The Role of Emotions in Women's Strategies for Coping with Sexual Harassment

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ABSTRACT

This thesis examines the role of appraisals and emotions in sexual harassment. Five types of strategies that are linked with the experience of sexual harassment are examined. These are advocacy seeking, negotiation, social coping, avoidance and denial. The link between appraisals, emotions and coping strategies is examined across eight studies (1047 participants in total). Studies 1 and 2 examined the potential role of emotions in behavioural responses to sexual harassment, establishing coping strategies as a fitting measurement of behaviour. Studies 3 and 4 examined the role of power in the relationship between specific emotions and particular coping strategies as a response to sexual harassment. In Studies 5 and 6 the role of appraisals and the effect of perpetrator type on the relationship between emotions and coping in sexual harassment was examined. Study 7 investigated the effect of organisational support on the relationship between emotions and coping of women presented with a harassing situation perpetrated by a man in a superior position at work. Study 8 investigated the relationship between appraisals, emotions and coping in the real-life experiences of victims of sexual harassment. The combined results of this thesis support the argument that different appraisals of the experience result in different emotional experiences. The results also indicated that emotions and appraisals are related but distinct predictors of victims' responses toward sexual harassment. The thesis concludes with a summary of the findings, a discussion of the methodological limitations of the studies and suggestions for future research.

MEMORANDUM

The research reported in this thesis was conducted while the author was a full-time postgraduate student in the Department of Psychology at the University of Kent (September, 2003 – September, 2007) on a departmental scholarship. The theoretical and empirical work herein is the independent work of the author. Intellectual debts are acknowledged in the text. The execution of the studies reported in this thesis required some limited assistance from other people. Their role consisted of assisting with aspects of the experimental procedure and administrating questionnaires. The author has not been awarded a degree by this or any other university for the work included in this thesis.

This thesis is dedicated to my wonderful family, Konstantinos, Eugenia and Giorgos. Words cannot describe how blessed I feel to have you. The person I am, and what I have achieved so far is down to your endless love and support. You never stopped believing in me and you gave me reason to carry on, even when I felt that I couldn't go on. For that, I will be forever grateful.

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Το «ευχαριστώ» είναι απλά πολύ λίγο...
Με πολλή αγάπη,
Αφροδίτη

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INTRODUCTION AND OVERVIEW OF THESIS

BACKGROUND AND AIM OF THESIS

The detrimental effects of sexual harassment on the lives of women in all arenas of life cannot be disputed. There has been invaluable research conducted over the past 35 years into the nature of sexual harassment and its causes and how it affects the lives of millions of working women. Many researchers have made important endeavours to examine, define, measure and publicise the phenomenon of sexual harassment (e.g. Fitzgerald, 1996; 1993; Gutek, 1985; MacKinnon, 1979; Pryor, 1987; Stockdale, 1996; Thomas & Kitzinger, 1997). The past research has focused on typologies and definitions of sexual harassment (i.e. gender vs. sexual harassment), the prevalence of the phenomenon (see European Commission, 1998; United States Merit Systems Protection Board, 1980; 1987; 1995) and the different perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment (see Stockdale, Vaux & Cashin, 1995). Researchers have also focused on the antecedents of sexual harassment (i.e. organisational climate, characteristics of perpetrators, power differentials) (i.e. Begany & Millburn, 2002; Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; Driscoll, Kelly & Henderson, 1998; Willness, Steel & Lee, 2007) as well as its consequences (i.e. stress, feelings of powerlessness, fear, job dissatisfaction, quality of life) (i.e. Hulin, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 1996; Lapierre, Spector & Leck, 2005; Mueller, De Coster & Estes, 2005).

More recently, research has focused on women's responses to sexually harassing incidents and generally recognised four types of responses; formal reports, informal

complaints, social support and communication with the harasser (see Dougherty, 1999; Adams-Roy & Barling, 1998; Barling et al., 1996; Bingham & Scherer, 1993). This research informed the proposed link between the stress and coping literature (see Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and sexual harassment (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Knapp, Faley, Ekeberg & Dubois, 1997; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). Cortina and Wasti (2005) proposed an ecological model of coping strategies towards sexual harassment with four levels (i.e. individual, microcontext, mesocontext and macrocontext). The coping strategies that are commonly recognised to be linked with sexual harassment responses are: advocacy seeking, social support seeking (social coping), negotiation with perpetrator, avoidance and denial (Wasti & Cortina, 2002).

However, almost all the research that has been conducted on sexual harassment has been broadly informed by and focused on perpetrator characteristics, antecedents and consequences. Wasti and Cortina's (2002) research focused on the coping mechanisms of sexually harassed victims, ignoring, nevertheless, victim's appraisals of the various harassing incidents. Even though the negative affect surrounding sexual harassment and its emotional effect on its victims has been documented in many studies (see Dougherty, 1999; European Commission, 1998; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Kidder, LaFleur & Wells, 1995; Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001), the role of emotions in appraisals of sexually harassing incidents as well as their part in behavioural responses has not yet been examined.

The role of emotions in behavioural tendencies has been extensively examined in the literature of emotions. Emotions have been shown to influence behaviour directly (Booth & Pennebaker, 2000; Frijda, 1986) or through a feedback system of evaluation

and cognitive processing (Baumeister, Vohs, DeWall & Zhang, 2007). It is important, therefore, to examine the role of different appraisals of sexually harassing incidents, the emotions that stem from these appraisals, as well the role of those emotions in the coping strategies that will eventually be chosen by the victims as a response.

This thesis consists of nine chapters that examined the role of appraisals, emotions and coping strategies in various situations of sexual harassment. An overview of these chapters will be provided below.

OVERVIEW

Chapter 1 provides a review of the existing literature on the phenomenon of sexual harassment. Different perspectives of sexual harassment are discussed along with the different typologies leading to the current legal definition of sexual harassment. The prevalence of sexual harassment is also examined. The antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment as well as women's varied perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment are also reviewed. Finally, women's responses to sexual harassment are discussed and particular focus is given to coping strategies as an important component of the sexual harassment experience.

In Chapter 2, the literature surrounding affect and emotions, with specific focus on anger and fear, is presented. Definitions and different approaches to the study of emotions are reviewed. The distinction between primary and secondary emotions is discussed, hence, establishing the role of anger and fear as primary negative emotions. Appraisal theories are also reviewed, again with specific focus on appraisals of anger and fear, and the link between emotions and particular action tendencies is examined. Finally, coping as a behavioural tendency and its relationship with emotions is investigated.

Chapter 3 offers a brief overview of the previous two theoretical chapters, providing a link between the two existing literatures of sexual harassment and emotions. In this chapter the scope of the thesis and the particular research questions that are to be addressed in the thesis are presented. The potential contributions of the thesis to the sexual harassment and the emotions literature are also discussed.

Chapter 4 reports two studies (Studies 1 and 2) in which female participants were presented with a sexually harassing scenario perpetrated by a peer. In Study 1, the relationship between emotional reactions to the scenario and action tendencies was examined. The findings suggest that participants recognised the scenario as sexually harassing but did not rate this very highly. Also, anger was related to offensive action tendencies. No relationship for fear was found. In Study 2, the relationship between emotions and coping strategies was examined. Participants did not significantly recognise the scenario as sexually harassing, although the overall scores were not that different from Study 1. Fear was related to avoidance coping strategies, but no relationship was found for anger. Overall these two studies provided the necessary evidence that anger and fear play distinct roles in responses to sexual harassment.

Chapter 5 contains two studies (Studies 3 and 4) that were conducted to examine the effect of power on the relationship between specific emotions and particular coping strategies as responses to sexual harassment. Study 3 tested the relationship between power, emotions and coping strategies of women that were presented with a harassing scenario perpetrated by a peer. The results indicate that participants overall did not significantly rate the scenario as sexually harassing, although participants in the powerless condition were more willing to classify the scenario as sexually harassing than

participants in the powerful condition. Participants in the powerless condition felt more fear than those in the powerful condition, and overall participants felt more anger and reported more negotiation than any other coping strategy. In Study 4, participants were presented with sexual harassment perpetrated by a superior and indicated feeling more anger than fear and reported more social coping than any other strategy. Power had no effect on emotions, coping strategies and classification. Across both studies, anger predicted advocacy and negotiation whereas fear predicted avoidance.

Chapter 6 contains two studies (Study 5 and 6) and examines the effect of perpetrator type/status on the relationship between emotions and coping strategies. These studies also examine the effect of appraisals of power of the victim and unfairness of the incident. In Study 5, the scenario described gender harassment perpetrated by either a superior or a fellow student. In Study 6, the scenario described quid-pro-quo harassment and attempted physical contact. The overall findings suggest that participants in the supervisor condition perceived the incident as more unfair, perceived themselves as having less power, felt more anger than fear and were more likely to engage in advocacy seeking and avoidance than participants in the fellow student condition, who reported more negotiation. There were high ratings of sexual harassment across studies and emotions and appraisals were found to have unique contributions to behaviour. Anger was positively related to advocacy and negotiation and fear overall related to avoidance.

Chapter 7 reports a study (Study 7) that investigates the effect of organisational support on the relationship between emotional reactions and coping strategies of victims presented with sexual harassment by a superior. The results of this study suggest that organisational support has an effect on participants' coping strategies, where participants

belonging to the support condition reported more advocacy and negotiation and less avoidance than the no-support condition. Appraisals of unfairness were related to anger and appraisals of control were related to fear. Unfairness also partially explains the relationship between anger and the coping strategies of negotiation and advocacy seeking.

Chapter 8 presents a study (Study 8) that investigated the relationship between appraisals, emotions and coping strategies, in the experiences of real-life victims of sexual harassment. Study 8 was a survey using a working population with prior experiences of sexual harassment. This survey also tested for the current trends with regard to the prevalence of particular sexual harassment experiences. The results indicated that the most frequent types of sexual harassment encountered by the women in the sample were those that fall under the "hostile environment" harassment, which included indecent remarks, demeaning comments about looks and unsolicited questions about one's sex life. Unwanted physical contact was also frequently reported in our sample. The majority of perpetrators were males of superior status to the female victim.

Perpetrator status and organisational policies generally had no effect on women's appraisals, emotions or coping strategies in Study 8. The women reported feeling more anger than fear overall, perceiving the harassment as highly unfair, having received little organisational support, and the perpetrator as having more power than them. With respect to their coping strategies, they engaged in more avoidance strategies as a response to the harassment and they were least likely to seek advocacy overall. Appraisals of unfairness were related to anger whereas appraisals of power were related to fear. Unfairness

explained the relationship between anger and negotiation, anger and advocacy, anger and social coping and fear and avoidance.

Chapter 9 summarises the current findings of the thesis. The discussion centres around each research question set for the current research programme. It is argued that sexual harassment perceptions are dependent on the type of harassment, with more severe harassment cases more readily recognised, as well as type of perpetrator, with harassment perpetrated by superiors more recognised as sexually harassing than that of equal status perpetrators. It is further proposed that perceptions of unfairness lead to the experience of anger whereas perceptions of unequal power against the perpetrator lead to the experience of fear. It is also argued that anger is consistently related to the approach-related coping strategies of negotiation and advocacy seeking whereas fear is overall related to avoidance coping strategies. Both appraisals and emotions have unique contributions to coping strategies in this thesis. A feedback system of emotions is proposed, whereby appraisals and emotions trigger cognitive processing before a specific coping strategy is adopted. The discussion of methodological limitations centres on several issues, including the use of scenario-based methods as well as using student population in some studies. A number of directions for future research and practical implications are discussed, including the use of more emotions as well as different populations to examine whether the findings reported in this thesis can be replicated.

CHAPTER 1

<u>Sexual Harassment in Organisations</u>

This chapter reviews the existing research on different perspectives and issues surrounding the phenomenon of sexual harassment. The first part of this chapter provides an overview of the perplexing nature of sexual harassment and the various concerns that have surrounded the topic leading to its recognition. The different perspectives on sexual harassment (feminist, legal, organisational) are also considered. The second part of this chapter presents the different typologies of sexual harassment that have been put forward by researchers in the field, leading to the culmination of the current legal definition of sexual harassment. Thirdly, the statistics surrounding the prevalence of sexual harassment are reviewed. The fourth part of this chapter is dedicated to the analysis of the antecedents of sexual harassment. In this section, the characteristics of perpetrators, the organisational climate and the gender-ratio of the workplace are reviewed. This leads to the fifth part which focuses on the consequences and the effects of sexual harassment on its victims. Women's varied perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment and the Reasonable Woman Standard are considered in the sixth part of this chapter. The final part of this chapter is dedicated to the victims' responses to sexually harassing incidents. Particular focus is given to the role of coping strategies in sexual harassing incidences. The victim's coping style represents an imperative component of harassment processes.

INTRODUCTION

The victimisation of women by men in almost all societies has been the focus of academic interest and research for many years (Brownmiller, 1985; Griffin, 1979; Koss, 1992; Watts & Zimmerman, 2002). The most common and most severe forms of violence against women include: rape; intimate partner violence; sexual coercion; sexual abuse by non-intimate partners; trafficking, forced prostitution, and exploitation of labour. The potential perpetrators are many and can include spouses and partners, parents, other family members, colleagues and men in positions of power or influence. Most forms of violence are usually not unique incidents; they can be ongoing, and can even continue for decades (Watts & Zimmerman, 2002). Violence is a sensitive subject for many, and this may be the reason why it is almost universally under-reported (Watts & Zimmerman, 2002). However, prevalence statistics suggest that millions of women are experiencing violence or having to live with its consequences on an everyday basis (Watts & Zimmerman, 2002).

The antecedents and consequences of violence against women have been documented in past research (Lapierre et al., 2005; Willness et al., 2007). However, less research has focused on victims' perceptions of different types of violence as well as their reactions to it. The current thesis focuses on one facet of deviant behaviour on the part of men, and that is unwanted sexualised behaviour in the workplace. This type of behaviour, in its severest form, can sometimes result in sexual coercion or rape. The focal point of this thesis will be: how women perceive the different types of sexualised behaviour at work and how they chose to react to this unwanted behaviour.

Sexuality in the work setting is a phenomenon that carries over the already existing societal structures of gender conduct and gender socialisation in the workplace (Gutek, 1985). Problems arose with expressions of sexuality in the workplace because for some women, this type of attention in the working environment is often unwanted and discriminatory. Therefore, expressions of sexuality at work became an issue for workers, organisations and policy makers alike. The highly publicised phenomenon of sexual harassment became one of the most debated of social problems (Gutek, 1985; Thomas & Kitzinger, 1997; Sev'er, 1999). It is maintained that the term emerged in the mid 1970s in North America, through the work of researchers who, from different perspectives, helped bring the problem of sexual harassment to light (Gutek, 1985; Farley, 1978; MacKinnon, 1979).

The issue that has been problematic for researchers in this field, from the very beginning, is the definition of what constitutes sexual harassment. Researchers in the 1980s dealt with and helped with the very basic problems of the definition; Whether it should be limited to only forced sexual relations, whether it occurs only in unequal power circumstances, and whether a variety of behaviours, like unwanted touching, staring, obscene comments, gestures and sexist jokes would and should be included in the definition (Gutek, 1985).

In creating definitions, the goal is to achieve parsimony, but also to include as many aspects of the term as possible to accomplish a full representation. However, as with many terms, an all-inclusive definition of sexual harassment has proved extremely difficult to achieve. Researchers, legal scholars and policy makers around the world have not, up to this point, agreed upon a single universal definition. It is very difficult to agree

on a definition that is broad enough to encompass the variety of experiences that people report on the issue and, at the same time, be specific enough to be parsimonious (Fitzgerald, 1996).

One reason for this inherent difficulty is that a definition would mean that boundaries would be set on this particular term which would distinguish it from other expressions of sexual interest (Gutek, 1985). Many researchers on the topic, as well as lay people, would agree that expressions of sexual interest and sexual harassment are two very distinct entities, especially for the people that are victims of the latter. However, many would also agree that not all expressions of sexuality in the work setting would be called sexual harassment. Sexual relationships at work are not always mutually fulfilling, but they are, also, not always sexually harassing and harmful (Williams, Giuffre & Dellinger, 1999). The working setting could be a place where many people have met or will meet prospective partners, and some people could argue that flirting, joking and even sexual banter at work could even be enjoyable, as it might help to make the workplace feel less austere (Gutek, 1985; Quinn, 1977; Williams et al., 1999).

Organisations also face challenges with respect to reactions towards the expression of sexuality in the workplace. Would it be acceptable to encourage or tolerate such behaviours, or would it be better to discourage or even forbid such conduct within organisations? It can be argued that flirting and joking in the workplace can be enjoyable but it can also be extremely stressful for some employees (Gutek, 1985). Reviews of the literature conducted on office relationships give inconclusive results on the topic. A less austere environment can either enhance people's performance and productivity at work or it may hinder it, by either distracting them from their tasks or creating a hostile

environment for some employees (Gutek & Nakamura, 1982; Gutek, 1985; Pierce, Byrne & Aguinis, 1996).

