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STALKING:

PERPETRATION, VICTIMIZATION AND STALKING MYTH ACCEPTANCE IN GREECE AND THE UNITED KINGDOM.

Ntaniella- Roumpini Pylarinou

A thesis submitted to the University of Huddersfield in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

December 2020

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Abstract

Introduction: Stalking is a complex crime that has been a part of people's interpersonal relationships for centuries. It was first criminalized in 1990s in the US, and it was subsequently criminalized in other countries such as England and Wales (Protection against Harassment Act, 1997 and Freedom of Protection Act 2012) and the European Union (Istanbul Convention, 2014); other countries such as Greece have no anti-stalking legislation. Many aspects of stalking have been researched such as victimization, perpetration, stalking acknowledgment, Stalking Myth Acceptance and Stalking Typologies. The purpose of this study was to examine all the above topics using a Greek sample, as there is no social awareness of the crime and no anti-stalking legislation. Furthermore, by using a sample from another country (UK) with anti-stalking legislation, to examine similarities and differences between the two samples. This will allow the true nature of the crime to be uncovered alongside what other aspects (Gender Role Stereotypes, Romantic Scale Beliefs and Hostility towards Women) can affect stalking.

Methodology: A total of 1068 participants were recruited (529 Greek participants and 539 UK participants), aged 16-79 years old for Greek participants and 17-76 years old for the UK participants. The participants were members of the public and were asked to complete the same questionnaire, translated into Greek for the Greek participants. The questionnaire included a Demographics section, Experience with stalking (victimization, perpetration and stalking behaviours experienced and carried out towards others), Stalking Myth Acceptance, Gender Roles Stereotypes, Romantic Scale belief and Hostility towards Women.

Results: The results illustrated that both samples experienced stalking and stalked other individuals, but stalking acknowledgment was an issue for both victimization and perpetration. For the Stalking Myths analysis, men endorse Stalking Myths more than women, age and education also have varying effects in stalking myth endorsement. Endorsement of GRS and HTW can affect SMA endorsement for both samples and for the Greek sample RSB also effects SMA. A Smallest Space Analysis was used to examine stalking typology with regards to stalking behaviours for victimization and perpetration revealed three themes (intimacy, aggression, and sexuality) for both samples and two for perpetration (intimacy and sexuality).

Discussion: The cultural differences that affected the results for each sample were discussed alongside other aspects that affected the current results. The implications with regards to each country were discussed, specifically the need for Greece to create an anti-stalking legislation and the need for more awareness for stalking in younger ages (adolescence and young adults) and male victimization for both countries. Limitations of the study and suggestions for future research focusing on adolescents and cyberstalking are also discussed.

Preface

Stalking is a serious and complex crime that can affect every aspect of a victim's life. This can span from their emotional, psychological, and physical health and in some cases in can also affect the friends and the family of the individual that is being stalked. Stalking came into the public conscious during the 1990s with the case of Rebecca Schaeffer who was murdered by her stalker, despite the evidence that exists that it has been an issue throughout history. Soon after anti-stalking legislation was created throughout the world in California (1990), Canada (1993), and Australia (1994). In England and Wales (1997) the first legislation was introduced Protection from Harassment Act that was later updated in 2012 with the Protection against Freedom Act and the European Union criminalized stalking in the Istanbul convention 2014. Despite this Greece is a country that has no official recognition for stalking as a crime, there is no translation in Greek for stalking or a legislation to protect victims of this crime.

Over the years stalking research has investigated a number of different issues about stalking itself and issues surrounding stalking such as Victimization, Perpetration, Stalking Myths and Stalking typologies. In Greece, research on any of these topics about stalking has never been conducted, as stalking is not considered a criminal offence and there was no public interest in this crime. The limited data that exist are from a European research on Violence against Women (2012) and as the title of the research suggests only women were asked about their experiences with stalking. Furthermore, very few cross- cultural studies on stalking have been carried out over the years. These two countries are very different in regards to their cultural background as Greece is a more conservative country in comparison to the UK. A more detailed discussion on this can be found in Chapter 2. In addition, the UK has had some type of anti-stalking legislation since 1997 (Protection from Harassment Act) whilst Greece has made no attempt to criminalize stalking. The main aim of this study is to examine the nature and perceptions of stalking for Greece and the United Kingdom and compare the results between the two countries.

The thesis is composed by the following parts the Introduction, the Methodology, the Results, and the Discussion, in total there are 18 Chapters.

The Introduction consists of four Chapters and Chapter 1 discusses the origins of stalking, the issues that surround the definitions of stalking, the behaviours that are associated with stalking, Victimization and Perpetration (victims and perpetrators), the effects of stalking, and the current situation with stalking in Greece and the UK. Chapter 2 discusses the external influences that effect stalking such as Stalking acknowledgment by the victim, Stalking Myths, and other factors such as culture, the media, romantic beliefs, gender roles, hostility towards women and fear. Chapter 3 discusses the different and the most prominent Stalking typologies that have been developed in stalking research. For example, the Zona Sharma and Lane (1993) typology, the Mullen, Pathé, Purcell, and Stuart (1999) Stalker Typology, the RECON Stalker Typology, the Budd and Mattinson (2000) Behaviour Typology and Canter and Ioannou (2004) Typology. Chapter 4 covers the past research in the area of stalking, the rationale for this study and the aim and objectives.

The methodology section consists of one chapter (Chapter 5) that talks about the participants of this study, the materials that were used. More specifically, the questionnaire and the scales that were included in the questionnaire, the pilot study that was conducted, ethical considerations and the data analysis. The results section was covered in Chapters 6 to 11. Chapter 6 examined the descriptive statistics of the victimization and perpetration results for both countries. Chapter 7 examined if the individual differences (gender, education, and age) have an effect of Stalking Myth endorsement in both countries (Greece and UK) and the results between the two countries were compared.

Chapter 8 examined the relationship between Gender Role Stereotypes, Romantic Scale Belief and Hostility towards Women with Stalking Myth Acceptance and its subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking and SMA Nuisance) in both countries (Greece and UK) the results between the two countries were compared. Chapter 9 examined the themes that emerged from the behaviours the Greek and the UK participants experience during their stalking victimization and perpetration. Chapter 10 examined if there was a relationship between the themes that were derived from the SSA analysis and demographics background (gender, level of education and age), if they had been stalker or not, if they had stalked another individual or not and if they had asked for help or not or if they had been by someone for their behaviour or not. Chapter 11 examined the relationship between the

Stalking Myths Acceptance scale, Gender Role Stereotype scale, Romantic Scale Belief and the Hostility towards Women scale and the themes derived from the SSA analysis (Victimization and Perpetration). In all the Chapters the data for both countries Greece and the UK were examined and the results between the two countries were compared.

The discussion section was covered in Chapters 12 to 18 and more specifically for Chapters 12 to 17 each chapter discussed the results of each objective in details and with regards to previous results in the area of stalking. Finally, Chapter 18 covered the implications, limitations, future research, and the overall conclusion of the study.

INTRODUCTION SECTION

Chapter 1:

Stalking

"Every breath you take and every move you make
Every bond you break, every step you take, I'll be watching you
Every single day and every word you say
Every game you play, every night you stay, I'll be watching you"
The Police, 1983

1.1Origins of stalking

Stalking is a complex and intriguing crime that has always been a part of society, without acknowledging that this type of behaviour is a crime (Dan & Kornreich, 2000; Finch, 2001; Kamir, 2001). People have been followed, harassed, or have carried out these behaviours themselves towards other (Meloy, 1999; Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2001). More specifically, there are legal cases throughout history that have only recently been recognised as stalking cases. The earliest case of stalking that has been identified in the English courts is the Dennis v. Lane case, in 1704. In this case Dr Lane who was a physician pursued Miss Dennis who was a young heiress, despite her mother forbidding the doctor of contacting her daughter.

He disregarded this and broke into their home, which prompted both mother and daughter to move to another location. The doctor followed them once more until he assaulted an individual who was accompanying the mother and her daughter, which was the reason of his arrest and for this behaviour he was brought to court. He also assaulted Miss Dennis's barrister; for his actions he was ordered to pay £400 as a bond for him to "keep the peace" for a year and a day. No information is available if this decision was successful or if he tried to contact his victim again. The next court case that was attributed to stalking was over a century later in 1840 more specifically Regina v. Dunn, where a barrister Mr Dunn perused Miss Coutt for over a year. This case is one of the most detailed accounts of stalking that has ever been recorded (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2000).

Stalking also appeared in the draft of the Danish criminal code in 1912, and it became a crime in the 1933 criminal code (Section 265). In Denmark stalking is called forfølgelse, which is a close term to the English stalking terminology, and it focuses on any behaviour that is carried out repeatedly or over a period of time to violate the peace of another individuals (Modena Group on Stalking, 2007). Despite evidence existing that stalking has affected people throughout history and Denmark creating an anti-stalking legislation in 1933, it was cases in 1980s and 1990s that brought stalking into the forefront (Saunders, 1998; Way, 1994).

More specifically, Theresa Saldana was one of the first stalking cases that become highly publicized after her stalker stalked her and brutally attacked her in 1982 outside her home. Although it was another stalking case a few years later that brought stalking into the public conscious (Best, 1999; Holmes, 1993; Keenahan & Barlow, 1997). The murder of the 21-year-old television actress Rebecca Shaeffer in 1989 who was killed by the 19-year-old Robert Bardo (McCann, 2001; Schlesinger, 2006). He had stalked her since 1986 when he first saw her in a television show and hired a private detective to acquire her personal information of her residence through the Department of Motor Vehicles (de Becker, 1997; Gilligan, 1992).

After Rebecca Shaeffer's murder it was revealed that other celebrities had also been stalked over the years such as Jodie Foster and Janet Jackson (McCann, 1995). In the aftermath of Rebecca Shaeffer's murder a number of changes were implemented such as the Drivers Privacy Protection Act (1994) with the most important implication being the creation of the first anti-stalking legislation in California in 1990 (Lowney & Best, 1995). In the years that followed the criminalisation of stalking in California other US states followed a similar pattern by creating their own anti-stalking legislations (McAnaney et al., 1992). In comparison to other crimes such as murder, theft, or arson stalking is considered a "new crime", as it was criminalized thirty years ago (Bjerregaard, 2000). The United States was not the only country that created stalking legislation, over the next few years other countries created their own laws, some of these countries are Canada (1993), Australia (1994), England and Wales (1997), and Italy (2008) (De Fazio, 2011; McEwan, Mullen & Mackenzie, 2007; Miglietta & Maran, 2017; Sheridan & Davies, 2001; Storey & Hart, 2011). As stalking was criminalised there was also an increase in public awareness of the severity, prevalence,

and the seriousness of the crime (Galeazzi, Bučar-Ručman, DeFazio, & Groenen, 2009).

1.2Stalking Definitions

The complexity of stalking is not limited in the different legal definitions that exist throughout the world. As stalking legislation varies from one country to another, a similar pattern can be found in psychological definitions, which are also plagued by ambiguities and differences in certain aspects of the definition (Jagessar & Sheridan, 2004). Despite academics attempts to create a unified definition to facilitate and make stalking research more reliable, this has not yet been achieved (Meloy, 1998; Sheridan, Gillett & Davies, 2002). Most of the stalking definitions focus on three different aspects of the crime, the first is that stalking is repeated and unwanted attention from one individual towards another individual (Baum, et, al, 2009; Fox et al., 2011; Meloy & Gothard, 1995).

The second aspect is the emotions the perpetrator invokes from the victim, which can be those of anxiety, worry, and fear for what is happening to them or what could potentially happen to them if the behaviour escalates (Catalano, 2012; Dietz & Martin, 2007; Fox, Nobles & Fisher, 2011; Ogilvie, 2000; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2013). The final aspect of the definition is the requirement that the stalker will make a credible threat towards the victim (Fox et al., 2011). This requirement is often found in legislative definitions but not in academic definitions, as it difficult to establish what is considered a credible threat.

One of the first main differences encountered in stalking definitions is the fear requirement, which states the victim must be either fearful or distressed or concerned by the behaviours they are experiencing (Belknap & Sharma, 2014; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007; Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2009; Tjaden, 2009; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; Tjaden, Thoennes, & Allison, 2000). This fear requirement can be often found alongside the requirement that a “reasonable person” needs to feel threatened by their offender for it to constitute stalking (Blaauw et al., 2002, Blaauw, Sheridan & Winkel, 2002; Saunders, 1998; Miller 2001). This requirement creates the question what is a “reasonable person”, what are the criteria of a “reasonable person” if there are any, and who is or should be considered a “reasonable person”. Furthermore, if it is a personal

judgment of the individual or do the police decide if a stalking victim is a "reasonable person". To overcome this requirement and the challenges it brings with it, some researchers (Jordan, Wilcox, & Pritchard, 2007) have removed both the fear requirement and the "reasonable person" requirement from their stalking definitions. Another requirement that is included in the stalking definitions by some researchers is the minimum number of incidents (stalking behaviours) that the victim must experience before it qualifies as stalking (Eterovic-Soric, Choo, Ashman, & Mubarak, 2017). The reason behind the minimum requirement of behaviours is that if it an isolated incident the courts will view it as harassment and not stalking (Dennison, 2007; Sheridan, Blaauw, et al., 2003; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998).

Harassment is a crime that is classified with regards to the setting in which the behaviours happen (Cuenca-Piqueras, Fernández-Prados & González-Moreno, 2020), more specifically the workplace, the street, public transport and also if the nature of the harassment is sexual or not. There are many different types of harassment such as racial harassment, physical, psychological, personal, and sexual (Burn, 2019; McDonald, 2012; Pina et al., 2009; Spector, Zhou, & Che, 2014). Most of the definitions have included unwanted sexual advances, physical or verbal sexual conduct and can turn into sexual assault, these behaviours can cause the victim to be intimidated, degraded, humiliated creating a hostile environment (McDonald, 2012; Taylor, et al., 2020). It can take on different forms and it belongs in a broader group of behaviours that could include online bullying or cyber harassment and within the confides of the workplace it is considered as workplace harassment (Gutek, 2015; Van Laer, 2014).

Stalking is a broader crime that is not confined in one place, Mullen et al, (1999) defined stalking as course of action where two or more different or similar and separate acts of attention, that is unwanted and is carried out by one person towards someone else that can make the victim become fearful. The minimum of two or more stalking behaviours or acts requirement is also endorsed by other researchers (Meloy, Mohandie, & Green, 2011; Logan, 2010; National Center for Victims of Crime, 2007). In some cases, the definitions for stalking may also include some examples of behaviours that are associated with stalking such as following, constant harassment, threats, damage to the victim's property, assault, and acts of violence (Mullen, et al, 2009; Purcell et al., 2002).

Two of the most inclusive definitions for stalking are from the National Center for Victims of Crime, (2007) and from Spitzberg and Cupach, (2014). The National Center for Victims of Crime, (2007) defines stalking as a crime of psychological terror and of intimidation that can potentially escalate with the offender being violent towards the victim; the victims can be affected by serious health consequences from stalking. Whilst Spitzberg and Cupach, (2014) defined stalking as a phenomenon which can be characterized by behaviours that are repetitive and that someone carries out towards another individual; that individual receives continues, persistent, unwanted attention and they can be in a constant state of fear of the possibility that the perpetrator can become violent against them or someone close to them. Overall, despite the existing differences in stalking definitions there are some underlying similarities in all the definitions, which helps create a base of what constitutes as stalking.

1.3Stalking Behaviours

Stalking is a complex crime, which is evident from its lack of a unanimous definition in the academic world and the different legislations that exist. Another issue which explains the lack of clear of definition, is what is considered as a "reasonable" behaviour and what is an "unreasonable" behaviour (Dennison, 2007; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007). In stalking both types of behaviours (reasonable and unreasonable) have been identified, which creates the difficulty for the victim to understand in the early stages of the crime that they are a victim. As stalking is not a crime that consists of one dangerous, distressing, and traumatic experience, such as other crimes (sexual assault or physical assault). It is a crime where the victim experiences a series of behaviours over a length of time (Sheridan & Davies, 2001; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007). Some of the behaviours that are associated with stalking, when they are seen in isolation they can be viewed as harmless or innocent (Scott & Sheridan, 2011).

Previous research has found that the stalking behaviours that are encountered by victims can be separated into different categories. More specifically, these categories are surveillance, hyper-intimacy, interactional contacts, mediated contacts, harassment, intimidation, invasion, coercion, threat, and aggression (Miller, 2012). The hyper-intimacy behaviours that have been identified are often typical behaviours found in romantic courtships. For example, the offender may send their victim emails or

messages or letters, flowers, cards, calling them, or even make exaggerated claims of affection, these behaviours can be viewed as romantic by some.

Romance is considered the emotional connection and the recognition of a relationship between two individuals (Fletcher, Simpson & Thomas 2000; Raley, Crissey & Muller, 2007). In this relationship there are certain aspects that are considered fundamental such as trust, commitment, passion, intimacy, and love (Ducat & Zimmer-Gembeck, 2010). Romantic love that is intense is a phenomenon that can be found cross-culturally, and it is accompanied by a strong motivation to win the potential partner over. Romance and romantic love is also associated with the hyper-intimacy behaviours described above but these behaviours can be viewed as romantic only if the person that is being pursued sees them as such, if they view them as unwanted interactions then they become the early stages of stalking.

The victim may view these behaviours either as flattering in the beginning or as a nuisance; but as these behaviours continue and the perpetrator persists, they can make the victim feel uncomfortable (Kamphuis, Emmelkamp & Bartak, 2003; Purcell, Moller, Flower & Mullen, 2009). These behaviours can slowly escalate, as the perpetrator moves from phone calls and message to directly approaching the victim, appearing in public places where the victim is, invading the victim's personal space, approaching the victim's friends and family, and trying to infiltrate their social network or even their occupational network (Purcell, et al, 2009; Scott, Rajakaruna, Sheridan & Sleath, 2014). The offender is trying to mediate physical contact with their victim and become a part of their life, despite the objections or wishes of the individual they are stalking.

The next section of behaviours is monitoring another individual's behaviour and surveillance (Burke, Wallen, Vail-Smith, & Knox, 2011; Lyndon et al., 2011; Southworth, Dawson, Frase, & Tucker, 2005). Surveillance of the victim is an expected and a stereotypical part of stalking behaviour, to learn more information on the victim, their routine and to follow the victim throughout the day (Belknap et al., 2011). Despite being the most common behaviour in stalking it is the most difficult part of stalking to prove due to its covert nature, as in most cases the victim is unaware that this is happening. The next categories are those of harassing and intimidating the victim. To achieve this the perpetrator harasses not only the victim but the individual's friends and

family, causing problems in their work environment, calling them at all hours of the day or calling them non-stop, waiting for them outside of places they are, spreading false rumors about the victim and insulting them (Rosenfield, 2004). The invasion category combines the violation of both the personal and the legal boundaries that exist, as the offender will steal personal information by breaking into the victim's house or the property of the victim's family and friends (Dressing, Kuehner, & Gass, 2005). It is at this point and these behaviours where the stalking behaviours are crossing towards the boundaries of criminality. The stalking is slowly escalating towards more dangerous territories, where the offender is becoming increasingly more violent and unpredictable (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007).

As the behaviour of the perpetrator intensifies so do the behaviours he or she carries out towards the individual that is being stalked. The offender exhibits coercive and threatening behaviours towards the victim or the pets that person has, the people the individual loves, and their personal property (house, car, personal items) (Harmon et al., 1998; Mullen et al., 1999). The victim's work colleagues can find themselves being threaten by the perpetrator and in some cases the offender will threaten the victim by stating that they will kill themselves, if the victim does not comply with their demands (McEwan, et al, 2007; Zona et al., 1993).

Furthermore, the perpetrator will send or leave threatening messages either at the victim's property, work, or personal phone; these messages may contain explicit threats of what they will do to either the victim or to others (friends and family) (Bennet et al., 2011; Jerin & Dolinsky, 2001; Zweig et al., 2013). Threats in stalking cases are the harbinger for the violence the victim might experience in the future from the offender. As previous research has documented that, stalkers are very likely to act upon their threats they make towards others (McEwan, Mullen, MacKenzie, & Ogloff, 2009; Rosenfeld, 2004).

In addition, if the threats are repeated often during the time the victim is being stalked, there is a high probability of them becoming a reality and from those threats 45% of them have a sexual or physical violent content (Pathé & Mullen, 1997). There are cases were stalking becomes violent, and the perpetrator will carry out extreme behaviours towards the victim. The final category that was identified was that of physical aggression and violence, where the offender can vandalize the victim's

personal property, physically hurt them or others (family or friends), commit suicide or attempt it, sexual assault the victim or attempt it (Mullen, Pathé & Purcell, 2000; Norris 1988; Schlesinger, 2002; Spitzberg, & Cupach, 2007). Stalking is often a predecessor for other types of violence such domestic violence (Coleman, 1997), and homicide and in the most violent and dangerous cases of stalking the perpetrator will kill their victim (Keeney & Heide, 1994; Spitzberg, & Cupach, 2007).

Overall, the stalking behaviours a victim can experience whilst they are being stalked can cover a variety of different behaviours from the most "innocent" and "romantic" behaviours to the most dangerous and violent (Villacampa, 2009). Because so many behaviours are associated with stalking and the need for two or more behaviours to be experienced by a victim to constitute stalking, this can cause an individual to doubt their experience and often minimize it until they experience the most dangerous aspects of this crime.

1.4Victimization and Perpetrations

1.4.1 Victims

Since the criminalization of stalking in the 1990s in the US, research has tried to investigate the true nature of stalking and the extent of the problem that victims are faced with (Black et al., 2011; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2002; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2014; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). It was necessary to identify the victims' characteristics as way to understand this crime further (Jasinski &. Dietz, 2004). Stalking is not a crime that discriminants, anyone can be a victim from any socioeconomic and educational background (Pathé & Mullen, 1997; Sheridan, Blaauw, & Davies, 2003) and some researchers (Spitzberg, Cupach, & Ciceraro, 2010) have suggested that stalking is a gender-neutral crime.

Stalking research has uncovered that this crime affects many people every year from many different countries (Björklund, Häkkänen-Nyholm, Sheridan, & Roberts, 2010; Breiding et al., 2015; Chapman & Spitzberg, 2003; Dressing, Gass, & Kuehner, 2007; Purcell, Pathé, & Mullen, 2002; Van Der Aa & Kunst, 2009). It has also become evident in stalking research that victimization rates vary depending on the gender of the victim (Baum et al., 2009; Catalano, 2012; Smith et al., 2017). More specifically, women are the ones that are in the highest risk group of being stalking victims in

comparison to men (Bjerregaard, 2000; McCreedy & Dennis, 1996; Lyndon et al., 2012).

Most of the victimization rates reported in stalking research are based on what is considered the most influential study that has ever been conducted in stalking literature. The National Violence Against Women Survey (NVAWS) by Tjaden and Thoennes (1998), featured 8000 men and 8000 women and established that the victimization rate for men was between 2% and 4%, whilst for women it was between 8% and 12%. Later studies found varying victimization rates, such as 7% to 19% for women experience stalking and between 2% and 12% for men to face this type of victimization in their lifetime (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013; Basile, Swahn, Chen, & Saltzman, 2006; Black et al., 2011; Johnson & Thompson 2016; Walby & Allen, 2004). Most studies on stalking have been conducted with samples from the United States, Canada, or Australia. A stalking study with a large European sample illustrated that the same pattern of victimization and perpetration emerges in European countries, women are predominantly the victims 87% and men are predominately the perpetrators 86% (Dressing et al., 2007).

Gender is not the only aspect of personal traits that affect victimization but also age has been identified as another important trait. Younger individuals tend to be victimized more and specifically people under the age of 25 (Haugaard & Seri, 2003; King-Ries, 2010; Purcell, Pathé, & Mullen, 2002; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). Baum et al., (2009) stated that the people between the ages of 18-24 are in the highest risk group. There are some differences between researchers on where the age limits should be set for the highest risk group, some have limits lower than 18 years old and other higher than 24 years old. For example, Jasinski and Dietz (2004) and Purcell, Pathé, Mullen, (2002), set the age limits for highest risk victims between the ages of 16 to 30, whilst others (Coleman 1997; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 1999) set the limits between the ages of 20 to 34 years old. The one common thing that is agreed upon by researchers in the age trait, is that older adults are less likely to be victimized by a violent crime (Rennison, 2002; Klaus, 2000).

As age is an important trait for victimization more research is focused on recruiting younger samples sizes and studies are being conducted in a university or college setting. This has uncovered that university students are at a higher risk of

become victims of stalking in comparison to samples from the general population (Belknap & Sharma, 2014; Buhi, Clayton, & Surrency, 2009; Fisher, Daigle, & Cullen, 2010; McNamara & Marsil, 2012). These previous stalking studies have suggested that the perpetration rates for college students vary between from 1% to 8% (Fremouw Westrup, & Pennypacker, 1997; Haugaard & Seri, 2003). These number are disputed by another study which indicates that for college students the overall victimization rate was 27% (Nobles, Fox, Piquero & Piquero, 2009) or between 13% and 40% (Fisher et al., 2000; Haugaard & Seri, 2003; Roberts, 2005; Amar & Alexy, 2010).

The stalking studies with college and university students found similar gender differences in victimization rates with the general population studies. More specifically, the victimization rates vary from 6% to 30% for female students, whilst for male students the rates were between 11% and 19% (Bjerregaard, 2000; Haugaard & Seri, 2001; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2002; Fremouw, et al, 1997; Logan, Leukefeld, & Walker, 2000; McCreedy & Dennis, 1996). Despite these gender differences for lifetime experience with stalking that have been identified some studies have found no differences in victimization rate for both genders (Cupach & Spitzberg, 2000; Haugaard & Seri, 2001; Fox, Gover, & Kaukinen, 2009).

There are explanations as to why university and college students may find themselves being victimized more in comparison to the general population, Fisher et al. (2010) in their findings discussed these reasons. The university students find themselves in a transitioning period and they must learn to navigate being on their own for the first time in their lives, and navigating new relationships that vary from platonic, to sexual, or familial. They are in a new environment that can quickly become a breeding ground for them to be victimizing, as they are in unfamiliar surroundings, and without parental supervision. It is a learning phase for them, they must understand how to deal with complex social situations and in some cases, they need to develop their social skills without resulting to stalking behaviours (Ravensburg & Miller, 2003).

Stalking literature has mainly focused on adults and according to the legal definitions an adult is any individual who is aged 18 years old or over (Mullen et al., 1999), but stalking is not a crime that can be found only in adults. Teenagers and young adults have also been found to experience stalking. Adolescence is the age between the 12 to 17 years old, these are the ages that separate childhood with the beginning of

puberty and the end of puberty with the beginning of adulthood (Leitz & Theriot, 2005; Smetana, Campione-Barr, & Metzger, 2006). In Purcell, et al, (2009) study with adolescent stalkers they indicated that they followed similar pattern with adult stalkers, most of the victims were female (69%) and most of the perpetrator were male (64%). Overall, very few studies have used an adolescent sample (Evans & Meloy, 2011; Fisher et al., 2014; Leitz & Theriot, 2005; McCann, 1998; 2000; Purcell, Pathé, & Mullen, 2010; Roberts et al., 2016; Vaidya, Chalhoub, & Newing, 2005).

1.4.2 Perpetrators

The most important questions in stalking research are who are the people that stalk others and what is the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator. The stalker usually belongs in one of three categories an ex- partner, an acquaintance, or a stranger. More specifically, the stalker could be a co-worker, a client, a neighbour, a friend, a family member, an acquaintance, a current partner or an ex- significant other (Amar, 2006; Bjerregaard, 2002; Fremouw et al., 1997; Fisher et al., 2002; Haugaard & Seri, 2003; Jordan et al., 2007; Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al., 2002; Mustaine & Tewksburry, 1999; Nobles, et al., 2009; Roberts, 2005; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007; Spitzberg & Rhea, 1999).

Victims of stalking are usually stalked by an individual that they know and not a stranger (Bjerregaard, 2000; Sinclair & Frieze, 2005; Wilcox, Jordan, & Pritchard, 2007). A meta- analysis by Spitzberg and Cupach's (2007) suggested that the victims of stalking know their stalkers in 80% of the cases and more than half of these cases usually involved an ex significant other. More specifically, Johnson and Thompson (2016) in their research indicated that 55% of stalkers were acquaintances of the victims, 25% of the stalkers were ex significant partners and 19% of stalkers were strangers.

Similar results have been found in other studies (Fremouw et al. 1997; Fisher et al. 2014; Purcell, et al., 2009; Ravensberg, & Miller, 2003; Spitzberg & Rhea, 1999). Victims are also typically pursued by either a current or by an ex-spouse/ significant other (Baldry, 2002; Bjorklund et al., 2010; Melton, 2000, 2007; Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2000; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; Walby & Allen, 2001; Walker & Meloy, 1998). As Davis, Coker, & Sanderson, (2002) found that female victims are stalked by

an ex- partner more (41%) than male victims (28%), similar results were also identified in other stalking studies (Black et al., 2011; Ngo, 2018).

1.5 The effects of stalking

Stalking literature has focused mostly on the dangers the victims face, such as the possibility of being violently attacked by the offender. The real danger and harm for the victim is not the potential violence they may face, but in the constant, prolonged and unwanted intrusions, and behaviours they will experience; it is there were the sense of powerlessness and fear begins to take over the victim (Kamphuis & Emmelkamp, 2000; Pathé & Mullen, 1997). When stalking is prolonged it can cause cognitive changes to an individual, the victim will become fearful of other peoples' intentions, they will lose sense of their own capabilities and the control they had over their own life (Kamphuis et al., 2003). Every aspect of an individual's life will be impacted, and it can cause social, personal, and psychological damage (Ornstein & Rickne, 2013). Spitzberg and Cupach (2007) in their research suggested that are different aspects of the victim's life that is impacted because of the stalking. These aspects are general disturbance, physical health, cognitive health, work life, social life, and personal life.

The most staggering effect of stalking can be traced on the victim's mental health, they can become nervous, alarmed, and anxious (Blaauw et al., 2002; Cupach & Spitzberg, 2004; Nicastro, Cousins, & Spitzberg, 2000; Pathé & Mullen, 1997). Victims develop depression, fear, jealousy, paranoia, confusion, suspicious, anger issues, feel emotional disturbance, and are constantly destructed (Amar, 2006; Bjerregaard, 2000; Bohn & Holz, 1996; Campbell, 2002; Kohn, Flood, Chase, & McMahon, 2000; Davis, et al., 2002; Slashinski, Coker, & Davis, 2003; Osborne, 2011). Following their victimization, the victims can develop or show symptoms of posttraumatic stress syndrome (PTSD), fear for physical and emotional safety, and there is an increased possibility of them developing a chronic disease (Dressing, Kuehner, & Gass, 2005; Mechanic, Uhlmansiek, Weaver, & Resick, 2000; Westrup, Fremouw, Thompson, & Lewis, 1999).

Other mental health problems include having panic attacks and flashbacks, feeling powerless, being suicidal, attempting to commit suicide and succeeding and becoming detached from other people (Baum et al., 2009; Brewster, 1998; Carsten,

Short and Brown, 2011; Cox & Speziale, 2009; Edwards & Gidycz, 2014; Finch, 2001; NUS, 2016; Purcell Pathé, & Mullen, 2005; Sheridan et al., 2001). In some cases, the victims will alter their personality and become more guarded, aggressive, they will be more easily frighten and become introverts (Hall, 1998). Physically their health can deteriorate with them having nightmares, headaches, continuous nausea, feeling tired or weak, loss of appetite, sleep disturbance, insomnia, tension, begin abusing substances either alcohol or drugs and unhealthy lifestyle patterns (Amar, 2006; Briere & Runtz, 1989; Davis et al., 2002; Pathé & Mullen, 1997).

The victims will be fearful to be alone either in their house or somewhere else but at the same time they will want to be alone, away from other people (Johnson & Kercher, 2009). As stalking is crime that escalates over time so can the effects it has on the victim, as the stalker in many cases will not hesitate to be physically violent towards the victim, adding a new layer of effects on the victim that of physical trauma (Fisher et al., 2000; Kohn et al., 2000). Victims also face financial loses as they can be forced to quit their jobs or reduce the hours they work or change their employment altogether to avoid their stalker from showing up at work; move houses or area and in extreme case the victim will move to another country (Cox & Speziale, 2009; Dressing et al., 2005; Logan et al., 2007; Kamphuis & Emmelkamp, 2000; Sheridan et al., 2001).

The victims may change their names, alter their appearance, change phone numbers, or buy security systems (Brewster, 1997; Hall, 1998; Morris et al., 2002; Pathé & Mullen, 1997; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). The financial costs can come from replacing property that has been damaged and items that were destroyed by the offender, lawyers' fees to get a protective or restraining order or other legal procedures and to get mental health treatment to deal with the situation (Brewster, 1998; Kamphuis & Emmelkamp, 2001; Logan et al., 2006).

Stalking can devastate the victim's interpersonal relationships and social life (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007). Stalking victimization will cause the individuals that experience it to isolate themselves from the people that are the most important individuals in their lives, such as friends and family (Cox & Speziale, 2009; Hall, 1998; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2001). The reason behind social isolation is to protect their loved ones from being harassed, stalked, and attacked by the stalker (Logan & Walker, 2010; Sheridan et al., 2001). This isolation can be similar to what victims of psychological

abuse may experience. Psychological abuse has been defined as a coercive and controlling behaviour, where the one partner tries to isolate the other partner from other individuals (friends and family) in order to dominate them; they might use denigrating words and insults, continuous criticism, verbal abuse and aggression and threats to achieve this (Gormley & Lopez, 2010; O'Leary, 1999).

The difference is that victims of stalking will experience psychological abuse but also the physical side of stalking with behaviours such as following, the perpetrator showing up at their workplace, breaking into their house. In both cases, the victims may also feel embarrassed for what is happening to them, and they may feel inadequate as they cannot resolve the situation themselves (Logan & Walker, 2009; Spitzberg, 2002). The main difference is the stalker will expand their behaviours to the victim's friends and family, whilst the person carrying out the psychological abuse will concentrate only on their victim. As time progresses stalking victims reduce their social interactions with others to protect them but their self-esteem, and self-worth is heavily impacted by this decision (Brewster, 2003; Logan & Walker, 2009).

People that have experienced stalking will be affected by this throughout their lives, as they will have difficulties forming new relationships, trusting new people, and moving on with their life (Melton, 2007; Sheridan, 2001). Overall, the severity of the effects that stalking has on a victim can only be determined by the combination of all the experiences they have faced, and this can vary from one individual to another (Hirtenlehner, Starzer & Weber, 2012). Despite stalking literature illustrating the effects of stalking in every aspect of someone's life for example psychological, social, economic and in people's interpersonal relationships some countries still do not have anti-stalking legislation (Breiding, Chen, & Black, 2014; Dressing, Kuehner, & Gass, 2006; Owens, 2016).

1.6 Greece

As stalking was slowly gaining recognition as a crime in some European countries, the European Union in an effort to prevent, combat and protect women within the European Union from different types of violence they experience, created a treaty with the Council of Europe Convention on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence in 2011. This treaty is better known as the Istanbul

Convention, where it establishes stalking as a crime in Article 34 “Stalking- Parties shall take the necessary legislative or other measures to ensure that the intentional conduct of repeatedly engaging in threatening conduct directed at another person, causing her or him to fear for her or his safety, is criminalised.”. The convention came into force on the 1st of August 2014, and despite signing the treaty Greece still has not altered its legislation to criminalize stalking.

As gender inequalities persist to this day in the Greek society which is evident by last year’s Gender Equality Index (2020) for the EU where Greece was in the last position among all the EU countries for gender equality. It also explains why the Law against Domestic Violence 3500/2006 came into effect in 2006. Prior to this the victims of domestic violence had very little protection from their perpetrator. In this legislation marital rape was also criminalised. Women’s’ groups have fought for years to bring into the forefront the issues that women face in Greek society, but stalking has not gained any notoriety (Modena Group of Stalking, 2007). In the Greek language there is no accurate translation of the word stalking, there are some translations of the crime, but they do not encapsulate the true nature of the crime. Furthermore, there has never been a high- profile public case of stalking that has attracted the media attention (Modena Group of Stalking, 2007).

Even if a case is stalking, the media will distort the way it is reported either as an individual with mental health illness who harassed another individual or if it a domestic violence case and the stalking aspect will not be reported at all. In 2012 the European Union conducted a research on gender- based violence against women, which asked women from all the European countries different questions on their experience with violence against women. The research revealed that 12% of women in Greece had experienced all forms of stalking since the age of 15. Despite stalking not being a crime in Greece it is evident from this research that women are affected by this crime. There is no official data about how many men are affected by stalking in Greece as it is not a recognised crime, and no stalking research has ever been conducted in Greece that has a sample which includes both genders.

As there is no legislation for stalking in Greece, there is the ability to prosecute certain behaviours that are related to stalking under the Greek legislation. The first behaviour that can be prosecuted is “Insults” article 361 of the Penal Code, when

someone attacks the honour of another either by words or acts and it can be punished with either pecuniary penalty that varies from 150-15000€ or up to a year imprisonment. The next punishable behaviour is "Threat" article 333 of the Penal Code, the victim is threatened that causes the individual to be fearful or to be anxious, this crime also has a varying pecuniary penalty of 150-15000€ or up to a year imprisonment (Modena Group on Stalking, 2007). Furthermore, the Domestic Violence (2006) has an imprisonment punishment up to 5 years for threats that can cause anxiety or terror to a member of the offender's family or to a cohabiting partner (Melton, 2005). If the stalker causes any damage on the private property of the victim, the offender can be prosecuted under article 381 of the Penal Code, that carries up to 6 months imprisonment.

If the offender forces their victim to resume their relationship it can be prosecuted under article 330 of the Penal Code 'Unlawful Violence". The article states that "Whoever compels another person to do, omit or suffer something, for which the victim has no obligation, by using bodily violence or threat of bodily violence or any other unlawful act or omission is punished by imprisonment of up to 2 years, regardless of whether the threat is addressed against the victim himself/herself or his/her next of kin" (Modena Group on Stalking, 2007).

In serious cases of stalking the stalker can be prosecuted under articles 308 and 308A of the Penal Code 'Bodily Harm', for this to happen the victim must prove that due to the offender's behaviour they are suffering from an anxiety/ depressive disorder. The imprisonment for this crime depends on how serious the psychological damage that was caused to the victim was. Moreover, if the offender's behaviours during the stalking incident are obscene gestures or they propose to the victim to carry out obscene acts that unlawfully insult another individual's sexual dignity, then the offender can be prosecuted under article 337 of the Penal Code 'Insult to Sexual Dignity'. This crime similar with previous crime that have been discussed has a pecuniary penalty that varies from 150- 15.000€ or can carry an imprisonment punishment up to 1 year (Modena Group on Stalking, 2007).

If any of the previous behaviours happen in the workplace towards any of the employees or anyone who is looking for work, this is classed as sexual harassment and holds a more severe sentencing then the precious crime that varies from a 6 month up

to a year imprisonment and pecuniary penalty is also imposed alongside, which can vary from 1000 to 15000€. There are also civil law provisions that can be used to prosecute the offenders that are either protection orders or injury to the personality of the victim. If the offender does not comply, they must pay a fine towards the victim up to 5.900€, and they may be imprisoned up to 1 year. The Law against Domestic Violence (2006) protects the victim if the stalking happens between a divorced couple, a cohabiting couple or family members. In this case a restraining order is issued prohibiting the offender from approaching the victim or the must maintain a specific distance from the victim, the victim's residence, and their workplace (van der Aa, 2012).

These behaviours can be prosecuted but it not always easy to have a quick result, the Greek courts are notorious for the length a case can take not only to be heard by a judge but also for the verdict to come out. Even if the victim wins a case for example in civil or punitive court the offender can go to higher court to dispute the verdict. The costs can easily mount for the victim, as in many cases even if the behaviours are punitive such as "Insults" they go through the courts and not the police. Only in the cases that police are required the police will be involved, for example "Bodily Harm", "Sexual Harassment" and or the offender has damaged the private property of the victim.

For a victim of stalking help exists in Greece but is scarce and difficult to access if they do not have money, or support from their family and friends. There are no charities dedicated to stalking or helping victims of stalking and the police tend to avoid getting involved in "disputes between two individuals" they try and remain impartial or simply ask both parties to find a way to "resolve" their issues privately. In some cases, they might caution their offender about their behaviour, but no arrest will be made until the offender breaks the law and there is proof that the individual was involved.

1.7 United Kingdom

The United Kingdom has had a complex response to criminalizing stalking. As the United Kingdom is made up off by four countries each has had their own response to the criminalization of stalking. England, Wales, and Northern Ireland were the first

to create legislation to protect victims of stalking in the Protection from Harassment Act in 1997. Scotland criminalized stalking in section 39 of the Criminal Justice and Licensing Act (Scotland) in 2010, prior to this to prosecute stalking the law for "Breaching the Peace" was used and stalking was prosecuted as a form of Harassment. England and Wales made amendments to the Protection of Harassment Act (1997) to separate stalking from harassment and make it into a specific crime under the Protection of Freedoms Act (2012).

In 2019 the Stalking Act was also created with immediate effect; this Act creates a new civil Stalking Protection Order (SPO). The SPO which the police can apply for on behalf of the victim to a magistrates' court imposes certain requirements and prohibitions to the perpetrator. If the perpetrator breaches any of the SPO terms, then this would result to a criminal offence. The design of the SPO is for it to apply in complicated situations such as when the perpetrator is a stranger and there is not enough evidence or the threshold requirements for a criminal prosecution are not met at the current time in a case.

In the Freedom of Protection Act (2012) two new sections (2A and 4A) were added to focused solely on stalking. The first section that was added 2A is the one that labels stalking a crime for the first time in English and Welsh legislation. The next section 4A that was added focuses on dealing with the fear of violence or the serious distress that is cause by stalking. Furthermore, an explanation is provided as to what serious distress entails, which is any behaviour that can cause a 'substantial adverse effect' on the victim's everyday life.

Another important aspect of this legislation is that it provided examples of stalking behaviour that may be experienced by the victim. Some of the behaviours that are in the list are contacting, following, watching, monitoring, spying, publishing material relating to the victim, loitering, and interfering. These are not all the behaviours that are associated with stalking but some prime examples. Two or more behaviours need to be carried out by the offender. Offences for Section 2A carry a maximum prison sentence of 6 months, whilst for Section 4A the offences carry a maximum prison sentence of 5 years. Since the criminalization of stalking in the UK official statistics exist on the number of people affected by this crime each year. The British Crime Survey (2006) revealed that an estimated 5 million people are affected by stalking every year.

The Crime Survey for England and Wales in 2020 stated that approximately 1.3 million people every year are affected by stalking. The number is lower in comparison to the 2006 data as changes were introduced to the Survey in the weighting procedure and the sample size was lower due to using a split sample experiment. New questions were also introduced in 2013 and behaviours that were and in some cases are still linked with stalking are now viewed as a separate crime (coercive control). The data for this crime would now be recorded separately and not as part of stalking reducing the numbers for one crime (stalking) for example whilst increasing the numbers for another (coercive control).

The Office of National Statistics (2013) determined that 1 in 6 women and 1 in 12 men experience stalking. Furthermore, in 2013/14 the Crown Prosecution Service published their figures which stated that only 743 stalking offences had been prosecuted and 9.792 had been prosecuted for harassment. This means that only 1% of stalking cases and only 16% of harassment cases that had been recorded by the police were charged and prosecuted by the CPS (Paladin National Stalking Advocacy Service, 2015). Moreover, when it came to sentence the offenders only 11% (n=33) had an immediate custodial sentence for the stalking Section 2A and for the stalking 4A Section only 9% (n=14) in 2013 (Paladin National Stalking Advocacy Service, 2015).

According to the National Stalking Helpline (2011), most of the victims are female (80.4%) and most of the perpetrators are male (70.5%), which follows what previous research in the area of stalking have found on victimization and perpetration (Nobles et al. 2009). The United Kingdom like Greece signed the European Union treaty on preventing and combating violence against women and domestic violence in 2011, which criminalised stalking in the European Union. The UK also participated in the research on gender- based violence against women (2012), which women from all the European countries responded to questions on their personal experience with violence against women. For the UK sample the research revealed that 19% of women in the UK had experienced all forms of stalking since the age of 15.

1.8 Conclusion

Stalking has always been a part of society, but it was not until the 1990s with the criminalization that it was brought to the public's attention. There is not a unanimous stalking definition as academics and legislators are not in agreement on

what stalking should be called, how many behaviours should constitute stalking and if the victim needs to be in a state of fear or not to, to qualify as a stalking victim. There is overall undertone of similarities for both academic and legislative definitions, which creates some understanding of the true nature of stalking as a crime. Greece and the UK have taken very different approaches for stalking. Greece has no legislation or official translation for the word stalking, whilst the UK created their first legislation for stalking in 1997. Furthermore, the UK updated the legislation to reflect the needs of the victims as the original legislation did not differentiate stalking from harassment. For Greece, the statistics for stalking are very limited and are based in the European Union research, violence against women. In the UK more information is available for victimization and perpetration.

It is evident that that there are some personal attributes that have consistently emerged as correlates to victimization (Basile et al., 2006; Catalano, 2012; Spitzberg, 2002; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). These personal attributes for the victims are gender, more female victims than male victims (Bates, 2015; Fernet, Lapierre, Héberta, & Cousineau, 2019; Sinclair & Frieze, 2000; McFarlane, Willson, Malecha, & Lemmey, 2000), and the person's age (United States Department of Justice Office of Justice Programs, 1998; Rennison, 2002; Klaus, 2000). Furthermore, stalking literature has demonstrated that stalking is a social problem and can cause health problems physical, emotional, and psychological but also financial problems (Baum, et al, 2009; Black et al., 2011; Diette, Goldsmith, Hamilton, Darity, & McFarland, 2013; Fleming, Newton, Fernandez-Botran, Miller, & Burns, 2012; Iverson et al., 2012; Logan & Walker, 2006).

Chapter 2:

Stalking Acknowledgement, Stalking Myths and the Factors that affect them

2.1Stalking Acknowledgment

Stalking is not a harmless crime, it is a psychologically devastating crime that can also become extremely violent (Belknap & Sharma, 2014). The complexity it has as a crime has led to victims not understanding that they are being victimized. Stalking acknowledgment has become an important part of stalking research over the years as it has been uncovered that acknowledgment is significantly correlated to people reporting being victim of stalking (Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2010; Williams, 1984). Jordan et al. (2007) defined stalking acknowledgement as the probability of a victim labeling their experience as stalking. There are many different reasons why an individual will not acknowledge their own victimization. People who do not view themselves as a victim may be hesitant or disregard the seriousness of the situation they are in and will not seek or ask for help. Unknowingly to them they could be jeopardizing their life because as stalking progresses over time it becomes more severe, and it could cause the victim long-term psychological harm and is some cases physical harm (Littleton & Henderson, 2009).

If the victim does not acknowledge that they are a victim, they are less likely to report to the police what is happening (Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2010; Williams, 1984). This creates discrepancies between the official statistics and the victimizations rates identified in stalking research; as in research more broad definitions are used and this might help victims self- identify as such (Baum et al., 2009). Moreover, the reason for this lack of acknowledgement could be traced in peoples' personal definition of a crime and their expectations of what that entails, it may not match with the legal definition that exists (Block, 1974; Quinney, 1970). For example, many stalking legislations in the US require the victimization to be repeated and for the victim to be fearful of being bodily harmed (National Institute of Justice, 1996). Victims will underestimate the risk of stalking, especially if they link it to the fear requirement (Jordan et al., 2007). If the respondents of a study say that they were

not fearful they will only report the more severe experiences and not the behaviours that are considered more "innocent" (Dovelius et al., 2006). It is evident that there are misconceptions that been cultivated over the years about this crime. Furthermore, for the crime to be legitimate or follow legislative guidelines for prosecution the victim must become fearful, anything prior to the victim being in distress does not count.

Despite the fear requirement or the need for the a "reasonable person" to be fearful of the perpetrator's behaviour (Catalano, 2012; Sheridan, et al., 2003), behaviours that have been defined legally as stalking can be often viewed as "romantic" if they are from a partner or ex-partner (Belknap & Sharma, 2014), and not perceived as dangerous (Cass, 2011). Stalking can grow from either people who try to pursue another individual to start a romantic relationship or re-gain a romantic relationship that has ended (Cupach & Spitzberg, 2004; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007). In these cases, the victims might excuse or try to explain the offenders' behaviours until they become disturbing, violent, and threatening. In a mock juror research on stalking, it was found that males would not view these "romantic" stalking behaviours or gestures as problematic (Dunlap, Lynch, Jewell, Wasarhaley, & Golding, 2015).

Research on stalking perception in the past have used community and university student samples and predominantly have been conducted in Australia, Canada the UK and the US and the participants were observers of the stalking situation that was. In these studies, it was identified that when stalking actions were perpetrated by an individual the victim did know, it was not deemed as stalking in the majority of the cases or they believed that an intervention was required for the victim (Cass, 2011; Phillips et al., 2004; Scott, et al., 2014; Sheridan, Gillett, Davies, Blaauw, & Patel, 2003). Similarly, stalking behaviours conducted by a stranger were seen as causing the victim more distress, alarm, fear, and potential fear of the perpetrator being violent (Cass & Mallicoat, 2015; Scott, Lloyd, & Gavin, 2010; Scott, et al., 2014).

Furthermore, when the gender of the victim was considered in these stalking scenarios, the participants considered that a male stalker was more violent and viewed the stalking experience for the victim as more serious. They also thought that the victim would be in danger of being physically injured by the stalker and that the police should intervene, investigate, arrest, and prosecute the stalker if they were male more than when the perpetrator was a female (Cass & Mallicoat, 2015; Cass & Rosay, 2012;

Phillips et al., 2004; Sheridan & Scott, 2010; Sheridan, Gillett, et al., 2003). If the victim was male the participants believed that they would not feel as worried, threatened, or fearful of their experience in comparison to their female counterparts (Podaná & Imríšková, 2016). Gender norms and stereotypes have a direct impact on stalking. Previous research (Gerber, 1991; Spitzberg & Cadiz, 2002) indicated that when the stalking behaviours are conducted by a man instead of a woman it will perceived as more severe. There are typical expectations that stalkers will be men and the victims will be women, which creates certain myths for stalking (Spitzberg & Cadiz, 2002). These misconceptions can cause men to be more hesitant than women to report to the police that they were victims of stalking as they can feel more embarrassment of not being able to defend themselves against their stalker (Cass & Mallicoat, 2015).

The severity of the crime will impact if the victim acknowledges their victimization (Bondurant, 2001; Botta & Pingree, 1997; Fisher et al., 2003; Kahn et al., 2003; Layman et al., 1996; Phillips et al., 2004). For example, if the behaviours that are being experienced by the victim are not the most extreme ones associated with stalking such as violence or threats of violence, the victim might believe that there is no need to involve the police. In a similar pattern, perpetrators might not understand that their behaviour is stalking or even see it as them doing anything that is illegal or negative, even though researchers and legal professionals label their behaviour as stalking (Davis, Ace, & Andra, 2000; Dunn, 1999; Sinclair & Frieze, 2005; Tjaden, Thoennes, & Allison, 2000).

The reason for why both victims and perpetrators do not understand the seriousness of the situation could also be traced in cultural expectations of romance. People might have difficulties separating what is stalking behaviour and what is courtship, as the behaviour that is experienced in both the crime and the romantic pursuit are often intertwined (Emerson, Ferris, & Gardner, 1998; Sinclair & Frieze, 2000). As was stated in the previous chapter, age has been identified as a contributing factor to stalking acknowledgement. Younger individuals may not be able to distinguish what is acceptable or not acceptable in a romantic relationship as they have limited life experience (Emerson et al., 1998; Haugaard & Seri, 2003; Sinclair & Frieze, 2000).

Prior stalking research that used scenarios illustrated that when it was a stranger that carried out the harassment or the unwanted pursuit, the participants would label

them as stalkers more often in comparison to when the perpetrators were ex-partners (Kahn et al., 2003; Kinkade et al., 2005; Koss, 1985; Scott, et al., 2010; Phillips et al., 2004; Sheridan & Lyndon, 2012). Other studies disagree with these findings, stating that previous relationship has no effect in stalking victimization (Bondurant, 2001; Fisher et al., 2003; Jordan et al., 2007; Littleton et al., 2006). Even though there are disagreements in the effect a prior relationship has, people have "scenarios" or "scripts" and expectations of what a crime should be, and stranger stalking is often considered the "true stalking" (Ngo 2014). In research focusing on victim acknowledgement, it was identified that if the victimization does not fit peoples' mental scripts or scenarios of what "true victimization" is, people are reluctant to acknowledge it (Bondurant, 2001; Hammond & Calhoun, 2007; Haywood & Swank, 2008; Kahn et al., 1994; Ryan, 1988). Even behaviours that constitute stalking and are stated in legal definitions as stalking, might not be recognized as such by the victims.

Research in stalking scenarios uncovered that if the behaviours did not fit participants expectations or stereotypes of what staking is, they would not categorize it as stalking (Jordan et al., 2007; Ngo, 2012; Sheridan et al., 2000, 2001, 2002). Behaviours such as following the victim, watching someone from out of sight and spying on them are considered typical stalking behaviours. Simultaneously, behaviours such as the perpetrator making exaggerated declarations of affection or leaving unwanted gifts would not be viewed as being part of stalking victimization (Jordan, et al., 2007; Sheridan, Davies, & Boon 2001; Sheridan, Gillett, & Davies, 2000, 2002). The misconception exists that the more severe stalking behaviours will be exhibited by stranger stalkers in comparison to ex-significant partners and these misconceptions are also found in UK police samples (Scott, Nixon, & Sheridan, 2013; Sheridan, Scott, & Nixon, 2016; Phillips et al. 2004; Weller, Hope, & Sheridan, 2013).

Even when stalking victims may acknowledge that they are a victim, there are certain stereotypes and perceptions that people have that will hinder them from going to the police. These perceptions are lack of severity in the actions of the perpetrator has towards the victim, there is a lack of harm or potential lack of harm, and they have alternative solutions that might be available to them to deal with the situation (Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Jordan, et al., 2007). It has been found in previous studies that victims are reluctant to ask the police to either intervene in the situation or to help them deal with the stalker. The reasons for this are because the victims do not believe

the situation is serious enough for the police, they do not believe their help will be affective or they want to resolve this privately and do not wish to involve the police in the matter (Baum et al., 2009; Bjerregaard, 2000; Feltes et al., 2012; FRA, 2014). If the victims have positive reactions from their family and friends when they reveal their victimization, they will be more forthcoming and will ask help from the police (Littleton et al., 2006). If for example they are blamed for their victimization because it does not fit their friends and family perception of victimization that could prevent them from asking the police for help (Crome & McCabe, 2001; Englebrecht, & Reyns, 2011).

2.2Stalking Myths

As stalking research was becoming more widespread and more aspects of this crime were being examined by researchers, it became apparent that people have misinformed ideas of what stalking is, which led to the discovery and development of stalking myths. Stalking myths are dysfunctional, stereotypical, and false beliefs of what stalking is, who are the stalkers, how it effects the victims, the behaviours that are associated with it and the true nature of crime. Rape is the crime with the most misconceptions, the misconceptions focus on blaming the victim, minimising the crime and to excusing the offender behaviour (Koss et al., 1994; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). Based on these misconceptions, scales were developed to understand the true effect that these stereotypes related to the crime can have on people's perception of crimes such as rape (Burt, 1980; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994), sexual harassment (Cowan, 2000; Lonsway et al., 2008), and domestic violence (Peters, 2008).

Using these previous scales as a base, a stalking myth scale was developed focusing on dysfunctional stereotypes about stalking. Currently there are two different stalking myth acceptance scales that have been developed one from McKeon, Mullen & Ogloff (unpublished) and one from Sinclair (2006). The one that is used more frequently in research is the McKeon, Mullen & Ogloff (unpublished) as it has more measuring aspects that examine certain stalking factors. The stalking factors that have been developed are flattery, victim blame, nuisance and minimizing stalking (Dunlap et al, 2015; Kamphuis et al., 2005).

Flattery is something unique to stalking myth acceptance in comparison to other myth acceptance scales that have been developed. Flattery derives from the cultural beliefs of romance where the male stalker "pursuits" a reluctant female individual and eventually this persistent "romance" will pay off (Lee, 1997; Lowney & Best, 1995). This flattery stereotype is used to excuse the offender's behaviour and minimize the impact of their true nature of the behaviour. Romantic ideology has been closely related to stalking myths as they have an important role in creating these dysfunctional beliefs for the stalking, as there is an overlap of romantic and healthy behaviours that are also found in stalking. For example, someone leaving gifts for another individual or calling and sending them messages.

These romantic scripts have been used as an excuse from the stalker not to acknowledge their rejection by their victims. The perpetrators will turn their victims no into a yes because that is what the cultural norms have taught them, for example the victim will not say yes the first they are approached as they do not want to seem "easy" (Cupach & Spitzberg, 2000). The glorification of the romantic pursuit and the behaviours that are associated with it by both society and the media can create problems when someone is asked to recognize these behaviours as a crime (Dunlap et al, 2012; Spitzberg & Cadiz, 2002). Thus, there are many people who will struggle to find the line between what is stalking and what is romance (Emerson et al. 1998; Sinclair & Frieze, 2000).

The stalking factor of victim blame is something that is found in every myth acceptance scale, where it questions the actions, behaviours and responses of the victims during their victimization. For example, why did they not ask for help, why did they return to the person that was abusing them if they were truly a victim of abuse. Victim blame is linked with the "just world" hypothesis, this hypothesis suggests that people believe that the world is a fair place and if something happens to distort this balance there must a logical explanation why this happened. More specifically that the victims did something to deserve what has happened to them (Jones & Aronson, 1973; Lerner & Miller, 1978).

In the past this type of "rationale" has been used to eliminate any possible blame that is directed towards an offender (Rubin & Peplau, 1975). For example, when it comes to rape myths attitudes notions such as she was wearing a short skirt, or she was

drunk have been used to “excuse” rape. In stalking similar perceptions exist and have been used to explain stalking using this “just world” belief (Scott et al., 2010; Scott & Sheridan, 2011; Sheridan & Scott, 2010). Sheridan et al. (2003) found that stalkers that had a prior intimate relationship with their victims felt that they were “entitled” to pursue them but if the stalker is a stranger this “entitlement” no longer exist (Ross, 1977; Weller, et al., 2013). This belief alongside with what the media has presented as stalking creates this dysfunctional idea that “real” stalking is carried out by a stranger and stalking conducted by someone the victim knows is not in fact stalking. Furthermore, this entitlement of the ex-significant having the “right” to pursuit their previous relationship even though it has ended has led to excusing stalking, more specifically calling it a nuisance and not a crime, whilst also minimizing the victim’s experience.

Calling stalking a nuisance has derived from the media’s, society’s gender role stereotypes and culture portrayal of romantic relationship but also the crime itself. The media, society and gender role stereotypes have for years painted the picture of a male who is love struck and will pursue their love interesting despite her refusal until she relents (DeBecker, 1997; Meloy, 1998; Holt, 1978; Wykes, 2007). In this perception men are always seen as the aggressor and women are always reluctant in the beginning of the pursuit. The reason for this reluctance is so the woman does not seem “easy” and not because she is not interested in the individual. Thus, this narrative is born that a victim should not be afraid of stalking, as it is simply a nuisance from someone who wants to romantically pursue another individual.

Furthermore, when a relationship is ending or has ended and both parties have not agreed to end the relationship it is expected from one of them to try and pursue the other individual to return to the relationship. Any behaviours that are carried out in this instance from one individual to another are not “stalking” but actions to show the individual’s “love” and “want” for the relationship to resume. Minimizing the victim’s experience from the beginning of the stalking incident, as they are made to believe that they should expect this type of behaviour. Moreover, the media’s portrayal of “true stalking” as a stranger that lurks in the night watching the victim from out of sight, has created the narrative that anything beyond this is not the “true stalking” (Gallagher, 2002; Pathé & Mullen, 2002; Schultz et al., 2014).

