INFORMATION TO USERS

This manuscript has been reproduced from the microfilm master. UMI films the text directly from the original or copy submitted. Thus, some thesis and dissertation copies are in typewriter face, while others may be from any type of computer printer.

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleedthrough, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send UMI a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

Oversize materials (e.g., maps, drawings, charts) are reproduced by sectioning the original, beginning at the upper left-hand corner and continuing from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. Each original is also photographed in one exposure and is included in reduced form at the back of the book.

Photographs included in the original manuscript have been reproduced xerographically in this copy. Higher quality 6" x 9" black and white photographic prints are available for any photographs or illustrations appearing in this copy for an additional charge. Contact UMI directly to order.

UMI®

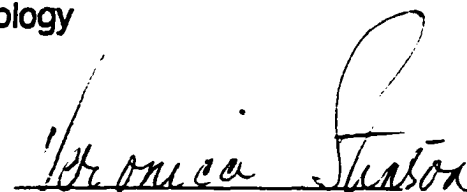Perceptions of Sexual and Nonsexual Harassment

Shannon M. Poirier

Saint Mary's University

April 1999

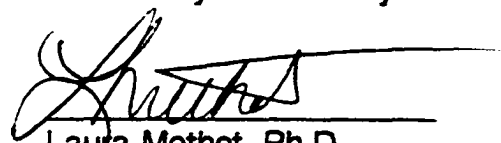Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the degree requirements of the

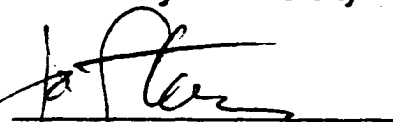Master of Science in Applied Psychology

Veronica Stinson, Ph.D.
Saint Mary's University

Shaun Newsome, Ph.D.
Saint Mary's University

Laura Methot, Ph.D.
Saint Mary's University

Jo Stern, M.S.W.
Saint Mary's University

i

Canada

Table of Contents

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank:

My advisor, Dr. Veronica Stinson, first and foremost for her patience. This has been a long, hard road, and your guidance, support and encouragement were appreciated at every step.

My research partner, Bridget Perrin, whose input and assistance were more valuable than she knows. This was a collaborative effort. We made a good team. Thank you for your hard work and friendship.

Brigitte Neumann, who allowed me the opportunity to both develop an interest in the subject matter and to begin to develop my research skills. Your advice and judgment are always appreciated. I'm glad to have you on my team.

My committee members, Jo Stern, Drs. Laura Methot and Shaun Newsome for their time and input.

Dr. Victor Catano for his support and understanding.

My friends, who preserved my sanity through some rough spots. You all know who you are.

My father, who, as usual, has been an invaluable reference, counsellor and friend. I thank him and the rest of the family, for supporting me and putting up with me through the ups and downs.

Running head: Harassment

Perceptions of Sexual and Nonsexual Harassment

Shannon M. Poirier

Saint Mary's University

May 1999

Thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the degree requirements of the

Master of Science in Applied Psychology

Abstract

Recent research suggests that sexual harassment may have serious psychological and job-related consequences for victims. Most research has focussed on men's sexual harassment of women. Other researchers have suggested that people experience other harassing behaviours at work that are not sexual, but have similar negative consequences. The purpose of this study was to examine perceptions of same-sex and opposite-sex sexual harassment, nonsexual harassment, and harassment involving a threat. Participants were 175 undergraduate students who listened to 1 of 16 audiotaped vignettes in which a man or a woman described having been the target of harassment that was either sexual or nonsexual, contained either a verbal comment alone or the same verbal comment and a job-related threat. The gender of the harasser was also manipulated. Participants then completed a questionnaire that measured their reactions to the scenario. Results showed that although sexual situations were somewhat more likely than nonsexual situations to be defined as harassment, the severity of psychological and job-related consequences attributed to the target did not differ as a function of whether the harassment was sexual or nonsexual. Job-related threats were perceived as having more negative consequences than verbal comments alone. Overall, women attributed more negative consequences to the target of harassment than did men. However, consistent with previous research, this effect is qualified by an interaction between gender of the participant and self-esteem.

Perceptions of Sexual Harassment and Nonsexual Harassment

Women have always been part of the labour force. However, only in the last 20 years have social scientists focussed on the dynamics of work relationships. In 1980, sexual harassment was noted as one of the most explosive issues facing working women (Naugarten & Shafritz, 1980). It is likely that sexual harassment has existed as long as men and women have shared a work environment. Mass media has probably been a contributing factor in a general increase in awareness of sexual harassment and the acknowledgment of its occurrence as a barrier to a fair and equitable work environment.

It has been reported that as many as 75% of working women have experienced some form of sexual harassment (Gruber, 1990). Victims of sexual harassment have been reported to experience such negative job-related effects as decreased morale and increased absenteeism (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1987). Recent research suggests that sexual harassment may also pose significant risk to victims' psychological well-being (Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997).

The Canadian Armed Forces (1997) categorizes sexual harassment as one form of personal harassment. Bjorkqvist, Osterman and Hjelt-Back (1994) argue that sexual harassment is a specific form of work harassment, utilising sexuality as a means of oppression. People may be subjected to a variety of forms of harassment at work that are not sexual in nature. Victims of these types of harassment may also experience negative job-related and psychological effects (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994). Few studies have addressed general work harassment (Leyman, 1992; Bjorkqvist et al., 1994), and only one (Lee & Heppner, 1991) has compared people's perceptions of the seriousness of nonsexual harassment as compared to sexual harassment.

The present study examined people's reactions to social situations that vary in their degree of sexual harassment and nonsexual harassment. Before describing the experiment, I will discuss definitions of harassment and theories of sexual harassment, and review the literature pertaining to perceptions of sexual harassment.

Definitions of Harassment

Sexual Harassment Guidelines in the U.S.. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) developed a set of guidelines in 1980, enforcing Title VII of the Civil Rights Act. Two forms of sexual harassment are described: *quid pro quo* harassment, in which sexual conduct is made a condition of employment, and hostile work environment harassment, in which sexual conduct unreasonably interferes with work performance or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment. The EEOC has recently proposed additional guidelines regarding gender harassment, i.e., gender-based harassment that is not explicitly sexual in nature, or directed toward a particular individual (EEOC, 1993). Such behaviours as lewd jokes, sexist comments, and the presence erotic photographs in the workplace are classified as gender harassment (Berdahl, Magley & Waldo, 1996).

Harassment in Canadian Law. Although there are no formal Canadian guidelines similar to the EEOC ones, a consensus of Human Rights tribunal decisions favours a definition of sexual harassment as comprehensive as the EEOC definition, and inclusive of the concept of a hostile work environment (Aggarwal, 1992). York University's Presidential Advisory Committee on Sexual Harassment defined sexual harassment as follows:

> unwanted sexual attention of a persistent or abusive nature, made by a
> person who knows or ought reasonably to know that such attention is

unwanted; implied or expressed threat of reprisal, in the form of either actual reprisal or the denial of opportunity, for refusal to comply with a sexually oriented request; or sexually oriented remarks and behaviour which may be perceived to create a negative psychological and emotional environment for work (Aggarwal, 1992; p.42).

In 1983, the Canadian Human Rights Act was amended, specifically prohibiting sexual harassment on the grounds that it constitutes discrimination. Most jurisdictions have continued to rely on the prohibition against sex discrimination as sufficient means to cope with sexual harassment (Aggarwal, 1992).

The Canadian Armed Forces (1997) harassment guidelines state that any behaviour that denies an individual their dignity is offensive, embarrassing and humiliating. In addition to sexual harassment, these guidelines describe personal harassment and abuse of authority. Sexual harassment is defined in a similar manner to the EEOC guidelines described above. Personal harassment and abuse of authority are described as follows:

a)Personal harassment means improper behaviour by an individual that is directed at or offensive to an individual; that is based on personal characteristics including, for example, race, religion, sex, sexual orientation, physical characteristics or mannerisms; and that a reasonable personal ought to have known would be unwelcome.

b)Abuse of authority means the misuse of authority to undermine, sabotage, or otherwise interfere with the career of another individual including, but not limited to, intimidation, threats, blackmail, coercion, or unfairness in the distribution of work assignments, in the provision of training or promotional opportunities, in the completion of performance evaluations, or in the provision of references (p. 1).

Theories of Sexual Harassment

Several theoretical explanations have been proposed regarding the cause of sexual harassment. One class of theoretical explanations refers to power as the harasser's primary drive. The basic tenet of these theories is that sexual harassment is the product of a difference in power between the sexes. A second class of theories does not ascribe power a fundamental role in originating sexual harassment. For example, role theories focus on behavioural expectations for the male and female genders in the work environment.

Power Differential Perspectives. Tangri, Burt and Johnson (1992) describe two explanatory models for sexual harassment based on a power differential: the organizational model and the sociocultural model. According to Tangri et al. (1982), an organizational model holds that sexual harassment is primarily due to the prevailing organizational structure in our society. Most positions of authority are held by men who often use their power and their organizational positions for sexual profit (Tangri, et al., 1982). Bargh and Raymond (1995) suggest that an association between power and sex underlies the behaviour of many harassers. They posit that men who have a power-sex association prey on women whose perceived vulnerability arouses their power concept. A review of the literature on perceptions of harassing behaviours suggests a growing consensus around the notion that identical abusive behaviour is evaluated more negatively coming from a supervisor than from a subordinate or peer (Gutek, 1995). However, Gutek (1985) did not find a higher percentage of women harassed by supervisors than by coworkers. Nevertheless, some argue that regardless of the harasser's status, sexual harassment is an attempt to assert power over another person (e.g., Aggarwal, 1992). Gutek and Morasch (1982) argued that initiators use forms of power

from other sources such as larger physical size. However, a power differential

explanation may be too simplistic to account for the variance in sexual

harassment. The sociocultural model asserts that sexual harassment is a

product of norms, values, stereotypes, and prevailing expectations and beliefs

in Western society, which generally delineate male dominance over women

(Tangri et al., 1982). The sociocultural model focusses more on power

differentials than on organizational characteristics. According to this model,

sexual harassment is promoted by the power differential between the genders

and is not a direct product of the organizational structure of the workplace.

Instead, facilitating factors within organizations reflect society's economic and

political discrimination of women (Tangri et al., 1982).

Role Perspectives. According to the sex-role spillover model, sexual

harassment of women at work may be a product of sex role spillover (Gutek &

Morasch, 1982). An organization can be viewed as a set of role relationships.

Presumably, work role behaviour is identical across people who occupy the

same position. In practice, the work role is modified somewhat to fit the worker's

own personality. Sexuality is a part of the self that is generally considered

inappropriate to most work roles (Gutek & Morasch, 1982). However, if people

behaved within the confines of work roles, then sexual jokes, flirtatious

behaviour, dating, and sexual coercion would not exist in most workplaces. The

presence of these behaviours reflects how work roles are affected by spillover

from sex roles. Projecting a sexual image and being a sex object are aspects of

the female sex role. Sex role spillover may occur when women, more than men

in the same work roles, are expected to be sexually attractive. This expectation

of women is linked to perceptions of behaviour that is considered inappropriate

between the sexes in a work context. These perceptions in part determine

individual definitions of sexual harassment.

Limitations of Models of Sexual Harassment. Rospenda, Richman and Nawyn (1998) argue that organizational models of sexual harassment underestimate the importance of gender and other social characteristics in structuring access to organizational power. They criticize the assumption that men are more likely to be perpetrators of sexual harassment because they tend to have higher level positions in organizations, noting the lack of consideration of sociocultural facilitators of men's achievement and barriers to women's workplace achievement. The sociocultural and sex-role spillover models account for the occurrence of contrapower harassment. Grauerholz (1989) found that 32% of a sample of women faculty reported experiencing behaviours from male students that could be considered sexually harassing. Similar behaviours by female students toward male faculty are less likely to be considered sexual harassment, highlighting the physical threat male perpetrators represent despite the formal status of the women targets (Rospenda et al., 1998).

While the sociocultural and sex-role spillover models explain male to female contrapower harassment, they are limited in their ability to account for female to male or same-sex harassment. Further, Rosenda et al. (1998) argue that the dynamics by which gender, race, class and organizational status interact in situations where men are targets, or when the target and the harasser are the same sex, are not accounted for by these models.

How Sexual Harassment is Studied

The bulk of research on sexual harassment has been conducted using one of two methods: vignette studies of people's perceptions of ambiguous social-sexual behaviour and questionnaires administered to convenience

samples of respondents.

Vignette Studies. In vignettes studies of perceptions of sexual harassment, respondents are asked to rate scenarios of possible sexual harassment (e.g., Pryor, 1985). Scenarios vary from or two sentences or longer, and characteristics of the actors, behaviour, or situation may be manipulated. Respondents may read written scenarios or listen to audiotapes, consisting of interactions between an initiator and a recipient (e.g., Samoluk & Pretty, 1994). Respondents are then asked to evaluate the scenarios in terms of whether they constitute examples of sexual harassment. Vignette studies have a number of advantages. They can be conducted quickly with large groups of participants, and several variables can be manipulated. These studies are strong on internal validity, but they are typically weak on external validity (Gutek, 1995). Lengnick-Hall (1995) argues that there is no evidence that how people respond to contrived situations on paper reflects how they would respond in an actual situation. According to Lengnick-Hall (1995), it is not possible to produce the psychological impact on participants as would occur in an actual situation of sexual harassment.

Surveys. Like vignette studies, survey studies are relatively inexpensive to conduct, and the results can be subjected to sophisticated multivariate analysis. Questionnaire methods typically ask respondents about behaviours they themselves define as sexual harassment. However, not all individuals will necessarily consider these behaviours sexual harassment. Fitzgerald and Shullman (1993) suggested that items assessing individuals' judgments concerning whether they have been sexually harassed should be separated from those asking about their experiences of actual behaviours. Further, in general, the words sexual harassment should be avoided when assessing

incidence and prevalence. Fitzgerald et al. (1988) assessed both behaviours and determination of the individual's perception of being sexually harassed and concluded that large numbers of women who have experienced relatively blatant instances of uninvited behaviour fail to recognize and label their experiences as sexual harassment. Like vignette studies, surveys lack external validity (Lengnick-Hall, 1995). The results of surveys may not generalize to the population of interest, since many researchers use convenience samples. Lengnick-Hall (1995) argues further that without longitudinal surveys, it is impossible to generalize survey results over time. Surveys are also weak on internal validity, in contrast to vignette studies.

Incidence and Prevalence of Sexual Harassment

The incidence and prevalence of sexual harassment has been difficult to estimate due to the lack of a commonly accepted definition and standardized instrumentation that would allow comparison of results across studies (Gruber 1990). A review of 18 American studies (Gruber, 1990) reveals considerable variation in the reported experience of sexual harassment, ranging from 28% to 37% in university samples, and from 33% to 75% in samples of working women. It seems that their is less sexual harassment on university campuses than in workplaces. Within the work force, it appears that federal government employees less sexual harassment than State or municipal government employees. Hospital workers and flight attendants appear to experience more sexual harassment than women in blue-collar jobs.

Perceptions of Sexual Harassment. The lack of consistency in the use of terms and the behaviours assessed has made it difficult to compare studies on perceptions of sexual harassment. However, there is some consensus regarding types of behaviours that are perceived as sexually harassing. Sexual

bribery, explicit propositions and physical sexual advances are most likely to be perceived as sexual harassment; close to 100% of respondents in some studies considered these behaviours to be harassment (Bursik, 1992; Terpstra & Baker, 1987). However, behaviours such as sexist comments, undue attention, coarse language and jokes are less likely to be perceived as sexual harassment (Terpstra & Baker, 1987).

Gruber (1990) identified 20 consistently occurring categories of sexual harassment behaviour: pressure for sex favours; sexual advances; sexual bribery; expected social activity; sexual propositions; verbal advances; subtle hints or pressures; pressure for dates or relationships; letters, phone calls or materials; teasing questions or remarks; sexual comments; emotional come-ons; undue attention; abusive language; social derogation; nonverbal looks, stares or gestures; touching or cornering; and sexual assault. According to Gruber (1990), in general, touching perceived as more harassing than verbal commentary, and the more personally-directed the behaviour or comment, more likely it is to be perceived as harassment. Interactions involving threat or promise are perceived as especially harassing. Frequency of the behaviour is also a factor in how harassing it is perceived to be. A behaviour that seems harmless as a single incident is perceived as more harassing if it occurs repeatedly (Pryor, 1985), especially after the target has given notice that the behaviour is unwelcome.

Differences in perceptions of harassment have also been found to be related to the status of the harasser and the victim. Behaviours exhibited by a supervisor are perceived as more definitely sexual harassment than the same behaviours exhibited by a coworker (Collins & Blodgett, 1981; Popovich et al., 1986). In addition, sexual harassment by a supervisor is likely to be more

emotionally distressing to women than is sexual harassment by a coworker (Samoluk & Pretty, 1994). Other variables related to the status of the victim may also play a role in perceptions of of sexual harassment. Researchers have suggested that the experience of sexual harassment may be compounded by the experience of racism among minority women (e.g. Yoder & Aniakudo, 1995). Although Piotrkowski (1998), found no difference in the amount of gender harassment experienced by white and minority women, race may play a role in perceptions of sexual harassment. The relationship between the harasser and target may be more complex than the organizational status of the harasser. For example, Summers and Myklebust (1992) found that a history of romance between a female complainant and a male harasser made people less likely to take the complainant seriously. While workplace romance and sexual harassment have been treated as distinct phenomena, Pierce and Aguinis (1997) posit that the dissolution of a hierarchical romance can increase the likelihood of sexual harassment or accusations of sexual harassment used as revenge.

Severity of Sexual Harassment Behaviours. Terpstra and Cook (1985) identified sexual assault and propositions linked to threats of negative changes in employment conditions as the most serious forms of sexual harassment. These forms of sexual harassment are less frequently reported than are such complaints as unwanted physical contact, offensive language and sexual propositions unlinked to employment conditions. Terpstra and Cook (1985) categorized physical behaviours as more serious than verbal behaviour. They also categorized sexual propositions unlinked to job outcomes as less serious than propositions linked to threats of negative changes in employment conditions. This distinction is similar to the distinction between *quid pro quo*

sexual harassment and *hostile environment* sexual harassment in the U.S. EEOC guidelines. Popovich et al. (1992) argue that, although the guidelines themselves do not characterize these two forms of sexual harassment as being more or less severe, there is a tendency for them to be interpreted as such.

Little research has investigated perceptions of these implicit severity dichotomies; however, Popovich et al. (1992) examined perceptions of the potential effects on the victim of physical and verbal sexual harassment, with either economic injury or hostile environment consequences. Participants rated economic injury statements as having a greater effect on the victim's job status than hostile environment statements. However, the findings of this study should be interpreted with caution. The statements provided to participants were vague, not containing concrete behaviours, for example, "Person A experiences unwelcome sexual advances or other physical contact of a sexual nature from person B. Such conduct involves an expressed or implied condition of employment or is the basis for any employment decision affecting Person A (p. 614)". What constituted unwelcome physical conduct of a sexual nature or expressed or implied condition of employment was left to the participant to determine.

