reporting their victimization and fear of secondary victimization (Juli et al. 2023).

## 1.1 Sexual Assault in the Workplace

Sexual assault, as comprehensively defined by the World Health Organisation (2017), encompasses a spectrum of nonconsensual sexual behaviors. These behaviors can span from actions that some might dismiss as minor, like an uninvited touch, to heinous acts such as rape. Globally, incidents of sexual assault in the workplace affect millions of Women, while in the EU, across 28 surveyed countries, it was reported that between 45% and 55% have experienced sexual assault since the age of 15 (United Nations Women, 2019). These incidents occur due to the prevalence of situations in which the women have to labor and endure intimidating, unpleasant or humiliating atmospheres while being subjected to numerous sorts of unwanted sexual behavior (Human Rights Watch, 2023). While much of the discourse on sexual assault centers on female victims, it's vital to recognize its universal nature, affecting individuals irrespective of gender. Men, though less frequently spotlighted in this discourse, are

not exempt from such violations (Mclean, 2013). Irrespective of gender, socio-economic status, or profession, sexual assault often emerges from opportunistic scenarios, especially in environments with pronounced power imbalance (Kalra & Bhugra, 2013). One place where sexual assault might occur with severe consequences is the workplace.

The workplace is an environment which is surrounded by different people from different backgrounds trying to achieve a common goal. While it serves as a dynamic space for individuals to merge their talents, foster professional growth, and drive organizational success, it's not without its challenges. Among the most disconcerting of these challenges is the issue of sexual assault. Definitions of workplace sexual assault vary from different regions and under different legislation, however, globally, international organizations such as UN Women and The International Labour Organization have set out guidelines for what may be considered workplace sexual assault. The International Labour Organization, (ILO, 2015) define sexual assault in the workplace as "as any behavior of a sexual nature that affects the dignity of women and men, which is considered as unwanted, unacceptable, inappropriate and offensive to the recipient, and that creates an intimidating, hostile, unstable or offensive work environment". Furthermore, UN Women describes workplace sexual assault, as any unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature that results in physical, psychological or sexual harm that might reasonably be expected or be perceived to cause offence or humiliation, when such conduct interferes with work, is made a condition of employment or creates an intimidating, hostile or offensive work environment (UN Women, 2020). It is found embedded in the emblematic of deep-seated power imbalances, entrenched gender biases, and systemic disparities (Lucarini et al. 2020).

Based upon available research, the statistics are deeply concerning. According to a meta-analysis conducted by Ilies et al. (2003), within the workplace there were statistics as high as 58% in academia and 69% in the military. While nearly 40% of women have reported confronting unwanted sexual advances in their professional lives (Smith & Oritz, 2021). In addition, to the Feldblum and Lipnic (2016) study which noted that there was an estimate of more than one in eight women who experience workplace assault within the work in their lifetime. With specific examples such as sexual assault seen within restaurants; according to survey conducted by Rodriguez and Reyes (2014) they found that women who worked restaurant jobs were twice as likely to experience workplace assault and continue to work the job even after the assault. Amongst women who work in male dominant jobs such as the maritime, the majority of the women reported experiencing workplace sexual assault and after reporting them, no changes were done even among leadership (McCarty, 2022). In addition, female doctors have reported experiencing workplace harassment committed by fellow male doctors in a study conducted in Australia (Stone et al.2019).

These advances, whether they take the form of casual comments or explicit quid pro quo scenarios, are indicative of a broader systemic issue (Garrett, 2011). When victims take the brave step to report these incidents, they often find themselves ensnared in a web of skepticism, blame, or indifference with many victims thus choosing to not report victimization within the workplace as a measure to avoid threats of job loss, actual job loss, and being forced to leave as a consequence of reporting (Alaggia & Wang, 2020).This prevailing culture not only deters many from seeking justice but also emboldens potential perpetrators, perpetuating a cycle of abuse and silence ( Ceelen et al. 2019). Thus, this cultivates an environment where silence becomes the norm and accountability remains elusive.

The immediate trauma of such an experience is profound, but the subsequent reactions victims face can introduce an added layer of distress (Lorenz & O'Callghan, 2022). When these individuals, already grappling with their ordeal, come forward, they are frequently met with reactions that span from subtle doubt to blatant victim-blaming, and occasionally, even scornful laughter (Lumsden & Morgan, 2017). This brings us to the topic of victim blaming.

## 1.2 Victim Blaming

In the aftermath of a crime or any wrongful act, the victims may often be faced with secondary injustice in the form of victim blaming (Cramer et al. 2013). Victim blaming is known as an act when a third party (person) passes judgment and renders a victim of a crime responsible for their victimization (Sheikh & McNamara, 2014). Victim blame is deeply embedded in societal norms and biases and serves to shift the responsibility for the harm from the perpetrator to the victim (Johnson et al. 2021). This harmful narrative is often employed to justify the injustice and abuse inflicted upon the victim under the pretense that they deserve what they are receiving (Schoellkopf, 2012). This is often seen when victims are in a position where they have less power (Fast & Kinewesquao, 2019). Victim blaming can occur at a collective level where for example an ethnic group is blamed for victimization or at an individual level where an individual is blamed for their victimization (Mekawi & Todd, 2018). For the purpose of this literature review we will look at victim blaming from an individual level. While victim blaming is a pervasive issue cutting across various crimes, based on the aims of this research the focus here is specifically on victim blaming in cases of assault.

Victim blaming is often fostered by negative stereotypes and myths gained, learned and maintained within society through forms of socialization (Johnson et al.

2021). Therefore, leading individuals to misdirect responsibility of the crime. These negative stereotypes and myths can vary from subtle to obvious forms which can affect an individual in various ways. For instance, Randel's (2010) study unveiled instances where a woman, raped at gunpoint in front of her children, faced blame for her victimization based on an alleged failure to protect her children and take precautions. A study in Cambodia by Brickell (2017) found that individual beliefs about married women's traits influenced police judgments, blurring the application of law and contributing to the persistence of domestic violence. Another example of victim blaming can be seen in Hopper's (2018) study, which explored the physiological responses of victims during sexual assault. Hopper found that the brain of a victim may cause them to freeze entirely in response to extreme trauma. This involuntary response, known as tonic immobility, is often misconstrued as consent or acceptance, which can be used to justify assault and further blame the victim. Schiewe et al.(2019) also addressed this issue, emphasizing the frequency of such occurrences and the need for legal reforms to address them. This distressing result echoes findings in other studies, revealing the obvious nature of victim blaming within various contexts such as the judicial system.

Additionally, victim blaming extends its reach into the realm of professions and pre-professionals, as evidenced by McMullan et al.(2010), who observed blame directed at victims based on the attitudes and personal experiences of those within or studying to be in the fields of law enforcement, social work and non-law-enforcement criminal justice. The insidious nature of victim blaming becomes even more evident when considering the study conducted by Valor-Segura et al. (2011), wherein individuals, lacking additional information about the background of the victim, were more inclined to blame victims for assault.

Furthermore, while more subtle forms of victim blaming can even be fostered by culture, we often see them in the ways in which questions about victimization are asked, for example questions such as "What was the complainant wearing that evening?" or in ways in which statements surrounding victimization are made, such as "I don't wear revealing clothing like he/she does, so my boss would never touch me inappropriately." (Whatley 1996). Lastly, victim blaming can even be seen on online spaces, as seen in the #MeToo study conducted by Alaggia and Wang, (2020) where victims received negative responses (including being blamed) in response to their #MeToo post after posting about their own abuse, with responses varying from people who knew the victim (including family) to strangers online.

As Janoff-Bulman (1979) pointed out, victim blaming can be attributed to inherent traits of the victim or situational factors surrounding the incident. By delving into gender and gender roles, masculinity, ambivalent sexism and racism, we seek to uncover the nuanced dynamics that contribute to the perpetuation of victim blaming, shedding light on the multifaceted nature of this societal issue. The subsequent sections will explore these dimensions in detail, providing a comprehensive understanding of victim blaming and its implications.

## 1.3 Gender and Gender Roles

To fully understand and function within the social world we often categorize things using schemas which often develop from stereotypes (Fiske & Taylor, 2013). This includes categorizing people based on their biological sex and giving them responsibilities and expectations, these are known as gender and gender roles, respectively. According to APA (2023) gender is the socially constructed roles, behaviors, activities, and attributes that a given society considers appropriate for different sexes. It implies the psychological, behavioral, social, and cultural aspects of

gender (i.e., masculinity, femininity, nonbinary, nonconforming, or other gender). Gender roles are known as the pattern of behavior, personality traits, and attitudes that define gender in a particular culture. It frequently is considered the external manifestation of the internalized gender identity. More simply, it is a product of the direct interactions between the social environment and individuals (Blackstone, 2003). Gender is an important component of societal functioning as it helps people create and organize structure, assigning people to tasks based on their gender, although they can provide a sense of structure and identity, they can also be limiting by confining individuals to predetermined expectations based on their perceived gender (Blakemore et al.2013). On the other hand, gender roles consist of attitudes towards duties which men and women should have and the expected behaviors (Kruahiran et al. 2022). Traditionally, these gender roles can be things such as women are expected to be nurturing while men are heads of the house and provide for families financially (Blackstone, 2003).

**1.3.1 The Role of Gender Roles on Victim Blaming**

Gender roles can contribute to negative actions such as victim blaming thus, the observer's characteristics may also contribute to victim blaming. Research by Felson and Palmore (2021) found that individuals with traditional views in relation to gender roles were more likely to blame victims of crime compared to those with liberal views. Traditionalists often justify this victim blaming by attributing the assault to the victim's failure to conform to societal expectations of how women should dress and behave. Even in collectivist cultures such as Thailand where Kruahiran et al. (2022) found that women who did not conform to their gender roles were blamed for victimization in intimate partner violence cases.

### 1.3.2 The Role of the Victim's Gender on Victim Blaming

The victim's gender plays an important role in victim blaming, either beneficial or detrimental to the victim. Research by Van der Bruggen and Grubb (2014) found that in rape victimizations, males receive behavioral blame based on the stereotypical assumption that they should be able to fight back and defend themselves, while female victims were blamed more based on their characteristics such as being overly friendly. This bias is further intensified in cases of sexual assault, where female victims are unreasonably blamed for their victimization due to their perceived behavior or attire (Felson & Palmore, 2021).

Although less research has been conducted on male victimization, studies have shown that male victims of crimes such as rape and domestic abuse are also often blamed for their victimization (Davies et al. 2006). This is because they are perceived to be the reason for the assault, having not fought back, being scared and not resisting. And thus they are victim-blamed because they are seen as the reason because they could not protect themselves, a trait attributed to males. Thus it can even be said that men are potentially blamed more for the same crime compared to females (Judson et al. 2013).