With regards to the aforementioned issues, feminist scholars report "a clear anti-feminist backlash" taking place in the 1990s after the efforts in recognising and publicising the notion of sexual harassment (Thomas & Kitzinger, 1997, p.5). The feminist approaches were characterised among other references as "coercive instances of political correctness" (Thomas & Kitzinger, 1997, p.5). These attempts to characterise these harassing conducts, and in consequence, protect women from being subjected to them, were viewed by some as even going against free speech (Thomas & Kitzinger, 1997). In particular, sexual harassment policies that were implemented in places of higher education, like Universities, were found at the centre of the debate, with some critics condemning them for jeopardising the principles of academic freedom (Davies, 1994; Fekete, 1994).

In the debate about recognising sexually harassing behaviours, feminist critics posed questions about labelling sexual language as incorrect, and as a crucial component of sexual harassment. However, Farrell (1993) went as far as commenting that this labelling of sexual language as incorrect has the potential for abuse and can be seen as restricting free speech. Most critics accept the general need for legislation against sexual harassment, in order to prevent the prominent and worst abuses of power, which they recognise in the most explicit cases of sexual coercion. For example, cases of sexual harassment where the harasser demands sexual favours for work/academic-related advancement are easily recognised as such (Roiphe, 1993). However, other behaviours that feminist researchers and theorists have recognised as serving female subordination

and adding to the discrimination of women, such as staring, whistling, sexual joking and sexual innuendoes (Wise & Stanley, 1987), are often characterised by critics as mundane, everyday conducts. According to the critics, these are behaviours which relate to the natural interaction between the two sexes and hence, they do not merit appropriate targets for legislation (Roiphe, 1993).

The feminist riposte, in this debate, is that these criticisms reflect the sexual politics that are present in every arena that females want to permeate. The politics are about control and power and they can be found hiding behind the everyday, mundane behaviours that serve to disempower and subordinate women (Wise & Stanley, 1987). Thomas and Kitzinger (1997) argue that feminist work on the topic of sexual harassment, helped to give a name to these common and accumulating behaviours that ought to be recognised as public and political rather than ordinary and personal. Behaviours of this type were viewed by feminists as belittling women's contributions at work and attacking their confidence (Williams, 2003).

There are, however, feminist legal theorists that would agree with the fact that over-regulating what is termed as "offensive" speech in the workplace could be an issue. Their fear is that the focus on sexual speech apart from being over-inclusive, (i.e. prohibiting even benign sexual banter) will have a detrimental effect on women's equality. The reason proposed, is that it will link sex and sex-related expressions with demeaning women, and consequently women will be excluded from crucial employment opportunities: like informal networking with male colleagues and clients (Cohen, 1999). Schultz (1998), proposes that judicial emphasis on sexuality in the workplace is taking attention away from other forms of gender harassment that are more prevalent but do not

involve sex. According to her, sexual harassment focus should shift from sex back to sexism. The existing focus characterises the motive for sexual harassment as men's desire to sexually exploit women, rather than what Schultz maintains is the true motive; that of preserving the image of male gender superiority and economic advantages (Cohen, 1999; Schulz, 1998)

The conceptual struggles outlined above give rise to the different perspectives of sexual harassment that have dominated the psychological, legal and policy-making research field since the conceptualisation of the term (Gutek, 1982; 1985). There are three main perspectives identified in the past research, and each of these perspectives views the problem of sexual harassment differently, without being "independent or mutually exclusive" (Gutek, 1985, p.8). These different perspectives, consequently give rise to different solutions.

The Feminist Perspective

Sexual harassment has been a crucial issue for feminists and movements from that group are often accredited with bringing the issue to light (Thomas & Kitzinger, 1997). Feminists view sexual harassment as a logical consequence of the gender inequality and sexism that already exists in society (Gutek, 1985; Thomas & Kitzinger, 1997). According to the feminist perspective, sexual harassment, regardless of its form, is linked to the sexist male ideology of male dominance and male superiority (Matchen & DeSouza, 2000). Sexual harassment exists because of the views of women as the inferior sex, but also it serves to maintain the already existing gender stratification by emphasising sex role expectations (Gutek, 1985). MacKinnon (1979) maintained that women's inferior position in the workplace and society in general, is not only a

consequence, but also a cause of sexual harassment. Tangri, Burt and Johnson (1982) maintain that sexual harassment serves to manage the male–female interactions according to accepted sex status norms, and therefore, serves to maintain male dominance occupationally, by intimidating, and discouraging women from work.

The purpose for feminist scholars was to elevate the issue of sexual harassment from the everyday, mundane experience to the socio-political issue that it actually is (Thomas & Kitzinger, 1997). The feminist perspective views the workplace, not as a special arena where sex segregation occurs, but rather as continuance of male domination and male power over females that occurs in all other areas of society (Gutek, 1985; MacKinnon, 1979).

The Legal Perspective

The legal approach to sexual harassment has paralleled the legal approaches to sex discrimination. The focus here is on the effects of sexual harassment, as it occurs when the offending conduct affects the dignity of the employee, their job satisfaction and performance, as well as their mental and physical health (Gutek, 1995). MacKinnon (1979) provided the necessary theoretical framework needed for affected employees to claim legal remedies (Cohen, 1999). The legal perspective focuses more on the particular behaviour that leads to negative consequences for the harassed employee in the workplace, and/or puts that employee at a disadvantage relative to other employees on the basis of gender (Gutek, 1985).

Although the legal perspective is concerned with, and recognises the societal influences with regards to sexual harassment, it is more focused on the legal requirements. It is on the basis of those that it discusses changes in regulations and

actions, from the part of organisations, in order to create harassment-free environments and to tackle complaints of sexual harassment efficiently (Gutek, 1995).

The Management Perspective

Organisations nowadays, especially relatively big ones, take sexual harassment very seriously. It has been reported that sexual harassment is very costly to organisations not only in settlements, legal fees and awards but also in sick leave, job turnover, and productivity losses. For instance, sexual harassment cost the Federal Government 327 million US dollars in a two year period (1992-1994) (USMSPB, 1995). The management perspective (Gutek, 1985), views sexual harassment as an interpersonal phenomenon, that relates to the organisations. It is a case of a member of the organisation misusing the power which is associated with their position.

According to Gutek (1985), the management perspective views sexual harassment as an expression of personal inclinations in an abusive way and hence considers it unprofessional and deviant behaviour. In the occupational context, sexual harassment is viewed, in some of its forms, as part of what is often coined "occupational deviance", which is any behaviour that deviates from the acceptable norm (extramarital affairs with colleagues, drinking on the job, whistling, making comments) and "occupational crime" in some other forms (quid-pro-quo harassment, assault, rape) (Pino, 2001). Organisations nowadays ought to have clear sexual harassment policies that do not tolerate any harassing conduct and provide workers with information and training or even appropriate grievance outlets and counselling (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2006; European Commission, 1998).

Sexual Harassment Typologies and Definitions

As seen in the preceding discussion, sexual harassment is considered to be a problematic issue in work settings. Sexual harassment is one among many of the forms of sexual aggression, in the form of coercion and physical force, in order to obtain sex or sex-related behaviours from an unwilling partner (Ménard, Hall, Phung, Ghebrial & Martin, 2003). A number of typologies have been put forward, based on the necessity to create useful definitions of sexual harassment. Gruber and his colleagues (Gruber, 1992; Gruber, Smith & Kauppinen-Toropinen, 1996) developed the Inventory of Sexual Harassment (ISH) in order to categorise sexually harassing behaviours. The ISH distinguishes between three clusters of behaviours: verbal comments (comments on an employee's looks, clothing etc.), verbal requests (repeated requests for dates etc.) and non-verbal displays (staring, whistling), all of which range in severity (Gruber, 1992; Gruber et al., 1996). Furthermore, Timmerman and Bajema (1998) categorised sexually harassing behaviours into three main types; *verbal* (remarks about figure/look, sexual jokes, verbal sexual advances), *non verbal* (staring and whistling) *physical* (unsolicited physical contact to *assault/rape)* and *quid-pro-quo* (threats of reprisals if sexual advancement is refused or promises for advantages if accepted) (Timmerman & Bajema, 1998)

Another view (Fitzgerald, 1996; Fitzgerald & Schullman, 1993; Fitzgerald, Gelfand & Drasgow, 1995; Gelfand et al., 1995) is that sexual harassment is a sexualised form of a work relationship and it can take two main general forms; one is the "quid pro quo" harassment, in which the victim is coerced into having sexual relations with a supervisor or co-worker under the threat of job related reprisals or the promise of job

related advancements. The other form is "hostile environment" harassment, which encompasses two subcategories; "gender harassment" and "unwanted sexual attention". "Hostile environment" harassment refers to a situation in which female employees are subjected regularly to offensive gender-related comments, sexual comments and unreciprocated sexually related behaviour which may not be relevant to job related outcomes (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1980; Fitzgerald, 1993; Lucero, Middleton, Finch & Valentine, 2003; MacKinnon, 1979). Furthermore, sexual harassment can also take three distinct forms with regards to perpetrator status; sexual harassment by superiors, sexual harassment by co-workers (peer-to peer) and sexual harassment by subordinates (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993).

Legal Definitions of Sexual Harassment in the United Kingdom

In the United Kingdom, sexual harassment until the 1st of October 2005 was not specifically dealt with under any legislation, although it was outlined in some paragraphs of the Sex Discrimination Act (SDA, 1975) under unlawful discrimination on the grounds of sex. The change in European Equal Treatment Directive, 2002/73/EC, made on 23rd September 2002, required Member States to specifically outlaw sexual harassment. Therefore, the introduction of Sex Discrimination Act 1975 section 4A was designed to implement the directive, which inserted a specific definition of sexual harassment into the 1976 Equal Treatment Directive 76/207/EEC (British Employment Law, 2007).

The Sex Discrimination Act (1975 s.4A) currently defines sexual harassment as: "unwanted conduct on the ground of a woman or man's sex or unwanted verbal, nonverbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature or unwanted conduct on the ground of

the recipient's rejection of or submission to the conduct described above…that has the purpose or effect of (1) violating the recipient's dignity or (2) creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating, or offensive environment for the recipient. Conduct will be taken to have had that effect on the recipient if, having regard to all the circumstances, including in particular his or her perception of it, it can be reasonably considered as having that effect" (Equal Opportunities Commission, March 2006, p.3).

The Equal Treatment Directive (2002) recognises both harassment and sexual harassment as forms of discrimination on the grounds of sex and thus both are contrary to the principle of equal treatment between men and women. Harassment is defined as follows: *"where an unwanted conduct related to the sex of a person occurs with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person, and of creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment."* Sexual harassment is defined as: *"where any form of unwanted verbal, non-verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature occurs, with the purpose or effect of violating the dignity of a person, in particular when creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment."* (The Irish Presidency, FGS Consulting & McGolgan, 2004, p.2)

Sexual Harassment Prevalence and Statistics

Having defined sexual harassment, it is important to examine the pervasiveness of the phenomenon. Sexual harassment affects a wide spectrum of people, probably the greatest proportion of the population than any other form of discrimination (Bargh, Raymond, Pryor & Strack, 1995). Spitzberg (1999) reviewed 120 studies, and found that,

in actual fact, sexually harassing and coercive behaviours are more prevalent than the most physically violent forms of sexual aggression.

Although it is not always the case, sexual harassment is an act more frequently perpetrated by men against women (Pryor, 1995). In the United States, the most recent statistical survey was conducted by the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (USMSPB, 1995) surveying employees in the federal government. This survey was a continuation of the two preceding USMSPB surveys (1980; 1987). Their findings show that almost all (93 percent) out of the 44 percent of women that reported sexual harassment were harassed by men, but 65 percent out of 19 percent of men that reported sexual harassment were harassed by women.

Furthermore, awareness about the behaviours that constitute sexual harassment appears to have risen in the period between 1980 and 1994, and in particular, the proportion of men that classified unwanted sexual jokes, and remarks as sexual harassment rose from 42 to 64 %. As noted in both previous surveys, the less severe forms of sexually harassing behaviours, like sexual remarks/jokes (37 %) and sexual looks and gestures (29 %) are the most prevalent, while the most severe behaviours like assault and attempted rape still remain low at four percent for female and two percent for male employees. Co-workers and other employees (77%), rather than people in higher or supervisory positions (28%), continue to be the most prevalent source of harassment for federal workers (USMSPB, 1995).

In the European Union, the largest statistical survey was the one conducted in 1998 by the European Commission, which included two main summaries of studies conducted between 1987 and 1997, one focusing on eleven northern European countries

(Timmerman & Bajema, 1998) and one on five southern European countries (Alemany, 1997). The summary of the eleven north European studies reports that "approximately one out of every two to three women, and one out of every ten men has experienced some form of sexual harassment or sexually unwanted behaviour" (European Commission, 1998, p.14). However, there are variations in the incidence rates of sexual harassment reported in these studies on the basis of definitions used in the studies, the particular question type, the sample type and size, and whether the study was carried out nationally or in specific branches (Timmerman & Bajema, 1998).

Overall, the studies estimated that approximately 30%-50% of female employees that took part in the various surveys have experienced some form of sexual harassment or unwanted behaviour. The highest occurrence rates of sexual harassment against women were reported in national surveys in Austria and Luxemburg (80%) and Germany (72%). Medium incidence rates were reported in national Dutch (32%), Finnish (27%) and UK (54%) studies. The lowest incidence rates were found in national studies of Denmark (11%), Luxemburg (13%) and Sweden (17%) (Timmerman & Bajema, 1998). Apart from national studies, branch studies were also carried out and, they too, report high incidence rates. In the UK two branch studies, one in the police and one in the health service show a staggering amount of women having suffered sexual harassment of some type (90% and 89% respectively). The researchers commented that higher incidence rates in branch studies may reflect the higher incidence of sexual harassment in particular professions (Timmerman & Bajema, 1998).

With regard to the incidence of particular types of sexual harassment, statistics reveal that verbal forms of sexual harassment and specifically "sexual jokes" are the most

frequent experiences. In six of the national studies included in the report, the incidence rates of sexual jokes were on average around 60%. The next most frequently encountered verbal type was "remarks about figure and sexual behaviour" and, although no precise statistical incidence rate is stated in the studies, the authors report it to be as high as that of sexual jokes. Non-verbal forms of harassment like staring and whistling are also among the most frequently encountered forms of sexual harassment (at approximately 50-85%). With regards to physical forms, the most commonly experienced is "unsolicited physical contact and touching". However, the rates differ between countries; whilst the majority of national studies report a high incidence rate between 60-90%, the UK and Finland report percentages significantly lower at 20% and 7% respectively (Timmerman & Bajema, 1998).

The most severe of the physical forms of sexual harassment, "sexual assault/rape" is reported only by 1-6% of the female employees, whereas quid-pro-quo harassment in "the threat for non-submission to advances" form is reported by 3-10% of women. In the "promise of advancement for submission" form quid-pro quo harassment is reported by 7-16% of females (Timmerman & Bajema, 1998). Statistics clearly show that the most frequently reported forms of sexual harassment are the verbal and non verbal forms and the more severe and easily recognisable forms occur at a significantly lesser frequency.

Usually, sexual harassment is associated with an occupational environment and is often considered through an employment context. It is apparent in the literature that it is during advancement in the organisational hierarchy that one may come across sexual harassment. Studies have found a relationship between certain elements of an organisation's structure and the occurrence of sexual harassment (Fitzgerald, Drasgow,

Hulin, Gelfand & Magley, 1997). However, recent research has also indicated that the most sexually harassing acts and behaviours are perpetrated by peers rather than superiors (USMSPB, 1995) thus indicating that the occupational context of hierarchy is not necessarily the only context of coming across sexual harassment (Ménard et al., 2003).

One such environment which has been thoroughly documented and researched is the academic (Paludi, 1996). Although frequently recognised and documented as coming from people in power positions like supervisors and superiors, the type of sexual harassment that also dominates academia, is peer-to-peer sexual harassment. Large amounts of women and men in academia report experiences of sexually harassing behaviours, both from faculty as well as fellow students. In a college study conducted by Shepela and Levesque (1998), 20-55% of females and 15-44% of males reported behaviours ranging from sexist language/humour/comments to inappropriate physical contact by members of faculty. Their data for sexually harassing experiences from fellow students sees the gender differences become less divided, with both men and women reporting having had experiences: 56% of women to 51% of men reporting gender harassment and 38% of women to 30% of men reporting unwanted sexual attention (Shepela & Levesque, 1998). Other studies have also documented the use of sexually harassing and coercive behaviours among college students and they show that, similar to the workplace, men were twice as likely to sexually harass and three times as likely to be sexually coercive as their female counterparts (Ménard et al., 2003).

Antecedents of Sexual Harassment

A meta-analysis of studies involving direct experiences of sexual harassment produces staggering and interesting results (Willness et al., 2007). In particular, in terms of antecedents, findings suggest that the organisational climate (i.e. tolerance of sexual harassment) and the job-gender context of an organisation (i.e. proportion of women in occupation/workgroup composition) play an important part in the occurrence of sexual harassment (Willness et al., 2007). In fact, the organisational climate is currently considered the strongest predictor of sexual harassment (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Pryor, 1995; Welsh, 1999; Williams, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 1999). How permissive the organisational climate is, will determine the perceived risk of the potential victims to complain, the possibility and the availability of sanctions for harassers and the reception of one's complaints by the organisation and colleagues with regards to seriousness.