Samoluk and Pretty (1994) developed more detailed examples of *quid pro quo* sexual harassment and *hostile environment* sexual harassment. They distinguished between interpersonal sexual harassment and environmental sexual harassment. Environmental sexual harassment refers to "sexualized workplace behaviours which are not directed personally toward a target" but which contribute to a "hostile, sexualized workplace" (pp. 680-681). Interpersonal sexual harassment refers to "unwanted and unsolicited sexualized behaviours directed personally toward a target" (p. 680).

Environmental sexual harassment was perceived to have fewer negative

emotional effects on the victim than direct sexual harassment.

Individual Characteristics Associated With Perceptions of Sexual Harassment

Baker, Terpstra and Cutler (1990) found that compared to university

students, U.S. government workers perceived some of the same events as more

sexually harassing. They concluded that the size of the difference was larger

for students versus workers than it was for men versus women. Baker et al.

(1990) suggested that young individuals who are single and socially active

have codes of conduct that are more accepting of sexually oriented behaviours.

For example, they are unlikely to perceive such behaviours as requesting dates

as inappropriate. Reilly et al. (1986) found that younger students were more

tolerant of sexual harassment than older students. Gutek (1995) suggests that

the "student effect" may be a surrogate for age.

Another variable that has been studied in relation to harassment attitudes

is sex-role identity. Powell (1986) reasoned that men and women with

traditional sex-role orientation would be more willing to tolerate unwelcome

sexual behaviour and less inclined to label it as harassment. Malovich and

Stake (1990) suggested that women with more traditional sex-role attitudes

might be more likely than women with nontraditional attitudes to view sexually

aggressive actions by men as appropriate, and as a result, these women might

be less likely to confront sexual harassment than would nontraditional women.

The experience of being a victim of sexual harassment is also related to

definitions thereof. People who report having been sexually harassed perceive

and label more behaviours as sexual harassment than people who have not

been harassed (Mark & Nelson, 1993). However, observing a sexualized

environment and potentially harassing behaviours may be associated with a

narrower definition of sexual harassment (Mazer & Percival, 1989).

Some research suggests that the relationship between experience and definition may be more complicated. Malovich and Stake (1990) found no direct relationship between people's definitions of sexual harassment and whether they had actually experienced it. However, they found that among respondents who had experienced sexual harassment, how they interpreted their own experience and the vignettes they evaluated was determined by respondents' beliefs and attitudes about themselves.

Specifically, Malovich and Stake (1990) found that women with low self-esteem were more likely to write about negative effects of their own harassment, and were more likely to perceive negative effects for the victims depicted in the scenarios they evaluated than were women with high self-esteem. Malovich and Stake (1990) reasoned that a woman confident in her abilities might be less intimidated by the implicit threat involved in harassment, and thus might take more assertive action when it occurs than would a less confident peer. A related personality construct, locus of control has also been shown to have some influence on perceptions of sexual harassment, although the effect is small (Baker, Terpstra & Larntz, 1990; Booth-Butterfield, 1989). Locus of control is a generalized expectancy pertaining to the connection between personal characteristics or actions and experienced outcomes (Rotter, Chance & Phares, 1972). A generalized expectation of external locus of control is defined as a pervasive belief that outcomes are not determined by one's personal efforts. The converse, internal locus of control, is the belief that outcomes are contingent upon one's actions. Baker et al. (1990) suggest that those with an internal locus of control may predict a greater likelihood of successfully defending themselves in threatening situations, as opposed to those with an

external locus of control.

Malovich and Stake (1990) also found a significant relationship between perceptions of sexual harassment and self-esteem in men. However, this relationship was the reverse of that for women. It was men with low self-esteem who were less sensitive to the potential harm to the victim than men with high self-esteem. Relative to high self-esteem men, low self-esteem men predicted fewer negative emotional effects for scenario victims. Among the low self-esteem men, those who were also highly traditional in their sex role attitudes were less sensitive attitude toward victims of sexual harassment than those with nontraditional sex role attitudes. They attributed less blame to the perpetrator and less blame to the victim than all other men. Malovich and Stake (1990) offered a possible explanation for the attitudes of low self-esteem men. Their study examined perceptions of sexual harassment of female university students by male professors, and they interpret this finding in that context. They posited that men who lack confidence in their abilities may be more accepting of relationships with women who are younger and less educated than they are. For a man with traditional sex-role attitudes, a relationship between a professor and a student may be consistent with his beliefs about appropriate male-female relationships, and therefore, he may be less likely to recognize the negative impact of such relationships.

Gender Differences in Perceptions of Sexual Harassment

Women view potentially sexual interactions between men and women at work more negatively than do men (Gutek, Morasch & Cohen, 1983). Studies have found that men and women differ in their assessment of the extent to which sexual harassment is a problem (Collins & Blodgett, 1981; Deitz-Uhler & Murrell, 1992). Men are less likely than women to think sexual harassment is a

problem, and they are more likely than women to think that the amount of sexual harassment is exaggerated (Gutek, 1995).

The extent of male-female differences is assumed to extend to differing judgments about what constitutes sexual harassment (Gutek, 1995). There is evidence suggesting that women define sexual harassment more broadly than men (e.g., Gutek, 1985; McKinney, 1992). Gutek (1985) found large differences between men and women's perceptions of sexual touching; 59% of men and 84% of women defined sexual touching as sexual harassment. Bursik (1992) presented university students with a series of interactions ranging from verbal comments to sexual bribery, which they evaluated as to whether they believed the interaction constituted sexual harassment. Half of the participants evaluated interactions with a male perpetrator and a female target, and half evaluated interactions with a female perpetrator and a male target. Results indicated that men and women did not differ significantly in terms of the number of vignettes they perceived as sexual harassment. However, gender differences were found with respect to evaluation of the male perpetrator's behaviour. Women evaluated the men's behaviour as less appropriate in the context of the interaction than did men. This finding is consistent with the conclusions made by Gutek, Morasch and Cohen (1983) that men, more than women, interpret ambiguous social behaviour as sexual, and are more likely to believe that sexual behaviour is appropriate in the work environment. Konrad and Gutek (1986) suggest that men are more likely to feel flattered by sexual attention from a woman in the workplace than to feel harassed. The fact that men respond more favourably than women to unsolicited sexual overtures is not surprising, given the sex-role standards for sexual behaviour in our society. A man's status is usually improved by having sexual relations with women. He and others may

take sexual interest from women as an indication of his success as a man. Malovich and Stake (1990) argue that, due to men's status in society, men are more likely to continue to feel safe and in control, even when propositioned by a female superior.

The Sexual Harassment of Men

The sexual harassment of men is reported less frequently than the sexual harassment of women (Gutek, 1985; Berdahl, Magley & Waldo, 1996). Thus, it has received far less research attention. Most researchers who have attempted to assess the prevalence of the sexual harassment of men have employed scales designed to assess women's experiences of sexual harassment (e.g., Gutek, 1985; Fitzgerald et al., 1988). Berdahl et al. (1996) argue that these scales may not capture what men experience as offensive. They found that in addition to the familiar categories of unwanted sexual attention and sexual coercion, men reported a previously unidentified facet of gender harassment: enforcement of the traditional heterosexual male gender role. This category of behaviour includes, for example, ridiculing men for action too "feminine" and pressuring them to engage in stereotypical masculine behaviour (Waldo et al., 1998).

Waldo et al. (1998) surveyed three samples of men in the United States: employees of a large Northwestern public utility company; faculty and staff of a large Midwestern university; and employees of a Western business' food processing plants. Just under half of the men in all three samples indicated that they had experienced at least one of the potentially sexually harassing behaviours. Only 2% had experienced any sexual coercion, and between 11.5 and 29% had experienced unwanted sexual attention. With respect to gender harassment, between 37 and 44% reported experiencing lewd and offensive

comments. Somewhat fewer reported negative remarks about men (between 24 and 33%). The fewest number of men indicated that they had experienced enforcement of masculinity (between 6.7 and 11%).

In each of Waldo et al.'s (1998) samples, men reported that other men were more likely than women to target them for sexual harassment. Across all types of harassment, between 39.8 and 52.7% of the men identified men or mostly men as the perpetrators. Approximately a third identified women or mostly women as the perpetrators, and between 17.2 and 28% described both men and women as perpetrators for the reported incidents.

Gutek et al. (1983) reported that the same potentially harassing behaviour was considered more harassing when initiated by a man toward a woman than the reverse. Men viewed potentially sexual behaviour at work more positively than did women, and generally viewed incidents initiated by women more positively than incidents initiated by men. Generally, however, when the behaviour was initiated toward a man by a woman with higher status, the behaviour was not viewed as less inappropriate than the reverse. From a psychological perspective, for an experience to be sexually harassing, it must be stressful and threatening to the victim's well-being (Fitzgerald et al., 1995). Berdahl et al. (1996) found that men are considerably less threatened than are women by behaviours that women have found harassing. They reported that men find sexual coercion the most threatening form of harassment from women. Men are less likely to feel threatened by unwanted sexual attention and gender harassment. The finding with respect to unwanted sexual attention is consistent with the results of Gutek's (1985) study, in which women typically described sexual attention at work as other-initiated and leading to highly negative personal and professional outcomes, whereas men often described the same

experiences as mutually initiated and as leading to positive personal outcomes. With respect to gender harassment, Berdahl et al. (1996) reasoned, for example, that remarks in the workplace that draw on gender stereotypes are not likely to be comparably demeaning for men and women.

Berdahl et al. (1996) discuss the sexual harassment of men within the organizational model. Both men and women can have the organizational power to sexually coerce a male subordinate. Berdahl et al. (1996) posit that although organizational power is invoked when a man is sexually coerced by his male supervisor, the supervisor in this situation is not invoking the sociocultural context or physical power involved in the case of a male supervisor sexually coercing a female subordinate. A female supervisor lacks the sociocultural and usually, the physical power held by a male supervisor over a female subordinate. In this context, it is reasonable to expect men to be sexually coerced less often than women and to be less threatened by it. Unwanted sexual attention is experienced as less anxiety-provoking by men presumably because it does not invoke the same social and physical power as when it is experienced by women. Further, it does not have to involve organizational power. That is, women may still feel threatened by unwanted sexual attention that does not pose a direct threat to the victim's job or career (Berdahl et al., 1996).

Work-Related and Psychological Effects of Sexual Harassment

Research suggests that sexual harassment represents a serious risk to employees' psychological and physical well-being. Of women who sought help from the Working Women's Institute, 94% reported emotional distress and 63 % reported adverse physical symptoms. According to Loy and Stewart (1984), 75% of victims experienced emotional or physical distress, most frequently

nervousness, irritability, anger. Women who have experienced unwanted sexual attention or sexual coercion have been found more likely to be experiencing current depression or symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997). Victims of sexual harassment also experience negative job-related effects, including decreased morale and increased absenteeism (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1987). In addition, Schneider et al. (1997) found that low levels of satisfaction with coworkers and supervision predicted who had been sexually harassed in a large private sector organization. Piotrkowski (1998) found lower job satisfaction and more emotional distress were associated with frequent experience of gender harassment.

Little research has examined the effects of sexual harassment on men. Waldo et al.'s (1998) results suggest that when men do experience sexual harassment, they report relatively few negative consequences. On average, men reported sexual coercion, unwanted sexual attention, lewd comments and negative remarks about men as being slightly upsetting. Men generally found incidents representing enforcement of the traditional heterosexual male gender role upsetting. Waldo et al. (1998) included three rating scales to assess men's emotional reactions to the specific incidents they reported. The largest number of men found the experience not at all upsetting, offensive or angering. These ratings did not differ depending on whether the perpetrator was a man or a woman.

The severity of sexual harassment experienced by men and its impact on them may depend on the nature of the work setting. DuBois et al. (1998) examined the impact of other-gender and same gender sexual harassment in a military sample. Sixty five percent of men reported having experienced sexual

harassment by women and 35% had experienced sexual harassment by other men. Men who were victims of same-gender sexual harassment reported being raped or being subjected to sexually suggestive jokes than they reported experiencing inappropriate touching as compared to victims of other-gender harassment. Men who were victims of same-gender reported more negative consequences related to professional behaviour, professionally related emotional consequences and personal consequences than men who were victims of other-gender sexual harassment. These men experienced negative changes in working relationships with others, quality and quantity of work, feelings about work and the military, self-esteem, emotional condition and physical condition. Despite the apparently far-reaching consequences, surprisingly, only 7.8% of these men reported having taken formal action against the harasser. Reasons for not taking action included not knowing what action to take, being embarrassed, feeling that it would make the work situation unpleasant and feeling that nothing would be done. As DuBois et al. (1998), military hazing rituals often involve sexual behaviours. The results of this study highlight the role organizational culture may play in condoning sexual harassment. For example, DuBois et al. (1998) suggest that under circumstances where few women exist, men whose power-sex association is strong may resort to the harassment of vulnerable males in order to active their power concept.

Samoluk and Pretty (1994) simulated emotional responses to sexual harassment by asking women to imagine themselves in one of two scenarios. One scenario described a situation of "direct sexual harassment", involving physical contact, and a promise in return for sexual favour. The other scenario described a case of "environmental sexual harassment", where nondirect,

nonpersonal sexual behaviours created an offensive work environment (an explicit conversation between two coworkers). Blatant examples that met EEOC criteria for sexual harassment were designed in order to eliminate individual differences in the perception of the scenarios as representative of sexual harassment. Samoluk and Pretty (1994) anticipated that legally clear-cut and emotionally provocative incidents of sexual harassment presented auditorily would provide a more accurate generalization of the participants' own reactions to an actual incident as compared to the use of ambiguous, skeletal vignettes. The Multiple Affect Adjective Checklist (Zuckerman & Lubin, 1985) was completed both before and after the presentation of scenarios. Dysphoria increased significantly following the presentation of the scenario. More negative emotional effects were associated with being the recipient of direct sexual harassment as opposed to environmental sexual harassment. More negative emotional effects were reported when participants were asked to imagine that the harasser was a supervisor than when the harasser was a coworker, in both the "direct" and "environmental" sexual harassment conditions. If emotional responses to sexually harassing situations can be simulated, it may be reasonable to expect that people who observe others in harassing situations will be able to perceive and make inferences about their emotional responses.

General Misuse of Power

Bjorkqvist, Osterman and Hjelt-Back (1994) argue that sexual harassment is a specific form of work harassment, utilising sexuality as a means of oppression. They liken work harassment to bullying in schools, which has received more research attention. Harassment is defined as repeated activities, with the aim of bringing mental or physical pain, and directed toward

individuals, who for one reason or another, are not able to defend themselves.

The definitions of personal harassment and abuse of authority outlined by the

Canadian Armed Forces (1997) are consistent with this notion.

Work Harassment. According to Bjorkqvist et al. (1994), laws in

Scandinavian countries stipulate regulations about mental welfare in the

workplace, and several lawsuits have been successfully filed against work

harassment. Bjorkqvist et al. (1994) argue that being a victim of harassment

that is nonsexual in nature can have emotional consequences that are just as

serious as those experienced by victims of sexual harassment. They asked

university employees how often they had been exposed to 24 types of

degrading or oppressing activities, for example being shouted at loudly; unduly

criticized; exposure to insulting comments about private life; sensitive details of

private life used as pressure, and exposure to direct threats.

Bjorkqvist et al. (1994) found that women were more likely tc experience

work harassment than men. Almost 70% of men reported that they never, or

almost never had been exposed to harassment, as compared to only 45% of

women. Thirty-two per cent of respondents claimed to have observed others

being harassed in their workplace. The number of observed cases of

harassment by a person in a superior position was significantly greater than

cases of harassment by a person with a position equally high as the victim.

Schneider, Swan and Fitzgerald (1997) concluded that sexual

harassment behaviours that may be minor if they occur as isolated incidents,

may have serious consequences for the victim if they occur on a frequent basis

or over a long period of time. Similarly, Bjorkqvist et al. (1994) suggest that

harassment that is less intense but stretched over a long period of time might

have equally disastrous effects for the victim as an extremely intense isolated

event. They found that victims of work harassment reported significantly more aggression, anxiety and depression than nonvictims. Victims also claimed, without exception, that their feelings of depression, anxiety and aggressiveness were a direct consequence of the treatment they had been exposed to.

A recent survey of 1100 British health care system employees (Quine, 1999) revealed results similar to those of Bjorkqvist et al., 1994). The survey was constructed based on a literature review of workplace bullying (Rayner & Hoel, 1997; cited in Quine, 1999), that provided five categories of bullying behaviour: Threat to professional status (belittling opinion, public professional humiliation); threat to personal standing (name calling, insults); isolation (preventing access to training opportunities, withholding information); overwork (undue pressure, impossible deadlines); destabilization (failure to give credit when due, meaningless tasks). Thirty eight percent of staff (43% of men and 37% of women) reported experiencing one or more types of bullying, 22% described an incident in the past three months and 42% had witnessed the bullying of others. The most common bully was a senior manager in 54% of cases. In 57% of cases, the bully was the same sex as the victim. In contrast to Bjorkqvist et al.'s (1994) findings, there was not a significant difference in the proportions of men and women experiencing bullying.

Quine (1999) found that employees who had experienced bullying reported significantly lower levels of job satisfaction than other workers, had significantly higher levels of job induced stress and showed a higher propensity to leave the job. They were also more likely to suffer clinical levels of anxiety and depression. Sixty one people who had experienced bullying reported that their health had been affected and 20 had taken time off work.

Cole et al. (1997) examined the relationship between workplace

violence, including harassment, and work climate. Harassment was more

prevalent when workers reported low levels of work group harmony and

coworker support. This is consistent with Schneider et al.'s (1997) finding

regarding the work climate correlates of sexual harassment. The Cole et al.

(1997) study is limited in that types of harassment reported are not specified.

However, the relationship between work climate and the occurrence of

harassment and its effects is highlighted. Quine (1999) found that good support

from peers and managers moderated the negative effects of bullying.

Differentiating Sexual Harassment and Nonsexual Harassment

Research has failed to address the question whether and how the impact

on victims of harassment that in not sexual differs from the consequences

experienced by victims of sexual harassment. Only one study has attempted to

compare perceptions of sexual harassment and perceptions of harassment of a

nonsexual nature. The Harassment Sensitivity Index (Lee & Heppner, 1991)

consists of scenarios describing mild, moderate and severe sexual harassment

incidents. A nonsexual harassment scale was created by matching the sexual

harassment scenarios with descriptions that differ in sexual content but are

equal in level of hostility. Respondents rated on a 6-point scale the extent to

which they believed each of the sexual and nonsexual behaviours met four

criteria: interfere with recipient's work performance; create an intimidating work

environment; create a hostile work environment, and create and offensive work

environment.

Both men and women showed greater sensitivity to sexual rather than

nonsexual harassing behaviours. Women and men both rated sexual

harassing items as more interfering, intimidating, hostile and offensive than

nonsexual harassing items. An interaction between condition (sexual versus

nonsexual) and criteria suggests that "offensiveness" may be the strongest of the four criteria for discriminating between sensitivity to sexual and nonsexual harassment. Overall, mean ratings of offensiveness and intimidation were significantly higher than those for hostility and interference.