### 1.3.3 The Role of the Observer's Gender on Victim Blaming

In addition, generally multiple studies have found that males were more likely to blame victims compared to females (Van der Bruggen & Grubb, 2014, Davies et al. 2009; Schneider et al. 2009).  In cases of rape Nagel et al. (2005) observed that men tend to hold more accepting attitudes towards rape, which may lead them to blame female victims for their victimization. This acceptance of rape culture can be attributed to the notion that women are responsible for preventing their own assaults, often by adhering to traditional gender norms of modesty and passivity.

In male rape, Davies et al. (2001) found that males blamed victims more for their victimization while females were pro victim. This phenomenon stems from traditional gender stereotypes that portray men as strong and assertive, leading to the perception that male victims must have failed to conform to these expectations to have been victimized (Van der Bruggen & Grubb 2014; Davies & Rogers 2006; Grubb & Turner 2012). Overall, gender and gender roles are therefore predominant factors in contributing to victimization due to the way in which we socialize and understand society.

## 1.4 Masculinity

Similar to gender, masculinity is based on self and societal expectations. It is a trait which is based on our social selves and classified by male characteristics which men are expected to possess. In other words, how much individuals views themselves as masculine within society, and how those beliefs influence their daily lives (for example with gender roles and how men and women must act (Stets and Burke, 2000). There are a number of different theories that attempt to explain how masculinity is developed and maintained. One prominent theory is hegemonic masculinity which suggests that men should always hold power within society (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). This power can be maintained through social and cultural norms, thus masculinity varies from culture to culture and person to person (Jozkowski 2022). Due to the fluidity of masculinity for the purpose of this study, we will look at masculinity in terms of dominance, assertiveness and ambition, and some physical characteristics such as aggressiveness and strength (Daigle & Mummert 2014). An important element of hegemonic masculinity is that women exist as potential sexual objects for men as they provide sexual validation for these men who then compete with

each other for these women, while on the other hand men are neglected as sexual objects for other men (Donaldson 1993).

**1.4.1 The Role of Masculinity on Victim Blaming**

Within the discourse of victim blaming, an intriguing facet emerges concerning the impact of hegemonic masculinity on male victims—a phenomenon often characterized as the "masculinity crisis" (Javaid, 2018). In instances of sexual assault, male victims are disproportionately blamed for their victimization due to their perceived inability to "maintain power." This crisis is deeply rooted in societal expectations derived from hegemonic masculinity, where men are expected to exhibit dominance and control in all aspects of their lives (Connell & Messerschmidt, 2005). Such expectations contribute to the unjust attribution of blame to male victims who fail to conform to these rigid norms (Javaid, 2018).

Furthermore, if the perpetrator of the crime is of a different gender, male victims may face blame under the misguided assumption that they should have welcomed the advances, perpetuating harmful stereotypes such as "what man wouldn't want it" (Erentzen et al. 2022). Öztemür and Demirtaş, (2023) conducted a study in Turkey, revealing that individuals who perceived masculinity as fragile were more likely to blame victims of date rape. This finding suggests that men, perceiving their masculinity as under threat, may engage in victim blaming as a compensatory mechanism. Similarly, Eagan (2016) found that those who had higher levels of masculinity blamed victims for their victimization.

In addition, even within legal systems such as the police, hegemonic masculinity may be manifested leading to more victim blaming. This can occur in two ways as suggested by Namian (2018), that police officers may feel the need to "prove" and exert power thus they blame the victim for their lack of power, or when victims

do not fit the "ideal victim" quota they are more likely to be blamed for their victimization. For example, seen in the study conducted by Javid (2018) male victims of rapes were blamed for their victimization in addition to being degraded to the bottom of the gender hierarchy due to the idea that they lack power and dominance and ability to fight against victimization. A study by Jozkowski (2022), which found that participants who scored higher on measures of hypermasculinity, were more likely to blame victims for their own victimization, regardless of the victim's gender or the nature of the offense.

## 1.5 Ambivalent Sexism

Ambivalent sexism refers to discrimination or prejudice based on gender (Glick & Fiske, 1997). It can manifest in various forms, including stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination traditionally in the form of negative attitudes targeted at women (Glick & Fiske 2011). Ambivalent sexism can be seen in two forms, benevolent and hostile sexism, with each of them targeting different aspects of sexism. Hostile sexism is characterized by overt negative attitudes and beliefs towards women, such as the belief that women are inferior to men and should be dominated (Glick & Fiske, 2011). Benevolent sexism, on the other hand, is characterized by seemingly positive attitudes and beliefs towards women, such as the belief that women are nurturing and need to be protected (Glick & Fiske, 2011). An analogy that is commonly used to help us better understand ambivalent sexism is the stick and carrot analogy where hostile sexism is the stick and benevolent sexism is the carrot which are used to maintain women subordination (Glick & Fiske, 1997). To add to this is further supported by heterosexuality which can be considered a powerful source of ambivalent sexism Glick and Fiske, (1997) where men especially adapt these ambivalent sexism beliefs to maintain gender roles and preserve romantic relationships (Russel & Tiggs, 2004)

With the two going hand in hand, they are however not limited to a specific gender although there might be differences in levels of sexism expressed, they are not limited. According to Glick and Fiske (2018) men had higher levels of hostile sexism than women, and when it came to benevolent sexism their levels of sexism were similar, this was a common result across studies (Cowiea et al. 2019).

**1.5.1 The Role of Ambivalent Sexism on Victim Blaming**

The Ambivalent Sexism theory suggests that victim blaming arises from deep-seated societal attitudes that perpetuate gender-based disparities in relation to victim blaming each of these types of versions of sexism lead to various response from people who have these beliefs (Glick & Flick, 2011).Those who have hostile sexist beliefs are often found to blame the (female) victims for reasons such as the woman deserve the crime committed against her because she was trying to take advantage and be disrespectful towards the men (Valor-Segura et al. 2011). Another example can be seen for example, a person might say that a woman who was raped was "asking for it" because she was wearing revealing clothing (O'Kelly, 2023).

While in places such as the workplace, men who harbored these hostile sexist beliefs were more likely to blame female victims for assault victimization (Russel & Trigg, 2004). On the other hand, women exhibited hostility towards other women who did not conform to gender norms, thus leading to higher levels of victim blame (Russel & Trigg, 2004). Recently, in a study conducted in Turkey by Öztemür and Demirtaş (2023), they found that men who had higher levels of hostile sexism blamed women for their victimization in date rape situations which was consistent with other studies. Similarly, a study conducted by Abrams et al. (2003) they found that those who had higher levels (both male and females) of benevolent sexism believe that the female victims deserve the violation because they were being a "bad girl." Similar results were

also seen in Turkey and Brazil in a study conducted by Glick et al. (2002) who found that when women didn't conform to gender stereotypes were also blamed for victimization in domestic abuse. In addition, even in cases of domestic violence those who have higher levels of benevolent sexism are more likely to blame victims in cases of domestic violence (Forbes et al. 2003).

Thus, a trend is seen when women do not conform to their expected gender roles, they are blamed for victimization by individuals who have higher levels of benevolent sexism (Abrams et al. 2003). While those who had higher levels of hostile sexism are more likely to blame victims in cases such as sexual assault (Sakalli-Ugurlu & Glick, 2003). Thus, highlighting the complex interplay between sexism and victim blaming.

## 1.6 Racism

Racism is one of the most pressing social issues facing our world today. It is a complex and multifaceted phenomenon that can be defined as the belief that one race is superior to another and that this superiority justifies discrimination and oppression (Grosfogue, 2016). Racism can manifest in both individual and institutionalized forms, and it can have a profound impact on the lives of people who belong to a social group that is considered inferior, especially seen through stereotypes (Feagin, 2004). Stereotypes are powerful tools that can be used to justify racism and discrimination (Beeghly, 2015). Stereotypes are generalizations about a group of people that are often negative and inaccurate Beeghly, (2015), which have a significant impact on the way that victims of crime are perceived and treated (MacKinnon, 2018).

### 1.6.1 The Role of Racism and Victim Blaming

On an individual level, racism can lead people to view victims of crime as more responsible for their own victimization if they belong to a marginalized racial group

(Davidio et al.2003). For example, in a study conducted in North America following the events of the deaths of African Americans such as Ahmaud Arbery, Breonna Taylor and George Floyd, which was surrounded with mixed thoughts and feelings, but the victims were mostly blamed for their victimization on the basis of their racial groups (Gibson et al.2020). For example, in the case of George Floyd (a black man) was suffocated to death and many assumed he was involved in criminal activity thus blamed for his own victimization.

In the events of rape, George et al.(2002) found that males that had higher levels of modern racism blamed victims more for their rape, while amongst females these levels of racism moderated victim blaming. Additionally, to Barth, (2012), who found that in cases of rape victimization African American women were less likely to report victimization due to them being blamed for the reason behind their victimization even with no supporting evidence. Supported further by Franklin and Garza (2021), who found that even after victimization Black women received less referral for rape victim support. Furthermore, in a study conducted in Sweden by Sjoberg and Sarwar (2022), they found that individuals who had higher levels of racism were more likely to blame international students for rape victimization in comparison to victims who were from the community.

On an institutionalized level, racism is embedded in the policies and practices of institutions such as the criminal justice system (Murji, 2007). In cases such as when victims of color choose to report, they are more likely to be disbelieved or blamed for their own victimization (Dovidio et al. 2003). Another example, of this institutionalized racism, can be seen in a study conducted by Gamblin et al. (2021) where they found that in cases of hate crime where the victim was a Black man, the victim was blamed for their victimization and the perpetrator had a shorter sentencing.

**1.6.2 The Intersection of Race and Gender on Victim Blaming**

According to Cerezo et al. (2020) intersectionality is known as an analytic tool for studying and challenging complex social inequalities at the nexus of multiple systems of oppression and privilege, including race, gender, sexuality, social class, nation, age, religion, and ability. One such common theme that can be seen is the interplay between gender and racism. For example, this can be seen amongst female victims of color who may face increased scrutiny and blame due to intersecting stereotypes that portray them as less credible or deserving of protection (O'Kelly, 2023). Some stereotypes particularly directed at Black women can contribute to victim blaming because they are portrayed as temptresses, hypersexual, and promiscuous (e.g., 'Jezebel' stereotype; Brown et al. 2013).