Gender Ratio

The gender ratio in the workplace has been shown to have a definitive role in occurrences of sexual harassment (Willness et al., 2007). The literature surrounding this issue has focused on the traditionality aspect of the occupation, with workplace environments where women are a numerical minority (i.e. traditionally masculine occupations) facing more gendered behaviour and therefore being more related to increased likelihood of sexual harassment (Wasti, Bergman, Glomb & Drasgow, 2000). When women are the minority in the workplace, what is otherwise termed as "token", they become highly salient (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989) and may encounter hostility on the basis of that (Gutek, 1985). They may be less likely to speak out against sexual

harassment fearing greater visibility, alienation and retaliation from male coworkers and supervisors.

Harassment affected professions include police officer, people in the medical profession, bus and taxi driver and waitressing (Brown, 1998; European Commission, 1998). However, even professions that are not male-dominated, such as nursing, which appear to adhere to gender stereotypes, also have a high occurrence of sexual harassment. In female-dominated professions, the harassment seems to be more likely to come from supervisors (European Commission, 1998). Furthermore, the same report comments that a sexualised and sexual harassment-tolerant work environment is found to facilitate the incidence of sexual harassment, whereas organisations with positive social climates and power-balance between men and women had fewer incidences.

Characteristics of Sexual Harassment Perpetrators

Until recent years, the explanations for the occurrence of sexual harassment have focused on why men in general endorse such behaviours. Feminist theories posit that sexual coercion and harassment comes from the general desire of men to maintain their power advantage over women within society (Brownmiller, 1975; Bohner, Weisbrod, Raymond, Barzvi & Schwarz, 1993; MacKinnon, 1979). Sociologists have put forward the general idea that people in a superior position have a general tendency to exploit their subordinates (Tangri, Burt & Johnson, 1982). Evolutionary theorists argue that rape and sexual aggression is a sex-specific adjustment for men in general that can be triggered by specific environmental situations and cues (Thornhill & Thornhill, 1992).

A measure was devised to assess men's proclivity to sexually harass, namely the Likelihood to Sexually Harass Scale (LSH) (Pryor, 1987). The likelihood to sexually harass is assessed by using 10 different hypothetical scenarios and a series of self-report measures that requests respondents to indicate their likelihood to behave in a sexually harassing manner or to engage in other harassing behaviours (Pryor, 1987; Driscoll et al., 1998). A study using undergraduates found that men score higher in LSH than women and that their perceptions differ: with men focusing on issues of sexual attraction, which they define more broadly than women, and women focusing on aspects of power which they define more broadly than men (Perry, Schmidtke & Kulik, 1998)

It has been confirmed that in situations that allow physical contact, men that were high in LSH consequently engaged in more attempts of sexual touching when compared to low LSH men (Driscoll, et al., 1998; Pryor 1987; Pryor et al., 1995). Also, in situations where an experimenter presented a harassing role model who made sexual innuendos about a female confederate, the high LSH men were more likely to attempt to touch that female. However, when the experimenter treated the female confederate professionally, sexual overtures from the male participants were significantly reduced (Pryor et al., 1993).

The likelihood to sexually harass has also been found to be related to several attitudes and gender-based or gender-related traits (Pryor, 1987; Pryor et al., 1995; Pryor & Stoller, 1994). For example, the likelihood to sexually harass is correlated with power/dominance, as well as attitudes towards sexual violence. Research has indicated that males that score highly on LSH hold beliefs about sexual behaviour that are adverse, endorse in rape-myths more and are more accepting towards interpersonal violence

(Begany & Millburn, 2002; Pryor, 1987; Pryor et al., 1995; Pryor & Stoller, 1994). They also had a higher rape proclivity, had difficulty in perspective-taking and were higher in authoritarianism (Driscoll et al., 1998). Begany and Millburn (2002) also found that authoritarianism significantly predicts LSH, and that rape-myths as well as hostile sexism mediate the relationship between authoritarianism and LSH and they argue that sexual harassment "as non-physically violent sexual aggression is a part of the same continuum as physically violent sexual aggression" (p.125).

Sexual Harassment and Power

It is broadly accepted that one of the central concepts that helps to understand sexual harassment, is power (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993). The classic definitions of social power have identified it as the ability of a person to affect the rewards and costs of another person without the other having any control over the situation (French & Raven, 1959; Russell, 1938). If the harasser has no control over the victim's employment and financial state then the victim could engage in reprisal, official complaining or simply walk away from the situation to no personal cost. Hence, it is clear why sexual harassment can be seen as a case of misuse of power (Bargh et al., 1995).

The norms that define western societies suggest that there are powerful and powerless individuals, the relationship of which should be defined by hierarchy, and consequently the exercise of power within that hierarchy should be expected and accepted (Lips, 1991). Furthermore, patterns in western societies suggest that men typically hold more power than women and the stereotypes prevailing between genders

are that men are goal-oriented, powerful and aggressive, whereas women are passive-receptive and family-oriented (Allgeier & McCormick, 1983; Eagly & Mladinic, 1989).

Organisational power could be viewed as the institutionalisation of the aforementioned societal power structure within organisations (Pfeffer, 1981; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). The research conducted by Eagly and colleagues (Eagly, 1983; Eagly & Wood, 1982; Eagly & Mladinic, 1989) has highlighted the fact that gender-related differences in formal status may be the cause of differences in influence between men and women. Men tend to occupy more high status positions, whereas women are more likely to hold less powerful positions, therefore having fewer opportunities to exercise power over men. Eagly (1983) also noted that the individuals that occupy higher organisational positions are expected to make demands of individuals that occupy lower status positions and that these people have to comply with authority. Harassing behaviours may, therefore, be perceived by some of the higher-status people as extensions of that right.

Differences in perceived power can be apparent among co-workers, and although it tends to be of the less severe kind (hostile environment); sexual harassment among co-workers appears to be the most frequent type (European Commission, 1998; USMSPB, 1995). This finding is most perplexing as there is not a clearly defined power difference between the perpetrator and the victim, and it leads to the conclusion that there may be processes, other than power, that are needed to explain the incident (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993). A co-worker or a fellow student has no formal position of power over the victim, and cannot influence the victim's future employment status. Therefore, based on one aspect of the legal definition of sexual harassment, the victim would experience

difficulties in making a case (Shullman & Watts, 1990). However, evidence from research suggests that there are covert ways of exercising power over a colleague; for example, by using gender harassment as a tactic of devaluation, or by providing or withholding aid, cooperation and support. Co-workers are a source of job relevant information to each other, and in many instances cooperation between colleagues is needed in joint projects, if cooperation is deliberately withheld; a hostile work environment is created (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; Schulz, 1998).

Women in power positions within organisations have been found to experience sexual harassment by men that hold less powerful positions (Grauerholz, 1989). The form of the harassment is usually of the less severe type (derogatory gender-based comments, sexist jokes) but it nevertheless succeeds in creating a hostile and negative environment towards women. The harassment in this case is targeted towards the gender differences and is often aimed at devaluating the woman in the power position by focusing on stereotypical characteristics of women (e.g. helplessness and passivity; Gutek, 1985). Therefore, sexual harassment by peers or subordinates can be seen as an attempt to gain power or equalise the power differences between the harasser and the victim (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993).

Consequences of Sexual Harassment

There is a growing body of literature that has investigated the psychological effects of sexual harassment. For many women, sexual harassment is considered male violence, even in its mildest form. The subtle threat inherent in sexual harassment and the unpredictability of the outcome of these situations are commonplace experiences of

working women today (Johnson & Sacco, 1995). This threat commonly carries a sexual component to it that, many claim, serves as a warning to women of their vulnerability to assault. The uncertainty in the outcome of those behaviours that could possibly evolve into something violent, the intrusion and violation of personal space, the feelings of powerlessness, vulnerability and fear are what Kelly (1988) describes as similarities between actual violence and sexual harassment. Kelly (1988) highlights the fact that what are coined as minor, non-violent (under the legal code) incidents are often not dealt with as simply or as minor by the women that experience them.

With regards to work-related outcome variables, job satisfaction is one of the variables most frequently examined within the sexual harassment literature. Overall, sexual aggression and harassment in the workplace has been found to greatly reduce job satisfaction (Lapierre et al., 2005). Sexually harassing experiences at work have also been found to greatly reduce workers' affective attachment and commitment to the organisation (Willness et al., 2007). Another cost of sexual harassment is worker productivity (Lengnick-Hall, 1995), with diminished quantity and quality of work, diminished ability to co-operate and work with others, and negative attitudes towards productivity. Sometimes, victims of sexual harassment have been found to engage in retaliatory and aggressive behaviours; and also work/ task avoidance and neglect (Gruber & Smith, 1995).

On a personal level, the psychological effects of sexual harassment have also been extensively documented (Fitzgerald et al., 1997) from two main perspectives: overall subjective well-being and reactions to stressful situations. In general, more than half of the harassed employees describe negative consequences for their personal wellbeing as a

direct result of sexual harassment (Equal Opportunities Commission, 1998). Many harassed employees report a great range of affect, from anger, fear and sadness, to depression, humiliation and mistrust. Some even report stress-related psychosomatic symptoms as a direct consequence of sexual harassment at work. These symptoms include headaches and muscle pains, palpitations and sleeping disruptions (Equal Opportunities Commission, 1998; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Magley, Hulin et al., 1999). There has also been research that claims sexual harassment to be traumatic for its victims, linking the negative effects and symptoms with those of post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Gutek & Koss, 1993; Willness et al., 2007).

Perceptions of Sexual Harassment

Before women's responses to harassment are examined in detail, the issue of what women are willing to acknowledge as sexual harassment needs to be addressed. Although, what generally constitutes sexual harassment has been somewhat established, it has been documented in statistical surveys as well as empirical research that women are often unwilling to acknowledge sexual harassment as occurring to them, especially when the question is explicitly asked (Alemany, 1997; Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Stockdale et al., 1995). Fitzgerald (1996) reports that even though approximately 50 percent of women will admit to having experienced offending events, only 20 percent of them will report having experienced sexual harassment. The same pattern is replicated in academia as well; with up to 75 percent of females reporting at least one attempt of unwanted sexual advances or offensive conduct, but only seven percent actually acknowledging being sexually harassed (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Stockdale et al., 1995).

Stockdale et al. (1995) report five models for explaining the classification of an incident as sexual harassment. These are: type of experience, attribution, affect, organisational power and personal characteristics. With regards to type of experience, they report that because sexually harassing acts span from subtle remarks, sexist jokes, to direct physical assault, labelling an experience as sexual harassment will depend on the type and severity of the experience. There is difficulty in perceiving such a range of behaviours as belonging to a continuum, so people often mistake gender harassment and sexual coercion as differing greatly with regards to categorisation (Fitzgerald & Hesson-McInnis, 1989). Indeed, research using scenarios of sexual harassment consistently shows that the severity of the offensive behaviour will indicate whether lay observers will label the behaviour as sexual harassment (Baker, Terpstra & Larnz, 1990; Hunter & McClelland, 1991; Terpstra & Baker, 1989). However, Stockdale and Vaux (1993) report that women who have been victims of the more severe behaviours on the sexual harassment spectrum are no more willing to accept that they had been harassed.

In terms of attribution, the model predicts that recognition of a particular behaviour as sexual harassment will depend on people's attributions of the event (Pryor, 1985). According to the model, people would be more likely to characterise behaviour as sexual harassment if the event is seen as consistent in frequency and persistency, if others have complained about similar behaviours, and if it involves behaviour that is unique towards the target/victim (Stockdale et al., 1995).

In terms of affect, the model suggests that responses on a survey could reflect widely differing experiences. Some reports of unwanted sexual behaviour can be more or less upsetting to the victim than they would appear to an observer or third party. For

example, Fitzgerald and Hesson-McInnis (1989) showed that observers found the more physically intrusive forms of sexual harassment (i.e. quid-pro-quo) to be more serious than gender harassment or sexual seduction. However, the evaluations and experiences of actual victims did not coincide with the observers' evaluations. Stockdale and Vaux (1993) posit that the severity of the experience is not linearly related to acknowledgment of the event as sexual harassment. The affective model (Stockdale et al., 1995) could possibly explain the disparity between severity and acknowledgment. They claim that endorsement of items on a survey may represent broadly different experiences: something that an observer may judge as less upsetting, an actual victim of that behaviour may find it extremely upsetting and vice versa. They posit that the negative affect experienced as a result of the harassing experience (anger, fear, confusion, hostility) could be more important than the type of behaviour experienced (Stockdale et al., 1995).

Organisational power refers to power within the organisation. Pryor (1985) found that behaviours used in scenarios were more likely to be labelled as sexually harassing if the perpetrator's status was higher than the victims'. The model, therefore, predicts that the higher the occupational status and power of the perpetrator in relation to the victim the more likely were respondents to acknowledge having been sexually harassed. This model offers an explanation for the low acknowledgment in that peer sexual harassment is more frequent than superior harassment (Stockdale et al., 1995).

Finally, the personal characteristics model claims that individuals perceive and react to sexual harassment differently and thus will have differences in labelling one's experiences as sexual harassment. In testing this model the only factor that significantly predicted acknowledgment differences was gender, with females more ready to

acknowledge sexual harassment than males. Something that researchers claim might have to do with the difference in the experience of the event between the genders (Stockdale et al., 1995).

Indeed, researchers have thoroughly documented that the variability in perceptions of sexual harassment depends on many factors, such as; gender, situational context, and attractiveness (Blumenthal, 1998; Golden, Johnson & Lopez, 2002; Pryor, 1995; Rotundo, Nguyen & Sackett, 2002). One of the individual characteristics that has received much attention in the literature is gender (Rotundo et al., 2001). This focus on gender differences was motivated, to a great extent, by the judicial problems arising from cases of sexual harassment claims. As noted earlier, there are differences and difficulties surrounding sexual harassment definitions and legislation. The problem for the courts lies not only in what constitutes a hostile working environment, but also from whose perspective the courts should assess whether there is a case of hostile environment or not (Rotundo et al., 2001). This gave rise to the well-known debate concerning the reasonable woman versus the reasonable person standard. In earlier times, harassment cases were judged on the basis of what a reasonable person would find offensive and hostile in a given situation. However, the gender differences in perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment gave rise to the perspective of a reasonable woman as opposed to a reasonable person which potentially encompasses both genders.

Gender differences in perceptions of sexual harassment are evident in many studies (Blumenthal, 1998; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Weiner, Hurt, Russell, Mannen & Gasper, 1997). What is usually shown is that women are less tolerant, they tend to report sexual harassment more often and they perceive a broader range of behaviours as sexual

harassment than men do (Fitzgerald & Ormerod, 1991; Golden et al., 2002; Gutek, Morasch & Cohen, 1983; Kenig & Ryan, 1986). A simple explanation for these differences could be found in the differences in gender-role socialisation (Quinn, 2002). Research has shown that the more both genders adhere to traditional gender roles, the more likely they are to consider such behaviours as acceptable or within the range of normalcy, and more likely to deny the harm inherent in those behaviours (Gutek & Koss, 1993; Pryor, 1987; Quinn, 2002).

Females also tend to perceive the more subtle forms of sexual harassment more easily than males do. Whereas both sexes view overtly oppressive behaviours like sexual assault and quid-pro-quo as being clear sexual harassment cases, men do not perceive the more subtle behaviours as such (Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Gutek & O'Connor, 1995). Research has also shown that ambiguous sexual advances are perceived as more harassing when the target holds what is perceived as a more traditional female occupation such as secretary or teacher, than when the target works in a traditionally male occupation such as engineer or construction worker (Sheffey & Tindale, 1992).

Pryor (1995), considering the interpretational issues regarding what constitutes sexual harassment, acknowledges the fact that sexual harassment is defined as "unwanted sexual behaviour". He notes that what is unwelcome for one person might not be unwelcome for another. According to some researchers (Willams, Brown & Lees-Haley, 1995) attribution theory could provide the insight needed into the differences in perceptions of what is sexually harassing. They posit that if a harassing behaviour is seen as intentional, stable and controllable, the recipient is more likely to feel angry towards the perpetrator, or if the perceiver is a third party, they would be more likely to be

sympathetic towards the victim. The intentionality of that behaviour is, according to them, what would be perceived as offensive and therefore characterised as sexual harassment (see also Elkins & Phillips, 1999).

However, there are some empirical studies that have not replicated gender differences in perceptions (Baker, Terpstra & Cutler, 1990; Pryor; 1985), or found that the gender differences are related to other factors. These factors are power or status differential between alleged harassers and victims, educational and professional status of the perceiver, and even the age of the rater or perceiver of the harassing behaviour (Blumenthal, 1998; Burian, Yanico & Martinez, 1998; Gutek & O'Connor, 1995). A study that directly tested the effects of both legal standards on people's hostile sexism did not show significant differences under any of the two standards in people's verdicts and perceptions (Gutek et al., 1999). Even among the studies that have found a gender difference, meta-analyses of those studies reveal that the gender differences although in the desired direction, are not large therefore giving the case for a reasonable woman standard less support (Rotundo et al., 2001).