Lee and Heppner found no relationship between sensitivity to sexual and nonsexual harassment and attitudes toward verbal and physical aggression. Given the finding by Bjorkqvist et al. (1994) that women are more likely than men to be victims of general work harassment, it is possible that attitudes toward women and hostility toward women may be related to perceptions of both sexual harassment and nonsexual harassment.

In addition, few studies have examined the sexual harassment of men by women, of men by men, or women by women. It is possible that perceptions of both sexual harassment and nonsexual harassment vary depending on the gender of both the initiator and the recipient of the behaviour.

The Present Study

The purpose of the present study is twofold: 1) to explore perceptions of sexual harassment in cases in cases of a female harasser and a male recipient, and in cases of a harasser and recipient of the same gender, relative to perceptions of sexual harassment of women by men; and 2) to explore perceptions of harassment that is nonsexual in nature relative to perceptions of sexual harassment.

The Perception of Harassing Incidents Questionnaire (PHIQ) was developed for the study to assess people's reactions to potential harassment; both sexual and nonsexual. The questionnaire assesses the degree of various effects on the work environment and psychological consequences for the target of potentially harassing behaviours. The development of the PHIQ is described

in detail in a forthcoming section.

Several variables such as sex-role attitudes and self-esteem have been shown to be related to attitudes toward sexual harassment (Malovich & Stake,1990). The influence of these personality traits on attitudes toward both sexual harassment and nonsexual harassment was be examined in this study. Although "sex-role attitudes" typically refers to attitudes toward the female role, attitudes toward the male role will also be examined in the present study. In addition, Lee and Heppner (1991) suggested that hostility toward women may influence attitudes toward the sexual harassment of women. This study examined the possible relationships of hostility toward both men and women with attitudes toward sexual harassment and nonsexual harassment.

Hypotheses

1) Berdahl et al. (1996) suggest that men rarely report negative outcomes as a result of experiencing potential sexual harassment initiated by women. They argue, however, that it is typically against prescribed gender roles for a man to pursue a sexual relationship with a man in a persistent and aggressive way. Therefore, it was hypothesized that men would evaluate the potential sexual harassment of men by men more negatively than the potential sexual harassment of men by women.

2) Research has shown that women identify more behaviours as harassment than do men. Gutek et al. (1983) found that women are also more likely than men to view sexual behaviour between men an women as inappropriate in a work environment. Therefore, it was hypothesized that, women would evaluate the potential sexually harassing situations more negatively than would men.

3) Researchers have found that people are more sensitive to sexually harassing behaviours than to behaviours that are harassing but not sexual (Lee

& Heppner, 1991). That is, people attribute hostile environment consequences to sexually harassing behaviours to a greater degree than they attribute them to harassing behaviours that are not sexual. Thus, I hypothesized that people would rate sexually harassing situations more negatively than harassing situations that are not sexual.

They should attribute more hostile environment consequences, more negative job-related consequences, and more negative psychological consequences to sexual harassment than to nonsexual harassment.

4) Malovich and Stake (1990) found that women with high self-esteem evaluated potential sexually harassing behaviours less negatively than women with lower self-esteem. Thus, I hypothesized that women with high self-esteem would perceive fewer negative effects on the recipient of sexual harassment than would women with lower self-esteem. Malovich and Stake (1990) also found that men with low self-esteem express a less negative view of sexual harassment than men with high self-esteem. Thus, I hypothesized that low self-esteem men would perceive fewer negative effects on the recipient of sexual harassment than would men with high self-esteem. No a priori hypotheses were made regarding the relationship between self-esteem and perceptions of nonsexual harassment.

5) Baker, Terpstra and Larntz (1990) found that individuals with an internal locus of control were somewhat less likely than those with an external locus of control to perceive negative effects due to being the recipient of sexually harassing behaviours. Similarly, I hypothesized that participants with an internal locus of control would evaluate the sexually harassing situations less negatively than would participants with and external locus of control. No a priori hypotheses were made regarding the relationship between locus of control and

perceptions of nonsexual harassment.

6) Malovich and Stake (1990) found that both men and women with traditional sex-role attitudes are more tolerant of sexually harassing behaviours than those with more nontraditional attitudes. With respect to the harassment of women by men, I hypothesized that participants with traditional sex-role attitudes would evaluate potentially harassing situations less negatively than will those with nontraditional attitudes. However, people with traditional sex-role attitudes should evaluate the same gender sexual harassment more negatively than those with nontraditional sex-role attitudes.

7) With respect to potential sexual harassment and nonsexual harassment, it was hypothesized that both men and women would evaluate situations involving threats as more harassing and resulting in more negative outcomes than situations that do not involve a direct threat. In the case of both sexual harassment and nonsexual harassment that do not involve threat, it was hypothesized that men would evaluate situations less negatively than would women.

8) Lee and Heppner (1991) examined the relationship between perceptions of potential harassment and individuals' attitudes regarding aggressive behaviour. Although they found no relationship between general hostility and perceptions of harassment, they reasoned that hostility toward women may be related to perceptions of harassment, but this hypothesis was not tested. I hypothesized that individuals who show hostile attitudes toward women would be more tolerant of, and thus evaluate less negatively, potentially harassing behaviours with women as the recipient than individuals who do not show hostile attitudes toward women. Similarly, individuals who show hostile attitudes toward men would be more tolerant of potentially harassing

behaviours with men as the recipient than individuals who do not show hostile attitudes toward men. No a priori hypotheses were made regarding differences in the influence of hostility toward women or men on perceptions of sexual harassment and nonsexual harassment.

9) Having experienced sexual harassment has also been associated with a broader definition of sexual harassment (Marks & Nelson, 1993). Thus, participants who report having experienced sexual harassment should be more likely to perceive harassment in the situations presented, and should have rated the situations more negatively, as compared with those who have not experienced sexual harassment.

10) Baker et al. (1990) found that older adults have a broader definition of sexual harassment. Therefore, I hypothesized that younger participants would rate the sexually harassing behaviours less negatively than older participants.

Method

Participants

The sample consisted of 175 undergraduate students at Saint Mary's University. Participants were recruited via sign-up sheets in the Department of Psychology at Saint Mary's University. Those enrolled in a psychology course received 1 bonus points toward their course grade for every 45 minutes of participation. Informed consent was obtained prior to the experiment. Anonymity of responses was ensured.

Design

The experiment used a 2 (Type of Harassment: Sexual or Nonsexual) x 2 (Threat: Present or Absent) x 2 (Gender of Harasser: Male or Female) x 2 (Gender of Target: Male or Female) between-subjects factorial design. Small groups of participants were randomly assigned to experimental conditions.

There were between 10 and 18 participants in each cell.

<u>Materials</u>

<u>Auditory Scenarios</u>. Sixteen scenarios were created in the form of an audiotaped recording. The same four scenarios (2 sexual and 2 nonsexual), were produced under the following four conditions: male harasser and female target; male harasser and male target; female harasser and male target; and, female harasser and female target (see Appendix A). The sexual harassment incidents were selected due to the ease with which they could be matched with similar behaviours that are nonsexual in nature. As a pretest, 10 people who were uninformed about the purpose of the study rated 10 potentially harassing verbal statements on 10 point scales in terms of their sexual content and level of hostility. These subjects were not involved in any other aspect of the study. Pretesting revealed that the scenarios had equal hostility, but differed in sexual content. Furthermore, half of the audiotaped scenarios included a threat; the other half did not. All of the harassing behaviours described by Bjorkqvist et al. (1994) are personally directed, therefore, the sexual harassment scenarios exclude less direct behaviours such as general sexist comments.

<u>Questionnaire</u>. Perceptions of Harassing Incidents Questionnaire (PHIQ). Following each description of a potentially harassing situation, respondents were asked to indicate on a 9-point scale the degree to which they agreed with a series of statements regarding the incident (see Appendix B). Three of the criteria based on the EEOC definition of sexual harassment used by Lee and Heppner (1991) were used: whether the behaviour is likely to create an environment which is hostile, intimidating, and/or offensive. Other questions taken from Malovich and Stake (1990) assessed respondents' perceptions of the likelihood of several emotional effects on the victim. Two

questions addressed possible work-related outcomes for the victim (e.g., increased absenteeism). Finally, respondents were asked to indicate whether they believed the incident constitutes an example of harassment. In addition, several open-ended questions were posed to obtain more qualitative information about reactions to the scenarios.

Personality Measures

Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR) (Paulhus, 1988). The BIDR is a 40-item inventory designed to assess the extent to which people enhance their view of themselves by self-deception, and/or attempt to manage the impression that others will have of them (see Appendix C). Every second item is negatively keyed and reverse scored. Extreme responses of 6 or 7 receive a score of 1 and all other responses receive a score of 0. The possible score range is 0 to 40. The first 20 items comprise the Self-Deceptive Enhancement (SDE) scale, which emphasizes exaggerated claims of positive attributes. Items 21 through 40 comprise the Impression Management (IM) scale, which was developed on the assumption that some respondents systematically overreport their performance of a wide variety of desirable behaviours and underreport undesirable behaviours. Both the SDE and IM scales have a possible score range of 0 to 20. Internal consistency estimates range from .68 to .80 for the SDE scale and from .75 to .86 for the IM scale (Paulhus, 1991). The BIDR correlates .71 with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale, a widely used measure of situational demand (Paulhus, 1991). Separate measures of SDE and IM provide and indication of which component is responsible for the observed correlation between socially desirable responding and another variable. Paulhus (1988; cited in Paulhus, 1991) demonstrated the convergent validity of both the SDE and IM scales. The

SDE correlates with measures of coping, and self-esteem (Paulhus, 1991). The IM correlates highly with traditional lie scales (e.g., MMPI Lie Scale), and is responsive to demands for impression management (Paulhus, 1984; Lautenschlager & Flaherty, 1990). This measure was administered as an estimate of participants' tendencies to respond to the scenarios presented according to hypotheses they may have had regarding the purpose of the experiment. In addition, some of the personality and attitude measures administered may be susceptible to socially desirable responding.

Performance Self-Esteem Scale (PSES) (Stake, 1979). This questionnaire consists of 40 items rated on a 7 point scale related to the respondent's ability to perform in achievement settings (see Appendix D). Scores on negative traits are subtracted from the total. The possible score range is -64 to 176. Coefficient alpha was .90 in a group of undergraduate students (Stake, 1979). The scale has been related to a number of achievement variables (Stake, 1979). Confidence in one's abilities as indicated by the PSES has been found to be related to perceptions of negative educational and emotional effects of sexual harassment (Malovich & Stake, 1990).

Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (I-E) (Rotter, 1966). The Rotter scale is widely used in internal-external locus of control investigations (see Appendix E). The literature indicates that there are individual differences in perceptions about one's control over one's destiny, and that the Rotter scale is sensitive to these differences (Lefcourt, 1991). The scale has a possible score range of 0 to 23; the higher the score, the more external one's locus of control. An internal consistency coefficient of .70 was obtained from the normative sample of 400 college students (Rotter, 1966). Locus of control has been

shown to have some influence on perceptions of severity of harassment;

however, this relationship is not strong (Baker, Terpstra & Larntz, 1990). Locus

of control has been shown to be related to hostility expression (Pefley, 1987),

which may be related to attitudes toward harassment. In addition, insofar as

locus of control may be related to performance self-esteem, it may be indirectly

related to perceptions of harassing incidents. Those with an internal locus of

control may evaluate harassment scenarios less negatively than those with an

external locus of control because they are more confident in their ability deal

with potentially threatening situations.

Attitudinal Measures

    Attitudes Toward Women Scale-Simple (AWS-S) (Nelson, 1988). The

simple version presents Spence, Helmreich and Stapp's (1973) AWS in less

complex and more succinct language (see Appendix F). The scale consists of

22 items rated on a 5 point scale and has a possible score range of 22 to 110.

The scale assesses traditional sex-role orientation, and contains statements

about the rights and roles of women in such areas as vocational, educational

and intellectual activities; dating behaviour and etiquette; sexual behaviour, and

marital relationships (Spence, Helmreich & Stapp, 1973). Lower scores

indicate more traditional attitudes. Nelson (1988) obtained normative data on a

sample representing a wide range of age and socioeconomic status, yielding

internal consistency coefficients ranging from .78 to .85. Traditional attitudes

about female sex-roles have been found to play a role in attitudes toward

sexual harassment (Malovich & Stake, 1990; Baker, Terpstra & Larntz, 1990).

    Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS) (Thompson & Pleck, 1986). The MRNS

assesses three male role dimensions: status, toughness, and antifemininity

(see Appendix G). The scale consists of 26 items rated on a 7 point scale. The

possible score range is 26 to 182; higher scores indicate more traditional attitudes. Internal consistency estimates range from .81 for status to .74 for toughness. Thompson and Pleck (1986) reported Cronbach's alpha at .86. The MRNS measures masculinity ideology only and is uncontaminated by items that measure attitudes toward women (Thompson, Pleck & Ferrera, 1992). Traditional attitudes toward male roles may be related to perceptions of harassment, particularly with respect to the appropriateness of aggressive behaviour on the part of men, and possibly with respect to men's reactions to potential harassment.

Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory (BDHI) (Buss & Durkee, 1957). The BDHI consists of seven subscales assessing subclasses of hostility expression. Responses are either True or False and score as 1 or 0. Several subscales were used in this study. Intercorrelations among the subscales are relatively low, suggesting that the subscales tap somewhat independent behaviours. Buss and Durkee (1957) examined internal consistency of the subscales only, and not of the total scale. Several researchers have used one or more subscales to examine relationships between particular modes of hostility expression and other variables. Lee and Heppner (1991) examined the relationships of Assault and Verbal hostility with perceptions of harassment. Assault is defined as physical violence against others. Verbal hostility is defined as negative affect expressed in both style and content of speech. Lee and Heppner (1991) found that neither Assault or Verbal hostility were related to perceptions of the consequences of harassment. They reasoned that more specifically hostile attitudes toward women may be related to perceptions of harassment. The Hostility Toward Women Scale (Check, 1985) appears to tap more unexpressed, or covert hostility, as opposed to overt hostility as measured

by the Assault and Verbal scales.

Schill, Ramanaiah and Conn (1990) derived Overt and Covert hostility subscales from the BDHI. The Overt hostility subscale consists of items from both the Assault and Verbal hostility subscales, and shows good content saturation on willingness to act out in anger. A Cronbach's alpha for the Overt hostility of .77 was obtained (Schill et al., 1990). In this study, the complete Assault (10 items) and Verbal (13 items) subscales were used. The Covert hostility items relate to being angry or irritated but not expressing it. This subscale (7 items) was also used in this study (see Appendix H). Cronbach's alpha is reported at .67 (Schill et al., 1990). Schill et al. (1990) reported significant correlations with existing measures of anger expression, demonstrating construct validity of the Overt and Covert hostility scales.

Hostility Toward Women Scale (HTWS) (Check, 1985). The HTWS is a 30 item trait measure of hostility toward women (see Appendix I). The True-False scale has a possible score range of 0 to 30. Kuder-Richardson reliability coefficient is over .80, and test-retest reliability is reported at .83. Across six validation studies (Check, 1985), the HTWS consistently predicted self-report measures of rape attitudes, motivation and behaviour in men. The scale also predicted behavioural criteria (e.g., rape) better than a measure of general hostility (Check, 1985). Hostility toward women may also be related to attitudes regarding the harassment of women.

Hostility Toward Men Scale. A parallel version of the Hostility Toward Women Scale was created for this study (see Appendix J). No significant change in meaning of any of the items was foreseen by applying them to men. This may be an important factor in terms of perceptions of harassment by men and the harassment of men. Reliability of the scale was examined in this study.

Procedure

Participants signed up to participate in the experiment. A maximum of 10 people were allowed in a session. The experimental condition presented was randomly varied. Participants first signed a consent form (Appendix K). They then completed a demographic information sheet (see Appendix L), the BIDR, AWS-S, HTWS, MRNS, HTMS, PSES, I-E, and subscales of the BDHI. Participants listened to 1 of 16 audiotaped scenarios, approximately one minute in duration. Following the presentation of the scenario, participants completed the PHIQ based on that scenario. At the conclusion of the study, participants received a feedback sheet about the study (see Appendix M).

Results

Participants

The sample consisted of 126 female and 49 male Saint Mary's University undergraduate students. Participants ranged in age from 18 to 47, with a mean age of 22. Ninety-three percent were single. Approximately 51% percent reported psychology as their major subject of study. See Table 1 for additional sample demographic characteristics.

Perceptions of Harassing Incidents Questionnaire (PHIQ)

The PHIQ contains 13 items which were rated on a 9 point scale. Table 2 presents descriptive statistics for individual items. Items 2 through 12 pertained to consequences of harassment. Internal consistency of these 11 items was .78. The responses to these 11 items were summed to create a composite score (PHIQEVAL) with a possible range of 11 to 99, representing the overall degree of negative consequences attributed to the target of the harassing behaviour. High PHIQEVAL scores reflect greater perceived negative consequences for the target of the behaviour.

Table 1

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Sex (%)	
Male	28.0
Female	72.0
Age (years)	
Mean	22.2
Range	18-47
SD	5.15
Marital Status (%)	
Single	95.4
Married	2.9
Common law	1.7
University year (%)	
First	31.2
Second	26.0
Third	24.9
Fourth	12.1
Fifth	5.8
Major (%)	
Psychology	51.4
Arts non-Psych	9.7
Science non-Psych	10.9
Commerce	4.6
Undeclared	23.4
Work experience (years)	
Mean	5.66
Range	0-26.5[a]
SD	5.03

Note. [a]Only 6 participants (4.5%) indicated that they had no work experience.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for PHIQ Rating Items

Item		M	SD
Would you describe the situation as (Items 2-4)			
PHIQ2:	Friendly vs. Hostile[a]	7.99	1.12
PHIQ3:	Complimentary vs. Offensive[a]	8.02	1.25
PHIQ4:	Inviting vs. Threatening[a]	7.82	1.22
PHIQ5:	If this were you, would you be likely to miss work more often?[b]	5.11	2.73
PHIQ6:	How do you think situations like this influence relationships among coworkers?[c]	8.42	.75
Please indicate how you think Mary might have felt (Items 7-12):			
PHIQ7R:	Nervous vs. Relaxed[a]	8.04	1.13
PHIQ8:	Pleased vs. Angry[a]	8.03	1.01
PHIQ9:	Comfortable vs. Uncomfortable[a]	8.37	.81
PHIQ10R:	Intimidated vs. Powerful[a]	7.84	1.40
PHIQ11:	Proud vs. Embarrassed[a]	7.50	1.55
PHIQ12R:	Insulted vs. Flattered[a]	8.20	1.23
PHIQ14R:	How appropriate is the described behaviour?[d]	8.08	1.96
PHIQ20:	Is this incident an example of harassment?[e]	8.32	1.12

Note. Items were rated on a scale from 1 to 9. R indicates that the item was reverse scored so that high scores reflected ratings in the negative direction.

[a] The first anchor represented a rating of 1 and the second word, a rating of 9.