Such stereotyping has been found to influence perceptions of Black women as victims of sexual assault, with studies demonstrating that Black women are more likely to be blamed for their own victimization than white women (Donovan, 2007). In a study conducted by George and Martiniez (2002) it was found that Black women were blamed more when the assault was interracial (white male and a black female) compared to when it was intra racial (black male and black female). This increased blame is often attributed to the use of stereotypes which suggest that Black women are more likely to invite or consent to sexual assault due to their perceived promiscuity (O'Kelly, 2023). An intertwining and combination of these factors is very important to understand as it is associated and linked to victim blaming.

## 1.7 The Current Study

Within the North of Cyprus, there have been various studies conducted within the general scope of gender-based violence and sexual assault. For example, Çakıcı and colleagues (2007) who looked at abuse within the home environment where

victimization was from family members or spouses, found that about 64% of Turkish Cypriot women had experienced physical abuse from family members and 36.7% of them had experienced it from their husbands. Although there have been fewer studies conducted in relation to workplace sexual assault Akbaş (2021)'s study found that 6.4% of nurses reported having experienced sexual harassment within the workplace.

With the prevalence of sexual assault being evident, studies have also been conducted with regards to reporting assault in the North of Cyprus. Akbaş (2021) found that 96.8 % of the participants reported that they did not have any institution to report to. Similar to Magaji et al. (2020) who found that there were negative attitudes and responses towards victims of assault (particularly students), and in most cases they chose to not report their victimization or in cases that they did follow through with prosecution. This was also seen earlier with Mertan et al. (2012) who noted that according to the head of police about 70% of the cases which were reported were not prosecuted in the court of law where victims were convinced to withdraw the case or perpetrators were given a verbal warning.

In addition to the lack of resources and negative attitudes expressed towards victims of sexual assault within the North of Cyprus, victim blame is also something seen. Mertan et al. (2012) focused on this while looking at law enforcement, in their study they found that police officers were more likely to blame women for victimization and consider abuse as an internal affair.

Diving deeper into victim blame Parlan (2015) who found that in cases of intimate partner violence (IPV) victim blaming was present, and even looked at the differences within males and females such amongst men who had higher levels of benevolent and hostile sexism blamed females for victimization, on the other hand high in females those that had high levels benevolent sexism blamed females for their

victimization. Overall, this suggests that ingrained gender stereotypes and prejudices can shape perceptions of victimhood, placing undue blame on victims rather than holding perpetrators accountable as we have seen throughout the literature review.

Despite the extensive literature on victim blaming, there remains a significant gap in understanding how gender and race intersect to influence victim blaming experiences within the workplace, particularly within Northern Cyprus, where international student populations are significant, research on discrimination against this demographic is limited. However, studies such as VOIS Cyprus's 2020 survey revealed that 88% of international students reported experiencing racism in the north of Cyprus. This finding was corroborated by the report published by the Refugee Rights Association who found in a nationally representative sample in the north of Cyprus that 41% of participants held negative attitudes toward international students and migrants, expressing sentiments like "they (international students and migrants) are not welcome here" (RRA, 2022).

The intersection of race and gender in Northern Cyprus, with its multicultural environment and high proportion of international students, creates a unique context for examining victim blaming. The influx of students seeking employment to support themselves amplifies the potential for discrimination and victim blaming. This pervasive issue underscores the need to address the underlying factors that contribute to victim blaming in this context. Thus, this thesis aims to address this gap by exploring the complex interplay of race and gender and their impact on victim blaming in the North of Cyprus.

## Aims and Hypotheses/Research Questions

The aim of this study is to assess the victim blaming towards students in the north of Cyprus who are sexual assault victims within the workplace, while

considering gender and race, sexism, modern racism and masculinity endorsement factors. It is expected that:

1. Participants will show more victim blaming and negative perceptions of female victims compared to male victims.

2. Participants will show more victim blaming and negative perceptions of foreign (non-Turkish Cypriot) victims compared to local (Turkish Cypriot) victims.

3. There will be an interaction effect of race and gender on victim blaming and victim perception, such that women of a foreign race will be blamed more and be the target of more negative attitudes.

In order to obtain the effects of race and gender (of victim) on victim blaming, ambivalent sexism, masculinity endorsement and modern racism as social psychological variables are expected to play a significant role in influencing the dependent measures and will therefore be added as covariates. Similarly, prior experience of sexual abuse and participant nationality as demographic variables are also expected to influence victim blaming and hence also included as covariates in the upcoming analyses.

# Chapter 2

# METHOD

This chapter outlines the research methodology employed in this study, encompassing the research sample, data collection instruments, and data collection procedures.

## 2.1 Participants

A total of 456 participants were recruited by using convenient sampling and were assigned to conditions randomly, via the online QUALTRICS platform. However, 13 participants were removed for not having completed the questionnaire in full, while 141 responses were removed for not correctly completing the manipulation check questions. This led to a total of 302 participants (Turkish-Cypriot N=196, Turkish N= 68, Dual Citizenship N= 38). Out of these 123 identified as woman; 129 as male; 31 as 'other' and 19 as 'prefer not to say'. The latter two groups were combined to create the group 'other' in subsequent analyses. The age range was 18-55 years (Mean Age: $M$= 26.85; $SD$= 7.22). Participants were informed that the purpose of the study was to assess attitudes towards harassment in the workplace and informed that participation was completely voluntary, and they were allowed to withdraw at any time. Participation was open to anyone over the age of 18. The inclusion criteria for data analysis required participants to be Turkish speakers or Turkish-Cypriots who have lived in the north of Cyprus for at least 5 years to ensure familiarity and understanding of the local context. The study was fully conducted in Turkish.

## 2.2 Materials and Design

For the purpose of this study those scales which were not available in Turkish underwent a translation and back translation process conducted by the thesis supervisors of this study.

### 2.2.1 Vignettes

Six different vignettes (Appendix B) were used in this study. These were developed and translated by the researcher and the supervisors. This was a 2 (gender of victim: FM vs. M) x 3 (race) factorial design. Each vignette contained a scenario with either a female or male main character who were one of 3 different races: African, Persian, or Turkish Cypriot, which described how victimization occurred, which the participants had to read. After reading the vignettes participants received the following scales, in this order:

### 2.2.2 Manipulation Checks

After reading the vignettes, participants were asked to complete a manipulation check (Appendix C) questionnaire to assess how well they were paying attention to the vignettes in order to ensure the manipulation of gender and race worked.

### 2.2.3 Victim Blaming

Following the manipulation checks, questions assessing victim blaming were presented based on the Victim and Perpetrator Blame Scale by Sleath and Bull (2010; Appendix D). This scale initially consisted of 14 items assessing responsibility attributed to both the victim and the perpetrator of the rape and included questions such as "Mehmet can be blamed for what happened". The Cronbach alpha of the victim blame scale was .93. Participants were asked to rate on a scale of 1-5 (1 strongly disagree to 5 strongly agree) which of the words best described the victim they read about.

### 2.2.4 Victim Perception

Participants' victim perception was assessed using the Perception of Victim Blame Scale (Karakuş et al. 2009) (Appendix E) Ten bi-polar adjectives were taken from the original scale, and three new adjectives (moral/immoral, healthy/unhealthy (sick), happy/unhappy) were added. Adding these three new adjectives – moral/immoral, healthy/unhealthy (sick), and happy/unhappy – helped broaden the scope of the assessment, allowing for a more comprehensive understanding of participants' attitudes towards victims. The Cronbach's alpha score for the victim perception scale was .92. Participants were asked to rate on a scale of 1 (strongly disagree) -7 (strongly agree) which of the words best described the person they had read about. Higher scores indicate more negative perceptions of victims.

### 2.2.5 Masculinity

Masculinity (Appendix F) was measured using the 24-item Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS) by Thompson and Pleck (1986), which was translated and adapted into Turkish by (Berkan & Husnu, 2024). The scale was used to assess the degree to which participants endorse traditional masculine norms. Participants responded to items such as "Success in his work has to be a man's central goal in this life" with ratings on a 5-point Likert scale with 1(strongly disagree) 5 (strongly agree). Cronbach's alpha for masculinity was .96.

### 2.2.6 Ambivalent Sexism

Ambivalent Sexism (Appendix G) was measured using the 22-item Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996), which was translated and adapted into Turkish (Sakalli-Ugurlu & Beydogan 2002). The scale was designed to assess Benevolent sexism (BS) and Hostile sexism (HS). The Ambivalent Sexism questions had a Cronbach's alpha of.97. The Hostile Sexism questions had a Cronbach's alpha of

.95 and the Benevolent Sexism questions had a Cronbach's alpha of .94.Participants rated their agreement with statements such as "women seek to gain power by getting control over men" to asses HS on the other hand to asses BS "A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man" were asked .on a 5-point Likert scale 1(strongly disagree) 5 (strongly agree). Since the aim was to control for sexism levels in general, the total score of the ambivalent sexism scale was used.

### 2.2.7 Modern Racism

Modern Racism (Appendix H) was measured using the Modern Racism Scale (McConhay, 1983, 1986), which was translated and back translated by the researchers and adapted to fit the context of Northern Cyprus. The Modern Racism Scale had a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .78 after removing the first two items of the questionnaire as they reduced reliability. Participants were asked to respond to questions such as "discrimination against international students is no longer an issue in Northern Cyprus?" on a 5-point Likert scale 1(strongly disagree) 5 (strongly agree).

### 2.2.8 Demographic Form

The demographic form (Appendix I) asked participants about themselves such as their age, nationality, gender, and occupation.

### 2.2.9 Debriefing Form (appendix J)

Lastly the participants were presented with a debriefing form (Appendix J) which thanked them for completing the survey, while also stating the true aim of the study and provided the participants with contact information in case of needing support.

## 2.3 Procedure

Ethical approval was obtained from the Eastern Mediterranean University ethics board. The study was conducted online using a questionnaire presented on

Qualtrics through convenient sampling. The study was also posted on Microsoft teams for EMU students to participate for bonus points as part of the participant pool. Before participants began the questionnaire, they were presented with an information page that required them to give informed consent.

The second part of the questionnaire contained the vignettes, manipulation checks, victim blaming questions, masculinity, sexism, modern racism, and demographic forms and the debriefing form. The questionnaire was completed over the course of 6 months and took no longer than 40 minutes to complete.

# Chapter 3

# RESULTS

## 3.1 Preliminary Analysis

To investigate the relationship between victim blaming and victim perception, two separate Two-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) were employed, one for each dependent variable (victim blaming and victim perception), while splitting the data based on participant gender (female, male and other). This approach was chosen due to the small sample size for the "other" gender group (N=50), compared to male (N=129) and female (N=123) thus it was insufficient for a full 2x3x3 study. Prior to conducting the ANCOVAs, a series of tests were performed to ensure that the assumptions of normality, homogeneity of variance, and linearity, independence of covariate and treatment effect and homogeneity of regression slopes were not violated. These tests indicated that all assumptions were met, allowing for the continuation of the analysis. Descriptive statistics for all the study variables are provided in Table 1.