Golden et al., (2002) conducted a study on appearance cues and attractiveness, and their findings strongly indicated an effect of appearance on perceptions of sexual harassment for both genders. In particular, if the potential victim was an attractive female, or if the potential harasser was less attractive, in both those instances, ambiguous situations were more likely to be perceived as sexual harassment (Golden et al., 2002). On the other hand, if the female victim was rated as not attractive and the harasser was rated as more attractive, any actions directed at the female were less likely to be identified as harassing. Interestingly, the raters also attributed less dominant traits to the

less attractive males. Predominantly, it was the effect of the female target's attractiveness that influenced the ratings more strongly, rather than the attractiveness of the male harasser.

In conclusion, with respect to the reasonable woman versus the reasonable person debate, differences in perceptions although present can be quite small, and are often correlated with other factors that need to be taken into account when dealing with sexual harassment cases. The general consensus is that whichever standard is adopted in deciding the outcome of sexual harassment cases, there is a need for caution as many believe that the mere nature of the reasonableness-based approach misapprehends the nature of sexual harassment as a phenomenon (Gutek et al., 1999). It may seem even irrelevant to prove whether there is reasonableness in someone's claim of having been sexually harassed since this person has felt the effects of this behaviour. Furthermore, the reasonableness of a claim is too vague a term to help distinguish effectively between merely offensive conduct and severe forms of sexual harassment (Gutek et al., 1999).

Victim's Responses to Sexual Harassment

There is an ever increasing interest within the sexual harassment literature in women's responses and resistance to sexual harassment (Dougherty, 1999). It is critical for the understanding of sexual harassment and its effects on women, to examine how women tend to respond to sexually harassing incidents. It has been argued by researchers that resistance to sexual harassment and the existing status quo within the organisation can have one of two effects; either perpetuate or change the existing status quo (Clair, 1994; Clair, Chapman & Kunkel, 1996). One way to change the existing status quo is

through the voicing and sharing of the commonalities in experiences of sexual harassment by its victims, therefore, raising awareness of the phenomenon and its unacceptability.

It is undisputed that women's experiences of and reactions to sexual harassment are varied, personal and complex. There are many factors that can be related to women's reactions (emotional or behavioural), such as organisational status, power, and context, affect (fear, anger), self-esteem and assertion, victim-offender relationship, perceived efficacy and organisational tolerance of sexual harassment (Adams-Roy & Barling, 1998; Barling et al., 1996; Bingham & Scherer, 1993; Gartner & Macmillan, 1995). However, reporting of sexual harassment and filing grievances or taking legal action remains very low (6% of respondents in USMSPB, 1995; Charney & Russell, 1994).

With regards to victims' types of responses to sexual harassment, a review of the past literature suggests four general types (Bingham & Scherer, 1993). Those responses are: formal reports, informal complaints, social support strategies, and attempts to communicate with the harasser (Bingham & Scherer, 1993, p.247). Formal and informal complaints to relevant authorities are found to be the least likely strategies adopted by sexually harassed employees: only 2.5 percent of the employees sought legal action and 11 percent made reports to authorities (Bingham & Scherer, 1993; USMSPB, 1981). The 1995 USMSPB sexual harassment report indicates a slight rise in formal action with 6 percent of the victims seeking it. However, compared to the fact that 76% of the victims indicated knowing the formal complaint channels, this percentage still remains very low.

The reason for the low formal reporting trends appears to be linked to the organisational structure. Approximately half of those using the formal option reported

that the situation improved slightly, whereas 33 percent reported the situation actually worsening. The worsening of the situation is linked to how permissive the organisational environment is of sexually harassing behaviours. The USMSPB (1995) survey indicates that most respondents/victims of sexual harassment did not think that their claims were serious enough (50%), they thought that reporting would make the situation at work unpleasant (29%), they did not believe anything would be done (20%), or they thought that reporting the behaviour would adversely affect their career (17%).

Seeking social support from friends and co-workers appears as the most commonly reported strategy but only social support from friends is reported to help the victims (Bingham & Scherer, 1993). A possible reason for this preference is the closeness, comfort, and support the victims will get from their close, personal network. Perhaps confiding to co-workers is perceived as more risky, or in the cases of people that reported confiding in colleagues not to help, they were doubted by co-workers, or advised not to act.

Personal attempts to resolve the issue and confronting the harasser appears to also help the situation in some cases. The positive outcome of confronting the harasser is dependent on the directness, assertiveness and aggressiveness of the confrontation. However, that response is found to also be dependent on the harasser's organisational status. The higher the status of the harasser the least likely it becomes that the victims will choose confrontation, perhaps fearing job-related reprisals, alienation, or retaliation (Bingham & Scherer, 1993).

More recent research on the typology of victim's responses to sexual harassment has found links between the behavioural responses and type of occupation (Ragins &

Scandura, 1995). Blue collar women in male-typed occupations reported experiencing more sexual harassment than white collar women, but they were less likely to take active approaches towards the harassers, like confrontation or reporting and more likely to ignore the harassment. Among white collar women, it was observed that the more frequent the harassment, the more likely they were to take active and aggressive responses towards it. Ragins and Scandura (1995) note that blue collar women face greater alienation and lack of colleague support than their white collar counterparts, who are perhaps more protected by the organisations, and that blue collar women fear more physical attacks, or may view sexual harassment as part of the occupation (Gutek, 1985; Tangri et al., 1982).

Research by Adams-Roy and Barling (1998) with regards to predictors of women's decision to report sexual harassment makes a distinction between organisational and personal factors which would lead to different responses towards sexually harassing behaviours. They hypothesised that organisational factors would predict the likelihood to report sexual harassment via the formal route, while personal factors would determine whether women would confront the harasser or not (Adams-Roy & Barling, 1998). Their findings indicated that women who reported sexual harassment via the formal complaint route actually showed worse perceptions of organisational justice than the women that chose not to report or to confront the harasser. Their explanation is that the study responses were taken after the response had occurred. As such, the reaction from the organisation as a result might have been disappointing. With respect to personal characteristics, their results show a linear relationship between assertiveness and confronting the harasser (Adams-Roy & Barling, 1998).

Coping as a Response to Sexual Harassment

The most recent conceptualisation concerning responses to sexual harassment, proposes a link between the stress-coping literature and sexual harassment perceptions (Wasti & Cortina, 2002; Cortina & Wasti, 2005). The victim's coping style towards sexually harassing behavior represents an important component of harassment processes. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1984) coping behavior is dependent on personal, situational and cultural values and beliefs that determine when certain behaviors and feelings are appropriate and when they are not.

With regards to coping and sexual harassment researchers have adopted multidimensional frameworks (Gutek & Koss, 1993; Knapp et al., 1997). The Knapp et al., (1997) framework introduced a two-by-two typology of sexual harassment, based on what they termed focus and mode. Focus refers to whether coping is focused on the self or the perpetrator, and mode refers to whether the victim is supported or unsupported with regards to external assistance that the victim seeks (Knapp et al., 1997; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). Similar to the types of responses identified by Bingham and Scherer (1993), Knapp et al. (1997) also recognised four response strategies for coping with sexual harassment; advocacy seeking (formal complaint, grievances), social support, avoidance/denial and confrontation/negotiation (with perpetrator) (Knapp et al., 1997; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). According to Knapp et al. (1997) advocacy seeking and social coping are supported in terms of mode of response whereas the remaining two are unsupported. In terms of focus, avoidance/denial and social coping are self focused whereas the remaining two are perpetrator focused.

The Knapp et al. (1997) framework was tested only in the Anglo-American context. As such, Wasti and Cortina (2002) conducted their research in the Hispanic-American and Turkish contexts. Although diverse in many aspects there are also similarities between those two groups with regards to social support, patriarchal values, collectivism and power distance (Wasti & Cortina, 2002). Their findings with regards to the four coping strategies, is that they go beyond cultural differences. However, there seem to be some small differences with regards to each of the coping strategies in particular (Wasti & Cortina, 2002). For example, avoidance and denial were found to be distinct from each other in their analysis, they propose that avoidance is a perpetrator-focused unsupported response, where the victim attempts to consciously stay away from the perpetrator; whereas denial is a self-focused "cognitive effort to reject the reality of the situation" by pretending it is not happening or re-evaluating the situation as benign or a joke (Wasti & Cortina, 2002, p.401).

Driven by the lack of models conceptualising responses to sexual harassment in empirical research, Cortina and Wasti (2005) proposed a model of coping strategies consisting of four levels, the individual (harassed victim), the microcontext (immediate harassment situation), the mesocontext (organisation) and the macrocontext (culture and society) (Cortina & Wasti, 2005, p.183). At the individual level, the researchers refer to social power markers that influence victims' vulnerability to sexual harassment such as being young, single and low in education (USMSPB, 1995) and report that women that are harassed due to low socio-cultural power will also be more likely to indicate powerlessness in their coping strategies (Gruber & Bjorn, 1986). The reasons for those responses may lie in the fear of retaliation and low self-efficacy (Cleveland & Kerst,

1993). Therefore, the profiles of women with low social power would have lower advocacy seeking and negotiation coping strategies (Cortina & Wasti, 2005).

At the situational level (microcontext) the severity of the source of stress is a crucial component of the stress and coping literature (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). According to that conceptualisation, the more threatening and severe the incident becomes, the more varied the mechanisms that are used to cope with it will be. In particular, when the stressor is sexual harassment, factors like the frequency, type of harassment (attempted touching, quid-pro-quo, gender harassment) and perpetrator position (co-worker, superior or subordinate) become important in determining the type of coping strategy that will be adopted by the victims (Cortina & Wasti, 2005). Depending on the situational context and the aforementioned factors, Cortina and Wasti propose that the coping strategies will vary from avoidance and denial to the informal social support seeking, to more formal advocacy seeking (2005). Victims facing frequent sexual harassment of a more severe type may engage in social support seeking if the harasser is of higher status, or negotiate with the harasser and seek advocacy if the harasser is of same or lower organisational status (Cortina & Wasti, 2005).

With regards to organisation structure (mesocontext), as previously reviewed, the representation of gender in the workplace is crucial in determining reactions to sexual harassment and coping strategies adopted. If the work setting is predominantly male, then female victims, fearing retaliation and isolation might chose to adopt coping strategies of avoidance or denial. If, on the other hand, the work setting is more varied or has a clear intolerant stance towards sexual harassment, then female victims might feel more capable of adopting advocacy seeking strategies (Cortina & Wasti, 2005).

Finally with regards to culture-specific and societal characteristics (macrocontext), the authors propose that sexual harassment coping strategies will vary dependent on what is culturally and socially acceptable. In particular, in cultures where conflict is avoided and assertiveness is not viewed positively, victims of harassment will be more likely to adopt coping strategies of avoidance or denial, whereas in cultures characterized by collectivism, affiliation and interdependence, victims might chose to seek social support strategies from networks such as friends and family (Cortina & Wasti, 2005).

CONCLUSION

This chapter offers a review of the existing literature surrounding the issue of sexual harassment in the working arena. Sexual harassment is a prevalent phenomenon in societies today, affecting a significant amount of women in workplaces of every kind (Brown, 1998; European Commission, 1998; Gutek, 1985; USMSPB, 1995). The antecedents of sexual harassment in the workplace were identified: the organizational climate, the job-gender context of an organisation, the differences in organisational power and status, perpetrator characteristics and situational factors were investigated in detail (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; Pryor, 1985; Pryor et al., 1993; Willness et al., 2007). The negative effects of sexual harassment on the victims, as well as organisations, were also reviewed (Fitzgerald et al, 1999; Gruber & Smith, 1995; Lapierre et al., 2005; Lengnick-Hall, 1995; Magley, Hulin et al., 1999).

Particular focus was given to the issues surrounding the differing perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment and what victims, as well as lay people, are willing to label as sexually harassing behaviour. It has been established from this review that the

variability in perceptions is dependent on many factors, such as gender, situational context, and severity of the incident, attractiveness and personality (Blumenthal, 1998; Pryor, 1995; Rotundo et al., 2001; Wiener et al., 1997). Also of particular interest were the victims varied responses to sexually harassing situations. It is undisputable that the experiences stemming from the sexually harassing experience are negative and the reactions to such an event are varied, personal and complex. Many factors were shown to be related to women's reactions (emotional and behavioural): organisational status, organisational power, affect (fear, anger, and sadness), self-esteem and organisational tolerance (Adams-Roy & Barling, 1998; Barling et al., 1996; Bingham & Scherer, 1993; Gartner & Macmillan, 1995).

Finally, the work of Arzu Wasti and Lilia Cortina (Wasti & Cortina, 2002; Cortina & Wasti, 2005) was reviewed in detail. Their person and situation oriented approach is of great interest. Having viewed the difficulties inherent in sexual harassment with regards to definitions, gender differences in acknowledgment, situational, perpetrator and organisational characteristics, such a conceptualisation is of great importance in assisting the understanding of the sexual harassment experience from the victims' standpoint and most importantly, what are the components that will influence their responses. This particular attempt to predict women's coping strategies, using an "ecological model" (Cortina & Wasti, 2005, p.190) is important because it shows the different levels of personal and social life sexual harassment affects as well as the factors involved in this conduct, such as the intra-individual, the organisational and the cultural component in coping with this type of severe stressor.

The same harassment situation, can and will elicit differing responses from different victims (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Stockdale et al., 1995). The potential response strategies of women that are affected by sexual harassment are dependent on a variety of factors, such as severity of the event, organizational support, gender-ratio in the workplace, perpetrator status and organizational power and particular affect experienced due to the harassing event (Adams, Roy & Barling, 1998; Gutek, 1985; Ragins & Scandura, 1995; Stockdale et al., Willness et al., 2007).

The focus of this thesis therefore, is on two basic components that stem from the review of the aforementioned literature. The first component is to understand and examine the variability in the coping mechanisms/responses used by potential victims of sexual harassment. What are the defining factors that drive some women to report the harassment and the inhibiting factors that lead some others not to? The second component is to understand the path that leads to these coping mechanisms. The specific appraisal of the situation; what women perceive as sexually harassing is of particular interest and will be investigated as part of the path that leads to the selection of coping strategies.

Finally, the role of the affective state of the victim as a direct result of the harassment and the emotions that are experienced from the sexually harassing event will be investigated. This thesis is interested in how emotions and appraisals influence victims' choices of coping strategies depending on the context of sexual harassment. The research by Wasti and Cortina, although interesting and highly significant, did not consider women's emotional reactions to sexual harassment, the appraisals that produce those emotions and how these influence the selection of coping strategies. The following chapter (Chapter 2) focuses on the analysis of the literature surrounding emotions and

affect. The relationship between appraisals of a situation, the emotional experience stemming from those appraisals, and the resulting behavioural responses is examined in detail. The view of coping strategies as behavioural responses stemming from particular emotional experiences is also conceptualised.

CHAPTER 2

Emotions

This chapter reviews the theory and research on affect and emotions, with specific focus on the emotions of anger and fear. The first part of the chapter gives an overview of definitions and different approaches to the study of emotions. These different approaches then lead to the focus of the second part of the chapter, which is the distinction between primary and secondary emotions, and establishing anger and fear as primordial, negative emotions. The third part of the chapter reviews the appraisal theories of emotions (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991). Appraisal theories suggest that the different ways in which people assess a situation or event lead to specific emotional responses (Scherer, 1999). The fourth part of the chapter focuses on the relationship between the emotional experience and behaviour, with particular focus on action tendencies (Frijda, 1986) Some researchers maintain that there is a direct link between particular emotional experiences and distinct behavioural tendencies (Frijda, 1986; Mackie, Devos & Smith, 2000; Roseman et al., 1994). Action tendencies are reviewed in terms of behavioural tendency measurements in the context of sexual harassment and potential limitations are considered. Finally, coping and its relationship with emotions is investigated (Lazarus, 1991), and coping strategies are reviewed as a potential measurement of behavioural tendencies in the sexual harassment context (Wasti & Cortina, 2002).

INTRODUCTION

As shown in Chapter 1, sexual harassment elicits varied and differing experiences and responses (Stockdale et al., 1995). Women report a wide range of negative affect as a direct response to the sexually harassing experience, ranging from discomfort, fear, severe forms of anxiety, sadness, humiliation and mistrust to post-traumatic stress disorder symptoms (PTSD) (European Commission Report, 1998; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Magley, Hulin et al., 1999). The importance of affect is, therefore, not only evident in everyday life but is also a crucial component in negative experiences such as that of sexual harassment. Nevertheless, there is not much research that has explored the role of emotions and coping in sexual harassment.

It is believed by many that the way people feel indicates, in certain occasions, how they behave as well (Frijda, 1986; Izard, 1977). Therefore, it is essential to examine emotions and their effects in everyday life. How emotions come to be experienced in their variety and also how they may determine different types of behavioural outcomes become important issues for research.

According to many researchers emotions are key components of what is termed as "the human experience". Researchers propose that each emotion is a response to specific stimuli, and these reactions help with the individual's survival (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Ortony, Clore & Collins, 1988; Roseman, 2001). Emotions provide important information about particular events and stimuli to both the self and others. Feelings and thoughts inform the self about specific situations and stimuli, whereas vocal and facial expressions provide important information to others (Clore, 1994). Damasio (1994) also

suggested that emotions are fundamentally related to decision making and reasoning in humans.