Stalking myths are directly linked to stalking acknowledgment, Sinclair (2012) suggest that people who endorse stalking myths would not identify stalking when they are presented with stalking scenarios. Furthermore, men endorse stalking myths more than their female counterparts, which also contributes to the blame of the victim for being stalked. Kamphuis et al. (2005) identified similar results when they examined a cross-national sample from different European countries, using a sample of general practitioners and of police officers. The results of said study indicated that in the countries that had anti-stalking legislation the participants had lower scores of stalking myth endorsement than countries that had not had similar legislation.

Overall, all the police officers and general practitioners in that study endorsed stalking myths. Dunlap et al, (2015) found in their research that participants that endorsed stalking myths were more reluctant to give guilty verdicts to stalkers, and that men endorsed these myths more than women. In Italy, DeFazio et al. (2015) conducted a research on stalking myths with a sample of students a few years before and after the criminalization of stalking in Italy. The research found that after the criminalisation of stalking people endorsed stalking myths less than prior to the criminalization of stalking. It is evident that stalking myths can affect every aspect of criminal proceeding from police officers and general practitioners, which are the first people the victims ask for help to potential jurors on criminal trials.

2.3Factors that affect Stalking Myths and Stalking Acknowledgement

2.3.1 Culture

As the world is becoming a globalised society there are still some cultural differences that remain in effect and will cultivate individuals' views on different subject views (Hogg & Vaugham, 2014). To examine the cultural differences in depth Greenfield (2000) stated in his work that two things that reflect the cultural differences are collectivism and individualism and these two can determine the relationship that will develop between the group and the individual. This was developed upon Hofstede's (1980) theory which rated national culture and the rates were based upon the collective or individual values a country showed and the score for this scale is from 1 to 100. A country that had a low score had a collective culture and a country that had a high score was considered to have an individualist culture.

In his work Hofstede (1980) found that the UK had a score of 71 whilst Greece has a score of 35, categorizing each country into an individualist culture (UK) and a collective culture (Greece) respectively. This scale has been used over the years to understand but also explain cultural differences on personality traits and social behaviours (Triandis 1988; Vandello & Cohen 1999; Hofstede 2001; McCrae 2001, Schimmack et al. 2002). Despite the fact that this scale was developed many years ago it is still considered as an important tool to study cultural differences and social behaviours amongst different nations (Kalogeraki, 2009; Schimmack et al. 2005).

For cultures that are individualist in orientation the person's self-determination and independence are considered in this society as life goals (Hofstede 1980, Kagitcibasi 1990; 1994; Kim 1994). In cultures that have a collective orientation the main concept is interdependence, people bond through similar obligations that they have (Schwartz 1990; Oyserman et al. 2002). The "self" in these societies is created through the collective such as family, which includes the extended family, religious group, and the work group (Triandis & Gelfand 1998). The personal goals of the individual are set aside for community goals (Markus & Kitayama 1991; Oyserman 1993). This is different for an individualist society were only relationships with first degree relatives (parents, siblings, etc) are considered important and people invest in them (Triandis 1989; 1995). The relationship with other groups is less intense and can be dropped at any point if the relationship is no longer beneficial to the person and their life goals (Kagitcibasi 1997; Oyserman 1993).

In a collective society people will be concerned to protect and preserve the norms and the values that the group has, to ensure stability (Triandis 1989; 1995). In his work Triandis (1995) stated that when there is homogeneity in a society the culture in that society will be oriented towards being a collective society. More specifically, the individuals that live in a homogeneous culture will share similar ideas on values, gender roles, attitudes, and beliefs. The differences between an individualist society and a collective society do not mean that they cannot coexist within a society (Triandis & Gelfald 1998). Two countries that have developed into two different societies despite being in the confounds of the European continent are Greece and the UK.

Greece has had a turbulent past but since the 1970s it has a stable democracy; this prompted the country to start the modernization process in both the socioeconomic

aspect and the political (Malefakis 1995; Sotiropoulos 2004). The reasons why Greece is still a work in progress when it comes to modernization can be traced to the troubled political past Greece face in the 19th and 20th centuries and its bureaucracy. Furthermore, in the lack of a good industrial sector and its religious roots (Chatzoglou, Chatzoudes, Vraimaki, & Diamantidis, 2013; Sotiropoulos 2004). The Greek Orthodox church still has a significant role in the public life, swearing in the president and the prime minister of the country, priests are often seen next to the political figures of the country in significant events (Zoumboulakis, 2013). They will be asked by the media on significant event or changes on the legislation in what they consider "controversial" legislations such as the civil partnerships between heterosexual or homosexual couples, where they will discuss their opposition (Trispiotis, 2017).

The Orthodox church still plays a role in shaping people's opinion in Greek public life, they believe in a homogenous and national country and denounce the modern Western way of life or society (Prodromou, 1996). The separation of church and state is a sign of a modern society by some of a modern society (Lipset & Rokkan, 1967) but is Greece such attempts to separate the two are limited. The Greek identity is embedded into religion, culture and religion in Greece are intertwined and there is a unity between the Greek Orthodox religion, the ethnos, and the state (Alivazatos, 1999; Clapsis 2020; Georgiadou 1995; Pollis 1992; Stavrou 1995). In their work Inglehart and Baker (2000) stated that economic growth and development can bring cultural changes in a society but when the society is dominated by traditional religious values changes will be limited. More specifically, the modernization process will occur but the traditional religious values these values will be preserve. In Greece only 4% of the population state that they are not religious (Cooperman, Sahgal, & Schiller, 2017).

In comparison to Greece the UK is a very different society, the UK is a heterogeneous society. More specifically, it is as a multicultural society that is created by many different ethnic groups each with each own customs and culture (Nandi, & Platt, 2015). Heterogeneity is considered one of the pillars for a society that is individualist (Triandis 1995). The industrial revolution and its prosperity pushed the ideology that society is greatly benefited when people are acting freely in a market that is competitive in order to achieve their own self-interest. In addition to this as was stated earlier the UK is a multicultural society and these two aspects have turned the UK is individualist society.

Its economic modernization and its cultural complexity give the opportunity for the people that live within this country to make more individualist choices about their life and goals and not conforming on how the group wants them to act (Thomas, Al-Shehhi, Grey, & Broach, 2020). One clear difference between the two countries is religion, as in the UK religion does not play such a significant role in people's life as more people are identifying as not religious (Lewis, 2020). In the census that was carried out in the England and Wales in 2011, 32% of people in Wales and 25% of people in England identified themselves as non- religious. When those numbers are compared with the Greek ones which are 4% of the population are atheist the English and Wales numbers are significantly higher. The type of society individualist or collective as was stated previously helps shaped different aspects of society such as gender roles, media, romantic beliefs, hostility towards women and fear.

More specifically, people view gender roles from the belief that each gender should behave according to traditional expectations, to more liberal societies were gender roles and expectations have little effect in peoples' ideas or views. These cultural differences can also affect how people view a crime and the expectations of what the crime should look like and what behaviours are associated with each crime. Each culture has their own values, expectations, and specific lessons on the behaviour one must have, depending on their gender. These are all passed down from one generation to the next. One aspect that is found in almost every culture is that when an individual is focused on something and is persistent to achieve it, that individual will be highly rewarded when they achieve that goal. If someone for example is a good employee and works hard and remains loyal to a company, they will be rewarded for that by getting a raise and a promotion. Similarly, if someone is truly in love with someone else, they should pursue them until that person "caves in" and reciprocate their love.

Over the years each country's culture has shaped how romance and love should be experienced. Originally this was done through poetry, theatrical plays, and songs but with the progression of technology the cultural norms are now depicted through films, television shows and books. These cultural models have created a distorted image of love that is associated with obsession and madness, all driven by the pursuit of the individual the protagonist is "in love with" (Kamir, 2001). This distorted image could explain why stalking is still viewed as a form of "love" or "romantic pursuit" instead

of a dangerous crime. Furthermore, it is an explanation why criminalizing stalking took a considerable amount of time and there are currently countries with no anti-stalking legislation (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell 2001). Gee (2001) indicated that people learn from cultural models what is regarded as normal or typical behaviour.

These cultural models are maintained by people in their minds, and they use these models to shape and live their life. Cultural models are also supplemented by other means such as the media (news, books, music films, and tv shows), which help support these models. Sheridan et al., (2017) noted that culture can play a significant part as to what is considered a crime and what behaviours are thought of as intrusive acts, and what behaviours are considered as part of courtship. Previous research has suggested that there is an association between culture, gender roles patriarchal beliefs, and ideas with stalking (Brewster 2003; Davis et al. 2000; Morewitz, 2003). As stalking is considered a gendered crime where men stalk women to demonstrate their power and to control another individual (Brewster, 2003).

2.3.2 Gender roles

Gender role stereotypes are defined as certain behaviours that are thought to be attributed more to one gender in comparison then the other, for example strength is attributed to men whilst sensitive is associated with women (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson & Rosenkrantz, 1994; Rosenkrantz, Vogel, Bee, Broverman, & Broverman, 1968). Despite society changing and becoming more fluid in gender roles there are some countries that gender roles still play a significant role in everyday life, Greece is one of these countries. Gender stereotypes are mental structures which become part of an individual characteristics. These stereotypes can affect peoples' physical appearance for example how people should look, how their hair should be, how they should behave depending on their gender for example staying at home and taking care of their children. Furthermore, what career they should follow for example men having high profile careers and women giving up their career for their family (Deaux & Lewis 1984). Stereotypes can cause people in a society to oversimplify certain assessments about actions or things that happen, (Eisend, 2010). In a crime such as stalking behaviours being overlooked can be extremely dangerous (Kotzaivazoglou, Hatzithomas & Tsichla, 2018).

Notions of traditional gender roles have been found to influence victim blame in cases of rape. More specifically, people who have more conservative ideas towards relationship and sexuality will assign blame towards the rape victim (Check & Malamuth, 1985). Previous research has identified that people who have traditional ideas on gender roles will also endorse rape myths (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). When it comes to stalking and the perceptions towards the crime gender roles could also have an influence, as men are seen by society and the media as the pursuers and should be the initiators of a relationship (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Schultz, et al., 2014). Past research such as Check and Malamuth, (1983) have used the Gender Role Stereotype scale which was created by Burt (1980) to illustrate that people who believe in traditional gender roles will be more likely to endorse rape myths but also be more hostile towards women than people who have more modern ideas of gender roles (Dunlap et al., 2015).

Gender roles have always depended on certain prescribed ideas of what is considered appropriate behaviours and characteristics that men and women should have and exhibited (Butler, 2004). For example, what is perceived as aggression and the differences that the same behaviour can have when it is carried out by a man or a woman will reflect certain gender expectations (Finnegan, Fritz & Horrobin, 2018). More specifically, if a man shouts at a woman this is seen a threatening behaviour towards her, but the opposite is viewed as a women "nagging" a man. Similarly, these dysfunctional ideas can also be extended to how crime is committed, gender can also have an influence if it is viewed as a crime depending on the gender of the perpetrator. For example, if a woman is stalking a man this is not viewed as stalking or as threatening in any way.

Greece is a conservative and traditional country (collective culture), where traditional attitudes and stereotypes about gender roles with regards to work and family responsibilities are still part of society (European Foundation for the Improvement of Living and Working Conditions, 2017). Equality between the two genders in Greece was first introduced in 1975 in the Greek constitution which states, "Greek men and Greek women are equal in their rights and their obligations.". Gender discrimination in the labour force was not made illegal in Greece until 2006 with the Law 3488/2006 (Kambouri, 2013). In 2019 the Gender index for the European Union revealed that Greece was ranked last for Gender equality amongst the all the European countries.

Women in Greece have an overall 24.3% positions in power in the political, economic, and social domain (Gender Index, 2019), which once again is the lowest in the European Union.

The United Kingdom (individualist culture) is a very different country from Greece, it is a more culturally diverse society with less traditional and conservative views. In the UK gender equality was established by the Sex Discrimination Act 1975 and further amendments were made in the Sex Discrimination (Election Candidates) Act 2002 to included anything that was not addressed in the first Act. Earlier in 1970 the Equal Pay Act declared that everyone should be paid equality regardless of their gender/sex. In the 2009 Gender index for the European Union the UK was in fifth position as one of the countries with the highest gender equalities between men and women. In the UK women have an overall 56.5% positions in power in the political, economic, and social domain (Gender Index, 2019).

The different type of culture (individualist or collective) and the reasons why each country is the way it is which were explored in the previous section have shaped these two countries to be different from one another. It is evident that despite both countries being at one-point members of the European Union together and are still part of the European continent have tackled gender equality differently. Women in the UK got their first rights to vote with Representation of the People Act of 1918 that was later expended to allow all women to vote Representation of the People Act 1928. Women in Greece had to wait until 1952 to get similar rights to vote in elections. In the UK women got the first child custody rights in 1839, whilst in Greece that did not happen until 1983 (Stamiris, 1986).

This has allowed UK women to have more freedoms for a longer period of time in comparison to their Greek counterparts. Allowing gender roles and stereotypes to continue to foster and develop in the Greek society (Kyriazis, 1998). These different paths can be also seen in the Gender Index (2019) where women in the UK hold more than double the number of positions of power in comparison to their Greek counterparts. Greece has remained a conservative country when it is compared to the UK and is now taking more proactive steps to change this (Anagnostou, 2013), whilst the UK has promoted gender equality more effectively over the years.

2.3.3 Media

The media are very powerful as they can affect people's views and beliefs on every aspect of their life, from what their life should look like, what expectations they should have, how they should behave and how each crime should happen and be experienced by the victim. Gerbner's (1998) cultivation theory suggested that when people are exposed to specific social behaviours, images, and events in the media they can distort people's views of reality and even crime (Schultz, et al., 2014). Moreover, cultivation suggest that there is a link between how media dissipates interpersonal aggression (Comstock, 2008), rape myths, sexual violence (Kahlor & Eastin, 2011) and how people view these crimes. If the crimes are depicted with realism then it will have a greater influence on people (Busselle & Bilandzic, 2008). The media in many cases have misinterpreted key aspects of stalking by consulting "experts" that would extrapolate specific information about the crime such as stranger stalking (Spitzberg & Cadiz, 2006).

The way media has portrayed crime over the years has been associated with creating biased ideas, perceptions, and beliefs about the nature of crimes. For example, who will be a victim what are the personal risks to be victimized, behaviours that are linked with each crime and how the crime should "play out" (Wykes, 2007). The media have portrayed stalking in a very specific way, it will either effect celebrities and politicians and the news will report those cases. The second portrayal which is found in television shows and movies follows a very specific pattern were a stranger with mental health issues starts following the protagonist. The events that will occur are violent, dangerous, and frightening for the victim, until the very end when the police will intervene and save the victim before they are murdered by the stalker. This is a false narrative that has been created on stalking by the media (Gallagher, 2002; Pathé & Mullen, 2002; Schultz et al., 2014).

Furthermore, television shows, movies, and books will often have a protagonist that will be a persistent admirer of another individual, who even though is unwilling to be their love interest the protagonist will persistently pursue them until they succumb to the protagonist's charms. These notions and ideas that are portrayed in everyday media are problematic and give especially younger viewers or readers false and dangerous information and expectations on what a romantic pursue should be or look

like. They will learn that if someone if pursuing them persistently this is romance and not something to be fearful of, even if they are uncomfortable and they must eventually accept this “romance”. Young people after all learn about what is expected in romantic relationships, the nature of romance and the process of courtship through their parents, friends, peers, their culture, the media and as they grow older from their own experience (Lippman, 2018; Wykes, 2007). In their early years of life especially teenagers rely heavily on the media to learn more about romance and the media can help them shape their ideas on romantic relationships.

The media and popular culture tend to present stalkers as romantic and persistent lovers that will not be deterred by anything until the achieve their goal and “get” their object of affections and not as people who are dangerous and need to be feared by their victims (Skoler, 1998). A recurring theme that is found in music, books, films, and television shows (DeBecker, 1997; Meloy, 1998; Holt, 1978; Wykes 2007). When combining these notions of what romance should look like and presenting stalkers in a “romantic light” it could have negative implications for young people. As young adults have limited romantic experiences, are very naïve and innocent which could impact the situations they find themselves in. Adolescents and children that are exposed extensively to violence and sex by the media their attitudes, their behaviours and their relationship expectations will be affected negatively (Brady, 2007; Council on Communications and Media, 2009; Funk, Baldacci, Pasold, & Baumgardner, 2004; Lenahan, 2009; Worth, Chambers, Nassau, Rakhra, & Sargent, 2008). This combination could in the long-term cause them not to acknowledge that they are being victimized by another individual or that their behaviour is causing another individual to be afraid of them or that this behaviour is in many cases illegal and dangerous.

2.3.4 Romantic Beliefs

Romantic beliefs have an important role in stalking perceptions as many behaviours that are associated with stalking are also part of the romantic courtship. Research that has been conducted on romantic ideology has found that both genders have certain beliefs, expectations and values for their romantic relationships that are known as romanticism. Dion and Dion, (1991) suggested that people who have high endorsement of romanticism will often “idealize” their romantic experience of love. Sprecher and Metts, (1989) has categorised romantism in four separate parts which are

love will find a way, the one and only, idealization and love at first sight. The idealization of romance has some positives in relationships as people who hold these beliefs state that their relationship is more passionate, but they also tend to idealise their partner (Cate, Koval, Lloyd, & Wilson, 1995; Sprecher & Metts, 1989). Idealisation of a partner could potentially be harmful especially in stalking cases when the relationship is not wanted or reciprocated by the other individual (Cupach & Spitzberg, 2004). Thus, linking this back to the media and culture where the "one" has been found so the pursuer must do everything in their power to either establish a relationship or to reconcile the relationship that has ended of pursuing someone, glorifying stalking, and renaming it romantic pursuit (Spitzberg & Cadiz 2002; Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2000). It is evident that romantism could also have a significant role in creating and maintaining dysfunctional stereotypes for stalking.

2.3.5 Hostility toward Women (HTW)

Victimization research has identified that when it relates to rape and sexual harassment there is a strong link between these crimes and hostility towards women. Hostility towards women has been characterised as a trait which is experienced as a feeling such as aggression that legitimises violence against women (Check, 1988). In addition, Hostility towards women has derived from dysfunctional beliefs on gender role stereotypes where women must obey and follow men without question and has been used an "excuse" for men to abuse women. Furthermore, HTW has been linked to other interpersonal types of violence such as domestic violence and it is often related to attitudes that will support violence again women (Lonsway & Fitzgerald,1995).

Previous research has identified HTW as a predictor of Rape Myths Acceptance for men in comparison to women (Forbes, Adams-Curtis, & White, 2004). Dunlap et al, (2015) identified that high scores in HTW could also predict high scores in SMA. It is an indication of how intertwined so many different aspects of dysfunctional beliefs are connected to stalking and how they all potentially could affect the victims from not only acknowledging what is happening to them and asking for help but also getting the appropriate help from those responsible to help them.

2.3.6 Fear

Fear is considered as the most harmful aspect of stalking for the victims (Davis, Coker, & Sanderson, 2002; Fleming et al., 2012; Logan & Walker, 2009, 2017; Sheridan & Lyndon, 2012). Fear has been defined in many ways, as a cognitive process that can be triggered if the person has an emotional response, as someone feeling anxious or stressed, or as someone feeling unsafe due to the possibility of them being victimized (Ferraro & LaGrange, 1987; Garofalo, 1981; Maxfield, 1984; Rountree, 1998; Rountree & Land, 1996). Ferraro (1995) also suggested that fear is overall an emotional response linked to anxiety and dread, two emotions that are often associated with crime. Stalking is the only crime that needs the victim to have an emotional response (fear) to the behaviours that they are experiencing (Reyns & Englebrecht, 2013). The element of fear/ distress/ worry/ concern for the individual's safety from the behaviours exhibit by the stalker are an important part of some countries' legal definition of stalking, without this emotion aspect there is no crime of stalking (National Center for Victims of Crime, 2007). Fear is a currency for the stalker and the anti-stalking legislations are trying to eliminate the offender's "currency" or "power" the perpetrator has over the victim (Beatty, 2003).

Past research has argued that men are more likely to be victims of a crime in comparison to women, but women are more fearful of being the victimized in comparison to men (Fisher, 1995; Fox, Nobles and Piquero 2009; Jennings et al, 2007; Warr, 2000). These findings are based on past narrow definitions of victimization that considered "true victimization" to be associated with robbery and physical assault (Fisher & Sloan, 2003; Fox et al., 2009; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000; Warr & Ellison, 2000). Between the two genders women feel more vulnerable about being the victim of crime and are more worried about their safety in comparison to their male counterparts (Brownlow, 2005; Collins, 2016; Day, Stump, & Carreon, 2003; Harris & Miller, 2000; Logan & Walker, 2018; Riggs & Cook, 2014).

This fear and vulnerability derive from women being victims of interpersonal violence such as domestic abuse, sexual assault, rape and stalking more often than men (Bastomski & Smith, 2017; Black et al., 2011; Broll, 2014; Fox, Nobles & Piquero, 2009; Kearl, 2018). As the true numbers of those crimes remain unknown it is understandable why women are more fearful of being victims of a crime. Furthermore, it could also explain why female victims of stalking report being more fearful than men

when they are stalked, as they are aware of the potential harm that they may experience as the crime continues and escalates (Englebretch & Reyns, 2011; Meloy & Boyd, 2003; Meloy, Mohandie, & Green, 2011; Pathé, Mullen, & Purcell, 2000; Purcell, Pathé, & Mullen, 2001; Sheridan, North, & Scott, 2014; Strand & McEwan, 2011; 2012).

In the current legislations that exist for stalking and some academic definitions require the victims to be in a state of fear (US legislation), whilst in others it requires for example the offender to potentially cause the victim to be fearful (Czech Republic legislation) (Horakova, 2012). Fear is a very subjective matter, and two people may not feel fear the same way, for example one person might experience constant calls from their stalker and become fearful or distressed from this, whilst someone else might become angered and frustrated (Owens, 2016). The subjectivity of fear alongside the notion that women are a more vulnerable group to be victimized and men are more capable to protect themselves from violence or any type of crime, creates dysfunctional ideas for the fear requirement (Brownlow, 2005; Dietz & Martin, 2007; Dovelius et al., 2006; Duntley & Buss, 2012; Fisher, 1995; Fox, Nobles, & Fisher, 2011; Harris & Miller, 2000; Jackson, 2009; Jennings et al , 2007; Jordan et al., 2000; Killias & Clerici, 2000; Kuehner, Gass, & Dressing, 2012; Logan & Walker, 2018; May, Rader, & Goodrum, 2010; Núñez, Fernández-Berrocal, Rodríguez, & Postigo, 2008; Riggs & Cook, 2014; Schafer et al. 2006; Scott, 2003; Sheridan & Lyndon 2010**;** Smith & Torstensson, 1997; Starkweather, 2007; Straus & Gelles 1992; Tjaden, 2009; Tjaden & Thoennes 2000; Warr, 2000; Winkleman & Winstead, 2011).

Some researchers have argued that having the fear requirement has created high standards for victimization and people might be hesitant to reveal they are fearful or that they have experienced any other emotions (worry, distress, concern) that are associated with stalking (Dennison & Thomson, 2005; Ngo, 2014; Owens, 2016; Reyns & Englebrect, 2013). Especially men who lean from an early age through society's expectations that being fearful is not masculine and they should not admit to being fearful (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2012). Which could potentially lead to under representation of male victims in the crime datasets for stalking (Owens, 2017). Even when a legislation focuses specifically on the aspect of the victim's life being intruded by the stalker and fear is or is not relevant (De Fazio & Galeazzi, 2005), there are still

certain stereotypical attitudes and beliefs that can influence the response of the police towards the victims, for example the gender of the victim (van der Aa & Kunst, 2009).

Despite the important role fear currently has in anti-stalking legislation there is a growing opposition to the fear requirement being included to stalking definitions and legislations (Dietz & Martin, 2007; Fox, et al., 2011; Podana & Imriškova, 2014; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2013). Baum et al. (2009) in their research eliminated the fear aspect and found that the number of stalking victims increased, as more people who did not "meet" the fear requirement were now included in the data. In addition, Owens, (2016) disagrees with the removal of the fear requirement stating that it can have an impact on safety and fear concerns and leading stalking victims to underestimate their experience. As fear has also been associated with stalking acknowledgement and reporting the crime to the police, more specifically the higher level of fear the victims feels the higher the probability of them asking for help or reporting to the police (Jordan, et al., 2007; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2010).

Prior research has identified that the fear the victim is feeling is often associated with the stalker being violent towards them, and there are consequences such as psychological or economic or social as a direct affect to stalking which will also prompt them to ask for help (Cattaneo, Bell, Goodman, & Dutton, 2007; Fleming et al., 2012; Logan & Walker, 2009, 2010; Sheridan & Lyndon, 2012). It is evident that the fear requirement is both an important part of the legislations and the academic definitions and helps victims acknowledge their victimization; but it can also prohibit men from coming forwards due to gender role stereotypes and because it is subjective people can feel fear differently in a similar situation. Fear both prohibits and inhibits victims of stalking to acknowledge their victimization.

2.4Gender-based violence and stalking

The United Nations in 1993 defined violence against women and girls as "any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women" (United Nations, 1993). This definition was later updated by academics to specify different crimes that are associated with gender violence such as sexual harassment, domestic violence, "honour- crimes", rape and trafficking for modern slavery and sex trafficking (Dombos et al., 2008). In recent years

there has been a discussion to include stalking into the crimes that are gender-based violence as more women than men are affected by this crime (Bjerregaard, 2000; Haugaard & Seri, 2001; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2002; Fremouw, Westrup, & Pennypacker, 1997; Logan, Leukefeld, & Walker, 2000; McCreedy & Dennis, 1996).

Men tend to experience more physical violence than women due to armed conflict, violence on the street which can also be gang related and suicide (Alston, 2012; Roks, 2021). Women are on the opposite side of the spectrum of violence they are more likely to be harmed, assaulted, or killed by someone they know or more specifically an intimate partner (Sheridan, & Nash, 2007). Because the victim is linked to the perpetrator through the bonds of family or a relationship, there is emotional and economic codependence it is hard to create appropriate protection and prevention measures for the victim. More girls and women experience crimes such as rape, sexual abuse, and sexual coercion by individual they know such as intimate partners, father figures or close relatives (Heise, Ellsberg & Gottemoeller, 1999; Rees, et al., 2019).

In any abusive relationship the main desire the perpetrator has is to control and have power over the victim and that applies for many different crimes including stalking. Most forms of violence and specially gender-based crime have roots in historic inequalities between the two genders and is not limited to genders (sexual orientation, race, nationality, or ethnicity) (Reed et al., 2010). In countries that promote traditional gender roles and norms and focus on male domination and control are setting the foundations for gender base violence (Reed et al., 2010). Men who endorse traditional values and notions on masculinity and the role of males in society are the ones who are the perpetrators for gender- based violence (Anderson et al., 2004; Murnen et al., 2002; Santana et al., 2006).

As stalking can begin after a failed relationship it has been linked to Intimate Partner Violence (IPV), which is a form of abuse to have total power over another individual (Burge, Katerndahl, Wood, & Becho, 2016; Norris, Huss, & Palarea, 2011; Senkans, McEwan, & Ogloff, 2021). As was stated previously more men than women perpetrate interpersonal partner violence (Healey, 2014; Murray, Crowe, & Akers, 2016), which after the victim has left their abuser can turn into stalking (Healey, 2014). Stalking does not only stem from a failed relationship it can star due to one individual pursuing another for romantic reasons or due to revenge (Abrams, & Robinson, 2011).

People who are stalked are a very diverse group their age, socioeconomic background and gender can vary from one individual to another (Pathé, Mullen & Purcell, 2001).

Some studies on relationship aggression have found that both partners can engage in acts of aggression against their partner (Hamel 2006). Furthermore, there are studies that support that, men are less victimized by stalking than women but not many of these studies offer a theoretical explanation that can be empirically tested that can explain stalking victimization (Fisher et al., 2002; Fox et al., 2009; Fox, Nobles, & Akers, 2011; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 1999; Nobles & Fox, 2013; Nobles et al., 2009; Reyns et al., 2011). As both genders can stalk another individual (Bjerregaard, 2000; Haugaard & Seri, 2001; Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 2002; Fremouw, Westrup, & Pennypacker, 1997; Logan, Leukefeld, & Walker, 2000; McCreedy & Dennis, 1996) perhaps the answer to these discrepancies in the victimization rates can be found somewhere else. Due to gender norms women learn from an early age, ways to protect themselves and learn the signs of victimization or when they are in danger and who to ask for help from (Fox, Nobles & Fisher, 2016).

In past stalking studies, women were able to recognize stalking more effectively than men when they were provided stalking vignettes especially in situation that are considered to be ambiguous with regards to romance and sociosexual behaviours (Dennison & Thomson, 2000, 2002; Dunlap et al., 2012 Englebrecht & Reyns, 2011; Hills & Taplin, 1998; Sheridan, Davies, & Boon, 2001). Moreover, there could be other reasons why someone does not understand that he or she is a victim of stalking such as gender norms or cultural expectations or personal notions of what the crime should look like (Harris & Miller, 2000; Phillips, Quirk, Rosenfeld, & O'Connor, 2004; Wykes 2007).

In 2004, Russell and Trigg (2004) in their study found that there is a positive relationship between harassment tolerance and sexism and the gender of the responded had not effect. A further indication of this was found by Caputo (2013) that the Italian press described and presented stalking always within the gender violence frame and reestablished gender norms and gender roles in a way that maintains gender inequalities and possible preventing male victims of stalking to ask for help (De Fazio, Merafina, & Sgarbi, 2009; Miglietta & Acquadro Maran, 2016). Men may be hesitant to recognize themselves as stalking victims (Fox, Nobles &. Fisher, 2016) due to societal

pressures such as toxic masculinity which requires men not to show fear (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2012). The fear requirement is what makes stalking a crime (Dennison & Thomson, 2005; Ngo, 2014; Owens, 2016; Reyns & Englebrect, 2012) by men denying being fearful the crime cannot be prosecuted.

Toxic masculinity can cause men to be reluctant to admit their victimization and making them less likely to ask for help for their victimization (Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2012; Wigman, 2009). Due to the above despite stalking being linked and categorized as a gender- based crime this study will approach stalking as a gender-neutral crime (Lyndon et al, 2012; Spitzberg, et al., 2010) to examine if the findings in this study for both samples will follow others in the area. Furthermore, by examining both the victimization and perpetration aspects more information can be uncovered if both genders engage in stalking behaviours in a similar pattern or if stalking is indeed a gender-based crime.

2.5Conclusion

Overall, it is evident that stalking acknowledgment is affected by several different aspects. If the perpetrator will physically injure them, what was the previous relationship between the offender and the victim, the gender of the victim, if they feel fearful in the situation they are in and how their family and friends respond to their victimization (Ménard & Cox, 2016; Ngo & Paternoster, 2016; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2010; 2014). Stalking Myths are dysfunctional beliefs that can affect people's perception of stalking, whilst stalking factors of flattery, victim blame, nuisance and minimizing stalking can help excuse the offender's behaviour and minimize victims experience of the crime (Kamphuis et, al, 2005; Dunlap et al, 2015).

Simultaneously, endorsement of stalking myths can affect a victim's attempt to ask for help from professionals, the police, and the courts. As if their experience does not match the "true stalking" ideal the help provided will not be the appropriate or the court ruling will go against them (Kamphuis et, al, 2005; Dunlap et al, 2013; 2015; Sinclair, 2012). Certain factors have been identified to effect stalking acknowledgement and stalking myths, these are culture, media, romantic beliefs, gender roles and Hostility towards women. Fear has also been found to have an important role in stalking acknowledgment for victims of stalking. The subjectivity of fear alongside the toxic

masculinity that prevent men from admitting to being victim of stalking, has created a debate whether fear needs to be included or excluded in definitions and legislation. It is evident that many things can influence stalking perceptions making it an even more complex crime then what it already is.

Chapter 3:

Stalking Typologies

3.1Stalking Typologies History

Since the criminalization of stalking in the early 1990s an attempt has been made by several research groups to try and create a classification typology for stalking behaviours (Racine & Billick, 2014). The main goal for the creation of these typologies was to identify the differences between the groups of individuals that constitute the perpetrators of stalking. Once these differences were found, it would help predict potential threats of violence, or other types of crime that happen alongside stalking such as sexual assault, kidnapping, rape, and attempting to murder another individual. Furthermore, it could potentially help police officers and other professionals to create an appropriate risk assessment for stalking situations but also help the victims before the stalking escalates. As stalking research in typologies progressed certain distinctions among the different groups of perpetrators were developed but not to the point that they could potentially help the authorities predict and manage the stalker's behaviour. Research into stalking typologies has helped researchers to understand the different risk associated with each group of stalkers but have also helped inform and create strategies for risk management.

The original classification focused mainly on stalkers from psychiatric units, which inevitable created a bias and assisted in the creation of misinformation about stalking. Specifically, that the stalker is a stranger that is motivated by their mental health, the individual either had erotomaniac delusions or psychosis which probed them to stalk another person. As was expected the original research separated stalker into two categories of perpetrators with psychosis and those without psychosis (Kienlen & Solberg, 1997). Moreover, with the progression of stalking research it became apparent that most stalkers did not have a mental health illness or were not having a psychotic episode during stalking (Meloy, 1998). Thus, these findings pushed typology research away from diagnostic categories of the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual (DSM) and towards the relationship between the perpetrator and the victim (Zona, Palarea, & Lane, 1997). Furthermore, other aspects of stalking were also considered in typology research

such as the underlying motivation of the stalker and the behaviours that he or she exhibited towards the person they pursued and the context in which the stalking happened between the individuals involved (Racine & Billick, 2014).

Even though each typology and the classifications that have been developed by the researchers were created to be an overall explanation of stalking, but they cannot be taken as such because the results produced are specific results for the sample used. More specifically, by using a forensic sample to create a typology the results will produce a better understanding of the motivations and the behaviours of that specific sample during stalking situations. Combining different aspects and characteristics of stalking during the analysis such as the prior relationship between victim and perpetrator, motivations of the stalker and the nature of the stalking behaviours can create a complex outcome (Canter & Ioannou, 2005).

Furthermore, developing these complex typologies will generate more questions than answers over stalking, for example what is being classified in each typology and this will cause them to be severely criticked. Behaviour typologies are limited even though they are important to understand stalking tactics. It also provides a unique opportunity to develop themes using the behaviours the stalker carries out towards their victim, which can give an insight into what motivates the stalker (Canter & Ioannou, 2005; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2007; Cupach & Spitzberg, 2004; Spitzberg, 2002). Moreover, a few of the more notables stalking typologies will be examined further to examine their similarities and differences.

3.2Zona, Sharma, and Lane (1993) Typology

Zona, Sharma, and Lane (1993) were the first to create a typology using the relationship between the perpetrator and the victim as a basis (Zona, Sharma, & Lane, 1993). The sample that was used to create this typology was provided to them by the Threat Management Unit that is a part of the Los Angeles Police Department, which was created after the criminalization of stalking and one of its main focuses is to deal with stalking cases. Zona et al, (1993) separated their typology into three distinct categories simple obsessional, love obsessional, and erotomanic. The most cases of stalking according to this type of categorization can be found in the simple obsessional cases. In these cases, the perpetrator and the victim will have some prior knowledge of

one another and in some instances, they would have had some prior relationship. The type of relationship will either be through the medical field, through work, or they would have had a prior romantic relationship. Many stalking cases from this category begin after a relationship, a marriage or a dating relationship that has ended. The main motivation for this category of stalkers is to make the victim or to coerce them into returning to the relationship, or to seek revenge from the victim because they ended the relationship without the perpetrator wanting the relationship to end. Furthermore, due to the prior relationship (acquaintance or ex-significant other) of the perpetrator and the victim there is a higher percentage of stalker being violent towards the victim (Meloy, 1998; Schwartz-Watts & Morgan, 1998).

In the love obsessional category, the perpetrator and the victim will have no prior relationship with one another. In this category the stalkers are usually pursue celebrities and are described as the "obsessed fan". Perpetrators in this category usually have a DSM diagnosis, more specifically an axis I diagnosis of schizoaffective, or bipolar disorders or schizophrenia. The stalkers will "meet" their victim through seeing that individual in a television show, film, or any other media outlet. An example of this type of stalking was Robert Bardo who killed Rebecca Schaeffer (Saunders, 1998). As was mentioned in the previous chapter this category is the one the receives the most media attention despite having the lowest numbers in potentially violence towards the victims. The final category in this typology is the erotomanic stalker, where the perpetrator believes that their victim is in love with them. This is the rarest type of stalker for this classification, but for clinicians and the psychiatrists they categorized individuals in this group using the DSM-IV-TR under the delusional disorder diagnosis of erotomanic (American Psychiatric Association, 2000). The one surprising fact for this group of stalkers is that most of them are young women and their victims are men of a higher socioeconomic status.

3.3Mullen, Pathé, Purcell, and Stuart (1999) Stalker Typology

The next typology that was created was by Mullen, Pathé, Purcell, and Stuart (1999), their sample was a review of 145 stalkers cases that were referred for treatment on a forensic psychiatry center. The classification they created expanded on the one that was created by Zona et al, (1993) to include the perpetration motivation for the stalking. They separated the stalkers into five categories rejected, intimacy seeking, incompetent,

resentful, and predatory. The categories are not mutually exclusive and there are instances when a stalker will fit in more than one category. The Rejected stalker is motivated by revenge or is trying to reconcile a relationship with someone they had a previous romantic relationship (Mullen, et al., 1999). This category is the one where the majority of stalkers are found for this typology and the majority are also men (Mullen, Pathé, & Purcell, 2000). The next category for this typology is Intimacy seeker, where the perpetrator is typically looking for an intimate romantic relationship with the individual, but it is not a necessity for the relationship to be romantic. The behaviours illustrated by the stalkers in this category can be erotomanic delusions and morbid infatuations. The stalkers are usually socially inapt, isolated, and potentially psychotic. Another category was the incompetent stalker which overlaps with the intimacy seeking category, but the unique aspect of this groups is that they believe that they are entitled to have a relationship with their victim.

The stalkers have a complete lack of insight that their victim is not reciprocating their emotions. The resentful stalker is the next category in this typology and the stalker is motivated by their belief that the victim has done something wrong towards them. The perpetrator will threaten their victim to cause them fear, to have control over the victim, which they do not have in their current relationship with their victim. The final category is predatory stalkers, these perpetrators will stalk their victims with the intention of carrying out an assault on their victim; usually the assault is of a sexual nature. Men are the stalkers that are found most in this category and have past criminal convictions.

3.4The RECON Stalker Typology

The most recent typology was created by Mohandie, Meloy, McGowan, and Williams (2006) after they had reviewed 1005 stalking cases. The typology categorizes perpetrators into four groups that are based on two important aspects. Mohandie, et al, (2006) separated into two different groups the first one being “the nature of the previous relationship between stalker and victim (relationship, RE)” and the second being “the context in which this relationship was based (context, CON)”. In these categories the stalkers were placed in it was based on the previous relationship with the victim. Type I included stalkers that were ex-intimate others and acquaintances of the victim. Type

II were stalkers with no prior relationship with the victim, that stalked either public figures or a private stranger.

After the original categorization of the stalkers another division into subcategories was used in the RECON Typology, which is based on the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator. The first subcategory is the intimate stalkers, which were previously involved with their victim either married or in a relationship or they were dating. This sample is the highest identified group of stalkers like the Zona's et al, (1993) and Mullen et al, (1999) typology with 50% of stalkers are found in this category. The stalkers in this group are the most dangerous, threating, and violent with the prospect of harming their victim and the majority is once again men. The next group of stalkers in Type I are acquaintance stalkers and they know the people they pursue but they have no prior romantic relationship. The relationship they do have is through work, or friendship for example, and their main goal is their desire to initiate a relationship with their victim. They are not as violent as the previous subgroup but one third of them will become violent towards the victims.

In Type II the stalkers can make up half or one third of the sample and they had no prior relationship or contact with their victims. In these stalking cases stalkers are protected by their anonymity, lack of criminal behaviour and the lack of awareness from their victim. The first subcategory are the celebrity stalkers or public stalkers with no previous relationship to the person they pursue, the majority are female and psychotic with male victims. This subcategory is like the love obsessional category in the Zona et al, (1993) typology, and despite popular culture and media often showing these stalkers as violent and threating individuals this is not the case. The final subcategory are the stalkers that pursue private strangers, they are the smallest group of stalkers, and they are men with persistent and serious mental health illnesses. Even though they are the rarest group one third of them will become violent towards the victim or the victim's property.

3.5Budd, and Mattinson (2000) Behaviour Typology

Budd, and Mattinson (2000) in their study took another approach to the previous typologies in their area of stalking. They focused on stalking behaviours grouping them together and creating different categories such as hyper-intimacy,

mediated contact, interactional contact, surveillance, invasion, intimidation and harassment, coercion and threat, and physical aggression or violence. The first category of hyper-intimacy focuses on behaviour that are also associate with romantic courtship but are more exaggerated due to stalking, for example leaving unwanted gifts or making exaggerating claims of affection. The second category is mediated contact where the stalker is attempting to initiate contact with their victims by any means possible. For example, calling the victim constantly, sending them messages or emails and leaving them letters. The next category was interactional contacts which focuses on the stalkers attempts trying to establish personal contact with the individual they are pursuing. More specifically, appearing unexpectedly in the victims' interactions and approaching or surprising them in public.

Surveillance is the next category, where the perpetrator is trying to collect information of the victim, for example monitoring another's person behaviour and watching them out of sight. Furthermore, the intrusion category is where the perpetrator is trying to violate the victim's personal space or privacy, such as stealing personal mail or breaking into the victim's house. Intimidation and harassing behaviours are an attempt from the stalker to cause the victim to be fearful, to annoy them to cause them distress. This is achieved by leaving threating messages, making obscene calls, and engaging in regulatory harassment. As the stalking progresses so does the violence and aggression in the stalking behaviours categories with the next two being coercion and threating behaviours. For coercion and threating behaviours, the stalker will start threating not only the victim but also the victim's family but also the personal property of the victim. The final category of physical aggression and violence is when the perpetrator will not hesitate to physical hurt the victim, sexual coerce them or even try to murder them.

3.6Canter and Ioannou (2004) Typology

Canter and Ioannou (2004) developed their own typology using 50 stalking cases from the LAPD's Threat Assessment Unit. In this typology four behavioural themes that were discovered were Sexuality, Intimacy, Possession, and Aggression-Destruction. The first one is Sexuality, and the stalking has a sexual underlying as all the communication or contact that the perpetrator has with the victim has a sexual innuendo. The behaviours that are found in this theme are leaving gifts and letters, the

stalker will follow/ visit their victim or destroy the victim's personal belongings. The perpetrator will send sexual content to their victim, tries, or steals personal objects and tries to access the victim's house. In this theme the stalker through stealing and destroying the victim's property is trying to possess the victim and even though the perpetrator is giving "gifts" to their victim which is considered romantic, they also have a sexual undertone. The next theme is intimacy and the behaviours identified were surveillance, the perpetrator will break their restraining order, and researches the victim. The perpetrator is trying to get closer to the victim and create some type of relationship with them.

Possession is the next theme with the following behaviours associated with this theme. The behaviours that were identified were family abuse, contact after intervention, drive by and contacting the other person. The perpetrator is trying to be closer to the victim seeking intimacy but at the same time the stalker has a desire to have control over the person they are pursuing. The stalker will not hesitate to contact the victim's family and friends to get closer to them and driving by the victim's house constantly reminding them of their presence in their life. In this theme there is the notion that if the stalker cannot have the victim no one can. The final theme is Aggression-Destruction, where the stalker is aggressively trying to control the victim, whilst making direct threats towards the victim. The behaviours that are found in this theme are threats of suicide, threats, public defamation, threating another individual, confrontation, and physical violence. These behaviours have a clear intend to cause the victim harm, to make them feel intimidated, humiliated and to abuse them. This typology also identified similar motivations for the stalkers as those identified in Mullen's et al., (1999) and Budd's and Mattinson's (2000) typology which are sexuality and control.

3.7Conclusion

Typologies in stalking have attempted over the years to investigate the risks the victims face from their stalker using as a method of analysis the prior relationship, the context of the stalking, and the behaviours the offender carried out towards the person they pursued. Each of the typologies that were created used a different stalker sample which were either a forensic sample or using official data from the police. Overall, despite the different samples used and method of analysing their data, there were some

underlying similarities in the findings of all the typologies discussed in this chapter, which illustrated the importance of typology research and the need for it to be extended further to develop a more accurate risk assessment for stalking.

Chapter 4:

Present study

4.1 Past Research in Stalking

Prior research in stalking have covered many aspects of the crime from victimization and the effects it has to victims (Bondurant, 2001; Buhi et al., 2009; Hammond & Calhoun, 2007; Haywood & Swank, 2008; Kahn et al., 1994; Lippman & Ward, 2014; Logan & Cole, 2011; Miglietta & Maran, 2017; Nolan & Ryan, 2000; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2014; Roberts & Dziegielewski, 2006; Ryan, 1988; Sanchez-Nunez, Fernández-Berrocal, Montañés, & Latorre, 2008; van der Aa & Groenen, 2010). To perpetration and who are the stalkers and their prior relationship to the victims (Cupach & Spitzberg, 2004; Fisher et al., 2014; Grangeia & Matos, 2018; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 1999; Purcell et al., 2010; Sheridan & Boon, 2002; Spitzberg, Cupach, & Ciceraro, 2010; Smith-Darden, Reidy & Kernsmith, 2016).

Stalking acknowledgment became an important part of research to understand why victims are reluctant to admit they are being victimized (Englebrecht & Reyns, 2011; Jordan, et al., 2007; Ménard & Cox, 2016; Ngo, 2019; Ngo & Paternoster, 2016; Tjaden, et al., 2000). Whilst stalking myths were created to understand how dysfunctional beliefs could affect every aspect of stalking (De Fazio et al; 2015; Dunlap et al. 2012; Kamphuis et al, 2005; Sinclair, 2012). Finally, typologies were created to categorise stalkers and to understand the risk each category poses to the victim (Canter & Ioannou, 2004; Mohandie, et al., 2006; Mullen et al., 1999; Zona, et al.,1993).

4.2Rationale of the Current Study

One thing that is evident in stalking research is that there is a clear variation in the victimization and perpetration rates. An explanation for these differences can be found in the fact that not every study uses the same definition for stalking (Nobles, et al., 2009; Owens, 2016). Very few cross-national studies have been carried out using the same definition for stalking (FRA, 2014; James et al, 2016; Kamphuis et al, 2005), which could provide a unique opportunity to examine the true victimization and

perpetration rates for both genders. In past studies researchers have avoided asking the participants about their experiences with stalking directly (Morris et al., 2002; Sheridan et al., 2001; Budd & Mattinson, 2000). Moreover, not many studies have been carried out over the years which have investigated stalking from the perpetrators point of view (Grangeia & Matos, 2018). Most of the information on perpetration are from the victims themselves, police data or from a forensic sample but there is no research from the perpetrator viewpoint where the stalker had not been reprimanded for their actions.

The importance of cross-cultural research is the ability it creates to understand social behaviour and how each country and the people within it can view or understand a crime in this case stalking. Moghaddam, (1998) defined cultural diversity as the association of different standards of social behaviour. People learn to socialize and behave in specific ways that are considered culturally appropriate within their own group, so men and women and people from different ethnic groups or from different socioeconomic backgrounds will behave differently (Argyle, 1994). By examining the different or similar behaviours that people experience during stalking in two very different countries Greece and the UK it will help uncover the true nature of stalking behaviour, alongside any differences in perceptions about what stalking is. Culture is an important factor and if it has an impact in public awareness of what is considered stalking, what behaviours are associated with stalking and stalking myths between two very different countries (Sheridan et al., 2002; Jagessar & Sheridan, 2004).

Over the years very few studies have examined stalking myths on the general public and not on a specific sample group such as university students (De Fazio, 2009; Dunlap et al, 2015; Sinclair, 2012) or on police officers and professionals (De Fazio & Galeazzi, 2005; Kamphuis et al., 2005; Pearce & Easteal, 1999). Furthermore, very few studies have been community-based studies (Budd & Mattinson, 2000; Freidl Neuberger, Schönberger, & Raml, 2011; Dressing et al., 2005; Hellmann & Kliem, 2015; Narud, Friestad, & Dahl, 2014; Stieger, Burger, & Schild, 2008; van der Aa & Kunst, 2009; Villacampa & Pujols, 2017; Walby & Allen, 2004; Walker, Flatley, Kershaw, & Moon, 2009).

As the majority of stalking research have used a college-based sample or a forensic sample (Fisher et al., 2000; Fremouw et al., 1997; Haugaard & Seri, 2003; Logan, Nigoff, Walker, & Jordon, 2002; Meloy, 1996; Mullen, et al., 1999; Nobles, et

al., 2009; Roberts, 2005; Amar & Alexy, 2010; Schwartz-Watts & Morgan, 1998). Furthermore, these studies have either used an adult sample or an adolescent sample but never combining the two (Belknap & Sharma, 2014; Buhi, et al., 2009; Fisher, Daigle, & Cullen, 2010; Evans & Meloy, 2011; Fisher et al., 2014; Leitz & Theriot, 2005; McCann, 2000; McNamara & Marsil, 2012; Purcell, et al., 2010; Roberts et al., 2016; Vaidya, et al., 2005).

Additionally, typology studies have been conducted using police data of stalking cases and a forensic sample (Canter & Ioannou, 2004; Mullen, et al., 2006; Mullen et al., 1999; Zona, et al., 1993). A stalking typology has never been created using a self-identifying victimization sample. In addition, a research on stalking has never been carried out to examine victimization or perpetration using a Greek sample with both genders or investigating any aspects of stalking or Stalking Myths or Typologies. This study will be a unique opportunity not only to examine different aspects of stalking and investigate how these aspects victimization, perpetration, stalking acknowledgment, stalking myths are intertwined but also to develop a new typology, using a general public sample with both adolescents and adults. Moreover, using a sample from different countries one with anti-staking legislation (UK) and one without (Greece) it will provide a unique opportunity to examine if there are any similarities or differences to people's experiences with this complex crime.

4.3Aims and Objectives

4.3.1 Overall Aim

The overall aim of this research is to examine the nature and perceptions of stalking for Greece and the United Kingdom and compare the results between the two countries.

4.3.2 Objectives

To examine the victimization rates, perpetration rates and stalking acknowledgement in Greece and the UK and compare the results between the two countries. (Chapter 6)

To investigate if there are gender, educational and age group differences in endorsement of Stalking Myths between the male and female Greek and UK participants and compare the results between the two countries. (Chapter 7)

To examine the relationship between the Gender Role Stereotypes, Romantic Scale Belief and Hostility towards Women with Stalking Myth Acceptance and its subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking and SMA Nuisance) for the Greek and the UK participants and compare the results between the two countries. (Chapter 8)

To examine what themes, emerge from the behaviours the Greek and the UK participants experience during their stalking victimization and perpetration and compare the results between the two countries. (Chapter 9)

To examine the relationship between the themes that were derived from the SSA analysis and demographics background (gender, level of education and age) for the Greek and the UK participants and compare the results between the two countries. (Chapter 10)

To examine the relationship between the themes that were derived from the SSA analysis and if the participants had ever experienced stalking or not; and if they had asked for help when they were being stalked or not for the Greek and the UK participants and compare the results between the two countries. (Chapter 10)

To examine the relationship between the themes that were derived from the SSA analysis if the participants had ever stalked anyone or not; and if they had ever been contacted by someone for their stalking behaviour towards someone else for the Greek and UK participants and compare the results between the two countries. (Chapter 10)

To examine the relationship between the Stalking Myths Acceptance scale, Gender Role Stereotype scale, Romantic Scale Belief and the Hostility towards Women scale and the themes derived from the SSA analysis (Victimization and Perpetration) that have been created for both the Greek and the UK sample and compare the results between the two countries. (Chapter 11)

METHODOLOGY SECTION

Chapter 5:

Methodology

5.1Participants/ Sample Demographics

In this study participants were recruited from Greece and the United Kingdom; a total of 1068 participants were recruited, 529 participants from Greece and 539 participants from the UK. The Greek sample consisted of 529 participants, 177 participants (33.5%) were male, and 352 participants (66.5%) were female. The participants age ranged from 16 to 79 years old (*M*=29.55, *SD*=12.44). The UK sample were 539 participants, 158 (29.3%) male participants and 381 (70.7%) female participants. The participants age ranged from 17-76 years old (*M*=32.79, *SD*=12.64). The participants were asked questions regarding their sexual orientation, relationship status and level of education, all the frequencies for these questions can be found in the tables below (Table 5.1, Table 5.2, Table 5.3). In the sexual orientation question, there were small differences between the samples for each sexuality as can be seen in the Table 5.1 below. The main differences in the percentages can be found at the Gay and Bisexual answer where more UK participants chose these two options compared to the Greek sample.

Table 5.1 Sexual Orientation for both samples

Sexual Orientation	**Greek Sample**		**UK Sample**	
	N	***% sample***	***N***	***% sample***
Heterosexual	486	(91.9%)	477	(88.5%)
Gay	15	(2.8%)	22	(4.1%)
Bisexual	15	(2.8%)	26	(4.8%)
Prefer not to say	13	(2.5%)	14	(2.6%)

In the relationship status questions they were difference in each relationship status options, as can be seen in the above table. The two options that had the smallest differences were Divorced and Widowed, and in the Greek sample there were no participants that were widowed.

Table 5.2 Relationship status for both samples

Relationship Status	**Greek Sample**		**UK Sample**	
	N	***% sample***	***N***	***% sample***
Single	243	45.9%	155	28.8%
In a relationship	171	32.3%	210	39%
Engaged	9	1.7%	27	5%
Married	98	18.5%	133	24.7%
Divorced	7	1.3%	9	1.7%
Widowed	-	-	3	0.6%

In the education level more Greek participants had completed University studies (University/TEI and IEK studies), Master's studies and PhD studies. In the UK sample more participants had completed High School, and Six Form/ College. In Post- Doctoral studies there was a small difference between the two samples.

Table 5.3 Educational level status for both samples

Education Level	**Greek Sample**		**UK Sample**	
	N	***% sample***	***N***	***% sample***
Gymnasio/High School	13	2.5%	72	13.4%
Lykeio/ Six Form/College	124	23.4%	133	24.7%
University	193	36.5%	255	47.3%
TEI (Technical University)	43	8.1%	N/A	N/A
IEK (Institute of Vocational Training)	31	5.9%	N/A	N/A
Master's degree	112	21.2%	66	12.2%
PhD (Postgraduate Doctoral Degree	12	2.3%	3	0.6%
Post- Doctoral Studies	1	0.2%	2	0.4%

5.2Measures

For this study, a questionnaire was created for this this study that consisted of five different parts, a Demographics section, Personal Experience with stalking victimization, perpetration and behaviours associated with stalking, Stalking Myth

Acceptance Scale, Gender Role Stereotypes, Romantic Scale Belief and Hostility towards Women.

5.2.1 Demographics

The first part of the questionnaire was the Demographics section which consisted of general information about the participant such as their age, gender, sexuality, nationality, relationship status, and level of education. The questions in this section were either multiple choice or open-ended so the participants were free to respond to them as they wished. Three questions had specific answers, the sexual orientation question that had 4 options (Straight, Gay, Bisexual and Prefer not to say). The relationship status question had 6 options (Single, in a Relationship, Engaged, Married, Divorced, and Widowed). The final question with specific answers was the level of education question which had 9 options for the Greek participants and 6 for the UK participants. All the educational options were (Primary School, Highschool/ Gymnasio, Lykeio/ Six Form/College, University, TEI (Technical Universities), IEK (Institute of Vocational Training), Master's degree, PhD, and Post-Doctoral studies.

The reason for these differences in options for education level is because the Greek education system is structured differently from the educational system in the United Kingdom after Lykeio/ Senior High School which is equivalent to six form/college. In Greece there are three options after school people can choose from, University, TEI and IEK. TEI stands for Technical Universities (TEI) and they are not equal to Universities but a step lower than them. IEK stands for Institutes of Vocational Training (IEK) and are considered academically below TEI and Universities. People have different qualifications depending on which choice they made after school, so it was necessary to have these options as people may have felt excluded if they did not have these two extra options (TEI and IEK). Potentially that could have affected the results as the Greek participants could have left the questions of education blank or would have chosen an option that did not represent their actual educational level.

5.2.2 Personal Experience with stalking

The Personal Experience with Stalking questionnaire was created by combining and adapting several previous questionnaires to create a new questionnaire

that covered many different aspects of stalking (Cupach & Spitzberg, 2000; Spitzberg & Hoobler, 2002; Cupach & Spitzberg, 2004; Sheridan, 2001; The Home Office BCS). The questionnaire focused in the beginning on Stalking Victimization and asked the participants questions such as who carried out this behaviour, how did they meet, this person's age, their age during the incident, if they were afraid of this behaviour, if they were and if they had asked someone for help and other similar questions. The next part focused on Stalking Perpetration and if the participants had stalked someone in the past, the questions they had to answer were the same as the ones in the Victimization part, but they had to answered from the point of view of the perpetrator.

The final part of this questionnaire focused on behaviours that have been found to be associated with stalking. The participants had to respond if they had ever experienced any of these behaviours or had conducted these behaviours towards someone else that were in the list that was provided to them by responded either "yes" or "no". The behaviours varied from behaviours that are typically associated with stalking such as "Following someone", "Watching someone from out of sight", "Leaving unwanted gifts", "Leaving unwanted messages or letters", "Making exaggerated expressions of affection". Furthermore, more serious, and dangerous behaviours were also included in the list such as "Threatening to hurt someone", "Sexually coercing someone", "Kidnapping" and "Physically restraining someone".

5.2.3 Stalking Myth Acceptance Scale

The Stalking Myth Acceptance Scale was created by McKeon, Mullen & Ogloff (unpublished), it is 34-item questionnaire that measures stalking related attitudes and more specifically it measures how people endorse dysfunctional beliefs on stalking. The participants were presented with statements, that they had to rate using a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = absolutely untrue to 7 = absolutely true). The statements in the scale followed certain themes, pro- stalking beliefs (A woman, who dates a lot, would be more likely to be "stalked"), courtship behaviour (If a man and woman have been in a romantic relationship, the man has more right to pursue her than if they have never met) and stalking in general (Any person could be 'stalked'). Kamphuis et al. (2005) originally separated the Stalking Myths statements into three main themes of nuisance, flattery, and victim blame. Seven items in the "stalking is a nuisance," theme, six items in the "stalking is flattery," with a Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$ theme with a Cronbach's $\alpha = .85$

and six items in the "blaming the victim," with a Cronbach's α= .79 theme. Furthermore, Dunlap et al., (2012) created another theme, which is the minimizing stalking theme which consisted of nine items with a Cronbach's α=.77. Overall, the Cronbach's alpha for the Stalking Myth Acceptance scale was Cronbach's α= .91.

5.2.4 Gender Role Stereotypes

The Gender Role Stereotypes Scale was the next part of the questionnaire, which was developed by Burt (1980). This scale is a 9-item questionnaire, the focus of the scale is the behaviour of women, and the role society has prescribed to women. The participants had to rate the statements of the scale with a 7-point rate scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Some examples of the statements used in this scale are "A woman should be a virgin when she marries" and "A wife should never contradict her husband in public". Check and Malamuth, (1985) in their research found that participant who scored high on this scale and had strong gender stereotypes were more likely to believe rape myths and would be more hostile towards women.

For this scale two statements were removed to improve the Cronbach's alpha, as these two statements were contradictory to the rest of the scale. More specifically the statements that were removed were "It is acceptable for the woman to pay for a date." and "There is nothing wrong with a woman going to a bar alone.". These statements promoted gender equality and women having the "freedom" to do what they want such as going to a bar on their own or paying for the date. The rest of the statements in the scale followed an opposite tone to the statements that were removed. In those statements women must follow unwritten rules of behaviour such as never disobeying their husband in public or arguing with him, focusing on their family more than their career. These were expectations society had for women in the past. Prior to removing the two statements that contradicted the rest of the scale the Cronbach's alpha for the scale was Cronbach's α= .44. The Cronbach's alpha for the scale was Cronbach's α= .73.