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics

| | Male (N=129) | | Female (N=123) | | Other (N=50) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD |
| Masculinity | 86.47 | 17.69 | 81.99 | 18.73 | 88.54 | 17.90 |
| Ambivalent Sexism | 77.50 | 18.35 | 72.02 | 20.69 | 84.34 | 21.46 |
| Modern Racism | 2.03 | .39 | 1.94 | .55 | 2.54 | .58 |
| Participants Nationality | 1.96 | .51 | 1.98 | .52 | 2.54 | .54 |
| History of Sexual Assault | 1.46 | .71 | 1.50 | .72 | 1.46 | .71 |
| History of Workplace Harassment | 3.25 | .79 | 3.15 | .82 | 3.34 | .83 |

## 3.2 Victim Blaming

A 2 (victim gender: male vs. female) x 3 (victim race: Turkish Cypriot vs. African vs. Persian) ANCOVA was conducted to assess whether gender and race led to a difference in victim blaming. For this analysis ambivalent sexism, masculinity, modern racism, participant nationality[1], prior experience of sexual assault and workplace harassment were considered as covariates and entered the analysis as such.

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[1] A preliminary analysis showed Turkish Cypriots showed higher victim blaming than Turkish and dual nationality participants. However, due to small sample sizes in each group, the groups were combined and nationality was added as a covariate.

### 3.2.1 Victim Blaming in Men

When the participants were male, their ambivalent sexism $F(1,117) = 5.42$ $p=.022$ $\eta2=.04$, modern racism $F(1,117) = 8.80$ $p=.004$ $\eta2=.07$, nationality $F(1,117) = 18.45$ $p<.001$ $\eta2=.14$ and prior experience of workplace harassment $F(1,117) = 11.92$ $p<.001$ $\eta2=.09$, were all significantly related to the participant's victim blaming. However, participants' level of masculinity $F(1,117) = .36$ $p=.55$ $\eta2=.00$ and prior experience of sexual assault $F(1,117) = 2.32$ $p=.131$ $\eta2=.02$ were not significantly related to participants' victim blaming. There was also a significant main effect of race on victim blaming after controlling for the covariates, $F(2, 117) = 4.70$, $p = .01$, partial $\eta2 = .07$ such that victim blaming was highest towards African victims ($M= 41.66$, $SD=12.56$) then Persian ($M=37.53$, $SD=12.11$) and least to Turkish Cypriot victims ($M=35.27$, $SD=11.42$). Bonferroni post hoc analyses showed a significant difference between victim blaming toward African and Turkish Cypriot victims ($p=.01$). No significant differences were obtained between victim blaming toward African and Persian ($p=.14$) nor between Persian and Turkish Cypriot victims ($p=.86$).

No significant effect of gender of victim on victim blaming was obtained, $F(2, 117) = .34$, $p =.56$, partial $\eta2 = 00$. Similarly, no significant interaction between gender and race of victim was obtained, $F(2, 117) = 1.01$, $p =.37$ $\eta2 = .02$(See Table 2).

### 3.2.2 Victim Blaming in Women

When the participants were female their modern racism $F(1,111) = 5.17$, $p=.03$, $\eta2=.05$ and nationality $F(1,111) = 4.16$, $p = .044$, $\eta2 = .036$ were significantly related to victim blaming. However, their ambivalent sexism levels $F(1,111) = 1.72$, $p = 0.19$, $\eta2 = .02$; prior experience of workplace harassment $F(1,111) = .16$ $p = .687$ $\eta2 = .001$; masculinity levels $F(1,111) = .721$, $p = .398$, $\eta2 = .006$ and prior experience of sexual assault $F(1,111) = 1.56$ $p = .212$ $\eta2 = .014$ were not significantly related to participants

victim blaming. There was no significant effect of race, $F(2, 111) = .52$ $p =.577$ , partial $\eta2 = 010$ nor for gender , $F(2, 111) = .01$, $p =.91$ , partial $\eta2 = 000$ . Similarly, no significant interaction between gender and race of victim was obtained, $F(2, 111) = .60$, $p =.55$ $\eta2=.01$ (See Table 3).

### 3.2.3 Victim Blaming in 'Other'

When the participants identified as 'Other' their ambivalent sexism level $F(1,38) = 4.12$, $p = .049$ $\eta2 = .098$, was significantly related to victim blaming. However, prior experience of workplace harassment $F(1,38) = 1.03$ $p = .317$ $\eta2 = .026$; masculinity $F(1,38) = .23$, $p = .632$ $\eta2 = .006$; prior experience sexual assault $F(1,38) = 1.86$ $p = .180$ $\eta2 = .047$; modern racism $F(1,38) = 0.0$, $p = .977$, $\eta2 = 00$ and nationality $F(1,38) = 0.10$, $p = .922$ $\eta2 = .00$ were not significantly related to participants victim blaming. There was no significant effect of race, $F(2, 38) = .17$, $p = .847$, partial $\eta2 = .009$ and gender , $F(2, 38) = .07$, $p = .79$, partial $\eta2 = 002$ on victim blaming after controlling for the covariates. Similarly, no significant interaction between gender and race of victim was obtained, $F(2,38 ) = .37$, $p =.70$ $\eta2=.02$ (See Table 4)

## 3.3 Victim Perception

A 2 (victim gender: male vs. female) x 3 (victim race: Turkish Cypriot vs. African vs. Persian) ANCOVA was conducted to assess whether gender and race led to a difference in victim perception. For this analysis ambivalent sexism once again, masculinity, modern racism, participant nationality, prior experience of sexual assault and workplace harassment were considered as covariates.

### 3.3.1 Victim Perception in Men

When the participant was male, their prior experience of sexual assault $F(1,117) = 4.13$ $p = .044$ $\eta2 = .034$; modern racism $F(1,117) = 17.13$, $p < .001$, $\eta2=.07$;

nationality $F(1,117) = 10.96$, $p = .001$, $\eta2 = .128$ and prior experience of workplace harassment $F(1,117) = 5.75$, $p = .018$, $\eta2 = .047$ were significantly related to the participant's victim perception. However participants level of masculinity $F(1,117) = .32$, $p = .574$, $\eta2 = .003$ and ambivalent sexism $F(1,117) = 1.16$, $p = .285$, $\eta2 = .010$ were not significantly predictive of participants victim perception. There was a significant effect of race on victim perception after controlling for the covariates $F(2, 117) = 4.00$, $p = .021$, partial $\eta2 = .064$ such that (negative) victim perception was highest towards Africans ($M= 51.01$, $SD=16.02$), then Persians ($M=43.80$, $SD=13.36$) and least towards Turkish Cypriots ($M=44.92$, $SD=14.51$). However, Bonferroni post hoc analyses showed a significant difference in negative victim perception toward African compared to Persian victims ($p=.03$). No significant differences were obtained between victim blaming toward Turkish Cypriots and African ($p=.10$) nor between Persian and Turkish Cypriot victims ($p=1.00$).

No significant effect of gender on victim perception was obtained, $F(2, 117) = .21$, $p = .652$, partial $\eta2 = 002$. Similarly, no significant interaction between gender and race of victim was obtained, $F(2, 117) = .31$, $p =.74$ $\eta2 = .01$(See Table 2).

### 3.3.2 Victim Perception in Women

When participants were female their level of modern racism $F(1,111) = 8.80$, $p = .004$, $\eta2 = .073$ was significantly related to victim perception. However, the participants level of ambivalent sexism $F(1,111) = .25$, $p = .619$, $\eta2 = .002$; masculinity $F(1,111) = 2.38$, $p = .117$, $\eta2 = .21$; nationality $F(1,111) = 2.39$, $p = .125$, $\eta2 = .021$; prior experience workplace harassment $F(1,111) = .55$, $p = .461$, $\eta2 = .005$ and prior experience of sexual assault $F(1,111) = .25$, $p = .619$, $\eta2 = .002$ were not significantly related to participants victim perception. There was no significant effect of gender, $F(2, 111) = .79$, $p =.376$, partial $\eta2 = .007$ and no significant effect of race , $F(2, 111)$

= 2.62, $p = .077$, partial $\eta2 = 045$ on victim perception obtained. Similarly, no significant interaction between gender and race of victim was obtained, $F(2, 111) = 1.4$, $p = .24$ $\eta2 = .03$ (See Table 3).

### 3.3.3 Victim Perception in 'Other'

When the participant identified as 'other' their levels of ambivalent sexism $F(1,38) = 8.397$, $p = .006$, $\eta2 = .181$ was significantly related to victim perception. However, their levels of modern racism $F(1,38) = .732$, $p = .398$, $\eta2 = .019$; masculinity $F(1,38) = 2.464$ $p = .125$, $\eta2 = .061$; nationality $F(1,38) = 2.356$, $p = .133$ $\eta2 = .058$; prior experience of workplace harassment $F(1,38) = .665$, $p = .420$, $\eta2 = .017$, and prior experience of sexual assault $F(1,38) = .172$, $p = .681$, $\eta2 = .005$ were not significantly related to participants victim perception. There was a significant effect of race on victim perception, $F(2, 38) = 3.679$, $p = .035$, partial $\eta2 = .162$ after controlling for the covariates. Such that negative victim perception was highest towards Persian ($M=55.29$, $SD=12.42$) then Africans ($M= 55.03$, $SD=7.12$) and least towards Turkish Cypriots ($M=46.41$, $SD=9.28$) victims. However, Bonferroni post hoc analyses only showed a significant difference in victim perception between Turkish Cypriot and Persian victims ($p=.04$). No significant differences were obtained between victim blaming toward Turkish Cypriots and African ($p=.36$) nor between Persian and African victims ($p=1.00$). There was no significant effect of gender, $F(2, 38) = .045$, $p = .833$, partial $\eta2 = .001$. Similarly, no significant interaction between gender and race of victim was obtained, $F(2, 38) = .60$, $p = .55$ $\eta2 = .03$(See Table 4).

Table 2: Main Effects and Interaction of Victim Gender and Victim Race in Men

| | | Victim Gender | | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | Woman | | Man | | | | |
| | | Victim race | | | | | | |
| | | African N=48 | Persian N=42 | Turkish Cypriot N=39 | $F$ p, $\eta^2$ | Victim Gender effect | Victim race effect | Interaction |
| Victim blaming | M | 41.66 | 37.53 | 35.27 | F | .33 | ***4.70*** | 1.01 |
| | (SD) | (12.56) | (12.11) | (11.42) | p, $\eta^2$ | .56, .00 | ***.01, .07*** | .37, .02 |
| Victim Perception | M | 51.01 | 43.80 | 44.92 | F | .21 | ***4.00*** | .31 |
| | (SD) | (16.02) | (13.36) | (14.51) | p, $\eta^2$ | .65, .00 | ***.02, .06*** | .74, .01 |

*Note.* Significant results are in bold, marginally significant are in italicized bold.