[b] 1 = Not at all likely, 5 = Somewhat likely, 9 =Extremely likely

[c] 1 = Make them more friendly, 5 = No influence, 9 = Make them more tense.

[d] 1 = Very inappropriate, 5 = Somewhat appropriate, 9 = Very inappropriate.

[e] 1 = Definitely not harassment, 9 = Definitely harassment.

Items 14 and 20 pertained to the labelling of the situation in general as opposed to specific consequences of harassment. Participants indicated how appropriate they considered the behaviour of the harasser (PHIQ14R), and whether they perceived the situation as harassment (PHIQ20). PHIQ items 1, 13, 15,16, 17 and 18 were not included in the PHIQEVAL score. Items 1, 13, 17 and 18 required qualitative responses, and items 15 and 16 were dichotomous, requiring a "yes" or "no" response.

Personality and Attitude Questionnaires

Descriptive statistics and internal consistency estimates for the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR), Attitudes Toward Women Scale-Simple (AWS-S), Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS), Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory (BDHI) subscales, Hostility Toward Women Scale (HTWS), Hostility Toward Men Scale (HTMS), Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (I-E) and Performance Self-Esteem Scale (PSES) are reported in Table 3. The reliability estimates are comparable to those reported by the developers of the scales. Neither of the BIDR subscale scores were highly correlated with the dependent variables. The remaining measures were related to specific hypotheses.

Overview of Analysis

As I specified in my hypotheses, I tested the relationship between various independent variables and three dependent variables: PHIQEVAL, PHIQ20 and PHIQ14R. PHIQEVAL and PHIQ20 were moderately correlated, r (175) = .44, p < .05. These variables were examined in multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA). Wilks' F is reported for these analyses.[1] PHIQ14R was not highly correlated with PHIQEVAL, r (175) = -.16, p < .05, or with PHIQ20, r

---

[1] According to Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) Wilks' is the criterion of choice unless the homogeneity of variance assumption is violated, in which case, Pillai's criterion would be more appropriate. In all cases with respect to the current data, the two values were identical.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics and Reliability Estimates for Personality and Attitude Measures

Scale	M	SD	Alpha
Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding Impression Management subscale (BIDR-IM)	4.75	3.22	.72
Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding Self-Deceptive Enhancement subscale (BIDR-SDE)	4.57	2.94	.64
Attitudes Toward Women Scale-Simple (AWS-S)	89.71	10.58	.86
Male Role Norms Scale (MRNS)	89.93	18.90	.88
Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory Assault subscale (BDHI-Assault)	3.37	2.16	.61
Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory Verbal subscale (BDHI-Verbal)	7.18	2.10	.45
Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory Overt subscale (BDHI-Overt)	5.88	2.35	.50
Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory Covert subscale (BDHI-Covert)	3.36	1.65	.47
Hostility Toward Women Scale (HTWS)	9.73	4.99	.79
Hostility Toward Men Scale (HTMS)	11.40	5.45	.81
Internal-External Locus of Control Scale (I-E)	11.28	4.26	.75
Performance Self-Esteem Scale (PSES)	87.18	21.98	.76

Note. With respect to the BIDR subscales, high scores represent a greater

tendency to respond in a socially desirable manner. On the AWS, low scores

indicate traditional attitudes toward women. High scores on the MRNS indicate

traditional attitudes about the male role. With respect to the BDHI subscales,

the HTWS and HTMS, higher scores represent a greater degree of hostility of

the indicated type. The I-E is scored so that higher scores represent a more

external locus of control. Higher PSES scores indicate greater performance

self-esteem.

(175) =.13, p > .05. Thus, this variable was treated separately in univariate analyses of variance (ANOVA).

Hypotheses 1 through 3 were tested using a 2 (Type of Harassment: Sexual or Nonsexual) x 2 (Gender of Participant: Male or Female) x 2 (Gender of Harasser: Male or Female) x 2 (Gender of Target) MANOVA of PHIQEVAL and PHIQ20, and the corresponding univariate analysis for PHIQ14R. Additional analyses were conducted with combinations of independent variables specific to each hypothesis. With respect to each hypothesis, the results of the MANOVA of PHIQEVAL and PHIQ20 are reported first, followed by the results of the ANOVA of PHIQ14R.

Hypotheses 1 - 3

Men participants were expected to evaluate sexual harassment of men by men more negatively than sexual harassment of men by women (Hypothesis 1). A 2 (Type of Harassment: Sexual or Nonsexual) x 2 (Gender of Participant: Male or Female) x 2 (Gender of Harasser: Male or Female) x 2 (Gender of Target: Male or Female) MANOVA of PHIQEVAL and PHIQ20 revealed no significant 4-way interaction, F (2, 155) = .77, η = .32, p > .05. There were no other significant interactions. Hence, Hypothesis 2, which predicted that women would evaluate sexual harassment as less appropriate and to anticipate more negative outcomes for the target than would men, was unsupported by these data.

A parallel univariate analysis of variance of PHIQ14R revealed a significant Type of Harassment x Gender of Participant x Gender of Harasser x Gender of Target interaction, F (1, 158) = 4.38, η = .14, p < .05. Post hoc

comparisons were performed using the Sheffé method.[2] As shown in Figure 1 (bottom), differences appeared with respect to men's evaluations of nonsexual harassment. When the target was a man, men participants perceived the behaviour of a man harasser as more inappropriate than that of a woman harasser ($\underline{Ms}$ = 8.40 and 6.6, respectively). Men also perceived the behaviour of a man harasser as less inappropriate when directed toward a woman ($\underline{M}$ = 5.83) than a man ($\underline{M}$ = 8.40). This pattern does not support Hypothesis 1, and should be interpreted with caution, given the small number of men in the sample.[3] Hypothesis 2 was not supported. There were no other significant interactions.

Although there was no significant interaction of the gender of the participant and type of harassment as predicted by Hypothesis 2, the MANOVA revealed a significant main effect of gender of participant, $\underline{F}$ (2, 155) = 8.75, $\underline{p}$ < .05. Men and women differed on PHIQEVAL, $\underline{F}$ (1, 156) = 17.59, $\underline{d}$ = .76, $\underline{p}$ < .05. Women attributed more negative outcomes to the target of harassment than did men ($\underline{Ms}$ = 86.96 and 80.92, respectively).[4] Similarly, the univariate analysis of PHIQ14R also revealed significant main effect of gender of participant, $\underline{F}$ (1, 158) = 7.25, $\underline{d}$ = .44, $\underline{p}$ < .05. Overall, women perceived the behaviour of the harasser as less appropriate than did men ($\underline{Ms}$ = 8.34 and 7.49, respectively). This analysis revealed no other significant main effects.

---

[2] Tabachnick and Fidell (1996) recommend Sheffé comparisons among cells in a factorial design, using the degrees of freedom for the interaction. This method is appropriate for unequal cell sizes.

[3] Levene's Test For Equality of Variances suggests that the variances on this rating were significantly different for men and women, $\underline{F}$ = 5.39, $\underline{p}$ < .05.

[4] Cohen's d is a measure of effect size; a positive value indicates an effect in the predicted direction (Cohen, 1988).
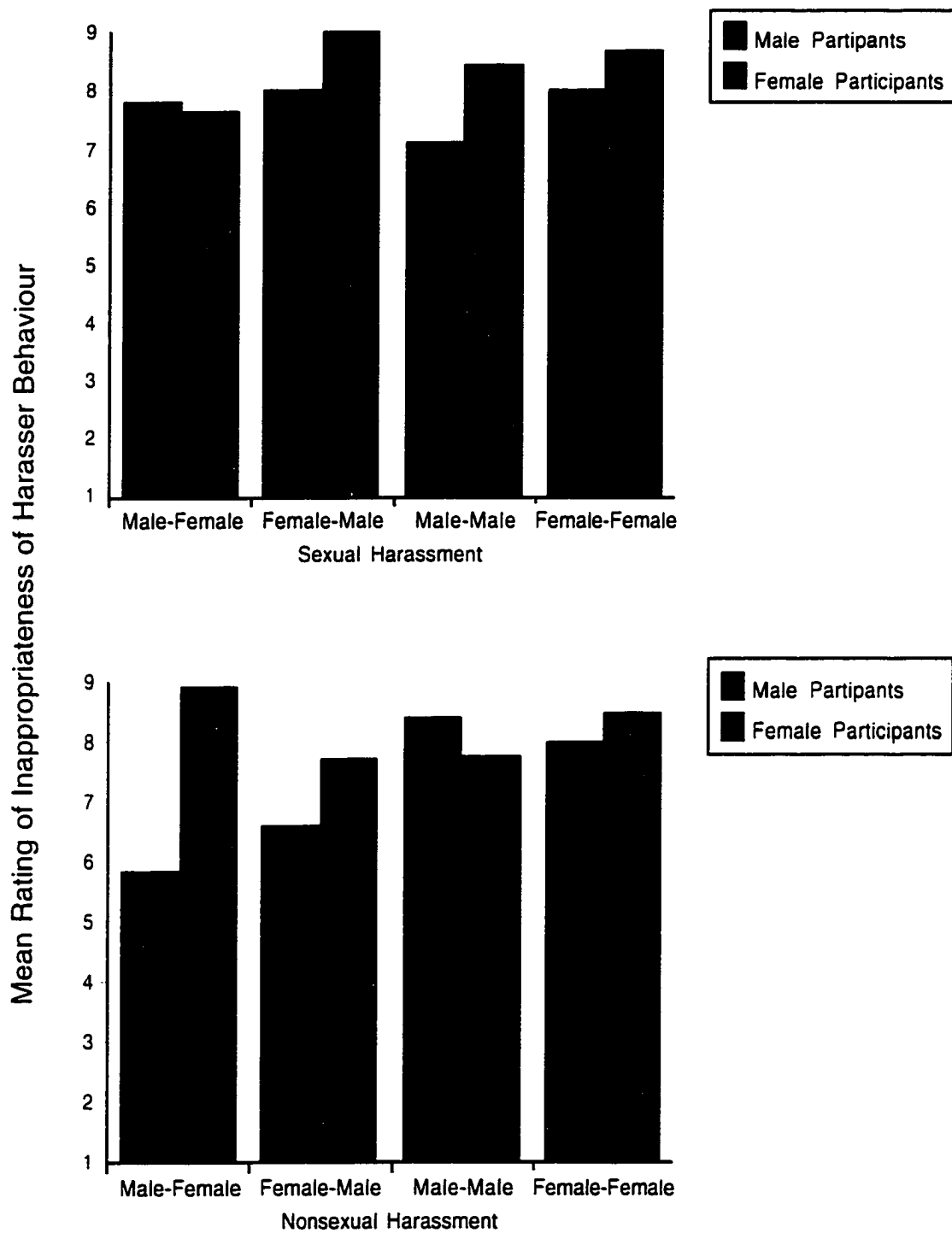
Figure 1. Perceptions of appropriateness of harasser behaviour

(PHIQ14R) as a function of type of harassment gender of participant

and harasser-target gender dyad.

The MANOVA also revealed a significant main effect of gender of harasser, F (2, 155) = 6.54, p < .05. Only the univariate test of PHIQEVAL was significant, F (1, 156) = 13.11, d = .64, p < .05. More negative consequences were attributed to the target of harassment when the harasser was a man (M = 87.86) than when the harasser was a woman (M = 82.76).

More negative consequences were expected to be attributed to sexual harassment than to nonsexual harassment (Hypothesis 3). The MANOVA of PHIQEVAL and PHIQ20 revealed a significant main effect of type of harassment, F (2, 155) = 4.87, p < .05. Only the univariate test of PHIQ20 was significant, F (1, 156) = 9.05, d = .44, p < .05. Sexual situations were more likely to be perceived as harassment than nonsexual situations (Ms = 8.53 and 8.06, respectively). The ANOVA of PHIQ14R revealed no significant main effect of type of harassment, F (1, 158) = 4.46, d=.09, p > .05. Hence, Hypothesis 3 was partially supported by these data.

<u>Hypothesis 4</u>

Women with higher self-esteem were expected to evaluate sexual harassment less negatively than women participants with lower self-esteem. The converse was expected with respect to men. Self-esteem was measured with the Performance Self-Esteem Scale (PSES). Scores on the 40 item scale ranged from 33 to 171, with a median of 87. PSES scores were categorized as high or low with a median split.

A 2 (Performance Self-Esteem: High or Low) x 2 (Gender of Participant: Male or Female) x 2 (Type of Harassment: Sexual or Nonsexual) MANOVA was performed on PHIQEVAL and PHIQ20. This 3-way interaction was nonsignificant, F (2, 163) = .35, η = .06, p > .05. However, there was a

significant interaction of self-esteem and gender of participant, F (2, 163) = 3.44,

η = .20, p < .05. The univariate test of PHIQEVAL was significant, F (1, 164) =

5.15, η = .17, p < .05. As Figure 2 shows, men with lower self-esteem attributed

less negative consequences to the target of harassment (M = 77.45) than did

men with higher self-esteem (M = 83.74). Women with higher versus lower self-

esteem did not differ in the degree of negative consequences they attributed to

the target of harassment (Ms = 87.14 and 86.81, respectively). Hypothesis 4 is

partially supported by these data.

Additionally, the multivariate analysis revealed a significant main effect of

self-esteem, F (2, 163) = 3.26, p < .05. The univariate test of PHIQEVAL was

significant, F (1, 164) = 5.38, d = .18, p < .05. Overall, participants with lower

self-esteem attributed slightly less negative consequences to the target (M =

84.58) than did participants with higher self-esteem (M = 86.04). The parallel

univariate analysis of PHIQ14R revealed no significant Performance Self-

Esteem x Gender of Participant x Type of Harassment interaction, F (1, 166) =

.26, η = .04, p > .05. There were no other significant interactions.

Hypothesis 5

Participants with an internal locus of control were expected to evaluate

sexual harassment more negatively than participants with an external locus of

control. A median split was used to categorize participants' Locus of Control (I-

E) scores as internal or external.
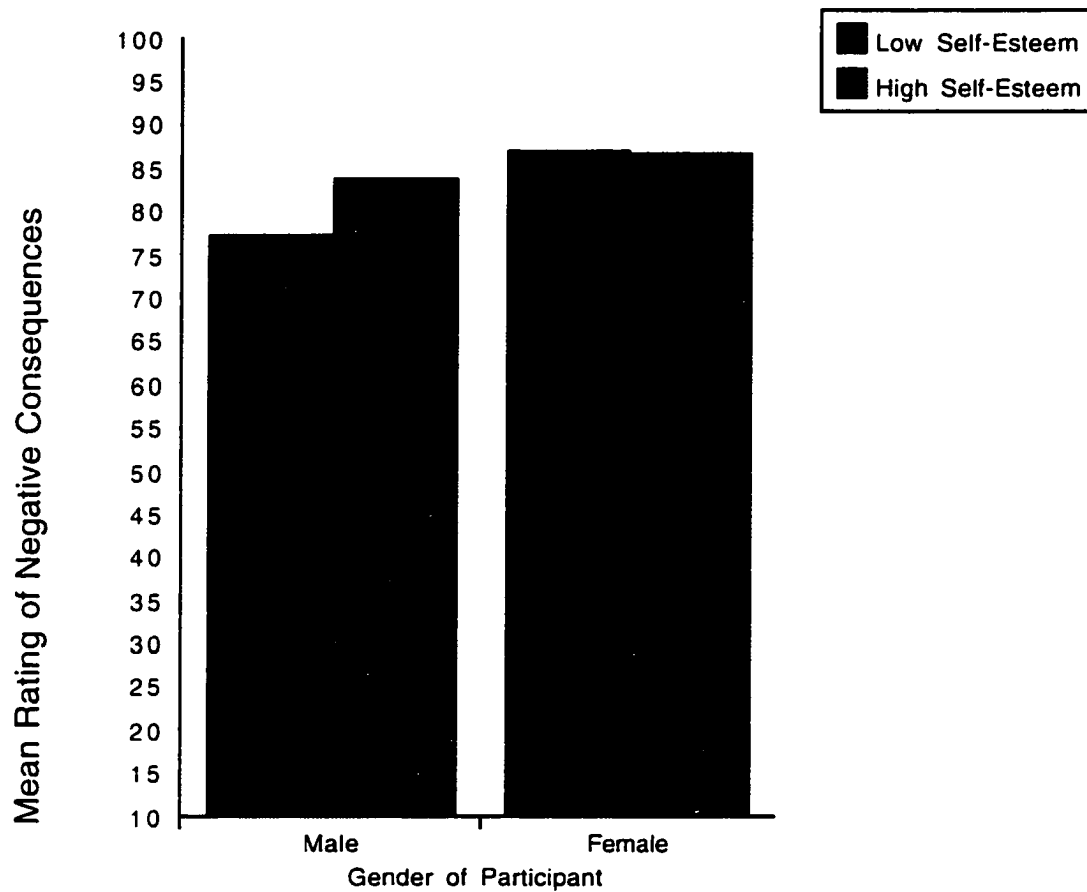
Figure 2. Perceptions of negative consequences of harassment

(PHIQEVAL) as a function of gender of participant and self-esteem.

Note. PHIQEVAL is a composite of 11 items rated on a scale from

1 to 9. The score represents the overall degree of negative

consequences attributed to a situation and has a possible range of

11 to 99.

A 2 (Locus of Control: Internal or External) x 2 (Type of Harassment: Sexual or Nonsexual) MANOVA of PHIQEVAL and PHIQ20 revealed no significant Locus of Control x Type of Harassment interaction, F (2, 167) = .16, η = .05, p > .05. Further, there were no significant main effects. The parallel univariate analysis of PHIQ14R revealed no significant Locus of Control x Type of Harassment, F (1, 170) = 1.39, η = .03, p > .05, and no significant main effects. Thus, this hypothesis was unsupported by my data.

Hypothesis 6

Participants with more traditional sex-role attitudes were expected to evaluate sexual harassment of a female target less negatively than participants with nontraditional attitudes. There was no previous evidence to suggest how sex role attitudes may influence evaluations of sexual harassment of a male target in general, but participants with traditional sex-role attitudes were expected to evaluate same-gender sexual harassment more negatively than participants with nontraditional attitudes. Sex-role attitudes were measured with the Attitudes Toward Women Scale-Simple (AWS-S). The AWS-S has a minimum possible score of 22, indicating traditional sex-role attitudes, and a maximum possible score of 110, indicating nontraditional attitudes. The minimum AWS-S score obtained was 64. Using a median split, participants were therefore classified as moderately traditional or nontraditional.

The results of a 2 (Attitudes Toward Women: Moderately Traditional or Nontraditional) x 2 (Type of Harassment: Sexual or Nonsexual) x 2 (Gender of Harasser: Male or Female) x 2 (Gender of Target: Male or Female) MANOVA of PHIQEVAL and PHIQ20 revealed a nonsignificant 4-way interaction, F (2, 155) = .66, η = .09, p > .05. However, there was a significant main effect of sex-role

attitudes, F (2, 155) = 4.44, p < .05. The univariate test of PHIQEVAL was

significant, F (1, 156) = 8.69, d = .65, p < .05. As predicted, participants with

nontraditional sex-role attitudes attributed more negative consequences to the

target (M = 88.07) than did participants with moderately traditional attitudes (M =

82.85). The parallel univariate analysis of PHIQ14R revealed no significant 4-

way interaction, F (1, 158) = .17, η = .03, p > .05. This may be due to insufficient

power of the test (.05). There were no other significant interactions or main

effects. Hypothesis 6 was partially supported by these data.