5.2.5 Romantic Scale Belief

The Romantic Scale Belief was the second to last part of the questionnaire. The scale was developed by Sprechter and Metts, (1989) and it is a 15- item

questionnaire, which focuses on peoples' perspectives with regards to romantic tropes. These romantic tropes are love at first sight, the one and only (romantic partner), and love finds a way. The participants had to rate the statements with a 7-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). The total score of this scale represents the participants romantic orientation that covers all the different aspects of the romantic ideology. Some of the statements of this scale were "If I love someone, I know I can make the relationship work, despite the obstacles." and "When I find my "true love" I will probably know it soon after we meet.". The Cronbach's alpha for the scale was Cronbach's α= .798.

5.2.6 Hostility Towards Women

The Hostility Towards Women scale was the last part of the questionnaire and it is a 10-item scale originally developed by Check, Malamuth, Elias, and Barton, (1985) and revised by Lonsway and Fitzgerald, (1995). For this study, the revised version of the scale was used. The participants were asked to rate the statements using a 7-point Likert scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree). Some of the statements in the scale were "I feel that many times women flirt with men just to tease them or hurt them." and "When it really comes down to it, a lot of women are deceitful.". There was also one statement that was worded differently depending on the gender of the participant responding to the questionnaire. The question was "(Males) Generally, it is safer not to trust women.", or "(Females) It is generally safer not to trust women too much.". The statements used in this questionnaire focuses on hostile attitudes towards women. Furthermore, if participants had high scores for the scale, they would show increased hostility towards women. The Cronbach's alpha for the scale was Cronbach's α= .72.

5.3Procedure

5.3.1 Questionnaire Distribution

To collect the data for this study, it was decided to distribute the questionnaire online using a well-known website Qualtrics. The questionnaire was advertised and posted on social media websites. The participants were also asked to send the questionnaire link to their family and friends when they had completed it, so more

people would see and complete it. To collect the data in Greece some questionnaires were also printed and distributed to people. The reason for this was because not many people were familiar in Greece with completing questionnaires online and to include people who might not have access to the questionnaire through social media sites.

5.3.2 Greek Translation

As the questionnaires that were used in the study have not been previously translated in Greek, it was decided early in the research that they would be translated by the researcher and the supervisor. The questionnaire was also translated back to English by another researcher to ensure that the translations were accurate and that the statements would remain the same when they were translated again. The reason for the questionnaire being translated was to ensure that Greek people would feel comfortable to complete the questionnaire. Despite English being taught in schools in Greece from an early age, some people do not feel comfortable using the English language in their everyday life and older generations are not as familiar with English as are the younger generations. To overcome the problem of people dropping out of the study because they did not understand the questions that were used in the questionnaires for this study they were all translated from English to Greek. Stalking does not have an official translation in Greek, so to ensure that all the participants would understand what stalking is, it was translated in Greek as accurately as possible to explain the nature of the crime.

5.3.3 Pilot Study

A small pilot study was carried out with a small sample (N=6), three of the participants were between the ages of 24 and 39 and the other three participants were between the ages of 59 and 67. The participants of the pilot study were chosen specifically to see if younger and older participants understood the questions and how long the questionnaire would take to be completed. Furthermore, half of the participants completed the questionnaire in English and the other half completed the questionnaire in Greek. The time it took the participants to complete the questionnaire varied depending on if they had been stalked in the past or not, the mean time to complete the questionnaire was 30 minutes. The participants were asked to report back to the research any problems that they found in the questionnaire, if they did not understand a part of the study, and overall if they had any suggestions. The suggestions the

participants made about the pilot study were taken into consideration, and the necessary changes were made before the questionnaire was distributed.

5.4Ethical Considerations

The study was ethically approved by the School Research Ethics Panel (SREP) from the School of Human and Health Science of the University of Huddersfield. Stalking may not be criminalised in Greece, but every precaution was taken to ensure the participants well-being while they were answering the questionnaire, as any of the participants could potentially have been a victim of stalking. The participants for both countries were informed in the Information sheet about the topic and the purpose for this research. They were reminded both in the Information sheet and the Consent form that their participation in this study was voluntary and at any point they could withdraw from the study. The participants identities were protected from the beginning of the study as they filled the questionnaire anonymously. The Debriefing form was tailored for each country offering to the participants helplines that were the most helpful for psychological support in each country. All the forms (information sheet, consent for and debriefing form) that were used for this study can be found in Appendix II.

5.5Cross- Cultural Research

Psychology has had many definitions over the years but one similarity they all have is the phrase, "the scientific study of human behavior." (Henley, et al, 1989). The main implication this phrase has is that to understand human behaviour it must be investigated and not to focus solely on the aspects of human behaviour that are readily available to the researchers (Triandis, & Brislin, 1984). To achieve this a new form of research was developed and it involved using samples from different countries which were named cross- cultural studies (Berry, et al., 2002). Stamatel (2009) described cross- national and cross-cultural research as studies that use participant samples from different countries, societies, and cultures as a way to investigate people's behaviour and to test different hypotheses on said behaviours.

Carrying out cross-cultural research has a unique advantage in comparison to a study done in a single country, this is the ability to generalize the results (Cruz &

Ngo, 2021). Furthermore, researching and comparing two different countries and societies it allows to investigate, understand, and explain the potential impact that cultural social factors have in a society. Annamoradnejad et al., (2019) stated that cross- cultural studies that compare data from different samples can help advance and expand academics and researchers understanding and knowledge of human behaviour. Moving from ideas on human behaviour that are restrict due to the confounds of the country in which the research was conducted to a more universal understand.

Over the years cross cultural research has evolved significantly and has transitioned from documenting people's cultural differences to investigating and identifying the different dimensions of the variety of culture, in a way that is meaningful (Matsumoto & Yoo, 2006). The results of this type of research are then used to create new models for theoretical frameworks and to update current frameworks (Geisinger, & McCormick, 2013). In addition, this type of research is used to explain and document the differences between cultures (Triandis, 1999). Psychological research that is cross-cultural offers a unique opportunity not only to enhance the field as a whole but to expand the work that is being carried out on an empirical and a theoretical aspect (Keller & Greenfield, 2000).

The main goals for cross-cultural methodology do not differ from the goal that other studies have which is to create a good study and for the result to be valid, reliable, to represent the experimental task that were carried out in the study and to be able to generalize these results outside of the study's confounds (Buil, de Chernatony, & Martínez, 2012). Similarly, this study has the same goals as mentioned above, to be able to provide a clear understanding of stalking victimization and perpetration. In addition, to investigate if there are similarities or differences in the results of the two samples used (Greek sample and UK sample).

As was stated previously cultural diversity has an association with the various patterns of social behaviour (Moghaddam, 1998). People depending on their gender, nationality, age, and their socioeconomic status are taught by their environment to behave appropriately in ways that correspond to the community that they belong in (Argyle, 1994). Sheridan, Gillet, and Davies (2002) in their work stated that culture could potentially play a significant role in criminal behaviour and in a crime as

stalking where certain behaviours are linked to this crime such as following, calling, messaging, and monitoring someone's behaviour. It is important to see if a country with anti-stalking legislation (UK) and one without this legislation (Greece), if the participants from each country will view stalking behaviours and stalking as a crime and if culture will impact their endorsement of Stalking Myths. Overall, potential differences and similarities in how stalking is perceived in each of the two countries (Greece and the UK) is the foundation of the current study.

5.6Data Analysis

5.6.1 MANOVA

To analyse the data a MANOVA was selected and carried out to protect against a Type I error rate in the ANOVAs that followed and the post-hoc tests of comparison (Cramer & Bock, 1966). Before the MANOVA was performed, a Pearson correlation was carried out for the dependent variables (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, SMA Nuisance and SMA Total) to test the assumption for the MANOVA that all the dependent variables must be correlated with one another in a moderate range (Meyers, Gampst, & Guarino, 2006). In the Table 5.4 that follows it is evident that the depended variables are correlated with one another in a meaningful way. This suggests that the MANOVA is an appropriate test to conduct.

Table 5.4 Correlations of the SMA subscales

	SMA Victim Blame	SMA Flattery	SMA Minimizing Stalking	SMA Nuisance	SMA Total
SMA Victim Blame		.705**	.702**	.622**	.869**
SMA Flattery	.705**		.744**	.647**	.870**
SMA Minimizing Stalking	.702**	.744**		.871**	.884**
SMA Nuisance	.622**	.647**	.871**		.803**
SMA Total	.869**	.870**	.884**	.803**	

**Correlation significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Three new variables were created from the existing variables of Education Level, and Age group for the MANOVA tests. The Educations Level was a variable where the levels were minimized and certain groups were merged (see Table 5.5), whilst levels were created for the Age variable. Originally the Age variable did not have levels, but they were created for the analysis (see Table 5.6). All the above alterations of the variables can be seen in the Tables that follow.

Table 5.5 New Variables and Prior Levels for Education Level

New Variable	School	University studies	Post-Graduate Studies
Old Levels	Primary	University	Master's degree
	High School	TEI	PhD
	Six Form	IEK	Post-Doctoral Studies
	College		
	Lykeio		

Table 5.6 New Age groups for the Age Variable

Age Group
16-25
26-35
36-45
46-55
56+

A one-way MANOVA was conducted for each of the independent variables (Gender, Education Level, and Age). In addition, Levene's tests were conducted to examine the assumption of equal variance. Finally, the Tukey HSD post-hoc test was chosen to examine the statistically significant results further.

5.6.2 Regression Analysis

For the next part of the analysis, the data was analysed using a multiple regression analysis. The reason for this type of analysis being chosen can be found in Tabachnick, Fidell, & Ullman, (2013). According to Tabachnick et al., (2013) the regression techniques offer a

unique flexibility to the researcher, who is interested in real world problems or problems that are very complicated and which cannot be understood or replicated in a laboratory setting. The multiple regression analysis was chosen to examine if participants that scored higher in the GRS, RSB and HTW scales could be predicted to have high scores on any of the SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) and SMA Total. For the analysis, the Independent Variables were GRS, RSB and HTW whilst the Dependent variable Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) and SMA Total, which will be altered on each analysis that will be carried out.

5.6.3 Smallest Space Analysis

The next part of the analysis will use an SSA-I (Lingoes, 1973) to examine the data. SSA or Smallest Space Analysis is described as a non-metric multidimensional scaling procedure, that permits the researcher to test the hypotheses that concerns the co-occurrence of every variable with every other variable. More specifically, the null hypothesis suggests that there will not be any interpretable relationship between the variables with each other. To examine these relationships between the variables a geometric (visual) representation is created. The SSA analysis program calculates the association coefficients between all the variables and these coefficients are then used to create a spatial representation with points that are representing the variables. For this study Jaccard coefficient would be utilized to measure the association, which is a standard for this type of dataset since Canter and Heritage (1990) used it for their study. The advantage it has is the calculation of co-occurrence specifically in events that have been recorded.

Smallest space analysis was created by researchers as a way to understand how a large pattern of behaviours/ variables fit together, which is not always possible with what is considered as traditional multivariate techniques (Canter, 1985; Shye et al., 1994). These traditional techniques allow the researcher to examine certain parts of a theoretical domain whilst the SSA analysis allows the investigation of the theoretical pattern that is underlying the correlations (Shye et al., 1994). This method of analysing data has the unique opportunity for the researcher not only to hypothesis a theory but also after the analysis has been conducted to make ramifications and modification to that initial hypothesis depending on the results (Borg & Shye, 1995; Guttman & Levi, 1991).

The stalking behaviours that co- occurred more often during the stalking incidents will be represented as points that are found closer together in the SSA plot. This pattern of points can be examined, and thematic structures can be outlined. As the points (behaviours) that have themes that are underlining similar will be hypothesised to co-occur in the same regions of the plot. If any behaviour was absent in the data it would not be used in the calculation, for example if any of the behaviours were not experienced by any of the participants, they were not included in the SSA analysis. In this study, for the perpetration analysis for both the Greek and the UK samples the participants stated that they had not conducted certain behaviours towards others and these behaviours were excluded. The behaviours that were excluded in the SSA perpetration analysis for the Greek Sample were threating to hurt others that the individual cares about, leaving or sending someone threatening objects, showing up at places in threating ways, kidnapping, or physically constraining someone and physically endangering someone's life.

For the UK sample the behaviours that were excluded in the SSA perpetration analysis were threating to hurt others that the individual cares about, leaving or sending someone threatening objects, showing up at places in threating ways, kidnapping, or physically constraining someone and physically endangering someone's life. In the SSA plot the coefficient of alienation (Borg & Lingoes, 1987) illustrates if the spatial representation will fit well with the co-occurrences that can be seen in the matrix. If the coefficient of alienation is small, then the fit is better. Borg & Lingoes, (1987) stated that answer to the question if the fit is "good" or "bad" is a complex one and it depends on a combination of things. More specifically, how many variables there are, what is the number of errors in the data and if the interpretation of the framework has logical strength.

To examine the SSA map that is created the researcher will create partitions on the map using the "best line" in each case to separate them into different regions. These regions will create themes for the subject that is being investigated. One important factor is for these boundaries or partitions to be continuous and not interact with other boundaries or partitions of the new themes that are created. It is not a strict requirement to have straight lines when drawing the partitions, but irregular lines can be criticised for their accuracy as they might be created to "fit" what a researcher hypothesized instead of what the true outcome of the SSA output was (Borg & Groenen, 2005). Another important factor is for there to be structural congruity in the SSA map (Borg & Groenen, 2005; Brown, 1985). The regions are not just a cluster of variables, there might be some correlation with variables of another region especially

those found near the borders of another region (Schwartz & Bilsky, 1987). In this study when the lines were draw and the themes were created the validity of each theme was examined to ensure that the lines were draw appropriately. As can be seen in Chapter 9 all the themes that were created had a Cronbach's alpha with scores that ranged between .69 to .88. This is within the ranged that are recommended and considered an acceptable minimum for scale that is new and has just been created (Nunnaly & Bernstein, 1994).

5.6.4 ANOVA

In the SSA analysis some new themes were discovered and created from the Victimization and Perpetration plots for both the Greek and the UK sample. The new themes that were created from the Victimization plots were Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality and from the Perpetration plots the themes were Aggression and Sexuality. To examine if they were any differences between educational levels and each of the Victimization themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) a one-way ANOVA was carried out. Another one-way ANOVA was conducted to investigate if they were any differences for the Age groups and each of the Victimization (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality). A one-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the relationship between the educational levels and the Perpetration themes (Aggression and Sexuality). Another one-way ANOVA was carried out to investigate the relationship between the Age Groups for the Perpetration themes (Aggression and Sexuality). For all the ANOVA test, a Levene's test was carried out to examined if equal variances would be assumed and Tukey HSD post hoc comparisons was chosen to examine any significant results. If any of the Levene's test was not significant a Welch's F test was reported. The ANOVA was chosen for this analysis as the ANOVA is a robust test when the data was abnormally distributed (Blanca, Alarcó, Arnau, Bono, & Bendayan, 2017).

5.6.5 T-tests

The final analysis that was conducted was a t-test analysis to assess if there were two sets of data could be statistically different from one another (Gavin, 2008). The themes that were identified in both Victimization and Perpetration plots were examined. For the Victimization themes for both samples (Greek and UK), a t-test was conducted to investigate the relationship between Gender, if they had ever experienced stalking or not and if they asked for help during the time they were stalked or not and the three themes Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality. For the Perpetration themes for both samples (Greek and UK), a t-test was

conducted to investigate the relationship between Gender, if the participants had stalked someone else or not and if anyone had contacted them with regards to their behaviour or not and the two themes Aggression and Sexuality.

RESULTS SECTION

Chapter 6:

Stalking Victimization and Perpetration

(Greek and UK sample)

6.1Victimization and Perpetration Introduction

In this chapter a descriptive analysis was undertaken to examine the victimization rates, perpetration rates and stalking acknowledgement in Greece and the UK and compare the results between the two countries. Descriptive statistics offers the opportunity for the researcher to understand the sample as it offers a summary of the data and specifically for this study to examine the participants answers to all the questions that they were asked about their stalking experiences. Furthermore, the analysis in this chapter will be used as a basis for some of the analyses that will be conducted in the later chapters. It will also provide important information of how many participants experienced stalking and they themselves stalked another individual, the gender of the individual that stalked them, or for example which of stalking behaviours from the list they were provided with was experienced more frequently by them.

6.2Stalking Victimization

6.2.1 Victimization in Greece

One of the first objectives of this research was to explore the stalking victimization rates in Greece. The first part of the questionnaire focused on the participants experience with stalking and if they had experienced any behaviours that are associated with stalking. The first question Greek participants were asked was if they have ever heard about stalking before, 468 participants said Yes (88.5%) and 61 participants said No (11.5%). The answer to this question was interesting, as Stalking does not have an official translation in Greek, and it is not recognised as a crime by the Greek legislation system. It is evident that people can be aware of criminal behaviour/crime even though there has been any official awareness campaign acknowledging stalking as a crime in the country. The participants were further asked if they had ever received any unwanted attention in their lives 189 participants (36.1%) responded that Yes they had experienced this, and 335 (63.9%) participants responded that they had never

experienced unwanted attention. From the 189 participants that had experience stalking, 144 (27.48 %) participants were women, and 45 (8.59%) participants were men.

Previous literature has stated that people are hesitant to label their experience as stalking or acknowledge that they have been a victim of this crime (Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Grangeia & Matos, 2018; Jordan, et al., 2007; Phillips et al., 2004; Sheridan et al., 2000, 2001, 2002; Sheridan & Scott, 2010; Scott et al., 2010; Taylor-Dunn, Bowen, & Gilchrist, 2018; Tjaden, et al., 2000). To examine this finding further, an additional analysis was carried out for the 335 participants that responded that they had not experienced unwanted attention. To investigate if their response was accurate the current legislation in England and Wales was used. More specifically the following part of the legislation was used, "The elements of the section 4A offence are a course of conduct; which amounts to stalking; and which causes another to fear, on at least two occasions, that violence will be used against him or her; or causes another serious alarm or distress which has a substantial adverse effect on his or her usual day-to-day activities." Section 4A(1)(b)(ii) Offence - Stalking involving fear of violence or serious alarm or distress. Furthermore, different academic stalking definitions that have been defined over the years also define stalking behaviour as two or more unwanted behaviours/ occasions/ episodes that happen to an individual by another individual to create fear (Emerson et al., 1998; Meloy, et al., 2011; Mullen, et al., 2000; Logan, 2010; National Center for Victims of Crime, 2007; Ngo, 2014; Petch, 2002; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2014; Tjaden, 2009; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; 2000).

The one component of this legislation and the academic definitions that will not be examined when examining participants that may have experienced stalking is fear. As fear is subjective and each individual experience it differently, and differences exist on how men and women also experience fear. The focus in this case will be on the stalking behaviours solely and not the emotional response they have on the victims. Because fear is subjective and can differ from one individual to another, and previous research have found evidence that women report being more fearful than men regarding being a victim or a crime or stalking (Dietz & Martin, 2007; Dovelius et al., 2006; Duntley & Buss, 2012; Fisher, 1995; Fox, et al., 2011; Jennings et al., 2007; Jordan et al., 1999; Kuehner, et al., 2012; Núñez, et al., 2008; Schafer et al. 2006; Scott, 2003; Sheridan & Lyndon, 2012**;** Smith & Torstensson, 1997; Straus & Gelles, 1992; Tjaden, 2009; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000; Warr, 2000; Winkleman & Winstead, 2011). Baum et al. (2009) removed the need for the individual to be fearful in their definition of stalking. As Jordan et al., (2007) found in their research that participants that express fear and

that had experienced stalking there was a higher probability to identify themselves as victims of stalking; in comparison to participants that had experienced stalking but were not fearful during the stalking incident. By focusing on the stalking behaviours, and removing the fear component, it could reveal that more people fit the criteria of being a stalking victim but because of the fear component they could be hesitant to acknowledge that status. Furthermore, as Greece does not recognize stalking as a crime, some of the participants could be hesitant to label themselves victims of a crime that does not legally exist.

To conduct this examination the 335 participants that stated that they had not experience stalking, their responses on the which of the following behaviours (stalking related) have you experienced part of the questionnaire was investigated. Any participant that had experienced two or more stalking related behaviours was considered under both the legal definition and the academic definitions as a victim of stalking. This analysis of the data revealed that that from the 335 participants, 169 participants (50.45%) met the stalking criteria that was set of the two or more behaviours that are associated with stalking. By combining both self-identified victims of stalking and the participants that met the criteria for being a stalking victim it was identified that in total from the 529 Greek participants that completed the questionnaire 358 participants (67.67%) had experienced stalking. One key information that needs to be noted for the next part of the analysis is that the participants were advised that if they had not experienced stalking to proceed to the next part of the questionnaire (perpetration part of the questionnaire).

Some of the participants did respond to the victimization questions even though they stated that they had not been stalked, which aligns with the previous findings that some participants did not disclose that they had experienced stalking. Several questions were asked to the participants on their personal experience with stalking, the first was if this behaviour was still ongoing, 24 (11%) participants stated that it was, and 195 (89%) participants stated that it had stopped. The previous relationship between the stalker and the participant varied but it most cases it was either a Partner (N=62, 27.7%), a Friend (N=27, 12.1%), an Acquaintance (N=46, 20.5%), Someone they went out on a few dates (with sexual contact) (N=23, 10.3%), Someone they went out on a few dates (without sexual contact) (N=19, 8.5%), One night stand (N=4, 1.8%), Relative (N=2, 0.9%), Wife/Husband (now separated) (N=2, 0.9) and Other (N=39, 17.4%) (see table 6.1). The option Other stands for any other type of relationship that was not included in the questionnaire options the participant had to choose from.

Table 6.1 Other types of relationships between victim and perpetrator (Greek sample)

Type of Relationship	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Stranger Unknown	17	3.4%
Fellow Student	5	1%
Customer	2	0.4%
Liked/Wanted a relationship	2	0.4%

The participants knew their pursuer either Very Well (39.3%), Casually (44.4%), or they Recognised them by sight (16.4%). The way the participants met their stalker also varied 27 participants had met them at Work (12.3%), Through a Friend (*N*=52, 23.5%), Socializing (*N*= 53, 22.7%), On-line dating (*N*=25, 11.4%), Dating app (*N*=4, 2.7%) and Other (*N*=57, 27.6) (see table 6.2). The option Other stands for any other way the participant met their perpetrator that was not included in the questionnaire options the participant had to choose from.

Table 6.2 Other ways the Greek participants met their stalker

How they met	***N***	***(% of sample)***
School/University	21	5.1%
Social Media	10	2%
Street	9	1.8%
Group Activity	5	1%
Unknown	2	0.4%
Neighbour	2	0.4%

The participants were asked if they felt afraid for their personal safety, 82 participants said Yes (35%) and No 152 (65%) participants. Furthermore, if they were afraid for their safety of their property 55 (23.6%) participants said Yes and No 178 (76.4%) participants. In addition, the participants were asked if they were ever afraid for the safety of another person example given a friend or a family member, 61 (26.2%) participants said Yes and No 172 (73.8%) participants. Most of the pursuers were male (*N*=154, 69.7%) but there were also female pursuers (*N*= 67, 30.3%). The pursuers age ranged from 11-63 years old (*M=27.52, SD= 9.63*) and the participants age ranged from 10-57 years old (*M=22.65, SD= 7.95*) during the time

that they were stalked. The participants were further questioned if they had asked for help from anyone during the period when the stalking occurred, 68 participants said Yes (32.1%) and 144 participants said No (67.9%). More specifically, the individuals they had asked for help from where either their Friend (*N*=30, 41.1%), their Family (*N*=31, 42.5%), the Police (*N*=4, 5.5%), a Charity (*N*=1, 1.4%) and Other (*N*=7, 9.6%) (see table 6.3). The option Other stands for any other individual or place the participants asked for help, that was not included in the questionnaire options the participant had to choose from.

Table 6.3 Other individuals or places were the Greek participants asked for help

Where they asked help from	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Therapist/Counsellor	2	0.4%
Public Prosecution Office	1	0.2%
Teacher	1	0.2%
Shop Assistant	1	0.2%

6.2.2 Victimization in the UK

To examine the victimizations rates for stalking for the United Kingdom, the UK participants were asked the same questions as the Greek participants about their experiences with stalking. More specifically, 537 participants had heard of stalking (99.6%) and only 2 (0.4%) had not heard of this crime. The participants were asked if they had ever received persistent and unwanted attention, 228 participants (42.3%) had experienced stalking and 311 participants had not (57.7%). From the 228 participants that had experienced stalking, 183 (33.95%) were women and 45 participants (8.35%) were men. The results of stalking experience revealed that when it comes to gender there is a similarity between the two samples with more women than men being the victims in both countries. Furthermore, most of the participants in both countries were aware of stalking and what this crime was.

A similar examination was undertaken for the UK sample as was done for the Greek sample for the participant that had responded they had not been stalked. Using the current stalking legislation for England and Wales and the academic definition of stalking that state two or more behaviours that are experienced by an individual are consider stalking (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2014; Tjaden, 2009; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; 2000). Once again, the notion of fear that is needed in both the legal and some academic definitions was removed. From the 311

UK participants that stated they had not experience stalking were further examined if they fit the criteria that was set, 190 participants (61.09%) met those criteria. The combination of both groups who acknowledge that they have been stalked and the group that met the criteria revealed that 418 participants (77.55%) had experienced stalking. Moreover, similar to the Greek sample's results when the criteria were applied the number of participants that had experienced stalking increased for the UK sample.

Another similarity between the two sample was that some participants that had stated they were never stalked also answered the questions regarding their stalking experience. The first question for the participants was if the attention was still ongoing, for 15 (5.3%) participants it was whilst for 266 (94.7%) participants the attention had stopped. The previous relationship between the participants and their pursuers varied Partner (*N*=77, 29.9%), Acquaintance (*N*=44, 17.3%), Friend (*N*=31, 12.2%), Someone you went on a few dates with (with sexual contact) (*N*=28, 11%), Someone you went on a few dates with (without sexual contact) (*N*=20, 7.9%), One night stand (*N*=5, 2%), Wife/Husband (now separated) (*N*=5, 2%), Wife/Husband (now divorced) (*N*=5, 2%), Relative (*N*=2, 0.8%) and Other (*N*=36, 14.8%) (see Table 6.4). The option Other stands for any other type of relationship that was not included in the questionnaire options, the participants had to choose from. In the Other option on who was the pursuer three responses were removed as it was a mistake the participants made and 12 participants from the 36 did not respond who this individual was. Similar to the Greek results the UK participants knew who their stalker was and they had some type of prior relationship before the stalking incident ex-partner, acquaintance, or friend.

Table 6.4 Other types of relationships between victim and perpetrator (UK sample)

Behaviours	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Work Colleague	7	1.3%
Stranger	5	1%
Online	3	0.6%
Customer/Patient	2	0.4%
Neighbour	1	0.2%
Sports Coach	1	0.2%
Post-man	1	0.2%
Someone in a night club	1	0.2%
Someone who had a crush on the participant	1	0.2%

Most of the participants knew their pursuer either Very Well (*N*=113, 45.4%) or Casually (*N*=103, 41.4%), and only 33 participants (13.3%) Recognised them by sight. The participants met their pursuer at work (*N*= 45, 18%), Through a friend (*N*=53, 21.2%), Socialising (*N*=75, 30%), On-line dating (*N*=11, 4.4%), Dating app (*N*=10, 4%) and Other (*N*=56, 22.4%) (see Table 6.5). The option Other stands for any other ways the participants met their stalker, that was not included in the questionnaire options, that the participant had to choose from. Once again the results of the two samples are similar, then participants knew their stalker either very well or casually and it was a rarity not to know them at all.

Table 6.5 Other ways the UK participants met their stalker

Behaviours	***N***	***(% of sample)***
School	19	3.7%
Online	6	1.2%
University	6	1.2%
Sports/Gym	4	0.8%
Street	4	0.8%
Family Friend/ Member of ex	3	0.6%
Night out/bar/club	3	0.6%
Don’t know	2	0.4%
Hospital/Rehab	2	0.4%
Family/Parent	2	0.4%
Home/Someone local	2	0.4%
Youth Group Manager	1	0.2%
Training program	1	0.2%
Husband’s ex-partner	1	0.2%

The participants were asked if they were afraid for their personal safety, 114 participants said Yes (37.7%) and 188 participants said No (62.3%). The next question was if they were afraid for the safety of their property, 82 participants said Yes (27.8%) and 213 participants said No (72.2%). The final question of the three questions on fear was if they were ever afraid for the safety of another person, i.e. or family member, 71 (23.8%) participants said Yes and 227 (76.2%) participants said No. Once again the results on fear were similar between

the two samples, the UK sample had slightly higher answers for the fear questions as more UK participants had experienced stalking in comparison to the Greek sample.

In most of the stalking incidents for the UK sample the pursuer was male. More specifically, Male (*N*=200, 73.3%) and Female 73 (*N*=26.7%). The age range of the pursuer was 14 to 57 years old (*M*=27.10 *SD*=9.54) and the age range of the participant who was pursued was 12 to 50 years old (*M*=23.71 *SD*= 8.1). The participants were asked if they had asked for help from someone to stop this unwanted attention, 116 participants said Yes (43%) and 154 participants aid No (57%). In the results for both samples the pursuer in most cases was male, when it came to the pursuer's age the Greek pursuers mean age was slightly higher in comparison to the UK sample's pursuers. The victim's age was slightly younger for the Greek sample in comparison to the UK sample. Moreover, in both samples the stalking had come to an end most cases.

Furthermore, the participants were asked from where they asked for help, a Friend 33 (28.2%) participants, Family 16 (13.7%) participants, Police 39 (33.3%) participants, Charity 1 (0.9%) participant, Online Forum 2 (0.4%) participants, and Other 35 (29.9%) participants. The option Other stands for any other individual or place the participants asked for help, that was not included in the questionnaire options the participant had to choose from (see Table 6.6). In both samples the participants asked their friends and family to help them with the stalking situation but the main difference that was identified was that more UK participants asked for help from the police in comparison to the Greek participants.

Table 6.6 Other individuals or places were the UK participants asked for help

Behaviours	***N***	***(% of the sample)***
Work/Colleague/Management	13	2.6%
Family	9	1.7%
Partner/Fiancé /Husband	4	0.8%
Teacher/ Lecturer	3	0.6%
Solicitor	1	0.2%
University/Police	1	0.2%
All the above options	1	0.2%
Support Line	1	0.2%
Person's mental health team	1	0.2%

6.2.3 Stalking Behaviours Greek Sample (Victimization)

The participants were provided with a list of 33 behaviours that are associated with stalking so they could self-report which of these behaviours they had experienced more frequently. The Greek sample had experienced all 33 behaviours in various frequencies that will be shown further down. The behaviours were separated into two tables Most frequently experienced (Table 6.7) and the Least frequently experienced (Table 6.8). Any behaviour that was experienced by fewer than 80 participants was included in the Least Frequent Behaviours table.

Table 6.7 Most frequent Stalking Behaviours Experience by the Greek sample

Behaviour	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Being left Unwanted messages	218	41.2%
Making Exaggerated Expression of affection	191	36.1%
Unwanted phone calls silent	183	34.6%
Unwanted phone calls with conversation	173	32.7%
Being Followed	162	30.6%
Monitoring your behaviour	144	27.2%
Covertly obtaining private information about you	113	21.4%
Being Watched from out of Sight	113	21.4%
Approaching or surprising you in public	108	20.4%
Obtaining personal information through surveillance	95	18%
Intruding upon your friends, family, and co-workers	94	17.8%
Intruding uninvited into interaction	91	17.2%
Making Obscene calls	89	16.8
Engaging in regulatory harassment	82	15.5%

None of the 14 behaviours in the Most Frequent Behaviours table are considered a crime in the Greek legislation (Modena Group on Stalking, 2007). Furthermore, these behaviours are not violent, and are the first behaviours encountered by an individual during the beginning of stalking incident.

Table 6.8 Least Frequent Stalking Behaviours Experience by the Greek sample

Behaviour	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Threatening to hurt themself	73	13.8%
Involving (victim) in unwanted ways	69	13%
Invading personal space	66	12.5%
Leaving threating messages	54	10.2%
Being left Unwanted gift	52	9.8%
Physically threatening you	49	9.3%
Treating to hurt you	49	9.3%
Stealing/Damaging personal property	35	6.6%
Physically hurting you	34	6.4%
Invading your personal property	34	6.4%
Invading into someone's (friend, family etc) property	32	6%
Intercepting mail/deliveries	29	5.5%
Physically restraining you	26	4.9%
Threatening to hurt others you care about	24	4.5%
Sexually coercing you	22	4.2%
Showing up at places in threating ways	20	3.8%
Physically endangering your life	11	2.1%
Leaving or sending you threatening objects	5	0.9%
Kidnapping or physically constraining you	5	0.9%

In the list of the Least Frequent behaviours experienced by the Greek sample the most dangerous and violent behaviours associated with stalking can be found and they can also be prosecuted independently from stalking. Some of these 19 behaviours (invading property, stealing damaging, physically hurting someone etc) can be prosecuted by the Greek legislation system (Modena Group on Stalking, 2007). As the behaviours become more dangerous towards the victim the less frequently it was experienced by the participants.

6.2.4 Stalking Behaviours UK sample (Victimization)

The UK sample was also provided with the same 33 behaviours that are associated with stalking. The frequencies for these behaviours can we found in the two tables that follow.

The behaviours were separated again into two tables Most frequently experienced (Table 6.9) and the Least frequently experienced (Table 6.10). Any behaviour that was experienced by fewer than 80 participants was included in the Least Frequent Behaviours table, as was done in the previous section for the Greek participants.

Table 6.9 Most frequent Stalking Behaviours Experience by the UK sample

Behaviour	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Invading your personal space	271	50.3%
Being left unwanted messages or letters	252	46.8%
Being Followed	221	41%
Making exaggerated expressions of affection	210	39%
Threating to hurt themself	166	30.8%
Watched by someone from out of sight	158	29.3%
Making unwanted phone calls (with conversation)	155	28.8%
Intruding uninvited into your interactions	150	27.8%
Approaching or surprising you in public places	147	27.3%
Intruding upon your friends, family, or co-workers	140	26%
Monitoring your behaviour	132	24.5%
Threatening to hurt you	131	24.3%
Making unwanted phone calls to you (silent)	130	24.1%
Stealing or damaging your personal property	127	23.6%
Physically threating you	115	21.3%
Making obscene phone calls to you	103	19.1%
Invading your personal property	103	19.1%
Leaving you threating messages	103	19.1%
Physically hurting you	94	17.4%
Being left unwanted gifts	91	16.9%
Engaging in regulatory harassment	84	15.6%
Physically threatening you	83	15.4%

In the UK sample there is a different distribution of the most frequent stalking behaviours encountered by the participants in comparison to their Greek sample. More UK participants experienced stalking behaviours in comparison to the Greek sample. Furthermore,

more criminal behaviours were found in this list in comparison to the same list of behaviours for the Greek participants, where no criminal behaviours were found.

Table 6.10 Least Frequent Stalking Behaviours Experience by the UK sample

Behaviour	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Covertly obtaining private information about you	78	14.5%
Physically restraining you	71	13.2%
Obtaining personal information about you through surveillance	67	12.4%
Involving you in activities in unwanted ways	66	12.2%
Threating to hurt others that you care about	65	12.1%
Showing up at the places in threatening ways	60	11.1%
Invading into someone's (friend, family etc) property	46	8.5%
Physically endangering your life	31	5.8%
Kidnapping or physically constraining you	20	3.7%
Intercepting your mail or deliveries	18	3.3%
Leaving or sending you threatening objects	12	2.2%

Like in the Least Frequent Stalking behaviours table for the Greek participants, dangerous and violent behaviours were identified for the UK participants in this table. These behaviours can also be prosecuted independently from stalking according to the legislation in England and Wales (Modena Group on Stalking, 2007). A difference that was identified between the two samples was that in the Greek least frequent stalking behaviours more behaviours were found in comparison the UK list. Another difference was that more UK participants experienced the least frequent stalking behaviours in comparison to the Greek participants.

6.3Perpetration

6.3.1 Perpetration in Greece

Perpetration was the next item that was investigated to examine how many people have stalked others in Greece. The second part of the questionnaire focused on perpetration, asking the participants, if they had ever stalked anyone and what behaviours they had carried out towards these individuals. The first question that was asked was if they had ever persistently

pursued someone, 55 participants (10.4%) answered that they had persistently pursued someone, and 474 participants (89.6%) stated that they had not persistently pursued someone. From the 55 participants that stated that they had pursued another individual 38 (69.1%) participants were women and 17 (30.9%) participants were men. The Greek sample was further tested to examine if participants did not acknowledge that they had stalked another individual, using the stalking legislation for England and Wales and the academic definition of stalking (2 or more stalking behaviours) (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2014; Tjaden, 2009; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; 2000). From the 474 Greek participants that stated that they had not pursued anyone, 145 participants (27.41%) met those criteria. Combining both categories self-report and examining the dataset it was revealed that 200 participants (37.41%) had stalked another individual.

The people the Greek participants pursued were Partners 25 participants (43.1%), Friend 6 participants (10.3%), Acquaintance 10 (17.2%), One-night stand 1 participant (1.7%), Someone you went on a few dates with (with sexual contact) 6 participants (10.3%), Someone you went on a few dates with (without sexual contact) 4 participants (6.9%), Wife/Husband (now divorced) 1 participant (1.7%), and Other 5 participants (8.6%) (see table 6.11). The option Other stands for other types of relationship between the participants and the individual they pursued. Two participants that selected the Other option did not clarify further what was their relationship with the individual they pursued.

Table 6.11 Other types of relationships between participants and the individual they pursued

Type of Relationship	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Classmate	2	0.4%
Co-worker	1	0.2%

The participants were also asked how well they knew the individual they pursued, Very Well 36 participants (62.1%), Casually 20 participants (34.5%), and recognise them by sight 2 (3.4%) participants. They met the individual they stalked in different ways, at work 10 (17.9%) participants, through a friend 14 (25%) participant, socialising 13 (23.2%) participants, On-line dating 4 (7.1%) participants and Other 15 (26.8%) participants (see Table 6.12). The option Other stands for any other ways the Greek participants met the individual they had stalked. Two participants despite chosen the option Other did not clarify further on how they met the person they pursued.

Table 6.12 Other ways the Greek participants met the individual they pursued

How did they meet	***N***	***(% of sample)***
School	10	1.9%
Social Media	2	0.2%
Friend	1	0.2%

The Greek sample was asked what the gender of the individual was they persistently pursued, 40 participants (70.2%) had pursued a Male and 17 participants (29.8%) had pursued a Female. The participants age during the time they pursued the individual ranged from 14 to 39 years old (*M*=21.65 *SD*=5.72) and the individuals age ranged from 14 to 50 years old (*M*=23.58 *SD*=7.52). The sample was also asked a series of questions if they believed the individual they pursued was ever fearful of their safety because of their actions 3 participants said Yes (5.4%) and 53 participants (94.6%) said that the individual was not afraid of their actions. If they thought the person was ever fearful for the safety of their personal property 2 participants (3.4%) said Yes and 56 participants (96.6%) said No.

The final question was if they thought the individual was ever fearful for the safety of another person for example a family member, 3 participants (5.2%) said Yes and No 55 participants (94.8%). The participants were asked if they were ever contacted by an agency or another person and asked to stop their behaviour, 2 participants said (3.3%) they were contacted by someone, and 58 participants (96.7%) said No. Even though only 2 participants stated that they were contacted by someone about their behaviour more participants responded to the question (see table 6.13).

Table 6.13 Who contacted the Greek participants regarding their behaviour

Who contacted them	***N***	***(% of the sample)***
Friend	2	40%
Family Member	1	20%
Police	1	20%
Other- No response	1	20%

6.3.2 Perpetration in the UK

The UK sample was also asked if they had stalked another individual. Forty-three participants (8%) stating that they had pursued another individual and 493 participants (92%) stating that they had not. From the 43 participants that stated that they had pursued another individual 27 (62.79%) participants were women and 16 (37.21%) participants were men. More Greek participants admitted to stalking another individual in comparison to the UK participants. In addition, in both samples more women than men stated that they had pursued someone else.

The participants that answered they had not persistently pursued another individual were further examined using the current legislation in England and Wales and some academic definition (2 or more behaviours) (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2014; Tjaden, 2007; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; 2000). For the UK sample, it was found that 107 participants (19.85%) met the criteria. The combination of the participants who self-reported that they had stalked someone and the participants that met the criteria for stalking another individual were 134 participants (24.86%). Once again when the criteria were added in both samples the number of participants that had pursued another individual went up.

The UK participants were asked what their previous relationship of the individual was they stalked, and it was, a Partner 18 participants (40.7%), a Friend 11 participants (26.2%), an Acquaintance 3 (7.1%) a One-night stand 1 participant (2.4%), a Relative 1 participant (2.4%), Someone they went on a date with (with sexual contact) 4 participants (9.5%), Wife/Husband (now separated) 1 participant (2.4%) and Other 3 participants (9.3%). For the three participants that responded Other no further clarifications were offered by the participants on who this individual was. The option Other stands for what was the previous relationship between the participant and the person they pursued. In both samples (Greece and UK) the participants pursued a former partner in most of the cases followed by friend and acquaintance, which illustrates the similarities in stalking in the two countries that are being examined.

The participants were also questioned on how well they knew the individual, Very Well 34 participants (69.3%), Casually 9 participants (18.4%) and recognised them by sight 6 participants (12.2%). Furthermore, the participants met the individual either through Work 7 participants (15.9%), Through a friend 12 participants (27.3%), Socialising 14 participants (31.8%), On-line dating 4 participants (9.1%), Dating app 1 participant (2.3%) and Other 6

participants (13.6%) (see Table 6.14). The option Other stands for how they met the person the participants pursued. Two participants did not offer any more clarification on how they met this individual. The participants of both samples (Greece and UK) knew their victim very well and they met the person they pursued through friends or socializing in most of the cases.

Table 6.14 Other ways the UK participants met the individual they pursued

How did they meet	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Dojo	1	0.2%
Niece	1	0.2%
Party	1	0.2%
Travelling abroad	1	0.2%

In most of the responses provided by the participants, the participants pursued more males than females. More specifically 31 participants (67.4%) pursued a male and 15 participants (32.6%) a female. At the time of the incident the participant age ranged from 16 to 36 (M=22.66, SD=4.71) and the individual's age they pursued ranged from 11 to 40 (M=23.88, SD=5.29). The similarities between the Greek and the UK sample continue in the aspect that of the gender of the person they pursued as both samples stalked more men than women. When it came to the age aspect in both samples, the perpetrators mean age and the victims mean age the Greek sample's mean age for both was slightly lower in comparison to their UK counterparts.

Regarding the questions around fear, in the first question if they believed the person was ever fearful of their safety because of your actions all the 53 participants (100%) that answered the question said No. Similarly, for the next two questions, if they thought the person was ever fearful for their safety of their personal property and if they thought the person was ever fearful for their safety of another person (i.e. family member) only 1 participant (1.9%) said Yes in both questions whilst 52 participants said No (98.1%) for both questions. The final question on preparation for the UK sample was if the participants were ever contacted by anyone for their behaviour, 1 participant said Yes (1.4%) and No 69 participants (98.6%), when they were asked by whom 3 participants answered, even though only one participant stated that they were contacted by someone.

One participant (33.3%) was contacted by a family member of the individual they pursued, and two participants stated Other (66.7%) but did not clarify this response when asked

to elaborate it further. The option Other stands for any other individuals or institutions that the participants were contacted by on behalf of the individual they pursued. In the fear questions more Greek participants stated that the person they pursued was fearful of their actions in comparison to the UK participants which either stated that the person was not fearful or only one individual was fearful.

6.3.3 Behaviours Greek Sample (Perpetration)

The participants were provided with the same list of 33 behaviours that are associated with stalking so they could self-report which of these behaviours they had carried out towards someone else. The behaviours were separated again into two different tables, the Most frequent (see table 6.15) and the Least frequent (see table 6.16) behaviours carried out by the Greek participants. The criteria that were set for the perpetration part, were different from the victimization part. In this section any behaviour that was experienced by fewer than 40 participants were included in the Least Frequent Behaviours table.

Table 6.15 Most frequent Stalking Behaviours Conducted by the Greek sample

Behaviour	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Monitoring someone's behaviour	119	22.5%
Following someone	111	21%
Watching someone out of sight	109	20.6%
Making exaggerated expressions of affection	75	14.2%
Obtaining personal information through surveillance	62	11.7%
Making unwanted phone calls to someone silent	53	10%
Covertly obtaining private information about someone	41	7.8%
Leaving unwanted messages or letters	40	7.6%
Making unwanted phone calls with conversation	40	7.6%

Like the victimization section for the stalking behaviours the Greek participants experienced, in the Perpetration section the behaviours the participants carried out the most were not violent or dangerous or considered a crime in the Greek legislation. They were only 9 behaviours in this table, and they were all behaviours that are considered fundamental to the behaviours that are experienced in the beginning stages of stalking.

Table 6.16 Least Frequent Stalking Behaviours Conducted by the Greek sample

Behaviour	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Approaching or surprising someone in public places	34	6.4%
Intruding upon someone's friends, family, or co-workers	29	5.5%
Intruding uninvited into someone's interactions	24	4.5%
Intercepting someone's mail or deliveries	17	3.2%
Invading into someone's personal space	15	2.8%
Physically threatening someone	13	2.5%
Making Obscene phone calls	12	2.3%
Involving someone in activities in unwanted ways	12	2.3%
Leaving unwanted gift	10	1.9%
Physically hurting someone	10	1.9%
Invading someone's personal property	9	1.7%
Threatening to hurt yourself	9	1.7%
Leaving someone threating messages	8	1.5%
Invading into someone's (friend, family etc) property	7	1.3%
Physically restraining someone	6	1.1%
Engaging in regulatory harassment towards someone	5	0.9%
Stealing or damaging someone's personal property	5	0.9%
Threating to hurt someone	3	0.6%
Sexually coercing someone	2	0.4%
Threating to hurt others that the individual cares about	1	0.2%
Showing up at places in threatening ways	1	0.2%
Physically endangering someone's life	1	0.2%

There were two behaviours that were not included in the table as none of the participants had carried out these behaviours towards others, those were Leaving or sending someone threatening objects and Kidnapping or physically constraining someone. Like the victimization table for the Greek sample all the violent and dangerous behaviours were concentrated in the Least Frequent table. The behaviours that can be prosecuted for as crime were carried out by less than 20 participants.

6.3.4 Behaviours UK sample (Perpetration)

The UK participants were also provided the 33 stalking behaviours to examine which of these behaviours they had conducted towards others. The behaviours were separated into two tables Most frequent (table 6.17) and the Least frequent behaviours (table 6.18). The same criteria will be used here as the one that was used for the Greek sample; any behaviour that was experienced by fewer than 40 participants were included in the Least Frequent Behaviours table.

Table 6.17 Most frequent Stalking Behaviours Conducted by the UK sample

Behaviour	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Watching Someone from out of sight	70	13%
Monitoring someone's behaviour	65	12.1%

Only two behaviours met the criteria that was set, this is a smaller number of behaviours compared to the table of stalking behaviours carried out by the Greek participants. None of these behaviours are a crime according to the legislation in England and Wales (Modena Group on Stalking, 2007).

Table 6.18 Least Frequent Stalking Behaviours Conducted by the UK sample

Behaviour	***N***	***(% of sample)***
Making unwanted phone calls to someone (with conversation)	38	7.1%
Following Someone	30	5.6%
Covertly obtaining private information about someone	30	5.6%
Making exaggerated expressions of affection	29	5.4%
Leaving Unwanted gifts	28	5.2%
Physically restraining someone	25	4.6%
Making unwanted phone calls to someone (silent)	23	4.3%
Invading into someone's personal space	23	4.3%
Threating to hurt someone	22	4.1%
Approaching or surprising someone in public	21	3.9%
Physically threatening someone	21	3.9%
Threating to hurt yourself	19	3.5%

Obtaining personal information about someone through surveillance	18	3.3%
Physically hurting someone	15	2.8%
Intruding uninvited into someone's interactions	15	2.8%
Stealing or damaging someone's personal property	14	2.6%
Making obscene phone calls	8	1.5%
Intercepting someone's mail or deliveries	7	1.3%
Invading someone's personal property	6	1.1%
Leaving someone threating messages	6	1.1%
Intruding upon someone's friends, family, or co-workers	5	0.9%
Sexually coercing someone	5	0.9%
Invading into someone's (friend, family etc) property	4	0.7%
Engaging in regulatory harassment towards someone	3	0.6%
Involving someone in activities in unwanted ways	3	0.6%
Leaving or sending someone threatening objects	1	0.2%
Kidnapping or physically constraining someone	1	0.2%

Three behaviours were not carried out by any of the UK participants, these behaviours were threatening to hurt others that the individual cares about, showing up at places in threatening ways and physically endangering someone's life. Overall, the Least frequent behaviours table contains the most serious and violent behaviours. In comparison with the Greek sample the UK participants carried out more stalking behaviours towards other and more behaviours were found in least frequent in comparison with the same table for the Greek participants.

6.4Conclusion

In conclusion both samples have experienced stalking victimization and when the criteria of two or more stalking behaviours were set, the number of participants that met these criteria increased for both samples. Furthermore, there was a difference in the stalking behaviours in both samples, as the Most Frequent and Least Frequent Behaviours experienced by both samples differentiated. Furthermore, in the perpetration section both samples had stalked other individuals and when the criteria (two or more stalking behaviours) were applied more participants were found to have stalked others. Some stalking behaviours were not

perpetrated by either of the samples, but in this section, there was a clear distinction of violent and non-violent behaviours for both samples. The Most frequent tables had nonviolent behaviours for both samples and the violent behaviours were in the Least Frequent tables.

CHAPTER 7:

Stalking Myth Acceptance and Individual Differences on the Bases of Gender, Educational Level and Age

(Greek and UK sample)

7.1Stalking Myth Acceptance and Individual Differences Introduction

In this chapter it was investigated if there are gender, educational and age group differences in endorsement of Stalking Myths between the male and female Greek and UK participants and the results between the two countries were compared. To analyse the data for this chapter a MANOVA was selected and carried out to protect from a Type I error rate, when the ANOVAs were conducted and post-hoc tests of comparison were carried out after the ANOVAs (Cramer & Bock, 1966). Furthermore, a one-way multivariate analysis of variance or one-way MANOVA is used in this analysis as a way to determine whether there are any differences between independent groups on more than one continuous dependent variable. Specifically in this chapter the independent groups were gender, age, and educational level whilst the categorical value was the the SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and SMA Total. It was the most appropriate way to examine so many different subscales using the same independent variable and it differs from the one-way ANOVA as that can only measure one dependent variable at a time.

7.2 Greek Sample

7.2.1 Gender Differences in Stalking Myth Acceptance (Greek sample)

To examine the Gender Differences between the Male and Female Greek Participants a one-way MANOVA was carried out. Table 7.1 illustrates the mean scores between both genders for each of the subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) of the Stalking Myths Acceptance scale and the participants total score from the scale.

Table 7.1 Mean Scores for the SMA variables for Male and Female Greek Participants

	Gender	***N***	***M***	***SD***
SMA Victim Blame	Male	177	26.46	7.54
	Female	352	22.09	8.06
SMA Flattery	Male	177	19.83	6.58
	Female	352	17.38	6.65
SMA Minimizing Stalking	Male	177	27.97	9.87
	Female	352	25.10	9.11
SMA Nuisance	Male	177	17.76	6.76
	Female	352	16.02	6.61
SMA Total	Male	177	123.40	26.61
	Female	352	112.66	27.26

One thing that is evident in the above mean scores is that Greek male participants had higher mean scores compared to Greek female participants in each of the SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and SMA Total. A one-way MANOVA was carried out to test the hypothesis that there would be a difference between the two genders (male and female) for the Greek participants for the SMA subscales and SMA total. A statistically significant MANOVA effect was found. Wilks' Lambda =.93 $F(5, 523)= 8.44$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2= 0.075$.

Before carrying out the follow-up ANOVAs, a Levene's test was conducted to test the homogeneity of variance assumption for all the SMA subscales and the SMA total. All but one of the Levene's test were statistically significant ($p > .05$), as can be seen in Table 7.2. The SMA Victim Blame was not statistically significantly so it was not homogenous. According to Howell, (2009) if in the examination of the standard deviation which can been see in Table 7.1 shows that if the largest deviation was not more than four times the size of the smallest standard deviation of the corresponding variable, than the ANOVA is robust. The one-way ANOVAs from each of the dependent variables (SMA subscales and SMA total) were carried out, all were statistically significant, and the effects size (η^2) varied from low η^2=0.015 (SMA Nuisance) to high η^2= 0.064 (SMA Victim Blame). All of these can be seen in Table 7.2. A post-hoc test was not conducted as there were only two groups (male and female) in this analysis.

Table 7.2 One-way ANOVA's with SMA subscales for Gender Differences in the Greek sample

	Levene's		ANOVA's		
	F (1, 527)	***p***	**F(1, 527)**	***p***	η^2
SMA Victim Blame	4.044	.045	36.22	.000	.064
SMA Flattery	.113	.737	16.09	.000	.030
SMA Minimizing Stalking	.659	.417	11.01	.001	.020
SMA Nuisance	.000	.993	8.06	.005	.015
SMA Total	.833	.362	18.54	.000	.034

Note N=527, η^2=Partial eta squared

7.2.2 Education Level Differences in Stalking Myth Acceptance (Greek sample)

To examine if the Education level (School, Undergraduate studies, and post-graduate studies) the Greek participants have, could affect their endorsement of Stalking Myths a one-way MANOVA was carried out. Table 7.3 illustrates the mean scores between the Educational Groups for each of the subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) of the Stalking Myths Acceptance scale and the participants total mean score from the SMA scale.

Table 7.3 Mean Scores for SMA variables for Educational Groups (Greek Participants)

	Education Groups	***N***	***M***	***SD***
SMA Victim Blame	School	137	25.66	7.97
	Undergraduate studies	267	23.79	8.01
	Post- Graduate studies	125	20.74	7.89
SMA Flattery	School	137	20.03	6.90
	Undergraduate studies	267	18.32	6.31
	Post- Graduate studies	125	15.94	6.78
SMA Minimizing Stalking	School	137	29.41	9.94
	Undergraduate studies	267	25.96	8.82
	Post- Graduate studies	125	22.60	9.00
SMA Nuisance	School	137	18.02	7.14
	Undergraduate studies	267	16.80	6.40
	Post- Graduate studies	125	14.63	6.45

SMA Total	School	137	124.31	27.62
	Undergraduate studies	267	117.03	25.97
	Post- Graduate studies	125	105.78	27.37

In all the Subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and the SMA total, the group with the highest Mean scores were the participants that had only completed School (Primary School, High School/ Gymnasio, Lykeio/Six Form/ College). The participants that had completed Post Graduate studies had the lowest Mean scores in all four subscales and the SMA total. A one-way MANOVA was carried out to test the hypothesis that there would be a difference between the educational level of the Greek participants for the SMA subscales and SMA total. A statistically significant MANOVA effect was found. Wilks' Lambda =.92 $F(10, 1044)= 4.77$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2= 0.044$.

Before carrying out the follow-up ANOVAs, a Levene's test was conducted to test the homogeneity of variance assumption for all the SMA subscales and the SMA total. All the Levene's test were statistically significant ($p > .05$), as can be seen in Table 3.4. The one-way ANOVAs from each of the dependent variables (SMA subscales and SMA total) were carried out, all were statistically significant, and the effects size (η^2) varied from low η^2=0.032 (SMA Nuisance) to high η^2= 0.064 (SMA Minimizing Stalking). All of these can be seen in the next Table 7.4.

Table 7.4 One-way ANOVA's with SMA subscales for Education Level (Greek sample)

	Levene's		**ANOVA's**		
	F (2, 526)	***p***	**F (2, 526)**	***p***	***η²***
SMA Victim Blame	.063	.939	12.72	.000	.046
SMA Flattery	1.054	.349	12.70	.000	.046
SMA Minimizing Stalking	1.807	.165	18.07	.000	.064
SMA Nuisance	1.678	.188	8.83	.000	.032
SMA Total	.706	.494	15.93	.000	.057

Note N=526, η^2=Partial eta squared

In addition, post-hoc analyses (Tukey HSD) were conducted to investigate the individual mean differences for the four subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and the SMA total. In the SMA Victim Blame subscale all but one of

the post-hoc mean comparisons were statistically significant ($p < .05$). The only statistically non- significant ($p > .05$) mean comparison was between the participants that had only completed school level education and the ones that had completed undergraduate studies. In the SMA Flattery subscale all the post- hoc mean comparisons were statistically significant ($p < .05$). Similarly, in the SMA Minimizing Stalking all the post- hoc mean comparisons were statistically significant ($p < .05$). In the SMA Nuisance subscale all but one of the post-hoc mean comparisons were statistically significant ($p < .05$). The one comparison that was non-significant ($p > 0.05$) mean comparison was between the participants that had only completed school level education and the ones that had completed undergraduate studies. Finally, in the SMA total subscale all the post- hoc mean comparisons were statistically significant ($p < .05$). All the mean difference scores for the post-hoc analyses can be found in the following Tables (Table 7.5, Table 7.6, and Table 7.7).

Table 7.5 Tukey HSD Comparison for Education Level and SMA Victim Blame and SMA Flattery (Greek Participants)

SMA Variable	Education Group (I)	Education Groups	Mean Differences (I-J)	95% Confidence Interval		
				Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SMA Victim Blame	School	Undergraduate studies	1.88	.84	-.09	3.85
		Post Graduate Studies	4.93*	.99	2.61	7.25
	Undergraduate studies	School	-1.88	.84	-3.85	.09
		Post Graduate Studies	3.05*	.86	1.02	5.08
	Post Graduate Studies	School	-4.93*	.99	-7.25	-2.61
		Undergraduate studies	-3.05*	.86	-5.08	-1.02
SMA Flattery	School	Undergraduate Studies	1.71*	.69	.09	3.34
		Post Graduate studies	4.09*	.81	2.17	6.00
	Undergraduate studies	School	-1.71*	.69	-3.34	-.09
		Post Graduate studies	2.37*	.71	.70	4.05
	Post Graduate studies	School	-4.09*	.81	-6.00	-2.17
		Undergraduate studies	-2.37*	.71	-4.05	-.70

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7.6 Tukey HSD Comparison for Education Level and SMA Minimizing Stalking and SMA Nuisance (Greek Participants)

SMA Variable	Education Group (I)	Education Groups	95% Confidence Interval			
			Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SMA Minimizing Stalking	School	Undergraduate studies	3.45*	.96	1.18	5.71
		Post Graduate Studies	6.81*	1.13	4.14	9.47
	Undergraduate studies	School	-3.45*	.96	-5.71	-1.18
		Post Graduate Studies	3.36*	.99	1.03	5.70
	Post Graduate Studies	School	-6.81*	1.13	-9.47	-4.14
		Undergraduate studies	-3.36*	.99	-5.70	-1.03
SMA Nuisance	School	Undergraduate studies	1.22	.70	-.41	2.86
		Post Graduate Studies	3.39*	.82	1.47	5.31
	Undergraduate studies	School	-1.22	.70	-2.86	.41
		Post Graduate Studies	2.17*	.72	.48	3.85
	Post Graduate Studies	School	-3.39*	.82	-5.31	-1.47
		Undergraduate studies	-2.17*	.72	-3.85	-.48

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7.7 Tukey HSD Comparison for Education Level and SMA Total (Greek Participants)

SMA Variable	Education Group (I)	Education Groups	95% Confidence Interval			
			Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SMA Total	School	Undergraduate studies	7.29*	2.81	.68	13.89
		Post Graduate Studies	18.54*	3.31	10.76	26.31
	Undergraduate studies	School	-7.29*	2.81	-13.89	-.68
		Post Graduate Studies	11.25*	2.9	4.44	18.06
	Post Graduate Studies	School	-18.54*	3.31	-26.31	-10.76
		Undergraduate studies	-11.25*	2.9	-18.06	-4.44

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

7.2.3 Age Difference in Stalking Myth Acceptance (Greek sample)

To examine if Age has an effect in the endorsement of Stalking Myths the Greek participants were separated into Age groups (16-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and 56+) a one-way MANOVA was carried out. Table 7.8 illustrates the mean scores between the Age Groups for each of the subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) of the Stalking Myths Acceptance scale and the participants total score from the scale.