Despite the extensive research surrounding the concept of emotions (Frijda, 1986, Izard, 1977; Lazarus, 1991; Ortony et al., 1988), no commonly agreed definition of what emotions are has emerged from this research (Russell & Feldman Barrett, 1999). There are, nevertheless, common threads in the emotions literature, with regards to the complexity of the phenomena associated with the experience of emotions. Most theoretical approaches recognise that emotions are not a simple construct, and that there is an inherent difficulty in extrapolating specific definitions from mere personal descriptions of an emotional experience (Frijda, 1986, Izard, 1977; Ortony et al., 1988). According to many theorists, any inclusive definition of emotions needs to encompass the important components that are commonly agreed as being evident and observable in emotions. These are the conscious feeling of emotion, as reported by people, the processes and parts activated in the brain and nervous system, and the patterns of emotion in terms of physiological reactions, facial expressions, behavioural reactions and outcomes (Izard, 1977; Lazarus, 1991).

As noted above, most theories regard the role of evolution in what is termed as the "emotional experience" and recognise emotions as having functions that contribute to the survival of humans. Scherer (2001) describes emotions as evolved mechanisms that enhance the flexibility between stimuli and the response of the organism. Emotions are collections of responses with complex characteristics that provoke a global change in the state of the organism (Damasio, 1994; 2001); they prepare the body for action (Frijda,

1986) and coordinate the available psychological and physiological resources in order to respond to stimuli (Scherer, 1996).

Although a common and all inclusive definition of what emotions are does not exist to this day, a definition of emotions that will be followed in this thesis is the one proposed by Keltner and Gross (1999, p.468), where emotions are "...episodic, relatively short term, biologically based patterns of perception, experience, physiology, action and communication that occur in response to specific physical and social challenges and opportunities". This definition is one of the most accurate and complete definitions which includes the dynamic, interactive and complex nature of emotions and encompasses all previous definitional elements. It proposes that emotions are reactions to stimuli, and that these reactions are adaptations to problems arising in the human environment. According to Damasio (2000) the range of stimuli that can elicit emotions is unlimited. He proposes that there are numerous stimuli that could invoke the same emotion across individuals and cultures, but there can also be numerous emotional responses to the same stimulus depending on individual and cultural factors.

Despite the lack of a commonly agreed definition, there have been numerous attempts to organise emotions into components, categories or dimensions. Over the last two decades, componential theories of emotions have become widely accepted (Kuppens, VanMechelen, Smits & DeBoeck, 2003). These theories distinguish emotions on the basis of their relationship with a distinctive pattern of components. These components can be, among others; threat, goal obstruction, other-accountability (the self is not accountable), unfairness, control and antagonism. According to Kuppens and colleagues (2003) this distinction between components lies in the evaluation of the situation with

regards to the individual's own needs and goals (Ortony et al., 1988; Roseman, 1984; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Therefore, emotions are characterised by distinct patterns of appraisals or cognitions about a particular situation or stimulus. The relationship between emotions and appraisals will be examined in detail in following sections of this chapter. First, the proposals for distinctions among emotion categories will be reviewed.

Primary and Secondary Emotions

In the attempts to distinguish between the different experiences of affect, many researchers have maintained that there are distinct categories of emotions. However, there are differences in what those distinct categories may be, according to each researcher's background and perspective. Nevertheless, most positions point to a dual distinction between basic/primary and derived/secondary emotions (Lazarus, 1991). According to Lazarus's (1991) review of the literature, primary emotions can be found in most humans and some other mammals, and secondary emotions are considered to be combinations, or blends, of primary emotions with different experiences (Ekman & Friesen, 1975; Frijda, 1986; Plutchik, 1980).

According to Frijda (1986) different types of action readiness correspond to different emotions, and emotions can be defined by the changes in types of action readiness. For example, anger is the urge to recover freedom of action and control. As such, anger could cause the urge to attack or move against the source causing the loss of control. Fear is the urge to avoid or separate the self from aversive and negative events (Frijda, 1986). It can be assumed that the emotions characterised by a change in action readiness, are what is termed as the basic, fundamental or primary emotions (Frijda,

1986). Many also recognise as primary emotions, those emotion that are similar across cultures and individuals, and that are linked to distinct action tendencies or basic reactions (Arnold, 1960; Plutchik, 1980).

According to Russell and Feldman Barrett (1999) there are seven criteria for the categorisation of emotions as primary or secondary. These include facial expressions (i.e. anger, fear and disgust have distinctively different facial expressions), patterns in the autonomic nervous system, cognitive appraisals related to each emotion, cognitive structures involved in the elicitation and expression of the emotion, behavioural reactions and responses (action tendencies), self-reports of the emotion (how the person classifies the emotional episode), and the brain structures and parts that are involved in the emotions (Russell & Feldman Barrett, 1999).

Adding to the difference between primary and secondary emotions, Ortony et al.'s (1988) review posits that some emotions involve less cognitive processing (are more automatic) than others. In their conceptualisation, basic emotions have "less complex specifications and eliciting conditions than others" (Ortony et al., 1988, p.28). They also claim that the difference between some basic emotions lies in the response to these emotions rather than the causes for them (i.e. anger and fear and their difference with respect to approach/avoidance tendencies). Both anger and fear are emotions that arise from negative stimuli (i.e. threat or goal obstruction), both are negative in valence, but they are distinctly different in terms of behavioural reactions.

Ekman and Friesen (1975) and Izard (1977) also made a distinction between primary and secondary emotions based on the manifestation of universal and unambiguous facial expressions that are linked with those emotions. Although there are

differences in what they recognise as basic, there are certain emotions that they agree on, with regards to distinct facial expressions and these are surprise, happiness, anger, fear, sadness and disgust (Ekman & Friesen, 1975; Frijda, 1986; Izard, 1977).

The research surrounding the characteristics of basic emotions has led to the development of some criteria in order to differentiate one emotion from another. According to Ekman (1999), there are four characteristics that differentiate basic emotions. First, there are "distinctive universal signals". According to Ekman (1999) one of the functions of emotions is the communication with others about the state of the organism and what action needs to be taken. For the communication to be effective, and contribute towards the survival of the individual, there need to be clear and unambiguous signals of the state of the organism. The facial and vocal expressions and the action tendencies associated to specific emotions are clear indicators of a particular emotional state. It has been suggested that some emotions have distinct and universal facial expressions (Ekman, 1992; Ekman & Friesen, 1971). The second characteristic proposed by Ekman (1999) is "specific physiology". It has been proposed that some emotions elicit distinctive patterns of activity in the Autonomic Nervous System (ANS) i.e. changes in heart rate (higher heart rate in anger, fear and sadness, lower heart rate in disgust), differences in skin temperature (fear), muscle tension and skin conductance changes (Levenson, 1992). The third characteristic proposed is "automatic appraisal mechanisms". It is proposed that some evaluation of the relevant stimuli is necessary for some basic emotions to occur. Ekman (1977; 1999) posits that, since some intervals between stimuli and emotional responses are incredibly short, there are automatic appraisal mechanisms that require little time to be activated, the person needs not be

aware of them, and therefore the emotional response is faster. Finally, according to Ekman (1999), there are "universal antecedent events" linked with basic emotions.

Taking into account the basic position that emotions have evolved to help individuals with fundamental survival tasks, a reasonable expectation would be that there are common contexts in which emotions arise. Even though the importance of the evolutionary aspect of emotions is recognised, Ekman (1999) considers the contributions of social learning and experiences in recognising and activating the appropriate emotional response. For example, people have learnt that snakes are venomous, potentially dangerous and are to be avoided, and limited exposure to snakes is necessary for most people to report fear towards them. Therefore, learning is crucially involved in selecting which stimuli will activate the individual's defence systems (Ekman, 1999; Öhman, 1986).

More recently, Damasio (2000) proposed three distinct categories of emotions, basic, secondary and background emotions. The distinction of basic emotions was dependent on their physiological links with the limbic system and the amygdala, parts that are closely linked with the evolutionary perspective of survival. They are part of the basic brain mechanism and part of the full emotional experience. These emotions are anger, fear, happiness sadness, surprise and disgust. According to Damasio (1994; 2000), secondary or "social" emotions are subtle variations of the basic emotions mentioned above. Secondary emotions are closely linked to different sets of experiences and are based on a combination of primary emotions and situations/objects. Damasio lists embarrassment, jealousy, pride and guilt as examples of secondary emotions (2000, p.51).

Finally, background emotions are independent of external stimuli and they are induced internally. They last relatively longer periods of time and are there to regulate the relationship between the internal state of the organism and its environment. According to Damasio, well-being, disquiet, calm or tension can be characterised as background emotions (2000). He posits that background emotions are not part of the traditional conceptualisation of emotions. One of their basic characteristics is that they can be detected by subtle details in body posture, eye movements and contractions of facial muscles. For example, people can sense when another individual is discouraged, cheerful or tense, without that person having to communicate those states verbally. It is this particular characteristic of background emotions that Damasio (2000) proposes is their important feature. The verbal communication of background emotions is unnecessary, and they can be retained even in people with neurological damage that otherwise affects emotions (ventromedial frontal or amygdala damage). Background emotions are only affected if the basic level of consciousness is affected.

Despite the differences in theories and approaches of emotions with regards to distinct categories of primary and secondary, most approaches would include anger and fear as basic or primary emotions (Ekman & Friesen, 1975; Frijda, 1986; Izard, 1977; Plutchik, 1980). If the proposed requirements for basic emotions (Ekman ,1999) are to be considered, both emotions have universally recognisable and distinct facial expressions (Ekman & Friesen, 1975), they often have distinct and specific action readiness types (Frijda, 1986) and they elicit distinct changes in the physiology and activation of the ANS (Levenson, 1992).

Anger and Fear

This thesis explores the role of the negative emotions anger and fear in women's experiences and responses to sexual harassment. As such, it is necessary to provide a definition of these two emotions first. Anger is considered to be one of the most powerful of the primary emotions as it has a clear and profound impact on both the person experiencing it and the relationship between that person and his/her environment (Lazarus, 1991). As with every emotion in the past literature, what causes anger is subject to much debate. According to Izard (1977) anger has an activating function in preparing the individual to engage in defensive strategies or general movement against a source that obstructs a particular goal. Anger has been connected in the past literature with the tendency to aggress against potential sources of harm (Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones, 2004; Mackie, Devos & Smith, 2000). It is commonly associated with a perceived threat or a negative and undesirable situation for the individual. The feeling of being physically or psychologically restricted from attaining a particular goal or desire, or the interference with goal oriented behaviour is commonly (although, not universally) thought to elicit feelings of anger (Izard, 1977). However, some researchers believe that in order to experience anger, the threat or negative situation need not be affecting the individual per se, but could well affect other individuals (Lazarus, 1991; Yzerbyt, Dumont, Gordjin & Wigboldus, 2002).

There is no common agreement on what are the necessary requirements for anger to occur (Kuppens et al., 2003). Since the factors associated with the experience of anger appear to be more or less common among people, most theoretical accounts of anger agree that potentially any source (real or symbolic) could elicit anger. This is especially

the case if the perceived outcome or the perceived intention is negative, unfair or undeserved (Berkowitz, 1990).

Fear is an emotion that affects every human being and its effects have been extensively documented (Izard, 1977). Fear can have both negative and positive outcomes. Fear can have detrimental effects on the organism, and produces specific neurophysiological reactions (activation of the amygdala, palpitations and shortness of breath). However, fear can also act as a warning signal against imminent threat that can redirect thought and action (Izard, 1977; Vaitl, Schienle & Stark, 2005; Williams et al., 2001). The causes of fear can be internal or external events and conditions that signal danger and the threat can be physical or psychological. Effectively, fear is associated with a threat to stability and security or the absence of safety (Izard, 1977).

Fear has been linked, or is usually studied in conjunction, with anxiety. According to Lazarus (1991) fear and anxiety are different based on how concrete and sudden they are. Similar to anxiety, Lazarus (1991) states that there is a necessary element of uncertainty and ambiguity in fear, as the harm is potentially always in the future. However, the difference between anxiety and fear is that with the latter, the danger is concrete and sudden and there is limited time for thinking and reflecting whereas with anxiety the danger is symbolic and transient (Lazarus, 1991). Both fear and anxiety have been linked with general tendencies to avoid, escape and distance the self from the source of the threat or danger. Although similar to fear in terms of negative affect, anger is linked with tendencies to move towards and attack the source of danger (Frijda, 1986; Frijda, Kuipers & ter Schure, 1989; Izard, 1977; Lazarus, 1991; Ortony et al., 1988).

Based on the aforementioned components necessary for the experience of anger and fear, the relationship between sexual harassment and these specific emotions as consequences of this phenomenon becomes an important research question. They are the two negative emotions closely related to sexual harassment and widely reported in studies and surveys documenting these experiences in work-related environments (Timmerman & Bajema, 1998). Nevertheless, there are evident differences in situational context with regards to the occurrence of sexual harassment (USMSPB, 1995; European Commission, 1998). There are several factors that have been linked with the phenomenon of sexual harassment, such as type of occupation, marital status, age, perpetrator status, gender ratio in the workplace, organisational support etc. (Willness et al., 2007). Therefore, it becomes a necessity to examine the role of the situational components and how they might shape the affective experience based on people's subjective and differing evaluations.

The Role of Appraisals in Emotions

Appraisals have been defined as the "thoughts and interpretations of whether a situation, action or event appears to be in favour or against an individual's desires and goals and whether that individual has the required means to cope or not with the situation" (Mackie et al., 2000, p.602). Appraisal theories were developed in order to explain the emotions experienced by individuals (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Frijda et al., 1989; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). As indicated by Smith and Ellsworth (1985), emotional experiences differ on an individual basis. There can be numerous emotional reactions

elicited by the same event, and that could be due to many contributing factors, such as personality, temporal differences or changes that occur over time.

A potential problem for emotion theories lies in the opposite phenomenon, where a variety of external or internal stimuli can potentially evoke the same emotional reaction (Roseman & Smith, 2001). All the possible factors that could potentially elicit the same emotional reaction are inherently difficult to measure. Any emotion may occur due to an infinite number of events, novel or recurring, which poses a problem for the evolutionary approaches that claim "that emotions are unconditioned responses to specified stimulus events or are learned via generalisation or association" (Roseman & Smith, 2001, p.4).

Moreover, physiological, behavioural and expressive theories of emotions have not succeeded in explaining what initiates the emotional process (Roseman, 1994; Roseman & Smith, 2001). According to Roseman and Smith (2001), most theories (physiological, expressive, and behavioural) are mainly relying on stimulus responses, which are inept in dealing with the individual, temporal and situational differences present in emotional responses.

Common assumptions of appraisal theories have been developed in order to address the issues reviewed above (Roseman & Smith, 2001). An assumption of appraisal theories is that any given event can be cognitively evaluated in order to generate the appropriate emotional response (Schorr, 2001). Appraisal accounts of emotions state that the elicitation, as well as the variance of emotions, lies in the evaluation of the situational components and circumstances in relation to the individual's own goals and needs (Kuppens et al., 2003; Ortony et al., 1988; Scherer, 1993). Furthermore, appraisal theories explain the variance in emotions present in facial expressions and different

action tendencies, as being produced by different evaluations of events, therefore positing that different patterns of appraisals will give rise to distinct emotions (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 1991; Ortony et al., 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

Moreover, according to appraisal theories, it is the interpretation of an event that elicits the emotion rather than the event per se, therefore accounting for the individual and temporal differences in emotional experiences of the same event (Roseman & Smith, 2001). As such, since the emotion is elicited by the interpretation of the event rather than the event per se, there need not be common features between events for the same emotion to occur; rather there need to be similar interpretations of an event (Roseman & Smith, 2001). By the same token, appraisals precede and generate emotions. Whether the emotion is generated from perceived, recalled or imagined events, the appraisal process is seen as current at any of these stages and initiates the physiological, expressive and behavioural responses necessary for the experience of emotions (Lazarus, 1991; Roseman, 1984; Roseman & Smith, 2001; Smith, 1989).

Lazarus (1966; 2001) proposed a two-stage appraisal system: primary and secondary appraisals. The primary stage involves the evaluation of the relevance as well as the valence of the event. The individual, at this stage, distinguishes whether the event is relevant to his/her own goals and values as well as whether the event is negative or positive. In the case where the event is negative, the individual may experience stress, whereas in the case of a positive event, a pleasant emotional experience may occur (Lazarus, 1966; 2001). In a situation where an event is perceived as irrelevant, Lazarus (2001) proposes that the appraisal process is then interrupted. The secondary appraisal is the stage where individuals assess the abilities and strategies that are necessary to deal

with the event. It is during this process that the person assesses the possible outcomes of the event, and the coping strategies needed to respond. During the secondary appraisal, the emotional experience is determined as a result of this evaluation (Lazarus, 2001).

Although some appraisal models view the appraisals as a continuous process with a predefined sequence of evaluations of events (Scherer, 2001) other appraisal models propose a more flexible sequence (Frijda, 1986; Lazarus, 2001; Roseman, Antoniou & Jose, 1996). Lazarus (2001) maintains that the environment is changing and it can generate new feedback about a situation, or the reaction to the situation itself is subject to change. Therefore, there is a necessity for flexibility in the appraisal process. There needs to be a possibility of reappraising a situation and including new information if necessary. Therefore the primary and secondary appraisals may change according to the changes in the environment and the person's reaction to it (Lazarus; 2001).