Table 3: Main Effects and Interaction of Victim Gender and Victim Race in Women

| | | Victim Gender | | | | | | |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| | | Woman | | Man | | | | |
| | | Victim race | | | | | | |
| | | African N=48 | Persian N=42 | Turkish Cypriot N=39 | $F$ p, $\eta^2$ | Victim Gender effect | Victim race effect | Interaction |
| Victim blaming | M | 37.91 | 37.13 | 35.401 | F | .01 | .52 | .60 |
| | (SD) | (13.21) | (12.10) | (13.56) | p, $\eta^2$ | .91, .00 | .58, .01 | .55, .01 |
| Victim Perception | M | 47.67 | 46.33 | 41.37 | F | .79 | 2.62 | 1.44 |
| | (SD) | (16.40) | (14.11) | (14.84) | p, $\eta^2$ | .38, .01 | .08, .05 | .24, .03 |

*Note.* Significant results are in bold, marginally significant are in italicized bold.

Table 4: Main Effects and Interaction of Victim Gender and Victim Race in 'Other'

| | | Victim Gender | | | | | | |
| | | Woman | | Man | | | | |
| | | Victim race | | | | | | |
| | | African N=48 | Persian N=42 | Turkish Cypriot N=39 | $F$ $p, \eta^2$ | Victim Gender effect | Victim race effect | Interaction |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Victim blaming | M | 46.38 | 44.33 | 44.36 | F | .07 | .17 | .37 |
| | (SD) | (6.55) | (7.07) | (5.97) | $p, \eta^2$ | .79, .00 | .85, .01 | .69, .02 |
| Victim Perception | M | 55.03 | 55.29 | 46.41 | F | .05 | ***3.68*** | .60 |
| | (SD) | (7.12) | (12.42) | (9.28) | $p, \eta^2$ | .83, .00 | ***.04, .16*** | .55, .03 |

*Note.* Significant results are in bold, marginally significant are in italicized bold.

# Chapter 4

# DISCUSSION

Research on gender-based violence and sexual assault in the North of Cyprus has revealed a significant prevalence of these issues. Victims often experience physical abuse from family members or spouses (Çakıcı et al. 2007). Unfortunately, there is a lack of resources and support towards victims of sexual assault in the region (Akbaş, 2021; Magaji et al. 2020). With alarming rates that only 30% of reported cases are prosecuted which highlight the underreporting of these offenses (Mertan et al. 2012). One concerning aspect is the prevalence of victim blaming, where both law enforcement officers and individuals hold victims accountable for their victimization (Mertan et al. 2012). There is a significant lack of available literature on victim blaming in the context of the workplace, which emphasizes the need for further investigation to address the underlying causes for victim blaming in the workplace. Thus, the primary purpose of this study was to assess the victim blaming and victim perceptions towards students in the North of Cyprus, who are sexual assault victims within the workplace, while considering gender; race; ambivalent sexism; masculinity; modern racism; prior experience of sexual assault and workplace harassment as potential factors.

In this study, according to Hypothesis 1, participants were expected to show more victim blaming towards female victims rather than male victims. The findings showed that, contrary to our initial hypothesis, no significant gender effect was observed for neither victim blaming nor for victim perception, therefore failing to

support H1. This means that victim blaming was attributed despite the victim being male or female. We could not find supportive evidence finding for the hypothesis despite the extensive literature that suggests that female victims are more likely to be blamed for sexual assault than male victims (Bongiorno et al. 2020; Garcia et al. 2005; Kaiser et al. 2009). Despite the lack of a significant gender effect in the current study, there are however, some findings that align with this research. Van der Bruggen and Grubb (2014) found that men who are victims of rape are sometimes blamed for their victimization because of the stereotype that men are physically stronger and should be able to defend themselves against attackers. This was consistent with the findings of Davies et al. (2008), who found that participants were more likely to blame male victims of rape than female victims if they believed that the victim could have fought back.

There are several possible explanations for this finding. One possibility is that the perceived seriousness of the offense towards the victims may have caused the impact of gender to be less significant. Mardorossian (2014) discusses this by showing that gender may not be as important in establishing responsibility if people believe the offense to be very serious or if the circumstances are seen as severe. In the current study, the victims were all subjected to the same type of sexual assault, which may have led participants to focus more on the severity of the assault itself than on the gender of the victim.

In addition, available information may have caused intersections of variables causing the gender effect to be less important. One such intersection would be of race and gender of the victim, participants may have focused on attributing blame primarily on the race of participants and entirely disregarding any gender differences. Participants may have not picked up on the gender of the victim and focused more on

other elements of the victims' characteristics as a means of attributing blame, more so race.

The results of this study revealed that the race of the victim was significantly related to victim blaming and victim perception, more so when the participant was male. These findings are in support of Hypothesis 2, which suggested that participants will show more victim blaming and negative perceptions towards foreign victims compared to local victims (Turkish Cypriots). The study showed that there were higher levels of victim blaming toward both races of foreign students when compared to Turkish Cypriots, similarly throughout victim perception. Specifically, male participants were more likely to blame the individual for their victimization most strongly among victims who were African, and least likely toward Turkish Cypriot victims. In those who do not identify as male or female, these participants were once again less likely to blame Turkish Cypriots but more so Persians. Notably, this pattern held true independent of the victim's gender. This pattern is rooted in the pervasive stereotypes that associate marginalized racial groups with criminality, irresponsibility, and deviance (Davidio et al. 2003). It might be the case that individuals who hold negative views toward particular racial groups justify victim blaming by delegating every member of the group as being representations of those negative stereotypes and not unique individuals (Davies et al. 2005) whereby higher levels of racism are linked to more blame attributed to non-local students, as evidenced by research by Sjoberg and Sarwar (2022) whereby international students were more likely to be blamed for rape victimization compared to victims from the community. Negative stereotypes can lead to biased and unfair judgments about victims' behaviors and their culpability in their victimization. These stereotypes contribute to a perception that victims of color

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are more culpable for their victimization, even in situations where they are clearly not responsible for the crime (Capezza & Arriaga, 2008).

These findings suggest that more victim blaming of non-Turkish Cypriots are problematic because it can lead to discrimination and exclusion within the workplace, as well as a reluctance to report and address sexual harassment incidents of international students. It is important to recognize the harmful consequences of these stereotypes and to work to combat them. The primary consequence is that this may lead to secondary victimization of the victims, by promoting a culture of harassment against non-Turkish Cypriots due to the lack of reports to the appropriate authorities. Furthermore, in cases where victim blaming extends to positions of power among law enforcement, this may lead to the reduced credibility of the few cases that are reported, increasing fear, helplessness and significantly negative mental toll on the living and educational experiences of non-Turkish Cypriots. The consequences of victim blaming reinforces existing inequalities among non-Turkish Cypriots by turning attention away from systematic problems (such as unfair treatment, biased employment practices, and uneven opportunities. in the workplace) and relegating issues of discrimination and unfair bias as being of the consequence of the victim's personal conduct. In an interdependent work environment with the same goals, failure to take into account the larger context of racial discrimination towards non-Turkish Cypriots erodes morale, social cooperation, mutual trust among employees leading to low levels of team cohesion and productivity.

The findings of the study revealed that race and gender independently influenced victim blaming. Contrary to our third hypothesis, there was no significant interaction effect between race and gender. This indicates that the effects of race and gender on victim blaming independently contributed to victim blaming but did not

interact with each other. An important reason for the lack of interaction is because only race showed significant differences while gender showed no significant differences, suggesting that gender and race may interact in a heterogeneous manner. This means that there may not be a significant interaction effect if the effect of one variable is constant across levels of the other. The findings of this study align with the results of a previous study by Linhares et al. (2023), which was conducted in the United States and explored the impact of victim skin color and gender on victim blaming tendencies. The research found that victim blaming was equally prevalent across genders but significantly higher when the victim was of African or African American origin, regardless of their gender.

With regards to the covariates used to control for victim blaming, among the participants, it was seen that for victim blaming, when the participants were male, ambivalent sexism was significantly related to victim blaming. This was the same when it came to victim perception. With regards to males, who had higher levels of ambivalent sexism, the idea that they tend to exhibit greater levels of victim blaming is well established by several studies, such as Russel and Trigg, (2004), who saw that men within the workplace blamed the victim more when their levels of hostile sexism were higher, in addition to Öztemür and Demirtaş (2023), who found higher levels of victim blaming in men with higher levels of hostile sexism. It has been found that those individuals high in ambivalent sexist ideology are more likely to blame victims of assault by assuming they have transgressed gender norms and are hence worthy of blame. This line of sexist thinking promotes unfair treatment amongst foreigners in the workplace, as their need for money may be used to delegate abuse they receive because their viewed as being less deserving of the money and opportunities garnered in a foreign land (Khera, et al. 2014).

Although the number was low and hence makes it difficult to make considerable generalizations, among participants who identified as "other", the results indicated that ambivalent sexism was significantly related to victim blaming. The LGBTQ+ community who identify as genders other than male or female, were found to have higher levels of victim blaming. Like everyone else, non-binary people are susceptible to internalizing prejudices and cultural standards. Higher degrees of sexism may cause them to unintentionally embrace and express views that support conventional gender norms, which can result in victimizing attitudes (Van der Toorn et al 2020). However, there was little research on sexism among non-binary individuals for us to adequately theorize why this could be the case with references.

Conversely, although sexism was significant among male participants and those who identified as "other" when sexism was entered as a covariate amongst female participants there was a lack of significance which is something contrary to previous studies (Yamawaki, 2007; Pedersen & Strömwall, 2013; Genschow, 2021; Guerrero-Molina, 2020). A lack of significance in ambivalent sexism as covariate, within the context of victim blaming was seen and reported in situations involving date rape, such as in the studies carried out by Pedersen & Strömwall, (2013) and Viki & Abrams, (2002). Females, with different levels of sexism, had low levels of victim blaming in instances of date rape, possibly because of clear malicious intent from the perpetrators was deemed to be premeditated despite the true intentions from the women to go out with the men (Pedersen & Strömwall, 2013). In addition to their own victimization, male participants may also hold sexist beliefs that contribute to victim blaming. Russel and Oswald's (2016) study found that men with high sexist beliefs had low tolerance for sexual harassment, but this tolerance was reduced in situations where they perceived the victim as being more responsible for the assault. This suggests that

sexist beliefs can interact with perceptions of victim culpability to influence victim blaming attitudes.