Table 7.8 Mean Scores for SMA variables for Age Groups (Greek Participants)

	Age Group	***N***	***M***	***SD***
SMA Victim Blame	16-25	265	23.77	8.16
	26-35	141	22.42	8.14
	36-45	60	22.55	8.11
	46-55	26	25.62	7.87
	56+	35	26.29	7.63
SMA Flattery	16-25	265	17.99	6.41
	26-35	141	17.13	6.40
	36-45	60	18.52	6.33
	46-55	26	19.65	7.33
	56+	35	22.17	6.99
SMA Stalking Minimization	16-25	265	26.15	9.06
	26-35	141	24.33	9.37
	36-45	60	24.68	8.68
	46-55	26	29.42	9.74
	56+	35	31.49	10.81
SMA Nuisance	16-25	265	16.53	6.38
	26-35	141	15.65	6.57
	36-45	60	15.80	6.75
	46-55	26	18.62	6.82
	56+	35	20.46	7.64
SMA Total	16-25	265	116.36	26.11

26-35	141	111.23	27.85
36-45	60	114.18	25.24
46-55	26	124.85	29.95
56+	35	130.57	30.63

In all the Subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and the SMA total the group with the highest Mean scores were the participants that had belong to 56+ age group. The participants that belonged in the age groups 26-35 had the lowest Mean scores in all four subscales and the SMA total. A one-way MANOVA was carried out to test the hypothesis that there would be a difference between the age groups of the Greek participants for the SMA subscales and SMA total. A statistically significant MANOVA effect was found. Wilks' Lambda =.94 $F(20, 1719)= 1.69$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2= .016$.

Before carrying out the follow-up ANOVAs, a Levene's test was conducted to test the homogeneity of variance assumption for all the SMA subscales and the SMA total. All the Levene's test were statistically significant ($p > .05$), as can be seen in Table. The one-way ANOVAs from each of the dependent variables (SMA subscales and SMA total) were carried out, all but one (SMA Victim Blame) were statistically significant and the effects size (η^2) varied from low η^2=.033 (SMA Nuisance) to high η^2= .040 (SMA Minimizing Stalking). All of these can be seen in the Table 7.9 that follows.

Table 7.9 One-way ANOVA's with SMA subscales for Age Group (Greek sample)

	Levene's		**ANOVA**		
	F (4, 522)	***p***	**F(4, 522)**	***p***	η^2
SMA Victim Blame	.471	.757	2.39	.05	.018
SMA Flattery	.210	.933	4.46	.001	.033
SMA Minimizing Stalking	.735	.569	5.24	.000	.040
SMA Nuisance	.856	.490	4.57	.002	.033
SMA Total	.737	.567	4.43	.001	.034

Note N=522, η^2=Partial eta squared

In addition, post-hoc analyses (Tukey HSD) were conducted to investigate the individual mean differences for the three subscales (Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and the SMA total. In the SMA Flattery subscale all but two of the post- hoc mean comparisons were statistically non-significant (p >.05). The two statistically significant mean comparisons (p < .05) were between the 16-25 age group and the 26-35 age group in comparison to the 56+ age group. In the SMA Minimizing Stalking all but three of the post- hoc mean comparisons were statistically non- significant (p > .05). The three statistically significant mean comparisons (p < .05) were between the 16-25 age group, the 26-35 age group and 36-45 in comparison to the 56+ age group.

Similarly, in the SMA Nuisance subscale all but three of the post-hoc mean comparisons were statistically non- significant (p > .05). The three statistically significant mean comparisons (p < .05) were between the 16-25 age group, the 26-35 age group and 36-45 in comparison to the 56+ age group. Finally, in the SMA total subscale all but three of the post- hoc mean comparisons were statistically non-significant (p > .05). The three statistically significant mean comparisons (p < .05) were between the 16-25 age group, the 26-35 age group and 36-45 in comparison to the 56+ age group. All the mean difference scores for the post-hoc analyses can be found in the Tables 7.10, Table 7.11, Table 7.12, and Table 7.13 that follow.

Table 7.10 Tukey HSD Comparison for Age Groups and SMA Flattery (Greek sample)

Stalking Variable	Age Group (I)	Age Groups	95% Confidence Interval			
			Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SMA Flattery	16-25	26-35	.85	.69	-1.04	2.75
		36-45	-.53	.95	-3.12	2.07
		46-55	-1.67	1.36	-5.40	2.07
		56+	-4.18*	1.19	-7.45	-.92
	26-45	16-25	-.85	.69	-2.75	1.04
		36-45	-1.38	1.02	-4.18	1.42
		46-55	-2.52	1.42	-6.39	1.35
		56+	-5.04*	1.25	-8.46	-1.61
	36-45	16-25	.53	.95	-2.07	3.12
		26-35	1.38	1.02	-1.42	4.18
		46-55	-1.14	1.56	-5.40	3.12
		56+	-3.65	1.41	-7.52	.21
SMA Flattery	46-55	16-25	1.67	1.36	-2.07	5.40
		26-35	2.52	1.42	-1.35	6.39
		36-45	1.14	1.56	-3.12	5.40
		56+	-2.52	1.72	-7.22	2.18
	56+	16-25	4.18*	1.19	.92	7.45
		26-35	5.04*	1.25	1.61	8.46
		36-45	3.65	1.41	-.21	7.52
		46-55	2.52	1.72	-2.18	7.22

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7.11 Tukey HSD Comparison for Age Groups and SMA Minimizing Stalking (Greek sample)

Stalking Variable	Age Group (I)	Age Groups	95% Confidence Interval			
			Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SMA	16-25	26-35	1.81	.97	-.83	4.46
Minimizing		36-45	1.46	1.32	-2.16	5.09
Stalking		46-55	-3.28	1.90	-8.48	1.93
		56+	-5.34*	1.67	-9.90	-.78
	26-35	16-25	-1.81	.97	-4.46	.83
		36-45	-.35	1.43	-4.26	3.56
		46-55	-5.09	1.98	-10.50	.32
		56+	-7.15*	1.75	-11.94	-2.37
	36-45	16-25	-1.46	1.32	-5.09	2.16
		26-35	.35	1.43	-3.56	4.26
		46-55	-4.74	2.17	-10.69	1.21
		56+	-6.80*	1.97	-12.19	-1.41
	46-55	16-25	3.28	1.90	-1.93	8.48
		26-35	5.09	1.98	-.32	10.50
		36-45	4.74	2.17	-1.21	10.69
		56+	-2.06	2.40	-8.62	4.50
	56+	16-25	5.34*	1.67	.78	9.90
		26-35	7.15*	1.75	2.37	11.94
		36-45	6.80*	1.97	1.14	12.19
		46-55	2.06	2.40	-4.50	8.62

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7.12 Tukey HSD Comparison for Age Groups and SMA Nuisance (Greek sample)

Stalking Variable	Age Group (I)	Age Groups	95% Confidence Interval			
			Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SMA Nuisance	16-25	26-35	.88	.69	-1.00	2.75
		36-45	.73	.94	-1.85	3.30
		46-55	-2.09	1.35	-5.79	1.62
		56+	-3.93*	1.18	-7.17	-.69
	26-35	16-25	-.88	.69	-2.75	1.00
		36-45	-.15	1.01	-2.92	2.63
		46-55	-2.96	1.41	-6.81	.88
		56+	-4.80*	1.24	-8.21	-1.40
	36-45	16-25	-.73	.94	-3.30	1.85
		26-35	.15	1.01	-2.63	2.92
		46-55	-2.82	1.55	-7.05	1.41
		56+	-4.66*	1.40	-8.49	-.83
	46-55	16-25	2.09	1.35	-1.62	5.79
		26-35	2.96	1.41	-.88	6.81
		36-45	2.82	1.55	-1.41	7.05
		56+	-1.84	1.70	-6.51	2.82
	56+	16-25	3.93*	1.18	.69	7.17
		26-35	4.80*	1.24	1.40	8.21
		36-45	4.66*	1.40	.83	8.49
		46-55	1.84	1.70	-2.82	6.51

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7.13 Tukey HSD Comparison for Age Groups and SMA Total (Greek sample)

Stalking Variable	Age Group (I)	Age Groups	95% Confidence Interval			
			Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SMA Total	16-25	26-35	5.13	2.81	-2.57	12.83
		36-45	2.18	3.86	-8.39	12.74
		46-55	-8.49	5.55	-23.67	6.70
		56+	-14.21*	4.86	-27.50	-.92
	26-35	16-25	-5.13	2.81	-12.83	2.57
		36-45	-2.96	4.16	-14.35	8.43
		46-55	-13.62	5.76	-29.39	2.15
		56+	-19.34*	5.10	-33.30	-5.39
	36-45	16-25	-2.18	3.86	-12.74	8.39
		26-35	2.96	4.16	-8.43	14.35
		46-55	-10.66	6.34	-28.01	6.69
		56+	-16.39*	5.74	-32.11	-.67
	46-55	16-25	8.49	5.55	-6.70	23.67
		26-35	13.62	5.76	-2.15	29.39
		36-45	10.66	6.34	-6.69	28.01
		56+	-5.73	6.99	-24.86	13.41
	56+	16-25	14.21*	4.86	.92	27.50
		26-35	19.34*	5.10	5.39	33.30
		36-45	16.39*	5.72	.67	32.11
		46-55	5.73	6.99	-13.41	24.86

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

7.3 UK Sample

7.3.1 Gender Differences in Stalking Myth Acceptance (UK sample)

To examine the Gender Differences between the Male and Female UK participants a one-way MANOVA was carried out. Table 7.14 illustrates the mean scores between both genders for each of the subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) of the Stalking Myths Acceptance scale and the participants total score from the scale. All the mean scores for the SMA variables for both genders can be seen in the Table 7.14 that follows.

Table 7.14 Mean Scores for the SMA variables for Male and Female UK Participants

	Gender	***N***	***M***	***SD***
SMA Victim Blame	Male	158	17.59	6.94
	Female	381	12.70	5.54
SMA Flattery	Male	158	13.41	6.34
	Female	381	11.23	5.24
SMA Minimizing Stalking	Male	158	18.75	8.92
	Female	381	14.82	6.34
SMA Nuisance	Male	158	11.04	5.81
	Female	381	8.71	3.88
SMA Total	Male	158	96.78	25.97
	Female	381	83.99	20.55

One thing that is evident in the above mean scores is that UK Males Participants had higher mean scores compared to Female UK participants in each of the SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and SMA Total. A one-way MANOVA was carried out to test the hypothesis that there would be a difference between the two genders (male and female) for the UK participants for the SMA subscales and SMA total. A statistically significant MANOVA effect was found. Wilks' Lambda =.85 $F(5, 533)= 18.27$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2= 0.15$. The results for the UK sample on gender are similar to the Greek MANOVA results.

Before carrying out the follow-up ANOVAs, a Levene's test was conducted to test the homogeneity of variance assumption for all the SMA subscales and the SMA total. All the Levene's test were statistically non-significant ($p < .05$) so it was not homogenous, as can be seen in Table 7.15. According to Howell, (2009) if in the examination of the standard deviation which can been see in Table 7.14 shows that if the largest deviation was not more than four times the size of the smallest standard deviation of the corresponding variable, than the ANOVA is robust. The one-way ANOVAs from each of the dependent variables (SMA subscales and SMA total) were carried out, all were statistically significant, and the effects size (η^2) varied from low η^2=0.031 (SMA Flattery) to high η^2= 0.122 (SMA Victim Blame). All of these can be seen Table 7.15. Similarly, to the Greek sample when the UK ANOVAs were examined they were all significant. A post-hoc test was not conducted as there were only two groups (male and female) in this analysis.

Table 7.15 One-way ANOVA's with SMA subscales for Gender Differences in the UK sample

	Levene's		**ANOVA's**		
	F (1, 537)	***p***	**F (1, 537)**	***p***	η^2
SMA Victim Blame	7.75	.006	74.53	.000	.122
SMA Flattery	6.88	.009	17.07	.000	.031
SMA Minimizing Stalking	18.04	.000	33.23	.000	.058
SMA Nuisance	22.62	.000	29.64	.000	.052
SMA Total	9.08	.003	36.85	.000	.064

Note N=537, η^2=Partial eta squared

7.3.2 Education Level Differences in Stalking Myth Acceptance (UK sample)

To examine if the Education level (School, Undergraduate studies, and post-graduate studies) the UK participants have could affect their endorsement of Stalking Myths a one-way MANOVA was carried out. Table 7.16 illustrates the mean scores between the Educational Groups for each of the subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery,

Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) of the Stalking Myths Acceptance scale and the participants total score from the scale.

Table 7.16 Mean Scores for SMA variables for Educational Groups (UK Participants)

	Education Groups	***N***	***M***	***SD***
SMA Victim Blame	School	205	14.76	6.90
	Undergraduate studies	255	13.87	6.14
	Post- Graduate studies	71	12.97	5.73
SMA Flattery	School	205	12.60	6.26
	Undergraduate studies	255	11.53	5.35
	Post- Graduate studies	71	10.32	3.88
SMA Minimizing Stalking	School	205	16.69	8.24
	Undergraduate studies	255	15.54	7.01
	Post- Graduate studies	71	14.52	4.66
SMA Nuisance	School	205	9.57	5.12
	Undergraduate studies	255	9.27	4.43
	Post- Graduate studies	71	8.82	3.33
SMA Total	School	205	89.92	25.73
	Undergraduate studies	255	86.95	21.39
	Post- Graduate studies	71	82.13	16.99

In all the Subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and the SMA total the group with the highest Mean scores were the participants that had only completed School (Primary School, High School, Six Form/ College). The participants that had completed Post Graduate studies had the lowest Mean scores in all four subscales and the SMA total. A one-way MANOVA was carried out to test the hypothesis that there would be a difference between the educational level of the UK participants for the SMA subscales and SMA total. A statistically non-significant MANOVA effect was found. Wilks' Lambda =.98 $F(10, 1048)= 4.77$, $p > .05$, $\eta^2= 0.016$. This result is the first difference that was identified between the two samples with regards to Stalking Myth Acceptance as for the Greek sample the MANOVA for educational differences was significant and for the UK it was not.

7.3.3 Age Difference in Stalking Myth Acceptance (UK sample)

To examine if Age has an effect in the endorsement of Stalking Myths the UK participants were separated into age groups (16-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and 56+) a one-way MANOVA was carried out. Table 7.17 illustrates the mean scores between the Age Groups for each of the subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) of the Stalking Myths Acceptance scale and the participants total score from the scale.

Table 7.17 Mean Scores for SMA variables for Age Groups (UK Participants)

	Age Group	***N***	***M***	***SD***
SMA Victim Blame	16-25	229	15.31	6.26
	26-35	129	14.56	7.17
	36-45	64	12.77	6.07
	46-55	80	11.81	4.91
	56+	35	12.46	5.69
SMA Flattery	16-25	229	12.79	5.75
	26-35	129	11.84	5.92
	36-45	64	10.59	5.16
	46-55	80	10.83	5.43
	56+	35	10.66	4.78
SMA Stalking Minimization	16-25	229	17.20	7.49
	26-35	129	15.86	8.03
	36-45	64	14.56	7.33
	46-55	80	14.33	5.82
	56+	35	14.14	5.69
SMA Nuisance	16-25	229	10.18	4.58
	26-35	129	9.43	5.15
	36-45	64	8.86	4.98
	46-55	80	7.96	3.13
	56+	35	7.91	3.23
SMA Total	16-25	229	93.07	22.05

26-35	129	87.22	25.64
36-45	64	80.28	22.46
46-55	80	81.56	18.95
56+	35	81.31	19.18

In all Subscale and (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and the SMA total the group with the highest Mean scores were the participants that belong to the 16-25 age group. In three Subscales (Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) the group with the lowest Mean scores were the participants that had belong to 56+ age group. In the Victim Blame subscale, the group with the lowest Mean score was the participants that belong in the age group 46-55. In SMA total the group with the lowest mean scores was the 36-45 age group. A one-way MANOVA was carried out to test the hypothesis that there would be a difference between the educational level of the UK participants for the SMA subscales and SMA total. A statistically significant MANOVA effect was found. Wilks' Lambda =.895 $F(20, 1752)= 2.99$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2= 0.027$. These results are similar to the Greek MANOVA which was also significant for the age differences in SMA endorsement.

Before carrying out the follow-up ANOVAs, a Levene's test was conducted to test the homogeneity of variance assumption for all the SMA subscales and the SMA total. All but one of the Levene's test were statistically significant ($p > .05$), as can be seen in Table 7.18. The SMA Nuisance was not statistically significantly so it was not homogenous. According to Howell, (2009) if in the examination of the standard deviation which can been see in Table 7.17 shows that the largest deviation is not more than four times the size of the smallest standard deviation of the corresponding variable, than the ANOVA is robust. The one-way ANOVAs from each of the dependent variables (SMA subscales and SMA total) were carried out, all were statistically significant, and the effects size (η^2) varied from low η^2=0.86 (SMA Flattery) to high $\eta^2= 0.996$ (SMA Total). The main difference that was identified between the two samples was that in the Greek sample the SMA victim blame ANOVA was not significant and in the UK sample it was significant. The results for the other ANOVAs were similar between the samples of the two countries. All of these can be seen Table 7.18. A post-hoc test was conducted for the significant results.

Table 7.18 One-way ANOVA's with SMA subscales and SMA Total for Age Group (UK sample)

	Levene's		ANOVA		
	F (4, 532)	***p***	**F(4, 532)**	***p***	η^2
SMA Victim Blame	2.33	.055	6.33	.000	.045
SMA Flattery	1.11	.35	3.44	.009	.025
SMA Minimizing Stalking	2.27	.06	3.81	.005	.028
SMA Nuisance	4.49	.001	4.92	.001	.036
SMA Total	1.37	.25	7.25	.000	.052

Note N=532, η^2=Partial eta squared

In addition, post-hoc analyses (Tukey HSD) were conducted to investigate the individual mean differences for the four subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and the SMA total. In the SMA Victim Blame subscale all but three post-hoc mean comparisons were statistically non-significant ($p > .05$) for all the age Groups. The two statistically significant ($p < .05$) groups were between the 16-25 age group and the 26-35 age group in comparison with the 46-55 Age group. The third statistically significant group ($p < .05$) was between the 16-25 age group in comparison to the 36-45 age group. In the SMA Flattery subscale all but one of the post- hoc mean comparisons were statistically non-significant ($p >.05$). The statistically significant comparison ($p < .05$) was between the 16-25 Age group and the 36-45 age group. In the SMA Minimizing Stalking all but one of the post- hoc mean comparisons were statistically non- significant ($p > .05$). The statistically significant comparison ($p < .05$) was between the 16-25 age group in comparison with the 46-55 age group. Similarly, in the SMA Nuisance subscale all but two of the post-hoc mean comparisons were statistically non- significant ($p > .05$). The statistically significant comparison ($p < .05$) was between the 46-55 age group and the 56+ Age group in comparison with the 16-25 age group.

Finally, in the SMA total subscale all but three of the post- hoc mean comparisons were statistically non- significant ($p > .05$). The three statistically significant mean comparisons ($p < .05$) were between the 16-25 age group, the 36-45 age group and 46-55 in comparison to the 56+ age group. All the mean difference scores

for the post-hoc analyses can be found in the Table 7.19, Table 7.20, Table 7.21, Table 7.22, and Table 7.23 that follow.

Table 7.19 Tukey HSD Comparison for Age Groups and SMA Victim Blame (UK Participants)

Stalking Variable	Age Group (I)	Age Groups	95% Confidence Interval			
			Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SMA Victim Blame	16-25	26-35	.76	.69	-1.13	2.64
		36-45	2.55*	.89	.13	4.97
		46-55	3.50*	.81	1.28	5.73
		56+	2.86	1.14	-.25	5.97
	26-45	16-25	-.76	.69	-2.64	1.13
		36-45	1.79	.96	-.83	4.41
		46-55	2.75*	.89	.31	5.18
		56+	2.10	1.19	-1.16	5.37
	36-45	16-25	-2.55*	.89	-4.97	-.13
		26-35	-1.79	.96	-4.41	.83
		46-55	.95	1.05	-1.92	3.83
		56+	.31	1.32	-3.29	3.91
SMA Flattery	46-55	16-25	-3.50*	.81	-5.73	-1.28
		26-35	-2.75*	.89	-5.18	-.31
		36-45	-.95	1.05	-3.83	1.92
		56+	-.64	1.27	-4.12	2.83
	56+	16-25	-2.86	1.14	-5.97	.25
		26-35	-2.10	1.19	-5.37	1.16
		36-45	-.31	1.32	-3.91	3.29
		46-55	.64	1.27	-2.83	4.12

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7.20 Tukey HSD Comparison for Age Groups and SMA Flattery (UK participants)

Stalking Variable	Age Group (I)	Age Groups	95% Confidence Interval			
			Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SMA Flattery	16-25	26-35	.94	.62	-.75	2.63
		36-45	2.19*	.80	.02	4.37
		46-55	1.96	.73	-.04	3.96
		56+	2.13	1.02	-.66	4.92
	26-45	16-25	-.94	.62	-2.63	.75
		36-45	1.25	.86	-1.10	3.60
		46-55	1.02	.80	-1.17	3.21
		56+	1.19	1.07	-1.74	4.12
	36-45	16-25	-2.19*	.80	-4.37	-.02
		26-35	-1.25	.86	-3.60	1.10
		46-55	-.23	.94	-2.81	2.35
		56+	-.06	1.18	-3.30	3.17
SMA Flattery	46-55	16-25	-1.96	.73	-3.96	.04
		26-35	-1.02	.80	-3.21	1.17
		36-45	.23	.94	-2.35	2.81
		56+	.17	1.14	-2.95	3.29
	56+	16-25	-2.13	1.02	-4.92	.66
		26-35	-1.19	1.07	-4.12	1.74
		36-45	.06	1.18	-3.17	3.30
		46-55	-.17	1.14	-3.29	2.95

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7.21 Tukey HSD Comparison for Age Groups and SMA Minimizing Stalking (UK Participants)

Stalking Variable	Age Group (I)	Age Groups	Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	95% Confidence Interval Upper Bound
SMA	16-25	26-35	1.34	.80	-.85	3.53
Minimizing		36-45	2.64	1.03	-.18	5.46
Stalking		46-55	2.88*	.95	.29	5.46
		56+	3.06	1.32	-.56	6.67
	26-45	16-25	-1.34	.80	-3.53	.85
		36-45	1.30	1.11	-1.75	4.34
		46-55	1.54	1.04	-1.30	4.37
		56+	1.72	1.39	-2.08	5.51
	36-45	16-25	-2.64	1.03	-5.46	.18
		26-35	-1.30	1.11	-4.34	1.75
		46-55	.24	1.22	-3.10	3.58
		56+	.42	1.53	-3.77	4.61
	46-55	16-25	-2.88*	.95	-5.46	-.29
		26-35	-1.54	1.04	-4.37	1.30
		36-45	-.24	1.22	-3.58	3.10
		56+	.18	1.48	-3.86	4.22
	56+	16-25	-3.06	1.32	-6.67	.56
		26-35	-1.72	1.39	-5.51	2.08
		36-45	-.42	1.53	-4.61	3.77
		46-55	-.18	1.48	-4.22	3.86

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7.22 Tukey HSD Comparison for Age Groups and SMA Nuisance (UK Participants)

Stalking Variable	Age Group (I)	Age Groups	95% Confidence Interval			
			Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SMA	16-25	26-35	.75	.50	-.61	2.11
Nuisance		36-45	1.32	.64	-.42	3.07
		46-55	2.22*	.59	.61	3.83
		56+	2.27*	.82	.02	4.51
	26-45	16-25	-.75	.50	-2.11	.61
		36-45	.57	.69	-1.32	2.47
		46-55	1.47	.64	-.29	3.23
		56+	1.52	.86	-.84	3.88
	36-45	16-25	-1.32	.64	-3.07	.42
		26-35	-.57	.69	-2.47	1.32
		46-55	.90	.76	-1.18	2.97
		56+	.95	.95	-1.65	3.55
SMA Flattery	46-55	16-25	-2.22*	.59	-3.83	-.61
		26-35	-1.47	.64	-3.23	.29
		36-45	-.90	.76	-2.97	1.18
		56+	.05	.92	-2.46	2.55
	56+	16-25	-2.27*	.82	-4.51	-.02
		26-35	-1.52	.86	-3.88	.84
		36-45	-.95	.95	-3.55	1.65
		46-55	-.05	.92	-2.55	2.46

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

Table 7.23 Tukey HSD Comparison for Age Groups and SMA Total (UK Participants)

Stalking Variable	Age Group (I)	Age Groups	95% Confidence Interval			
			Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
SMA Total	16-25	26-35	5.84	2.47	-.92	12.60
		36-45	12.78*	3.17	4.10	21.47
		46-55	11.50*	2.91	3.53	19.48
		56+	11.75*	4.07	.61	22.89
	26-45	16-25	-5.84	2.47	-12.60	.92
		36-45	6.94	3.43	-2.44	16.33
		46-55	5.66	3.19	-3.08	14.40
		56+	5.91	4.28	-5.79	17.61
	36-45	16-25	-12.78*	3.17	-21.47	-4.10
		26-35	-6.94	3.43	-16.33	2.44
		46-55	-1.28	3.76	-11.58	9.02
		56+	-1.03	4.72	-13.94	11.88
	46-55	16-25	-11.50*	2.91	-19.48	-3.53
		26-35	-5.66	3.19	-14.40	3.08
		36-45	1.28	3.76	-9.02	11.58
		56+	.25	4.55	-12.20	12.69
	56+	16-25	-11.75*	4.07	-22.89	-.61
		26-35	-5.91	4.28	-17.61	5.79
		36-45	1.03	4.72	-11.88	13.94
		46-55	-.25	4.55	-12.69	12.20

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

7.4 Conclusion

In conclusion there were some similarities and some differences in the MANOVA results for both samples. For example, when it came to gender differences men in both samples had higher Mean scores in all SMA Subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) and in SMA total compared to women. The one-way MANOVA was statistically significant ($p < .05$) for both samples in gender differences, as were the ANOVA tests ($p < .05$). In the level of Education in both sample's the highest Mean scores in all SMA Subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) and in SMA total were found in the participants that had only completed School (Primary, High School/ Gymnasio, Lykeio/Six Form / College) The differences between the two sample also began in the level of Education as the Greek sample's one-way MANOVA was significant ($p < .05$), whilst the UK sample was non-significant ($p > .05$). As for the ANOVA tests for the Greek sample there were also statistically significant ($p < .05$).

In the Age group the difference began in the Mean Scores for both samples, in the Greek sample the 56+ Age group had the highest Mean scores in all subscales. In comparison for the UK sample the highest Mean scores for the (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) were found in three different age groups. The 16-25 age group had the highest mean scores in the subscales of Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) The 46-55 age group had the highest mean score in the Victim Blame subscale and the 56+ age group had the highest mean score for the SMA Total. For the one-way MAVOVA's both sample groups had a statistically significant result ($p < .05$). In the ANOVA tests only Victim Blame was non statistically significant ($p < .05$) for the Greek sample and for the UK sample they were all statistically significant ($p > .05$). Post-hoc tests were carried out for all the ANOVAs that were carried out and the results varied in each testing variable, but the majority were statistically non-significant ($p > .05$).

CHAPTER 8:

The link between Gender Role Stereotypes, Romantic Scale Belief and Hostility Towards Women with Stalking Myth Acceptance.

8.1The link between GRS, RSB and HTW with SMA Introduction

In this chapter a regression analysis was conducted to examine the relationship between the Gender Role Stereotypes, Romantic Scale Belief and Hostility towards Women with Stalking Myth Acceptance and its subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking and SMA Nuisance) for the Greek and the UK participants and compare the results between the two countries. The reason for the decision to carry out this type of analysis can be found in Tabachnick, Fidell, & Ullman, (2013). The regression techniques offer the researcher a unique flexibility, especially if the problems the researcher is interested in are real world problems that cannot be replicated in a laboratory setting. In this case to understand if there is a link between endorsing GRS, RSB and HTW and endorsing Stalking Myths.

8.2Greek Sample

8.2.1 GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Total (Greek sample)

A multiple regression analysis was carried out to examine if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA total scores. Analyses were conducted to make sure that there were no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. All the correlations were examined, and they were found to be moderate, and they range from to between $r = .30$, $p < .001$ and $r = .58$, $p < .001$. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) these results indicate that multicollinearity would not be a problem. The predicted variables were all statistically correlated with the SMA Total, which illustrates that the data were correlated suitably with SMA Total (see Table 8.1). This indicates that the multiple regression can be undertaken reliably.

Table 8.1 Correlations between the Predicted variables and SMA Total (Greek sample)

		SMA	GRS	RSB	HTW
Pearson	**SMA**	1.000	.58	.41	.45
Correlation	**GRS**	.58	1.000	.44	.43
	RSB	.41	.44	1.000	.30
	HTW	.45	.43	.30	1.000
p	**SMA**	.	.000	.000	.000
	GRS	.000	.	.000	.000
	RSB	.000	.000	.	.000
	HTW	.000	.000	.000	.

The three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 40.6% explained of variance in SMA Total $F(3, 520) = 118.51$, $p < .001$. In addition, the final model with all three predictors were statistically significant. The GRS Total had the highest Beta Value ($\beta = .41$, $p < .001$), followed by HTW ($\beta = .22$, $p < .001$), and finally ($\beta = .16$, $p < .001$).

Table 8.2 Effect of GRS, RSB, HTW on SMA Total (Greek sample)

	R^2	β	*B*	*SE*	CI 95% (B)		*t*	*p*
					Lower Bound	**Upper Bound**		
Model	.41*							
GRS		.42*	1.50	.14	1.2	1.78	10.04	.000
RSB		.16*	.33	.08	.17	.49	4.12	.000
HTW		.22*	.72	.12	.48	.97	5.81	.000

*Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001*

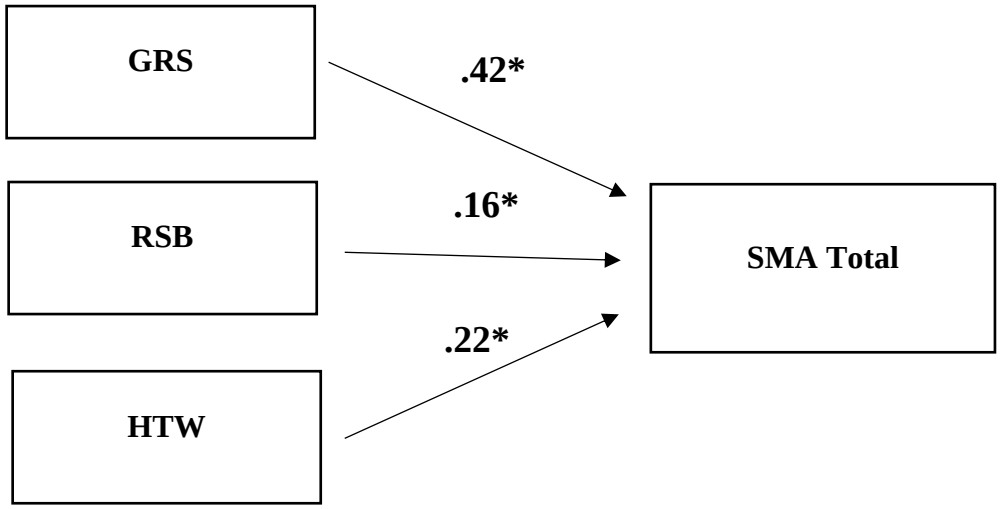

*Figure 8.1 Model of the Link between GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Total (Greek sample) Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

8.2.2 GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Victim Blame (Greek sample)

A multiple regression analysis was carried out to examine if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Victim Blame scores. Analyses were conducted to make sure that there were no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. All the correlations were examined, and they were found to be moderate, and they range from to between $r = .30$, $p < .001$ and $r = .55$, $p < .001$. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) these results indicate that multicollinearity would not be a problem. The predicted variables were all statistically correlated with the SMA Victim Blame, which illustrates that the data were correlated suitably with SMA Victim Blame (see Table 8.3). This indicates that the multiple regression can be undertaken reliably.

Table 8.3 Correlations between the Predicted variables and SMA Victim Blame (Greek sample)

		SMA Victim Blame	GRS	RSB	HTW
Pearson Correlation	**SMA**	1.000	.55	.37	.39
	GRS	.55	1.000	.44	.43
	RSB	.37	.44	1.000	.30
	HTW	.39	.43	.30	1.000
p	**SMA**	.	.000	.000	.000
	GRS	.000	.	.000	.000
	RSB	.000	.000	.	.000
	HTW	.000	.000	.000	.

The three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 34.3% explained of variance in SMA Victim Blame $F(3, 520) = 90.31$, $p < .001$. In addition, the final model with all three predictors were statistically significant. The GRS Total had the highest Beta Value ($\beta = .41$, $p < .001$), followed by HTW ($\beta = .18$, $p < .001$), and finally RSB ($\beta = .13$, $p < .01$).

Table 8.4 Effect of GRS, RSB, HTW on SMA Victim Blame (Greek sample)

	R^2	β	*B*	*SE*	CI 95% (B) Lower Bound	CI 95% (B) Upper Bound	*t*	*p*
Model	.34*							
GRS		.41*	.43	.05	.35	.53	9.77	.000
RSB		.13**	.08	.03	.03	.13	3.23	.001
HTW		.18*	.17	.04	.10	.25	4.41	.000

*Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001. **p<0.01*

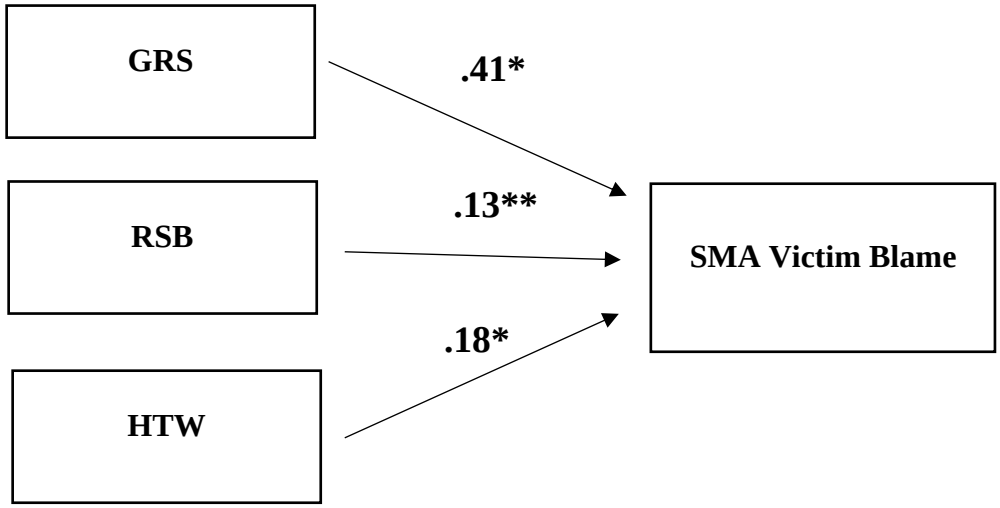

*Figure 8.2 Model of the Link between GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Victim Blame (Greek sample) Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001. **p<0.01*

8.2.3 GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Flattery (Greek sample)

A multiple regression analysis was carried out to examine if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Flattery scores. Analyses were conducted to make sure that there were no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. All the correlations were examined, and they were found to be moderate, and they range from to between r = .30, p < .001 and r = .53, p < .001. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) these results indicate that multicollinearity would not be a problem. The predicted variables were all statistically correlated with the SMA Flattery, which illustrates that the data were correlated suitably with SMA Flattery (see Table 8.5). This indicates that the multiple regression can be undertaken reliably.

Table 8.5 Correlations between the Predicted variables and SMA Flattery (Greek sample)

		SMA Victim Blame	GRS	RSB	HTW
Pearson Correlation	**SMA**	1.000	.53	.37	.46
	GRS	.53	1.000	.44	.43
	RSB	.37	.44	1.000	.30
	HTW	.46	.43	.30	1.000
p	**SMA**	.	.000	.000	.000
	GRS	.000	.	.000	.000
	RSB	.000	.000	.	.000
	HTW	.000	.000	.000	.

The three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 36% explained of variance in SMA Flattery $F(3, 520) = 96.32$, $p < .001$. In addition, the final model with all three predictors were statistically significant. The GRS Total had the highest Beta Value ($\beta = .36$, $p < .001$), followed by HTW ($\beta = .26$, $p < .001$), and finally RSB ($\beta = .13$, $p < .01$).

Table 8.6 Effect of GRS, RSB, HTW on SMA Flattery (Greek sample)

	R^2	β	*B*	*SE*	CI 95% (B) Lower Bound	CI 95% (B) Upper Bound	*t*	*P*
Model	.36*							
GRS		.36*	.32	.04	.24	.39	8.63	.000
RSB		.13**	.07	.02	.03	.11	3.20	.001
HTW		.26*	.21	.03	.15	.27	6.63	.000

*Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001. **p<0.01*

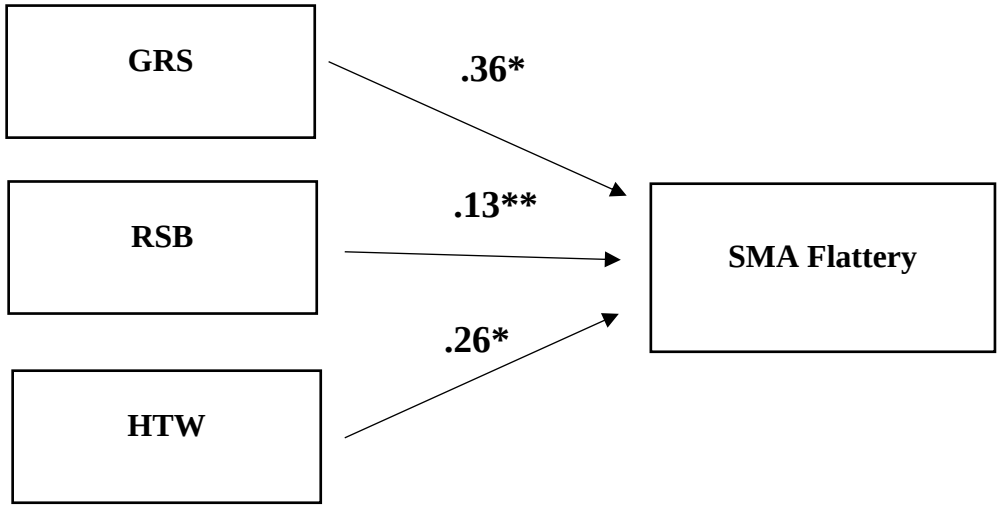

*Figure 8.3 Model of the Link between GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Flattery (Greek sample) Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001. **p<0.01*

8.2.4 GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Minimizing Stalking (Greek sample)

A multiple regression analysis was carried out to examine if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Minimizing Stalking scores. Analyses were conducted to make sure that there were no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. All the correlations were examined, and they were found to be moderate, and they range from to between $r = .30$, $p < .001$ and $r = .58$, $p < .001$. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) these results indicate that multicollinearity would not be a problem. The predicted variables were all statistically correlated with the SMA Minimizing Stalking, which illustrates that the data were correlated suitably with SMA Minimizing Stalking (see Table 8.7). This indicates that the multiple regression can be undertaken reliably.

Table 8.7 Correlations between the Predicted variables and SMA Minimizing Stalking (Greek sample)

		SMA Stalking Victimization	GRS	RSB	HTW
Pearson Correlation	**SMA**	1.000	.58	.42	.41
	GRS	.58	1.000	.44	.43
	RSB	.42	.44	1.000	.30
	HTW	.41	.44	.30	1.000
p	**SMA**	.	.000	.000	.000
	GRS	.000	.	.000	.000
	RSB	.000	.000	.	.000
	HTW	.000	.000	.000	.

The three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 39% explained of variance in SMA Minimizing Stalking $F(3, 520) = 110.67$, $p < .001$. In addition, the final model with all three predictors were statistically significant. The GRS Total had the highest Beta Value ($\beta = .42$, $p < .001$), followed by HTW ($\beta = .18$, $p < .001$), and finally ($\beta = .18$, $p < .001$).

Table 8.8 Effect of GRS, RSB, HTW on SMA Minimizing Stalking (Greek sample)

	R^2	β	*B*	*SE*	CI 95% (B) Lower Bound	CI 95% (B) Upper Bound	*t*	*P*
Model	.39*							
GRS		.42*	.52	.05	.42	.61	10.27	.000
RSB		.18*	.13	.03	.08	.18	4.68	.000
HTW		.18*	.20	.04	.12	.12	4.63	.000

*Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

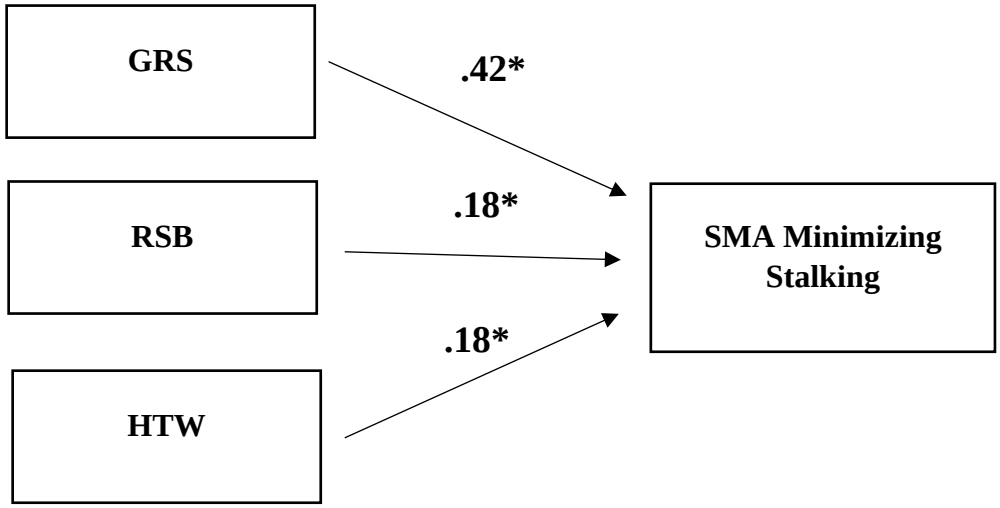

*Figure 8.4 Model of the Link between GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Minimizing Stalking (Greek sample) Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

8.2.5 GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Nuisance (Greek sample)

A multiple regression analysis was carried out to examine if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Nuisance scores. Analyses were conducted to make sure that there were no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. All the correlations were examined, and they were found to be moderate, and they range from to between $r = .30$, $p < .001$ and $r = .50$, $p < .001$. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) these results indicate that multicollinearity would not be a problem. The predicted variables were all statistically correlated with the SMA Nuisance, which illustrates that the data were correlated suitably with SMA Nuisance (see Table 8.9). This indicates that the multiple regression can be undertaken reliably.

Table 8.9 Correlations between the Predicted variables and SMA Nuisance (Greek sample)

		SMA Nuisance	GRS	RSB	HTW
Pearson Correlation	**SMA**	1.000	.50	.35	.38
	GRS	.50	1.000	.44	.43
	RSB	.35	.44	1.000	.30
	HTW	.38	.43	.30	1.000
p	**SMA**	.	.000	.000	.000
	GRS	.000	.	.000	.000
	RSB	.000	.000	.	.000
	HTW	.000	.000	.000	.

The three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 29.5% explained of variance in SMA Nuisance $F(3, 520) = 72.54$, $p < .001$. In addition, the final model with all three predictors were statistically significant. The GRS Total had the highest Beta Value ($\beta = .36$, $p < .001$), followed by HTW ($\beta = .19$, $p < .001$), and finally ($\beta = .13$, $p < .01$).

Table 8.10 Effect of GRS, RSB, HTW on SMA Nuisance (Greek sample)

	R^2	β	*B*	*SE*	CI 95% (B) Lower Bound	CI 95% (B) Upper Bound	*t*	*p*
Model	.29.5*							
GRS		.36*	.31	.04	.24	.39	8.13	.000
RSB		.13**	.07	.02	.03	.11	3.17	.002
HTW		.19*	.15	.03	.09	.22	4.61	.000

*Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.** p<.01*

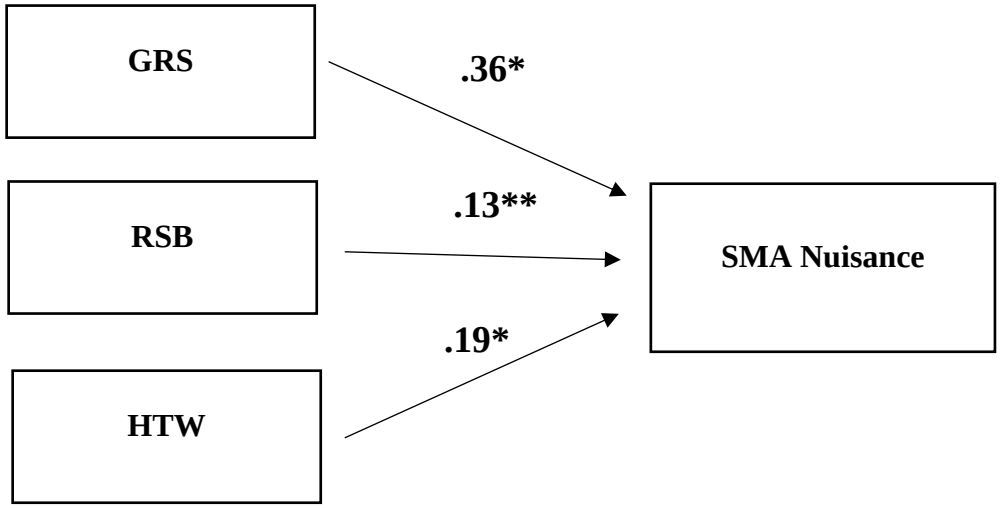

*Figure 8.5 Model of the Link between GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Nuisance (Greek sample) Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001. ** p<.01*

8.3UK Sample

8.3.1 GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Total (UK sample)

A multiple regression analysis was carried out to examine if higher scores in the following scales GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Total scores. Analyses were conducted to make sure that there were no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. All the correlations were examined, and they were found to be moderate, and they range from to between $r = .24$, $p < .001$ and $r = .46$, $p < .001$. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) these results indicate that multicollinearity would not be a problem. The predicted variables were all statistically correlated with the SMA Total, which illustrates that the data were correlated suitably with SMA Total (see Table 8.11). This indicates that the multiple regression can be undertaken reliably.

Table 8.11 Correlations between the Predicted variables and SMA Total (UK sample)

		SMA Total	GRS	RSB	HTW
Pearson Correlation	**SMA**	1.000	.45	.24	.46
	GRS	.45	1.000	.27	.38
	RSB	.24	.27	1.000	.35
	HTW	.46	.38	.35	1.000
p	**SMA**	.	.000	.000	.000
	GRS	.000	.	.000	.000
	RSB	.000	.000	.	.000
	HTW	.000	.000	.000	.

The three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 30.4% explained of variance in SMA Total $F(3, 524) = 76.36$, $p < .001$. In addition, the final model with only two predictors (GRS and HTW) being statistically significant. The HTW Total had the highest Beta Value ($\beta = .324$, $p < .001$), and followed by GRS ($\beta = .317$, $p < .001$). As RSB was not significant and it had no effect in the model. The main differences between these results and the Greek results for this regression analysis was that the variance result was smaller for the UK sample in comparison to the Greek variance. Furthermore, for the UK sample the HTW has a higher effect for this model whilst the GRS had the highest effect in the Greek model. In the UK model RSB had no effect while it did have an effect for the Greek model. The main similarity was that the models for both countries were significant.

Table 8.12 Effect of GRS, RSB, HTW on SMA Total (UK sample)

	R^2	β	*B*	*SE*	CI 95% (B) Lower Bound	CI 95% (B) Upper Bound	*T*	*P*
Model	.304*							
GRS		.317*	.1.33	.17	1.00	1.66	7.96	.000
RSB		.05	0.07	.06	-.05	18	1.15	.25
HTW		.324*	.79	.100	.59	.99	7.91	.000

*Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

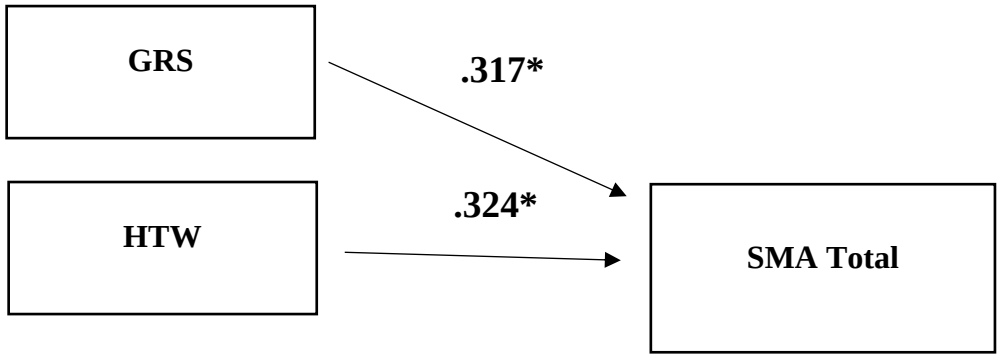

*Figure 8.6 Model of the Link between GRS, HTW and SMA Total (UK sample) Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

8.3.2 GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Victim Blame (UK sample)

A multiple regression analysis was carried out to examine if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Victim Blame scores. Analyses were conducted to make sure that there were no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. All the correlations were examined, and they were found to be moderate, and they range from to between $r = .22$, $p < .001$ and $r = .45$, $p < .001$. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) these results indicate that multicollinearity would not be a problem. The predicted variables were all statistically correlated with the SMA Victim Blame, which illustrates that the data were correlated suitably with SMA Victim Blame (see Table 8.13). This indicates that the multiple regression can be undertaken reliably.

Table 8.13 Correlations between the Predicted variables and SMA Victim Blame (UK sample)

		SMA Victim Blame	GRS	RSB	HTW
Pearson Correlation	**SMA**	1.000	.45	.22	.42
	GRS	.45	1.000	.27	.38
	RSB	.22	.27	1.000	.35

	HTW	.42	.38	.35	1.000
p	**SMA**	.	.000	.000	.000
	GRS	.000	.	.000	.000
	RSB	.000	.000	.	.000
	HTW	.000	.000	.000	.

The three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 28% explained of variance in SMA Stalking Victim Blame $F(3, 524) = 67.69$, $p < .001$. In addition, the final model with all two predictors (GRS and HTW) were statistically significant. The GRS Total had the highest Beta Value GRS ($\beta = .34$, $p < .001$), followed by HTW ($\beta = .28$, $p < .001$). As RSB was not significant and it had no effect in the model. The main differences between these results and the Greek results for this regression analysis was that the variance result was smaller for the UK sample in comparison to the Greek variance.. In the UK model RSB had no effect while it did have an effect for the Greek model. The main similarity was that the models for both countries were significant, and the GRS had the highest effects in the models for both countries.

Table 8.14 Effect of GRS, HTW on SMA Victim Blame (UK sample)

	R^2	***β***	***B***	***SE***	**CI 95% (B)**		***T***	***P***
					Lower Bound	**Upper Bound**		
Model	.28*							
GRS		.34*	.40	.05	.30	.49	8.35	.000
RSB		.03	.01	.02	-.02	0.5	.86	.39
HTW		.28*	.20	.03	.13	.25	6.70	.000

*Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

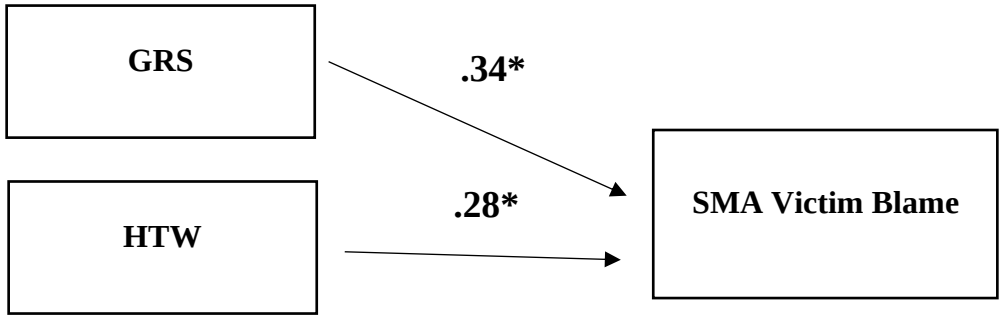

*Figure 8.7 Model of the Link between GRS, HTW and SMA Victim Blame (UK sample) Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

8.3.3 GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Flattery (UK sample)

A multiple regression analysis was carried out to examine if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Flattery scores. Analyses were conducted to make sure that there were no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. All the correlations were examined, and they were found to be moderate, and they range from to between $r = .16$, $p < .001$ and $r = .42$, $p < .001$. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) these results indicate that multicollinearity would not be a problem. The predicted variables were all statistically correlated with the SMA Flattery, which illustrates that the data were correlated suitably with SMA Flattery (see Table 8.15). This indicates that the multiple regression can be undertaken reliably.

Table 8.15 Correlations between the Predicted variables and SMA Flattery (UK sample)

		SMA Flattery	GRS	RSB	HTW
Pearson Correlation	**SMA**	1.000	.39	.16	.42
	GRS	.39	1.000	.27	.38
	RSB	.16	.27	1.000	.35

	HTW	.42	.38	.35	1.000
p	**SMA**	.	.000	.000	.000
	GRS	.000	.	.000	.000
	RSB	.000	.000	.	.000
	HTW	.000	.000	.000	.

The three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 24% explained of variance in SMA Flattery $F(3, 524) = 54.80$, $p < .001$. In addition, the final model with two predictors (GRS and HTW) being statistically significant. The HTW Total had the highest Beta Value ($\beta = .33$, $p < .001$), followed by GRS ($\beta = .27$, $p < .001$). As RSB was not significant and it had no effect in the model. The main differences between these results and the Greek results for this regression analysis was that the variance result was smaller for the UK sample in comparison to the Greek variance. Furthermore, for the UK sample the HTW has a higher effect for this model whilst the GRS had the highest effect in the Greek model. In the UK model RSB had no effect while it did have an effect for the Greek model. The main similarity was that the models for both countries were significant.

Table 8.16 Effect of GRS, RSB and HTW on SMA Flattery (UK sample)

	R²	***β***	***B***	***SE***	**CI 95% (B)**		***T***	***p***
					Lower Bound	**Upper Bound**		
Model	.24*							
GRS		.27*	.28	.05	.40	.599	6.37	.000
RSB		-.03	-.01	.02	-.04	.02	-.66	.51
HTW		.33*	.20	.04	.12	.295	7.75	.000

*Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

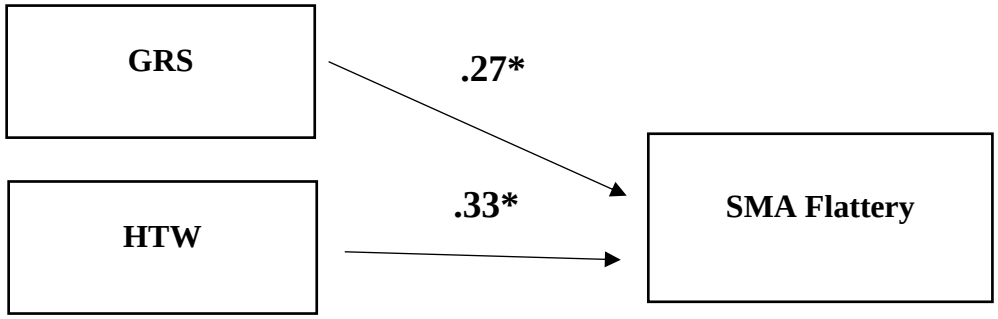

*Figure 8.8 Model of the Link between GRS, HTW and SMA Flattery (UK sample) Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

8.3.4 GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Minimizing Stalking (UK sample)

A multiple regression analysis was carried out to examine if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Minimizing Stalking scores. Analyses were conducted to make sure that there were no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. All the correlations were examined, and they were found to be moderate, and they range from to between $r = .18$, $p < .001$ and $r = .43$, $p < .001$. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) these results indicate that multicollinearity would not be a problem. The predicted variables were all statistically correlated with the SMA Minimizing Stalking, which illustrates that the data were correlated suitably with SMA Minimizing Stalking (see Table 8.17). This indicates that the multiple regression can be undertaken reliably.

Table 8.17 Correlations between the Predicted variables and SMA Minimizing Stalking

	***N*=523**	**SMA Stalking Victimization**	**GRS**	**RSB**	**HTW**
Pearson Correlation	**SMA**	1.000	.43	.18	.39
	GRS	.43	1.000	.27	.38
	RSB	.18	.27	1.000	.35
	HTW	.39	.38	.35	1.000
p	**SMA**	.	.000	.000	.000
	GRS	.000	.	.000	.000
	RSB	.000	.000	.	.000
	HTW	.000	.000	.000	.

The three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 25% explained of variance in SMA Minimizing Stalking $F(3, 524) = 56.60$, $p < .001$. In addition, the final model with all two predictors (GRS and HTW) were statistically significant. The GRS Total had the highest Beta Value ($\beta = .33$, $p < .001$), followed by HTW ($\beta = .26$, $p < .001$). As RSB was not significant and it had no effect in the model. The main differences between these results and the Greek results for this regression analysis was that the variance result was smaller for the UK sample in comparison to the Greek variance. In the UK model RSB had no effect while it did have an effect for the Greek model. The main similarities were that the models for both countries were significant, and that GRS had the highest effect in both models.

Table 8.18 Effect of GRS, HTW on SMA Minimizing Stalking (UK sample)

	R^2	β	*B*	*SE*	**CI 95% (B)**		*T*	*p*
					Lower Bound	**Upper Bound**		
Model	.25*							
GRS		.33*	.45	.06	.34	.56	8.04	.000
RSB		.004	.002	.02	-.04	.04	.09	.93
HTW		.26*	.20	.03	.14	.27	6.04	.000

*Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

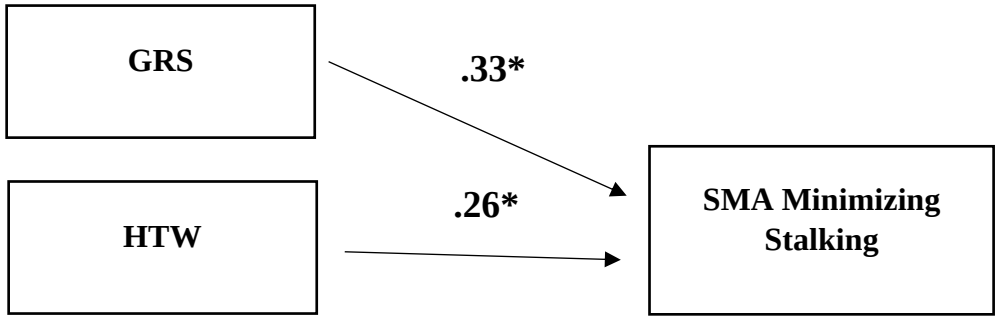

*Figure 8.9 Model of the Link between GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Minimizing Stalking (UK sample) Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

8.3.5 GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Nuisance (UK sample)

A multiple regression analysis was carried out to examine if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Nuisance scores. Analyses were conducted to make sure that there were no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, and homoscedasticity. All the correlations were examined, and they were found to be moderate, and they range from to between $r = .12$, $p < .001$ and $r = .38$, $p < .001$. According to Tabachnick and Fidell, (2007) these results indicate that multicollinearity would not be a problem. The predicted variables were all statistically correlated with the SMA Nuisance, which illustrates that the data were correlated suitably with SMA Nuisance (see Table 8.19). This indicates that the multiple regression can be undertaken reliably.