It is commonly agreed, in most appraisal theories, that some cognitive elements are present in the appraisal process. However, the amount and the primacy of those cognitive elements still remain unclear. Some appraisal models propose a continuous checking process with a predetermined sequence of evaluations of the relevant stimuli (Stimulus Evaluation Checks) (Scherer, 2001). The evaluations include four types of information: relevance, novelty check, intrinsic pleasantness and goal relevance. First, in terms of relevance, the organism evaluates all the incoming information and decides whether the stimulus merits further processing and whether it is important for its well-being. With regards to novelty check, if the stimulus is new, it may require attention. As such, the organism will try to match the stimulus to pre-existing familiar schemas in order to predict the likely outcomes. Intrinsic pleasantness is considered a basic reaction of the

organism. Pleasantness can encourage approach and unpleasantness can elicit avoidance. Finally, in goal relevance, there is an evaluation of the importance of the stimuli. This depends on the situation, time and relevance to the survival and well-being of the organism (Scherer, 2001).

Although there are differences in appraisal theories with regards to the primacy of the processes necessary to appraise a situation, as well as how many processes are involved, most models argue that once the appraisal stage is complete, the expected outcome is an emotional reaction that will prepare the organism to engage in action or avoid a situation (Schorr, 2001). Therefore, some suggestions have been put forward about what appraisals elicit the emotions of anger and fear.

Appraisals of Anger

Anger that is directed towards an individual is typically thought of as resulting from particular appraisals. In this case, the self is perceived to be harmed by another. Anger is usually related to a general tendency to aggress against the agent that is perceived as responsible for the negative situation (Ortony & Turner, 1990). According to some appraisal theories (Frijda, 1986), the key factor that determines the experience of anger is the perceived control and strength that the self has against the instigator of the negative event. When the self is perceived as having the relevant resources to react, then anger is the most likely emotion that is going to be experienced. In contrast, when the self is perceived to be weak against the instigator then the most likely emotions to be experienced are fear and anxiety (Frijda, 1986; Scherer, 1988).

However, the idea that anger is experienced only when having the necessary means and resources to react, has come to be considered rather simplistic. This is especially the case when one considers the universality of anger as an emotion (Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones, 2004). Anything and anyone can potentially be thought as a source for anger, depending on the perception of threat or hindrance (Berkowitz, 1990). Having the relative power to react need not be a prerequisite for anger. Indeed, many studies looking at control and power and their relationship with anger have produced varying and contradictory results (Frijda et al., 1989; Kuppens, et al., 2003; Roseman, Spindel & Jose, 1990).

Kuppens, et al. (2003) looked at the specific components necessary for the experience of anger in terms of appraisals. Their analysis was based around five components, four of which were appraisals and one of which was an action tendency. According to Kuppens and his colleagues (2003), although both are equally important components in the experience and management of emotions, appraisals are considered as the cognitive prerequisites or contents of an emotion whereas action tendencies are more linked to the action/behavioural side of emotions (Frijda et al., 1989). Their first appraisal was "goal obstacle" (whether the goal of the individual is obstructed), which is recognised as an important appraisal for the experience of anger and anger related emotions. Aggression is also found to be triggered by frustration, undesirable events and goal obstruction (Izard, 1977; Ortony et al., 1988; Roseman, 1984; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985; Smith & Lazarus, 1993).

The second appraisal tested was "other accountability" or otherwise termed as agency, where someone else is perceived as the cause of the undesirable event, (Frijda,

1986; Ortony et al., 1988; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). This is important in distinguishing between self-accountability elicited emotions such as guilt and shame and other-accountability emotions such as anger and contempt (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988). The third appraisal tested was "unfairness", what has been found to be an integral appraisal in anger elicitation in numerous studies (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Frijda et al., 1989). According to Kuppens et al. (2003), this appraisal is closely related to judgements of illegitimacy, which has also been found to be a determinant of anger (i.e. Roseman et al., 1990; Weiss, Suckow & Cropanzano, 1999).

The final appraisal tested was that of "control", and even though there have been contradicting results with regards to its relationship with the experience of anger; some researchers believe it to be an important component (Lerner & Keltner, 2000; 2001). Finally, in terms of behavioural tendencies linked to emotions, there has been extensive research conducted by Nico Frijda and his colleagues (Frijda, 1986; Frijda et al., 1989), as well as Lazarus (1991) associating anger with "antagonistic action tendencies": a general proclivity to move against an unpleasant target, and remove an unpleasant situation, or obstacle (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Frijda, 1986).

The findings of Kuppens and colleagues suggest that anger was indeed associated with a distinct pattern of appraisals, like goal obstacle, accountability of other and unfairness as well as suggesting a link between antagonistic action tendencies (although in this particular research this represented "wanting to express opposition"). In particular, the accountability of another person instead of the self was shown to be specific to the experience of anger (Kuppens et al., 2003). Unfairness did not appear uniquely related to anger as it was also found to be related to sadness as well. However, what the researchers

termed "arrogant entitlement", meaning seizing something when having no right to do so, as a component of unfairness was found to be specific to anger (Kuppens et al., 2003). Control was not found to be associated with anger in their study (Kuppens et al., 2003). According to Kuppens et al. (2003), previous research has found the relationship between control and anger to be inconclusive, with both positive and no-association between them. In their study control was positively associated with shame, which they explain as linked with internal causal attribution, based on the fact that there is no control over what has happened or will happen in the future (Kuppens et al., 2003).

The emotion of anger has not been specifically measured or linked with sexual harassment. However, the components that have been linked to the experience of anger can easily be linked to the sexual harassment experience. Sexual harassment can be viewed as unwanted behaviour (for a review see Chapter 1). The unfairness of sexual harassment for women is evident in many reports and qualitative data surrounding the phenomenon (European Commission, 1998). Goal obstruction is equally evident, where job advancement, permeability as well as enjoyment in the workplace are severely compromised by sexually harassing incidents (see Chapter 1). Therefore, it could be proposed that, if the aforementioned are components that are linked with the experience of anger, then anger is a likely emotion to be experienced as a response to sexually harassing events.

Although relationships between specific appraisals and the emotional experience of anger were established, what was not found in Kuppens et al. (2003) was a separate, specific condition that was sufficient enough or necessary for anger to occur. Although their findings suggest that anger does not occur in the absence of all the examined

appraisals, it does not need all of those components in order to occur. Even a single appraisal is enough for the elicitation of anger. In this thesis, the research will focus on perceived injustice or unfairness as an appraisal of sexual harassment.

Appraisals of Fear

The necessary conditions for fear to occur are relatively more distinct and clear-cut than those of anger. The bulk of the research regarding appraisals of fear is located in multi-level and neurobiological theories of emotions (Teasdale, 1999). Multi-level theories of cognition and emotion offer accounts that are focused on the neural mechanisms that mediate the elicitation of emotions (Teasdale, 1999). LeDoux (1998) reports that fear is the most clearly understood emotion with regards to its neural basis and the brain mechanisms that are involved in its elicitation.

LeDoux (1989; 1995) proposed that in the case of fear, emotional responses and conscious experiences of emotion are a product of affective computations of a network located in the amygdala. According to LeDoux (1995), affective computations derive information about the biological significance of a stimulus for the organism (threatening or not), and lead to behavioural or autonomic responses (increased heart rate, fleeing; LeDoux, 1995; Teasdale, 1999). According to Vaitl et al (2005, p1), "...fear is an aversive emotional state elicited by threatening cues". They claim that during this state, perception is automatically activated in order to detect danger as effectively as possible and initiate the appropriate motor behaviours necessary to cope with the threat.

The components recognised as necessary for fear to occur are threat, uncertainty about the stimulus, the situation, the outcome, the ability to cope and general lack of

control or power (Frijda, 1986; Frijda et al., 1989; Roseman, 1991). According to Frijda there can be many types of fear depending on the type of harm that is anticipated, the duration of the threat, the potential of avoidance or escape, the lack of control and the relative power of the threatening source against the self (1986). Unfamiliar and unusual stimuli, environmental instability and loss of support are also known factors to evoke fear in humans (Frijda, 1986).

Scherer (1997) tested emotion-antecedent appraisals and their generalisability across cultures and the findings of those studies confirmed that fear is elicited by sudden and unexpected events that are caused by other people, which go against the main goals of survival and bodily integrity. Fear was also associated with a general feeling of powerlessness. However, he reports that the predictions regarding fear were the least well-supported out of the ones he tested for, suggesting a lack of distinctiveness in the appraisal profile and perhaps even a dimension of the appraisals as missing (Scherer, 1997, p.141).

In terms of the role of fear in sexual harassment, Dougherty (1999) reports a complex array of fears women experience in their organisational routines. Two of those fears regarding sexual harassment are the threat of physical harm and the threat of lost relationships and their resulting consequences. Dougherty focuses on those two fears because of what she reports is inherent in sexual harassment experiences, and that is the obstacle they pose to any productive dialogue between women and men (1999). Men, she claims, fear the marginalisation emanating from sexual harassment policies, whereas women fear the loss of connection with others as well as the isolation and powerlessness that emerges from that loss. Dougherty claims that women gain their power via the

connection and communication with others in the workplace, hence, the threat of such a loss becomes highly distressing (1999).

Limitations of Appraisal Theories

Although the appraisal theories have contributed to a better understanding of the emotional process as a whole, they are not free of limitations. An important assumption of appraisal theories is that once the appraisals of an event are activated, an emotion will be elicited. Nevertheless, most theoretical models do not consider the presence of two or more emotions concurrently. Lazarus (1991) proposed a process of re-appraisal, by which the evaluation of stimuli, situations and actions can be repeated. Nevertheless, there still is no clear prediction whether appraisals of situations, stimuli and actions can elicit more than one emotion simultaneously.

Furthermore, according to appraisal theories there must be a cause or an external agent for the experience of most emotions. In particular, they argue that there must be a cause in order to experience anger (Berkowitz & Heimer, 1989; Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Frijda et al., 1989; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Berkowitz and Heimer (1989) have provided empirical evidence suggesting that anger can be elicited by factors that are quite dissimilar from those proposed in the appraisal prerequisites. For example, exposure to aversive conditions, like foul odours, high temperatures or unpleasant scenes can elicit anger and aggressive behaviour (Berkowitz, 1990; Berkowitz & Heimer, 1989).

Berkowitz (1989) attempted to address the above inconsistencies by developing a new theoretical model of emotions; the Cognitive Neoassociationistic Model. Berkowitz's (1989; 1990) approach attempted to explain the relationship between the

initial negative affect and the angry feelings that result from that affect. According to this model, any unpleasant event (high temperature, pain, frustration or stress) can potentially trigger anger, hostility or aggression. Berkowitz (1990) claims that the basic fear experience develops from an individual's conscious and preconscious awareness of escape-related reactions, whereas the basic aggression-related feelings develop the anger experience. Therefore, the basic fear and anger experiences do not produce fearful or aggressive behaviour per se. Instead, Berkowitz claims they parallel the escape and aggressive motor tendencies that are elicited by the negative affect (1990).

This procedure occurs through a multi-stage process where the initial response to a negative event is negative affect. Negative affect then produces at least two different expressive, motor or physiological reactions; i.e. a tendency to fight/attack or a tendency to flight/escape. This then leads to either the basic anger or basic fear experience. Berkowitz's model (1989; 1990) proposes that all cognitive processes come into play only after the aforementioned stage. Thus, cognitive evaluations of the event take place and could give shape to the final emotional experience.

The positive contribution of this model is that it can account for the speed or potential automaticity of some emotional responses. When individuals are presented with aversive or negative stimuli, negative affect will be produced without the need for any cognitive processing. Therefore, the processes that are related to avoidance or approach/aggression can transpire simultaneously. This experienced negative affect can then be changed, increased or altered depending on further cognitive processing of the situation or event. Hence, the model proposes that the separation of emotions occurs in

later stages, and only after further cognitive processing of the event has taken place (Berkowitz, 1989, 1990).

The Cognitive Neoassociationistic Model (Berkowitz, 1989, 1990) attempts to advance predictions concerning the relationship of anger with other emotions. The model's proposal that the separation of emotions occurs only after cognitive processing could explain why two or more negative emotions can co-exist simultaneously. It also highlights the important role of another component in the emotional experience: the behavioural tendency that stems from cognitive processing and the emotions.

Based on the review of the appraisal literature above, it is apparent that there are distinct cognitions and interpretations of any given situation that can vary individually, temporally and situationally, and that this is an essential preceding component of the emotional experience. The next theoretical question that also emerges from the literature, regards how individuals cope with the emotional experience. The question is what shapes their behavioural reaction towards the situation, event or target of the emotional experience? With particular focus on the sexual harassment experience, the link between appraisals of the harassing incidents (intricately linked with situational context) and the negative emotional component directly related to these appraisals are an interesting and valuable research theme for this thesis.

Emotion and Behaviour: Action Tendencies

As reviewed previously, emotion theorists have tried to distinguish between the specific emotions felt towards a particular target and the behaviour that can emanate from those emotions. In particular, research on appraisals and emotions (Frijda, 1986; Smith &

Ellsworth, 1985) has brought forward the idea of personal emotions as "complex reactions to particular events and contexts that can include distinct cognitions, feelings and consequently, distinct action tendencies" (Mackie et al., 2000, p.602).

Frijda (1986) defines action tendencies as "intention like events…consisting of a readiness to execute action; they involve activation of a class of responses from among the subject's response repertoire and they consist of readiness […] to achieve or maintain a given kind of relationship with the environment" (p.75). In theories of emotions, many emotional experiences have been linked to characteristic and specific patterns of behaviour. These include a tendency to avoid and move away from a source or situation when feeling fear, a tendency to avoid interaction with someone when feeling disgust or contempt, and a tendency to move against a source of goal obstruction or distress when feeling anger (Frijda, 1986; Frijda et al., 1989; Shaver, Schwarz, Kirson & O'Connor, 1987; Roseman, Wiest & Schwarz, 1994).

According to Roseman et al. (1994), emotions are as easily distinguished by the action tendencies related to them, as they are by the affective characteristics attributed to them. They argue that all emotions can be seen as having a behavioural component, which can sometimes be manifested and evident but it can also be suppressed, controlled, or overridden by different processes, situational or individual, depending on particular occasions. For example, aggressing in anger could be constrained by individual factors required for the action to be carried out (i.e., the physical force necessary to aggress against a particular target) or by social sanctions imposed to regulate behaviour (i.e., harm to persons or property). This may result in the person not aggressing in the end, but it is not necessarily implied that the behavioural inclination or intention was not present

in the first place, or that it did not emanate from the emotional experience (Roseman et al., 1994).

According to Roseman and colleagues, emotional behaviour "may have evolved to be dependent on the joint occurrence of an emotion and specific external or internal stimulus conditions" (1994, p.216). This conceptualisation of the relationship between emotions and behaviour also indicates that the emotion serves to increase the readiness to engage in different actions depending on different conditions. For example when fear is experienced, avoiding the target of threat, or fleeing the scene would occur only if the condition allowed for escape, if alternatively, escape was not an option, perhaps immobility would occur (Roseman et al., 1994).

Lerner and Keltner (2001) conducted two studies based on a framework (Lerner & Keltner 2000) that links emotion-specific appraisals to a broad range of what they term as "judgment and choice outcomes" (2001, p.146). They believe that emotions trigger changes in the physiology and cognition of humans, and prepare them for action but often persist further than the eliciting stage. They proposed that this persistent emotional state gives rise to subsequent behaviour in goal-consistent ways, towards a broad spectrum of objects or events (Lerner & Keltner, 2001). They specifically looked into anger and fear and their relationship with risk preferences in terms of action tendencies. They posit, drawing on Smith and Ellsworth's (1985) theory that anger and fear, although similar in negative valence and perhaps even intensity of affect, differ significantly in locus of control and certainty; When the individual has control over the situation (individual control), there is certainty of outcome and anger is more likely to occur; When the individual perceives having no control over the situation (situational control), there is

uncertainty of outcome and fear is more likely to arise (Lerner & Keltner, 2001). Furthermore, they assume that each emotion will activate a predisposition to appraise future similar events in a similar fashion (appraisal tendency).

On a similar thread, Lerner and Keltner (2001) assume that appraisal tendency will define the effects of the emotion on judgements and choice. Using the Johnson and Tversky (1983) "perception of risk questionnaire" their participants were presented with certain events that lead to deaths each year and they had to make estimations on which events lead to what number of deaths. Their results showed that dispositionally angry people made consistently more optimistic risk assessments and fearful people made more pessimistic risk assessments (Lerner & Keltner, 2000). In their later studies (2001), the overall findings again suggested that there were strong differences between anger and fear in terms of judgements. The certainty and control that was associated with anger led individuals to make more risk-seeking choices. The uncertainty and lack of control associated with fear led individuals to make more risk-averse (certainty enhancing) choices.