The findings of Russel and Oswald's (2016) also highlight the potential role of frequency of workplace assault in victim blaming. Key and Ridge (2011) found that men who had low proclivity for sexual assault blamed victims more for their victimization compared to men who did not. This suggests that frequent exposure to workplace assault may desensitize individuals to the severity of the issue and lead them to perceive victims as being more responsible for their own victimization.

Contrary to expectations, the study revealed that individuals with prior sexual assault experiences did not exhibit significantly higher levels of victim blaming. However, a noteworthy difference emerged in how male participants perceived the victims; they had were more likely to hold negative perceptions (VP) of the victims – these negative perceptions stem from traditional gender stereotypes that portray men as strong and assertive, leading to the perception that male victims must have failed to conform to these expectations to have been victimized (Van der Bruggen & Grubb 2014; Davies & Rogers 2006; Grubb & Turner 2012). Thus, due to this failure, men who have been victims of sexual assault thus believe themselves to be failure due to their victimization, therefore not only blaming themselves but having negative perceptions of those who have been in the same situation.

In addition, the findings for both male and female participants with regards to modern racism were both significant; it was seen that victim blaming amongst males and females with higher levels of racist beliefs was seen to be significant in this study. This significance was also seen amongst female participants regarding victim perception. This significance is typically rooted in socialization and cultural beliefs. People who are brought up in environments that promote ideals of racism typically

maintain discriminatory beliefs that they use to justify unfair treatment of other racial or ethnic groups. Furthermore, racist ideologies may serve as a catalyst for the justification and maintenance of preexisting racial hierarchies and power systems – especially within workplace dynamics. Thus, victim blaming serves as a mechanism to defend the status quo and avoid discussing the structural problems that lead to racism. It is seen that when people with racist ideals have to begin recognizing the victim as innocent, this might put their biased opinions to the test and force them to face the systemic injustices. Wood (2008) argued that when people who benefit from the unfair treatment of others, from a racial standpoint, they find themselves unable to appropriately see and point out the unfairness and instead tend to blame victims to uphold the perceived benefits. Hanson and Hanson (2006) showed that framing blame on victims of different races was a significant mode of operation for Americans as an attempt to justify the abuse rendered upon victims with regards to sexual assault, physical assault or workplace injustice.

Thus, it is also important to highlight in addition to other covariates participants nationality was a significant predictor of victim blaming among males and females and for victim perception among men, where Turkish Cypriots blamed victims more throughout the study. This provides similarity with previous research on the role of stereotypes; these research studies suggest that individuals who adhere to negative stereotypes about certain groups tend to hold those individuals responsible for their victimization (Capezza & Arriaga, 2008; Davies et al. 2005). In the context of workplace sexual harassment, this can then lead to victims who are perceived as "outsiders" or "different" to be more likely to be blamed for their victimization, as this serves to uphold the dominant group's power and privilege. This suggests that perceptions of victims play a significant role in shaping victim blaming attitudes.

These perceptions are often based on stereotypes of gender and race, which can lead to biased and unfair judgments about victims' behaviors and their culpability in their victimization. This finding that participants exhibited more negative perceptions of foreign victims suggests that these stereotypes are not limited to gender but can also extend to nationality.

The study's findings on masculinity are surprising, because according to the consensus of the literature (e.g., Eagan, 2016), there is an established connection between hegemonic masculinity and victim blaming. However, in this study, there was no significance. The lack of significance may be explained by the findings Patterson and Cole (2021), which reported that, when evaluating the levels of victim blaming among men who derived self-esteem from their masculinity, the presence of positive-psychological traits helped to reduce the levels of victim blaming. These positive psychological traits involved being rational and not defensive in their approaches to discussions about sexual assault when men where the perpetrators; as well and having high levels of hope for the future (in respect to their own lives). This means that, even among participants who have high levels of masculinity, if their individual and personal ideals are founded upon positive attitudes, then it will not influence more victim blaming. The basis of these findings may explain why there was no significance of masculinity as covariate towards victim blaming in this study. In future studies, it would be highly beneficial for researchers to look at femininity as a covariate when measuring the effect of victim blaming on race and gender.

Despite the significant findings, the study encountered certain limitations that warrant further consideration. Firstly, the sample was not entirely homogeneous in terms of nationality. Although there was a significant portion of Turkish Cypriot participants, there were high numbers of Turkish participants and participants with

dual citizenship. This heterogeneity in nationality may have introduced confounding factors, potentially influencing the results and limiting the generalizability of the findings for example, despite having lived in Cyprus for 5 years Turkish participants may still have been seen as outsiders and experienced racism hence the lower levels of victim blaming. However, it is important to note that past research such as Husnu and Mertan (2018), found no difference in the findings of Turkish vs. Turkish Cypriots, with relation to differences on gender-related variables (intimate partner violence and belief in traditional gender norms).

In addition, the study's sample was heavily skewed towards younger adults (18-29 years old), with over half of the participants falling within this age group. This demographic imbalance could have influenced the results of the study, as the experiences, attitudes, and behaviors of younger adults may differ significantly from those of individuals from other age groups. This is because older people in general have a tendency to believe more in traditionalism which typically stereotypes women across several factors which usually leads to high levels of victim blame. This dynamic was directly investigated by Felson & Palmore (2020), who found that individuals with greater levels of traditionalism (which is an individual's tendency to uphold traditional beliefs or practices) had higher levels attributing blame to victims, and these individuals are typically older individuals. Therefore, it is difficult to generalize the findings of the study to broader populations without further research that includes more diverse samples.

Furthermore, given the fact that hypothetical scenarios were used to portray the situations in which the assault occurred, participants only need to express the opinions on these events. However, given that some participants may have never been in workplace scenarios, it may be difficult for them to comprehend how the environment

truly is. Due the interactions of workplaces are unique in the level of professionalism that is linked to them, which may be difficult for people who have never worked in such an environment. It may thus be difficult for people who are not workers to effectively relate to these situations.

Conversely, without regard to these limitations, the study provides valuable insights into the factors that may influence victim blaming and victim perception among students in North Cyprus. Future research may address the identified limitations and employ more rigorous methodologies to further our understanding of these complex issues. In addition to understanding how cultural norms and values may influence attitudes towards sexual assault and victim blaming, it is also important understand that these attitudes may be rooted in societal stereotypes and misconceptions about sexual assault. Therefore, addressing these issues requires challenging these harmful beliefs and promoting a more accurate understanding of sexual assault.

The findings for this study may be used to raise awareness of these harmful attitudes, which can discourage victims from seeking help and support. As suggested from the findings of this study the different factors such as such as ambivalent sexism, masculinity, modern racism, prior experience of sexual assault, and workplace harassment, may be associated with higher levels of victim blaming and victim perception. This information may be used to target specific groups for interventions aimed at reducing these attitudes and promoting integration. In addition to including strategies that prevent victim blaming within the workplace. These strategies could include education and training programs, workplace policies and procedures, and support services for victims. Additionally, promoting a culture of consent and respect in workplaces. This involves educating individuals about appropriate workplace

behavior, establishing clear boundaries, and encouraging open communication. Such as in Davies, et al. (2023) who emphasized education of consent and respect to individuals from a young age and Lickona (2009), who emphasized integrating this type of education in all levels of school.

Additionally, it includes ensuring that victims have access to confidential and empathetic support services, and that they are encouraged to report incidents without fear of repercussions in addition to having a representative especially amongst working students. This method of support to sexual assault victims was seen in Wadsworth, et al. (2019), who emphasized the importance of health care providers in creating a safe environment for victims of SA to report their trauma, through a variety of ways, and how this improves the willingness of victims to report and seek assistance. Kirkner et al. (2017) also did a study highlighting an extensive list of recommendations for responding to sexual assault among for survivors and support providers, such as assuring them of their safety, helping them be aware of the presence of these services and reminding the health care personnel to pay attention to signs of physical and sexual assault during physical health checks. The findings of this study showed that educating health care providers reduced their levels of victim blaming. They further showed that when survivors of sexual assault felt safer in an environment that had personnel who were more understanding of their trauma, and also who had less victim blaming, the victims were more likely report and seek assistance.

In conclusion, the study successfully highlighted the pervasiveness of victim blaming within the region. This study examined the predictors of victim blaming in the North of Cyprus, exploring factors that contribute to this phenomenon. Overall, it highlighted the complex interplay of race, gender, and victim blaming in Cyprus. The findings suggest that stereotypes and biases associated with race and gender play a

significant role in victim blaming, and that these factors interact in complex ways. Therefore, the need for a deeper understanding of its underlying mechanisms. Future research should focus on examining factors that may mediate the relationships between these variables such as femininity, and religiosity, providing a more comprehensive understanding of victim blaming in the North of Cyprus. Overall, by identifying these factors, we can begin to develop targeted interventions to address this issue and promote a more supportive environment for survivors of sexual assault in the workplace.

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# APPENDICES

# APPENDIX A

## Bilgi Formu

**Araştırmanın başlığı:** Kuzey Kıbrıs'ta iş yerinde tacize yönelik tutumlar

**Araştırmacının adı-soyadı, e-posta adresi:** Makomborero Kabanda (21507116@emu.edu.tr )

**Danışmanın adı-soyadı, e-posta adresi:**    Prof. Dr. Shenel Husnu Raman

(shenelhusnu.raman@emu.edu.tr) & Asst. Prof. Dr Dilek Celik

(dilek.celik@emu.edu.tr )

Davet: Bir araştırma projesine katılmaya davet ediliyorsunuz. Katılmaya karar vermeden önce, araştırmanın neden yapıldığını ve neyi içereceğini anlamanız önemlidir. Lütfen aşağıdaki bilgileri dikkatlice okumak için zaman ayırın ve isterseniz başkalarıyla tartışın. Sizin için yeteri kadar net olmayan veya daha fazla bilgi edinmek istediğiniz bir şey varsa lütfen sorun. Katılmak isteyip istemediğinize karar vermek için kendinize zaman tanıyın.

Araştırmanın amacı nedir?  İşyerinde taciz bir halk sağlığı sorunudur. Amerika Birleşik Devletleri'ndeki kadınların yaklaşık %40'ı iş yerinde istenmeyen cinsel taleplere maruz kaldıklarını söylüyor. Bu, bir bireyin cinsiyeti hakkında yorum yapmaktan, zorlayıcı cinsel taleplere kadar (ör. yapılan bir iyilik karşılığında cinsellik talep etme gibi) farklı şekillerde olabilir. Bu çalışmanın amacı, Kuzey Kıbrıs'ta işyerinde taciz tutumlarını hangi faktörlerin etkilediğini anlamaktır.