Table 8.19 Correlations between the Predicted variables and SMA Nuisance (UK sample)

		SMA Nuisance	GRS	RSB	HTW
Pearson Correlation	**SMA**	1.000	.38	.12	.33
	GRS	.38	1.000	.27	.38
	RSB	.12	.27	1.000	.35
	HTW	.33	.38	.35	1.000
p	**SMA**	.	.000	.000	.000
	GRS	.000	.	.000	.000
	RSB	.000	.000	.	.000
	HTW	.000	.000	.000	.

The three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 18% explained of variance in SMA Nuisance $F(3, 524) = 38.89$, $p < .001$. In addition, the final model with all three predictors were statistically significant. The GRS Total had the highest Beta Value ($\beta = .30$, $p < .001$), followed by HTW ($\beta = .23$, $p < .001$). As RSB was not significant and it had no effect in the model. The main differences between these results and the Greek results for this regression analysis was that the variance result was smaller for the UK sample in comparison to the Greek variance. In the UK model RSB had no effect while it did have an effect for the Greek model. The main similarities were that the models for both countries were significant, and the GRS had the highest effect in both models.

Table 8.20 Effect of GRS, HTW on SMA Nuisance (UK sample)

	R^2	β	*B*	*SE*	CI 95% (B) Lower Bound	CI 95% (B) Upper Bound	*T*	*p*
Model	.18*							
GRS		.30*	.26	.04	.18	.33	6.97	.000
RSB		-.04	-.01	.01	-.04	.01	-.96	.34
HTW		.23*	.11	.02	.07	.15	5.08	.000

*Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

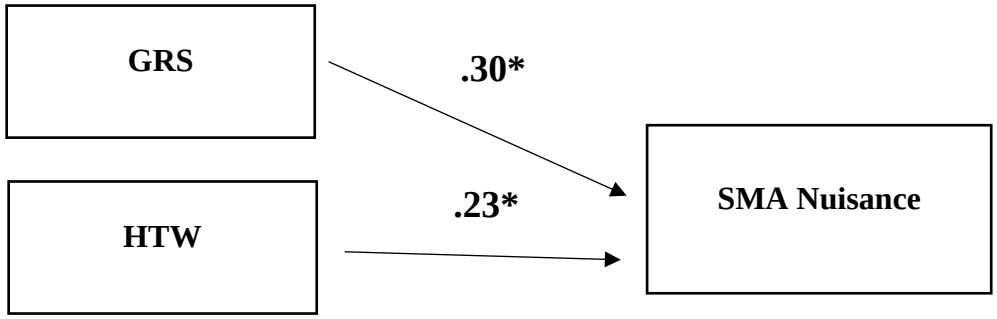

*Figure 8.10 Model of the Link between GRS, HTW and SMA Nuisance (UK sample) Note. Statistical significance: *p < .001.*

8.4Conclusion

In conclusion, to examine the hypothesis if GRS, RSB and HTW high scores could predict high scores for SMA subscales and SMA Total. All the models that were examined were found to be statistically significant. In the Greek sample Gender Role Stereotypes was found to be the highest predictor amongst the other two predictors (RSB and HTW) in all the models. In comparison to the Greek sample, the UK sample models were also found to be statistically significant. In all but two models Gender Role Stereotype was found to be the highest predictor in comparison to the other two predictors (RSB and HTW). The two exemptions were found in the models for the SMA Total and the SMA subscale for Flattery, where the highest predictor was Hostility towards Women. The main difference for between the two samples was the for the UK sample the Romantic Scale Belief was not statistically significant for any of the models so it was excluded in all of them. Overall, it was evident that if people endorsed Gender Role Stereotypes, they would also endorse Stalking Myths.

CHAPTER 9:

SSA Victimization and Perpetration (Greek sample and United Kingdom sample)

9.1SSA Victimization and Perpetration Introduction

In this chapter an SSA analysis was conducted to examine what themes would emerge from the behaviours the Greek and the UK participants experience during their stalking victimization and perpetration and compare the results between the two countries. The SSA analysis program was chosen as it calculates the association coefficients between all the variables and these coefficients then can be used to create a spatial representation with points that are representing the variables. More specifically, the stalking behaviours that will co- occurred more often during the stalking incidents the participants experienced those incidents will be represented as points and will be found closer together in the SSA plot. The pattern of the points was examined, and the thematic structures were outlined in this chapter for both samples for victimization and perpetration.

9.2Victimization

9.2.1 Smallest Space Analysis (Victimization Behaviours Greek sample)

To examine what themes, emerge from the behaviours the Greek participants experience during their stalking victimization a Smallest Space Analysis (SSA-I) was carried out. The 3- dimensional SSA solution has a Guttman – Lingoes coefficient of alienation .09332, which according to Guttman is a “good fit” as any coefficient of alienation that is lower than .16 is considered highly reliable. The projection of the resulting configuration can be seen in figure.

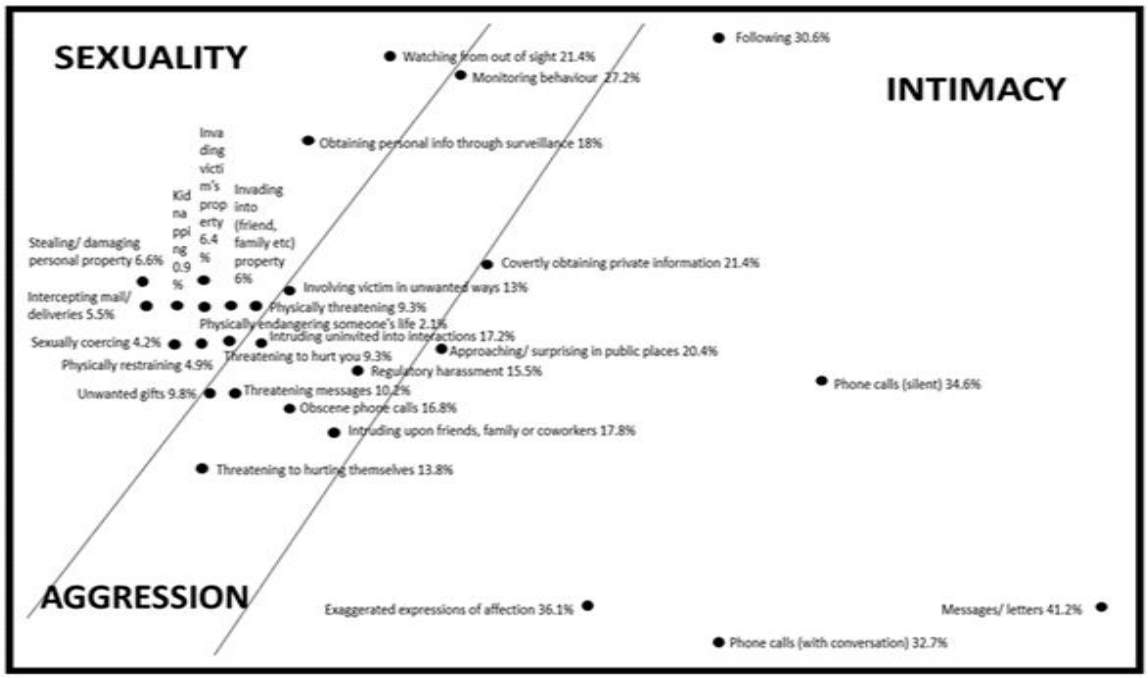

Figure 9.1 SSA plot for Victimization themes for the Greek sample

To examine if the framework that was created in stalking literature that there are different modes of interactions between the perpetrator and the victim would be identified in cases of self-identifying victimization the SSA was conducted (Canter & Ioannou, 2004; Groves, Salfati, & Elliot, 2004; Häkkänen, Hagelstam, & Santtila, 2003). The hypothesis for the SSA is that variables (stalking behaviours) that are found closely together in the geometrical plot will be grouped into a theme. Upon examination of the SSA plot visual it illustrates that the plot can be separated into three distinct regions or themes (see Figure 9.1). The three themes that were identified are labelled Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality, which correspond with the previous findings in stalking literature (Canter & Ioannou, 2004).

9.2.1.1 Intimacy

The first theme that was identified in the SSA plot was Intimacy, were the perpetrator it trying to get close to their victim. The seven variables in this theme are:

- Messages/Letters
- Exaggerated expressions of affection
- Phone calls (silent)
- Phone calls (with conversation)

- Following
- Covertly obtaining information
- Approaching/surprising in public places

The behaviours in this theme are mostly considered as part of the traditional romantic behaviours according to cultural beliefs, such as sending messages/letters, making phone calls with conversation, and making exaggerated expressions of affection. Simultaneously, in this theme there are the first signs that this overall behaviour that is experienced by the victim is not a typical courtship behaviour. Behaviours such as following, and silent phone calls are not what people considered "normal" behaviours but these behaviours that can cause fear, worry, and can cause an individual to feel threatened. The five variables that have been identified in the Intimacy theme and their frequencies can be found in the Table 9.1 that follows.

Table 9.1 Intimacy theme (Victimization) and the variables frequencies (Greek sample)

VARIABLE	**% of the sample**
Messages/Letters	41.2%
Exaggerated expressions of affection	36.1%
Phone calls (silent)	34.6%
Phone calls (with conversation)	32.7%
Following	30.6%
Covertly obtaining information	21.4%
Approaching/surprising in public places	20.4%

9.2.1.2 Aggression

Aggression is the next theme that was identified in the SSA plot and in this theme, there are nine variables:

- Monitoring Behaviour
- Intruding upon friends, family, or co-workers
- Intruding uninvited into interactions
- Obscene phone calls

- Regulatory harassment
- Threatening to hurt themselves
- Involving victim in unwanted ways
- Threatening messages
- Unwanted gifts

In this theme the behaviours become more dangerous and violent compared to the behaviours found in the previous theme. From sending unwanted gifts to the victim, to monitoring the victim's behaviour and covertly obtaining information, the perpetrator is exhibiting behaviours that are more dangerous towards the victim than in the previous theme. Approaching their victim in public and intruding uninvited into their interactions and their friends and family to sending threatening messages and regularly harassing them. It is the perpetrator attempts to "control" their victim, their life, and effect the relationships they have with other individual such as their friends and family. The perpetrator is trying to humiliate, threaten and alienate their victim from everyone and everything in their life. All nine behaviours that have been identified in the Aggression theme and their frequencies can be found in the Table 9.2 that follows.

Table 9.2 Aggression theme (Victimization) and the variables frequencies (Greek sample)

VARIABLE	**% of the sample**
Monitoring Behaviour	27.2%
Intruding upon friends, family, or co-workers	17.8%
Intruding uninvited into interactions	17.2%
Obscene phone calls	16.8%
Regulatory harassment	15.5%
Threatening to hurt themselves	13.8%
Involving victim in unwanted ways	13%
Threatening messages	10.2%
Unwanted gifts	9.8%

9.2.1.3 Sexuality

The final theme that was identified in the SSA plot was the Sexuality theme, despite their being only one prominent sexual variable, the other variables a personal and a probably sexual component. In this theme there are twelve variables:

- Watching from out of sight
- Obtaining personal information through surveillance
- Physically threating
- Threatening to hurt you
- Stealing/ Damaging personal property
- Invading victim's property
- Invading into (friend, family etc) property
- Intercepting mail/deliveries
- Physically restraining
- Sexually coercing someone
- Physically endangering someone's life
- Kidnapping

In this theme the behaviours are the most violent and dangerous from all the three themes. There are behaviours that carry a sexual innuendo and are predatory such as watching from out of sight, obtaining personal information through surveillance and invading into the victim's property. Furthermore, the perpetrator is moving from simply wanting to control the victim's life towards possessing them and everything the victim owns. All twelve behaviours that have been identified in the Sexuality theme and their frequencies can be found in the Table 9.3 that follows.

Table 9.3 Sexuality theme (Victimization) and the variable frequencies (Greek sample)

VARIABLE	**% of the sample**
Watching from out of sight	21.4%
Obtaining personal information through surveillance	18%
Physically threating	9.3%
Threatening to hurt you	9.3%
Stealing/ Damaging personal property	6.6%

Invading victim's property	6.4%
Invading into (friend, family etc) property	6%
Intercepting mail/deliveries	5.5%
Physically restraining	4.9%
Sexually coercing someone	4.2%
Physically endangering someone's life	2.1%
Kidnapping	0.9%

9.2.2 Themes of the Stalking Behaviours (Victimization UK sample)

To examine what themes, emerge from the behaviours the Greek participants experience during their stalking victimization a Smallest Space Analysis (SSA-I) was carried out. The 3- dimensional SSA solution has a Guttman – Lingoes coefficient of alienation .19799, which according to Guttman is a "good fit" as any coefficient of alienation that is lower than .16 is considered highly reliable. The projection of the resulting configuration can be seen in Figure 9.2. For the UK sample the hypothesis for the SSA remains the same as the one for the Greek sample, if the variables (stalking behaviours) that are found to be closely together in the geometrical plot then they will be grouped into a theme. After examining the SSA plot visual it was evident that the plot could be separated into three distinct regions or themes (see Figure 9.2). In this section the themes that were found were, Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality, which once again correspond with the previous findings in stalking literature (Canter & Ioannou, 2004).

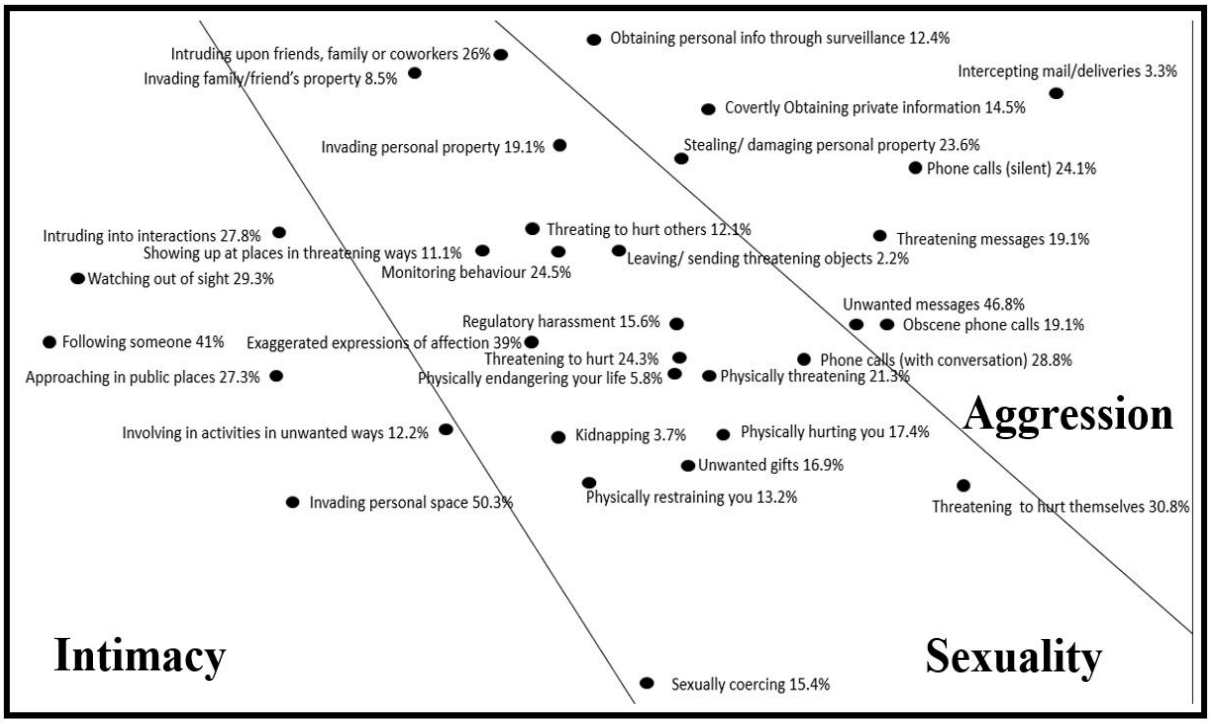

Figure 9.2 SSA plot for Victimization themes for the UK sample

9.2.2.1 Intimacy

The first theme that was identified for the UK sample was Intimacy which was also identified in the Greek SSA for victimization, the perpetrator is trying to get closer to their victim. In this theme there are six variables:

- Invading your personal space
- Being Followed
- Watching from out of sight
- Intruding uninvited into your interactions
- Approaching or surprising you in public places
- Involving you in activities in unwanted ways

Only one of the behaviours found in this theme can be found in the Intimacy theme in the Greek sample, and that was the Approaching or surprising you in public places. Despite the different behaviours that are found in the two samples, in both Intimacy themes for both samples the perpetrator is trying to get close to their victim. The actions of the perpetrator in this theme may not be considered as "normal" courtship behaviours but simultaneously they are not considered a crime. All six

behaviours that have been identified in the Intimacy theme and their frequencies can be found in the Table 9.4 that follows.

Table 9.4 Intimacy (Victimization) and the variable frequencies (UK sample)

Behaviour	***(% of sample)***
Invading your personal space	50.3%
Being Followed	41%
Watching from out of sight	29.3%
Intruding uninvited into your interactions	27.8%
Approaching or surprising you in public places	27.3%
Involving you in activities in unwanted ways	12.2%

9.2.3.2 Sexuality

The next theme that was identified in the SSA plot for the UK sample was the Sexuality theme. This theme contains the most stalking behaviours compare to the other two themes that were found. It contains again one prominent sexual variable, but it also includes variables that have a personal and probably a sexual undertone. In this theme there are eighteen variables:

- Making exaggerated expressions of affection
- Threating to hurt themselves
- Making unwanted phone calls (with conversation)
- Intruding upon your friends, family, or co-workers
- Monitoring your behaviour
- Threatening to hurt you
- Physically threating you
- Invading your personal property
- Physically hurting you
- Being left unwanted gifts
- Engaging in regulatory harassment
- Sexual coercing someone
- Physically restraining you

- Threating to hurt others that you care about
- Showing up at the places in threatening ways
- Invading into someone's (friend, family etc) property
- Physically endangering your life
- Kidnapping or physically constraining you
- Leaving or sending you threatening objects

This theme combines behaviours that are violent and dangerous, such as the physically endangering someone's life, kidnapping, and sexual coercion. It also has behaviours that can be considered "romantic" from the media but also cultural norms, for example exaggerated expression of affections, and being left unwanted gifts. The theme combines the need of the perpetrator to control and possess the victim. Once again, the behaviour that are found in this theme are criminal offences that can be prosecuted. All nineteen behaviours that have been identified in this theme and their frequencies can be found in the Table 9.5 that follows.

Table 9.5 Sexuality theme (Victimization) and the variable frequencies (UK sample)

Behaviour	***(% of sample)***
Making exaggerated expressions of affection	39%
Threating to hurt themselves	30.8%
Making unwanted phone calls (with conversation)	28.8%
Intruding upon your friends, family, or co-workers	26%
Monitoring your behaviour	24.5%
Threatening to hurt you	24.3%
Physically threating you	21.3%
Invading your personal property	19.1%
Physically hurting you	17.4%
Being left unwanted gifts	16.9%
Engaging in regulatory harassment	15.6%
Sexual coercion	15.4%
Physically restraining you	13.2%
Threating to hurt others that you care about	12.1%
Showing up at the places in threatening ways	11.1%

Invading into someone's (friend, family etc) property	8.5%
Physically endangering your life	5.8%
Kidnapping or physically constraining you	3.7%
Leaving or sending you threatening objects	2.2%

9.2.3.3 Aggression

The final theme for the UK SSA plot is Aggression and, in this theme, there are eight variables:

- Being left unwanted messages or letters
- Making unwanted phone calls to you (silent)
- Stealing or damaging your personal property
- Making obscene phone calls to you
- Leaving you threating messages
- Covertly obtaining private information about you
- Obtaining personal information through surveillance
- Intercepting your mail or deliveries

In this Aggression theme is not a progression from the Intimacy as was in the Greek SSA plot but a separate aspect of stalking. A combination of behaviours is found that show the perpetrator is illustrating more serious and dangerous behaviours towards the victim. From behaviours such as making unwanted phone calls that are silent, to covertly obtaining information and finally to leaving threatening and stalking or damaging the victim's personal property. These behaviours are an attempt to "control" and threaten their victim and illustrate that the perpetrator will have access not only to the victim but into all their belongings and their private information. All eight behaviours that have been identified in Aggression theme and their frequencies can be found in the Table 9.6 that follows.

Table 9.6 Aggression theme (Victimization) and the variable frequencies (UK sample)

Behaviour	***(% of sample)***
Being left unwanted messages or letters	46.8%
Making unwanted phone calls to you (silent)	24.1%
Stealing or damaging your personal property	23.6%
Making obscene phone calls to you	19.1%
Leaving you threating messages	19.1%
Covertly obtaining private information about you	14.5%
Obtaining personal information through surveillance	12.4%
Intercepting your mail or deliveries	3.3%

Overall, the themes identified in this analysis were similar to the themes identified in the Greek SSA analysis, the main differences that were identified between the two samples were that the themes were found in different locations in the SSA maps between the two countries. Another difference was that some behaviours identified in one theme in one country they were found in another theme in the other country. These differences can be attributed to cultural differences and Berry et al. (2011) defined that culture is considered as the shared way of life between a large group of people that is affected by their gender, beliefs, and their ethnicity. Culture has an impact on how people view the conception of love, and how people within the society feel, think and the behaviours they have in close relationships (Kline et al., 2008).

People communicate and show their interest and affection towards another individual differently depending on their cultural background (Hogg & Vaugham, 2014; Tang et al., 2012; Ting-Toomey, 1991). In this study this is apparent in the results, where in the intimacy for the victimization the Greek participants were approached by their perpetrator using conventional means such as messages, and phone calls to instigate contact. In the UK intimacy theme for victimization the perpetrator was trying to get closer to the victim through physical presence such as following, approaching them in public places which was also found in the Greek intimacy theme. In the behaviour there was a difference between verbal expression of interest (phone calls, messages/ Greece) and to physical expressions of interest (physically showing up where

the victim is/ UK) (Beichen & Murshed, 2015; Wilkins & Gareis, 2005). These differences in behaviours were found in the other two themes Aggression and Sexuality.

In the Sexuality theme for example for the UK sample the perpetrator illustrated more sexual behaviours in comparison the Greek sample SSA. The UK perpetrators made exaggerating expressions of affection, sent the victims unwanted gifts, and sexually coerced their victim, whilst for the Greek sample only one behaviour sexual coercion was found. When it came to the violent and threatening behaviours similarities were shown in both SSA maps that are often linked to sexual and violent crimes such as invading into someone's property (Beauregard et al., 2007; Beauregard & Leclerc, 2007; Canter & Heritage, 1989; Rebocho & Silva, 2014). In the Aggression theme for the Greek SSA the perpetrator carried out more behaviours that are considered "typical" stalking behaviours such as following or watching from out of sight. In the UK Aggression theme, the perpetrator also carried out typical stalking behaviours such as obtaining personal information, but they were also leaving unwanted messages and making phone calls.

These differences can be attributed to cultural differences and how people behave when they want to start a relationship or when the relationship has ended, and they want to reignite the relationship. Simultaneously, the stalking behaviours found in each of the themes were affected by how the participants experienced these stalking behaviours in each country. The SSA analysis groups behaviours that are experienced more often together in the same space in the plot. As the participants experienced these stalking behaviours during the incidents this was reflected in the themes that were found, which is the reason why there were similarities and differences in each theme for both samples.

9.3 Perpetration

9.3.1 Themes of Stalking Behaviour (Perpetration Greece)

The hypothesis for this section mirrors the previous in the victimization section which states that the variables (stalking behaviours) that will be found to be closely together in the geometrical SSA plot will be grouped into a theme. The examination of the SSA plot visual shows that the plot can be separated into two regions or themes (see

Figure 9.3). The two themes that were identified are labelled Aggression and Sexuality, which correspond with the previous findings in stalking literature (Canter & Ioannou, 2004). The 3- dimensional SSA solution has a Guttman – Lingoes coefficient of alienation .05364, which according to Guttman is a "good fit" as any coefficient of alienation that is lower than .16 is considered highly reliable. The projection of the resulting configuration can be seen in the Figure 9.3.

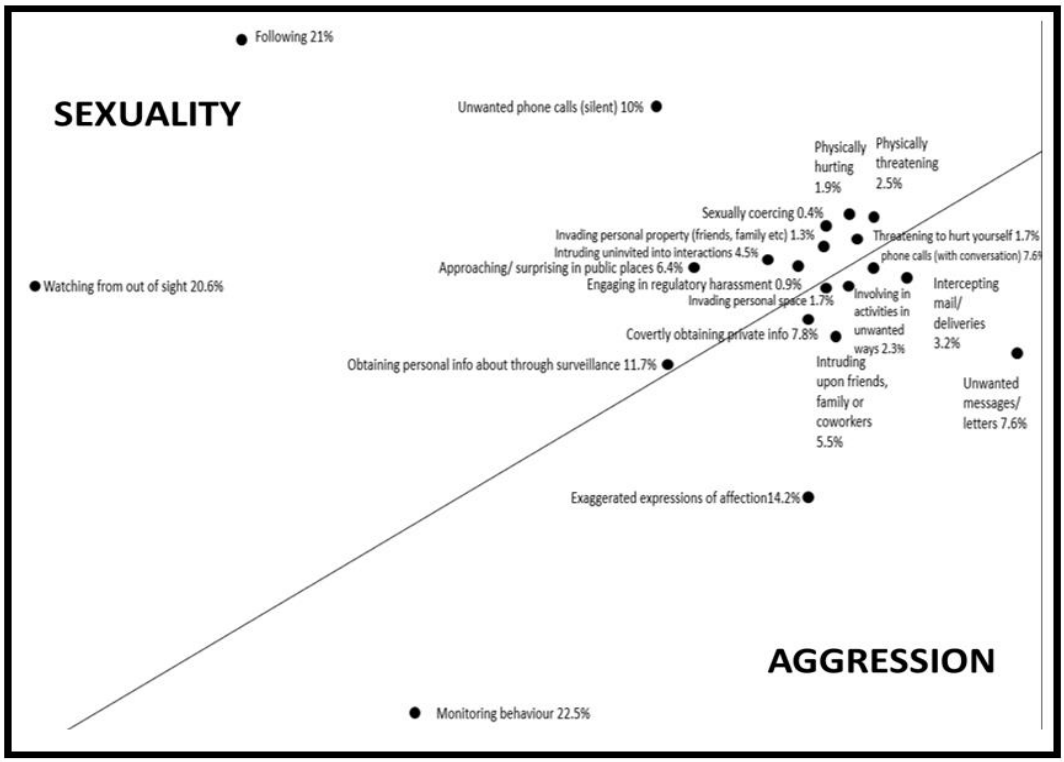

Figure 9.3 SSA plot for Perpetration themes for the Greek sample

9.3.1.1 Aggression

The first theme that was identified in the SSA plot was the Aggression theme. In this theme there are nine variables:

- Monitoring someone's behaviour
- Making exaggerated expressions of affection
- Covertly obtaining private information about someone
- Leaving unwanted messages or letters
- Making unwanted phone calls with conversation
- Intruding upon someone's friends, family, or co-workers

- Intercepting someone's mail or deliveries
- Involving someone in activities in unwanted ways
- Invading someone's personal property

In the Aggression there is a combination of behaviour that are found. This theme is complicated as the perpetrator is showing many different behaviours from "romantic" to "intrusive" to get closer to the victim. All nine behaviours that have been identified in the Aggression theme and their frequencies can be found in the Table 9.7 that follows.

Table 9.7 Aggression theme (Perpetration) and the variable frequencies (Greek sample)

Variable	***(% of sample)***
Monitoring someone's behaviour	22.5%
Making exaggerated expressions of affection	14.2%
Covertly obtaining private information about someone	7.8%
Leaving unwanted messages or letters	7.6%
Making unwanted phone calls with conversation	7.6%
Intruding upon someone's friends, family, or co-workers	5.5%
Intercepting someone's mail or deliveries	3.2%
Involving someone in activities in unwanted ways	2.3%
Invading someone's personal property	1.7%

9.3.1.2 Sexuality

The second and last theme that was found in the SSA plot was the Sexuality theme, there was only one prominent Sexual variable but again the theme contains variables that have a personal and probably a sexual undertone. In this theme there are thirteen variables:

- Following someone
- Watching someone out of sight
- Obtaining personal information through surveillance

- Making unwanted phone calls to someone silent
- Approaching or surprising someone in public places
- Intruding uninvited into someone's interactions
- Physically threatening someone
- Physically hurting someone
- Threatening to hurt yourself
- Invading into someone's (friend, family etc) property
- Physically restraining someone
- Engaging in regulatory harassment towards someone
- Sexually coercing someone

In the Sexuality theme both violent and dangerous behaviours are evident such as physically restraining someone and sexual coercion. The perpetrator is trying to control and possess the victim. The behaviours that are found in this theme are criminal offences and can be prosecuted. All nineteen behaviours that have been identified in theme and their frequencies can be found in the Table 9.8 that follows.

Table 9.8 Sexuality theme (Perpetration) and the variable frequencies (Greek sample)

Behaviour	***(% of sample)***
Following someone	21%
Watching someone out of sight	20.6%
Obtaining personal information through surveillance	11.7%
Making unwanted phone calls to someone silent	10%
Approaching or surprising someone in public places	6.4%
Intruding uninvited into someone's interactions	4.5%
Physically threatening someone	2.5%
Physically hurting someone	1.9%
Threatening to hurt yourself	1.7%
Invading into someone's (friend, family etc) property	1.3%
Physically restraining someone	1.1%
Engaging in regulatory harassment towards someone	0.9%
Sexually coercing someone	0.4%

9.3.2 Themes of Stalking Behaviour (Perpetration UK)

The hypothesis for the Perpetration variables for the UK sample are that the variables (stalking behaviours) that will be found to be closely together in the geometrical SSA plot will be grouped into a theme. The examination of the SSA plot visual shows that the plot can be separated into two regions or themes (see Figure 9.4). The three themes that were identified are labelled Aggression and Sexuality, which correspond with the previous findings in stalking literature (Canter & Ioannou, 2004). The 3- dimensional SSA solution has a Guttman – Lingoes coefficient of alienation .09771, which according to Guttman is a "good fit" as any coefficient of alienation that is lower than .16 is considered highly reliable. The projection of the resulting configuration can be seen in the Figure 9.4.

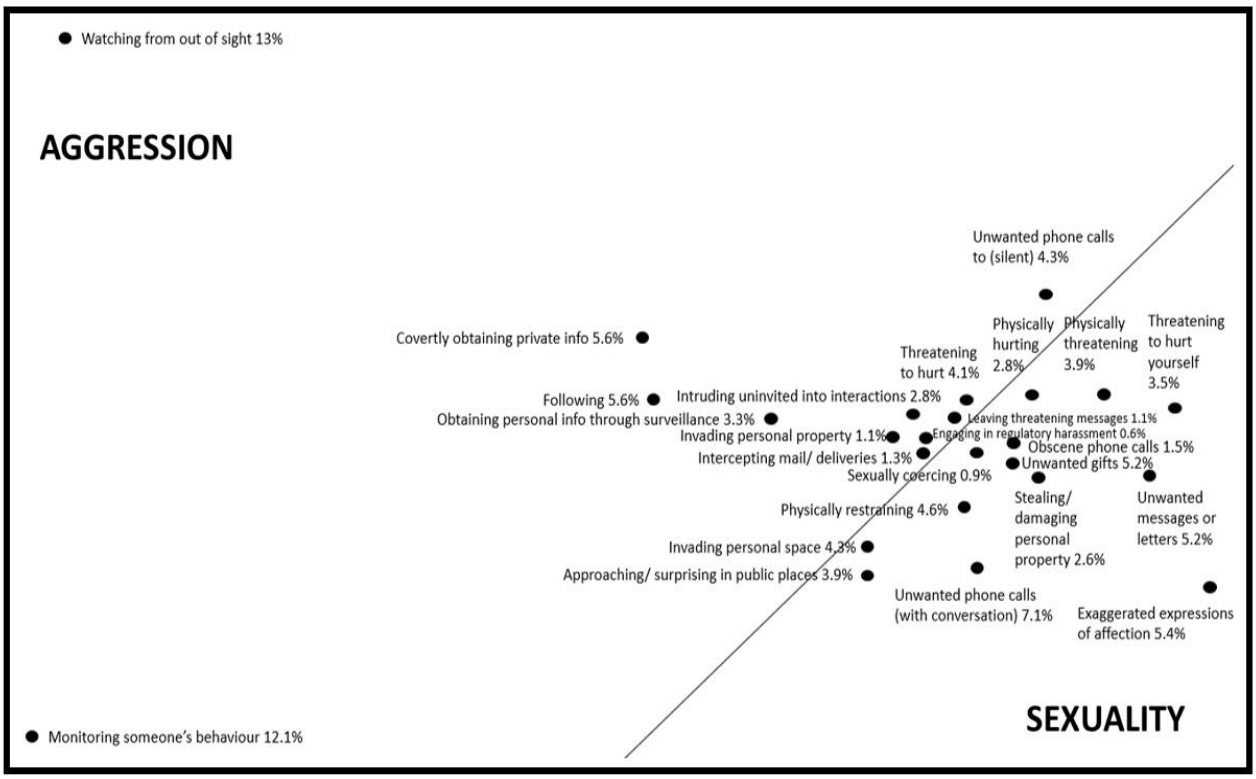

Figure 9.4 SSA plot for Perpetration themes for the UK sample

9.3.2.1 Aggression

The first theme that was identified in the SSA plot was the Aggression theme. In this theme there are twelve variables:

- Watching Someone from out of sight
- Monitoring someone's behaviour
- Following Someone
- Covertly obtaining private information about someone
- Making unwanted phone calls to someone (silent)
- Threating to hurt someone
- Obtaining personal information through surveillance
- Intruding uninvited into someone's interactions
- Intercepting someone's mail or deliveries
- Invading someone's personal property
- Leaving someone threating messages
- Engaging in regulatory harassment towards someone

The behaviours that are found in this theme are more threatening than romantic behaviours. The perpetrator wants to control and cause their victim to be fearful, all their actions indicate this from following them to making unwanted silent phone calls and leaving threating messages. All twelve behaviours that have been identified in theme and their frequencies can be found in the Table 9.9 that follows.

Table 9.9 Aggression theme (Perpetration) and the variable frequencies (UK sample)

Behaviour	***(% of sample)***
Watching Someone from out of sight	13%
Monitoring someone's behaviour	12.1%
Following Someone	5.6%
Covertly obtaining private information about someone	5.6%
Making unwanted phone calls to someone (silent)	4.3%
Threating to hurt someone	4.1%
Obtaining personal information through surveillance	3.3%
Intruding uninvited into someone's interactions	2.8%
Intercepting someone's mail or deliveries	1.3%
Invading someone's personal property	1.1%
Leaving someone threating messages	1.1%
Engaging in regulatory harassment towards someone	0.6%

9.3.2.2 Sexuality

The last theme that was found in the SSA plot was the Sexuality theme. Once again as was illustrated with the previous Sexuality themes that were identified in the victimization section there was only one prominent Sexual variable but again the theme contains variables that have a personal and probably a sexual undertone. In this theme there are thirteen variables:

- Making unwanted phone calls to someone (with conversation)
- Making exaggerated expressions of affection
- Leaving Unwanted gifts
- Unwanted messages/letters
- Physically restraining someone
- Invading into someone's personal space
- Approaching or surprising someone in public
- Physically threatening someone
- Threating to hurt yourself
- Physically hurting
- Stealing or damaging someone's personal property
- Making obscene phone calls
- Sexually coercing someone

The Sexuality theme combines some "romantic" behaviour alongside threatening and violent behaviours. The romantic behaviours such as making exaggerated expressions of affection and leaving unwanted gifts as an attempt to either rekindle the relationship with their victim or for the relationship to start. The behaviours then move to more dangerous and criminal behaviours that are criminal offences such as stealing and damaging someone personal property to sexual coercing someone. All thirteen behaviours that have been identified in theme and their frequencies can be found in the Table 9.10 that follows.

Table 9.10 Sexuality theme (Perpetration) and the variable frequencies (UK sample)

Behaviour	***(% of sample)***
Making unwanted phone calls to someone (with conversation)	7.1%
Making exaggerated expressions of affection	5.4%
Leaving Unwanted gifts	5.2%
Unwanted messages/letters	5.2%
Physically restraining someone	4.6%
Invading into someone's personal space	4.3%
Approaching or surprising someone in public	3.9%
Physically threatening someone	3.9%
Threating to hurt yourself	3.5%
Physically hurting	2.8%
Stealing or damaging someone's personal property	2.6%
Making obscene phone calls	1.5%
Sexually coercing someone	0.9%

Overall, there were some similarities and differences between the two SSA plots for victimization that were produced by the analysis. The similarities that were found was that in both plots the themes of Aggression and Sexuality were identified. The differences lay within the behaviours identified in the themes for each country. Once again culture plays a role in how people behave in certain situations such as interpersonal relationships (Hogg & Vaugham, 2014; Tang et al., 2012; Ting-Toomey, 1991). The other aspect that effected which behaviours were found in each theme was the frequency in which they occurred/ were carried out together by the perpetrators during the incident. The SSA analysis will place behaviours that co-occur together in close proximity in the SSA plot. More specifically, it means that in the Sexuality for example two behaviours some of the offenders used during the stalking incident which were threatened to hurt himself/ herself and physically hurting the victim, for them to occur in the same theme the participants/ perpetrators illustrated the same pattern of behaviour.

9.4 Reliability of themes

To ensure that all the themes that were identified for both samples and for the victimization and the perpetration were reliable the Cronbach's alpha was examined for all themes. For the scale to be reliable the α coefficient of reliability ranges between 0 and 1. The closer the Cronbach's alpha is to 1 the more reliable the scale will be, the recommended minimum for the Cronbach's alpha for a scale is between .65 and .80.

Despite the recommended minimum for a Cronbach's alpha being at 0.65, Nunnaly and Bernstein, (1994) argue that the acceptable minimum for any new scale that has been developed is .70. Anything less than 0.5 is considered unacceptable for any scale. The scales that have been developed from this research have varying Cronbach's alpha with scores between .69 to .88. For the Victimization scales that were identified for the Greek sample the Cronbach's alpha were, for the scale of Intimacy the alpha was α=.77, for the scale of Aggression the alpha was α=.75 and for the final theme of Sexuality the alpha was α=.71.

For the Victimization scales that were identified for the UK sample the Cronbach's alpha were, for the scale of Intimacy the alpha was α=.76, for the scale of Sexuality the alpha was α=.88 and for the final theme of Aggression the alpha was α=.75. For the Perpetration scales that were identified for the Greek sample the Cronbach's alpha were, for the scale of Aggression the alpha was α=.69 and for the theme of Sexuality the alpha was α=.70. For the Perpetration scales that were identified for the UK sample the Cronbach's alpha were, for the scale of Aggression the alpha was α=.71 and for the theme of Sexuality the alpha was α=.71. All the Cronbach's alpha for all the scales and the Cronbach's alpha if an item is deleted for both Perpetration and Victimization for both samples can be found in the tables that follow.

9.4.1 Tables for Victimization themes (Greek Participants)

Table 9.11 Victimization themes for the Greek participants and alpha if item is deleted (Theme Intimacy)

		THEME		
	INTIMACY	**Cronbach's alpha if Item Delete**	**Number of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
ITEMS	Messages/Letters	.74	7	.77
	Exaggerated expressions of affection	.76		
	Phone calls (silent)	.75		
	Phone calls (with conversation)	.74		
	Following	.75		
	Covertly obtaining information	.74		
	Approaching/surprising in public places	.74		

Table 9.12 Victimization themes for the Greek participants and alpha if item is deleted (Theme Aggression)

		THEME		
	AGGRESSION	**Cronbach's alpha if Item Delete**	**Number of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
ITEMS	Monitoring Behaviour	.73	9	.75
	Intruding upon friends, family, or co-workers	.71		
	Intruding uninvited into interactions	.73		
	Obscene phone calls	.75		
	Regulatory harassment	.72		
	Threatening to hurt themselves	.73		
	Involving victim in unwanted ways	.71		
	Threatening messages	.73		
	Unwanted gifts	.74		

Table 9.13 Victimization themes for the Greek participants and alpha if item is deleted (Theme Sexuality)

		THEME		
	SEXUALITY	**Cronbach's alpha if Item Delete**	**Number of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
ITEMS	Watching from out of sight	.70	12	.71
	Obtaining personal information through surveillance	.68		
	Physically threating	.67		
	Threatening to hurt you	.66		
	Stealing/ Damaging personal property	.70		
	Invading victim's property	.67		
	Invading into (friend, family etc) property	.68		
	Intercepting mail/deliveries	.71		
	Physically restraining	.69		
	Sexually coercing someone	.70		
	Physically endangering someone's life	.69		
	Kidnapping	.70		

9.4.2 Tables for Victimization themes (UK Participants)

Table 9.14 Victimization themes for the UK participants and alpha if item is deleted (Theme Intimacy)

		THEME		
	INTIMACY	**Cronbach's alpha if Item Delete**	**Number of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
ITEMS	Invading your personal space	.72	6	.76
	Being Followed	.72		
	Watching from out of sight	.72		

	Intruding uninvited into your interactions	.71
	Approaching or surprising you in public places	.71
	Involving you in activities in unwanted ways	.74

Table 9.15 Victimization themes for the UK participants and alpha if item is deleted (Theme Aggression)

	THEME			
	AGGRESSION	**Cronbach's alpha if Item Delete**	**Number of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
ITEMS	Being left unwanted messages or letters	.74	8	.75
	Making unwanted phone calls to you (silent)	.70		
	Stealing or damaging your personal property	.73		
	Making obscene phone calls to you	.70		
	Leaving you threating messages	.71		
	Covertly obtaining private information about you	.72		
	Obtaining personal information through surveillance	.73		
	Intercepting your mail or deliveries	.75		

Table 9.16 Victimization themes for the UK participants and alpha if item is deleted (Theme Sexuality)

	THEME			
	SEXUALITY	**Cronbach's alpha if Item Delete**	**Number of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
ITEMS	Making exaggerated expressions of affection	.87	19	.88
	Threating to hurt themself	.87		
	Making unwanted phone calls (with conversation)	.87		

	Intruding upon your friends, family, or co-workers	.87
	Monitoring your behaviour	.87
	Threatening to hurt you	.87
	Physically threating you	.86
	Invading your personal property	.87
	Physically hurting you	.86
	Being left unwanted gifts	.87
	Engaging in regulatory harassment	.87
	Sexual coercion	.87
	Physically restraining you	.87
	Threating to hurt others that you care about	.87
	Showing up at the places in threatening ways	.87
	Invading into someone's (friend, family etc) property	.87
	Physically endangering your life	.87
	Kidnapping or physically constraining you	.87
	Leaving or sending you threatening objects	.87

9.4.3 Tables for Perpetration themes (Greek Participants)

Table 9.17 Perpetration themes for the Greek participants and alpha if item is deleted (Theme Aggression)

	THEME			
	AGGRESSION	**Cronbach's alpha if Item Delete**	**Number of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
ITEMS	Monitoring someone's behaviour	.66	9	.69
	Making exaggerated expressions of affection	.66		
	Covertly obtaining private information about someone	.65		
	Leaving unwanted messages or letters	.65		

	Making unwanted phone calls with conversation	.65
	Intruding upon someone's friends, family, or co-workers	.66
	Intercepting someone's mail or deliveries	.68
	Involving someone in activities in unwanted ways	.67
	Invading someone's personal property	.69

Table 9.18. Perpetration themes for the Greek participants and alpha if item is deleted (Theme Sexuality)

		THEME		
	SEXUALITY	**Cronbach's alpha if Item Delete**	**Number of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
ITEMS	Following someone	.65	13	.70
	Watching someone out of sight	.64		
	Making unwanted phone calls to someone silent	.67		
	Approaching or surprising someone in public places	.66		
	Intruding uninvited into someone's interactions	.67		
	Physically threatening someone	.69		
	Physically hurting someone	.69		
	Threatening to hurt yourself	.69		
	Invading into someone's (friend, family etc) property	.69		
	Physically restraining someone	.69		
	Engaging in regulatory harassment towards someone	.69		
	Sexually coercing someone	.70		

	Obtaining personal information through surveillance	.65

9.4.4 Tables for Perpetration themes (UK Participants)

Table 9.19 Perpetration themes for the UK participants and alpha if item is deleted (Theme Aggression)

	THEME			
	AGGRESSION	**Cronbach's alpha if Item Delete**	**Number of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
ITEMS	Watching Someone from out of sight	.67	12	.71
	Monitoring someone's behaviour	.68		
	Following Someone	.67		
	Covertly obtaining private information about someone	.68		
	Making unwanted phone calls to someone (silent)	.70		
	Threating to hurt someone	.71		
	Obtaining personal information through surveillance	.68		
	Intruding uninvited into someone's interactions	.71		
	Intercepting someone's mail or deliveries	.71		
	Invading someone's personal property	.71		
	Leaving someone threating messages	.71		
	Engaging in regulatory harassment towards someone	.72		

Table 9.20 Perpetration themes for the UK participants and alpha if item is deleted (Theme Sexuality)

		THEME		
	SEXUALITY	**Cronbach's alpha if Item Delete**	**Number of Items**	**Cronbach's alpha**
ITEMS	Making unwanted phone calls to someone (with conversation)	.69	13	.71
	Making exaggerated expressions of affection	.68		
	Leaving Unwanted gifts	.70		
	Unwanted messages/letters	.68		
	Physically restraining someone	.70		
	Invading into someone's personal space	.71		
	Approaching or surprising someone in public	.70		
	Physically threatening someone	.69		
	Threating to hurt yourself	.69		
	Physically hurting	.70		
	Stealing or damaging someone's personal property	.69		
	Making obscene phone calls	.70		
	Sexually coercing someone	.72		

9.5 Conclusion

In conclusion, the SSA plots for Victimization and Perpetration for both samples had similarities and differences. In the Victimizations SSA plots both samples were revealed to have similar themes, Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality. The main differences that were found between the two samples were found in where each theme was placed in the plot. Furthermore, despite having similar themes there were some differences in the behaviours that were identified in each sample for Victimization. For the Perpetrations SSA plots two themes were identified for each sample Aggression and Sexuality. Similarly, to the Victimization findings there were some differences in the behaviours that were found in the same themes for each sample for the Perpetration SSA plots. Overall, the most prominent behaviours for each theme for the Victimization and the Perpetration were found in both samples.

CHAPTER 10:

Individual differences (Gender, Education Level and Age) in comparison with the SSA Themes for Victimization and Perpetration

10.1 Individual differences in comparison with the SSA Themes for Victimization and Perpetration Introduction

In this chapter a t-test and an ANOVA were carried out to examine the relationship between the themes that were derived from the SSA analysis and demographics background (gender, level of education and age). Furthermore, to examine the relationship between the themes that were derived from the victimization SSA analysis and if the participants had ever experienced stalking or not; and if they had asked for help when they were being stalked or not for both samples and compare the results between the two countries. Finally, to examine the relationship between the themes that were derived from the perpetration SSA analysis if the participants had ever stalked anyone or not; and if they had ever been contacted by someone for their stalking behaviour towards someone else for the Greek and UK participants and compare the results between the two countries.

The t-test was chosen as a way to assess if the two sets of data that were examined could be statistically different from one another (Gavin, 2008). As some of the individual differences' groups (gender and questions about stalking experiences and asking for help) met the above criteria it was determined that the t-test was the most appropriate test to be conducted for this analysis. Similarly, the ANOVA is a robust test when the data are abnormally distributed and as the data that were examined in this chapter were abnormally distributed it was considered as the most fitting test to use (Blanca, Alarcó, Arnau, Bono, & Bendayan, 2017). Furthermore, for some of the individual differences such as age and educational level there were more than two groups for each, which makes the ANOVA the most suitable test to use for the analysis.

10.2Background of SSA themes

In the previous chapter, three new themes were discovered and created for the Victimization SSA plots Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality and for the Perpetration SSA plots two new themes were discovered and created Aggression and Sexuality. In this chapter the themes that were discovered will be examined to see if the demographic backgrounds (gender, level of education and age), experience with stalking (victimization and perpetration) and asking for help or being contacted about their stalking behaviour towards someone else could predict experiencing and conducting more stalking behaviours in each theme for Victimization and Perpetration.

10.3Victimization

10.3.1Greek sample

10.3.1.1 Gender

The first demographic information that was examined was gender. A t-test was carried out for all the three new themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) to see if they would be any gender differences in the amount of stalking behaviours experienced. An independent-samples t-test indicated that women had significantly higher mean scores for stalking behaviours that they experienced (M =2.42, SD = 2.09) than men (M = 1.66, SD = 1.97), $t(527) = -4.03$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.37$ for the Intimacy scale. An independent-samples t-test indicated that women had significantly higher mean scores for stalking behaviours that they experienced (M =1.39, SD = 1.77) than men (M = 1.00, SD = 1.59), $t(389) = -2.50$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.23$ for the Aggression scale. Levene's test indicated unequal variances ($F = 8.69$, $p = .003$), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 527 to 389. No significant result was found for the Sexuality theme between the two genders.

Table 10.1 T-test results for Gender differences for Intimacy, Sexuality and Aggression theme (Greek sample)

Theme	**Gender**	***N***	***M***	***SD***	***T***	***df***	***p***
Intimacy	Male	177	1.66	1.97	-4.03	527	.000
	Female	352	2.42	2.09			

Aggression	Male	177	1.00	1.59	-2.59	389	.010
	Female	352	1.39	1.77			
Sexuality	Male	177	.83	1.38	-1.22	527	.223
	Female	352	1.00	1.60			

10.3.1.2 Education Level

An ANOVA was carried out for all the three new themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) to see if there were differences between the Education groups (School, Undergraduate studies, and post-Graduate studies) and the mean scores for stalking behaviours experienced in each of themes. All the mean scores for stalking behaviours experienced in each of the new themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) for all the educational groups can be seen in the Table 10.2 that follows.

Table 10.2 Mean scores for the Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality for each Education group (Greek sample)

	Education Groups	***N***	***M***	***SD***
Intimacy	School	137	1.99	1.99
	Undergraduate studies	267	2.12	2.12
	Post- Graduate studies	125	2.44	2.07
Aggression	School	137	1.23	1.66
	Undergraduate studies	267	1.21	1.71
	Post- Graduate studies	125	1.42	1.82
Sexuality	School	137	.91	1.41
	Undergraduate studies	267	.92	1.57
	Post- Graduate studies	125	1.04	1.59

In all the themes the participants that had completed post-Graduate studies had experienced more stalking behaviours in comparison to the other two educational groups (School and Undergraduate studies) according to the mean scores that were discovered. The participants that belonged in the school educational level had experienced the least stalking behaviours for two themes Intimacy and Sexuality, and the participants in the Undergraduate studies group had experienced the least stalking

behaviours for the Aggression theme; according to the mean scores that were discovered. All the Levene's test were statistically significant ($p > 0.05$) as can be seen in Table 10.3. All the one-way ANOVAs that were carried out for the three themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) were statistically non-significant ($p > .05$), all the information can be found in the Table 10.3 that follows.

Table 10.3 One-way ANOVA's with SMA subscales for Education Level (Greek sample)

	Levene's		**ANOVA's**		
	F (2, 526)	***p***	**F (2, 526)**	***p***	η^2
Intimacy	.920	.399	1.66	.191	.006
Aggression	.175	.840	.652	.521	.002
Sexuality	.067	.935	.312	.732	.001

10.3.1.3 Age

Age was the next demographic information that was examined. An ANOVA was carried out for all the three new themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) to see if there were differences between the age groups (16-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and 56+) and the number of stalking behaviours each group experienced in each of the themes. All the mean scores for the new themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) for all the Age groups can be seen in the Table 10.4 that follows.

Table 10.4 Mean Scores for Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality for Age Groups (Greek sample)

	Age Group	***N***	***M***	***SD***
Intimacy	16-25	265	2.05	1.89
	26-35	141	2.47	2.20
	36-45	60	2.53	2.47
	46-55	26	1.85	2.36
	56+	35	1.31	1.69
Aggression	16-25	265	1.26	1.61
	26-35	141	1.38	1.92

	36-45	60	1.47	1.79
	46-55	26	1.12	2.05
	56+	35	.60	1.22
Sexuality	16-25	265	.87	1.35
	26-35	141	1.00	1.61
	36-45	60	1.22	1.89
	46-55	26	.81	1.77
	56+	35	.91	1.69

In all the themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) the 36-45 age group had experienced more stalking behaviours. The participants that belonged in the Age groups 56+ had experienced the least amount of stalking behaviours for two themes Intimacy and Aggression, and the 46-55 age group had experienced the least amount of stalking behaviours for the Sexuality theme; according to the mean scores that were discovered. Before carrying out the follow-up ANOVAs, a Levene's test was conducted to test the homogeneity of variance assumption for all the themes. One of the Levene's test was statistically significant. Two of the Levene's test were statistically non- significant ($p < .05$), as can be seen in Table 10.5. As the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not met for this data, a Welch's test was carried out which illustrated that Welch's $F(4, 98.98) = 3.38$, $p > .05$ it can be concluded that there is a difference in at least two groups from the five. For the Aggression and the Sexuality theme the ANOVAs were statistically non-significant (p>.05). The one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a difference between the age groups for the Intimacy theme $F(4, 522) = 2.39$, $p = .016$, $\eta p^2 = .023$.

Table 10.5 One-way ANOVAs with Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality subscales for Age Group (Greek sample)

	Levene's		**ANOVA**		
	F (4, 522)	***p***	**F(4, 522)**	***P***	***η²***
Intimacy	5.96	.000	2.39	.016	.023
Aggression	3.19	.013	4.46	.141	.013
Sexuality	1.49	.205	5.24	.567	.006

Note N=522, η^2=Partial eta squared

In addition, post-hoc analyses (Tukey HSD) were conducted to investigate the individual mean differences in stalking behaviours for the Intimacy theme all but two the post- hoc mean comparisons were statistically non-significant (p >.05). The two statistically significant mean comparisons (p < .05) were between the 26-35 age group and the 36-45 age group in comparison to the 56+ age group.

Table 10.6 Tukey HSD Comparison for Age Groups and the Intimacy theme (Greek sample)

					95% Confidence Interval	
Stalking Variable	**Age Group (I)**	**Age Groups**	**Mean Differences (I-J)**	**Std. Error**	**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
Intimacy	16-25	26-35	-.42	.22	-1.00	.17
		36-45	-.49	.29	-1.29	.33
		46-55	.21	.42	-.95	1.37
		56+	.74	.37	-.28	1.75
	26-45	16-25	.42	.22	-.17	1.00
		36-45	-.07	.32	-.93	.80
		46-55	.62	.44	-.58	1.83
		56+	1.15*	.39	.09	2.22
	36-45	16-25	.48	.29	-.33	1.29
		26-35	.07	.32	-.80	.93
		46-55	.69	.48	-.64	2.01
		56+	1.22*	.44	.02	2.42
Intimacy	46-55	16-25	-.21	.42	-1.37	.95
		26-35	-.62	.44	-1.83	.58
		36-45	-.69	.48	-2.01	.64
		56+	.53	.53	-.93	1.99
	56+	16-25	-.74	.37	-1.75	.28
		26-35	-1.15*	.39	-2.22	-.09
		36-45	-1.22*	.44	-2.42	-.02
		46-55	-.53	.53	-.93	1.99

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

10.3.1.4 Stalking experience

Another aspect that was examined was if there were differences between the number of behaviours that were experienced by the participants that had experienced stalking in comparison those who had not experienced stalking in the three themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality). An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had been stalked (M =3.49, SD = 1.91) than for those who had not been stalked (M = 1.41, SD = 1.78), $t(522) = 12.52$, $p < .001$, d = 1.13 for the Intimacy scale. An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had been stalked (M =2.20, SD = 1.98) than for those who had not been stalked (M = .74, SD = 1.30), $t(281) = 9.10$, $p < .001$, d =.87 for the Aggression scale. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F = 56.22 p = .000), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 522 to 281. An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had been stalked (M =1.58, SD = 1.94) than for those who had not been stalked (M = .59, SD = 1.12), $t(261) = 6.40$, $p < .001$, d =.63 for the Sexuality scale. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F = 51.56 p = .000), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 522 to 261.

Table 10.7 T-test results for stalking vs non stalking experience differences for Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality theme (Greek sample)

Theme	**Stalking**	***N***	***M***	***SD***	***T***	***df***	***p***
Intimacy	Experience	189	3.49	1.91	12.52	522	.000
	No experience	335	1.41	1.78			
Aggression	Experience	189	2.20	1.98	9.10	281	.000
	No experience	335	.74	1.30			
Sexuality	Experience	189	1.58	1.94	6.40	261	.000
	No experience	335	.59	1.12			

10.3.1.5 Asking for help

The final aspect that was investigated was if there were differences between the stalking behaviours experienced by the participants that had asked for help during their stalking incident and those who did not ask for help during their stalking experience for the three themes Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality. An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had asked for help during their stalking incident (M =4.00, SD = 1.89) than for those who did not ask for help during their stalking experience those (M = 3.05, SD = 1.99), $t(210) = 3.30$, $p < .05$, d = .49 for the Intimacy scale.

An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had asked for help during their stalking incident (M =2.68, SD = 2.09) than for those who did not ask for help during their stalking experience (M = 1.84, SD = 1.86), $t(210) = 2.94$, $p < .05$, d =.42 for the Aggression scale. An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had asked for help during their stalking incident (M =2.03, SD = 2.23) than for those who did not ask for help during their stalking experience (M = 1.24, SD = 1.65), $t(103) = 2.61$, $p < .05$, d =.40 for the Sexuality scale. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F = 5.88 p = .016), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 210 to 103.

Table 10.8 T-test results for stalking vs non stalking experience differences for Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality theme (Greek participants)

Theme	**Stalking**	***N***	***M***	***SD***	***t***	***df***	***p***
Intimacy	Ask for Help	68	4.00	1.89	3.30	210	.001
	Did not ask for Help	144	3.05	1.99			
Aggression	Ask for Help	68	2.68	2.09	2.94	210	.004
	Did not ask for Help	144	1.84	1.86			
Sexuality	Ask for Help	68	2.03	2.23	2.61	103	.010
	Did not ask for Help	144	1.24	1.65			

10.3.2 UK sample

10.3.2.1 Gender

The first demographic information that was examined for the UK sample was gender. A t-test was carried out for all the three new themes (Intimacy, Sexuality and Aggression) to see if they would be any gender differences in the number of stalking behaviours experienced in each theme. An independent-samples t-test indicated that women had significantly higher mean scores for stalking behaviours that they experienced (M =2.00, SD = 1.80) than for men (M = 1.57, SD = 1.80), $t(537) = -2.55$, $p < .05$, $d = 0.24$ for the Intimacy theme. No significant result was found for the Sexuality and the Aggression themes between the two genders. The main similarities between the UK sample and Greek sample were found in the Intimacy scale were both samples had a significant result for gender differences and the Sexuality scale were both samples had a no significant result for gender differences. The main difference was identified in the Aggression scale result for the UK sample it was not significant, whilst for the Greek sample had a significant result for gender differences.

Table 10.9 T-test results for Gender differences for Intimacy, Sexuality and Aggression theme (UK sample)

Theme	**Gender**	***N***	***M***	***SD***	***T***	***df***	***p***
Intimacy	Male	158	1.57	1.80	-2.55	537	.011
	Female	381	2.00	1.80			
Sexuality	Male	158	2.94	3.57	-1.59	537	.112
	Female	381	3.52	4.01			
Aggression	Male	158	1.39	1.82	-1.85	537	.065
	Female	381	1.72	1.87			

10.3.2.2 Education Level

An ANOVA was carried out for all the three new themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) to see if there were differences between the Education groups (School, Undergraduate studies, and post-Graduate studies) for the UK participants for the stalking behaviours that they experienced in each of the themes. All the mean scores for the stalking behaviours for the new themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) for all the educational groups can be seen in the Table 10.10 that follows.