Hypothesis 7

 Participants were expected to perceive situations involving threats as

more harassing and as having more negative consequences than situations

that did not involve threats. Moreover, when no threat was involved, women

were expected to evaluate the situation more negatively than were men. Men

and women were not expected to evaluate situations involving threats

differently.

 A 2 (Threat: Present or Absent) x 2 (Gender of Participant: Male or

Female) MANOVA was performed on PHIQ20 and PHIQEVAL. There was no

significant Threat x Gender of Participant interaction, F (2, 157) = 1.06, η = .11, p

> .05. However, there was a significant main effect of threat, F (2, 157) = 4.11, p

< .05. The univariate test of PHIQEVAL was significant, F (1, 168) = 7.45, d =

.37, p < . 05. As predicted, situations involving threats were perceived as

having more negative effects on the target than situations that did not involve

threats (Ms = 86.63 and 83.65, respectively). The univariate test of PHIQ20 was

also significant, F (1, 168) = 3.88, d = .21, p < .05. Situations involving threats

were more likely to be perceived as harassment (M = 8.47) than were situations

that did not involve threats ($\underline{M}$ = 8.05). The parallel univariate analysis of

PHIQ14R revealed no significant interaction of gender of participant and threat,

$\underline{F}$ (1, 170) = 1.48, η = .09, p > .05, nor was there a significant main effect of

threat, $\underline{F}$ (1, 170) = .06, $\underline{d}$ = -.05, $\underline{p}$ > .05.

<u>Hypothesis 8</u>

Participants who showed hostility toward women were expected to

evaluate harassment of women less negatively than those who did not show

hostility toward women. Similarly, participants who showed hostility toward

men should have evaluated the harassment of men less negatively than those

who did not show hostility toward men. Hostility Toward Women Scale (HTWS)

and Hostility Toward Men Scale (HTMS) scores were classified as high or low

with a median split. The HTMS, created for this study to parallel the HTWS, was

comparable in reliability to the original scale (See Table 2). The HTWS and

HTMS were significantly correlated, $\underline{r}$ (175) = .58, $\underline{p}$ < .05.

A 2 (Hostility Toward Women: High or Low) x 2 (Gender of Harasser:

Male or Female) x 2 (Gender of Target: Male or Female) MANOVA of

PHIQEVAL and PHIQ20 revealed no significant 3-way interaction, $\underline{F}$ (2, 163) =

1.73, η = .14, $\underline{p}$ > .05 and no other significant interactions. The parallel

univariate analysis of PHIQ14R revealed no significant Hostility Toward Women

x Gender of Harasser x Gender of Target interaction, $\underline{F}$ (1, 166) = .002, $\underline{p}$ > .05

and no other significant interactions.

A 2 (Hostility Toward Men: High or Low) x 2 (Gender of Harasser: Male

or Female) x 2 (Gender of Target: Male or Female) MANOVA of PHIQEVAL and

PHIQ20 revealed no significant 3-way interaction, F (2, 163) = .49, η = .08, $\underline{p}$ >

.05. However, there was a significant Hostility Toward Men x Gender of Target

interaction, F (2, 163) = 3.57, η = .20, p < .05. Only the univariate test of PHIQ20

was significant, F (1, 164) = 2.58, η = .20, p < .05. As Figure 3 shows,

participants with lower hostility toward men were more likely to perceive the

situation as harassment when the target was a man (M = 8.62) than when the

target was a woman (M = 7.98). Target gender did not have an impact on the

responses of participants exhibiting high hostility toward men. When the target

was a man, participants with higher hostility toward men were less likely than

those with lower hostility toward men to define the situation as harassment (Ms

= 8.11 and 8.62, respectively). As reported earlier with respect to Hypothesis 1,

more negative consequences were attributed to the target of harassment when

the harasser was a man than when the harasser was a woman. The parallel

univariate analysis of PHIQ14R revealed no significant Hostility Toward Men x

Gender of Harasser x Gender of Target interaction, F (1, 166) = 1.96, η = .11, p >

.05. There were no other significant interactions. There was a significant main

effect of gender of harasser, F (2, 163) = 7.46, p < .05, as described with respect

to Hypothesis 1.

Hypothesis 9

Participants were asked whether they had experienced a situation similar

to the one they heard described (PHIQ15). Participants who have been the

target of sexual harassment were expected to evaluate sexual harassment

more negatively than those who had not experienced it. Only 21% of the

participants (N=37) reported having experienced a situation similar to the one

they were presented with.
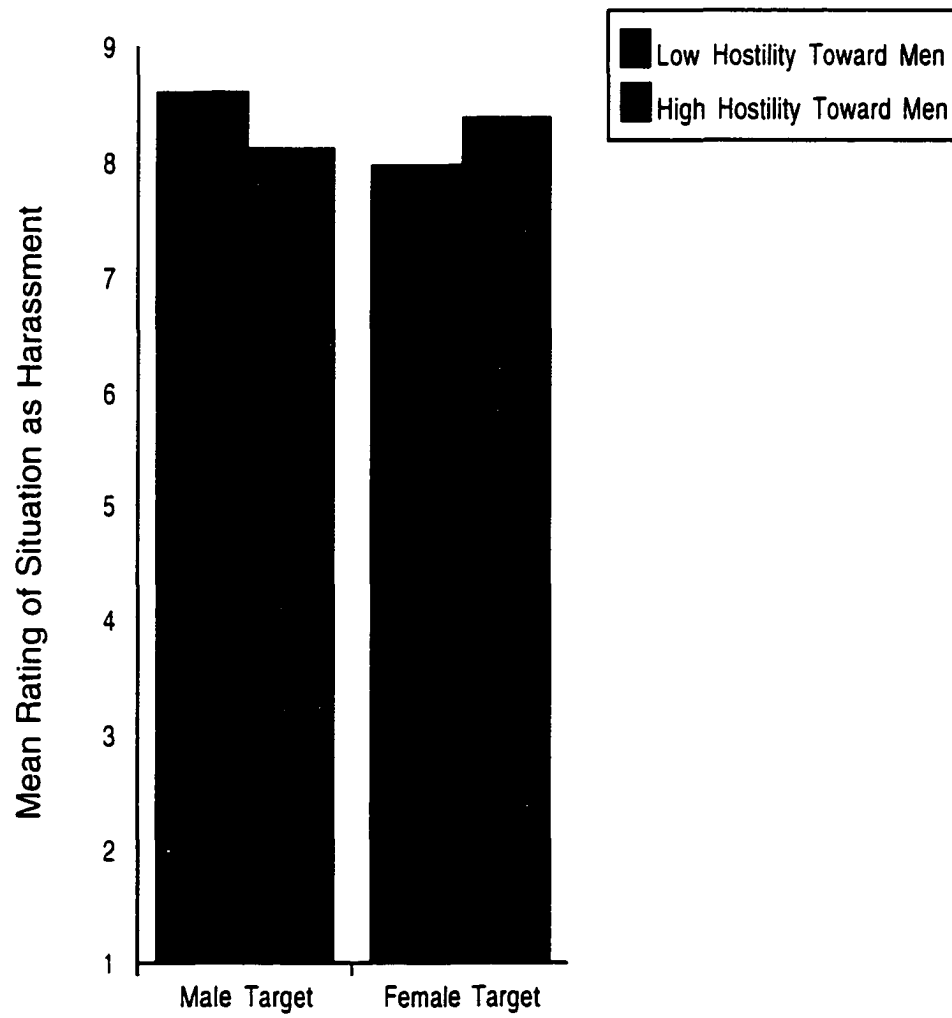
Figure 3. Perceptions of situation as harassment (PHIQ20) as a function of hostility toward men and gender of target.

Table 4 represents the proportion of participants who reported having experienced each presented scenario. Since the proportion of participants who reported having experienced harassment was so small, this hypothesis was not tested.

Table 4

Participant's Experience with Harassment by Scenario

Scenario	Women		Men		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%
Sexual without threat	6	4.8	3	6.1	9	5.1
Sexual with threat	6	4.8	0	0.0	6	3.4
Nonsexual without threat	5	4.0	2	4.1	7	4.0
Nonsexual with threat	10	7.9	5	10.2	15	8.6

Note. Each of the four scenarios were presented in four variations of gender of harasser and target. The level of specificity participants responded to this question is unknown. Data for the general scenarios are reported.

Hypothesis 10

Older participants were expected to define sexual situations as harassment and to anticipate more negative outcomes more often than younger participants. Age, Type of Harassment and the Age x Type of Harassment interaction were entered as predictors in three separate multiple regression analyses with PHIQEVAL, PHIQ20 and PHIQ14R as the criterion variables.

Only the regression on PHIQ14R yielded a significant interaction of age

and type of harassment on PHIQ14R, β = -1.01, $\underline{R}^2$ = .07, $\underline{p}$ < .05. Age predicted

perception of the appropriateness of the harasser's behaviour with respect to

nonsexual harassment, β = -.38, $\underline{p}$ < .05, but not with respect to sexual

harassment, β = .04, $\underline{p}$ > .05. In the case of nonsexual harassment, younger

participants perceived the harasser's behaviour as more inappropriate than did

older participants. Hypothesis 10 is not supported by this finding.

Discussion

Overview of Findings

The purpose of the present study was to examine people's reactions to a

social interaction between two people that varied in terms of the gender of the

people involved, whether or not the interaction involved sexual behaviour, and

whether or not a job-related threat was involved. Reactions to the situations

were explored with respect to three components: definition of the situation as

harassment, consequences attributed to the target of the behaviour, and

perception of the appropriateness of the behaviour. In general, these data

indicate that situations involving sexual behaviour were more likely than

situations involving nonsexual behaviour to be defined as harassment, but that

sexual and nonsexual situations were perceived to have similar emotional and

job-related consequences for the target of the behaviour. Hostility toward men

impacted the likelihood of situations being defined as harassment. Sexual and

nonsexual situations involving threats were perceived as having more negative

consequences than situations not involving threats. Overall, women attributed

more negative consequences to the target of the behaviour than did men, but

this relationship was moderated by self-esteem. With respect to perceived

appropriateness of the harasser's behaviour, men's evaluations of nonsexual

situations varied as a function of the gender of the harasser and target.

First, the issue of socially desirable responding will be addressed. Second, I will discuss the findings with respect to the labelling of situations as harassment, the consequences attributed to the target of the behaviour, and the perceived appropriateness of the harasser's behaviour. Third, I will discuss the composition of the Perceptions of Harassing Incidents Questionnaire (PHIQ) developed for this study. I will conclude by discussing the strengths and limitations of the study and providing recommendations for future research.

Estimating Socially Desirable Responding

It seemed reasonable to examine the possibility that perceptions of harassment, or reports thereof, may be susceptible to socially desirable responding. In addition, it was desirable to have an estimate as to whether participants responded honestly to the other personality and attitudinal measures administered. Mean scores on the Balanced Inventory of Desirable Responding (BIDR) were close to those obtained by Paulhus (1991) for the normative sample who were instructed to respond honestly. This suggests that participants in the present study responded fairly honestly. To a large extent, possible demand characteristics of the experiment were controlled by having each participant evaluate only one scenario. Consistent with findings by Paulhus (1991), Self-Deceptive Enhancement (SDE) was related to reported Performance Self-Esteem (PSE) with respect to the present sample. However, according to Paulhus (1991), the SDE subscale, which reflects respondents' tendencies to exaggerate positive attributes, is less responsive to demands for impression management than the Impression Management (IM) subscale.

Defining Situations as Harassment

Sexual situations were somewhat more likely than nonsexual situations

to be defined as harassment, and this not surprising. It could be that people are more aware of, or more sensitive to sexual harassment than nonsexual harassment. It is worth noting, however, that although there was a significant difference in the labelling of situations as harassment, all situations were rated relatively highly as harassment (no scenario had a mean rating lower than 8 out of a possible 9), suggesting that participants also perceived the nonsexual situations as harassment. Since this rating was the final item on the questionnaire, participants may have been primed to label the situation as harassment. The first item on the questionnaire was an open ended question to which participants wrote their impressions of the situation presented to them. Thirty-three percent of participants who evaluated sexual situations used the word "harassment" (includes "harassing" and "harassed"), and only 11% labelled nonsexual situations as such (an additional 2% used the word "abuse").

Hostility toward men appears to influence the labelling of situations as harassment. Those with low hostility toward men may be less accepting of aggressive behaviour toward men. This study revealed that they were more likely to define behaviour toward a man as harassment than behaviour toward a woman. Further, those with high hostility toward men may be more accepting of aggressive behaviour toward men than are those with low hostility toward men. Those with higher hostility toward men were somewhat more likely than those with low hostility toward men to define behaviour toward a man as harassment, although the difference was not statistically significant. Those with high hostility toward men may be more tolerant of the harasser's behaviour, and thus be less likely to perceive the behaviour as harassment. They may also be less sympathetic toward a man who complains about being harassed. One woman

who evaluated the nonsexual threat from a woman harasser to a man wrote that the man was "being a little too sensitive".

Surprisingly, hostility toward men played a role in perceptions of harassment, but hostility toward women did not. Given some of the participants' open-ended responses, these attitudes should be investigated further. For example, one man who evaluated a man harasser's nonsexual comment without a threat toward a woman wrote, "If the woman is clearly that stupid and incompetent, maybe she should find a new job". One possible explanation for the nonsignificant interaction of hostility toward women with the gender of the target may be that the HTWS and the HTMS were not equally reliable with respect to the present sample. Although the scales consisted of items that were similar in appearance, the moderate correlation between the two measures suggests that participants did not respond identically to both measures. The Hostility Toward Men Scale (HTMS), modified from the Hostility Toward Women Scale (HTWS) (Check, 1986) for the present study, simply substituted the word "men" for "women". I reasoned that women as well as men, may have hostile attitudes toward women. Similarly, both men and women may have hostile attitudes toward men. Thus, both men and women completed both measures.

Some of the HTWS items appear to refer to romantic relationships. Although they may apply to other relationships, the meaning of these items may have been ambiguous when referring to a person of the same sex, as evidenced by the fact that several participants failed to respond to some items, e.g., "If women had not had it in for me, I would have been more successful in my personal life with them" and "I have been rejected by too many women in my life". Although the HTMS and HTWS have comparable internal consistencies, the HTMS was somewhat more reliable for women, whereas the HTWS was

somewhat more reliable for men. Given that the majority participants were women, the HTMS may be a more reliable measure than the HTMS with respect to this sample. One woman omitted the HTWS entirely, indicating, "I am straight". Check's (1986) target population in designing the HTWS was male sexual offenders. Perhaps some of the items could be eliminated or revised to be more neutral and applicable to same-sex relationships (and not necessarily romantic ones).

Consistent with Lee and Heppner's (1991) findings, attitudes toward aggressive behaviour, as measured by the Assault and Verbal subscales of the Buss-Durkee Hostility Inventory (BDHI), were not related to perceptions of harassment. The Assault and Verbal subscales appear to tap overt hostility. The Overt subscale devised by Schill et al. (1990) is comprised of Assault and Verbal items (correlations of the Overt subscale with the Assault and Verbal subscales for the present sample were .90 and .53, respectively). The HTWS (and HTMS) appears to tap more unexpressed, or covert hostility. This type of hostility may play a greater role in endorsing others' aggressive behaviour, as compared to one's own overt aggressive behaviour, which the Assault and Verbal subscales of the BDHI tap.

Although covert hostility was moderately correlated with hostility toward women and hostility toward men (rs = .45 and .50, respectively), it was not significantly correlated with perceptions of the consequences of harassment. However, the Covert subscale of the BDHI devised by Schill et al. (1990) was not found to be a highly reliable measure with respect to the present sample. Future research may examine more carefully the relationships of hostility toward women and hostility toward men with perceptions of harassment, as a function of the gender of the target.

Attribution of Consequences to the Target of Harassment

Although there appear to be differences in the identification of sexual and nonsexual behaviour as harassment, no difference was found in the overall degree of negative consequences attributed to the situation depending on whether it was sexual or nonsexual. In general, participants attributed a high degree of negative consequences to harassment, regardless of whether it was sexual or nonsexual. In participants' open-ended responses, similar words were used to describe the sexual and nonsexual situations. In particular, the words "jealous" and "unfair" were used frequently. With respect to sexual situations, 11% described the harasser as jealous. Thirteen percent described the harasser in nonsexual situations as such. Ten percent of participants who evaluated sexual situations and 24% of those who evaluated nonsexual situations described the situation as unfair. It is also worth noting that several participants described nonsexual situations as creating a "hostile", "abusive" or "poor" work environment. The fact that no differences were found in terms of perceived consequences suggests that there are situations that may be harassing in the psychological sense that may not be recognized as such due to their nonsexual nature. Consistent with Bjorkqvist et al.'s (1994) findings, harassment need not be of a sexual nature to have serious consequences for the target. In addition, similar to sexual harassment, the occurrence of nonsexual forms of harassment may adversely effect the work environment. Although researchers have investigated the frequency with which people had witnessed others being harassed or bullied in the workplace (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994; Quine, 1999), they haven't addressed the effects of witnessing these types of harassment in terms such factors as job satisfaction and organizational commitment. This area warrants further exploration.

As expected, situations involving threats were perceived as having more negative impact on the target than situations not involving threats. This is consistent with previous findings as suggested by Gruber's (1990) review. Berdahl et al. (1996) found that men were more threatened by sexual coercion than by simple unwanted sexual attention. Further, men are likely to feel less threatened by unwanted sexual attention than are women. Thus, it was hypothesized that women in the present study would evaluate situations involving no threat more negatively than would men. The data did not support this hypothesis. No hypothesis was made with respect to how men and women might react depending on whether that verbal comment was sexual or nonsexual. Future research might examine this possible interaction. As Berdahl et al. (1996) suggest, the range of behaviours men perceive as sexual harassment may differ from those which women perceive as sexual harassment. This may also be true of nonsexual harassment. A wider range of both sexual and nonsexual behaviours might be examined in the future.

Women were expected to evaluate sexual harassment less negatively than were men. An interaction was hypothesized due to the fact that there was evidence that men evaluate sexual harassment less negatively than do women (Gutek et al., 1983). There was no reason to expect men and women to evaluate nonsexual harassment differently. In general, women attributed more negative consequences to harassment than did men. There was no interaction of gender and type of harassment. If women are indeed more often the target of both sexual and nonsexual harassment than are men, as Bjorkqvist et al.'s (1994) findings suggest, women may be more able than men to empathize with the target in the situation. In the present study, women generally offered more detailed responses to open ended questions and used stronger words such as

"disgusting" and "degrading" more often than did men. In the condition that included a sexual comment without a threat from a man harasser to a woman, one man said that the woman "likes to complain". Even when the target was a man, women appeared more sympathetic than men.