Bu araştırmaya katılırsam neler yapılacak?  Bu çalışmada çevrimiçi bir anketi doldurmanız istenecektir. Bu işlem 40 dakikadan fazla sürmeyecektir.

Araştırmaya katılmanın olası dezavantajları nedir?  Olası herhangi bir risk bulunmamaktadır. Ancak okuyacağınız bir cinsel taciz vakası olacak, bu sizi rahatsız edecekse çalışmaya katılmak zorunda değilsiniz. Aynı zamanda okuduktan sonra rahatsız hissederseniz yine çalışmadan çıkabilirsiniz.

Onam. Bu bilgi formu, çalışmanın amacını anlamanız ve tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayanan katılım konusunda bilinçli bir karar vermenize yardımcı olması için sağlanmıştır. Bu formu okuduktan sonra, katılmayı kabul ederseniz, çalışmaya katılmadan önce size bir onay formu verilecektir. Nisan 2023'te veri analizi başlayana kadar herhangi bir noktada herhangi bir sebep göstermeden geri çekilmeye karar verebilirsiniz.

Araştırmayı kim düzenliyor ve finansal açıdan kim destekliyor?  Bu çalışma, ben ve tez danışmanlarım tarafından organize edilmiştir. Herhangi bir dış veya iç tarafça finanse edilmeyecektir.

Araştırma verisine ne olacak? Bilgileriniz gizli tutulacak ve katılımınız tamamen anonim yani isimsiz olacak, bu veriler lisansüstü derecemin kısmen yerine getirilmesinde tezim için kullanılacaktır

Çalışmanızı kimler değerlendirdi?  İnsan katılımcıları kullanarak yapılan tüm araştırma önerileri, başlamadan önce bir Etik Kurul tarafından değerlendirilir. Bu çalışma DAÜ Bilimsel Araştırma Yayın ve Etik Komitesi tarafından tarihinde değerlendirilmiştir.

Bilgi formunu okuduğunuz için teşekkür ederim.

Makomborero Kabanda 21507116@emu.edu.tr

Research supervisor Prof. Dr. Shenel Husnu Raman +90 392 630 1042(shenelhusnu.raman@emu.edu.tr)
Asst. Prof. Dr. Dilek Celik 90 392 630 2478 (dilek.celik@emu.edu.tr)

# Yazılı Bilgilendirilmiş Onam Formu

**Araştırmanın başlığı:** Kuzey Kıbrıs'ta iş yerinde tacize yönelik tutumlar

**Araştırmacının adı-soyadı, e-posta adresi:** Makomborero Kabanda
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• Araştırmanın detaylarını araştırmacının bana açıkladığı şekliyle anladım ve bir katılımcı olarak bu araştırmaya katılmayı onalıyorum.
• Katılımcı bilgi formunda araştırmacının iletişim bilgileri bana sunuldu.
• Araştırmaya katılmamın tamamen gönüllü olduğunu, araştırma sırasında toplanan veride isim ve tanımlayıcı bilgilerimin teşhis edilemez olduğunu, ve çalışmadan, istediğim anda, açıklama yapmaksızın çekilme hakkına sahip olduğumu anladım.
• Veri analizi başlayana kadar olan tarih, Nisan 2023'e kadar verilerimin projeden çekilmesini isteyebileceğimi anlıyorum.
• Ayrıca, sağladığım verilerin analiz ve sonraki yayınlar için kullanılabileceğini anlıyorum ve bunun gerçekleşebileceğine dair onayımı veriyorum.

İsminizi yazınız    _____

İmzalayınız    _____

Tarih:    _____

*Araştırmanın etik uygunluğu ile ilgili bir endişeniz var ise, endişenizi detaylı bir şekilde açıklayan yazılı bir metin ile DAÜ BAYEK Başkanı Prof. Dr. Yücel Vural ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz.*

## APPENDİX B

**Vingettes**

Hasan/ Pınar/ Simba/ Ropa/ Amin/ Fatemeh Kuzey Kıbrıs Türk Cumhuriyeti'nde ikinci sınıf üniversite öğrencisi olan 20 yaşında Kıbrıslı Türk/Afrikalı/İranlı bir erkektir/kadındır. Kıbrıs'ın yerlisi 37 yaşındaki bir erkek olan Mehmet'e ait bir restoranda çalışmaktadır.

Hasan, ek gelir sağlayabilmek için 6 aydır bu restoranda çalışmaktadır. Vardiyası cumartesi ve pazar hariç her gün okuldan sonra 17.00-22.00 saatleri arasındadır. İşe girdikten bir ay sonra Mehmet, Hasan'a yaklaşarak sohbet etmeye başlamıştır. Bu sohbet başlangıçta samimi görünse de hızla Hasan'ın kıyafetlerinin bedenini ne kadar iyi gösterdiği ile ilgili bir sohbete dönüşmüştür. Hasan şok olmuş ve bu durumdan rahatsız olarak oradan uzaklaşmıştır.

Bu olaydan sonra Mehmet, Hasan'a vücudu hakkında imalı yorumlar yapmaya devam etmiş ve Hasan'a sürekli kahve içmeye gitmeyi teklif etmiş ancak Hasan her zaman bir mazeret bulmuştur. Başka bir seferde Mehmet, Hasan küçük, kapalı bir alanda olan mutfakta bulaşıkları yıkarken yanına gelmiştir. Mehmet, mutfakta Hasan'ın beline ve sırtına dokunmaya başlamış, Hasan bu durumdan rahatsız olmuş ancak çok korktuğu için sözlü olarak bir şey söyleyemeden kendini geri çekmiştir. Bu olaydan sonra Hasan polise rapor bildirimde bulunmak istemiş, ancak işsiz kalacağını düşünerek bildirmemeye karar vermiştir.

Bu olaydan birkaç hafta sonra Mehmet, Hasan'dan mesai bitiminde kalıp biraz daha çalışmasını ve onunla konuşmak istediği şeyler olduğunu söylemiştir. Bu, işin doğası gereği sıra dışı bir durum değildir. İşini bitirdikten sonra Mehmet, Hasan'a kendisini daha iyi tanımak istediği ve birlikte daha fazla zaman geçirmeleri gerektiği konusunda ısrar ederek kendisine ilgi duyduğunu söyleyip Hasan'a zorla sarılarak öpmüştür. Hasan Mehmet'i uzaklaştırmaya çalışmış ancak Mehmet ısrar ederek "eğleniyoruz işte" demiştir. Hasan itiraz ederek Mehmet'e "Beni rahat bırak" demiştir. Ancak, Mehmet Hasan'a dokunmaya çalışmaya devam ederek, "Bu senin işini kaybetmene sebep olacak" şeklinde tehditlerle karşılık vermiştir. Sonunda Hasan kendini Mehmet'ten kurtarmış ve kaçıp eve dönebilmiştir. Hasan eve döndüğünde hala şokta ve gözyaşları içindedir. Hasan, başından geçenleri kendisini teselli etmeye çalışan oda arkadaşına anlatır ve oda arkadaşı da Mehmet'in yaptıklarının doğru olmadığını ve Hasan'ın bu durumu polise bildirmesi gerektiğini dile getirir. Ertesi gün Hasan karakola gider ve Mehmet'ten şikayetçi olur.

*NOT: Vinyetteki mağdurun adı (ve dolayısıyla etnik kökeni) ve cinsiyeti manipüle eden koşula göre altı farklı versiyonda olacaktır.

# APPENDİX C

**Manipulation checks**

Lütfen okumuş olduğunuz olguyu göz önünde bulundurarak aşağıdaki soruları cevaplayınız?

1. Olguda tanımlanan mağdurun cinsiyeti neydi?
a. Erkek
b. Kadın

2. Restoran sahibinin uyruğu neydi?
a. Kıbrıslı Türk
b. İranlı
c. Afrikalı

3. Olguda anlatılan mağdurun uyruğu neydi?
a. Afrikalı
b. İranlı
c. Kıbrıslı Türk

4. Okuduğunuz olguda anlatılan mağdur kaç yaşındaydı?
a. 15 yaşında
b. 40 yaşında
c. 20 yaşında
d. 30 yaşında

5. Olgudaki mağdur nerede çalışıyordu?
a. Postane
b. Restoran
c. Kütüphane
d. Market

6. Taciz bir sefer mi gerçekleşti yoksa birden fazla kez mi gerçekleşti?
a. Tek bir sefer
b. Birden fazla

7. İlk olay ne zaman meydana geldi?
a. İşe başladıktan 2 hafta sonra
b. İşe başladıktan 1 ay sonra
c. İşe başladıktan 3 ay sonra
d. İşe başladıktan 6 ay sonra

8. Hasan/ Pınar/ Simba/ Ropa/ Amin/ Fatemeh maruz kaldığı tacizden kimseye bahsetti mi?
a. Evet
b. Hayır

9. Hasan/ Pınar/ Simba/ Ropa/ Amin/ Fatemeh olayı polise bildirdi mi?
a. Evet
b. hayır


*Not: Manipülasyon sorularında verilen isimler, katılımcıya sunulacak olguya göre değiştirilecektir.

# APPENDIX D

**Victim Blaming**

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyarak, her birine ne ölçüde katıldığınızı değerlendiriniz

1. Olanlardan Hasan/ Pınar/ Simba/ Ropa/ Amin/ Fatemeh'nın da suçu vardır.
2. Hasan Mehmet ile romantik ve/ya cinsel bir ilişki istemediğini açıkça dile getirmiştir.
3. Tüm bu olanlar Hasan'ın suçudur.
4. Hasan'ın taciz iddiaları güvenilirdir.
5. Olanlardan büyük ölçüde Hasan sorumludur.
6. Olanlardan büyük ölçüde Mehmet sorumludur.
7. Olanlar Mehmet'in hatasıdır.
8. Mehmet olanlardan dolayı suçludur.
9. Mehmet olanlardan dolayı suçlanabilir.
10. Hasan aslında tacizi önleyebilirdi.
11. Tacizi daha önceden durdurmak Hasan'ın elindeydi.
12. Olanlardan Mehmet kadar Hasan da sorumludur.
13. Hasan tacizin git gide artacağını öngörmeyip işten ayrılmadığı için eşit derecede suçludur.

1-Kesinlikle katılmıyorum/ 2- Katılmıyorum/ 3- Kararsızım / 4- Katılıyorum/ 5- Kesinlikle katılıyorum

*Not: Mağdur suçlayıcılık ölçeğindeki mağdur isimleri katılımcının okuduğu vinyet ile

uyumlu olarak sunulacaktır.