Table 10.10 Mean scores for the Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality for each Education group (UK sample)

	Education Groups	***N***	***M***	***SD***
Intimacy	School	205	1.80	1.89
	Undergraduate studies	255	1.99	1.77
	Post- Graduate studies	71	1.77	1.75
Sexuality	School	205	3.59	4.55
	Undergraduate studies	255	3.29	3.36
	Post- Graduate studies	71	3.08	3.75
Aggression	School	205	1.72	2.10
	Undergraduate studies	255	1.62	1.69
	Post- Graduate studies	71	1.42	1.74

In two of the themes (Sexuality and Aggression) the participants that had completed School had experienced more stalking behaviours in comparison to the other two educational groups (Undergraduate studies and post-graduate studies). For the Intimacy theme the participants that had completed Undergraduate studies had experience more stalking behaviours compared to the other two educational groups (School and Post-graduate studies) according to the mean scores. The participants that belonged in the post-graduate educational level had experienced the least amount of stalking behaviours for all three themes Intimacy, Sexuality and Aggression, and the participants in the Undergraduate studies group had experienced the least amount of stalking behaviours for the Aggression theme according to the mean scores.

Two of the Levene's test were statistically non-significant and one Levene's test was statistically significant as can be seen in Table 10.11. According to Howell, (2009) if in the examination of the standard deviation which can been see in Table 10.10 shows that if the largest deviation was not more than four times the size of the smallest standard deviation of the corresponding variable, than the ANOVA is robust. All the one-way ANOVAs that were carried out for the three themes (Intimacy, Sexuality and Aggression) were statistically non-significant ($p > .05$), all the information can be found in the Table 10.11 that follows. The results for both samples were similar as they both

had non-significant results for all three ANOVAs for the three themes with regards to educational differences.

Table 10.11 One-way ANOVA's with SMA subscales for Education Level (UK sample)

	Levene's		ANOVA's		
	F (2, 528)	***p***	**F (2, 528)**	***p***	η^2
Intimacy	1.59	.206	.771	.463	.003
Sexuality	6.46	.002	.572	.565	.002
Aggression	6.89	.001	.691	.502	.003

10.3.2.3 Age

Age was the next demographic information that was examined. An ANOVA was carried out for all the three new themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) to see if there were differences in the amount of stalking behaviours that were experienced between the age groups (16-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and 56+) in each of the themes. All the mean scores for the stalking behaviours the new themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) for all the Age groups can be seen in the Table 10.12 that follows.

Table 10.12 Mean Scores for Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality for Age Groups (UK Participants)

	Age Group	***N***	***M***	***SD***
Intimacy	16-25	229	2.06	1.78
	26-35	129	2.02	1.76
	36-45	64	1.69	1.83
	46-55	80	1.43	1.71
	56+	35	1.49	2.09
Sexuality	16-25	229	3.27	3.51
	26-35	129	3.83	4.16
	36-45	64	3.27	4.21
	46-55	80	2.69	3.85
	56+	35	3.80	4.81
Aggression	16-25	229	1.58	1.74

26-35	129	1.85	2.00
36-45	64	1.63	1.90
46-55	80	1.31	1.88
56+	35	1.74	1.96

For two of the themes Sexuality and Aggression themes the 26-35 age group had experienced the most stalking behaviours and for the Intimacy theme the 16-25 age group had experienced the most stalking behaviours according to the mean scores. In all the themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) the 46-55 age group had experienced the least stalking behaviours according to the mean scores. All but one of the Levene's test were statistically significant as can be seen in Table 10.13. According to Howell, (2009) if in the examination of the standard deviation which can been see in Table 10.11 shows that the largest deviation was not more than four times the size of the smallest standard deviation of the corresponding variable, than the ANOVA is robust. The one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a difference between the age groups for the Intimacy theme $F(4, 532) = 2.63$, $p = .034$, $\eta p^2 = .019$. For the other two themes (Aggression and Sexuality) the ANOVAs were statistically non-significant ($p > .05$), all the information can be found in the Table 10.13 that follows. The results were similar to the results of the Greek sample with the Intimacy theme having a significant ANOVA result for age differences and the Aggression and Sexuality themes having a non-significant result for both samples.

Table 10.13 One-way ANOVAs with Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality subscales for Age Group (UK sample)

	Levene's		**ANOVA**		
	F (4, 532)	***p***	**F(4, 532)**	***P***	η^2
Intimacy	.846	.497	2.63	.034	.019
Sexuality	2.47	.044	1.21	.305	.009
Aggression	1.18	.320	1.12	.348	.008

Note N=532, η^2=Partial eta squared

In addition, post-hoc analyses (Tukey HSD) were conducted to investigate the individual mean differences for the Intimacy theme all the post- hoc mean comparisons for the stalking behaviours were statistically non-significant (p >.05).

Table 10.14 Tukey HSD Comparison for Age Groups and the Intimacy theme (UK sample)

Stalking Variable	Age Group (I)	Age Groups	95% Confidence Interval			
			Mean Differences (I-J)	Std. Error	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Intimacy	16-25	26-35	.04	.20	-.50	.58
		36-45	.37	.25	-.32	1.06
		46-55	.63	.23	-.01	1.27
		56+	.57	.33	-.32	1.46
	26-45	16-25	-.04	.20	-.58	.50
		36-45	.33	.27	-.42	1.08
		46-55	.59	.26	-.11	1.29
		56+	.53	.34	-.41	1.47
	36-45	16-25	-.37	.25	-1.06	.32
		26-35	-.33	.27	-1.08	.42
		46-55	.26	.30	-.56	1.09
		56+	.20	.38	-.83	1.23
Intimacy	46-55	16-25	-.63	.23	-1.27	.01
		26-35	-.59	.26	-1.29	.11
		36-45	-.26	.30	-1.09	.56
		56+	-06	.36	-1.06	.93
	56+	16-25	-.57	.33	-1.46	.32
		26-35	-.53	.34	-1.47	.41
		36-45	-.20	.38	-1.23	.83
		46-55	.06	.36	-.93	1.06

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

10.3.2.4 Stalking experience

The next aspect that was examined was if there were differences between the number of stalking behaviours experienced by the UK participants, for those participants that had experienced stalking and those who had not experienced stalking for all the three themes Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality. An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had experienced stalking (M =3.00, SD = 1.83) than for those who had not experienced stalking (M = 1.05, SD = 1.27), $t(379) = 13.76$, $p < .001$, d = 1.24 for the Intimacy scale. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F = 43.09 p = .000), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 537 to 379. An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had experienced stalking (M =5.71, SD = 4.34) than for those who had not experienced stalking (M = 1.62, SD = 2.34), $t(323) = 12.93$, $p < .001$, d =1.13 for the Sexuality scale.

Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F = 89.76 p = .000), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 537 to 323. An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had experienced stalking (M =2.72, SD = 1.98) than for those who had not experienced stalking (M = .81, SD = 1.25), $t(356) = 12.80$, $p < .001$, d =1.15 for the Aggression scale. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F = 79.67 p = .000), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 537 to 356. The results were similar to the Greek sample's results as all three t-test had a significant result for all three themes for people stating that they had experienced stalking vs people who stated that they had not experienced stalking.

Table 10.15 T-test results for stalking vs non stalking experience differences for Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality theme (UK sample)

Theme	**Stalking**	***N***	***M***	***SD***	***T***	***df***	***p***
Intimacy	Experience	228	3.00	1.83	13.76	379	.000
	No experience	311	1.05	1.27			
Sexuality	Experience	228	5.71	4.34	12.93	323	.000
	No experience	311	1.62	2.34			

Aggression	Experience	228	2.72	1.98	12.80	356	.000
	No experience	311	.81	1.25			

10.3.2.5 Asking for help

Another aspect that was investigated was if there were differences in the amount the stalking behaviours experienced in the three themes Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality between the UK participants that had asked for help during their stalking incident and those who did not ask for help during their stalking experience. An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had asked for help during their stalking incident (*M* =3.36, *SD* = 1.78) than for those who did not ask for help during their stalking experience those (*M* = 2.27, *SD* = 1.84), *t*(268) = 4.89, *p* < .001, *d* = .60 for the Intimacy scale. An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had asked for help during their stalking incident (*M* =6.43, *SD* = 4.73) than for those who did not ask for help during their stalking experience (*M* = 4.34, *SD* = 3.76), *t*(214) = 3.91, *p* < .001, *d* =.49 for the Sexuality scale.

Levene's test indicated unequal variances (*F* = 8.37 *p* = .004), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 268 to 214. An independent-samples t-test indicated that significantly more stalking behaviours were experienced by the participants that had asked for help during their stalking incident (*M* =3.10, *SD* = 2.11) than for those who did not ask for help during their stalking experience (*M* = 2.06, *SD* = 1.84), *t*(228) = 4.23, *p* < .001, *d* =.53 for the Aggression scale. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (*F* = 4.13 *p* = .043), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 268 to 228. The results were similar to the Greek sample's results as all three t-test had a significant result for all three themes for people stating that they had asked for help vs people who did not asked for help.

Table 10.16 T-test results for asking for help vs not asking for help differences for Intimacy, Sexuality and Aggression theme (UK sample)

Theme	Stalking	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Intimacy	Ask for Help	116	3.36	1.78	4.89	268	.000
	Did not ask for Help	154	2.27	1.84			
Sexuality	Ask for Help	116	6.43	6.43	3.91	214	.000
	Did not ask for Help	154	4.34	4.34			
Aggression	Ask for Help	116	3.10	2.11	4.23	228	.000
	Did not ask for Help	154	2.06	1.84			

10.4Perpetration

10.4.1Greek sample

10.4.1.1 Gender

The first demographic information that was examined for the Greek sample for perpetration was gender. A t-test was carried out for the two new themes (Sexuality and Aggression) to see if they would be any gender differences in the amount of stalking behaviours experienced in each of the themes. A no significant result was found for the Aggression and the Sexuality themes between the two genders as can be seen in Table 10.17.

Table 10.17 T-test results for Gender differences for Aggression and Sexuality theme (Greek sample)

Theme	Gender	*N*	*M*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Aggression	Male	177	.74	1.33	.280	527	.779
	Female	352	.71	1.23			
Sexuality	Male	177	.75	1.32	-1.07	527	.284
	Female	352	.89	1.47			

10.4.1.2 Education Level

An ANOVA was carried out for the two new themes (Aggression and Sexuality) to see if there were differences between the Education groups (School, Undergraduate studies, and post-Graduate studies for the UK participants in the number of behaviours that they experienced in each of the themes. All the mean scores for the stalking behaviours for the new themes (Aggression and Sexuality) for all the educational groups can be seen in the Table 10.18 that follows.

Table 10.18 Mean scores for the Aggression and Sexuality for each Education group (Greek sample)

	Education Groups	***N***	***M***	***SD***
Aggression	School	137	.90	1.38
	Undergraduate studies	267	.60	1.20
	Post- Graduate studies	125	.77	1.25
Sexuality	School	137	1.13	1.68
	Undergraduate studies	267	.73	1.32
	Post- Graduate studies	125	.78	1.30

In the Aggression and the Sexuality theme the participants that had completed School had experienced the highest number of stalking behaviours in comparison to the participants that had completed Undergraduate studies and post-graduate studies; according to the mean scores that were found in the analysis. The participants that belonged in the Undergraduate educational level had experienced the lowest number of stalking behaviours for both the Aggression theme and for the Sexuality theme, according to the mean scores that were found in the analysis.

One of the Levene's test were statistically significant and one Levene's test was statistically non- significant as can be seen in Table 10.18. As the assumption of homogeneity of variance was not met for this data, a Welch's test was carried out which illustrated that Welch's $F(2, 265) = 3.06$, $p > .05$ we can conclude that is a difference in at least two groups from the three. The one-way ANOVA that was carried out for the Aggression theme was statistically non-significant ($p > .05$). The one-way ANOVA indicated that there was a difference between the education groups for the Sexuality

theme $F(2, 526) = 3.85$, $p = .022$, $\eta p^2 = .014$. All the information can be found in the Table 10.19 that follows.

Table 10.19 One-way ANOVAs with SMA subscales for Education Level (Greek sample)

	Levene's		ANOVA's		
	F (2, 526)	***p***	**F (2, 526)**	***p***	η^2
Aggression	2.96	.053	2.60	.075	.010
Sexuality	5.44	.005	3.85	.022	.014

Note N=526, η^2=Partial eta squared.

In addition, post-hoc analyses (Tukey HSD) were conducted to investigate the individual mean differences of the number of stalking behaviours experienced for the Sexuality theme for each education group, all but one the post- hoc mean comparisons were statistically non-significant (p >.05). The one statistically significant mean comparison (p < .05) was between the school educational group and the Undergraduate educational group.

Table 10.20 Tukey HSD Comparison for Education Level and SMA Total (Greek sample)

					95% Confidence Interval	
Theme	**Education Group (I)**	**Education Groups**	**Mean Differences (I-J)**	**Std. Error**	**Lower Bound**	**Upper Bound**
Sexuality	School	Undergraduate studies	.41*	.15	.06	.75
		Post Graduate Studies	.35	.18	-.06	.76
	Undergraduate studies	School	-.41*	.15	-.75	-.06
		Post Graduate Studies	-.06	.15	-.42	.30
	Post Graduate Studies	School	-.35	.18	-.76	.06
		Undergraduate studies	.06	.15	-.30	.42

* The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level

10.4.1.3 Age

Age was the next demographic information that was examined. An ANOVA was carried out for the two new themes (Aggression and Sexuality) to see if there were differences in the number of stalking behaviours that were experienced between the age groups (16-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and 56+). All the mean scores for stalking behaviours for the new themes (Aggression and Sexuality) for all the Age groups can be seen in the Table 10.21 that follows.

Table 10.21 Mean Scores for Aggression and Sexuality for Age Groups (Greek sample)

	Age Group	***N***	***M***	***SD***
Aggression	16-25	265	.75	1.33
	26-35	141	.72	1.18
	36-45	60	.83	1.38
	46-55	26	.42	.81
	56+	35	.43	1.17
Sexuality	16-25	265	.85	1.30
	26-35	141	.91	1.51
	36-45	60	.88	1.38
	46-55	26	.81	2.02
	56+	35	.54	1.60

For the theme of Aggression, the 36-45 age group had the highest stalking behaviours mean scores and for the Sexuality the 26-35 age group had the highest stalking behaviours mean score. In the theme of Aggression, the 46-55 age group had the lowest stalking behaviours mean scores and for the Sexuality theme the 56+ group had the lowest stalking behaviours mean scores. For two themes (Aggression and Sexuality) the ANOVAs were statistically non-significant ($p > .05$), all the information can be found in the Table 10.22 that follows.

Table 10.22 One-way ANOVAs with Aggression and Sexuality subscales for Age Group (Greek sample)

	Levene's		ANOVA		
	F (4, 522)	***p***	**F(4, 522)**	***p***	η^2
Aggression	2.15	.074	.984	.416	.007
Sexuality	.984	.322	.492	.742	.004

Note N=522, η^2=Partial eta squared.

10.4.1.4 Stalking experience

The next aspect that was examined was if there were differences between the mean scores of the stalking behaviours carried out by the Greek participants for each of the themes Aggression and Sexuality for the participants that had stalked someone and those who had not stalked someone else. An independent-samples t-test indicated that the stalking behaviours means scores carried out by the participants were significantly higher for those who had stalked another individual (*M* =1.91, *SD* = 2.03) than for those who had not stalked someone (*M* = .58, *SD* = 1.06), *t*(58) = 4.78, *p* < .001, *d* = 0.82 for the Aggression scale. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (*F* = 55.14 *p* = .000), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 527 to 58. An independent-samples t-test indicated that the stalking behaviours means scores carried out by the participants were significantly higher for those who had stalked another individual (*M* =2.29, *SD* = 2.21) than for those who had not stalked someone (*M* = .68, *SD* = 1.20), *t*(58) = 5.33, *p* < .001, *d* =.91 for the Sexuality scale. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (*F* = 56.25 *p* = .000), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 527 to 58.

Table 10.23 T-test results for stalking vs non stalking experience differences for Aggression and Sexuality theme (Greek sample)

Theme	**Stalking**	***N***	***M***	***SD***	***t***	***df***	***p***
Aggression	Experience	55	1.91	2.03	4.78	58	.000
	No experience	474	.58	1.06			
Sexuality	Experience	55	2.29	2.21	5.33	58	.000
	No experience	474	.68	1.20			

10.4.1.5 Asking for help

The final aspect to examine was to investigate if there were any differences between the number of stalking behaviours carried out towards someone in each of the themes Aggression and Sexuality by the participants that were contacted by an agency or another person and asked to stop their behaviour during the time they stalked someone else in comparison with the individuals that were not contacted by an agency or anyone else. This aspect was not examined as there were only two participants that were contacted by someone in comparison to the 58 that were not contacted by someone to stop their behaviour.

10.4.2 UK sample

10.4.2.1 Gender

The first demographic information that was examined for the UK sample was gender. A t-test was carried out for the two new themes (Sexuality and Aggression) to see if they would be any gender differences in the number of behaviours carried out towards another individual in each of the two themes (Sexuality and Aggression). An independent-samples t-test indicated that mean scores for stalking behaviours carried out towards another individual were significantly higher for women (M =.68, SD = 1.25) than for men (M = .35, SD = 1.03), $t(249) = 3.04$ $p < .05$, $d = 0.23$ for the Sexuality theme. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F = 22.86, p = .000), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 537 to 249. No significant result was found for the Aggression theme between the two genders. In comparison with the Greek result a difference was identified with regards to the sexuality theme, as there was a significant result in the UK sample for gender differences whilst there was a non-significant result in the Greek sample. For both samples, the Aggression theme had a no significant result for gender difference on the number of behaviours experienced.

Table 10.24 T-test results for Gender differences for Aggression and Sexuality theme (UK sample)

Theme	**Gender**	***N***	***M***	***SD***	***t***	***Df***	***p***
Aggression	Male	158	.68	1.46	1.50	233	.135
	Female	381	.49	1.09			

Sexuality	Male	158	.68	1.25	3.04	249	.003
	Female	381	.34	1.03			

10.4.2.2 Education Level

An ANOVA was carried out for the two new themes (Aggression and Sexuality) to see if there were differences between the Education groups (School, Undergraduate studies, and post-Graduate studies for the UK participants. All the mean scores for the stalking behaviours experienced by the participants for the new themes (Aggression and Sexuality) for all the educational groups can be seen in the Table 10.25 that follows.

Table 10.25 Mean scores for the Aggression and Sexuality for each Education group (UK sample)

	Education Groups	***N***	***M***	***SD***
Aggression	School	205	.57	1.30
	Undergraduate studies	255	.53	1.14
	Post- Graduate studies	71	.49	1.13
Sexuality	School	205	.40	.93
	Undergraduate studies	255	.42	1.12
	Post- Graduate studies	71	.61	1.51

In the Aggression theme the participants that had completed School had the highest mean scores for stalking behaviours that they had carried out in comparison to the participants that had completed Undergraduate and Post- graduate studies. In the Sexuality theme the participants that had completed post-graduate had the highest mean scores in comparison to the other two educational groups (School and Undergraduate studies). The participants that belonged in the post-graduate educational level had the lowest mean scores for stalking behaviours carried out towards others for the Aggression theme whilst the school educational level had the lowest mean scores for stalking behaviours carried out towards others for the Sexuality.

One of the Levene's test were statistically significant and one Levene's test was statistically non- significant as can be seen in Table 10.26. According to Howell, (2009) if in the examination of the standard deviation which can been see in Table 10.25 shows

that from in the largest deviation was not more than four times the size of the smallest standard deviation of the corresponding variable, than the ANOVA is robust. The one-way ANOVAs that were carried for both themes Aggression and Sexuality were statistically non-significant ($p > .05$). In comparison to the Greek results there was a difference, for the Sexuality theme the Greek sample had a significant result for the educational level, whilst the UK had a non- significant result. For the Aggression theme both samples had a not significant for education level differences.

Table 10.26 One-way ANOVAs for Education Level differences for Aggression and Sexuality (UK sample)

	Levene's		**ANOVA's**		
	F (2, 528)	***p***	**F (2, 528)**	***p***	η^2
Aggression	.291	.748	2.60	.900	.000
Sexuality	3.17	.043	3.85	.382	.004

Note N=528, η2=Partial eta squared.

10.4.2.3 Age

Age was the next demographic information that was examined. An ANOVA was carried out for all the two new Scale (Aggression and Sexuality) to see if there were differences between the age groups (16-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and 56+) for the stalking behaviours carried out by the participants in each age group towards others. All the mean scores for the new themes (Aggression and Sexuality) for all the Age groups can be seen in the Table 10.27 that follows.

Table 10.27 Mean Scores for Aggression and Sexuality for Age Groups (UK sample)

	Age Group	***N***	***M***	***SD***
Aggression	16-25	229	.59	1.17
	26-35	129	.60	1.31
	36-45	64	.55	1.31
	46-55	80	.41	1.13
	56+	35	.37	1.09
Sexuality	16-25	229	.52	1.22

26-35	129	.53	1.30
36-45	64	.30	.79
46-55	80	.23	.71
56+	35	.29	.67

For both themes of Aggression and Sexuality the 26-35 age group had the highest mean scores for stalking behaviours carried out towards others. In the theme of Aggression, the 56+ age group had the lowest mean scores and for the Sexuality theme the 46-55 group had the lowest mean scores for stalking behaviours carried out towards others. One of the Levene's test were statistically significant and one Levene's test was statistically non- significant as can be seen in Table 10.28. According to Howell, (2009) if in the examination of the standard deviation which can been see in Table 10.27 shows that from in the largest deviation was not more than four times the size of the smallest standard deviation of the corresponding variable, than the ANOVA is robust. For two themes (Aggression and Sexuality) the ANOVAs were statistically non-significant ($p > .05$), all the information can be found in the table 10.28 that follows. The results for the UK of the sample for the Aggression and Sexuality themes with regards to Age group differences were the same as the Greek samples, as both had non- significant results for the ANOVA test.

Table 10.28 One-way ANOVAs with Aggression and Sexuality subscales for Age Group (UK sample)

	Levene's		**ANOVA**		
	F (4, 532)	***p***	**F(4, 532)**	***P***	η^2
Aggression	1.66	.159	.587	.673	.004
Sexuality	5.91	.000	1.74	.141	.013

Note N=532, η^2=Partial eta squared.

10.4.2.4 Stalking experience

The next aspect that was examined was if there were differences between the mean scores of stalking behaviours carried out the UK participants that admitted to stalking someone else and those who had not stalked someone else with the two themes Aggression and Sexuality. An independent-samples t-test indicated that mean scores

for stalking behaviours that were carried out were significantly higher for the participants that had stalked someone else (M =1.19, SD = 1.84) than for those who had not stalked another individual (M = .37, SD = .99), $t(44) = 2.87$, $p < .05$, d =.91 for the Sexuality scale. Levene's test indicated unequal variances (F = 40.27 p = .000), so degrees of freedom were adjusted from 537 to 44. A non- significant result was found for the Aggression theme between the participants that had stalked and those who had not stalked someone else.

Differences were uncovered between the two samples as for the Greek sample both t-test for the Aggression and Sexuality theme there was a significant difference between the number of behaviours people carried out when the admitted to stalking someone else vs people stating that they had non stalked another individual. In the UK sample only one t-test had a significant result and that was for the Sexuality theme, whilst there was a non- significant result for the Aggression theme.

Table 10.29 T-test results for stalking vs non stalking experience differences for Aggression and Sexuality theme (UK sample)

Theme	**Stalking**	***N***	***M***	***SD***	***T***	***df***	***P***
Aggression	Experience	43	.86	1.36	1.77	537	.077
	No experience	496	.52	1.19			
Sexuality	Experience	43	1.19	1.84	2.87	44	.006
	No experience	496	.37	.99			

10.4.2.5 Asking for help

The aspect of participants that were contacted by an agency or another person and asked to stop their behaviour during the time they stalked someone else in comparison with the individuals that were not contacted by an agency or anyone else was not examined. The reason for this was that only one participant was contacted by someone in comparison to the 69 that were not contacted by someone to stop their behaviour. This was similar to the Greek sample as the t-test was not carried out there as well as there were only two participants that were contacted by someone for their behaviour.

10.5Conclusion

In conclusion, both a t-test and an ANOVA's test were conducted for all the themes for Victimization and Perpetration for both sample Greek and UK. Even though, the same questions were investigated for both samples such as the same demographics, if the participants had been stalked, if they have asked for help, if they have pursued someone else and if anyone had contacted them for stalking someone else different results were identified in each sample. Significant results were identified in both samples for the Victimization themes for gender and the Intimacy theme, stalking experience, and asking for help. For the Age variable in the Greek sample the only significant difference was found for the Intimacy theme, whilst for the UK sample all three themes were significant. No significant results for found for both samples in the educations group.

Moreover, for the Perpetration themes no significant results were identified for both samples for Age. For the Greek sample, no significant results were found for gender for both themes. The UK sample had a significant result for the Sexuality theme for gender. For the Education demographic the UK sample had not significant results for both themes, whilst the Greek sample for the Sexuality theme had a significant result. The comparison for stalking another individual vs not another individual revealed that for the Greek sample for both themes they were significant results, whilst for the UK sample only the Sexuality theme had a significant result. Finally, in both samples someone contacting the participants about their behaviour vs not contacting was not examined as the asking for help group had a small sample size.

CHAPTER 11:

Correlations of SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW with the SSA themes of Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality

11.1Correlations of SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW with the SSA themes Introduction

In this final chapter of the results section, it was investigated if there was a relationship between the Stalking Myths Acceptance scale, Gender Role Stereotype scale, Romantic Scale Belief and the Hostility towards Women scale and the themes that derived from the SSA analysis (Victimization and Perpetration) that have been created for both the Greek and the UK sample. To carry out this analysis a correlation was chosen to analyse the data and more specifically a Pearson's correlation which is known as one of the best methods to measure the association/ relationship that can exist between variables that are of interest for the researcher as it is based on the method of covariance.

11.2Background of SSA themes

In the previous chapter (SSA) the three new themes that were created for the Victimization SSA plots Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality and for the Perpetration SSA plots two new themes were created Aggression and Sexuality. In this chapter the relationship between the Stalking Myths Acceptance scale, Gender Role Stereotype scale, Romantic Scale Belief and the Hostility towards Women scale and the Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality themes (Victimization) that have been created was examined. Furthermore, the relationship between the Stalking Myths Acceptance scale, Gender Role Stereotype scale, Romantic Scale Belief and the Hostility towards Women scale and the Aggression and Sexuality themes (Perpetration) that have been created were also examined.

By examining the relationship of the newly developed themes for victimization and perpetration with SMA endorsement it will show for the victimization aspect if SMA endorsement will hinder or increase their ability to understand their victimization

with regards to how many behaviours they will experience. More specifically, if they are experiencing more behaviours because they excuse the offender's behaviour or because they understand that they are being victimized and they report these behaviours. For the perpetration aspect a similar examination is taking place to see if SMA endorsement will hinder or increase how many behaviours the participants carried out in each theme towards the individual they pursued.

11.3Victimization (Greek sample)

11.3.1Intimacy theme

The first theme that was examined was the Intimacy theme that was identified in the Victimization SSA plot for the Greek participants. To examine the relationship between the Intimacy theme and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and the SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) a Pearson correlation was conducted. From all the correlation that were carried out only two were significant. The relationship between the Intimacy theme and the SMA Victim Blame was examined there was a weak negative correlation between the two variables r= -.112, n= 529, p<0.01. Similarly, the relationship between the Intimacy theme and the Gender Role Stereotype scale was examined and there was a weak negative correlation between the two variables r= -.0.91, n= 528, p<0.05. All the correlations can be seen in the table 11.1 that follows.

Table 11.1 Correlations for Intimacy theme with SMA, GRS, RBS and HTW and SMA subscales (Greek sample)

Scale/ subscale	Intimacy
SMA Victim Blame	-.112*
SMA Flattery	-.028
SMA Minimizing Stalking	-.026
SMA Nuisance	-.001
SMA Total	-.043
GRS Total	-.091*
RBS Total	-.068
HTW Total	.041

*Note. Statistical significance: **p < .001, *p<0.05*

11.3.2 Aggression theme

The next theme that was examined was the Aggression theme that was identified in the Victimization SSA plot for the Greek participants. To examine the relationship between the Aggression theme and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and the SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) a Pearson correlation was conducted. From all the correlation that were carried out only one was significant. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the SMA Victim Blame was examined there was a weak negative correlation between the two variables r= -.120, n= 529, p<0.01. All the correlations can be seen in the table 11.2 that follows.

Table 11.2 Correlations for Aggression theme with SMA, GRS, RBS and HTW and SMA subscales (Greek sample)

Scale/ subscale	Aggression
SMA Victim Blame	-.120**
SMA Flattery	-.036
SMA Minimizing Stalking	-.046
SMA Nuisance	-.030
SMA Total	-.055
GRS Total	-.070
RBS Total	-.068
HTW Total	.051

*Note. Statistical significance: **p < .001.*

11.3.3 Sexuality theme

The final theme that was examined was the Sexuality theme that was identified in the Victimization SSA plot for the Greek participants. To examine the relationship between the Sexuality theme and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and the SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) a Pearson correlation was conducted. From all the correlation that were carried out only one was significant. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the Hostility towards Women was examined there was a weak positive correlation

between the two variables *r*= .095, *n*= 526, *p*<0.05. All the correlations can be seen in the table 11.3 that follows.

Table 11.3 Correlations for Sexuality theme with SMA, GRS, RBS and HTW and SMA subscales (Greek sample)

Scale/ subscale	Sexuality
SMA Victim Blame	-.051
SMA Flattery	.043
SMA Minimizing Stalking	-.004
SMA Nuisance	.012
SMA Total	.003
GRS Total	-.038
RBS Total	-.054
HTW Total	.095*

*Note. Statistical significance: *p<0.05*

11.4 Victimization (UK sample)

11.4.1 Intimacy theme

The first theme that was examined was the Intimacy theme that was identified in the Victimization SSA plot for the UK participants. To examine the relationship between the Intimacy theme and the scale (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and the SMA subscale (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) a Pearson correlation was conducted. From all the correlation that was carried out only one had a significant result. The relationship between the Intimacy theme and the Hostility towards Women was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables *r*= 107 *n*= 534, *p*<0.05. All the correlations can be seen in the table 11.4 that follows.

These results are different in comparison to the Greek sample as there were two significant correlations, whilst the UK sample had one significant correlation. Both Greek correlations were negative whilst the UK correlation was a positive correlation. Furthermore, in the Greek sample the correlations were between the Intimacy theme

and SMA Victim Blame and GRS total, whilst for the UK sample it was the correlation between the Intimacy theme and HTW.

Table 11.4 Correlations for Intimacy theme with SMA, GRS, RBS and HTW and SMA subscales (UK sample)

Scale/ subscale	Intimacy
SMA Victim Blame	.006
SMA Flattery	.027
SMA Minimizing Stalking	.019
SMA Nuisance	.022
SMA Total	.040
GRS Total	.033
RBS Total	-.053
HTW Total	.107*

*Note. Statistical significance: *p<0.05*

11.4.2 Sexuality theme

The next theme that was examined was the Sexuality theme that was identified in the Victimization SSA plot for the UK participants. To examine the relationship between the Sexuality theme and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and the SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) a Pearson correlation was conducted. From all the correlation that were carried out only one was significant. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the Hostility towards Women was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables $r = .169$, $n = 534$, $p < 0.01$. All the correlations can be seen in the table 11.5 that follows. This result is similar to the Greek sample's result as both samples had a positive significant correlation between the Sexuality theme and HTW.

Table 11.5 Correlations for Sexuality theme with SMA, GRS, RBS and HTW and SMA subscales (UK sample)

Scale/ subscale	Sexuality
SMA Victim Blame	.023
SMA Flattery	.074
SMA Minimizing Stalking	-.008
SMA Nuisance	-.002
SMA Total	.055
GRS Total	.078
RBS Total	-.033
HTW Total	.169**

*Note. Statistical significance: **p<0.01*

11.4.3 Aggression theme

The final theme that was examined was the Aggression theme that was identified in the Victimization SSA plot for the UK participants. To examine the relationship between the Aggression theme and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and the SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) a Pearson correlation was conducted. From all the correlation that were carried out only two correlations had a significant result. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the Gender Role Stereotypes scale was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= -.085, n= 537, p <0.05.

Similarly, the relationship between the Intimacy theme and the Hostility towards Women scale was examined and there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .192, n= 534, p <0.01. All the correlations can be seen in the table 11.6 that follows. These results are different in comparison to the Greek sample's correlation which was a negative significant correlation between the Aggression theme and the SMA Victim Blame. As was stated above the UK had two positive significant correlations between the Aggression theme and GRS and HTW.

Table 11.6 Correlations for Aggression theme with SMA, GRS, RBS and HTW and SMA subscales (UK sample)

Scale/ subscale	Aggression
SMA Victim Blame	.003
SMA Flattery	.065
SMA Minimizing Stalking	.005
SMA Nuisance	.015
SMA Total	.040
GRS Total	.085*
RBS Total	.013
HTW Total	.192**

*Note. Statistical significance: *p<0.05, **p < .001*

11.5Perpetration (Greek sample)

11.5.1Aggression theme

The first theme that was examined was the Aggression theme that was identified in the Perpetration SSA plot for the Greek participants. To examine the relationship between the Aggression theme and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and the SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) a Pearson correlation was conducted. From all the correlation that were carried out only one was not significant. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the SMA Victim Blame was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .145, n= 529, p<0.01. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the SMA Flattery was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .159, n= 529, p<0.01. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the SMA Minimizing Stalking was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .192, n= 529, p<0.01.

The relationship between the Aggression theme and the SMA Nuisance was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= -.178, n= 529, p<0.01. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the SMA Total was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .174, n=

529, p<0.01. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the Romantic Scale Belief was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .088, n= 527, p<0.05. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the Hostility towards Women was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= 124, n= 526, p<0.01. All the correlations can be seen in the table 11.7 that follows.

Table 11.7 Correlations for Aggression theme with SMA, GRS, RBS and HTW and SMA subscales (Greek sample)

Scale/ subscale	Aggression
SMA Victim Blame	.145**
SMA Flattery	.159**
SMA Minimizing Stalking	.192**
SMA Nuisance	.178**
SMA Total	.174**
GRS Total	.058
RBS Total	.088*
HTW Total	.124**

*Note. Statistical significance: *p<0.05, **p <0.01.*

11.5.2 Sexuality theme

The final theme that was examined was the Sexuality theme that was identified in the Perpetration SSA plot for the Greek participants. To examine the relationship between the Sexuality theme and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and the SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) a Pearson correlation was conducted. From all the correlation that were carried out only three were non-significant. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the SMA Flattery was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .131, n= 529, p <0.01. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the SMA Minimizing Stalking was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .138, n= 529, p <0.01. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the SMA Nuisance was examined there

was a weak positive correlation between the two variables *r*= .112, *n*= 529, *p* <0.05. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the SMA Total was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables *r*= .116, *n*= 529, *p* <0.01. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the Hostility towards Women was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables *r*= .153, *n*= 526, *p*<0.01. All the correlations can be seen in the table 11.8 that follows.

Table 11.8 Correlations for Sexuality theme with SMA, GRS, RBS and HTW and SMA subscales (Greek sample)

Scale/ subscale	Sexuality
SMA Victim Blame	.072
SMA Flattery	.131**
SMA Minimizing Stalking	.138**
SMA Nuisance	.112*
SMA Total	.116**
GRS Total	.077
RBS Total	.046
HTW Total	.153**

*Note. Statistical significance: *p<0.05, **p<0.01,*

11.6 Perpetration (UK sample)

11.6.1 Aggression theme

The first theme that was examined was the Aggression theme that was identified in the Perpetration SSA plot for the UK participants. To examine the relationship between the Aggression theme and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and the SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) a Pearson correlation was conducted. From all the correlation that were carried out only one was not significant. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the SMA Victim Blame was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables *r*= .148, *n*= 539, *p*<0.01. The relationship between the

Aggression theme and the SMA Flattery was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .138, n= 539, p<0.01.

The relationship between the Aggression theme and the SMA Minimizing Stalking was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .160, n= 539, p<0.01. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the SMA Nuisance was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .181, n= 539, p<0.01. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the SMA Total was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .170, n= 539, p<0.01. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the Gender Role Stereotype Scale was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .140, n= 537, p<0.01. The relationship between the Aggression theme and the Hostility towards Women was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .136, n= 534, p<0.01. All the correlations can be seen in the table 11.9 that follows.

There were some differences between these results in comparison to the Greek sample's correlations. The main two differences were identified in the Greek sample RSB was a significant positive correlation, whilst for the UK sample there was no significant correlation between the Aggression theme and RSB. Similarly, for the UK sample there was a significant positive correlation between the Aggression theme and GRS, whilst for the Greek sample there was no significant correlation between the Aggression theme and GRS.

Table 11.9 Correlations for Aggression theme with SMA, GRS, RBS and HTW and SMA subscales (UK sample)

Scale/ subscale	Aggression
SMA Victim Blame	.148**
SMA Flattery	.183**
SMA Minimizing Stalking	.160**
SMA Nuisance	.181**
SMA Total	.170**
GRS Total	.140**
RBS Total	-.033

HTW Total	.136**

*Note. Statistical significance: **p < .01,*

11.6.2 Sexuality theme

The final theme that was examined was the Sexuality theme that was identified in the Perpetration SSA plot for the UK participants. To examine the relationship between the Sexuality theme and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and the SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) a Pearson correlation was conducted. From all the correlation that were carried out only one was non-significant. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the SMA Victim Blame was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .185, n= 539, p <0.01. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the SMA Flattery was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .238, n= 539, p <0.01. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the SMA Minimizing Stalking was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .195, n= 539, p<0.01.

The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the SMA Nuisance examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .186, n= 539, p <0.01. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the SMA Total examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .215, n= 539, p <0.01. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the Gender Role Stereotype was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .167, n= 539, p<0.01. The relationship between the Sexuality theme and the Hostility towards Women was examined there was a weak positive correlation between the two variables r= .140, n= 539, p<0.01. All the correlations can be seen in the table 11.10 that follows.

These results were different in comparison to the correlations between the sexuality theme and scales for the Greek sample. In the UK sample all but one correlation had a significant positive correlation, only the correlation that had a no significant correlation was between the Sexuality and the RBS which is a similar result to the Greek sample as that correlation was also not significant. In the Greek sample besides RSB, SMA Victim Blame, and GRS also had a not significant correlation, whilst those two scales/ subscales for the UK sample had a significant positive correlation with the Sexuality theme.

Table 11.10 Correlations for Sexuality theme with SMA, GRS, RBS and HTW and SMA subscales (UK sample)

Scale/ subscale	Sexuality
SMA Victim Blame	.185**
SMA Flattery	.238**
SMA Minimizing Stalking	.195**
SMA Nuisance	.186**
SMA Total	.215**
GRS Total	.167**
RBS Total	-.012
HTW Total	.140**

*Note. Statistical significance: **p<0.01*

11.7Conclusion

In conclusion the relationship between the Victimization themes (Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality) and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) for the Greek sample revealed that the correlations were weak negatively significant; whilst for the UK sample the correlations were weak positive significant. For the Perpetration aspect the relationship between the Perpetration themes (Aggression and Sexuality) and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) and SMA subscales (SMA Victim Blame, SMA Flattery, SMA Minimizing Stalking, and SMA Nuisance) for both samples (Greece and the UK) the correlations were weak positive significant. There were less significant correlations between the Victimization themes and the scales and SMA subscales in comparison to the relationship between the Perpetration themes and the scales and SMA subscales.

DISCUSSION SECTION

Chapter 12:

Victimization and Perpetration Discussion

12.1General Discussion for Victimization and Perpetration

The overall aim of this research was to examine the nature and perceptions of stalking for Greece and the United Kingdom. One of the objectives of this research was to examine the victimization and the perpetration rates for stalking for Greece and the United Kingdom. For Greece, this type of research would be the first of its kind as stalking has not be investigated previously using both genders and examining the perpetration aspect. In the United Kingdom research has been conducted for the victimization and perpetration aspect but never in the same research. Moreover, this research was an opportunity to examine the behaviours that people who have been stalked experience but also the stalking behaviours that people conducted towards others. In addition to examine the similarities and the differences of the behaviours experienced and carried out by the participants for both samples. All the above will be discussed further in the section that follows.

12.2Victimization Discussion

12.2.1Victimization characteristics

12.2.1.1 Victimization rates

The objective for this part of the study was to investigate the victimizations rates for the Greek and the UK sample. The results of the study revealed that for the Greek sample 35.7% of the participants had experienced stalking, whilst for the UK sample 42.3% had experienced stalking. For both samples, the percentage of participants who had experienced stalking was higher than the percentage that was found in previous research which was 27% of the participants (Nobles, et al., 2009). In another self-reporting study 34.5% participants stated that they had experience stalking (Campbell & Moore, 2011). These results of that study were closer to the percentage of the Greek participants experiencing stalking but lower the then percentage for UK participants.

These samples in the studies mentioned previously have been carried out in countries with stalking legislation. It could be argued that the differences between the percentages of victimization that have been found by those studies may not be appropriate to compare with the Greek sample, as there is no anti- stalking legislation in Greece. To have a more accurate comparison for the victimization rates for the Greek sample, the results can be compared with the Portuguese victimization rates. Portugal is another European country that does not have an anti-stalking legislation or an accurate translation for the word stalking (Matos, et al., 2019). When compared to the Portuguese victimization rates (19.5%) the Greek sample's victimization rate was higher, more specifically it was almost double (35.7%). The overall victimization rate for the participants for both countries was examined in comparison to other large sample studies (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2016; Smith et al., 2017), which was 15% for those studies and in the current study the prevalence rate was more than double than that amount 39.3%. Moreover, it is evident that the results for the victimization rates for this study were higher for both samples in comparison to previous results in stalking research, as was the overall victimization rate.

The differences in the victimization rates with previous studies could be explained because of the variations of stalking definitions used in each research (Nobles, et al., 2009). In past studies researchers have avoided asking the participants about their experiences with stalking directly, as they believe it might hinder their ability to recognize that they were a victim. The participants would become reluctant to self-identify as victims, if they do not believe their experience "fits" the definition they were provided (Morris et al., 2002; Sheridan et al., 2001; Budd & Mattinson, 2000). Following this pattern, the participants in this research were provided with a broad stalking definition. Using the same definition for both samples still illustrated that there was a difference in victimization rates between the two countries.

More specifically, there was 6.6% difference between the two sample with more UK participants stating that they had experienced stalking. The intriguing fact in this victimization rate difference, is that even though Greece has no anti-stalking legislation, Greek participants still identified themselves as victims of this crime. Despite the lack of public awareness, lack of anti-stalking legislation and a recognized translation for stalking in Greek, the participants were aware that the behaviour they experienced was stalking. The broad definition that was provided to them was adequate

for them to understand their victimization and for them to admit that they were stalked by another individual.

12.2.1.2 Gender Victimization rates

The victimization rates for stalking were examined but also how each gender within the two samples was victimized. A surprising fact that was identified was that in both samples the same number of men had experienced stalking 45 (8.59%) Greek men and 45 (8.35%) UK male participants. This finding is interesting, but it also illustrates that male victimization is less then female victimization for this crime. Furthermore, the lack of legislation did not hinder male Greek participants to self-identify as victims. For female participants, more UK female participants 183 (33.95%) self-reported that they were victims of stalking in comparison to 144 Greek female participants (27.48%). These findings for the female participants align with the European Union Agency of Fundamental Rights (FRA) study in 2014, which found that more UK women (19%) had experienced stalking in comparison to Greek women (12%). In addition, when the FRA study results are compared with this study's victimization rates was higher for both samples than those for the FRA study.

Overall, the results for both samples are within the range for stalking victimization found in Spitzberg and Cupach, (2007) meta-analysis, which were between 2% to 13% for men and to 8% to 32% for women. Furthermore, the male victimization rate for this study was similar to previous studies that found a victimization rate between 2% to 12% (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013; Basile, et al., 2006; Black et al., 2011; Johnson & Thompson, 2016; Walby & Allen, 2004). For the female participants of this study their results were higher than those of previous research where the female victimization rates were between 7% to 19% (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013; Basile, et al., 2006; Black et al., 2011; Johnson & Thompson, 2016; Walby & Allen, 2004). Simultaneously, other studies have found lower percentages of stalking victimization which the results for this study contradict, such as the National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (NISVS); which reported that the victimization rates for males at 5.3% and for females at 15.8% (Breiding et al., 2014; Smith et al, 2017). Overall, the results for the female participants victimization rate in this study was either double the rate of previous studies or it would up to 6 times higher in the current study in comparison to other studies.

12.2.1.3 Stalking Acknowledgment (Victimization)

The possibility of the participants who had experienced stalking but were not aware of their own victimization was also examined. Using academic definitions and the English and Welsh legislation that require that an individual experiences two or more stalking behaviours for it to be considered stalking an analysis was conducted (Emerson et al. 1998; Meloy, et al., 2011; Mullen, et al., 2000; Logan, 2010; National Center for Victims of Crime, 2007; Ngo, 2014; Petch, 2002; Protection of Freedom Act, 2012; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2014; Tjaden, 2007; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; 2000). The examination of the participants of both samples that did not self- identify as stalking victims revealed that 169 Greek participants (50.45%) and 190 UK participants (61.09%) met the criteria that were set. This increased the victimization rate for both sample to 358 Greek participants (67.67%) and to 418 UK participants (77.55%). These results are like previous in the area of stalking which state that even though participants meet the legal stalking criteria they will not label their experience as stalking (Bondurant, 2001; Botta & Pingree, 1997; Frazier & Seales, 1997; Harned, 2004; Kahn, Mathie, & Torgler, 1994; Koss, 1985; Pitts & Schwartz, 1993; Villacampa & Pujols, 2019).

It is evident by these results that despite one country having anti-stalking legislation and public awareness of stalking as crime people are still reluctant to label their experience as stalking. More UK participants were identified as meeting the stalking criteria that were set in comparison to the Greek participants. An explanation for these results could be that the participants that did not recognise their own victimization because of their personal beliefs of what stalking is. More specifically, these personal beliefs did not align or did not "fit" with the definition that was provided to them in the beginning of their questionnaire (Jordan et al., 2007; Ngo, 2012; Sheridan et al., 2000, 2001, 2002). Another explanation for lack of stalking acknowledgement by the participants was that in the definition that was provided it states that "… and cause that individual to feel distressed…".

Perhaps the participants did not feel distressed by the behaviours experienced, and they simply viewed them as a nuisance that will eventually stop. Furthermore, if the behaviours did not disrupt their lives or cause them fear which is important acknowledgement of victimization, they would be reluctant to state that they were

stalked as they did not "qualify" as stalking victims (Logan & Walker, 2010). The feelings of distress and fear are considered as key components of victimization for any crime. Simultaneously, fear for someone's personal safety has been recognized to be an important factor with personal acknowledgement of being victim of a crime (Fox, et al., 2009; Hale, 1996; Jackson & Gouseti, 2016; Russo et al., 2013). The lack of either of those feelings from the participants experience could be an explanation for their lack of stalking acknowledgment. Furthermore, if the behaviours the experienced were what are considered or associated with romantic behaviours then their impact could have been minimized by the participants (Dunlap et, al., 2014; Dunn, 1999; Emerson, et al., 1998; Lippman, 2018**;** Pathé & Mullen, 1997).

12.2.1.4 Prior relationship (Victimization)

The prior relationship between the pursuer and the victim was examined for the Greek and the UK samples, and the three-prior relationship with the highest percentages for both samples were Partner, Friend and Acquaintance. The other highest types of prior relationships for both samples the victims had, were some forms of relationship even a brief relationship such as going out on a few dates, and one-night stands. As for the stranger prior relationship it was in the least frequent relationship for both samples. The results for this study are similar to previous ones in the area of stalking for the prior relationships between the victim and the stalker (Fremouw et al., 1997; Fisher et al., 2014; Johnson & Thompson, 2016; Purcell, et al., 2009; Ravensberg & Miller, 2003; Spitzberg & Rhea, 1999).

The findings on prior relationship for the current study are like the findings in Spitzberg and Cupach's (2007) meta-analysis, which illustrated that 80% of pursuers knew their victim before they pursued them. Furthermore, in both samples the participants that had experienced stalking victimization either knew their stalker very well or casually. In most cases the participants had met their pursuer through work, socializing and through their friends.

12.2.1.5 Fear (Victimization)

The Greek and the UK participants, who had experienced stalking were asked if they were afraid for their personal safety and the results were similar; for the Greek

participant 35% said Yes and for the UK participants 37.7% had the same answer. Furthermore, the participants for both samples when they were asked about being fearful for their property being safe 23.6% Greek participants said Yes, and 27.8% UK participants had the same answer. The final question on fear was if the participants from both samples had been afraid for another person such as a family member or a friend, 26.2% of the Greek participants said Yes, whilst 23.8% of the UK participants stated the same.

In all three questions on fear had close percentages for each answer with the difference being less than 5%. The highest difference between the two samples was in the second question where the difference was 4.2%. In all but one questions the UK sample had the higher percentage for the participants being afraid over their own safety and that of their personal property. The Greek sample had the highest percentage for the final question being afraid for their family and friends. Most participants who had experienced stalking were not afraid for either their safety, their personal property or their safety for their friends and family.

12.2.1.6 Gender of the Perpetrator and Age during the stalking

Most of the perpetrators for both samples were men 69.7% for the Greek participants and 73.3% for the UK participants. These results are like others in the area of stalking where most perpetrators of stalking are males (Cass & Rosay, 2012; Dressing et al., 2007; Ngo, 2018; Purcell, et al, 2009; Spitzberg et al., 2010). When it came the age the participants were victimized, the youngest age that was identified was in the Greek participant at 10 years old, whilst for the UK the youngest age for victimization was 12 years old. The oldest age of victimization that was identified in the Greek sample was 57 years old, whilst the oldest UK participant to experience stalking was 50 years old.

Overall, the mean age for the Greek victims were M=22.65 and for the UK participants M=23.71. These results are similar with previous research for stalking which state that the highest age risk to be stalked are between the ages of 18 to 25 (Baum et al., 2009; Coleman, 1997; Haugaard & Seri, 2003; Jasinski &. Dietz 2004; King-Ries, 2010; Mustaine & Tewksbury, 1999; Purcell, et al., 2002; Tjaden &

Thoennes, 1998). The victims mean age for both samples were almost similar with the UK participants being slightly higher.

For the age of the perpetrators the youngest pursuer for the Greek participants was aged 11, whilst for the UK the youngest pursuer was age 14. This illustrates what prior stalking research has uncovered that, adolescents also experience and stalked others like their adult counterparts (Evans & Meloy, 2011; Fisher et al., 2014; Leitz & Theriot, 2005; McCann, 2000; Purcell, et al., 2010; Roberts et al., 2016; Vaidya, et al., 2005). The oldest perpetrator for the Greek participants was aged 63 years old, whilst the oldest perpetrator for the UK participant was 57 years old. The mean age for the perpetrators that were identified for the Greek sample was M=27.52 and for the UK participants the mean age for the perpetrators M=27.10. The differences between the mean age for perpetrators for both samples were minimal with the Greek perpetrators having a slightly higher mean age. These results follow a similar patter to previous research in stalking, which state that offenders are older than their victims (Meloy & Gothard, 1995; Mullen & Pathé, 1994; Harmon et al., 1995).

12.2.1.7 Asking for Help (Victimization)

The participants that experienced stalking from both samples were questioned if they had asked someone for help about stalking, 32.1% of the Greek participants said yes, whilst that percentage was 43% for the UK participants. More UK participants than Greek participants asked for help, which is not surprising as the UK has a legislation that protects people from stalking and charities that specialize on stalking and helping stalking victims. What is surprising in these results is the number of Greek participants that had asked for help. In Greece, most participants asked for help from their Friends and Family, whilst in the UK sample most of the participants asked the Police for help and then their Friends. This separation of who they asked for help highlights once again the differences between a country that has no anti-stalking legislation (Greece) in comparison to a country that has stalking legislation (UK).

Victims feel more supported asking for help from their friends and family (Galeazzi, et al., 2009), as both samples asked for help from their family and friends in varying degrees (Greek participants more and UK participants less). Furthermore, for the Greek sample the percentage of people that contacted the police was smaller (5.5%)

then the percentage identified in the FRA (2014) study which was 8%. The UK participants asked for formal help (police) in a higher percentage than that the rates identified in other studies which were found to be from 3.9% to 20.5% (Buhi, et al., 2009; Fisher et al., 2000; Fisher, Peterson, & Cantor, 2016; Jordan, et al., 2007). The percentage identified in this research of the UK sample asking for help from the police (33.3%) was closer to the percentage identified by the FRA (2014) study which was 38%. As more information is currently available on stalking through charities, awareness campaigns and the updated legislation (Protection of Freedom Act, 2012).

12.2.2 Victimization Behaviours

The next part of the participants victimization that was investigated was the behaviours that were experienced by both samples during the stalking incident. For the Greek sample there was a clear division between the more common behaviours and the least common stalking behaviours. In addition, most participants faced behaviours that in some cases can be viewed as innocent (Scott & Sheridan, 2011). Those behaviours can impact the victims, but their impact can often be minimized, as none of these behaviours are life threatening but they can also be considered as harassment. The immunization of these behaviours does not account for the psychological trauma they may be inflected on the stalking victims. Some of the participants did face extremely violent and life-altering behaviours such as Kidnapping, and actions that Physically endangered their life. It was evident from both tables (most and least frequent behaviours) that as the behaviours become more violent, the participants experienced them less frequently.

There were differences that were identified in the stalking behaviours experienced by the UK participants. The two tables (more frequents and least frequent) had some differences in the behaviours found in each in comparison with the Greek tables. First, more behaviours were in the most frequent list in comparison to the Greek list, with 22 behaviours in the UK list to 14 in the Greek list. Moreover, more dangerous, and criminal behaviours can be found in the UK most frequent list such as physically hurting you, stealing and damaging your personal property. These behaviours were found in the least frequent stalking behaviours for the Greek sample. This is surprising fact as there is Stalking legislation in England, Wales and Scotland and there is more awareness of the crime, but people are still engaging in these behaviours.

Furthermore, even though these are criminal behaviours, and someone can be prosecuted for these actions, people do not hesitant to carry them out towards someone else. The UK sample experienced all the violent and dangerous stalking behaviours in a higher percentage than the Greek sample. More specifically, ten or less Greek participants had experienced the most dangerous and violent behaviours that are associated with stalking. Whilst, in the UK sample there was not a single stalking behaviour that was experienced by less than 10 participants. The least frequent stalking behaviour identified was leaving or sending threatening objects which was experienced by 12 participants.

The differences in the behaviours experienced from both samples and their categorization could be explained through cultural differences. More specifically, when it comes to what is expected in romantic behaviours certain intrusive behaviours can be acceptable and, in another country, they may not be (Sheridan et al., 2017). Furthermore, previous studies have also identified that culture has an important role and will determine which intrusive behaviours a stalking victim is more likely to experience during stalking (Jagessar & Sheridan, 2004; Sheridan et al., 2016). If the behaviours are culturally accepted or there is a tolerance towards them then they may impact or cause a delay to acknowledge that someone is a victim of stalking (Lyndon et al., 2012). This could also explain why even though some participants stated that they had never been stalked, they met the criteria of two or more stalking behaviours are considered stalking.

The division of the Greek tables of more frequent stalking behaviours that can be considered as harassment and the less frequent table with the violent and dangerous stalking behaviours was not illustrated in the UK tables. More UK participants also experienced stalking behaviours in comparison to the Greek sample. More specifically, the highest stalking behaviour Invading your personal property for the UK sample, was experienced by half of the UK participants (*N*= 271, 50.3%). The highest stalking behaviour Being left unwanted messages it was experienced by 218 (41.2%) Greek participants. The main similarity for victimization for both samples was that the most frequently reported stalking behaviours in this study were the same that have been identified in previous studies (Amar, 2006; Cupach & Spitzberg, 2000; Fisher et al., 2002; Jordan et al., 2007; Purcell, et al., 2009).

12.3Perpetration Discussion

12.3.1Perpetration Characteristics

12.3.1.1 Perpetration rates

The objectives of this part of this study were to investigate the perpetration rates for the Greek and the UK sample. From the Greek sample 55 participants (10.4%) had stalked another individual, whilst for the UK it was 43 participants (8%) that had carried out this behaviour. For the Greek participants more women 38 (69.1%) admitted to stalking another individual in comparison to male participants 17 (30.9 %). The UK sample had similar results with more women 27 (62.79%) stated that they had stalked someone in comparison to male participants 16 (37.21%). Previous research had identified the potential that women could also perpetrate high rates of stalking (Thompson, Dennison & Stewart, 2012), which was also found in this research. This could be explained as either their male counterparts were not as forthcoming as the female participants to involve themselves with perpetrating stalking which has also been identified in previous research (Nobles, et al., 2009).

The next possible explanation for women reporting stalking perpetration more is gender stereotypes. Female stalkers are not viewed to be as dangerous as male stalkers, because there is the view that men can protect themselves and resolve the problem on their own (Sheridan et al., 2003). The lines between what is a "normal" romantic behaviour and stalking is not just blurred, but there are completely different standards for men and women (Gavin & Scott, 2016). If society has different standards for female stalkers, there is no reason for women to be afraid to stalk another individual and to reveal they have.

In studies that have used scenarios to examining participants attitudes of likelihood of arrest and sentence of the pursuer for stalking, if the perpetrator was a man the participants viewed the behaviour as more criminal than when the pursuer was a woman (Cass & Rosay, 2012; Cormier & Woodworth, 2008; Sheridan & Scott, 2010). Male stalkers actions will be viewed as more dangerous by society in comparison to those of female stalkers (Cass & Mallicoat, 2015; Cass & Rosay, 2012; Phillips et al., 2004; Sheridan & Scott, 2010; Sheridan, et al., 2003). If people and police officers believe that men are more capable to handle themselves in a stalking situation, then

male victims of stalking will be less forthcoming (Bjerregaard, 2000; Bem, 1993; Butler, 2004; Connell, 2002; Davis et al., 2002; Johnson & Kercher, 2009; Purcell et al., 2001). In addition, the results for perpetration for this study are different in comparison to Spitzberg et al. (2010) meta-analysis which found that more men 23.90% then women 11.92% had carried out unwanted pursuit someone else.

12.3.1.2 Stalking Acknowledgment (Perpetration)

It was also examined if the participants acknowledged that they had stalked another individual, using the current legislation in England and Wales and the academic definitions of stalking (2 or more stalking behaviours) (Spitzberg & Cupach, 2014; Tjaden, 2007; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; 2000). It was identified that from the Greek participants 145 participants (27.41%) met those criteria for stalking someone else and from the UK sample that 107 participants (19.85%) met those criteria. When combing the self-ported perpetration and the one identified by examining the data it was uncovered that there were 200 Greek participants (37.41%) and 134 participants (24.86%) had stalked another individual. The analysis on stalking acknowledgment for perpetration revealed a few things, one is that having a stalking legislation will prompt people not to stalk as much as in country where there is no recognition for stalking as a crime.

As people are afraid of the potential consequences of their actions towards another individual. Furthermore, stalking acknowledgment does not only affect victims of stalking but it also affects perpetrators (Bondurant, 2001; Botta & Pingree, 1997; Frazier & Seales, 1997; Harned, 2004; Kahn, et al., 1994; Koss, 1985; Pitts & Schwartz, 1993; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2010). People and specifically in this case participants are reluctant to label their behaviour as stalking. The numbers of perpetrators increased 4 times higher when the dataset was examining for both samples in comparison to when they self-identified as perpetrators. Either people do not want to label their behaviour as stalking or simple do not understand the gravity of their actions (Davis, et al., 2000; Dennison, 2007; Dennison & Stewart, 2006; Dunn, 1999; Sinclair & Frieze, 2005; Tjaden, et al., 2000).