The data from the present study do not suggest that women are more likely than men to be the target of harassment. In fact, even though the number of men in the sample was small, approximately the same proportion of men and women reported that they had experienced a situation similar to the one presented. Overall, the proportion of the sample who reported having experienced harassment may have been too small to determine whether experience plays a role in perceptions. In addition, the question might have been vague. It is difficult to determine how participants interpreted the question because it may not distinguish between those who were the target of harassment from those who witnessed it. Perhaps this problem could be remedied by posing a specific followup question such as, "if you have experienced a situation similar to this, were you the target of the behaviour or was it a coworker?" The consequences to the coworkers of a target of harassment could also be assessed.

Men were expected to evaluate the sexual harassment of men by men more negatively than the sexual harassment of men by women. Findings by Gutek et al. (1983) provided the rationale for this hypothesis. They found that men viewed sexual behaviour at work more positively than did women. In particular, men generally viewed incidents initiated by women more positively than incidents initiated by men. Further, as Berdahl et al. (1996) argue, the sexual pursuit of a man by another man is against prescribed gender roles, and thus may be viewed negatively by men. This hypothesis was not supported by

the current data.

Consistent with Malovich and Stake's (1990) findings, my data revealed that men with lower self-esteem evaluated harassment less negatively than those with higher self-esteem. However, their findings were specific to men's perceptions of receiving sexual attention from a woman. Men have been found to perceive sexual behaviour between men and women more positively than do women (Gutek, et al., 1983). Malovich and Stake (1990) reasoned that men with lower self-esteem might have their confidence enhanced by receiving sexual attention from a woman. Women with higher self-esteem evaluated harassment less negatively than those with lower self-esteem. This finding is consistent with those of Malovich and Stake (1990) who reasoned that women with higher self-esteem may be more confident in their ability to deal with these situations and, therefore, perceive them as less threatening.

Future research may explore an interaction of gender, self-esteem and type of harassment. With respect to nonsexual harassment, there is no reason not to expect that the function of self-esteem is the same for men and women. The more confident one is in one's ability to handle a situation, the less threatening it should be (Malovich & Stake, 1990). Future research may examine how self-esteem might interact when the harasser is a man rather than a woman. For example, if a man perceives a woman harasser as relatively nonthreatening, his perceived ability to deal with the situation may be irrelevant.

Previous studies have found a small relationship between locus of control and perceptions of sexual harassment (e.g., Baker et al., 1990). However, there was no evidence to suggest the role locus of control might play with respect to perceptions of nonsexual harassment. This interaction of locus of control and type of harassment was not supported by the current data.

Further, whether the participant had an internal or external locus of control generally did not influence how negatively they perceived the situations presented.

Same-sex sexual harassment was expected to be perceived more negatively by participants with more traditional sex-role attitudes. It seemed reasonable to expect that sexual behaviour between members of the same sex would be perceived as less appropriate than the same behaviour between opposite sexes. However, the data did not support this hypothesis. The experience of being harassed may not be more disturbing to the target depending on whether the harasser is of the same sex or the opposite sex. One factor that was not considered is sexual orientation; this may play a role in how one perceives sexual behaviour between members of the same sex. Interestingly, on the open-ended question, fewer participants described sexual behaviour directed toward a woman by another woman as "sexual harassment" than the same behaviour directed toward a man by another man.

Overall, participants with moderately traditional sex-role attitudes attributed less negative consequences to the target of harassment than did participants with nontraditional attitudes. Although this is consistent with Malovich and Stake's (1990) findings, their study only examined perceptions of sexual harassment between members of the opposite sex. It is worth noting again that no participants had Attitudes Toward Women scores indicating extremely traditional sex-role attitudes.

Sex-role attitudes are not limited to attitudes toward sexual behaviour. With respect to both sexual and nonsexual harassment, people with traditional sex-role attitudes might be expected to be more tolerant of behaviour that enforces the subordination of women, and less tolerant of behaviour that

challenges men's superior position. The data do not support this assumption.

An interaction between the gender of the harasser and gender of the target

would have been expected. However, overall, harassment was perceived as

having more negative consequences when the harasser was a man than when

the harasser was a woman. This may reflect the fact that the power differential

between the harasser and the target may be a more salient factor in perceived

negative consequences than the actual nature of the behaviour.

Perceptions of Appropriateness of Harasser Behaviour

These data revealed differences with respect to perceptions of the

appropriateness of the harasser's behaviour. However, the pattern of

responses differed from the expected one. With respect to nonsexual

harassment of a man, men perceived the behaviour of a man harasser as more

inappropriate than that of a woman harasser. Since the behaviour in question

was not sexual, this finding may be partly accounted for by a perceived power

differential between a man and a woman harasser. Men may perceive women

to have less power than men. Due to the fact that men may be perceived to

have more power, harassment may be perceived as an exercise of that power,

and men may perceive the behaviour as more threatening, and therefore label it

as more inappropriate. This may be a reasonable assumption in light of

another finding by Gutek et al. (1983). They found that when sexual behaviour

was initiated toward a man by a woman with higher status, the behaviour was

not viewed as less inappropriate than the same behaviour initiated toward a

woman by a man. Further support for this interpretation is provided by the fact

that, in general, participants attributed more negative consequences to the

target when the harasser was a man than when the harasser was a woman.

Further, with respect to nonsexual harassment, men perceived the

behaviour of a man harasser as less inappropriate when directed toward a woman than a man. Bjorkqvist et al. (1994) suggest that even when harassment is nonsexual, it is more likely to be directed toward women than men. Perhaps the perception is that women are expected tolerate this kind of behaviour. Again, it should be noted that the analysis which yielded these results was exploratory. Given the disproportionate number of men, this finding should best be viewed as an avenue for further research. It is possible that hostility toward women may play a role in perceptions of harassment of women, although a relationship was not detected in the present study. The men in the present sample did not show higher hostility toward women than did the women. Perhaps a difference therein may have been more pronounced had there been more men in the sample.

Older people have been found to define more behaviours as sexual harassment than younger people (Gutek, 1995). The results of the present study revealed that age and type of harassment interacted with respect to perceptions of the appropriateness of the harasser's behaviour. Age was related to perception of the appropriateness of the harasser's behaviour with respect to nonsexual harassment, but not with respect to sexual harassment. In the case of nonsexual harassment, younger participants tended to perceive the harasser's behaviour as more inappropriate than did older participants.

The fact that age was not related to perceptions of sexual harassment is inconsistent with findings by Reilly et al. (1986). Younger people may have become less tolerant of sexual harassment in the last decade. This may be a function of the attention the issue has received in that time period. It may also be that younger people are gaining more work experience, and are more likely to be exposed to inappropriate sexual behaviour in a work context, whether as

a target or as a witness. As would be expected, the number of years of work experience was strongly correlated with age. However, the majority of participants were relatively young, and only 4.5% indicated having no work experience. On the other hand, older people may be so used to such behaviour that they become less sensitive to it. The findings with respect to nonsexual harassment may be explained similarly. Older people may see this type of behaviour as something one just has to endure, and they might be less likely than younger people to perceive it as inappropriate.

The fact that the rating of the appropriateness of the harasser's behaviour (PHIQ14R) was not highly correlated with either the overall attribution of negative consequences to harassment (PHIQEVAL) or the labelling of the scenario as harassment (PHIQ20) is curious. One possible explanation is that some participants may have responded to this item without paying attention to the fact that it was negatively keyed. Although it is impossible to determine if this is the case, care should be taken nonetheless, to provide instructions to participants to read items carefully prior to responding. It is also possible that this item taps a distinct construct.

<u>Composition of the Perceptions of Harassing Incidents Questionnaire</u>

The high internal consistency of the scale that comprised the PHIQEVAL score suggests that the items taps a relatively uniform construct: negative consequences to the target of harassment. The PHIQ was designed to tap both hostile environment and direct consequences. Items 2, 3 and 4 address perceptions of the harassment creating a hostile, offensive and threatening situation, and item 6 addresses the impact of harassment in the workplace on coworker relationships. On the other hand, items 5 and 7 through 12 address direct consequences to the target of the harassing behaviour. Perhaps this

could be explored with a Factor Analysis if more data is collected using the scale in the future.

It is worth noting that some items had lower item-scale correlations. In particular, PHIQ5, which asked "If this were you, would you be likely to miss work more often?", was only moderately correlated with the total scale. This may have been partly due to the way the question was worded. Perhaps the question could have been stated more clearly, for example, "Would you call in sick to work if you were in Mary's/Mark's position?" Still, the removal of this item would have resulted in only a small increase in internal consistency of the scale. Nevertheless, the item may be tapping a different dimension than others. The item addresses a behavioural response to harassment. Specifically, it addresses how the participant might react in the given situation. This seems to be a qualitatively different question than what the participant infers that the target of the harassment in the scenario might feel. Some of the individual characteristics examined in the present study, in particular, self-esteem and locus of control, may be more relevant to participants' predictions of their own responses than to their inferences about someone else's reactions in a given situation. It may have been advantageous to ask about the degree to which participants identified with the target in the situation. One woman who evaluated the harassment of a man by another man wrote, "it would probably make me more angry if (the target) was a woman". The degree to which the participant identifies with the target may be an indicator of how similar one's own responses might be to those one attributes to the target.

Very complete, detailed responses to the open-ended question also suggest that participants were engaged in the task and took it seriously, giving their honest impressions of the situations presented. Samoluk and Pretty

(1994) found that scenarios presented auditorily elicited emotional responses from participants. The open-ended responses obtained in the present study suggest that many participants reacted strongly to the situations presented, as many of them indicated that they felt "bad for" or "sorry for" the target, or were angered by the situation.

Summary

In summary, I found that the sexual and nonsexual situations presented were perceived to have very similar consequences for the target of the harassing behaviour, even though the sexual situations were somewhat more likely to be labelled as harassment. Not surprisingly, participants generally viewed the harassing behaviours as resulting in more negative consequences for the target when the harasser was a man than when the harasser was a woman. Of particular interest were perceptions of same-sex harassment. However, the sample size may have been insufficient to detect such interactions of gender of harasser and target.

Strengths and Limitations of the Study

The small number of men in the sample was a limitation of the present study. The findings with respect to gender differences would be best viewed as exploratory. Further, the study examined a very limited range of behaviours. Men and women may not generally perceive the same behaviours as harassing. However, most research has examined opposite sex sexual harassment. Men have not found receiving unwanted sexual attention from women as threatening as women have found receiving unwanted sexual attention from men. It was not known how men would perceive a man being the target of behaviours women have typically found harassing when the harasser is a man as compared to when the harasser is a woman.

Studies of perceptions of sexual harassment have been criticized on the grounds that the research findings are not generalizable beyond the sample employed in the study (Lengnick-Hall, 1995). An obvious concern is whether the results of the present study can be readily applied to the workplace, given the sample consisting of university students. Sexual harassment seems to occur less frequently in university settings than in other organizations (Gruber, 1990). The lack of exposure to harassment on the part of university students may present a problem in accurately assessing definitions and perceptions of harassment. Only 20% of the present sample reported having had experienced harassment.

However, even though the participants in the present study were university students, the scenarios presented did not depict harassment in a university setting. In providing demographic information, participants were asked to describe their work experience. While some younger participants reported having little work experience, a very small percentage indicated having no work experience. Participants reported a variety of work experience. The results are generalizable to a variety of work settings to the extent that participants considered the scenarios as they related to their own work environment, as they were directly asked to do with respect to some PHIQ items. I felt that the scenarios presented were general enough to allow participants to relate them to their own experience.

The lack of experience with harassment on the part of university students may be a concern in terms of generalizing the results to a work setting. Still, the experience of harassment may vary depending on the nature of the work setting itself. Some participants reported that they thought scenarios like the one's presented happened frequently, I did receive some informal comments to the

contrary. In particular one participant suggested that the particular scenario presented was not likely to happen because organizations are becoming less tolerant of that kind of behaviour.

The incidence of harassment may be determined to a large extent by the organizational culture. If the culture does not discourage harassment, potential harassers will not be deterred. Organizations must be willing to address and take steps to deal with harassment, for example, by disciplining or terminating harassers, and have an objective process of addressing the issue. Employees must feel that they can trust the organization to support individual's bringing allegations forward. As DuBois et al. (1998) point out, organizational policies should be broadened to address same-gender harassment.

One contribution of this study is that it explored perceptions of same-sex sexual harassment. Secondly, the study compared perceptions of sexual harassment to perceptions of nonsexual behaviour that people may perceive as harassing. Until recently, the concept of nonsexual harassment had not been explored in a systematic manner. Although the scenarios presented in the present study were brief, as Samoluk and Pretty (1994) found, the presentation of audiotaped narratives may have elicited stronger and more accurate responses than would have written vignettes, representing an improvement on past research of perceptions of sexual harassment. The apparently strong reactions to the scenarios, as indicated by the words participants used in their open-ended responses suggests that the audio presentation of the scenarios contributed to the validity of the study.

Implications for Policy and Practice

The results of the present study identified a form of harassment that is not of a sexual nature, but that people perceived as having similar job-related and

personal consequences for the recipient of the harassing behaviour. People may endure unnecessary abuse from coworkers and supervisors, feeling that they aren't entitled to complain about receiving unfair treatment unless that treatment involves sex. Bjorkqvist et al. (1994) liken workplace harassment to bullying in school. They argue that sexual harassment is a specific form of harassment which uses sexuality as a means of oppression. Women may be more likely that men to experience both sexual harassment and nonsexual harassment (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994), perhaps because they are more likely than men to be in subordinate positions to men. Sexual harassment, particularly the sexual harassment of a woman by a man, may be perceived as more severe that nonsexual harassment, as it invokes more forms of power, i.e., socio-cultural, physical and organizational power (Berdahl et al., 1996). Whether harassment is sexual or not, it is essentially an abuse of power. Workplaces should institute measures for addressing nonsexual harassment when it occurs, and take an active approach to its prevention.

If the conclusion is that both sexual harassment and nonsexual harassment are abuses of power, organizations need not have separate policies with respect to the two forms of harassment. Consequences of harassment may vary depending on the severity of the behaviour, with sexual harassment being perceived as higher on the severity continuum. Separate policies would probably require more resources in the organization to manage. On one hand, separate policies may make the definitions of both forms of harassment clearer to employees. At the same time, differentiating the two forms of harassment could be considered a disadvantage due to the implicit severity dichotomy. A new nonsexual harassment policy may be perceived as an afterthought, and not be treated as seriously by employees. There may still

be many behaviours that employees engage in and think they can get away with, believing that as long as the behaviour cannot be construed as sexual, a complaint will not be taken seriously. Taking a cue from the Canadian Armed Forces definition of abuse of authority (1997), any behaviour that is humiliating or offensive or denies an individual one's dignity, should be considered legitimate ground for a complaint. Any such behaviour could be expected to create a hostile work environment, leading to decreased job satisfaction, and hence, decreased productivity.

In implementing an anti-harassment program, employee education is important. Periodic seminars demonstrating unacceptable behaviour in the workplace may be useful. Such seminars should be mandatory for all employees. A potential or alleged harasser may not be aware of the effect his or her behaviour has on its recipient. Employee education may be accomplished through the use of a video depicting abusive behaviours of both a sexual and a nonsexual nature, and demonstrating ineffective and effective responses to a harasser by the recipient. Blakely, Blakely and Moorman (1998) recent found that students who had seen a training film about sexual harassment rated severe sexually oriented work behaviours as more harassing than a group who had not seen the film. It is difficult to know if similar results would be obtained in a workplace, but making employees aware that the company has a system for reporting harassment and enforcing the policy are important first steps. A significant portion of respondents in DuBois et al.'s (1998) study reported that they failed to taken action against the harassment they experienced because they did not know what action to take or they didn't think anything would be done. Employees must be confident that all complaints will be taken seriously and treated confidentially.

Witnessing harassment in the workplace could negatively affect morale, job satisfaction, productivity and organizational commitment as a result of coworkers' fear of similar behaviour toward them. This would depend on how the organization deals with the harasser. Productivity could actually improve as a result of the fear. Job satisfaction may decrease, but this could be mediated by a perceived positive response on the part of the organization in the form of enforcement of policy, communication of consequences to the harasser, counselling to witnesses and change in the organization in terms of communication. Perceived positive responses by the organization in the form of support from management could reduce the negative consequences experienced by victims of harassment (Quine, 1999).

A key component of definitions of sexual harassment is the unwelcomeness of the behaviour. Presumably, there are some behaviours that a reasonable person ought to know would be unwelcome. Still, the onus is on the recipient to make it clear to the harasser that the behaviour is offensive. With respect to nonsexual harassment, it may be more important that the recipient let the harasser know that the behaviour is unwelcome. In the same manner that individual characteristics moderate the range of behaviours that are perceived as harassment, for example, self-esteem, such characteristics may also in part, determine an individual's response to perceived harassment. The response of the recipient of the behaviour is important in preventing potential and further harassment.

Focus groups may be a useful adjunct to educational seminars. In such focus groups, perhaps victims of harassment could describe their experiences, with the goal of determining what level of offensiveness is sufficient to lead an employee to make a complaint, for and the behaviour to be dealt with. An

assertive response to an offensive behaviour may be key in preventing similar behaviour from continuing and escalating. It is one thing to demonstrate an assertive response in a short video scenario; the number of employees who will actually make such a response is another. The proposed focus groups would be useful in determining people's actual responses to offensive behaviour. Perhaps assertiveness training groups could be offered to employees who would find it beneficial. Sometimes one recognizes a potentially effective response, but the thought of confronting an individual who intimidates him or her causes anxiety.

Schneider et al. (1997) found that work withdrawal, satisfaction with coworkers and satisfaction with supervision predicted who had been sexually harassed in a large private sector organization. If experiencing sexual harassment leads to dissatisfaction with coworkers and supervision, perhaps increasing positive communication among the members of an organization is key in the prevention of harassment. Assertive communication is important for all employees, including supervisors, whose aggressive behaviour may be perceived as harassing. Drury (1984) describes an aggressive supervisor style that includes many characteristics similar to the nonsexual harassing behaviours surveyed by Bjorkqvist et al. (1994) and Quine (1999), such as a sarcastic, judgmental or overbearing tone of voice; making demands instead of requests and staring or "looking-through-you" eye contact (Drury, 1984, p. 59). According to Drury (1984) an aggressive supervisory style discourages involvement and teamwork. Focussing on blame and attack, this style fosters a climate of defensiveness rather than open communication. A defensive reaction to an aggressive supervisor may manifest as avoidance of contact altogether (Drury, 1984), which appears to be a common reaction to the

experience of either sexual harassment (Schneider et al., 1997) or nonsexual harassment (Bjorkqvist et al., 1994; Quine, 1999).

Communication that conveys respect for others on the part of all members of an organization should enhance job satisfaction, and ultimately, productivity. Given that low levels of work group harmony, coworker support and supervisor support are predictive of harassment (Cole et al., 1997), increasing work group harmony, coworker and supervisor support seem to be logical steps toward reducing harassment. Drury (1984) provides a plan for using assertiveness building in supervisory training in the form of a two-day workshop with a half-day followup a month later, that includes extensive skill practice and feedback. Perhaps organizations need to focus as much on fostering positive relationships among coworkers as they do on dealing with harassment after it has occurred.