# APPENDIX E

**Vıctım  perceptıon**

Lütfen Hasan/ Pınar/ Simba/ Ropa/ Amin/ Fatemeh'i aşağıdaki özelliklere göre değerlendirin.

| | | | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Saldırganca | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | barışcıl |
| yumuşak | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Güç gösteren |
| Iyi huylu | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Kötü huylu |
| Kötü niyetli | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Nazik |
| Suçsuz | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Suçlu |
| Zararlı | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Zararsız |
| Dikkatli | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Dikkatsiz |
| Vicdanlı | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Vicdansız |
| Güvenilir | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Güvenilmez |
| Dürüst | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | Umursamaz |

# APPENDIX F

**Masculınıty**

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. İş yerinde başarı temel bir hedeftir. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 2. Genç erkekler, çok çalışarak saygı kazanır. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 3. Erkek, ailesi için yüksek gelir kazanmalıdır. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 4. Erkek, mesai saatleri dışında fazladan çalışmalıdır. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 5. Erkek, daima ailesinin saygısını hakeder. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 6. Saygı duyulmak, erkek için esastır. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 7. Erkek asla vazgeçmemelidir. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 8. Kendinden emin erkekleri severim. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 9. Erkek mantıklı olmalıdır. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 10. Bir erkek her zaman kendine güvenmelidir. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 11. Erkek, kendi ayakları üzerinde durmalıdır. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 12. Şikayet etmeyen erkekleri severim. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 13. Bir erkek acılarını belli etmemelidir. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 14. Endişelerini belli eden erkekleri kimse sevmez. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 15. Kısmen sert görünen erkekleri severim. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 16. İşler zorlaştığında, güçlü olan sıyrılıp geçer. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 17. Genç bir erkek, fiziksel olarak güçlü olmalıdır. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 18. Güçsüzlüklerini gösteren erkekler beni iğrendirir. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 19. Bazen yumruklar gereklidir. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 20. Gerçek bir erkek, biraz tehlikeden hoşlanır. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 21. Bir erkek, her zaman kavgaya hazır olmalıdır. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 22. Bir erkek, kavga etmeyi reddetmelidir. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 23. Kadınsı bir hareket yapan erkekler beni rahatsız eder. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |
| 24. Yemek yapan, dikiş yapan erkekler çekici değildir. | **1** | **2** | **3** | **4** | **5** |

**1- kesinlikle katılmıyorum**          **5- kesinlikle katılıyorum**

1-Kesinlikle katılmıyorum/ 2- Katılmıyorum/ 3- Kararsızım / 4- Katılıyorum/ 5- Kesinlikle katılıyorum

# APPENDIX G

**Ambıvalent Sexısm Inventory**
**ASI (TR)**

**Aşağıda erkek, kadın ve onların günümüz toplumundaki ilişkileri hakkında bir dizi ifade bulunmaktadır. Lütfen, aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı belirtiniz.**

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 1. Adaletli bir yarışmada kadınlar erkeklere karşı kaybettikleri zaman tipik olarak kendilerinin ayrımcılığa maruz kaldıklarından yakınırlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 2. Kadınlar işyerlerindeki problemleri abartmaktadırlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 3. Kadınlar erkekler üzerinde kontrolü sağlayarak güç kazanmak hevesindeler. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 4. Bir kadın bir erkeğin bağlılığını kazandıktan sonra genellikle o erkeğe sıkı bir yular takmaya çalışır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 5. Gerçekte birçok kadın "eşitlik" arıyoruz maskesi altında işe alınmalarda kendilerinin kayırılması gibi özel muameler arıyorlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 6. Kadınlar çok çabuk alınırlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 7. Birçok kadın erkeklerin kendileri için yaptıklarına tamamen minnettar olmamaktadırlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 8. Feministler erkeklere makul olmayan istekler sunmaktadırlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 9. Feministler gerçekte kadınların erkeklerden daha fazla güce sahip olmalarını istemektedirler. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 10. Erkeklere cinsel yönden yaklaşılabilir olduklarını gösterircesine şakalar yapıp daha sonra erkeklerin tekliflerini reddetmekten zevk alan birçok kadın vardır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 11. Birçok kadın masum söz veya davranışları cinsel ayrımcılık olarak yorumlamaktadır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 12. Erkekler kadınsız eksiktirler. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 13. Ne kadar başarılı olursa olsun bir kadının sevgisine sahip olmadıkça bir erkek gerçek anlamda bütün bir insan olamaz. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 14. Karşı cinsten biri ile romantik ilişki olmaksızın insanlar hayatta gerçekten mutlu olamazlar. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 15. Her erkeğin hayatında hayran olduğu bir kadın olmalıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 16. Kadınlar erkekler tarafından el üstünde tutulmalı ve korunmalıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. Erkekler hayatlarındaki kadın için mali yardım sağlamak için kendi rahatlarını gönüllü olarak feda etmelidirler. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. Bir felaket durumunda kadınlar erkeklerden önce kurtarılmalıdır. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 19. İyi bir kadın erkeği tarafından yüceltilmelidir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 20. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha yüksek ahlaki duyarlılığa sahip olma eğilimindedirler. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. Birçok kadın çok az erkekte olan bir saflığa sahiptir. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. Kadınlar erkeklerden daha ince bir kültür anlayışına ve zevkine sahiptirler. | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

1-Kesinlikle katılmıyorum/ 2- Katılmıyorum/ 3- Kararsızım / 4- Katılıyorum/ 5- Kesinlikle katılıyorum

## APPENDIX H

**Modern Racisim**

1. Kuzey Kıbrıs'taki uluslararası öğrencilerin öfkesini anlamak kolaydır.

2. Yabancı öğrenciler protestolarda olması gerekenden çok daha etkilidir.

3. Yabancı öğrenciler eşit haklar için çabalarken fazlasıyla talepkarlar.

4. Son birkaç yılda yabancı öğrenciler hak ettiklerinden çok daha fazla hak kazandılar.

5. Son birkaç yılda hükümet ve medya yabancı öğrencilere hak ettiklerinden daha fazla saygı gösteriyor.

6. Yabancı öğrenciler istenmedikleri yerde zorla kalmamalılar.

7. Yabancı öğrencilere karşı ayrımcılık, Kuzey Kıbrıs için artık bir sorun değildir.

1-Kesinlikle katılmıyorum/ 2- Katılmıyorum/ 3- Kararsızım / 4- Katılıyorum/ 5- Kesinlikle katılıyorum

# APPENDIX I

**Demograhic Form**

1. Kaç yaşındasın? _____

2. Uyruğunuz nedir?

   Kıbrıslı Türk
   Türkiyeli
   Çifte vatandaşım (Kıbrıslı Türk-Türkiyeli

3. Kuzey Kıbrıs'ta ne kadar süredir yaşıyorsunuz? (Lütfen yıl olarak belirtiniz)

   _____

4. Kendinizi nasıl tanımlıyorsunuz?

   Erkek
   Kadın
   Diğer
   Belirtmek istemiyorum

5. Daha önce hiç cinsel taciz veya cinsel saldırıya maruz bırakıldınız mı?

   Evet
   Hayır
   Belirtmek istemiyorum

6. Hiç işyerinde tacize maruz bırakıldınız mı?

   Evet
   Hayır
   Belirtmek istemiyorum

7. Aşağıdakilerden hangisi sizin için daha uygundur?

   Memur olarak çalışıyorum
   Özel sektörde çalışıyorum
   Çalışmıyorum
   Öğrenciyim

# APPENXIX J

**Debrıefıng Form**

**Araştırma başlığı:** Kuzey Kıbrıs'ta iş yerinde tacize yönelik tutumlar

**Araştırmacının adı-soyadı ve e-posta adresi:** Makomborero Kabanda
(21507116@emu.edu.tr )

**Danışmanın adı-soyadı ve e-posta adresi:** Prof. Dr. Shenel Husnu Raman
(shenelhusnu.raman@emu.edu.tr) &  Yrd. Doç. Dr. Dilek Çelik
(dilek.celik@emu.edu.tr )

Kuzey Kıbrıs'ta iş yerinde tacize yönelik tutumlar başlığı altında yürütülen bu
çalışmaya katıldığınız için teşekkür ederim. Araştırmanın amaçlarını ve hedeflerini
daha detaylı açıklamayı amaçlayan aşağıdaki bilgileri okumak için birkaç dakikanızı
ayırınız. Araştırma ile ilgili sorularınız varsa, aşağıda iletişim bilgileri olan
araştırmacıyla iletişim kurabilirsiniz.

Bu araştırmada cinsel tacize yönelik tutumlar araştırılmaktadır. Kuzey Kıbrıs'ta bu
konuda daha önce yapılan çalışmalar daha çok ev içi veya partnere yönelik şiddeti
ele almaktadır. Biz bu çalışmada daha çok iş yerinde tacizin ırkçılık ve cinsiyetçilikle
birlikte mağdura yönelik tutumları nasıl etkileyeceğini incelemektir. Hatırlatmakta
fayda var ki hiç bir insan tacizi hak etmez, ve hiç bir davranış tacizi haklı çıkarmaz.

Araştırmaya katılımınız sırasında herhangi bir rahatsızlık veya sıkıntı duymuşsanız
ve bir uzman ile konuşmak istiyorsanız, lütfen Gazimağusa Devlet Hastanesi:
*info.gmdh@gov.ct.tr +903926308900-29/ +903926309146 veya Barış Ruh ve Sinir
Hastalıkları: +90228541 ile iletişime geçiniz.* Ayrıca, sorularınız için araştırmacı
*Makomboreoro Kabanda; 21507116@emu.edu.tr* veya araştırmanın danışmanları
*(Prof. Dr. Shenel Raman +90 392 630 1042; shenelhusnu.raman@emu.edu.tr &
Yrd. Doç.Dr. Dilek Celik +90 392 630 2478 dilek.celik@emu.edu.tr)* ile iletişim
kurabilirsiniz.

Araştırmaya yaptığınız değerli katkıdan ve katılımınızdan dolayı teşekkür ediyorum.

**APPENDIX K**

**Ethics Aproval**

11 April 2023

ETK00-2023-0063

Dear Makomborero Kabanda (21507116)

I am pleased to inform you that your ethics application for your project titled

Attitudes Towards Harassment in the north of Cyprus under the supervison of Prof.

Dr Shenel Husnu Raman and Asst. Prof. Dr Dilek Celik has been approved and you

can start data collection.

With all good wishes, Prof Dr Ilhan Raman

Chair, EMU Social Sciences, Humanities and Administration (SOBIB) Ethics Sub

Committee