12.3.1.3 Prior relationship (Perpetration)

The prior relationship between the participants that had stalked another individual for both samples and the individual they had pursued were like the victimization results. In most stalking cases the individual, was either their ex- partner, an acquaintance, a friend, or someone that they went on a few dates. The Greek and the UK participants either knew the person they stalker either very well or casually, once again this was found in the victimization part. The participants had met their victim from work, through a friend or socializing in most cases, this was also identified in the victimization part. In both samples the results were similar, but they were also similar to previous findings in stalking research (Baum et al., 2009; Davis, Ace, & Andra, 2000; Douglas & Dutton, 2001; Mohandie, 2004; Mullen et al., 2000; Sinclair & Frieze, 2014; De Smet, Loeys, & Buysse, 2012; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2003; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998).

12.3.1.4 Gender of the Victim and Age during the stalking

As more women were perpetrators it is not a surprise that more men were also the victims than women. Thirty- one Greek males were stalked (67.4%) and 15 Greek females were stalked (32.6%) by the participants. In the UK sample 40 UK males were stalked (70.2%) and 17 females were stalked (29.8%) by the participants. More UK participants revealed the gender of the person they pursued in comparison to their Greek counterparts. An intrigued result was the age the participants stalked another individual. More specifically, the Greek participants age when they pursued someone was between 14 to 39 years old (M=21.65) and their victims age was between the ages 14 to 50 years old (M=23.58 SD=7.52). For the UK participants that the people they stalked their ages during the time they pursued another individual was between 16 to 36 (M=22.66) and the participants own age was between the ages 11 to 40 (M=23.88). For both samples, the participants that had stalked someone, their mean age was younger than the individuals they pursued. Another interesting fact was that for both the perpetrator/ participants and their victims the mean ages were under 25 years old.

The youngest age that was identified for a victim of the Greek participants was age 14, whilst for the UK the youngest individual that was pursued by the participants

was 11 years old. The oldest age for a victim of the Greek participants that was identified was 50 years old, whilst the oldest victim of the UK participants that was stalked was 40 years old. For the age of the participant that stalked another individual the youngest individual that was identified for the Greek participants was aged 14, whilst for the UK the youngest pursuer was age 16. The oldest participant age during the time the stalked another person for the Greek participants was 39, whilst for the UK participants the oldest age identified was 36. These results suggest that even as adolescence people will pursue another individual, which has also been found by prior research (Baum et al., 2009; Evans & Meloy, 2011; Fisher et al., 2014; Leitz & Theriot, 2005; McCann, 2000; Purcell, et al., 2010; Reidy, Smith-Darden, Kernsmith, 2016; Roberts et al., 2016; Vaidya, et al., 2005).

12.3.1.5 Fear (Perpetration)

The participants for both samples were asked if their actions caused the individual, they pursued to be fearful of their safety. One participant from the Greek sample said yes for that question, whilst for the UK participants they all stated that their victim was not fearful. For the next question if the participants victims were afraid for their safety of their personal property 2 Greek participants and 1 UK participant stated that Yes their victim was fearful. In the final question on fear, the participants for both samples were asked if their behaviour caused their victims to be afraid for the safety of their friends and family, 3 Greek participants and 1 UK participant said Yes their victim was fearful. These results are surprising as the participants believe that their behaviour did not cause fear to the people they pursued.

The definition that was provided to them for stalking it stated that someone needed to be in a state of distress by this behaviour to be considered stalking. Even though the participants agreed with the definition stating that they had stalked another individual causing them distress with their behaviour they then downplayed the fear they caused them. Langhinrichsen-Rohling et al. (2000) stated that perpetrators cannot or will not be able to understand that their victims are fearful of their actions. In addition, this belief that their victims were not fearful could also be explain by gender stereotypes, as more women were stalkers, and more men were the victims. As the belief exists that male victims feel less fear in comparison to female victims

(Bjerregaard, 2000; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2012; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2013; Sheridan & Lyndon, 2010; Slashinski et al., 2003).

Another surprising factor was that even though many participants had themselves experienced stalking when it came to answer fear questions in the victimization questions, they responded that they were fearful. These responses were the opposite when it came to them being the perpetrators, they did not view their actions as dangerous or threating. This could once again be related to gender differences were women that are stalking victims will report being fearful in the situation they are in in comparison to men (Englebretch & Reyns, 2011; Meloy & Boyd, 2003; Meloy, et al., 2011; Pathé, et al., 2000; Purcell, et al., 2001; Sheridan, et al., 2014; Strand & McEwan, 2011; 2012). As women were revealed to be victimized more in both samples, it could be the reason why more people stating they were fearful in the victimization part. Simultaneously, people who have experienced stalking and have been fearful by this behaviour will more likely be able to acknowledge stalking in scenarios (Jordan et al., 2007). Women are more aware of intrusive behaviours and how they are linked to stalking (Dennison & Thomson, 2002; Dunlap et al., 2012; Phillips et al., 2004; Yanowitz, 2006). Despite women's overall knowledge of victimization and intrusive behaviours it does not seem that is carried on when they are stalking someone else, and they refuse to acknowledge that their actions can cause someone to be fearful.

12.3.1.6 Asking for Help (Perpetration)

The final question for both samples was if the participants that had stalked were ever contacted by anyone over their behaviour. For the Greek participants 3 were contacted by a Friend/ Family Member of the person they stalked, 1 from the Police, and 1 participant did not clarify. In the UK participants 3 participants were contacted by someone but only 1 participant responded that they were contacted a Friend/ Family Member of the person they stalked, whilst the other two refused to respond. The participants answers are surprising especially the involvement of the police in the Greek sample, which indicates that if the situation becomes too serious then the police will act upon it. It is evident that victims will primarily ask for help from their family for protection to help them bring an end to the stalking (Alexy et al., 2005; Bjerregaard, 2002; Brewster, 2001; Korkodeilou, 2014).

12.3.2 Perpetration Behaviours

The next part for the perpetration aspect that was investigated were the stalking behaviours the participants from both samples carried out towards others. The most frequent behaviour that was identified for the Greek sample was Monitoring someone's behaviour (*N*=119, 22.5%). What was evident from the two tables on stalking behaviours (most frequent and least frequent) was that similarities existed with the tables in the victimization section, on how the tables were separated. The stalking behaviours in the most frequent table could be interpreted as harassment, whilst in the least frequent behaviours the violent behaviours were grouped together. Furthermore, the most dangerous behaviours such as Physically hurting someone were carried out by 10 or less participants. The Greek participants conducted less violent behaviours towards others. Even though some of these behaviours are a crime under the Greek legislation, some participants were not deterred by this and still carried them out against the person they pursued.

For the UK sample the stalking behaviours that were conducted by the participants some interesting findings were discovered. First of only two stalking behaviours were found in the most frequent list and the highest behaviour that was identified was watching someone from out of sight (*N*= 70, 13%). Most of the behaviours were in the least frequent table. The UK participants conducted stalking behaviours less frequently than the Greek counterparts, but they carried out more violent behaviours towards their victim. For example, dangerous behaviours such as Physically hurting someone was carried out by 19 participants almost double the number of Greek participants that carried out the same behaviour.

Furthermore, even though they were fully aware that these behaviours are a crime they still carried them out, like their Greek counterparts. The difference of the frequencies in the stalking behaviours carried out by both samples could be explained by the existence of anti-stalking legislation. Participants are aware of the negative implications their behaviour could have, so they are either reluctant to admit they carried out these actions or simply they did not stalk another individual. Similarly, the Greek participant are not afraid that their behaviour is a crime and for the behaviours that are a crime very few participants admitted carrying out these behaviours.

The main difference for the UK sample for the perpetration behaviours in comparison to the victimization behaviours identified was that there was a clear division between the two tables (most and least frequent) stalking behaviours. One table (most frequent) contained behaviours of watching and monitoring, whilst the other table contains all the violent and dangerous behaviours. It was evident that stalking awareness in the UK did influence the behaviours that were carried out towards others, as the behaviours were not conducted by many participants. In Greece as there is no anti-stalking legislation the participants were not hesitant to stalk others.

The three highest behaviours that were conducted by the participants ranged from 20.6% to 22.5% of the sample, which is almost double of the percentages discovered in the UK sample. Another interesting fact was that in both sample the highest behaviours that were found were monitoring someone's behaviour and watching someone out of sight. These two behaviours were also in the most frequent behaviours table for both samples in the victimization section. It is evident that these two behaviours are prominent and key stalking behaviours and will always be identified in stalking research, as was also found in previous stalking research (Belknap et al., 2011; Burke, et al., 2011; Miller, 2012; Lyndon et al., 2011; Southworth, et al., 2005).

12.4Victimization and Perpetration comparison

12.4.1Victimization vs Perpetration

The results for the victimization and perpetration of stalking have uncovered how differently people view the two actions. When people are asked if they have experienced victimization, they will be more forthcoming about their experience in comparison to when they are asked if they had perpetrated a crime. More specifically the ratio for victimization versus perpetration for the Greek sample was 3 to 1 and for the UK sample it was 5 to 1. More UK participants were the victims of stalking in comparison to the Greek counterparts but simultaneously the Greek participants stalked more individuals than the UK participants. The effect of having a stalking legislation in the United Kingdom is evident, as more people identified themselves as victim but at the same time were reluctant to admit that they had stalked another individual. Furthermore, the participants experienced and carried out more stalking behaviours that

are considered “harmless” or not as “threatening” or “dangerous” in comparison to the dangerous behaviours conducted.

Stalking is a crime that encompasses other crimes within it which can be prosecuted as a separate crime and in some cases this other behaviours have a more severe punishment than stalking such as breaking and entering the victim’s property (Mayhew, & Van Kesteren, 2013) or murder (Rankin 2014; Sullivan, 2007). Grouping stalking and persecuting other crimes instead of stalking minimizes the severity of the other behaviours experienced and consequences that stalking has on the victim. The perpetrator learns that if they do not escalate their behaviour to more severe ones no punishment will come their way. Despite them actively causing their victim to be in a constant state of fear. Stalking legislation is based around the notion of fear, the individual needs to be fearful in the situation for it to constitute as a crime (Owens, 2016). The question that arises is what happens in cases that stalkers exhibit behaviours that are not a crime and that are linked with romance (Fox et al., 2011).

These behaviours such as making exaggerated claims of affection, sending gifts, sending messages, and calling the other person are frequently seen in the early stages of the romance (Aron et al., 2005). The main issue is the context in which they happen if the individual returns the other individual feelings then this is consider romance. If they do not return the person’s feelings this can escalate if the perpetrator does not accept that the other person does not want to be in a relationship with them. In stalking no two cases are the same, so if a victim experienced behaviours that are not considered criminal, they cannot be prosecuted under any other legislation only under stalking legislation. Prosecuting only stalking cases that other serious crimes had been committed such as harassment (sexual or non-sexual) or violent crimes and not stalking minimizes the victim’s experience and the trauma they have been through.

Miminsing people’s experiences could be detrimental for their own mental health, them asking for help in the future both and overall mimizing their victimization so the true effect of a crime will not be uncovered (Owens, 2016). As was seen by the current results people in Greece are affected by this crime they should be able to ask for help for stalking itself and not wait until the behaviour escalates to a more severe crime before something life threating happens so the perpetrator can be prosecuted for their behaviour. Stalking is a traumatic experience that will impact the victims for many

years after it has ended, the perpetrator should be prosecuted for the trauma they inflected by stalking them and not for another crime that may have a lesser sentence.

12.4.2 Stalking Acknowledgment

Stalking acknowledgement was an important issue for victimization and perpetration as in both samples the participants that were victims of stalking were hesitant to admit they had been victimized. Simultaneously, both the Greek and the UK participants were reluctant to admit that they pursued another individual. This was also evident by participants that had stated that they had not experienced stalking or carried it out, then proceeded to complete the rest of the questionnaire and answer both the victimization and the perpetration questions.

Despite being told in the questionnaire that if they had not been victimized or pursued someone they could proceed to the next part of the questionnaire. Furthermore, when the datasets for each country were examined further for both victimization and perpetration the numbers for victims and perpetrators corresponding to each aspect of the dataset increased. For both samples, the number of victims identified doubled. For perpetration in the Greek sample there were 4 times the number of participants that had stalked another individual than the participants that had originally stated that they pursued someone. As for the UK sample the number of perpetrators was 3 times higher than the number of self-identified perpetrators.

12.4.3 Gender differences for Victimization

For stalking victimization, the gender of the participants that had experienced stalking followed the results of previous research in the area. As for the ratio for both countries, in Greece the ratio was 3 to 1 with more women being victimized in comparison to men. For the UK, a similar pattern emerged where the ratio was 4 to 1 with more women being victimized in comparison to men. For the perpetration aspect the gender of the victim's changes, as for Greece the ratio was 3 to 2 with more men being victims than women and for the UK the ratio was 2 to 1 with again more men than women being victims. These results indicate that gender roles effect every aspect of victimization and perpetration. As women are not scared to reveal that they have pursued someone, as society will deem their actions as not threatening or dangerous or

will overlook their actions altogether. Kuehner, et al., (2012) in their research found that behaviours that can cause fear when a man carries them out towards a woman, when the opposite is experienced, and a woman carries them out towards a man it can be viewed as laughable or not as serious. For example, if a woman chases a man with a frying pan it can be viewed as "joke" and not as "true violence".

If a man is pursued, he will be reluctant to reveal it as he could feel either humiliated or inadequate to protect himself. As the woman who is stalking him, is in the eyes of society someone who is not dangerous, smaller in size and physically weaker than him (Kuehner, et al., 2012; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2012; Villacampa & Pujols, 2019). Even if a woman is strong enough to harm a man, society still expects the man to be able to defend himself. The results of this study illustrate that stereotypes that, women will be more victimized than men with regards to stalking have a basis (Breiding et al., 2014; FRA, 2014; Spitzberg & Cadiz, 2002; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998). At the same time, it is evident that women can stalk another individual in a similar pattern to men. Moreover, if men continue to be reluctant to identify themselves as victims, and women are revealing that they are stalking men, the discrepancy of the number in gender victimization for stalking will continue to exist.

12.4.4 Gender differences for Perpetration

The ratio for the participants perpetrating stalking for both samples was 3 to 2, more women than men stalking other individuals. The gender ratio was different when it come to the individuals that stalked the participants, as for the Greek sample the ratio was 2 to 1 with more males than females being perpetrators. For the UK sample the ratio was 3 to 1 with more men than women being perpetrators. These results have similarities to previous results, which state that more men than women stalk (Cass & Rosay, 2012; Dressing et al., 2007; Ngo, 2018; Purcell, et al, 2009; Spitzberg et al., 2010). Simultaneously, the perpetration results for both countries contradict the above studies results.

Perhaps stalking is a gender-neutral crime (Lyndon et al, 2012; Spitzberg, et al., 2010) but different aspects such as gender role stereotypes, toxic masculinity, stalking myths, and stalking acknowledgement, which have been developed and cultivated by society create an environment which prohibit people to reveal their victimization.

Causing victims problems and not “allowing” them to reveal their experiences so the true numbers of people being affected by stalking remains uncovered (Bennet Cattaneo et al., 2011; Burt, 1980; Dunlap, et al., 2012; Ménard & Cox, 2016; Logan et al., 2006; Sinclair, 2006; Sinclair, 2012; Spence-Diehl & Potocky-Tripodi, 2001; Weller et al., 2013; Yanowitz & Yanowitz, 2012).

12.4.5 Prior relationship and Fear

In addition, the participants for both samples, stated for both victimization and perpetration that they knew their stalker and the individual they stalked very well or well. This individual in both victimization and perpetration was either an ex-partner, a friend, an acquaintance, someone they went out with, and it was in rare occasions that the person that their pursuer or victim was a stranger. These results follow the pattern that previous studies in the area of stalking have outline and uncovered over the years (Baum et al., 2009; Catalano, 2012; De Smet, et al., 2012; Douglas & Dutton, 2001; Ménard & Cox, 2016; Mullen et al., 2000; Ngo & Paternoster, 2016; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2010, 2014; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2003; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998; Pathé & Mullen, 1997). Furthermore, the participants for both samples met their pursuer and the person the pursued in similar ways, through a friend, work, or socializing.

The biggest difference that was identified between victimization and perpetration was the fear aspect. Whilst the participants were afraid for their safety, their families and friend’s safety and the safety of their personal property when it came to answer the same for their victims, they did not believe their victim was fearful of their actions. In some questions for the fear aspect less than two or less than four participants stated that their victim was fearful. This illustrates that fear is subjective and people will either refuse to see the consequences of their actions or to acknowledge that they are causing harm to someone else or will view their actions as part of the romance (Belknap & Sharma, 2014; Cass, 2011; Davis, et al., 2000; Dunn, 1999; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, et al., 2000; Tjaden, et al., 2000).

12.4.6 Age and Asking for Help

There was an age difference between victimization and perpetration. When it came to victimization for both samples the age of the participants during the time they

were stalked, the mean age was under 25 years old, similar to previous research (Baum et al., 2009; Cho, Hong, & Logan 2012; Reyns & Scherer, 2018). The individuals that were stalked by the participants also had a mean age that was under 25 years old. The main difference that was identified for age was the following. When the participants were stalked by other individuals, the mean age of the participants was lower than the mean age of their stalkers. The opposite was identified when the participants were stalking other individuals, the participants mean age during the stalking incident was lower than that of their victims. Despite what previous findings have suggested that stalking offender age is usually between the ages of 35 to 40 (Harmon et al., 1995; Meloy & Gothard, 1995; Mullen & Pathé, 1994; Zona et al., 1993), the findings of this study contradict those results. As this research found that for both the perpetrators mean age that stalked the participants and the mean age of the participants when they stalked others was under 30 years old.

There was also one small difference when it came to who the participants asked for help during their victimization and perpetration. For the victimization both samples of participants that had been stalked asked for help from their friends and families, with most of the UK participants asking for help from the police. This as was stated previously in this chapter was a direct effect from having an anti-stalking in the UK that protects people. The participants for both samples that pursued another individual were contacted by either friends or family member of that individual (Alexy et al. 2005; Bjerregaard 2002; Brewster, 1998; Buhi, et al., , 2009; Fisher et al., 2000, 2002; Fisher, et al., 2016; Jordan, et al., 2007; Haugaard & Seri 2003; Truman & Mustaine, 2009).

People could also seek help from their friends and family (informal help) as they feel more comfortable with these individuals, and they know they will not be judged or dismissed for their victimization (Davies, Block, & Campbell, 2007; Kaukinen, 2002; Truman & Planty, 2012). Participants perhaps could have felt that their experience was not serious enough to warranty police intervention (Buhi, Clayton, & Surrency, 2009). Previous research has also identified this with victims seeking support from informal sources such as friends and families (Barrett & St. Pierre, 2011; Coker et al., 2000; Fisher, Daigle, Cullen, & Turner, 2003; Kaukinen, 2004; Ullman, 2007). These different groups of individuals (informal help) could also provide them with other information or recommendation on how to handle the situation they are in (Alexy et al.

2005; Bjerregaard 2002; Brewster 1999; Fisher et al. 2002; Haugaard & Seri 2003; Truman & Mustaine, 2009; USDOJ 2001).

If victims are not dismissed from their support network about their victimization they are more likely to ask for formal help (police) (Buhi, Clayton, & Surrency, 2009; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Kaukinen, 2002). The one exception was a Greek participant that was contacted by the police about the behaviour they had. This illustrates that people will ask help from the police even in a country that has no anti-stalking legislation but if the anti-stalking legislation exists more people would ask for official help (police) and not just ask their friends and family.

12.5Conclusion

Overall, both the Greek and the UK sample had experienced but also had perpetrated stalking. Even though, more women stated that they had experienced stalking in both samples and more men had carried out this behaviour, the opposite was identified in the perpetration section. As more women pursued other men in the perpetration section of the study. Stalking acknowledgment was an issue for both victimization and perpetration as participants did not acknowledge their victimization or their perpetration. The victims mean age for both the victimization and the perpetration part was under 25 years old. Whilst the perpetrators mean age for victimization and perpetration was under 30 years old, with the pursuers in the perpetration section mean's age being under 25 years old. Most participants that had experienced stalking knew their perpetrators and they also knew the people they had pursued.

Moreover, people met the people that stalked them or the person they stalked through their friends, socializing or at work. The fear questions illustrated that even though people can be fearful for others, themselves, and their personal property, when it comes to identified fear in others they will either not acknowledge it or do not view their behaviour as being fearful to others. Furthermore, people will ask for help from their friends and family and if a country has anti-stalking legislation then they will also ask help from the police. Finally, some of the most prominent stalking behaviours such as watching from out of sight and monitoring someone's behaviour was identified in both perpetration and victimization aspects of the research.

CHAPTER 13

Stalking Myth Acceptance and Individual Differences on the Bases of Gender, Educational Level and Age Discussion (Greek and UK sample)

13.1General Discussion for Stalking Myth Acceptance and Individual Differences on the Bases of Gender, Educational Level and Age

The next part of the study which focused on Stalking Myths had three objectives for each sample. To examine the gender differences for stalking myth acceptance for both the Greek and UK sample. To examine if the participants of both samples (Greece and UK) educational level (School, Undergraduate studies, and post-graduate studies) would affect their endorsement of stalking myths. Finally, if the participants Age for both samples (Greece and the UK) has an effect on the endorsement of Stalking Myths when the participants were separated into Age groups (16-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and 56+). One of the aspects that was examined in this research Gender had also been investigated in previous research. For the aspect of education and age, no attempt had even been made in previous studies to examine the effect they could potentially have in stalking myth endorsement. Similarities and differences for each aspect (gender, education level and age) that was examined that were uncovered will also be discussed thoroughly in this chapter.

13.2Gender Differences in Stalking Myth Acceptance

In this study, the first objective that was examined was gender difference in Stalking Myths endorsement in each sample (Greek and the UK) individually for all the Stalking Myth subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance). For all the Stalking Myth subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) and the Stalking Myth Total the Greek men had higher mean scores for each subscale and SMA total in comparison to Greek women. When a MANOVA was carried out to examine the gender differences the result was statistically

significant. In addition, all five one-way ANOVAs that were conducted to examine each SMA subscale separately and for the SMA total for gender differences were also statistically significant. Similarly, for the UK men also had higher mean scores for each subscale and SMA total in comparison to UK women. When a MANOVA was carried out to examine the gender differences the result was statistically significant. Furthermore, all five one-way ANOVAs that were conducted to examine each SMA subscale separately and for the SMA total for gender differences were also statistically significant. The results for both samples for this study are similar with previous that have been found in the area of stalking, were men had higher scores in SMA endorsement than women (De Fazio, et al, 2015; Lippman & Ward, 2014; McKeon, McEwan & Luebbers, 2015; Sinclair, 2012).

The main similarity was that in both samples, men endorsed stalking myths more than women for each subscale and for the SMA total as they had had higher mean scores. Simultaneously, the main difference between the two samples was that the Greek sample had overall higher mean scores for each subscale and for SMA total score in comparison the UK sample. Similar findings between endorsement SMA scores between a country with stalking legislation and one without was also identified in Kamphuis et al., (2005) cross- national study of European countries. The difference in mean scores for each sample is not a surprise, as the UK has had some protection against stalking since 1997 with the Protection against Harassment, which was further expanded in 2012 with the Protection of Freedom Act criminalising stalking. The criminalisation of stalking in the UK alongside the awareness campaigns that have been carried out for years by charities such as National Stalking Helpline and Paladin National Advocacy, have created some awareness of the crime.

It is evident in the findings that culture and gender roles also had an impact in the results, as Greek women had higher mean scores in all the SMA subscales and SMA Total in comparison to UK men. Greece remains a traditional and conservative country, where gender roles and gender misconceptions that culture has cultivate still have a significant role in everyday life. The mean scores for SMA and its subscales for Greek women are not surprising, despite the changes that have been made over the years to reduce the gap between the two genders and move away from traditional gender roles (Sotiriou, Ntinapogias & Petroulaki, 2011). As Dedotsi & Paraskevopoulou-Kollia

(2015) found in their research that even small children endorse gender role stereotypes in Greece, these stereotypes are something that are taught to children by their families.

These gender stereotypes can also be seen in all aspects of life in Greek society such as the workplace, education, and family life (Kambouri, 2013; Kaparou & Bush, 2007; Mihail, 2008). Despite the fact that gender stereotypes are integrated in every aspect of life in Greek society and the lack of anti-stalking legislation Greek women were more aware of what stalking is, acknowledging that the statements that they were provided to them were problematic. These findings are similar with previous in the area of stalking that stated that women will identify intrusive behaviour and perceive it as stalking (Dennison & Thomson, 2002; Dunlap, et al, 2015: Kamphuis et al., 2005; Phillips et al., 2004; Sinclair, 2012; Yanowitz, 2006).

13.3Education Level Differences in Stalking Myth Acceptance

The next objective that was investigated was that education level (School, Undergraduate studies, and post graduate studies) would create differences in Stalking Myths endorsement in each sample (Greek and the UK) individually for all the Stalking Myth subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance). The results were very different for each sample. For the UK sample a non-significant MANOVA result was found for educational level differences, whilst for the Greek sample a significant MAVOVA result was identified. Significant results were also identified in the post-hoc test carried out for each subscale expect for two post hoc test for SMA Victim Blame and SMA Nuisance between participants who had school and undergraduate studies.

These results again are linked to cultural expectations in each society as the highest mean scores were identified by the participants that had only completed School (Primary School, High School/ Gymnasio, Lykeio/Six Form/ College) in all the Subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and lowest in participants that had completed Post Graduate studies. Education can have a significant impact in society, it is the driving force for social development and social change (Chakraborty, et al., 2018; Idris et al, 2012). As was stated in the previous section traditional gender roles are bestowed upon young children in Greece from an early age (Dedotsi & Paraskevopoulou-Kollia, 2015); but it is evident by the results in this study

that as people spend more time in higher education they slowly start to reject these dysfunctional beliefs that associated with gender and stalking.

These funding also reinforce the differences between the two societies as in the UK participants education level does not affect people's endorsement of stalking myths. As their mean scores for each SMA subscale and SMA total for the UK participants had a 2-point difference from the highest to the lowest score. It is evident that some of the dysfunctional beliefs that help shape Stalking myths are integrated in the inner fabric of each society. Whilst the UK has made progress through the years to remove these dysfunctional beliefs from society, Greece has still a long way to go but it is evident that the solution for this is through education.

13.4Age Differences in Stalking Myth Acceptance

The final objective that was examined was the Age differences (16-25, 26-35, 36-45, 46-55 and 56+) in Stalking Myths endorsement in each sample (Greek and the UK) individually for all the Stalking Myth subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance). The results for the MANOVA test for the Greek sample was statistically significant. All but one of the ANOVAs were statistically significant, the ANOVA that was not statistically significant was for Victim Blame. In addition, in all the Subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and the SMA total that were examined the age group with the highest Mean scores were the 56+ age group.

Furthermore, the lowest mean scores were identified in the age groups 26-35 for all four subscales and the SMA total. In the post-hoc analyses (Tukey HSD) that were carried out for the SMA Flattery subscale two tests were statistically significant between the 16-25 age group and the 26-35 age group in comparison to the 56+ age group. For the SMA Minimizing Stalking only three tests were statistically significant which were between the 16-25 age group, the 26-35 age group and 36-45 in comparison to the 56+ age group. Similarly, in the SMA Nuisance only three tests had statistically significant mean comparisons ($p < .05$) and these were between the 16-25 age group, the 26-35 age group and 36-45 in comparison to the 56+ age group. Finally, for the SMA total three tests statistically significant and were between the 16-25 age group, the 26-35 age group and 36-45 in comparison to the 56+ age group.

Similarly, for the UK sample the MANOVA result illustrated that there was a statistically significant result between the age groups and SMA endorsement. All the ANOVA test for the SMA subscales and SMA total were statistically significant. Furthermore, the highest mean scores for all subscales (Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and the SMA total the group were identified for the 16-25 age group. Whilst the lowest mean scores for three subscales (Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and the SMA total was identified in the 56+ age group. Finally, for the Victim Blame subscale the 46-55 age group had the lowest mean score. The post-hoc analyses (Tukey HSD) that were conducted to examine individual mean differences for the four subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, and Nuisance) and the SMA total, the following was found. The first one was for the SMA Victim Blame subscale, and it had three statistically significant tests.

The two statistically significant tests were between the 16-25 age group and the 26-35 age group in comparison with the 46-55 Age group and the third one was between the 16-25 age group in comparison to the 36-45 age group. In the SMA Flattery subscale there was one statistically significant test between the 16-25 Age group and the 36-45 age group. For the SMA Minimizing Stalking there was only one statistically significant test was between the 16-25 age group in comparison with the 46-55 age group. Moreover, for the SMA Nuisance subscale the two statistically significant tests were between the 46-55 age group and the 56+ Age group in comparison with the 16-25 age group. Finally, for the SMA total three tests were statistically significant were between the 16-25 age group, the 36-45 age group and 46-55 in comparison to the 56+ age group.

In the results that were identified in this research, a difference was found between the Greek and the UK sample. The first difference was that for the Greek sample's ANOVA test for Victim Blame was not- significant in comparison with the UK sample that had a significant result for the same ANOVA test. It is evident that once again culture and gender roles have affected the Greek participants endorsement on stalking myths. The SMA subscale Victim Blame includes statements like "A woman who dates a lot would be more likely to be 'stalked'", in a country with traditional ideas on gender differences statements like the previous are not uncommon. Men can "chase" women and go after someone but women who go on a lot of dates are considered "easy", because women should be sexually appealing but simultaneously be sexually modest (Eaton & Rose, 2011; Kim et al., 2007; Smiler & Epstein, 2010). Each

gender must follow appropriate scripts of masculine and feminine behaviours and roles and if they do not, they are criticized by society for this (Albright & Carter, 2019). The Greek participants age will not affect their perceptions of victim blame, they all blame the victim for the situation they find themselves in.

In the UK sample the highest mean scores for Victim blame were identified in the 16-25 age group. This age group has been identified by prior research not being able to distinguish what is considered acceptable and non-acceptable behaviour for relationships and dating (Haugaard & Seri, 2003). It is evident that their UK participants in the 16-25 age group endorsing SMA Victim Blame also illustrates what previous results have identified that, they believe that stalking is the victim's fault, but they also are not able to recognize that these are dysfunctional misconceptions. In the Greek sample this age group had the third highest mean score for victim blame in comparison to the other five age groups. The 16-25 is considered the most vulnerable age for stalking as the most victims are found in this age group (Baum et al., 2009; Grangeia & Matos 2018; Ravensberg & Miller, 2003; Reyns & Scherer, 2018).

Young adults are still learning how to navigate their way through romantic relationships and social interactions, their immaturity can lead them to misconceptions of what is romantic behaviours and what is threatening behaviours (Campbell & Moore, 2011; Ravensberg & Miller, 2003). This research shows that young people are still susceptible to dysfunctional beliefs that they have learned through society, media, music, and television shows (Dunlap et al, 2012; Gallagher, 2002; Lee, 1997; Lowney & Best, 1995; Pathé & Mullen, 2002; Schultz et al., 2014; Spitzberg & Cadiz, 2002; Wykes, 2007). Previous research has argued that younger individuals will understand what stalking is and label their experience as such (Englebrecht & Reyns, 2011; Ngo, 2012), something that was also identified in this research but that will not limit their endorsement of stalking myths because of their age.

Furthermore, this does not mean that these scripts and misconceptions of stalking cannot be removed from society, it will simply take some time (Eaton et al., 2016). As the results illustrate that for both the Greek age groups and the UK age groups the next two groups that follow the 16-25 age group SMA endorsement falls, and the lowest means scores are found in those groups. This fall in mean scores for the SMA subscales and SMA total continues for the UK sample to the two oldest groups 46-55

and 56+, whilst for the Greek sample the mean scores for the SMA subscales and SMA total start to increase. This is not surprising as the older generations in Greece are still conservative, believe in gender role stereotypes and have certain expectations from each gender.

13.5Conclusion

In this chapter Stalking Myth Acceptance and its subscales were examined with regards to gender, education, and age groups. Some similarities and differences were identified in each analysis for both the Greek and the UK sample. Gender differences were identified in both samples, with Greek and UK men endorsing Stalking Myths in comparison to women in both samples. Whilst education differences were identified for the Greek participants, education had no effect in SMA endorsement for the UK participants. Finally, for the age group, differences were found in SMA endorsement for both the Greek and UK sample. The cultural difference of both countries was evident throughout the different aspects (gender, education, and age groups) that were examined, which illustrates the important role culture and cultural expectations can have on people's dysfunctional misconceptions that are associated with a crime.

CHAPTER 14

The link between Gender Role Stereotypes, Romantic Scale Belief and Hostility Towards Women with Stalking Myth Acceptance (Greek and UK sample).

13.1General Discussion

The objective for this part of the analysis was to examine if higher scores in the Gender Role Stereotype scale, in the Romantic Scale Belief scale and Hostility Towards Woman can predict higher scores in the Stalking Myth scale and its subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimising Stalking, and Nuisance) for both samples (Greek and the UK sample). A regression analysis was carried out separately for each SMA subscale and SMA total separately for both the Greek and the UK sample. Moreover, some similarities and differences were identified in both samples with regards to the results of this analysis.

13.2GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Total

The first objective that was examined in this part of the study, was if higher scores in the Gender Role Stereotype scale, in the Romantic Scale Belief scale and Hostility Towards Woman can predict higher scores in the Stalking Myth total for both the Greek and the UK sample. For the Greek sample, the regression analysis revealed that the three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 41% explained of variance in SMA Total and the final model, which included all three variables and was a statistically significant model. More specifically, for the Greek sample all three scales GRS, RSB and HTW had an effect in SMA scores, with GRS having the highest effect followed by HTW and RSB. For the UK sample the same objective was examined and the regression analysis revealed that the three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) 30.4% explained of variance in SMA Total and the final model, which included two variables (GRS and HTW) and was statistically significant model. More specifically, for the UK sample only two scales GRS, and HTW had an effect in SMA

scores, with HTW having the highest effect followed by GRS. Romantic Scale Belief had no effect in the model or predicting higher scores in SMA total.

For both samples higher GRS scores had an impact in predicted higher score for SMA, something that was identified in previous research (Sinclair, 2012). Similarly, higher scores for GRS, RBS and HTW can predict higher scores for SMA in Greek model, which is like Dunlap's (2010) results. The main difference between previous results (Dunlap, 2010) and the results for the UK model was the lack of effect for the RSB. Another difference that was identified between the two models was that for the Greek model GRS had a higher Beta Value and that was not the case for the UK model where HTW had a a higher Beta Value. This illustrates that culture can have a significant impact in people's score not only in each scale (GRS, RSB and HTW) independently but in the affect these scales have in Stalking Myth endorsement. As was stated previously Greece is a traditional country and people still endorse dysfunctional beliefs on how each gender should behave in every aspect of their lives. From what happens within the home setting, in the public domain, in a romantic relationship, in the workplace and even the career path the individual must follow (Kambouri, 2013; Glaveli, Karassavidou & Zafiropoulos, 2013).

The Gender Role Stereotypes scale having the most impact in the model for the Greek sample is not a surprise, for a country like Greece. Similarly, the fact that Hostility towards Women being the second highest impact variable in the model for the Greek sample follows this pattern. As HTW is a way to excuse the perpetrator behaviour for what they are doing to the victim (Check, 1988; Lonsway & Fitzgerald 1994). For example, if the wife did not anger her husband, he would not have reacted the way he did, and a wife must always follow her husband's wishes. Romantic scale belief also plays upon the tropes of Gender Role Stereotypes that have been created by culture and the media of the one true love and that people should do everything in their power to be with this individual who is the "one". As the media adapts to the culture of the country in Greece dysfunctional beliefs on romance are often overused in movies and television series.

As was found in the SMA analysis in the previous chapter, the UK sample had lower mean scores in Stalking Myth acceptance than the Greek sample. This also explains the smaller variance of SMA explanation between this model, in comparison

to the variance for the Greek model. Furthermore, as a country moves away from traditional gender roles, it is evident by these results that the notion of the "great romance" is slowly removed from the public domain. People become aware of the problems that are hiding behind the image of the "one true love", where no matter the problems the relationship has the individual must remain in this relationship even if the relationship turns violent or toxic. Romantic Scale Belief has no affect in the model, as over the years the UK has been slowly removing GRS from its culture and everyday life (Gender Index, 2019).

As GRS, RSB and HTW are often interconnected scales, what was surprising in this analysis is fact was that in the UK model GRS and HTW had almost similar effect to the model, whilst in the Greek sample RBS and HTW effects were closer together and the GRS was higher than both. It illustrates once more that cultural expectations influence people's beliefs, as in Greece GRS have a prominent effect in people's life; whilst RSB and HTW are closely connected through some overlapping facts that link them to GRS. In the UK GRS and HTW are closely connected due to the similarities that the two scales have with attitudes towards women.

14.3GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Victim Blame

The next objective that was examined was if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Victim Blame scores for both samples. The Regression Analysis revealed that for the Greek model the three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) explained 34.3% of variance in SMA Victim Blame. In addition, the final model was statistically significant, with GRS having the highest Beta Value followed by HTW and finally RSB. Whilst for the UK model the three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) explained 28% of variance in SMA Stalking Victim Blame and the model was statistically significant. The HTW had the highest Beta Value followed by GRS and once again RSB had no significant effect in the model. In the Greek model, GRS once again has the highest impact, whilst the two other scales HTW and RBS have close effect scores. Like the two models analysed in the previous part for each sample, it is evident that these two also follow similar patterns.

It is not surprising that higher GRS or higher HTW predicts higher SMA Victim Blame scores, as the blame is assigned to the victim for their behaviour which cause

them to be stalked, but simultaneously excusing the behaviours carried out by the stalker (Check & Malamuth, 1985; Dunlap, 2010; Dunlap et al, 2015). Gender stereotypes expect a man to "chase" woman, but she should not have been involved with him in the first place. The female victim will also be questioned as to what she did encourage the perpetrator's behaviour by continuing to speak to him even if it was to persuade him to stop (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Schultz, et al., 2014). Simultaneously, when blaming the victim, the narrative that women should not be trusted as they often lie to get what they want is used through HTW (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995; Dunlap et al, 2015). These results for the Greek model are like prior results in stalking (Dunlap, 2010; Dunlap et al, 2015). Whilst for the UK model even though there were similarities to Dunlap's results (2010; 2015) the main difference is the lack of effect of the RSB to the model. The Greek model once again had a larger variance in comparison to the UK model, which can be linked to the SMA mean scores of both samples.

14.4GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Flattery

The next objective to be examined was if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Flattery scores for both samples. In the Greek model it was found that the three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) could explain 36% of variance in SMA Flattery. In addition, the final model was statistically significant, with GRS having the highest Beta Value, followed by HTW and finally RSB. In the UK model the three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) could explain 24% of variance in SMA Flattery. The final model was also statistically significant with HTW having the highest Beta Value and followed by GRS, once again RSB had no significant effect in the model. The results for the Greek model for SMA Flattery are like prior results in stalking (Dunlap, 2010; Dunlap et al, 2015), but once again they differ for the UK model as the RBS had no significant impact in the model. Moreover, the variance for the Greek model was again higher than the UK model linking it to the SMA mean scores of both samples.

Another interesting similarity with the two previous UK models discussed in this chapter was that again HTW was the highest Beta Value for the model. The UK model by having the HTW as the highest leading variable is following the pattern of explaining and excusing the perpetrators behaviour (Check, 1988; Lonsway &

Fitzgerald, 1994). It is the woman's fault for not understanding that the perpetrator's behaviour is flattering and not dangerous. The Greek model is following a different pattern as the model is led by GRS, the victim should feel flattered by the attention from the perpetrator. As this behaviour is what expected by a male who is romantically interested in a female and he will pursue her until he "gets" her (DeBecker, 1997; Meloy, 1998; Holt, 1978; Lippman, 2018; Skoler, 1998; Wykes, 2007). Culture has once again impacted how the GRS, RSB and HTW effects SMA Flattery and the order in which they affect SMA Flattery.

14.5GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Minimizing Stalking

The next objective that was examined was if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Minimising Stalking scores for both samples. For the Greek sample, the three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) explained 39% of variance in SMA Stalking Victimization. Moreover, the final model was statistically significant, with GRS being the highest Beta Value, followed by HTW and RSB that had similar impact in the model. In the UK model the three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) explained 25% of variance in SMA Stalking Victimization and the final model was statistically significant. The GRS had the highest Beta Value, followed by HTW and the RSB had no significant effect in the model. The Greek model again followed the pattern of the previous ones in this chapter having a larger variance in comparison to the UK model.

The main difference for this specific UK model in comparison to the previous in this chapter is that in this model GRS has a higher impact. This is the first model for the UK which this has happened, but it is not surprising. As men are often the perpetrators of stalking in comparison to women, so it is obvious that they would not see their actions as a negative (Dunlap et al., 2012; Dunlap et al, 2015; Kamphuis et al, 2005; Sinclair 2012). Men see these behaviours as a way to rebuild their relationship with the ex-partner or as a way to pursue the person they are interested in (Cupach & Spitzberg 2004; Spitzberg & Cupach 2007). Gender roles have taught people that is expected by a man to "chase" a woman (DeBecker, 1997; Holt, 1978; Lippman, 2015; Meloy, 1998; Skoler, 1998; Wykes 2007). The results for the models for both countries (Greece and UK) identified in this analysis are like previous in the stalking research (Dunalp, 2010; Dunlap et al, 2015).

14.6GRS, RSB, HTW and SMA Nuisance

The final objective which was examined was if GRS, RSB and HTW can predict higher SMA Nuisance scores for both samples. For the Greek model, the three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) explained 29.5% of variance in SMA Nuisance and the final model was statistically significant. More specifically, the GRS had the highest Beta Value, HTW followed and finally RSB. In the UK model, the three independent variables (GRS, RSB and HTW) explained 18% of variance in SMA Nuisance and final model was statistically significant. Furthermore, the GRS had the highest Beta Value which was followed by HTW and RSB once again had no significant effect in the model. Similarly, to the previous models examined in this chapter once again the Greek sample had the higher variance for the model in comparison to the UK model.

It is an interesting fact that the only time that GRS had the highest impact in the UK model was when stalking was either minimized or when stalking is considered a nuisance. These results for both countries are again linked to men not being able to view their stalking behaviour for stalking but they choose to view them as part of the romance (DeBecker, 1997; Dunlap et al; 2011; Dunlap et al, 2015; Holt, 1978; Kamphuis et al, 2005; Lippman, 2015; Meloy, 1998; Sinclair 2012; Skoler, 1998; Wykes 2007). The lack of effect for the RSB in the UK model is once again traced in the cultural difference that surround how romance is viewed in each country. Furthermore, the ideals that are set alongside the expectations that people have for romance and the link they have to GRS. The results of this analysis for both samples are like prior in stalking (Dunlap, 2010).

14.7Conclusion

The analysis in this part of the study examined the effect GRS, RSB and HTW had with regards to SMA scale and its subscales. The results revealed that all the Greek models were significant and that all the three variables had an impact in the model and GRS had the highest Beta Value in all the models. The UK models were also significant, but some differences were identified in comparison to the Greek models. More specifically, for three models HTW had the highest impact for SMA total, SMA Victim Blame, and SMA Flattery, whilst for the two subscales of SMA Minimising Stalking

and SMA Nuisance the GRS variable had the highest impact in the model. Moreover, RSB had no impact in any of the models that were examined for the UK sample.

This part of the study illustrates once more that there are other factors that affect Stalking Myth endorsement, such a Gender Roles, Hostility towards Women and Romantic Beliefs. The main difference for how these other factors will affect the endorsement of Stalking myths depends on the culture of each country. As Sheridan et al., (2017) stated that culture has an important effect on what is considered a crime. Furthermore, culture impacts which dysfunctional beliefs still have an effect in the population and are slowly being removed from the culture narratives. This was evident when the RSB had an impact for the Greek models but simultaneously the impact was inexistent for the UK models.

CHAPTER 15:

SSA Victimization and Perpetration Discussion (Greek sample and United Kingdom sample)

15.1 General Discussion

The objectives for this part of the study were to investigate potential themes that could be uncovered from the stalking behaviour experienced and carried out by both samples. Using stalking behaviours to create themes has been done previously in stalking research by Canter and Ioannou, (2004). The themes that were identified in this research were used to create a typology. This typology could add more information on the existing stalking typology (Canter & Ioannou, 2004) by using a different sample then the previous research, that of a self-acknowledging sample which stated which stalking behaviours they experienced and carried out towards others. The themes that were found in each sample victimization or perpetration SSA were examined to investigate potential similarities or difference between the two countries.

15.2 Greek Victimization

15.2.1 Intimacy

The first analysis that was conducted was an SSA plot for the Greek sample which identified three distinct themes Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality. These themes were similar to the ones identified in Canter and Ioannou's (2004) typology research. In the first theme of intimacy, the perpetrator is trying to get closer to their victim using "normal" behaviours, to either rekindle a relationship or to begin a relationship with their victim. This is the theme with behaviours that could be misinterpreted, excused, or overlooked by the victims, as none of them "fits" society's expectations on what stalking is and what it looks like (Bondurant, 2001; Hammond & Calhoun, 2007; Haywood & Swank, 2008; Kahn et al., 1994; Ngo 2014; Ryan, 1988). The theme encompasses behaviours such as exaggerated expression of affection which people associate with romantic behaviour, and as a fundamental trope in any "romantic" film, television show or novel (Lippman, 2015; Wykes, 2007).

In this theme there are no behaviours that can be classed as violent, but some of the behaviours identified can be described as “annoying” such as receiving unwanted calls or messages. The first indications of potential harm that can come to the victim by stalking with behaviours such as following, covertly obtaining information and approaching/ surprising the victim in public are found in this theme. The perpetrator is trying to get “closer” to their victim with false pretences of “romance”, whilst simultaneously the stalker is gathering all the information, he or she can get on their victim to be near them. Moreover, from the behaviours found in this theme there is not one that can be considered as a crime, but these behaviours can cause the victim to be alarmed.

15.2.2 Aggression

The next theme that was identified for the Greek sample for victimization was Aggression. In this theme there is the first increase and move towards more dangerous behaviours that the victim experiences. The stalker is no longer satisfied being close to the victim and has moved towards being angry at the victim for not responding to his or her previous attempts of getting “closer” in the intimacy theme. If the behaviours exhibited in the previous theme had no effect on the victim and the perpetrator was either being ignored or the victim’s response did not have the predicted or expected outcome the stalker adjusts their behaviour accordingly.

The perpetrator moves from unwanted phone calls to obscene phone calls, which is a first indication of a more sexual behaviour towards the victim that also lays the foundations for the undertone of the next theme. The behaviour of approaching the victim in public places, the perpetrator is now intruding uninvited in the victim’s interactions and intruding on the victim’s family and friends. Harassment towards friends and family of the victim is associated with violence towards the victim (Echeburua et al., 2009; Sheridan & Roberts, 2011). If the offender has no problem of harassing “strangers” or “acquaintances” to him or her, which are the family and the friends of the victim they will have no problem of being violent towards their victim.

There is an overall escalation is each aspect of the stalker’s behaviour and the first signs of the potential violence that can be carried out by the perpetrator. As threatening messages are found in this theme alongside threats from the stalker to hurt

themselves, to make the victim feel guilty and to agree to be with the offender or to just create an everlasting sense of guilt to the victim if something happens to the stalker. Furthermore, it creates the belief that the victim is to blame for the situation, their reluctance to either start a relationship with the pursuer or to return to the relationship that has ended is what is causing all the problems. In this theme "annoyance" has now turned into regulatory harassment that is impacting every aspect of the victim' life.

The perpetrator is trying to "control" the victim through these stalking behaviours. Through relentlessly monitoring the victim's behaviour, the perpetrator is trying to alienate the victim from her or his support group of friends and family, so they become even more vulnerable. The victim will slowly become estranged from their support group to protect them from their pursuer and the victim will also become reluctant to socialize or go out. As there is always the potential that the perpetrator may appear wherever the victim goes to cause problems. The behaviours in the aggression theme are now becoming criminal behaviours such as sending threatening messages.

15.2.3 Sexuality

The final theme that was found in the SSA plot for victimization for the Greek sample was the Sexuality theme. In the Greek victimization plot the stalking progression was evident, as the stalker moved from trying to be close to the victim to being angry that their behaviour had no results to this final theme were the most violent and dangerous behaviours are grouped together. Even though in this theme there is only one specific sexual behaviour that of sexual coercion, the whole undertone of the theme is sexual as was in Canter's and Ioannou's (2004) sexuality theme. More specifically, watching their victim from out of sight, invading the victim's property, physically restraining them, stealing/damaging the victim's personal property and finally kidnapping them, all these behaviours have been found to be behaviours associated with sexual assault and rape (Beauregard et al., 2007; Beauregard & Leclerc, 2007; Canter & Heritage, 1989; Rebocho & Silva, 2014).

In this theme the stalker is no longer satisfied simply "controlling" the victim and every aspect of their life, the perpetrator's need to possess the victim becomes apparent. The mentality of "if I can't have you then no one else can" is the driving force of this theme (Hannawa et al, 2006; Logan, 2017). As the perpetrator wants to extend

the psychological damage to physical damage and to cause serious harm to the victim and the victim's personal property. The threats of physically harm that the perpetrator stated in the previous theme now become a reality when the perpetrator physically endangers the victim's life. Moreover, the risk of the threats becoming a reality is seen in the sexuality theme.

As previous research has stated that in a stalking situation the threats made by a stalker increase the possibility of violence and this applies to the sexuality theme (Bjerregaard, 2000; Brewster, 2001, 2003; Echeburua et al., 2009; Groenen & Vervaeke, 2009; Harmon et al., 1998; Kropp, 2008; McEwan et al., 2007, 2012; Roberts, 2005; Rosenfeld, 2004; Rosenfeld & Harmon, 2002; Sheridan & Roberts, 2011; Thomas et al., 2008). All the behaviours that can been seen in this theme are the most violent behaviours that associated with stalking (Borum et al., 1999; Campbell et al., 2003; MacManus et al., 2013; Mohandie, et al., 2006; Logan & Walker, 2010; Logan, Walker, & Hoyt, 2012; Logan, et al., 2006). Most of the behaviours identified in this theme are also criminal offences that can be prosecuted by the Greek criminal legislation (Modena Group of Stalking, 2007).

15.3UK Victimization

15.3.1Intimacy

In the analysis of the UK victimization SSA plot the same three themes that were identified for the Greek SSA plot were also found here, like the findings of Canter and Ioannou (2004). The first theme that was identified the UK SSA victimization plot was the intimacy theme. The main difference was that some of the behaviours that were found in the Greek SSA plot were not all present in the UK SSA plot. Whilst in the Greek plot communication through the messages and phone calls played an important part of the intimacy theme, for the UK intimacy theme physical contact had a dominant role. The perpetrator followed and watched the victim from out of sight, so they could approach them in public places but he or she also intruded into the victim's interactions and involve them into unwanted interactions and invaded the victim's personal space. The perpetrator wants to be "closer" to their victim like the Greek intimacy theme, but how this closeness is achieved between the two countries is different.

The behaviours that were found in the Greek plot which can be excused as "romance" (Lippman, 2018; Wykes 2007) and can be a reason for the victim to not acknowledge that they are being stalked cannot be found in this theme. The "intimacy" is more forceful for the UK sample, there are no pretences of romance in this theme as the perpetrator wants to be near the victim and he or she will go to extremes to achieve this. As was found in the Greek theme for intimacy none of the behaviours are criminal offences but, in this case, there is an underlying sense of danger for the victim as the perpetrator is trying to aggressively be near the victim.

15.3.2 Sexuality

Another difference between the two SSA victimization plots that was recognized in the analysis was that instead of slow progression from the intimacy to aggression and finally to the sexuality theme, in the UK after the intimacy the sexuality theme was identified. In the UK plot the perpetrator moves from wanting to be "closer" to the victim to wanting to "posses" their victim. Furthermore, differences are found once again in the behaviours identified in this theme in comparison to the Greek theme. Romantic behaviours can be seen in the theme such as making exaggerated expression of affection and being left unwanted gifts. The sexual undertone is clearer in the UK theme of sexuality as it has more similarities to the sexuality theme found in Canter and Ioannou's (2004) research on stalking typologies. These differences in the Greek and UK theme of sexuality illustrate the cultural differences between the two countries. In Greece intimacy is linked with romance, whilst in the UK romance is linked with sexuality.

Despite these cultural differences some similarities were also identified between the two themes, as all the violent and threating behaviours that are associated with stalking can be seen in this theme. More specifically, physically endangering someone's life, physically hurting the victim, and leaving or sending threatening objects (Borum et al., 1999; Campbell et al., 2003; MacManus et al., 2013; Mohandie, et al., 2006; Logan & Walker, 2010; Logan, et al., 2012; Logan, et al., 2006). Similarly, the behaviours associated with rape and sexual assault are in this theme as they were in the Greek sexuality theme (Beauregard et al., 2007; Beauregard & Leclerc, 2007; Canter & Heritage, 1989; Rebocho & Silva, 2014). Finally, the notion of if the stalker makes a threat the possibility of violence is high is also seen in this theme violence

(Bjerregaard, 2000; Brewster, 2000, 2002; Echeburua et al., 2009; Groenen & Vervaeke, 2009; Harmon et al., 1998; Kropp, 2008; McEwan et al., 2007, 2012; Roberts, 2005; Rosenfeld, 2004; Rosenfeld & Harmon, 2002; Sheridan & Roberts, 2011; Thomas et al., 2008).

Furthermore, in this theme the victim's friends and family are also targeted by the perpetrator as a way to extend the violence not only to the victim but the people the victim cares about (Echeburua et al., 2009; Sheridan & Roberts, 2011). As was stated previously by removing the protective support system the victim has around them it makes the individual an easier target for the perpetrator. The victim will be willing to isolate themself to protect these individuals from harm (Brewster, 2003; Dressing et al., 2006; Mechanic et al., 2000; Mullen et al., 2000; Logan & Walker, 2009 Walker & Meloy, 1998).

15.3.3 Aggression

As was also stated in the previous section the main difference with the Greek SSA plot and the UK SSA victimization plot is that this theme is not a continuation or natural evolution from the Intimacy theme. In this case it is complete separate and distinct theme as the evolution for the Aggression theme is the Sexuality theme that was discussed above. It is evident that for the UK plot, the stalker will either try to be intimate and get "closer" to their victim and then move to the sexuality aspect of stalking or they will either be aggressive towards the victim and try to "control" them and then move to the sexuality aspect. The focus of the stalker in this theme is the victim, all their actions are directed towards the individual they are pursuing and no one else. Whilst in the Greek theme of Aggression the friends and family would also be targeted to get the victim to be alienated from their support group, in the UK theme that is not the case.

The victim's support network was harassed and threatened in the sexuality theme for the UK participants, which illustrates again that cultural differences have an impact in the behaviours the stalkers exhibit (Hogg & Vaughan, 2014). In the aggression theme the victim is harassed by the stalker constantly using different methods by leaving messages that can also be threating, by calling them, by obtaining information covertly but also intercepting their mail and stealing or damaging the

victim's property. The perpetrator wants the victim to be in a constant state of fear of what will happen next, as fear is a very effective way to control another individual (Kwang Crockett, Sanchez, & Swann, 2013; Lavoie, Miller, Conway, & Fleet, 2001).

15.4Greece Perpetration

15.4.1Aggression

The perpetration behaviours that were conducted by the Greek participants were also examined, and the SSA for perpetration showed that the first theme that was found was the Aggression theme. The Aggression theme was also present in both victimization SSA plots. The perpetrator is trying to learn more information about their victim, either by monitoring the victim's behaviour or by covertly obtaining information. In addition, the perpetrator is making exaggerated expressions of affection and leaving unwanted messages. These behaviours are usually exhibited when the relationship has ended, and one party wants to rekindle the relationship (Cupach & Spitzberg 2004; Dennison, 2007; Spitzberg & Cupach 2007). Simultaneously there are the first signs of how the behaviour can easily escalate such as intercepting someone's mail or deliveries, invading someone's personal property, involving someone in unwanted interactions and intruding upon the victim's friends and family.

Furthermore, previous research found that when the stalker engages in more aggressive, intrusive, and confronting behaviours the more likely it is that the victim and perpetrator have had a prior intimate relationship which has ended (Devenish-Meares, 1995; Hills & Taplin, 1998). Similarly, to the Aggression themes that were identified previously in this chapter, the perpetrator is once again trying to control the victim (Holloway, 1994; Kwang et al., 2013; Lavoie, et al., 2001; Schwartz & Pitss 1995; Spitzberg & Cupach, 2003). The stalker is not targeting only the victim but the support network around the victim, trying to alienate from the victim's life (Brewster, 2003; Dressing et al., 2006; Mechanic et al., 2000; Mullen et al., 2000; Logan & Walker, 2009; Walker & Meloy, 1998). The Aggression theme was like the one identified by previous research in stalking typology (Canter & Ioannou, 2004).

15.4.2 Sexuality

The Sexuality theme was also identified in the Greek perpetration SSA plot. As was found in the previous Sexuality themes there was only one behaviour that was sexual, sexually coercing someone but the underlying tone of the whole theme was sexual. Furthermore, the behaviours that are identified in this theme are associated with crimes such as rape and sexual assault (Beauregard et al., 2007; Beauregard & Leclerc, 2007; Canter & Heritage, 1989; Rebocho & Silva, 2014). There is a clear intent of intimidation towards the victim with watching them out of sight, following them, making silent phone calls, and threatening them, the perpetrator wants to "posses" the victim. Moreover, threating, and dangerous behaviours are also found in this theme such as physically hurting someone, and threating. In this theme the behaviours that can be criminally prosecute in Greece can be found (Modena Group of Stalking, 2007). As with the previous theme that was identified, the sexuality theme for this SSA plot is like the one identified in previous research for stalking (Canter & Ioannou, 2004).

15.5 UK Perpetration

15.5.1 Aggression

For the UK perpetration SSA plot similar themes were identified as for the Greek perpetration SSA plot, and the first theme that was found was the Aggression theme. The main difference that can be seen between the Greek theme and the UK theme of Aggression for the perpetration was that the UK theme contained more threatening behaviours compared to the Greek theme. The perpetrator is making silent calls towards the victim, harassing them constantly, threating them, covertly obtaining private information, intercepting mail, and intruding into the victim's interaction. The cultural differences between the two countries are once more evident in the different behaviours that are found in similar themes (Hogg & Vaughan, 2014). The aim of the stalker is clear, he or she wants to be close to the victim and "control" them. The confronting behaviours suggest once again that the victim and the perpetrator had some prior intimate relationship which has ended (Devenish-Meares, 1995; Hills & Taplin 1998).

15.5.2 Sexuality

The sexuality theme was the second and final theme that was identified in the UK perpetration plot. In addition, like the previous sexuality theme there is one prominent sexual behaviour, sexual coercion but there was an overall underlying sexual undertone such as making obscene calls (Canter & Ioannou, 2004). This theme was like the victimization theme that was identified in the UK victimization plot, where romance is linked to sexuality. Furthermore, behaviours such as making exaggerated expressions of affection and leaving unwanted gifts, which are considered as part of romantic behaviour are found in this theme. As Hogg & Vaughan (2014) stated that cultural differences effect people's behaviour to processes of social psychology, which is evident once again as there are different behaviours that are found in this theme in comparison to the same theme in the Greek SSA perpetration plot. The behaviours that are found in this theme are the most violent between the two themes for the UK perpetration SSA plot, such as physically restraining someone, physically hurting someone, threating to self-harm, and physically threating someone. Moreover, these behaviours can be criminally prosecuted by the English legislation.