Future Research

Although the presentation of audiotaped scenarios may have elicited more realistic reactions than would have written vignettes, further research may compare the two methods of presentation in terms of the reactions they elicit. In addition, the scenarios presented in this study were narratives from a victim's point of view. A dialogue between two people may yield more objective responses from participants. Of particular interest may be whether the participant identifies more with the perpetrator of the harassment than the target. This is a possible consideration for future research.

The present study provides other interesting avenues for future research. In particular, the role hostility toward men and hostility toward women play in perceptions of harassment may be investigated more closely. Future research might also examine reactions to a wider range of behaviours. For example, the

types of gender harassment identified by the men in Berdahl et al.'s (1996) study may be explored further. In addition, no predictions were made with respect to how men, as compared to women, might react depending on whether harassment is sexual or nonsexual. As mentioned above, the range of nonsexual behaviours that men perceive as harassing may differ from that which women perceive as harassing. A wider range of both sexual and nonsexual behaviours might be examined in the future.

The preceding section discussed practical implications of the present findings in terms of harassment policy. Organizational culture is likely an important factor in determining the incidence of harassment. How organizations deal with harassment cases may in part, determine employees' trust in the organization. This in turn, has implications in terms of organizational commitment, morale, job satisfaction and productivity. In this light, perhaps the most needed research in the area of workplace harassment is an investigation of the effects of harassment policies on employees. Research could compare cultures between organizations with and without harassment policies in terms of these factors.

References

Aggarwal, A. P. (1992). Sexual harassment in the workplace (2nd ed.). Toronto: Butterworths.

Baker, D. D., Terpstra, D., & Cutler, B. (1990). Perceptions of sexual harassment: A re-examination of gender differences. Journal of Psychology, 124, 409-416.

Baker, D. D., Terpstra, D., & Larntz, K. (1990). The influence of individual characteristics and severity of harassing behaviour on reactions to sexual harassment. Sex Roles, 22, 305-325.

Bargh, J.A., & Raymond, P. (1995). The naive misuse of power: Nonconscious sources of sexual harassment. Journal of Social Issues, 51, 85-96.

Berdahl, J. L., Magley, V. J., & Waldo, C. R. (1996). The sexual harassment of men? Psychology of Women Quarterly, 20, 527-547.

Bjorkqvist, K., Osterman, K., & Hjelt-Back, M. (1994). Aggression among university employees. Aggressive Behaviour, 20, 173-184.

Blakely, G.L., Blakely, E.H., & Moorman, R.H. (1998). The effects of training on perceptions of sexual harassment allegations. Sex Roles, 28, 71-83.

Bursik, K. (1992). Perceptions of sexual harassment in an academic context. Sex Roles, 27, 401-412.

Buss, A. H., & Durkee, A. (1957). An inventory for assessing different kinds of hostility. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 21, 343-349.

Canadian Armed Forces. (1997). Canadian Armed Forces administrative orders. Ottawa: Canadian Armed Forces.

Check, J. V. P. (1985). The hostility toward women scale. Dissertation Abstracts International, 45(12).

Cohen, J. (1988). Statistical power analysis for the behavioural sciences (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: L. Erlbaum Associates.

Cole, L.L., Grubb, P.L., Sauter, S.L., Swanson, N.G., & Lawless, P. (1997). Psychological correlates of harassment, threats and fear of violence in the workplace. Scandinavian Journal of Work and Environmental Health, 23, 450-457.

Drury, S.S. (1984). Assertive supervision: Building involved teamwork. Champaign, IL: Research Press.

DuBois, C.L.Z., Knapp, D.E., Faley, R.H., & Kustis, G.A. (1998). An empirical examination of same- and other-gender sexual harassment in the workplace. Sex Roles, 39, 731-749.

Frazier, P. A., Cochran, C.C., & Olson, A.M. (1995). Social science research on lay definitions of sexual harassment. Journal of Social Issues, 51, 21-37.

Grauerholz, E. (1989). Sexual harassment of women professors by students: Exploring the dynamics of power, authority and gender in a university setting. Sex Roles, 21, 789-801.

Gruber, J. E. (1991). Methodological problems and policy implications in sexual harassment research. Population Research and Policy Review, 9, 235-254.

Gutek, B. A. (1995). How subjective is sexual harassment? An examination of rater effects. Basic and Applied Psychology, 17, 447-467.

Gutek, B., & Morasch, B. (1982). Sex-ratios, sex-role spillover, and sexual harassment of women at work. Journal of Social Issues, 38, 55-74.

Gutek, B. A., Morasch, B., & Cohen, A. G. (1983). Interpreting social-sexual behaviour in a work setting. Journal of Vocational Behaviour, 22, 30-48.

Konrad, A. M., & Gutek, B. (1986). Impact of work experiences on attitudes toward sexual harassment. Administrative Science Quarterly, 31, 422-438.

Lautenschager, G. J., & Flaherty, V. L. (1990). Computer administration of questions: More desirable or more social desirability? Journal of Applied Psychology, 75, 310-314.

Lee, L. A., & Heppner, P. P. (1991). The development and evaluation of a sexual harassment inventory. Journal of Counselling and Development, 69, 512-517.

Lefcourt, H. M. (1991). Locus of control. In J. P Robinson, P. R. Shaver & L. S. Wrightsman (eds.). Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Lengnick-Hall, M. L. (1995). Sexual harassment research: A methodological critique. Personnel Psychology, 48, 841-864.

Malovich, N. J., & Stake, J. E. (1990). Sexual harassment on campus: Individual differences in attitudes and beliefs. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 14, 63-81.

Marks, M. A., & Nelson, E. S. (1993). Sexual harassment on campus: Effects of professor gender on perception of sexually harassing behaviours. Sex Roles, 28, 207-217.

Mazer, D. B., & Percival, E. F. (1989). Ideology or experience? The relationship among perceptions, attitudes, and experiences of sexual harassment in university students. Sex Roles, 20, 135-147.

McKinney, K. (1992). Contrapower sexual harassment: The effects of student sex and type of behaviour of faculty perceptions. Sex Roles, 27, 627-643.

Naugarten, D., & Shafritz, J. (1980). Sexuality in organizations: Romantic and coercive behaviours at work. Oak, IL: Moore.

Nelson, M. N. (1988). Reliability, validity, and cross-cultural comparisons for the simplified Attitudes toward Women Scale, Sex Roles, 18, 289-296.

Paulhus, D. L. (1991). Measurement and control of response bias. In J. P. Robinson, P. R. Shaver, & L.S. Wrightsman (eds.). Measures of personality and social psychological attitudes. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Paulhus, D. L. (1984). Two-component models of socially desirable responding. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 46, 598-609.

Pefley, A. (1987). Locus of control and hostility: Sex differences. Journal of Psychology,121, 329-334.

Pierce, C.A., & Aguinis, H. (1997). Bridging the gap between romantic relationships and sexual harassment in organizations. Journal of Organizations Behavior, 18, 197-200.

Piotrkowski, C.S. (1998). Gender harassment, job satisfaction and distress among employed white and minority women. Journal of Occupational Health Psychology, 3, 33-43.

Popovich, P. M., Gehlauf, D. N., Jolton, J. A., Somers, J. M., & Godino, R. M. (1992). Perceptions of sexual harassment as a function of sex of rater and incident form and consequence. Sex Roles, 27, 609-625.

Popovich, P. M., Licata, B. J., Norkovich, D., Martelli, T., & Zoloty, S. (1986). Assessing the incidence and perceptions of sexual harassment behaviours among American undergraduates. Journal of Psychology, 120, 387-396.

Powell, G. N. (1986). Effects of sex role identity and sex on definitions of sexual harassment. Sex Roles, 14, 9-19.

Pryor, J. B. (1985). The lay person's understanding of sexual harassment. Sex Roles, 13, 273-286.

Quine, L. (1999). Workplace bullying in NHS community trust: Staff questionnaire survey. British Medical Journal, 7178, 228-232.

Reilly, M. E., Lott, B., & Gallogly, S. (1986). Sexual harassment of university students. Sex Roles, 15, 333-358.

Rospenda, K.M., Richman, J.A., & Nawyn, S.J. (1998). Doing power: The confluence of gender, race and class in contrapower sexual harassment. Gender and Society, 12, 40-61.

Rotter, J. B. (1966). Generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement. Psychological Monographs, 80(1).

Rotter, J. B., Chance, J. E., & Phares, E. J. (1972). Applications of a social learning theory of personality. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.

Samoluk, S. B., & Pretty, G. M. H. (1994). The impact of sexual harassment simulations on women's thoughts and feelings. Sex Roles, 30, 679-699.

Schill, T., Ramanaiah, N., & Conn, S. R. (1990). Development of covert and overt hostility scales from the Buss-Durkee Inventory. Psychological Reports, 67, 671-674.

Schneider, K. T., Swan, S., & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1997). Job-related and psychological effects of sexual harassment in the workplace: Empirical evidence from two organizations. Journal of Applied Psychology, 82, 401-415.

Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R., & Stapp, J. (1973). A short version of the Attitudes toward Women Scale. Bulletin of the Psychonomic Society, 2, 219-220.

Stake, J. E. (1979). The ability/performance dimension of self-esteem: Implications for women's achievement behaviour. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 3, 365-377.

Summers, R.J., & Myklebust, K. (1992). The influence of a history of romance on judgments and responses to a complaint of sexual harassment. Sex Roles, 27, 345-357.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L.S. (1996). Using Multivariate Statistics. (3rd ed.). Northridge, CA: HarperCollins.

Tangri, S., Burt, M. R., & Johnson, L. B. (1982). Sexual harassment at work: Three explanatory models. Journal of Social Issues, 38, 33-5

Terpstra, D. E., Cook, S. E. (1985). Complainant characteristics and reported behaviours and consequences associated with sexual harassment charges. Personnel Psychology, 38, 559-574.

Thompson, E. H., & Pleck, J. H. (1986). The structure of male role norms. American Behavioural Scientist, 29, 531-543.

Thompson, E. H., Pleck, J. H., & Ferrera, D. L. (1992). Men and masculinities: Scales for masculinity ideology and masculinity-related constructs. Sex Roles, 27, 573-607.

U. S. Merit Systems Protection Board. (1987). Sexual harassment of federal workers: An update. Washington, DC: U. S. Government Printing Office.

Waldo, C. R., Berdahl, J. L, & Fitzgerald, L. F. (1998). Are men sexually harassed? If so, by whom? Law and Human Behavior, 22, 59-79.

Yoder, J.D., & Aniakudo, P. (1995). The responses of African American women firefighters to gender harassment at work. Sex Roles, 32, 125-137.

Appendix A

Scenarios: Male Harasser/Female Female Target

Sexual harassment without threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this man won't leave me alone. He is constantly leering at my chest and saying things like, "You have a great body. I bet you slept with the manager." He says I look like I sleep around and that sleeping with the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. He even says things like this to other people.

Sexual harassment with threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this man won't leave me alone. He is constantly leering at my chest, saying things like, "You have a great body. I bet you slept with the manager." He says I look like I sleep around and that sleeping with the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. He even says things like this to other people. To make things worse, he has said that unless I have sex with him, he will get me fired.

Nonsexual harassment without threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this man won't leave me alone. He is constantly sneering in my face, saying things like, "You're an idiot. You must be related to the manager." He says I'm so incompetent, that being related to the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. He even says things like this to other people.

Nonsexual harassment with threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this man won't leave me alone. He is constantly sneering in my face, saying things like, "You're an idiot. You must be related to the manager." He says I'm so incompetent, that being related to the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. He even says things like this to other people. To make things worse, he has said that unless I do all the grunt work for his project, he will get me fired.

Scenarios: Female Harasser/Male Target

Sexual harassment without threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this woman won't leave me
alone. She is constantly leering at my crotch and saying things like, "You have
a great body. I bet you slept with the manager." She says I look like I sleep
around and that sleeping with the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten
the job. She even says things like this to other people.

Sexual harassment with threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this woman won't leave me
alone. She is constantly leering at my crotch, saying things like, "You have a
great body. I bet you slept with the manager." She says I look like I sleep
around and that sleeping with the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten
the job. She even says things like this to other people. To make things worse,
she has said that unless I have sex with her, she will get me fired.

Nonsexual harassment without threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this woman won't leave me
alone. She is constantly sneering in my face, saying things like, "You're an
idiot. You must be related to the manager." She says I'm so incompetent that
being related to the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. She
even says things like this to other people.

Nonsexual harassment with threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this woman won't leave me
alone. She is constantly sneering in my face, saying things like, "You're an
idiot. You must be related to the manager." She says I'm so incompetent that
being related to the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. She
even says things like this to other people. To make things worse, she has said
that unless I do all the grunt work for her project, she will get me fired.

Scenarios: Male Harasser/Male Target

Sexual harassment without threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this man won't leave me alone. He is constantly leering at my crotch and saying things like, "You have a great body. I bet you slept with the manager." He says I look like I sleep around and that sleeping with the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. He even says things like this to other people.

Sexual harassment with threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this man won't leave me alone. He is constantly leering at my crotch, saying things like, "You have a great body. I bet you slept with the manager." He says I look like I sleep around and that sleeping with the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. He even says things like this to other people. To make things worse, he has said that unless I have sex with him, he will get me fired.

Nonsexual harassment without threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this man won't leave me alone. He is constantly sneering in my face, saying things like, "You're an idiot. You must be related to the manager." He says I'm so incompetent, that being related to the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. He even says things like this to other people.

Nonsexual harassment with threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this man won't leave me alone. He is constantly sneering in my face, saying things like, "You're an idiot. You must be related to the manager." He says I'm so incompetent, that being related to the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. He even says things like this to other people. To make things worse, he has said that unless I do all the grunt work for his project, he will get me fired.

Scenarios: Female Harasser/Female Target

Sexual harassment without threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this woman won't leave me alone. She is constantly leering at my chest and saying things like, "You have a great body. I bet you slept with the manager." She says I look like I sleep around and that sleeping with the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. She even says things like this to other people.

Sexual harassment with threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this woman won't leave me alone. She is constantly leering at my chest, saying things like, "You have a great body. I bet you slept with the manager." She says I look like I sleep around and that sleeping with the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. She even says things like this to other people. To make things worse, she has said that unless I have sex with her, she will get me fired.

Nonsexual harassment without threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this woman won't leave me alone. She is constantly sneering in my face, saying things like, "You're an idiot. You must be related to the manager." She says I'm so incompetent that being related to the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. She even says things like this to other people.

Nonsexual harassment with threat

I work really hard and I'm good at my job...but, this woman won't leave me alone. She is constantly sneering in my face, saying things like, "You're an idiot. You must be related to the manager." She says I'm so incompetent that being related to the manager is the *only* way I could have gotten the job. She even says things like this to other people. To make things worse, she has said that unless I do all the grunt work for her project, she will get me fired.

Appendix B

PHIQ-A

1. Please provide your impressions of the situation you just heard Mary describe:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Please answer the following questions based on the situation you just heard Mary describe. Circle the number that best expresses your opinion.

Would you describe the situation as...

2.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
      Friendly   Neutral   Hostile

3.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
      Complimentary   Neutral   Offensive

4.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
      Inviting   Neutral   Threatening

5.   If this were you, would you be likely to miss work more often?

      1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
Not at all   Somewhat   Extremely
likely   likely   likely

6.   How do you think situations like this influence relationships among
      coworkers?

      1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
Make them   No   Make them
more friendly   influence   more tense

The next six items consist of adjectives that describe a psychological or emotional state. Please indicate how you think the Mary might have felt.

7. 1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
    Nervous   Relaxed

8. 1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
    Pleased   Angry

9. 1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
    Comfortable   Uncomfortable

10. 1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
    Intimidated   Powerful

11. 1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
    Proud   Embarrassed

12. 1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
    Insulted   Flattered

13. If you could label Mary's experience use one or two words, what would you say it was?

14. How appropriate is the described behaviour?

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
Very   Somewhat   Very
inappropriate   appropriate   appropriate

15. Have you ever experienced a situation like this?

yes   no

16. Has anyone you know ever been in a situation like this or one similar to this?

yes   no

17. If so, in what other ways do you think that person might have been affected?

_____

_____

18. How do you think people in general feel about situations like this in the workplace?

_____

_____

19. How do you feel about situations like this in the workplace?

_____

_____

20.   Is this incident an example of harassment?

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
Definitely not   Definitely
harassment   harassment

PHIQ-B

1.   Please provide your impressions of the situation you just heard Mark describe:

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Please answer the following questions based on the situation you just heard Mark describe. Circle the number that best expresses your opinion.

Would you describe the situation as...

2.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
        Friendly   Neutral   Hostile

3.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
        Complimentary   Neutral   Offensive

4.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
        Inviting   Neutral   Threatening

5.   If this were you, would you be likely to miss work more often?

        1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
Not at all   Somewhat   Extremely
likely   likely   likely

6.   How do you think situations like this influence relationships among
        coworkers?

        1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
Make them   No   Make them
more friendly   influence   more tense

The next six items consist of adjectives that describe a psychological or emotional state. Please indicate how you think the Mark might have felt.

7.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
       Nervous   Relaxed

8.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
       Pleased   Angry

9.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
       Comfortable   Uncomfortable

10.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
       Intimidated   Powerful

11.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
       Proud   Embarrassed

12.   1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
       Insulted   Flattered

13.   If you could label Mark's experience use one or two words, what would you say it was?

14. How appropriate is the described behaviour?

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
Very   Somewhat   Very
inappropriate   appropriate   appropriate

15. Have you ever experienced a situation like this?

    yes   no

16. Has anyone you know ever been in a situation like this or one similar to this?

    yes   no

17. If so, in what other ways do you think that person might have been affected?

_____

_____

18. How do you think people in general feel about situations like this in the workplace?

_____

_____

19. How do you feel about situations like this in the workplace?

_____

_____

20. Is this incident an example of harassment?

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7_____8_____9
Definitely not   Definitely
harassment   harassment

Appendix C

BIDR

Please circle the number which indicates how true each statement is for you personally.