Their findings also indicate a mediating role of appraisal tendencies in the relationship between emotion and judgements. They consistently found the same patterns for fear and anger with regards to risk assessments. Their findings show that differing appraisals of certainty and locus of control define anger and fear and consequently give rise to distinct perceptions of risk, something that could have numerous consequences and effects on decision making and behaviour (Lerner & Keltner, 2000; 2001).

Further evidence on the mediating role of emotions in the relationship between appraisals and action tendencies is offered by the research of Yzerbyt and colleagues,

(Yzerbyt, Dumond, Wigboldus & Gordijn, 2003) conducted on the intergroup level. Their findings indicate that when participants were faced with an injustice towards an individual, they felt angrier when they were made aware of the similarities in group membership between themselves and the victim. Furthermore, they found that in the common group conditions, participants showed a higher likelihood of moving against the source of injustice. Their analyses showed that anger influenced offensive action tendencies, indicating a relationship between the emotion of anger and the action tendency to move against a source of injustice.

In the research surrounding affective experiences, it has been widely believed by many academics that emotions have a direct causal link to behaviour. Some claim that emotions serve to inhibit or control action (Frijda, 1986), some others claim that they are mere labels humans give to their dispositions to behave in specific ways (Booth & Pennebaker, 2000, Solomon, 2000), and some believe that emotion and behaviour are intrinsically related and develop steadily together over time (Izard & Ackerman, 2000).

However, other emotion researchers question the direct causal link between emotion and behaviour (Baumeister et al., 2007). With particular respect to the evolutionary aspect of emotions, they comment that emotions may have evolved initially to directly control behaviours. However, in humans, the evolution of a more complex cognitive system, and the capacity to self regulate has changed that causal relationship. One further criticism they pose is that previous research has focused on negative emotions and behavioural tendencies, whereas positive emotions are largely neglected (Baumeister et al., 2007).

Baumeister and colleagues (2007) based on a review of the past literature on emotions and behaviour, come to favour an alternative theory on the emotion and behaviour relationship. They propose an input of the emotions to the control of behaviour rather than a direct causal link. They claim that a direct causal link is a simplistic view of the relationship of emotion and behaviour, as many emotions are not found to lead directly to behaviour or action per se, and the behaviours that do occur whilst in an emotional state, often neglect important information and can often be maladaptive (Baumeister et al., 2007). Furthermore, they claim that in many cases where direct causal relationships of specific emotions and specific behaviours have been shown empirically, the behavioural pattern or action tendency reported often shows conscious processing. They claim that the action tendencies are based on the expectations of a change in affect as a direct result of the behaviour, rather than simply feeling and then acting.

The aforementioned point may play an important role in explaining behavioural tendencies and action patterns in sexually harassing incidents. A review of the literature shows that sexual harassment is a crime that involves negative emotions, and the consequences for the victims are deleterious and varied (for a full review see Chapter 1). Reporting of sexually harassing behaviours is shown to be significantly low (USMSPB, 1995; European Commission Report, 1998). The observation of Baumeister and colleagues (2007) may help to understand the seeming discrepancy between the various emotional experiences reported by women in the workplace and their consequent decisions on how to act. Since sexual harassment is a crime involving many different factors for working women (job related reprisals, job dissatisfaction and alienation), the

presence of complex cognitive processes behind decision making and action tendencies becomes evident.

Baumeister and colleagues (2007) favour an evaluative function of emotions, in which emotions can serve as feedback. The direct impact of the emotion is to stimulate the cognitive processing rather than behaviour itself. In order to reach the theoretical conceptualisation of emotions as feedback, they make a distinction between what they term "automatic affect" and "conscious emotion". Automatic affect is essentially a quick, automatic feeling of whether something is positive or negative (valence) and whether there is like or dislike. This type of affect is usually aroused almost automatically in response to a stimulus. Conscious emotion is a more complex and slow process involving the full blown subjective emotional experience, combined with cognitive processing, and physiological reactions (Baumeister et al., 2007). Those two components are interrelated but whereas automatic affect can lead to immediate avoidance or approach tendencies, conscious emotion is what influences the cognitive processes that are then inputted into decision making and action or behaviour regulation.

With respect to sexual harassment, a link between the affective model of sexual harassment (Stockdale et al., 1995) and the "automatic affect" becomes evident. The negativity and the dislike of the behaviour or event are always present for women and sometimes are reported to be more important than the type of the sexually harassing behaviour (Stockdale et al., 1995). Women will report the negativity of sexually harassing incidents in their majority, even if they are not willing to give a label to the experience as sexual harassment (Fitzgerald, 1996; Stockdale et al., 1995). However, the importance of the "conscious emotion" and the cognitive mechanisms and assessments

involved in it, are of great research interest for the purposes of this thesis. Conscious emotions and appraisals are linked with potential behavioural tendencies. The current thesis focuses on what the victims' behavioural tendencies will be, and what role emotions and appraisals play.

According to Baumeister and colleagues (2007) people may rely on a feedback system of already learned or experienced behaviour that could guide decision making on an if-then basis of anticipated outcome. Emotion that has already been experienced by that outcome, be that positive or negative, may serve as guidance for future behaviour accordingly (Gollwitzer, 1999). Anticipation of emotional outcome is therefore, a key aspect of this theoretical account. People will learn to anticipate feedback and may therefore alter their behaviour accordingly. This approach is not limited by a need for predicting specificity of behavioural outcomes, as according to the theory, the behaviour has already occurred. This theory is flexible with regards to the processing of emotions and their relationship with behaviour.

Furthermore, the theory's position of taking into account the complexity of the societal environment is what makes it useful for the adaptation to real life studies but also what makes it theoretically plausible and interesting to investigate (Baumeister et al., 2007). It is however, a new theoretical position, that needs to be empirically tested and therefore, no assumptions about its validity can be made at this point. Nevertheless, this flexibility in taking account the complexity of the societal structures and the different components that influence behavioural tendencies and actions is what makes it an interesting theoretical account to integrate with research surrounding the phenomenon of sexual harassment. On the basis of this theory, it can be predicted that appraisals and

emotions will be found to be related, but also that they will be distinct predictors of behavioural tendencies.

As mentioned in previous paragraphs, a behavioural outcome that is often expected in sexual harassment, but more rarely seen, is that of reporting the harassing incident. There are many reasons that have been identified as to why the reporting trends of sexual harassment are low and why women are reluctant to report or react to sexual harassment. Appraisals of different situations in the workplace, as well as cognitive processes of previous feedback (i.e. the "if, then" conceptualisation), are evidently involved in many studies on sexual harassment although not explicitly measured as such. For instance, permissiveness of the environment toward sexually harassing behaviours or the negative procedural aspects involved in reporting, are factors often involved in sexual harassment experiences (Bergman, Langhout, Palmieri, Cortina & Fitzgerald, 2002).

Emotion and Behaviour: Coping Strategies

The coping literature is evidently fitting with the sexual harassment research as noted in Chapter 1, especially with regards to behavioural intentions. According to Lazarus (1991), coping consists of complex but specific cognitive and behavioural attempts to deal with external and internal stimuli/situations that are often appraised as challenging or potentially exceeding the resources of the person (Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Although coping can be viewed as stemming from a negative emotion itself, it is more directed at changing the conditions responsible for eliciting the emotion and/or effectively altering the negative emotion itself. Lazarus (1991) views coping as

being activated by a negative emotion, but also views it as affecting both the re-appraisal of a situation and the emotion that follows that re- appraisal, therefore, being a "causal antecedent of the emotion that follows" (p.112).

Coping is a complex, multifaceted process that is dependent on and sensitive to the environment and also to individual differences and personality dispositions (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). Coping can affect emotions in two ways; by changing the actual relationship between the source of distress and the individual (problem-focused coping), or by changing the way the problem or source is attended to (emotion-focused coping; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Although the first coping style can be viewed as more action oriented, the second one, even though it is more internal-restructuring (i.e. changing the meaning of the threat), it is not passive per se. Emotion-focused coping changes the emotion involved, and can, therefore, be viewed as an emotional reaction (Lazarus, 1991).

Reviewing the coping literature makes the link between coping and appraisal difficult to disentangle. Lazarus (1991) points to the fact that coping refers to what the person does to deal with an emotional experience, and appraisal is an assessment of what might be thought or done in that experience. In this regard, the similarities between the two processes become apparent. However, Lazarus (1991) proposes that the relationship between them is somewhat circular and interlinked if one takes the appraisal-emotion-coping relationship as ongoing in any given event. Appraisals influence coping mechanisms but coping mechanisms may then change the appraisal by the change they cause in the person-stimulus/environment relationship. Coping is therefore explained by

Lazarus (1991) as an appraisal in its self, but one that is self-generated and focused on the individual and therefore different to the initial appraisal of a situation.

It is clear that coping has a profound association with emotions, and specifically emotions of negative valence, in terms of self-regulation. From the stress and coping literature it is apparent that coping strategies are varied and largely dependent on individual characteristics, especially as they are dependent on the appraisals of the stressful encounters (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). However, as Folkman and Moskowitz (2004) state, there is inherent difficulty in researching the long and short-term effects of coping in terms of psychological and behavioural outcomes, as coping is a complex and dynamic relationship between the individual and the environment and the variations present in those two factors.

Coping is expected to lead to effective strategies of dealing with problems causing distress and promoting well-being. Coping has been found to be largely dependent on the contextual approach in which it is investigated; therefore, an assessment of its effectiveness becomes difficult if it is not evaluated under the specific context in which they occur (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004). For instance, a specific coping strategy may work for a particular situation, but may not be as successful in another, and that could well be linked with the appraisals of that situation (i.e. controllability). Therefore, the flexibility of coping strategies adopted is largely dependent on appraisals of the contextual factors involved in each situation.

Although coping strategies are closely related to appraisals, they can also be viewed in terms of behavioural tendencies, especially in the conceptualisation proposed by Knapp (1997) and Wasti and Cortina (2002) with regards to sexual harassment (for a

review see Chapter 1). The review of both literatures of sexual harassment and emotions helps to shed a light in the, up to now, unexplored relationship between appraisals, emotions and behavioural tendencies with regards to sexual harassment experiences. The different situational, contextual and hierarchical components that are evident and have been extensively researched in organisational settings (Bergman et al., 2002; Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; Dougherty, 1999; Gutek, 1985; Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Willness et al., 2007), give rise to potentially different sets of appraisals on behalf of the victim of sexual harassment. Moreover, the negative consequences in terms of affect and psychological effects have been extensively documented (Lapierre et al., 2005; Kelly, 1988; Willness et al., 2007) and the different coping strategies adopted by women in order to manage the experience of sexual harassment have been documented as well (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). However, in the research conducted by Wasti and Cortina (2002; 2005) and others, the role of emotions in the relationship between sexual harassment and coping strategies was not investigated. When reviewing the literature on emotions and behavioural tendencies, the necessity to investigate the role of emotions and appraisals in the sexual harassment context becomes clear. It seems inappropriate to discuss sexual harassment without a reference to the emotions experienced with it.

CONCLUSION

This chapter reviewed the theory and research on the topic of emotions, appraisals and behavioural tendencies. Particular focus was given to the emotions of anger and fear due to their proposed link with the sexually harassing experience. Specific and important

differences between anger and fear in terms of action tendencies and appraisals were shown (Frijda, 1986; Frijda et al., 1989; Izard, 1977; Lazarus, 1991). Despite the aforementioned differences, anger and fear are often observed or considered closely together in research and theory, since they are both in the category of negative affect (Lazarus, 1991; Ortony et al., 1988). Both anger and fear have important social functions that involve communicating intentions to fellow humans, alert the self and others about potential dangers and help to maintain social order and social groups.

Appraisal theories of emotions focus significantly on identifying the several characteristics present in the elicitation of emotions. Appraisal theories suggest that cognitive evaluations of a situation are paramount in the emergence of emotions and rely on the cognitive processing of information to a large extent. A substantial amount of research and empirical evidence investigates not only the value of appraisals, but also the possible responses to a situation or event arising from those appraisals.

However, appraisal theories do not offer clear predictions of whether actions or events are capable of eliciting more than one emotion. The cognitive neoassociationistic model (Berkowitz, 1989; 1990) is proposed as an alternative approach, due to its capacity to predict correlations between emotions (particularly anger and fear). Furthermore, appraisal theories are vague about the seeming contradiction between emotional responses that are thought to be fast, and the cognitive processes in appraisals which are thought to be cognitively laborious and demanding. The cognitive neoassociationistic model offers some possible answers, proposing that basic negative affect takes place before the cognitive analysis of a situation/stimulus.

The relationship between emotions and particular behavioural tendencies has also been reviewed in this chapter. Many believe that emotions have a behavioural component and are characterised by the particular action tendencies that are associated with them (Roseman, 1991; Roseman et al., 1994). Anger has been linked to offensive action tendencies whereby an individual will move against a potential source of threat. Fear has been linked to avoidance tendencies, whereby an individual will avoid or move away from a potential source of threat (Frijda, 1986; Mackie et al., 2000; Roseman et al., 1994). A direct causal link between emotion and behaviour has been supported by many researchers in the field, especially with regards to the role of emotions in behavioural control and development (Frijda, 1986; Izard & Ackerman, 2000). There are however, some researchers that propose a feedback system, where emotions, rather than causing behaviour directly, provide an input and evaluation system by stimulating the cognitive processing (Baumeister et al., 2007).

Finally, the role of coping in the emotional process has been investigated. Coping is a complex process that can affect emotions in two ways: by changing the relationship between the source of distress and the individual (problem-focused coping) or by changing the way the problem or source is attended to (emotion focused coping) (Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Coping is expected to lead to effective strategies of dealing with problems that cause distress, and has been applied in many contexts, including that of sexual harassment, which is of particular importance to this thesis. Therefore the relationship between appraisals, emotions and behavioural tendencies (action tendencies or coping strategies) in the sexual harassment context is the research focus of this thesis.

CHAPTER 3

<u>Sexual Harassment, Emotions and Appraisals</u>

The purpose of this chapter is to provide a brief overview of the theories and research discussed in the previous two chapters. Potential links between the sexual harassment literature and the research surrounding the topic of emotions, appraisals and particular behavioural tendencies will be provided. Finally, the contributions that the current thesis aims to accomplish with regard to both the sexual harassment literature and the emotions research will be outlined along with the research hypotheses developed and the structure of this thesis.

INTRODUCTION

Research on the topic of sexual harassment has verified the prevalence and pervasiveness of the phenomenon in society today. Sexual harassment affects a wide spectrum of people, and is a form of sexist discrimination that possibly affects the greatest proportion of the population (Bargh et al., 1995). It has been noted that sexually harassing and coercive behaviours are more prevalent than the more physically violent forms of aggression (Spitzberg, 1999). Approximately one out of every two women has experienced some form of sexually unwanted behaviour (European Commission, 1998).

Despite the concerns about the lack of a commonly accepted and parsimonious definition of sexual harassment (European Commission, 1998; The Irish Presidency et al., 2004) the negative and deleterious effects of sexual harassment on a personal and organisational level are unquestionable and thoroughly documented in the literature. In

terms of the psychological effects of sexual harassment, employees report negative consequences for their personal well-being as a direct result of falling victims of sexual harassment (Fitzgerald et al., 1997). Many harassed employees report experiencing a great range of emotions including anger, fear, sadness, depression, humiliation and mistrust. Many also report psychosomatic symptoms as a direct consequence of sexual harassment at work such as headaches, palpitations, muscle pains and sleeping disruptions, as well as symptoms related to post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Equal Opportunities Commission, 1998; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Magley, Hulin et al., 1999; Willness, et al, 2007). Sexual harassment has also been documented to have a detrimental effect at the organisational level as well. Job satisfaction, commitment to the organisation and worker productivity have been shown to be greatly reduced as a result of sexually harassing experiences (Lapierre et al.,2005; Lengnick-Hall, 1995; Wilness et al., 2007).

Overview of Research and Scope of This Thesis

The finding above strongly indicates that investigating the causes of sexual harassment, but also investigating how women respond to various sexual harassment incidents are of great importance. Previous research has focused on the contexts under which sexual harassment is likely to occur. In particular, in terms of antecedents, an organisational climate that is tolerant of sexual harassment and organisations where women are a numerical minority have been considered as strong predictors of sexual harassment (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Wasti et al., 2000; Williams et al., 1999; Willness et al., 2007).

Research has also focused on the type of perpetrators that are more likely to sexually harass. Researchers have demonstrated that the mental concepts of sex and power are found to be associated in men with a high likelihood to sexually harass (Pryor, 1987; Pryor et al., 1993; Pryor & Stoller, 1994). In male-dominated professions, harassers are more likely to be colleagues, whereas in female-dominated professions the harasser is more likely to be a supervisor (European Commission, 1998). Men's likelihood to sexually harass has been shown to be related to several attitudes and gender-related traits (Pryor, 1987; Pryor et al., 1993; Pryor & Stoller, 1994). Men with a high likelihood to sexually harass have been found to hold adverse beliefs about acceptable sexual behaviour, endorse rape-myths, and generally are more accepting of interpersonal violence (Begany & Millburn, 2002). Furthermore, men with a high likelihood to sexually harass have difficulty in perspective-taking, score low in social desirability and high in authoritarianism (Driscoll et al., 1998). Finally, high likelihood to sexually harass is also related to gender stereotyping, more traditional views regarding gender roles, negative attitude towards feminism and a propensity to take advantage of others (Lee et al., 2003).