15.6 Conclusion

Overall, in the victimization SSA plots for both countries three themes Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality were found. In the Greek SSA plot the progression of stalking is evident, the stalker originally tries to get "closer" to the victim (Intimacy theme). As the behaviours that are found in the Intimacy are not effective to either rekindle the relationship or to start a relationship with the victim, the stalker moves to the Aggression theme. Where the stalker tries to "posses" the victim and alienate them from their support group. The final is the Sexuality theme, where the most dangerous and violent behaviours are identified. In the UK SSA plot for victimization the same three themes of Intimacy, Aggression and Sexuality are found. The main difference is that there is no progression in the stalking as was found in the Greek SSA plot. Both the aggression and the intimacy theme are on either side of the sexuality theme.

Another difference that was identified between the two SSA plots for both countries, were that some behaviours that were found in these themes were similar and others were different. More specifically, the romantic behaviours were identified in the

intimacy theme in the Greek SSA plot, whilst in the UK plot, they were found in the sexuality theme. For the perpetration SSA plots for both the Greek and the UK samples, two themes were identified Aggression and Sexuality. The main difference that was identified was again based on cultural differences. More specifically the "romantic behaviours" were found in the Aggression theme in the Greek SSA plot, whilst for the UK SSA plot, they were found in the Sexuality theme. In conclusion, these differences that were identified in both the SSA victimization and perpetration plots for both countries can be explained by the cultural difference that effect behavioural expectations in romantic behaviour and crime (Sheridan et al., 2002; Hogg & Vaughan, 2014).

CHAPTER 16:

Individual differences (Gender, Education Level and Age) with the SSA Themes for Victimization and Perpetration (Discussion)

16.1 General Discussion

In the SSA analysis of the behaviours that were experienced and carried out by both sample, themes for both victimization and perpetration were identified. For the victimization SSA plots for both samples three themes were identified that of intimacy, aggression, and sexuality and for the perpetration two themes that were identified were aggression and sexuality. The objectives for this part of the study were to investigate if the individual differences (Gender, Education Level and Age) could have an effect for the new themes that were identified for both the Greek and the UK sample in the SSA plots for victimization and perpetration.

16.2Victimization themes and individual differences (Greek sample)

16.2.1Gender

The first analysis that was conducted, examined if there were any gender differences in the three identified themes of intimacy, aggression, and sexuality in the Greek SSA victimization plot. For two of the themes intimacy and aggression the t-test analysis for gender differences found that there was a significant result. More specifically, women had higher scores of experiencing stalking behaviours that were found either in the intimacy or the aggression theme. In addition, for the sexuality theme no difference for identified between the two genders. The results of how each gender experienced the themes that were identified is not surprising as most stalkers are male and most victims are female (Australian Bureau of Statistics, 2013; Basile et al., 2006; Black et al., 2011; Dressing et al, 2007; Emerson et al., 1998; Johnson & Thompson 2016; Walby & Allen, 2004; Yanowitz & Yanowitz, 2012).

These results also follow the effect cultural has on stalking in Greece, which has been established throughout this this research. In Greek culture men are expected to pursue women when it comes to a romantic relationship (Kotzaivazoglou, Hatzithomas & Tsichla 2017; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994; Schultz, et al., 2014). A notion that is also endorsed and promoted by the media (DeBecker, 1997; Meloy, 1998; Holt, 1978; Wykes 2007). An interesting result was that when it came to the sexuality theme which have the most dangerous and violent behaviours of stalking no difference were identified between men and women. Both genders experienced equally these behaviours, which illustrate that anyone can be a victim of a severe case of stalking (Spitzberg, et al., 2010).

16.2.2 Education Level

The next aspect that was used to examine for the Greek sample was if there were any differences between the educational levels (school, undergraduate studies, and postgraduate studies) and victimization themes that were found in the SSA analysis. For the three themes intimacy, aggression, and sexuality there was no significant differences between the educational groups. It is evident that education level has no effect for the amount of stalking behaviours someone will experience during the time that they are being victimized by their stalker. These results illustrate once again that anyone can be a victim of stalking (Spitzberg, et al., 2010) and certain aspects such as education will not hinder the stalker pursuit of the victim.

16.2.3 Age

The final aspect that was examined for the Greek sample and the new themes that were identified from the SSA plot for victimization was age. For two of the themes that of aggression and sexuality when it came to age differences, no significant results were found. The only significant result that was identified for age difference was for the Intimacy theme. More specifically, the post-hoc tests that were further conducted revealed that the mean comparison significant differences were found between the 26-35 age group and the 36-45 age group in comparison to the 56+ age group. The results are not surprising as people who are older are less likely to be stalked (Basile et al., 2006; Catalano, 2012; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998), which explains why participant in the age group 56+ are less likely to experience the stalking behaviours found in the

intimacy them. Furthermore, some of stalking behaviours in the intimacy theme are considered “romantic” and participants in the age group 56+ are usually in a serious relationship, married, divorced, or even widowed.

In comparison the 26-35 age group and the 36-45 age group are when people are either actively dating, engaged, married, or divorced and stalking as had been stated previously in many cases begins after a relationship has failed (Devenish-Meares, 1995; Hills & Taplin, 1998). Furthermore, as was found in previous parts of the analysis these groups have more awareness of what stalking is and the behaviours that are associated with it and are more likely to report their stalking experiences (Bosick, Rennison, Gover, & Dodge, 2012; Conaway & Lohr, 1994; Ruback, 1994; Skogan, 1984). Age has been found in previous research to be a predictor of not only acknowledgment of stalking behaviour but also fear, and increased fear has been linked people reporting their stalking experience (Matos, Grangeia, Ferreira, & Azevedo, 2012).

16.2.4 Stalking Experience

In the victimization analysis that was examined in a previous chapter, when stalking acknowledgment was examined it was found that participants who have stated that they have never been stalked met the criteria of stalking (two or more behaviours experienced). To further examine if there were differences between participants that stated that they had experienced stalking and those who stated they had not experienced stalking in the three victimization themes (intimacy, aggression, and sexuality) that were identified in the SSA plot. All three of the t-tests that were conducted found a significant difference between the two groups (experiencing stalking and not experiencing stalking). These results highlight that people who experience more stalking behaviours will be more likely to state that they have experienced stalking, even though both groups had experienced stalking behaviours in all three themes. An interesting fact that was identified was that for the group with no stalking experience their highest mean score for stalking behaviours that had been carried out towards them was identified in the intimacy theme.

The intimacy theme for the Greek victimization SSA plot has been found to have more “romantic” behaviours, so it not surprising that most of the behaviours that the none stalking experience group had were identified in that theme. It also illustrates

that that is the cutting point for preventing stalking, if the behaviours that are carried out by the stalker do not stop early on and then the line of "romance" is crossed it then becomes stalking. It also explains why people are reluctant to acknowledge that they are being stalked, if the behaviours that are being carried out towards them are what culture and media consider acceptable (DeBecker, 1997; Meloy, 1998; Holt, 1978; Sheridan et al., 2017; Wykes 2007). Furthermore, these results also illustrate that even though participants can experience stalking behaviours if the number of these behaviours is low, they will not self-identify as victims even if legally they meet the criteria (Villacampa & Pujols, 2019). A pattern that was identified in this research also with the Greek participants not identifying themselves as stalking victims.

16.2.5 Asking for help

The final aspect that was examined for the three themes (intimacy, aggression, and sexuality) was if the participants who asked for helped had experienced more behaviours in each theme in comparison to the participants that did not ask for help. In all the three t-test that were carried out the results were significant. The participants that asked for help experiencing more stalking behaviours in each of the three themes (intimacy, aggression, and sexuality). These results confirm what previous research has identified that participants will ask for help when they become fearful from the situation they are in (Botuck et al., 2009; Felson, Messner, Hoskin, & Deane, 2002; Jordan, et al., 2007; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2010). As the participants who asked for help had experienced more stalking behaviours from their perpetrator it was inevitable for them to become more fearful and ask for help (Villacampa & Pujols, 2019).

16.3 Victimization themes and individual differences (UK sample)

16.3.1 Gender

Similar to the Greek sample the three new themes (intimacy, sexuality, and aggression) that were discovered in the SSA victimization plot for the UK sample were examined to discover if there were any gender differences in experiencing more stalking behaviours in each theme. The results indicated that there was only one significant difference between the two genders for the intimacy theme. Whilst for the

other two t-test for the themes of sexuality and aggression no significant results were found. This is the first difference that was identified for the samples as for the Greek sample the aggression theme also showed significant results. The difference in the aggression scores can be attributed to the gender role differences of the two countries. In Greece men are expected to be the aggressor and exhibit certain behaviours that are found in the aggression theme it is part of the gender expectations (Butler, 2004; Finnegan, et al., 2018). Whilst these beliefs are no longer part of the culture in the UK and both genders will carry out these behaviours.

Two similarities were identified between the two samples and the results of the t-test analysis for the SSA victimization themes. The first similarity that was seen in both samples was that in the sexuality theme there was no difference between the genders and then number of behaviours that they both experienced in this theme. This illustrates once more that anyone can be affected by severe stalking (Spitzberg, et al., 2010). The second was the gender differences that were found in the SSA intimacy theme for both sample, which illustrates that, stalkers try to be closer to their female victims and create a "close" relationship. Despite the differences in some behaviours identified overall perpetrators in both countries begin their stalking with the same goal to initiate a relationship with their victim.

16.3.2 Education level

As was done with the Greek sample level of education was also examined for the UK sample to see if that effected their experience with each of the stalking victimization themes (intimacy, sexuality, and aggression) that were discovered. All three of the ANOVAs tests did not have a significant result. These results were like the ones that were found for the Greek sample and education level. Education will not help the victims of stalking with experiencing fewer stalking behaviours, the stalker will be proceeded to stalk the victim no matter what. As Spitzberg, et al., (2010) stated in their research stalking is a crime that can affect anyone and gender, age, sexuality orientation, education or relationship status will not hinder the offender from carrying out these behaviours or would protect the victims from stalking.

16.3.3 Age

The next aspect that was examined with the new victimization themes (intimacy, sexuality, and aggression) that were discovered was age. Age has been found in previous research to have an effect if people understand that they are a victim of stalking or how likely they are to ask for help from what they are experiencing (Ménard & Cox, 2016; Ngo & Paternoster, 2016; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2010; 2014). Two of the ANOVA tests had no significant results that for sexuality and aggression, whilst the intimacy was the only ANOVA test to have a significant result. The ANOVA was further investigated using a post-hoc test that indicated that no significant results were found between the different age groups. In addition, in the age groups similar results to the Greek sample were found for the aggression and sexuality themes for the UK sample. The main difference was identified in the intimacy theme, whilst both had a significant result the post hoc tests revealed that for the Greek sample there were some significant differences in some ages groups, which was not the case for the UK sample with no significant results being found in the post hoc test.

16.3.4 Stalking experience

Stalking acknowledgement was examined for both samples, to see if people that met the criteria (two or more stalking behaviours) would realize that they had been a victim of stalking. In the UK sample several participants that met the criteria did not identify themselves as victims of stalking. To further examine if the number of behaviours experienced by the participants would affect their perception of stalking victimization; the participants who had experienced stalking and those who had not were compared to see which group had dealt with more stalking behaviours in the three victimization themes (intimacy, sexuality, and aggression). All three t-test revealed that there was a significant difference in the behaviours experienced between participants that stated that they had experienced stalking and those participants that stated that they had not.

Furthermore, these results are like the Greek participants results, as both indicated that even though both samples (stalking experience vs no stalking experience) experienced stalking behaviours, the participants that did not self-identify as stalking victims had fewer stalking behaviours carried out towards them (Villacampa & Pujols,

2019). It is evident by these results for both samples that for someone to identify themselves as a stalking victim a high number of behaviours must be experienced by them. Despite the legislation stating that two or more stalking behaviours are considered stalking, people do not believe that two behaviours qualify as stalking. These results also explain why there is a difference on self-identifying victims and victims found by researchers (Villacampa & Pujols, 2019).

16.3.5 Asking for Help

The final part that was examined for the UK sample was to see if there were any differences in the number of behaviours the people who had asked for help in comparison to those who had not. All three of the t- tests for the themes (intimacy, sexuality, and aggression) were found to have a significant difference between the two groups (ask for help vs not asking for help). Furthermore, the current results are similar to the Greek sample's results but also with previous research which has stated that only when people become fearful of the situation they are in they will ask for help from someone (Botuck et al., 2009; Felson, et al., 2002; Jordan, et al., 2007; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2010). In addition, the participants that asked someone for help where the ones consistently experiencing more stalking behaviours (Villacampa & Pujols, 2019), which made them more fearful of what could happen to them (Englebrecht & Reyns, 2011; Jasinski & Mustaine, 2001; Langhinrichsen-Rohling, 2012; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998, 2000; Wigman, 2009).

16.4 Perpetration themes and individual differences (Greek sample)

16.4.1 Gender

The next part of the analysis investigated if there were any differences between the genders and the stalking behaviours they carried out towards others based on themes (aggression and sexuality) that were found in the perpetration SSA for the Greek sample. The results for the both t-tests indicated that there was no significant difference between the genders. The results indicate that women can stalk men in similar way that men stalk other women, exhibiting the same stalking behaviours towards their victims which can become dangerous and violent (Spitzberg, et al., 2010; Thompson, Dennison, & Stewart, 2012). Furthermore, women stalkers go by undetected as was also found in

a previous chapter, as men are more reluctant to acknowledge their victimization (Baum et al., 2009; Englebrecht & Reyns, 2011; Jasinski & Mustaine, 2001; Ménard & Cox, 2016; Tjaden & Thoennes, 1998, 2000).

16.4.2 Education Level

The next aspect that was examined was the if the education level created differences in the number of behaviours associated with the two themes (sexuality and aggression) carried out by the Greek participants towards their victims. The results revealed that for the aggression theme educational level did not have a significant difference. More specifically, the participants of each educational level carried out the same amount of stalking behaviours towards their victim. For the sexuality theme the ANOVA results were significant, and a post hoc test was conducted to find in between which groups these differences were found. The difference in the post hoc test was found between the participants that had completed school and undergraduate studies, with participants that had completed the educational level of school carrying out more stalking behaviours in the sexuality theme.

Most of the participants in the school educational level, were still in school during the time this data was collected. The educational level of school included participants that had completed primary school, high school, and lykeio that is the equivalent of college/ six form. The main issue is that with having a lower education level either people do not understand the severity of their actions, or they refuse to acknowledge that what they are doing towards their victims (Davis, et al., 2000; Dunn, 1999; Sinclair & Frieze 2005; Tjaden, Thoennes, & Allison, 2000). These results are also different from previous research which suggested that stalkers have higher education then other offenders (Harmon et al., 1995; Meloy & Gothard, 1995). As in this study the results suggest the lower the educational level of the perpetrator the more violent and dangerous behaviour he or she will exhibit towards their victim.

16.4.3 Age

Age was the next aspect that was investigated to examine if any differences exist between the age group and the amount of stalking behaviours carried out by the participants to their victims in each of the perpetration themes (sexuality and

aggression) that were found. The results indicated that there were no differences in both themes when it came to age groups and the number of behaviours that the participants conducted towards their victims. As anyone can be a victim of stalking (Spitzberg et al., 2010), similarly anyone can be a perpetrator of stalking and age is not a deterrent towards what and how many stalking behaviours they will carry out towards another individual.

16.4.4 Stalking experience

The following aspect that was examined was to see if the participants that had stalked another individual had carried out more stalking behaviours with regards to the two perpetration themes (sexuality and aggression) in comparison to the participants that stated that they had not stalked anyone. Examining once more if stalking acknowledgment is linked to how many behaviours are conducted by the perpetrator. As some of the participants that stated that they had not stalked someone else met the criteria of two or more behaviours are considered stalking. The analysis revealed that for both t-tests for the themes (sexuality and aggression) were significant. It is evident by the results that like the victimization results (Villacampa & Pujols, 2019) that people will self–identify as perpetrators only if they have conducted several stalking behaviours. This also explains people's reluctance to admit that they are perpetrators of a crime as it does not "fit" their ideas of what stalking is (Dunlap et al, 2012; Kamphuis et al. 2005; Sinclair 2012; Spitzberg & Cadiz, 2002).

16.4.5 Asking for Help

The final aspect that was meant to be examined was if there was a difference in the number of behaviours exhibit in each perpetration theme (sexuality and aggression) with regards to participants who were asked by someone to stop their behaviour in comparison to those that no one contacted them about their stalking behaviour. As only two participants were contacted by someone with regards to their behaviour and fifty-eight were not, the analysis was not carried out.

16.5Perpetration themes and individual differences (UK sample)

16.5.1Gender

The first part of the analysis that was investigated for the UK sample was to examined gender differences in the two themes (sexuality and aggression) that were identified in the perpetration SSA plot. The first t-test for the Aggression theme revealed that there were no significant differences for both genders the same result that was also identified in the Greek sample. The main difference that was identified between the two samples was in the next t-test with regards to the sexuality theme were there was a significant difference, in the Greek sample this result was not significant. Women from the UK conducted more dangerous and violent stalking behaviours than the men. The result is a similar result to previous research in stalking that stated that women can illustrate violent behaviours towards men during stalking (Thompson, et al., 2012).

16.5.2Education level

In the Education level aspect that was examined if there were any differences found in each of the perpetration theme (aggression and sexuality) that were identified int the SSA perpetration plot depending on the participants education, no significant results were found. These results are different from the Greek sample's results where a difference was identified in the sexuality theme between participants that had completed school and undergraduate studies. This again illustrates the cultural differences between the two samples (Hogg & Vaugham, 2014), were people who go into further education learn that their behaviours and cultural beliefs that were taught in early education can be misleading and dangerous.

16.5.3Age

Similar, to the Greek sample age was examined to investigate if it had any effect in the number of behaviours that were perpetrated by the UK participants in regards with both SSA perpetration themes (sexuality and aggression). The results of the ANOVA tests indicated that there was no significant difference between the age groups. As was stated previously any individual can be a victim of stalking and anyone can

become a perpetrator of stalking (Spitzberg, et al., 2010), and age will not affect the way the perpetrator behaves towards their victim, according to these results.

16.5.4 Stalking experience

The next aspect that was examined was to see if any difference would be identified between the participants that had stated that they had stalked another individual and those who had not in the number of stalking behaviours that they carried out in both of the perpetration themes (sexuality and aggression) that were identified. For the sexuality theme a significant difference was identified, with more participants that had admitted to stalking another individual carrying out more stalking behaviours.

These results were like the results identified for the Greek sample. The main difference was found in the aggression theme were there no significant difference in the behaviours carried out by the participants that had stalked another person and those who had not. It is evident that people will be reluctant to admit they have stalked another individual especially in a country such as the UK which has several laws to protect people from stalking. Furthermore, even though the behaviours that were identified in the aggression were of a threating nature, some of the UK participants either refused to acknowledge the severity of their actions or did not understand the impact the behaviours had to others (Davis, et al., 2000; Dunn, 1999; Sinclair & Frieze, 2005; Tjaden, et al., 2000).

16.5.5 Asking for Help

The final aspect that was supposed to be examined was if there was a difference with regards to the number of stalking behaviours conducted by the participants in each perpetration theme (sexuality and aggression) with regards to someone contacting them about their stalking behaviour in comparison to participants that were not contacted by anyone. As only one participant that was contacted by someone about their stalking behaviour and sixty- nine were not, the analysis was not carried out.

16.6 Conclusion

Overall, in this chapter some similarities and some differences were identified between the two samples with regards to individual differences that were examined

with the themes for victimization (intimacy, aggression, and sexuality) and the perpetration themes (aggression and sexuality). These differences stem from cultural differences between the two samples, whilst the similarities stem from the fact that anyone can be a stalker and a victim of stalking. Individual factors such as their gender, age and level of education can influence some aspects of stalking such as victimization and no effects on others such as perpetration. These results illustrate the complexity of stalking in every aspect of the crime.

CHAPTER 17:

Correlations with the SSA Themes for Victimization and Perpetration and the scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) (Discussion)

18.1General Discussion

The themes that were discovered in the SSA analysis for victimization and perpetration for both samples which were intimacy, aggression and sexuality for victimization and aggression and perpetration for perpetration. The objectives were to examine the new themes for both victimization and perpetration to investigate if there was a relationship between the scores of these new themes for both victimization and perpetration and the scores of the other scales (SMA, GRS, RMS and HTW) and SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) that were used in this study for each sample (Greek and UK).

17.2 Victimization (Greek sample)

17.2.1Intimacy Theme

The relationship between the intimacy for victimization that was identified for the Greek sample that was examined with the other scales (SMA, GRS, RMS and HTW) and SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance). Only two correlations were significant and negative between intimacy and SMA Victim Blame and GRS scale. These results illustrate that, participants who do not endorse victim blame and gender role stereotypes will experience more stalking behaviours during their stalking victimization. The reason behind these results is that because these participants are more aware of what is happening to them, they understand that these behaviours are wrong and cause them distress; they will then report their experiences (Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2010; Williams, 1984). Furthermore, the participants that endorse these dysfunctional beliefs will not understand that these behaviours are not part of the romance (DeBecker, 1997; Meloy, 1998; Holt, 1978; Skoler, 1998; Wykes 2007), but a crime. This will hinder

their ability to quickly understand the danger they are in and potentially cause them more physical and psychological harm and endanger their lives (Littleton & Henderson, 2009).

17.2.2 Aggression theme

In the aggression theme for the victimization that was identified with all the Scales (SMA, GRS, RMS and HTW) and SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance), only one negative correlation was found to be significant. The significant correlation was between the aggression theme and the SMA Victim Blame, which once again illustrates that, participants who do not endorse SMA victim blame will experience more stalking behaviours. As these participants will be more aware of the true nature of these behaviours and will not view them as either romantic or a nuisance that will eventually stop (Dunlap et al, 2015; Greenberg & Ruback, 1992; Kamphuis et al, 2005; Reyns & Englebrecht, 2010; Williams, 1984).

17.2.3 Sexuality theme

The final theme that was examined for the Greek victimization themes was sexuality. It was investigated if there was any relationship between the current theme and all the Scales (SMA, GRS, RMS and HTW) and SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance). Only one positive correlation was found to be significant between the sexuality theme and the HTW. This indicates that the participants who endorse HTW will experience more stalking behaviours. The participants understand and acknowledge what is happening to them but at the same time they are creating excuses for the perpetrator. More specifically, HTW is used to "excuse" men being violent towards women physically, sexually or for any other type of abuse (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

In HTW statements such as "women lie to get what they want" legitimise in the mindset of people who endorse them the notion that women cannot be trusted. This creates a breeding ground for beliefs such as women cannot be trusted then they must have done something to "provoke" this behaviour from men. It creates a never-ending circle with victims understanding that what is happening to them is wrong but also feeling as they have done something to deserve this behaviour. This result stems from

the dysfunctional beliefs that are widespread in Greek society with regards to gender roles and the behavioural expectations for each gender in their everyday life (Butler, 2004; Finnegan, et al., 2018).

17.3 Victimization (UK sample)

17.3.1 Intimacy theme

The first theme that was examined for the UK sample for the victimization themes was intimacy. It was investigated if there was any relationship between the current theme and all the Scales (SMA, GRS, RMS and HTW) and SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance). In the analysis there was only one positive correlation that was found to be significant between the intimacy and the HTW. The UK sample endorses the belief that the perpetrators should be "excused" for their behaviour to be violent or abuse towards women (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994).

This result was different from the one identified for the Greek sample, as there is a positive correlation in this analysis in comparison to the Greek sample which was negative. The cultural differences are impacting people's experiences of the crime (Hogg & Vaugham, 2014). For the Greek sample SMA endorsement is linked with lack of awareness and lack of admission of experiencing stalking behaviours, whilst for the UK SMA endorsement was linked with experiencing more stalking behaviours. The reason for this is because their endorsement of dysfunctional beliefs they did not realize what was happening to them until they had experienced too many behaviours. As stalking become more severe the participants could no longer excuse these behaviours as something trivial, they became aware of what is happening to them.

17.3.2 Sexuality theme

The next theme that their relationship was examined with the other Scales (SMA, GRS, RMS and HTW) and SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) was the Sexuality theme. The analysis revealed that there was a significant positive correlation between the aggression theme and HTW. Like the previous analysis that was discussed the participants are "excusing" the

perpetrator violent behaviour (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995), which causes them to experience more stalking behaviours. This result is similar with the results of the Greek sample, which indicates that despite cultural differences (Hogg & Vaugham, 2014) some similarities are found between the two samples.

17.3.3 Aggression theme

The final theme that was investigated for the UK sample was the aggression theme. It was examined if there was any relationship between the current theme and all the Scales (SMA, GRS, RMS and HTW) and SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance). Two correlations were found to be positive and significant between the aggression theme and the GRS and the HTW. These results were different from the Greek sample which had a negative correlation.

Cultural differences (Hogg & Vaugham, 2014) have affected once again the stalking awareness with UK participants experiencing more stalking behaviours when the endorse dysfunctional beliefs. The participants will excuse the perpetrators behaviour which causes them to delay acknowledging their victimization. In the Greek sample dysfunctional belief endorsement will cause the participants not to understand victimization and they will not disclose it; both can be harmful for stalking victims as their lack of awareness could extent their victimization as they will be hesitant to ask for help for what is happening to them (Littleton & Henderson, 2009).

17.4 Perpetration (Greek sample)

17.4.1 Aggression

The theme of aggression that was discovered from the perpetration SSA plot for the Greek sample was examined to see if the relationship with the other scales that were used in this study (SMA, GRS, RMS and HTW) and SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance). The analysis revealed that all but one of the correlations that of GRS were found to be positive and significant. It illustrates that, participants that endorse dysfunctional beliefs for stalking, romance and hostility towards women will carry out more stalking behaviours that are found in the aggression theme towards the victims. The participants that stalked someone will excuse their behaviour either because they thought it was “romantic” or there were trying to resume

their relationship (DeBecker, 1997; Meloy, 1998; Holt, 1978; Skoler, 1998; Wykes 2007).

Furthermore, the participants will be glorifying their behaviour believing that their victim should be flattered by the attention (Spitzberg & Cadiz 2002; Mullen, et al., 2000). The behaviour they are exhibiting is simply a nuisance for their victim and is not actually a crime (Dunlap et al, 2015; Kamphuis et al, 2005). Moreover, they will blame the victim for making them behave the way they are, as if they were either accepting their advises or their relationship resumed, they would not have to behave the way they are (Dunlap et al, 2015; Kamphuis et al, 2005; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1994). These results illustrate that people refuse to acknowledge the gravity of their actions and will try to justify them using dysfunctional beliefs that have been cultivated by society over the years on stalking, gender roles, romance, and hostility towards women (Butler, 2004; Cate, et al., 1995; Dion & Dion, 1991; Dunlap et al, 2015; Finnegan, Fritz & Horrobin, 2018 Kamphuis et al, 2005; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995; Sprecher & Metts, 1989).

17.4.2 Sexuality

The final perpetration theme that was examined for the Greek sample in relation with the other scales (SMA, GRS, RMS and HTW) and SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) that were used in this study. In this analysis there were significant correlations between the sexuality theme and SMA Flattery, Minimizing Stalking, SMA Nuisance, SMA Total and HTW. Similar with the results of the previous theme for Greek participants, endorsement of dysfunctional beliefs such as SMA subscales and HTW will make someone carry out more stalking behaviours towards others.

The participants excuse their behaviour by endorsing stalking myths that their actions should be perceived as flattery not as a crime (Dunlap et al, 2015; Kamphuis et al, 2005; Lee, 1997; Lowney & Best, 1995). Furthermore, their behaviour should be perceived as nuisance by their victims, and if they believe it is perceived as such, they will carry out more behaviours towards them. In addition, they will justify their behaviour because the victim has done something to wrong them (Lonsway &

Fitzgerald, 1994) either the victim did not rekindle their relationship or refused their advances and they "deserve" what is happening to them.

17.5 Perpetration (UK sample)

17.5.1 Aggression

For the UK sample the themes that were identified in the SSA analysis for perpetration were examined to see the relationship they had with other scales (SMA, GRS, RMS and HTW) and SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery, Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) that were used in this study. All the correlations expect one that of the RSB were positive and significant, participants that endorse more dysfunctional beliefs will carry out more stalking behaviours. RSB has consistently have not had an effect in the analysis for the UK sample, it is evident that dysfunctional romantic beliefs (Sprecher & Metts, 1989) have no effect in UK culture. The results of this analysis are similar with the Greek's sample for the same theme. Participants who endorse dysfunctional beliefs on stalking, gender role and hostility towards women will carry out more stalking behaviours towards the people that they are victimizing (Butler, 2004; Cate, et al., 1995; Dion & Dion, 1991; Dunlap et al, 2015; Finnegan, et al., 2018; Kamphuis et al, 2005; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995).

The main difference that was identified between the two themes for aggression was that there was a significant correlation for the aggression theme and the GRS for the UK sample, whilst for the Greek sample this was not significant. In the Greek sample more women revealed that they had stalked another individual in comparison to the UK sample, where the difference of female to male perpetrators for the perpetration aspect was small. This difference in the number of stalkers in association with the gender role stereotypes dysfunctional beliefs that women can never be the aggressor as it is not considered ladylike to pursue a man, could explain the difference between the two samples.

17.5.2 Sexuality

The final perpetration theme that was examined for the UK sample was the sexuality theme. It was investigated to see the theme's relationship with the other scales (SMA, GRS, RMS and HTW) and SMA subscales (Victim Blame, Flattery,

Minimizing Stalking and Nuisance) that were used in this study. All the correlations were positive and significant except for one (RSB). This illustrates once more that the participants that will have high scores in dysfunctional belief endorsement will conduct more stalking behaviours towards the people they stalk (Butler, 2004; Cate, et al., 1995; Dion & Dion, 1991; Dunlap et al, 2015; Finnegan, et al., 2018; Kamphuis et al, 2005; Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995). The main difference between the two samples for the sexuality theme was that the correlation between this theme and GRS was significant, whilst for the Greek sample it was not significant. As was stated previously in the Greek sample more perpetrators were women and in the UK sample the difference between men and women perpetrators was small. In addition, gender roles stereotypes do not endorse women to pursue romantically men, and with more women being perpetrators it is evident why GRS will have no impact in one country and not in the other.

17.6 Conclusion

Despite some similarities especially in the perpetration aspect for both countries in the relationships between the new themes for victimization (intimacy, aggression, and sexuality) and for perpetration (aggression and sexuality) and the other scales (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) used, differences were identified in the victimization aspect, which is in due to cultural differences (Hogg & Vaugham, 2014). Overall, these results indicated that endorsing dysfunctional beliefs will affect stalking acknowledgement for stalking victims as they will either experience more stalking behaviours because they will excuse the perpetrators behaviour and try to rationalize it; or they will experience more stalking behaviours because they understand what is happening to them and they will report those behaviours. For the perpetration aspect it was evident that for both countries if the perpetrator endorsed dysfunctional beliefs (SMA, GRS, RSB and HTW) they will carry out more stalking behaviours towards the victims. As their dysfunctional belief endorsement was used by the offender to excuse and legitimize their behaviour. Either way lack of acknowledgement of stalking victimization and perpetration can cause significant harm for the victims both physically and psychologically.

CHAPTER 18:

Implications, Limitations, Future Research and Conclusion

18.1 Implications

18.1.1 Implications for Greece

The first implication and most significant that was identified is the need for an anti-stalking legislation in Greece. As a lot of Greek participants had experienced stalking and there is very little help available for them from a legislative point and the police have limited resources to help them, as they bound by the constructs of the current criminal legislation. Awareness needs to be brought to the country through social awareness campaigns and the media, to explain this crime the damaging effects it has in victim's psychology but also their physical wellbeing. Public awareness will push politicians to the create appropriate anti-stalking legislation. Furthermore, when a new legislation is created special training need to be provided to the police, lawyers, psychologists, and the judges so they can assist stalking victims appropriately.

As without appropriate training for the law enforcement or the judicial system it will make no difference in the lives of the victims and the perpetrators will continue to stalk them, as the cases will either be dismissed by the police or by the judges. In addition, the results indicated that when a country has anti-stalking legislation there is a decrease in endorsement in Stalking Myths as was seen when the results between the Greek and UK participants were compared for Stalking myth acceptance. It is important for Greece to educate the general public but also to provide the correct tools to protect the victims from this dangerous and complex crime.

18.1.2 Implications for Greece and the UK

Another important fact that was discovered in this research is that a lot of stalking is experienced in the adolescent years. For both countries there needs to be more awareness programs and seminars in schools and universities as these two ages groups were the highest effected and they also endorse dysfunctional beliefs on stalking. As their age disproportionally affects them because of the lack of awareness that the behaviours they are experiencing are dangerous and could potentially and over

time turn violent. Furthermore, the young people that are carrying out these behaviours towards someone else, they need to learn that their behaviour can have a devastating effect on their victim but also face the appropriate consequences for their behaviours. If young people learn that their actions have no consequences then over time, they might escalate their behaviour, which could not only cause irreversible damage to them but also other individuals. More awareness needs to be brought to the public in both countries on male victimization, as the results indicated that several males had experienced stalking, but they were reluctant to reveal their victimization. The true effect of stalking in the male population will never be uncovered if people remain hesitant to discuss the subject of their victimization.

Campaigns need to be created to illustrate that stalking is a serious crime that can affect anyone but also to help dismantle the Stalking Myths that exist, which also help excuse the perpetrators behaviour, blame the victim, and minimize stalking and its damaging effects. Judges and police officers need to be trained to understand the impact Stalking myths have on the decisions people make about the seriousness of this crime and the effects it has on others, as was identified by the results of this study. This cross-cultural study illustrates the complexity and the ambiguity of stalking as a crime and that a number of external aspects such as culture can play an integral part into how it is viewed by people, what behaviours will be experienced by the victims but also how the perpetrators themselves will view their actions.

The results of the SSA also illustrated that from one theme to another the behavious become more severe in stalking which has been often discussed in research but rarely shown in data analyses. Because stalking is a crime that can turn violent, or the victim can be murdered or raped. People often dismiss the initial behaviours that are exhibited prior to the violence escalated as a nuisance and will not report them to the authorities. Furthermore, it is the first time that a study on stalking and different aspects of the crime is focused on a Greek sample, which creates a steppingstone for more research on the topic in Greece to be conducted. This research not only adds to the adolescent stalking literature, but it is one of the few studies to combine adolescences and adults in one study. In addition, this study illustrated that woman can also stalk using the same tactics and behaviours as men do and can cause similar harm to their victim. As stalking research has focused primarily on female victims and not as much on male victims.

The study also researched stalking from the perpetrators point of view how they see their actions and if they believed they caused their victim fear. Very rarely in stalking research the perpetrators point of view is examined and if that is the case the data are from an official source such as the police. The data does not include all the behaviours that the victim experienced but only what the victim stated or what was relevant from the prosecution. It is interesting to see the dissociation that an individual who has experienced stalking and carried out stalking himself or herself has over the two separate events. This is not something that has been researched in the past in stalking literature as the research has mostly focused on the victims, less on the perpetrators and their views and never in cases where someone can be both a victim but also a perpetrator. The aspects examined in this research add new information about this complex crime to the existing literature and show that the main reason for the crime's complexity is the unpredictability of human behaviour and how one sees themselves when the roles of victim and perpetrator are reversed.

18.1.3 Typological Implications

Canter and Ioannou (2004) proposed a stalking typology based on stalking behaviours that were found in police reports on stalking incidents. This research has added to this typology illustrating that even with self- identifying stalking data similar themes emerged in both victimization and perpetration. Moreover, it illustrates that stalking in countries with different cultural expectations and beliefs will have the same basis, as the perpetrator has the same motivations for the reasons, he or she approaches the victim. Some stalking behaviours that are identified in each theme for each country might be slightly different due to cultural differences but the overall reasoning for stalking will be the same. It also illustrates the importance of examining the cutting point for early intervention for potential escalation of the crime.

Overall, this typology can help police officers understand the motivations behind the offender's actions and how the stalking incidents will progress over time and the potential dangers that the victim will find themselves in depending on the actions the offender is carrying out at the time they report the incidents to the police. Psychologists and other health professionals can also use this typology to understand the stalker's motivation and to help them create an appropriate program for the stalker's rehabilitation back to society. Moreover, using this typology, health professionals,

counsellors and psychologists can assess the treatment the victim needs with the regards to their experiences during stalking and help them return to their lives. In addition, they can help the victims of stalking overcome the trauma that was inflicted upon them by the stalkers and by providing them with the necessary tools to move their life forward.

18.2Limitations

Some limitations were identified for this study. The participants were provided with the list of stalking behaviours, and they had to state which of them they had experienced. However, there is a probability a behaviour they experience was not included in the list. There is also the potential of the participants not stating the full extent of the behaviours they had experience or carried out towards someone else. Furthermore, people may have also reported behaviours from the stalking behaviours list they had experienced that may have not been carried out by the same individual but different individuals. This could have also affected the perpetration aspect as the participants may have reported behaviours in the list of stalking behaviours that they conducted to more than one individual. Stalking Myth Acceptance scale is a gendered scale focusing on women's experience of stalking and not examining misconceptions on the male victimization by stalking, so any myths that exist about stalking with regards to male victimization were not examined in the current research.

In the SSA analysis some behaviours were removed as only one participant had experienced that behaviour, if more participants had experienced that behaviour there could be a possibility that the themes were different, or some behaviours would have been in another theme. Similarly, as was stated above there could be a possibility that the behaviours the participants responded to as being part of one overall stalking incident could have been experienced in different incidents not relating to the stalking experience. This could potentially have altered the themes if that data did not correlate to stalking. As the SSA analysis is affected by the co-occurrence of each variable with every other variable.

18.3Future Research

Future research should expand Stalking myths to include male victimization but also create a gender nonbinary version of the scale. As gender norms are changing and

more people are identifying as gender nonbinary or as an agender individual their perspective of stalking victimization needs to be researched. Furthermore, by creating a SMA scale that focuses on male victimization it could be examined if the same SMA beliefs of victim blame, nuisance, flattery and minimizing stalking also apply to men. The SMA scale could also be extended or a new can be developed to examine if Stalking Myths exist for cyberstalking, which is still considered a new form of stalking and the research that surrounds it is still developing. Examining trends for cyberstalking in both Greece and the UK could be explored in future research, to investigate if the similarities and differences that were identified in physical stalking will also be seen in the online version of the crime. Furthermore, the potential to conduct a research focusing solely on adolescence in both countries needs to be explored, as the results of this research indicated that staking starts from a young age.

Moreover, for the Greek aspect of the study it could be expanded from the current research using a sample of judges, lawyers, police officers, social workers, and psychologists to investigate not only their personal experience but if they have dealt with a stalking case in their professional career. In addition, the same study could also be conducted in the UK with the similar sample of participants examine their experiences with stalking personally and professionally. Finally, the outcomes of stalking cases or cases that have underlying stalking within them but are not considered as such by the Greek police and have requested help from the police could also be investigated in both countries. Examining them from the initial request for help to the procedures and the outcomes of each case.

18.4Conclusion

The current study examined the similarities and differences between participants of two countries Greece and the UK with regards to their stalking victimization and perpetration, Stalking Myth Acceptance, and stalking typology based on stalking behaviours. The differences that were identified in both samples stemmed from cultural expectations and beliefs on gender roles, romance, and hostility towards women. The importance of stalking acknowledgment was highlighted throughout the study, as lack of awareness was linked in previous research and in the current with increased risk of harm for the victims. In conclusion, stalking is a complex crime and as Davis and Chipman (1997) stated that for stalking research there is no conclusion it

simply offers a glimpse of the effects and the devastation this crime can cause. Stalking is constantly evolving and changing and the people who can comprehend the true nature, the extent of this crime and its complexity is the offenders and the victims.

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APPENDICES SECTION

APPENDIX I – Stalking Questionnaire

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Please provide the following demographic information:

Age:

Gender:

Ethnicity/Nationality:

Place of Birth:

Place of Residence:

Sexual Orientation:

Current Relationship Status:

Highest Level of Education:

Occupation:

PART 1: Personal Experience With Stalking-Related Behaviour

Personal Experience with Stalking-Related Behavior (The Home Office- British Crime Survey)

In some countries, repeated and unwanted intrusive behaviours that are directed at an individual and cause that individual to feel distressed are considered “stalking”. In some countries, these behaviours are illegal. We are interested on your opinion concerning this phenomenon.

Have you have heard about stalking before? Y/ N

1. Have you ever received persistent, unwanted attention? Y/N

2. If so what was your previous relationship?
    a. Partner
    b. Friend
    c. Acquaintance
    d. One-night stand
    e. Relative
    f. Someone you went on a few dates with (with sexual contact)
    g. Someone you went on a few dates with (without sexual contact)
    h. Wife/Husband (now separated)
    i. Wife/Husband (now divorced)
    j. Other (please elaborate) …..

1. How well did you know this person?
    a. Very well
    b. Casually
    c. Recognise them by sight
2. How did you meet this person?
    a. At work
    b. Through a friend
    c. Socialising

    d. On-line dating
    e. Dating app
    f. Other (please speficy) …..
3. Were you ever afraid for your personal safety? Y/N
4. Were you ever afraid for the safety of your property? Y/N
5. Were you ever afraid for the safety of another person, i.e. a friend or family member? Y/N
6. Was the person male or female?

7. What was their age?

8. What was your age when this happened?
9. Did you seek help from someone to stop this unwanted attention? Y/N
10. (IF YES) From where?
    a. Friend
    b. Family member
    c. Police
    d. Charity
    e. Online support forum
    f. Other (please specify) …

11. Have you ever persistently pursued someone? Y/N

12. If so what was your previous relationship?
    a. Partner
    b. Friend
    c. Acquaintance
    d. One-night stand
    e. Relative
    f. Someone you went on a few dates with (with sexual contact)
    g. Someone you went on a few dates with (without sexual contact)
    h. Wife/Husband (now separated)

i. Wife/Husband (now divorced)
j. Other (please elaborate) …..

13. How well did you know this person?
    a. Very well
    b. Casually
    c. Recognise them by sight
14. How did you meet this person?
    a. At work
    b. Through a friend
    c. Socialising
    d. On-line dating
    e. Dating app
    f. Other (please speficy) …..
15. Was the person or persons male or female?
16. What was their age?
17. What was your age when that happened?
18. Do you think the person was ever fearful of their safety because of your actions? Y/N
19. Do you think the person was ever fearful for the safety of their personal property? Y/N
20. Do you think the person was ever fearful for the safety of another person, i.e. a family member? Y/N
21. Have you ever been contacted by an agency or another person and asked to stop your behaviour? If so by who?
    a. Friend
    b. Family member
    c. Police
    d. Charity
    e. Online support forum
    f. Other (please specify) …

Offline Stalking Actions (Adapted From: Cupach & Spitzberg, 2000; Spitzberg & Hoobler, 2002); Cupach & Spitzberg, 2004; Sheridan, 2001).

For each of the actions in the table below, please indicate whether you have had this done to you, and whether you have done this to someone else.

Action	Have you ever had this done to you? Yes/No	Have you ever done this to someone else? Yes/No
Following someone		
Watching someone from out of sight		
Leaving unwanted gifts		
Leaving unwanted messages or letters		
Making exaggerated expressions of affection		
Making unwanted phone calls to someone (with conversation)		
Making obscene phone calls to someone		
Making unwanted phone calls to someone (silent)		

Intruding uninvited into a someone's interactions		
Invading someone's personal space		
Stealing or damaging someone's personal property		
Intercepting someone's mail or deliveries to a person		
Obtaining personal information about someone through surveillance		
Involving someone in activities in unwanted ways		
Invading someone's personal property		
Intruding upon someone's friends, family or coworkers		
Monitoring someone's behaviour		
Approaching or surprising someone in public places		

Covertly obtaining private information about someone Invading someone's property Leaving someone threatening messages Physically restraining someone Engaging in regulatory harassment Threatening to hurt someone Threatening someone with hurting yourself Threating to hurt others that someone cares about Leaving or sending someone threatening objects Showing up at places in threatening ways Sexually coercing someone Physically threatening someone		

Physically hurting someone Kidnapping or physically constraining someone Physically endangering someone's life		

PART 2: Stalking Myth Acceptance

Stalking Myth Acceptance Scale (McKeon, Mullen & Ogloff, unpublished)
Please answer the following questions based on your own opinion. Rate the strength of your opinion by checking one of the numbers on the scale, which goes from 1 (absolutely untrue) to 7 (absolutely true)

1. A man should be allowed to pursue a woman to a certain extent, if it is part of romance.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. If a woman says no, even once, a man should leave her alone.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. If a man and woman have been in a romantic relationship, the man has more right to pursue her than if they have never met.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. It is normal for a woman to say no to a date at first because she does not want to seem too eager.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. It is not "stalking" if you are trying to get your wife back.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. A woman, who dates a lot, would be more likely to be "stalked".

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

7. Saying no to a "stalker" will just provoke him.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. A certain amount of repeated phoning and following is okay, even if a woman has said no.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. The concept of "stalking" is just a fad.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. Women find it flattering to be persistently pursued.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. It's not really "stalking" if you know the person and they know you.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. Staying in contact with someone shouldn't really be seen as a crime, if you are actually in love.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. If a woman just ignored the man, he would eventually go away.

Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

14. "Stalking" is a type of violence.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

15. “If at first you don’t succeed, try, try and try again”. Attitudes like this make “stalking” acceptable.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

16. “Stalkers” are a nuisance but they are not criminals.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

17. If you were really in love with somebody, you wouldn’t take no for an answer.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

18. What one person may see as “stalking”, another may see as “romantic”.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

19. Women often say one thing but mean another.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

20. “Stalking” is just an extreme form of courtship.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

21. If there is no actual violence, it shouldn’t be a crime.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

22. Some women actually want to be “stalked”; they see it as a compliment.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

23. Victims of “stalking” are often women wanting revenge on their ex-boyfriends.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

24. Repeatedly following someone, making phone calls and leaving gifts doesn’t actually hurt anyone.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

25. Certain types of women are more likely to be “stalked”.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

26. “Stalking” should be dealt with in civil, not, criminal law.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

27. A woman may be more likely to be “stalked” if she cannot clearly say “No”.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

28. If a woman gives any encouragement, the man has a right to continue his pursuit.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

29. Those who are upset by “stalking” are likely more sensitive than others.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

30. Even if they were annoyed, most women would be at least a little flattered by "stalking".

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

31. If someone continues to say nice things and give nice gifts, then "stalking" is far more acceptable.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

32. Stranger "stalking" is the only "real" stalking.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

33. Any person could be "stalked".

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

34. "Stalkers" only continue because they get some sort of encouragement.

Absolutely Untrue **Absolutely True**

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

PART 3: Gender Role Stereotypes (Burt 1980)

1. A man should fight when the woman he's with is insulted by another man.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

2. It is acceptable for the woman to pay for a date.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

3. A woman should be a virgin when she marries.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

4. There is something wrong with a woman who doesn't want to marry and raise a family.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

5. A wife should never contradict her husband in public.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

6. It is better for a woman to use her feminine charm to get what she wants rather than ask for it outright.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

7. It is acceptable for a woman to have a career, but marriage and family should come first.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

8. It looks worse for a woman to be drunk than for a man to be drunk

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

9. There is nothing wrong with a woman going to a bar alone.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

PART 4: Romantic Belief Scale (Sprechter and Metts 1989)

1 .I need to know someone for a period of time before I fall in love with him or her.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

2. If I were to love someone, I would commit myself to him or her even if my parents and friends disapproved of the relationship.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

3. Once I experience "true love", I could never experience it again, to the same degree, with another person.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

4. I believe that to be truly in love is to be in love forever.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

5. If I love someone, I know I can make the relationship work, despite the obstacles.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

6. When I find my "true love" I will probably know it soon after we meet.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

7. I am sure that every new thing I learn about the person I choose for a long-term commitment will please me.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

8. The relationship I will have with my “true love” will be nearly perfect.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

9. If I love someone, I will find a way for us to be together regardless of the opposition to the relationship, physical distance between us or any other barrier.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

10. There will be only one real love for me.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

11. If a relationship I have was meant to be, any obstacle (e.g., lack of money, physical distance, career conflicts) can be overcome.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

12. I am likely to fall in love almost immediately if I meet the right person.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

13. I expect that in my relationship, romantic love will really last; it won’t fade over time.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

14. The person I love will make a perfect romantic partner: for example, he/she will be completely accepting, loving and understand.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

15. I believe if another person and I love each other we can overcome any differences and problems that may arise.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

PART 5: Hostility toward Women Measure (Lonsway & Fitzgerald, 1995; revised from Check, Malamuth, Elias, & Barton, 1985)

1. I feel that many times women flirt with men just to tease them or hurt them.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

2. I believe that most women tell the truth.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

3. I usually find myself agreeing with (other) women.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

4. I think that most women would lie just to get ahead.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

5. (Males) Generally, it is safer not to trust women.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

(Females) It is generally safer not to trust women too much.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

6. When it really comes down to it, a lot of women are deceitful.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

7. I am easily angered by (other) women.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

8. I am sure I get a raw deal from the (other) women in my life.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

9. Sometimes (other) women bother me by just being around.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

10. (Other) Women are responsible for most of my troubles.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

(Strongly Disagree) (Strongly Agree)

APPENDIX II – Forms

Participant Information Sheet:

Stalking in Greece: Nuisance or Crime?

You are being invited to take part in a PhD research project. Before you decide it is important for you to understand why this research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information and discuss it with others if you wish. Ask if there is anything that is not clear or if you would like more information. May I take this opportunity to thank you for taking time to read this.

What is the purpose of the project?
The research project is intended to provide the research focus for a PhD thesis. It will attempt to investigate the on-line and off-line behaviours of stalking perpetrators and victims.

Why have I been chosen?
You have been chosen because you have volunteered to participate in this research project. There are no specific selection criteria that would deem you inadmissible into this study.

Do I have to take part?
Participation on this study is entirely voluntary, so please do not feel obliged to take part. Refusal will involve no penalty whatsoever and you may withdraw from the study at any stage until you submit your data and not afterwards as your responses will be automatically anonymised and it will be impossible to extract the data, without giving an explanation to the researcher.

What do I have to do?
You will be asked to fill in a questionnaire which should take no more than 30 minutes of your time.

Will all my details be kept confidential?
All information which is collected will be strictly confidential and anonymised before the data is presented in the assignment, in compliance with the Data Protection Act and ethical research guidelines and principles. If any of your responses are quoted they will be done in a way that your anonymity will be protected (pseudonyms).

What will happen to the results of the research study?
The results of this research will be written up as a thesis and presented for assessment when the PhD thesis is completed.

Who has reviewed and approved the study, and who can be contacted for
Further information?
The research supervisors are Dr Maria Ioannou and Dr John Synnott. They can be contacted at the University of Huddersfield

M.Ioannou@hud.ac.uk.
j.p.synnott@hud.ac.uk

Name & Contact Details of Researcher:

Ntaniella Pylarinou Ntaniella.Pylarinou@unimail.hud.ac.uk

Finally, if at any moment you wish to stop then you have the right to do so and all your data will be removed from the research.

CONSENT FORM

Title of Project: Stalking in Greece: Nuisance or Crime?

Name of Researcher: Ntaniella- Roumpini Pylarinou

Please initial box

1. I confirm that I have read the information sheet dated for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information. ☐

2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time until I submit my data and not afterwards as my responses will be automatically anonymised and it will be impossible to extract the data. ☐

3. I understand that the information collected will be kept in secure conditions for a period of 10 years at the University of Huddersfield. ☐

4. I understand that no person other than the researcher/s and facilitator/s will have access to the information provided. ☐

5. I understand that my identity will be protected and if any of my responses are quoted they will be done in a way that my anonymity will be protected (pseudonyms). ☐

6. I agree to take part in the above study. ☐

Name of Participant Date Signature

DEBRIEFING FORM:

You have participated in a study that examined public perception and experiences of stalking and cyber-stalking. The answers you have provided will allow the researchers to understand what the public believes stalking and cyberstalking to be, and if there are any variation between individual perceptions. If any of the subjects that were discussed in the questionnaire has affected you in any way please contact any of the organisations that are listed at the end of the form. If you have any further questions about the research that you took part in please contact one of the researcher or the supervisors.

I would like once again to thank you for participating in the study, if you wish you can print this debriefing form and keep it for your own information.

Details of the researcher:

Ntaniella Pylarinou: Ntaniella.Pylarinou@unimail.hud.ac.uk

Project Supervisors

Dr. Maria Ioannou: M.Ioannou@hud.ac.uk

Dr. John Synnott: j.p.synnott@hud.ac.uk

Organisations for Psychological support and helplines:

1. Γενική Γραμματεία Ισότητας των Φύλων (Equality between the Sexes): SOS 15900

E-mail: sos15900@isotita.gr

2. Γραμμή Ζωής Ευρωπαϊκή Τηλεφωνική Γραμμή (Line of Life, European Telephone Line): 116123 Email: www.lifelinehellas.gr

3. Τηλεφωνική Γραμμή Άμεσης Κοινωνικής Βοήθειας (Telephone Line of Immediaty Social Help): 197 Email: www.aboutyouth.gr

4. National Stalking Helpline Telephone Number: 0808 802 0300 Email: info[@]stalkinghelpline.org
https://www.suzylamplugh.org/Pages/Category/national-stalking-helpline

5. Paladin Service Telephone Number: 020 3866 4107 Email: info@paladinservice.co.uk https://paladinservice.co.uk/

APPENDIX III- Ethics Form

THE UNIVERSITY OF HUDDERSFIELD
School of Human and Health Sciences – School Research Ethics Panel
PROPOSED REVISIONS TO PREVIOUSLY APPROVED APPLICATION

(Attach separate sheets as necessary)

Applicant Name: Ntaniella- Roumpini Pylarinou

Title of previously approved study: Stalking in Greece: nuisance or a crime?

Ref: SREP/2017/064_Rev1_261017

Date approved: 1/11/17

(please also give details here if the title is to be revised):

Issue	**Please clearly identify below revisions made to previously approved SREP application.**
Researcher(s) details	Ntaniella- Roumpini Pylarinou (PhD Student)
Supervisor details	Dr Maria Ioannou Dr John Synnott
Aim / objectives	**Overall aim:** To explore the nature of stalking in Greece. **Research objectives:** 1. To examine individual differences (i.e. age, gender etc) on stalking victimisation and perpetration. 2. To investigate stalking myths in a Greek sample. 3. To examine the relationship between stalking myths and gender role stereotypes, romantic beliefs, hostility towards women.
Research methods	Questionnaires will be used to collect different types of information on public perceptions of stalking for both perpetration and victimazation, online and offline stalking. The questionnaire will be distributed to the general public to include people from different ages, backgrounds and occupations. The questionnaire will be posted online in social media sites. The participants will be taken to the Qualtrics website where the information sheet and consent form will be presented to them if they choose to continue to the questionnaire they must first complete the consent form. After the participants have completed the questionnaire a debriefing from will be

	presented for the participants to read which will also include helplines for any participants that need further information or help if they have been affected by stalking.
Permissions for study	
Access to participants	The participants will be recruited through social media where a link for the questionnaire will be posted. The participants will be also asked to share the link with their friends and families after they have completed the questionnaire.
Confidentiality	The participants will be aware in the consent form that their data will be treated with full confidentiality and if any of their responses are quoted they will be done in a way that their anonymity will be protected (by using pseudonyms).
Anonymity	The participants' identities will be protected from the beginning of the study as the participants will fill in the questionnaire anonymously and if any of their responses are quoted they will be done in a way that their anonymity will be protected (by using pseudonyms). Everything will be carried out in accordance to BPS guidelines (2009) on anonymity.
Right to withdraw	It is voluntary to participate in this study and the participants will be informed during the information sheet and the consent form that they have the right to withdraw until they submit their data and not afterwards as their responses will be automatically anonymised and it will be impossible to extra the data without breaking confidentiality and anonymity of the participants identity. All of the measures that are being placed for this study is in compliance with the BPS Guidelines for ethical practices in psychological research.
Data Storage	The data was that will be collected through Qualtrics will be stored in a secure password protected files and will be kept in secure conditions for a period of 10 years at the University of Huddersfield. Everything will be carried out in accordance to BPS guidelines (2009) on anonymity. Access to the data will be limited to the researcher and the supervisors.
Psychological support for participants	As the participants are asked about their personal experience with stalking psychological support will be provided for them in case anyone wants any further support: Γενική Γραμματεία Ισότητας των Φύλων (Equality between the Sexes): SOS 15900 E-mail: sos15900@isotita.gr Γραμμή Ζωής Ευρωπαϊκή Τηλεφωνική Γραμμή (Line of Life, European Telephone Line): 116123 Email: www.lifelinehellas.gr Τηλεφωνική Γραμμή Άμεσης Κοινωνικής Βοήθειας (Telephone Line of Immediaty Social Help): 197 Email: www.aboutyouth.gr «Το Χαμόγελο του Παιδιού» (Hamogelo tou Paidiou/ Smile of a child): Ευρωπαϊκή Γραμμή Υποστήριξης Παιδιών/ European Telephone Line 116111

Researcher safety / support (attach revised University Risk Analysis and Management form if there are changes to this)	Appendix I
Information sheet	Appendix II
Consent form	The participants that will be recruited for the study will be from the age of 16 and upwards. The age of consent in Greece is 15 years old, so there is a possibility that many young adults could embark on relationships in an early age and can be faced with similar problems to their older counterparts in their interpersonal relationships, such as stalking. It is important to understand how they are also affected by this crime. The BPS guidelines (2009) indicate that anyone 16 or over who is competent are able to give consent can take part in a study. The consent form will inform the participants of their rights and the aim of the study prior to them accessing the questionnaire. Appendix III
Letters/ posters/ flyers	No posters or flyers will be used to promote this study.
Questionnaire / interview guide	Appendix IV
Debrief	Appendix V
Dissemination of results	This research is a part of study programme for a PhD and the data will be presented in the PhD thesis. The results of the study might be presented in journals or on the internet.
Potential conflicts of interest	There are no potential conflicts of interest as this research is a part of a study programme for a PhD.
Does the research involve accessing data or visiting websites that could constitute a legal and/or reputational risk to yourself or the University if misconstrued? If so, please explain how you will minimise this risk	No
The next four questions relate to Security Sensitive Information – please read the following guidance before completing these questions: http://www.universitiesuk.ac.uk/policy-and-analysis/reports/Documents/2012/oversight-of-security-sensitive-research-material.pdf	
Is the research commissioned by, or on behalf of the military or the intelligence services? If so, please outline the requirements from the funding body regarding the collection and storage of Security Sensitive Data	

Is the research commissioned under an EU security call If so, please outline the requirements from the funding body regarding the collection and storage of Security Sensitive Data	
Does the research involve the acquisition of security clearances? If so, please outline how your data collection and storages complies with the requirements of these clearances	
Does the research concern terrorist or extreme groups? If so, please complete a Security Sensitive Information Declaration Form	
Does the research involve covert information gathering or active deception? Please explain.	No
Does the research involve children under 18 or participants who may be unable to give fully informed consent? Please explain.	No
Does the research involve prisoners or others in custodial care (e.g. young offenders)? Please explain.	No
Does the research involve significantly increased danger of physical or psychological harm or risk of significant discomfort for the researcher(s) and/or the participant(s), either from the research process or from the publication of findings? Please explain.	No
Does the research involve risk of unplanned disclosure of information you would be obliged to act on? Please explain.	No
Other revisions	
Requirement for application to external body e.g. NHS REC	
Please supply copies of all revised documentation electronically. If this is not available electronically, please provide explanation and supply hard copy	

Signed:
_____N.Pylarinou_____
(SREP Applicant – electronic signature acceptable)

Date: _____7/2/18_____

Kt/SREP/SREP_RevisedApp(previously approved)/Sept 16

Appendix I:

THE UNIVERSITY OF HUDDERSFIELD: RISK ANALYSIS & MANAGEMENT

ACTIVITY:			**Name: Ntaniella-Roumpini Pylarinou**	
LOCATION:			**Date:**	**Review Date:**
Hazard(s) Identified	**Details of Risk(s)**	**People at Risk**	**Risk management measures**	**Other comments**
Loss/ theft of data	**Security of data**	**Participants**	**Electronic data to be stored only on password secured computer equipment and storage devises.**	**Laptop to be kept near the researcher and in secure location.**