1. My first impression of people usually turns out to be right.

    1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
    Not   Somewhat   Very
    True   True   True

2. It would be hard for me to break any of my bad habits.

    1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
    Not   Somewhat   Very
    True   True   True

3. I don't care to know what other people really think of me.

    1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
    Not   Somewhat   Very
    True   True   True

4. I have not always been honest with myself.

    1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
    Not   Somewhat   Very
    True   True   True

5. I always know why I like things.

    1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
    Not   Somewhat   Very
    True   True   True

6.   When my emotions are aroused, it biases my thinking.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

7.   Once I've made up my mind, other people can seldom change my
       opinion.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

8.   I am not a safe driver when I exceed the speed limit.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

9.   I am fully in control of my own fate.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

10.   It's hard for me to shut off a disturbing thought.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

11.   I never regret my decisions.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

12. I sometimes lose out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

13. The reason I vote is because my vote can make a difference.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

14. My parents were not always fair when they punished me.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

15. I am a completely rational person.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

16. I rarely appreciate criticism.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

17. I am very confident of my judgments.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

18. I have sometimes doubted my ability as a lover.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

19. It's all right with me if some people happen to dislike me.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

20. I don't always know the reasons why I do the things I do.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

21. I sometimes tell lies if I have to.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

22. I never cover up my mistakes.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

23. There have been occasions when I have taken advantage of someone.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

24.   I never swear.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

25.   I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

26.   I always obey laws, even if I'm unlikely to get caught.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

27.   I have said something bad about a friend behind his/her back.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

28.   When I hear people talking privately, I avoid listening.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

29.   I have received too much change from a salesperson without telling him
      or her.

1_____2_____3_____ . 4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

30.   I always declare everything at customs.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

31.   When I was young I sometimes stole things.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

32.   I have never dropped litter on the street.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

33.   I sometimes drive faster than the speed limit.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

34.   I never read sexy books or magazines.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

35.   I have done things that I don't tell other people about.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

36.   I never take things that don't belong to me.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

37.   I have taken sick-leave from work or school even though I wasn't really sick.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

38.   I have never damaged a library book or store merchandise without reporting it.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

39.   I have some pretty awful habits.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

40.   I don't gossip about other people's business.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Not   Somewhat   Very
True   True   True

Appendix D

PSES

Please indicate how well you feel each of the following words or phrases describesyou personally.

1.   Productive

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

2.   Assertive

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

3.   Friendly

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

4.   Clever

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

5.   Creative

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

6.   Self-critical

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

7.   Able to give orders

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

8.   Nervous

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

9.   Self-sufficient

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

10.   Logical

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

11.   Likes responsibility

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

12.   Neighbourly

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

13.   Feels good about own accomplishments

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

14.   Tough

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

15.   Indecisive

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

16.   Competent

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

17.   Self-reliant

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True
AlwaysTrue

18.   Easily hurt

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

19.   Good sense of humour

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

20.   Inefficient

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

21. Enjoys a challenge

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

22. Pleasant

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

23. Able to put ideas across

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

24. Has initiative

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

25. Willing to take risks

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

26. Acts as a leader

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

27. Intelligent

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True
AlwaysTrue

28.   Self-conscious

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

29.   Warm

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

30.   Powerful

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

31.   Persuasive

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

32.   Pessimistic

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

33.   Good business sense

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

34.   Individualistic

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

35.   Willing to take a stand

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

36.   Makes mistakes when flustered

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

37.   Gullible

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

38.   Sociable

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

39.   Ambitious

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

40.   Yeilding

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

41.   Businesslike

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

42.   Fun to be with

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

43.   Headed for success

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

44.   Avoids competition

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

45.   Lacks confidence

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

46.   Forceful

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

47.   Unstable

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Never True   AlwaysTrue

Appendix E

I-E

For each pair of statements, please circle "a" or "b" depending on which statement you believe to be more true.

1. a. Children get into too much trouble because their parents punish them too much.

   b. The trouble with most children today is that their parents are too easy with them.

2. a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.

   b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.

3. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.

   b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.

4. a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.

   b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.

5. a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.

   b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.

6. a. Without the right breaks one cannot become an effective leader.

    b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.

7. a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.

    b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.

8. a. Heredity plays a major role in determining one's personality.

    b. It's one's experiences in life which determine what one is like.

9. a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.

    b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

10. a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a things as an unfair test.

    b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.

11. a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.

    b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.

12. a. Ther average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.

    b. This world is run by the few people in power and there is not much the little guy can do about it.

13. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.

    b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.

14. a. There are certain people who are just no good.

    b. There is some good in everybody.

15. a. In my case gettting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.

    b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.

16. a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.

    b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.

17. a. As far as world afairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand nor control.

    b. By taking an active part in political or social affairs, the people can control world events.

18.   a.   Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.

       b.   There is really no such thing as "luck".

19.   a.   One should always be willing to admit mistakes.

       b.   It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.

20.   a.   It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.

       b.   How many friends you have depends on how nice a person you are.

21.   a.   In the long run the bad things that happen are balanced by the good ones.

       b.   Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.

22.   a.   With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.

       b.   It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.

23.   a.   Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.

       b.   There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.

24. a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.

b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.

25. a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.

b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.

26. a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.

b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you they like you.

27. a. There is too much emphasis in athletics in high school.

b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.

28. a. What happens to me is my own doing.

b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

29. a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.

b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

Appendix F

AWS-S

Please circle the number that best decribes your feeling about each statement.

1.   It sounds worse when a woman swears than when a man does.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

2.   There should be more women leaders in important jobs in public life, such as politics.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

3.   It is alright for men to tell dirty jokes, but women should not tell them.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

4.   It is worse to see a drunken woman than a drunken man.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

5.   If a woman goes out to work, her husband should share the housework, such as washing dishes, cleaning and cooking.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

6.   It is an insult to a woman to have to promise to "love, honor, and obey" her husband in the marriage ceremony when he only promises to "love and honor" her.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

7.   Women should have completely equal opportunities as men in getting jobs and promotions.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

8.   A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

9.   Women should worry less about being equal with men and more about becoming good wives and mothers.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

10. Women earning as much as their dates should pay for themselves when going out with them.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

11. Women should not be bosses in important jobs in business and industry.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

12. A woman should be able to go everywhere a man does, or do everything an man does, such as going into bars alone.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

13. Sons in a family should be given more encouragement to go to college than daughters.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

14. It is ridiculous for a woman to drive a train or for a man to sew on shirt buttons.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

15. In general, the father should have more authority than the mother in bringing up children.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

16. The husband should not be favoured by law over the wife when property is divided in a divorce.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

17. A woman's place is in the home looking after her family, rather than following a career of her own.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

18. Women are better off having their own jobs and freedom to do as they please, rather than being treated like a "lady" in the old fashioned way.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

19. Women have less to offer than men in the world of business and industry.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

20. There are many jobs that men can do better than women.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

21. Women should have as much opportunity to do apprenticeships and learn a trade as men.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

22. Girls nowadays should be allowed the same freedom as boys, such as being allowed to stay out late.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5
Disagree   Disagree   Neutral   Agree   Agree
Strongly   Strongly

Appendix G

MRNS

This scale assesses views about men. Thus all of the statements refer to men.
Please cirlce the number which best corresponds your feeling about each
statement

1.   Success in his work has to be man's central goal in this life.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very	Strongly	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly	Very
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree			Disagree			Agree

2.   The best way for a young man to get the respect of other people is to get
        a job, take it seriously, and do it well.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very	Strongly	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly	Very
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree			Disagree			Agree

3.   A man owes it to his family to work at the best-paying job he can get.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very	Strongly	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly	Very
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree			Disagree			Agree

4.   A man should generally work overtime to make more money whenever
        he has the chance.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very	Strongly	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly	Very
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree			Disagree			Agree

5. A man always deserves the respect of his wife and children.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

6. It is essential for a man to always have the respect and admiration of everyone who knows him.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

7. A man should never back down in the face of trouble.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

8. I always like a man who's totally sure of himself.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

9. A man should always think everything out coolly and logically, and have rational reasons for everything he does.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

10. A man should always try to project an air of confidence even if he really doesn't feel confident inside.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

11. A man must stand on his own two feet and never depend on other people to help him do things.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

12. When a man is feeling a little pain he should try not to let it show very much.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

13. Nobody respects a man very much who frequently talks about his worries, fears, and problems.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

14. A good motto for a man should be "When the going gets tough, the tough get going."

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

15. I think a young man should try to become physically tough, even if he's not big.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Very   Strongly   Disagree   Neither   Agree   Strongly   Very
Strongly   Disagree   Somewhat   Agree nor Somewhat   Agree   Strongly
Disagree   Disagree   Agree

16. Fists are sometimes the only way to get out of a bad situation.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Very   Strongly   Disagree   Neither   Agree   Strongly   Very
Strongly   Disagree   Somewhat   Agree nor Somewhat   Agree   Strongly
Disagree   Disagree   Agree

17. A real man enjoys a bit of danger now and then.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Very   Strongly   Disagree   Neither   Agree   Strongly   Very
Strongly   Disagree   Somewhat   Agree nor Somewhat   Agree   Strongly
Disagree   Disagree   Agree

18. In some kinds of situations a man should be ready to use his fists, even if his wife or his girlfriend would object.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Very   Strongly   Disagree   Neither   Agree   Strongly   Very
Strongly   Disagree   Somewhat   Agree nor Somewhat   Agree   Strongly
Disagree   Disagree   Agree

19. A man should always refuse to get in a fight, even if there seems to be no way to avoid it.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7
Very   Strongly   Disagree   Neither   Agree   Strongly   Very
Strongly   Disagree   Somewhat   Agree nor Somewhat   Agree   Strongly
Disagree   Disagree   Agree

20. It bothers me when a man does something that I consider "feminine".

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

21. A man whose hobbies are cooking, sewing, and going to the ballet probably wouldn't appeal to me.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

22. It is a bit embarrassing for a man to have a job that is usually filled by a woman.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

23. Unless he was really desperate, I would probably advise a man to keep looking rather than accept a job as a secretary.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

24. If I heard about a man who was a hairdresser and a gourmet cook, I might wonder how masculine he was.

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very Strongly Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neither Agree nor Disagree	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree	Very Strongly Agree

25. I think it's extremely good for a boy to be taught to cook, sew, clean the house, and take care of younger children.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7

Very	Strongly	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly	Very
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree			Disagree			Agree

26. I might find it a little silly or embarrassing if a male friend of mine cried over a sad love scene in a movie.

1_____2_____3_____4_____5_____6_____7

Very	Strongly	Disagree	Neither	Agree	Strongly	Very
Strongly	Disagree	Somewhat	Agree nor	Somewhat	Agree	Strongly
Disagree			Disagree			Agree

Appendix H

BDHI

Please indicate whether each statement is generally true of you personally. Circle T "True" is you feel the statement describes you, and cirlce F "False if it does not.

1. I seldom strike back, even if someone hits me first.   T   F

2. When I disapprove of my friends' behaviour, I let them
    know it.   T   F

3. I sometimes have bad thoughts which make me feel
    ashamed of myself.   T   F

4. People who continually pester you are asking for a punch
    in the nose.   T   F

5. I have known people who pushed me so far that we came
    to blows.   T   F

6. I am irritated a great deal more than people are aware of.   T   F

7. I often find myself disagreeing with people.   T   F

8. I can think of no good reason for ever hitting anyone.   T   F

9. Although I don't show it, I am sometimes eaten up with
    jealousy.   T   F

10. I demand that people respect my rights.   T   F

11. If somebody hits me first, I let him have it.   T   F

12. If I let people see the way I feel, I'd be considered a hard
    person to get along with.   T   F

13. When I get mad, I say nasty things.   T   F

14. Whoever insults me or my family is asking for a fight.   T   F

15. I could not put someone in their place, even if they needed
    it.   T   F

16. I don't let alot of unimportant things irritate me.   T   F

17. Even when my anger is roused, I don't use "strong language".   T   F

18. I often make threats I don't really mean to carry out.   T   F

19. I seldom feel that people are trying to anger or insult me.   T   F

20. When arguing, I tend to raise my voice.   T   F

21. If somebody annoys me, I am apt to tell them what I think of them.   T   F

22. Lately, I have been kind of grouchy.   T   F

23. I generally tend to cover up my poor opinion of others.   T   F

24. When people yell at me, I yell back.   T   F

25. When I really lose my temper, I am capable of slapping someone.   T   F

26. I get into fights about as often as the next person.   T   F

27. I can remember being so angry that I picked up the nearest thing and broke it.   T   F

28. I would rather concede to a point than get into an argument about it.   T   F

29. If I have to resort to physical violence to defend my rights, I will.   T   F

30. I seldom strike back, even if someone hits me first.   T   F

31. I never get mad enough to throw things.   T   F

32. Once in a while I cannot control my urge to harm others.   T   F

Appendix I

HTWS

This questionnaire is designed to assess your feelings toward women. Thus all of the statements refer to women. Please read each statement carefully and cirlce "T" (True) if the statement describes your feelings, and "F" (False) if the statement does not describe your feelings or if you disagree with it.

1. I feel that many times women flirt with men just to tease them or hurt them.   T   F

2. I feel upset even by slight criticism by a woman.   T   F

3. It doesn't really bother me when women tease me about my faults.   T   F

4. I used to think that most women told the truth, but now I know otherwise.   T   F

5. I do not believe that women will walk all over you if you aren't willing to fight.   T   F

6. I do not often find myself disagreeing with women.   T   F

7. I do very few things to women that make me feel remorseful afterward.   T   F

8. I rarely become suspicious with women who are more friendly than I expected.   T   F

9. There are a number of females who seem to dislike me very much.   T   F

10. I don't agree that women always seem to get the break.   T   F

11. I don't seem to get what's coming to me in my relationships with women.   T   F

12. I generally don't get really angry when a woman makes fun of me.   T   F

13. Women irritate me a great deal more than they are aware of.   T   F

14. If I let women see the way I feel, they would probably consider me a hard person to get along with.   T   F

15. Lately, I have been kind of grouchy with women.   T   F

16. I think that most women would not lie to get ahead.   T   F

17. It is safer not to trust a woman.   T   F

18. When it really comes down to it, a lot of women are deceiptful.   T   F

19. I am not easily angered by a woman.   T   F

20. I often feel that women probably think that I have not lived the right kind of life.   T   F

21. I never have hostile feelings that make me feel ashamed of myself later.   T   F

22. Many times a woman appears to care, but just wants to use you.   T   F

23. I am sure I get a raw deal form the women in my life.   T   F

24. I don't usually wonder what hidden reason a woman may have for doing something nice for me.   T   F

25. If women had not had it in for me, I would have been more successful in my personal life with them.   T   F

26. I never have the feeling that women laugh about me.   T   F

27. Very few women talk about me behind my back.   T   F

28. When I look back at what's happened to me, I don't feel at all resentful toward the women in my life.   T   F

29. I never sulk when a woman makes me angry.   T   F

30. I have been rejected by too many women in my life.   T   F

Appendix J

H T M S

This questionnaire is designed to assess your feelings toward men. Thus all of the statements refer to men. Please read each statement carefully and cirlce "T" (True) if the statement describes your feelings, and "F" (False) if the statement does not describe your feelings or if you disagree with it.

1.	I feel that many times men flirt with women just to tease them or hurt them.	T	F
2.	I feel upset even by slight criticism by a man.	T	F
3.	It doesn't really bother me when men tease me about my faults.	T	F
4.	I used to think that most men told the truth, but now I know otherwise.	T	F
5.	I do not believe that men will walk all over you if you aren't willing to fight.	T	F
6.	I do not often find myself disagreeing with men.	T	F
7.	I do very few things to men that make me feel remorseful afterward.	T	F
8.	I rarely become suspicious with men who are more friendly than I expected.	T	F
9.	There are a number of males who seem to dislike me very much.	T	F
10.	I don't agree that men always seem to get the break.	T	F

11. I don't seem to get what's coming to me in my relationships with men.　　T　　F

12. I generally don't get really angry when a man makes fun of me.　　T　　F

13. Men irritate me a great deal more than they are aware of.　　T　　F

14. If I let men see the way I feel, they would probably consider me a hard person to get along with.　　T　　F

15. Lately, I have been kind of grouchy with men.　　T　　F

16. I think that most men would not lie to get ahead.　　T　　F

17. It is safer not to trust a man.　　T　　F

18. When it really comes down to it, a lot of men are deceiptful.　　T　　F

19. I am not easily angered by a man.　　T　　F

20. I often feel that men probably think that I have not lived the right kind of life.　　T　　F

21. I never have hostile feelings that make me feel ashamed of myself later.　　T　　F

22. Many times a man appears to care, but just wants to use you.　　T　　F

23. I am sure I get a raw deal from the men in my life.　　T　　F

24. I don't usually wonder what hidden reason a man
    may have for doing something nice for me.   T   F

25. If men had not had it in for me, I would have been
    more successful in my personal life with them.   T   F

26. I never have the feeling that men laugh about me.   T   F

27. Very few men talk about me behind my back.   T   F

28. When I look back at what's happened to me, I don't feel
    at all resentful toward the men in my life.   T   F

29. I never sulk when a man makes me angry.   T   F

30. I have been rejected by too many men in my life.   T   F

Appendix K

Saint Mary's University
Department of Psychology

Study of Perceptions of Social Situations
Shannon Poirier and Bridget Perrin

Consent to Participate in Research

The purpose of this study is to explore people's perceptions of hypothetical social situations. The situations and materials presented in the study are sensitive in nature, and there is a slight risk that they may evoke some anxiety or discomfort. It is important to the study that you respond as completely and as honestly as possible, but you do not have to respond to any items you find offensive.

Your participation in this study will be greatly appreciated. In return for your time you will receive 2 bonus points which may be accredited towards your grade in a psychology course.

The study will require approximately 75 minutes of your time in one session. You will first be asked to complete several questionnaires measuring a variety of attitudes and perceptions. This will require approximately 60 minutes. The second portion involves listening to an audiotaped description of a social situation and providing your impressions of the situation. This portion of the study will require no more than 15 minutes. Both portions of the study will be conducted in groups of up to 6 participants.

All information and responses you provide will be kept confidential. You will not be asked to include your name or student identification number on any material. Participation is voluntary, and you may discontinue participation in the experiment at any time, if you so choose, without need for explanation or fear of penalty. If you discontinue participation without completing the study, you will receive bonus points for the amount of time you have spent.

The researchers, Shannon Poirier and Bridget Perrin will be available to address any questions (MM308A; 420-5138). The faculty advisor for the study, Dr. Veronica Stinson (420-5861) will also be available to address any concerns.

The participant may also contact Dr. Laura Methot (420-5846), Chair, Department of Psychology Ethics Committee, or Dr. Victor Catano (420-5846), Chair, Department of Psychology.

I have read and understand the conditions of participating in the study as described above.

_____
Date

_____
Signature of Participant

_____
Name (please print)

Appendix L

Demographic Information

Gender   M   F

Age _____

University year _____

Major _____

Marital status _____

How many years of work experience do you have? _____

What kind of work experience do you have?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Appendix M

Feedback

Perceptions of Social Situations

The purpose of this study is to explore people's perceptions of hypothetical social situations.

The researchers are interested in individual perceptions of situations and their possible relationships with a variety of social psychological attitudes. Any prior knowledge of the purpose of the study on the part of paticipants may influence the results. We would therefore appreciate your not sharing important details of the study with individuals who may participate at a later date.

If you are interested in learning about the results of the study, please feel free to contact Shannon Poirier (420-5138), for a summary of the study.

In the event that the content of the hypothetical situations or the questionnaires presented in the study resulted in any discomfort, please feel free to address the researchers, Shannon Poirier and Bridget Perrin (420-5138) with any concerns. The faculty advisor for the study, Dr. Veronica Stinson (420-5861) will also be available to address any concerns.

The participant may also contact Dr. Laura Methot (420-5846), Chair, Department of Psychology Ethics Committee, or Dr. Victor Catano (420-5846), Chair, Department of Psychology.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.