Although the concept of power is central to the understanding of sexual harassment, and it is widely believed that the position of power within an organisation is what enables some perpetrators to make requests of a subordinate, superior to subordinate sexual harassment is of lesser frequency (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; European Commission, 1998; USMSPB, 1995). The most frequent type of sexual harassment is that between co-workers, which is somewhat perplexing in terms of power differentials (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; European Commission, 1998; USMSPB, 1995). No clear

power differences are evident between colleagues. However, Cleveland and Kerst (1993) have argued that the issue lies within the concept of perceived power and not actual power. There are covert ways of exercising power over a colleague, by using gender harassment, thus devaluating the female, making the environment hostile or withholding support and aid (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993).

There has been extensive research on the negative consequences of sexual harassment on its victims (Willness et al., 2007). However, there has been limited research focusing on how women cope with sexual harassment and what strategies they are likely to adopt as a response to being sexually harassed (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). More recent work has attempted to link sexual harassment and the coping literature (Wasti & Cortina, 2002). This research has shown that women are likely to use a variety of coping mechanisms to deal with sexual harassment depending on the context and the severity of the behaviour (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Knapp et al., 1997; Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987).

However, the work of Cortina and Wasti (2002; 2005) has focused on the coping mechanisms, without first examining women's appraisals of various harassing contexts and their consequent emotional reactions (as seen in Chapter 2). It is important to examine and establish what women's emotional reactions to sexual harassment are, since sexual harassment has been identified as a crime against women that involves many negative emotions (Stockdale et al., 1995). The important role of emotions in influencing behaviour has been outlined in Chapter 2. Emotions can influence behaviour directly (Booth & Pennebaker, 2000; Frijda, 1986; Izard & Ackerman, 2000) or through acting as a feedback system, where emotions rather than causing behaviour directly, provide an

evaluation system that stimulates cognitive processing rather than behaviour itself (Baumeister et al., 2007). Baumeister and colleagues believe that it is the conscious experience of the emotion, through the feedback loop that will influence the cognitive processes inputted into decision making and action (2007).

In terms of emotions, the main focus of this thesis will be on the primary negative emotions of anger and fear. Fear in particular has been extensively documented as an emotional experience directly related to sexually harassing incidents (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Magley, Hulin et al., 1999; Willness et al., 2007). However, through an overview of the emotions literature (see Chapter 2) it becomes evident that anger and fear are linked with distinct classes of behavioural outcomes: anger is linked with approach/attack behavioural tendencies and fear is linked with avoidance behavioural tendencies (Frijda, 1986; Mackie et al., 2000; Roseman et al., 1994).

These behavioural tendencies can be identified as critical to sexual harassment as well (Dougherty, 1999). More precisely, a sexually harassing situation represents a threat (e.g. harassment by a superior, or harassment in male-dominated environments): this could potentially generate the emotion of fear which may, consequently, lead to particular strategies or coping mechanisms. On another level, the same sexually harassing situation may be seen as unjust and unprovoked (Lapierre, et al., 2005; Willness et al., 2007) and this may lead to the experience of anger and motivate different strategies and coping mechanisms. In this regard, an understanding of how women appraise sexually harassing incidents becomes imperative.

On the basis of the above research, the following questions will be the focus of the current thesis. 1) Are there some emotions that are felt more than others as a reaction

to sexual harassment? 2) What is these emotions' particular link with coping strategies? 3) Are women's emotions and appraisals affected by the type of harasser and the context of harassment? 4) Does this context affect the relationship between appraisals, emotions and coping strategies?

Potential Contributions of Thesis to Sexual Harassment Research

This thesis will contribute to the research on how women respond to sexual harassment or the threat of sexual harassment. Research by Wasti & Cortina (2002; Cortina & Wasti, 2005) has been conducted on this particular area, with a particular focus on coping strategies. This thesis will utilise coping strategies, but will investigate a different context, by re-focusing on western samples in the United Kingdom in particular.

Wasti and Cortina's research, albeit important with regards to women's responses to sexual harassment, was correlational. Therefore, there are potential problems with regards to causal conclusions. Hence, there is an evident need for experimental research. However, considering the ethical concerns associated with the negative effects of sexual harassment, it would not be desirable, or ethically acceptable to sexually harass women. As such, the studies in this thesis will utilise the salience methodology. This methodology has been used by several researchers of sexual harassment (Baker et al., 1990; Hunter & McClelland, 1991; Stockdale et al., 1995; Terpstra & Baker, 1989), and has been shown to be effective. Women will be asked to imagine that they are victims of sexual harassment in different contexts, with different types of harassers and their reactions/responses will be assessed. In this way, the causal impact of some factors associated with the sexual harassment experience may be established. Across this thesis,

focus will be given to feelings of power within the victim, status of the harasser, and organisational support. There are indeed many factors that have been associated with sexual harassment, in particular in terms of antecedents (for a review see Chapter 1). However, this thesis will focus on the aforementioned three factors as they have been seen to be consistently related to the occurrence of sexual harassment (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; Willness et al., 2007), and also to the emotions of anger and fear studied in this thesis.

Furthermore, this research will provide the opportunity for contribution to the research on what women classify as sexual harassment. As noted in Chapters 1 and 2, people's perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment are varied and dependent on several factors, such as persistence and severity of the sexual harassment event, attractiveness and situational context (Golden et al., 2002; Rotundo, et al., 2001; Wiener, et al., 1997). Women are also found to recognise sexual harassment more often than men, in particular the more subtle forms (sexist jokes, whistling, staring) (Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Gutek & O'Connor, 1995). Therefore, in this thesis, participants will be asked to rate how harassing they perceive the behaviour to be. It is expected that participants' perceptions of how harassing the behaviour is will be affected by the factors that are manipulated in each study.

In addition, previous research on sexual harassment has neglected the role of emotions in the experience of sexually harassing behaviours. This thesis proposes that emotions are critical in understanding women's choices of coping strategies when faced with sexually harassing events. The previously reviewed literature on appraisals and emotions (see Chapter 2), strongly suggests that the way women perceive sexual

harassment and the way they will react to it emotionally, will influence, along with other factors (i.e. context, perceived power, organisational support) what coping strategies they will adopt. Therefore, the main interest of this thesis is the role of anger and fear in sexually harassing situations. Women can experience a variety of emotions as a response to sexually harassing incidents; in fact, the range of affect can be quite extensive (Equal Opportunities Commission, 1998; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Magley, Hulin et al., 1999; Willness, et al, 2007). However, anger and fear, as primary emotions are theorised to produce distinct behavioural tendencies (approach vs. avoidance) that would be interesting to examine in the sexual harassment context. In this respect, this thesis will add to the research on coping strategies and sexual harassment, by introducing the element of emotions as a precursor to coping strategy selection.

Finally, this research will examine whether different contexts of sexual harassment (i.e. type of harasser and organisational support) will result in different appraisals of the situation, whether this will predict distinct emotions and consequently result in distinct coping strategies. Furthermore, the question of whether the relationship between emotional reactions and coping strategies is influenced by context will also be investigated. Sexual harassment of men is a reality, and is undoubtedly equally pervasive and distressing, however, as women are statistically more likely to be affected by sexual harassment than men, this thesis will focus on and employ only female participants.

Potential Contributions of Thesis to Emotions Research

This thesis will contribute to the research on emotions by examining the role of emotions in the sexual harassment context. Emotions have often been studied in a variety

of contexts from the interpersonal (Frijda, 1986; Izard, 1977) to the intergroup (Mackie, et al., 2000; Yzerbyt et al., 2003). However, to the knowledge of this author, this is the first attempt to examine the role of emotions in sexual harassment experiences.

Some researchers have argued that feelings of power are essential to the experience of anger (Frijda, 1986; Frijda et al., 1989; Scherer, 1988). Furthermore, many have argued that anger emanates from the appraisals of injustice or unfairness (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Kuppens et al., 2003). However, an issue that is pertinent in sexual harassment is the feeling of powerlessness, or indeed the power differentials between victim and harasser (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993). Therefore, a contribution of this thesis to the research on appraisals and emotions will be to establish whether power or injustice is a better predictor of anger in the sexual harassment context. Hence, this thesis will address two issues: do victims that are harassed by a powerful harasser experience more anger or fear, and what is the relationship between anger and fear and behavioural tendencies.

In this respect, this thesis will also contribute to the research on both emotions and sexual harassment by examining the relationship between emotions and the behaviours that stem from sexually harassing experiences. As previously noted, there are several theories that link emotions to behavioural outcomes (Baumeister et al., 2007; Frijda et al., 1989; Lerner & Keltner, 2001; Yzerbyt et al., 2003). Due to the conceptualisation of this thesis, based on the aforementioned theories, it is expected that anger will be more consistently related to approach/offensive tendencies and fear will be related to avoidance tendencies. However, it is expected that this relationship will be further qualified by the given context of sexual harassment. For instance, if the

harassment is of a more severe type, victims will be expected to feel fear and adopt avoidance tendencies. If the harassment is of a more subtle type, victims will be expected to feel anger and engage in approach tendencies.

In the current research context, it will be argued that although people may experience emotions directly stemming from the harassing experience, (i.e. negative affect), appraisals may also play a role in influencing the particular types of emotions experienced through a feedback, cognitive process (Baumeister et al., 2007). In particular, it is expected that the emotions of interest to this thesis (i.e. anger and fear) will result from distinct appraisals. Anger is expected to be predicted by appraisals of injustice and unfairness (Kuppens et al., 2003) and fear is expected to be predicted by appraisals of relative social power and control differences.

Finally, this thesis will attempt to examine whether the relationship between appraisals and behavioural tendencies is mediated by emotions. According to the paths of a causal model proposed by some researchers (i.e. van Zomeren et al., 2004) appraisals lead to emotions and emotions lead to particular action tendencies. However, according to Baumeister et al. (2007) such a linear model may not work in all contexts and instead propose a feedback system where appraisals affect emotions, but also affect behavioural tendencies. Therefore, this thesis will examine whether appraisals are related to specific emotions but also whether appraisals have an independent effect on behavioural/action tendencies. It is expected that appraisals and emotions will be related, but will also have distinct effects on behavioural tendencies.

CHAPTER 4

Emotions and Behavioural Tendencies in Sexual Harassment

This chapter presents the first two empirical studies of the thesis (Studies 1 & 2) that were conducted to examine the less severe, but more frequent, peer-to-peer sexual harassment. The studies also examined the relationship between specific emotions experienced in relation to sexual harassment and particular behavioural tendencies that stem from it. Study 1 (N=42) tested the relationship between emotional reactions and action tendencies of participants that were confronted with a victim of sexual harassment by a peer. Study 2 (N=50) tested the relationship between emotions and coping strategies within participants that imagined a harassing situation as happening to them. In Study 1, offensive action tendencies and reporting action tendencies were predicted by anger. No relationships involving fear were obtained. In Study 2, avoidance coping strategies were predicted by fear. Anger was not found to be a predictor of the expected coping strategies.

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of the research reported in this chapter is to establish a potential link between specific negative emotions (i.e. anger and fear) and particular behavioural inclinations experienced and chosen as a direct response to sexually harassing events. As noted in Chapter 1, "hostile environment" harassment refers to employees being subjected regularly or repeatedly to offensive or demeaning gender-related comments (gender harassment) (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2005). It can also include sexual

comments and unreciprocated, sexually related behaviour, which may not be relevant to job-related outcomes (unwanted sexual attention) (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1980; Fitzgerald, 1993; Lucero et al., 2003; MacKinnon, 1979). Moreover, sexual harassment has also been seen as having three distinct forms with regards to the status of the perpetrator; superior to subordinate, peer-to-peer, and subordinate to superior (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993).

Because the most well-known harassment type is that perpetrated by supervisors, and in a work-related environment, people do not often recognise other types, such as verbal sexual comments, or even the showing or sending of pornographic material through the computer as being sexual harassment (Dall'Ara & Maass, 2000; Maass, Cadinu, Guarnieri & Grasselli, 2003). With regards to type of experience, Stockdale et al., (1995) report that women have a difficulty perceiving sexually harassing behaviours as a continuum, so people often mistake gender harassment and more severe types like sexual coercion as differing greatly with regards to categorisation.

The exposure of female co-workers to pornographic material through e-mails, photographs and calendars has been recognised as a typical form of harassment by researchers (Dekker & Barling, 1998; Pryor & Whalen, 1997). Nevertheless, it has been shown that women are reluctant to label some behaviours as sexual harassment (in particular, the more subtle forms) especially when it is occurring to them and when they are explicitly asked about it (Alemany, 1998; Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Stockdale et al., 1995). Many researchers report that only a very small percentage of people who experience sexual harassment file a formal complaint, therefore official complaints of sexual harassment may not be necessarily reflective of the frequency of this type of

behaviour (Charney & Russell, 1994; Grauerholz, Gottfried, Stohl & Gabin, 1999). The pressing question for this thesis and the studies reported in this chapter is whether women who perceive harassment, either as occurring to others or as happening to them, feel specific emotions as a result. Furthermore, the decisive factor for people to adopt any particular behavioural tendencies, offensive or otherwise, as a response to a harassing situation was also examined.

Based on the previous literature review on appraisals, emotions and action tendencies, it has been indicated that people's beliefs and behaviours are affected by their perception of a particular situation in terms of valence, and their emotional reactions to that perception (for an analysis see Chapter 2). A group of researchers (Dumont, Yzerbyt, Wigboldus & Gordjin, 2003; Gordjin, Wigboldus & Yzerbyt, 2001; Yzerbyt et al., 2002) argued that people can feel a connection to others (under certain conditions) and consequently experience emotions even though they were not directly affected by an incident. Their studies show that people experience negative emotions on behalf of others, as a response to a threatening situation, but the salience of the similarity between individual and victim was only shown to elicit anger in the situations where individuals identified strongly with the relevant common group (for a full review see Chapter 2). Furthermore, in their studies, they indicate that action tendencies were also affected by how much individuals identified with the victim, or felt they shared a common group. They showed that the more anger participants reported to have felt, the more their tendencies towards the perpetrators were offensive (Yzerbyt et al., 2003). Their findings indicate a relationship between emotions and action tendencies and it is this relationship that is of particular interest to this thesis.

Current Research

Based on the research outlined in previous chapters and drawing upon the Yzerbyt et al, 2003 study, a link between sexual harassment, negative emotions and action tendencies was conceptualised. Study 1 examined the relationship between negative emotions and specific action tendencies, Female participants were exposed to a vignette containing a description of sexual harassment perpertrated by a peer. Although this study will not be looking at the responses to sexual harassment from an intergroup-emotions perspective but from an interpersonal one, the victim was a female student, therefore some affiliation or common identity with the victim is presumed since only female students participated in the study.

Ethical Considerations

Due to the sensitive nature of the topic that participants were presented with, they were explicitly informed in writing that should they find the questionnaire or any of its items distressing that they should immediately stop and provided with the relevant departmental contacts for withdrawal of data (see Appendices I & II). All participants were presented with debrief forms that contained the appropriate counselling services and contact numbers specifically for sexual harassment but also general counselling services (see Appendix IV).

STUDY 1

Method

Participants

Forty-two females participated in this study. Participants who were psychology students took part in exchange for course credits and other participants took part voluntarily. They constituted a sample of the undergraduate population of students at the University of Kent. Participant's ages ranged from 18 to 47 years with 85.4% of the sample being younger than 25 years (*M*= 22.1, *SD*= 6.4).

Materials

The questionnaire consisted of three main parts: an initial passage giving basic information about the purpose of the study and alleging that the incident that followed was an actual event, an incident of harassment that allegedly appeared in a newspaper and the main questionnaire. The first part described the purpose of the questionnaire and instructed participants that the researchers were interested in differences and similarities in people's reactions to an event that recently had appeared in a newspaper. They were instructed to read the article and imagine the situation.

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of the passage describing a sexually harassing incident. The sexual harassment paradigm used in the passage was constructed using a modified version of the "computer harassment paradigm" as used by Dall'Ara and Maass (2000) and Maass, et al. (2003). This particular example was used as

it contained the best description of the sending of pornographic material via e-mails. In their experiments Maass et al., (2003) tested for the likelihood of male participants to send pornographic content via e-mails to alleged female participants (computer generated). The passage read as follows: *"Recently a female student from a local university reported that she has been receiving an abundance of e-mails that contained explicit sexist jokes and pornographic material. According to the female student, the sender was a fellow male student that she had met twice with in order to work together on a class project. Even though the female student told the sender that she did not appreciate this type of e-mails, the male sender kept sending her this type of explicit material. She felt very distressed and offended by the messages, as their conversations were only about lectures and work. She replied to the male student telling him never to contact her again. She is now thinking of contacting the Head of School and the relevant authorities".*

After the excerpt, participants were asked to rate the extent to which they felt an array of emotions whilst reading the article. The emotion scale consisted of six items, three items measured anger (angry, irritated, outraged) and three items measured fear (scared, terrified, anxious). The response scale ranged from 0= *not at all* to 4= *somewhat* to 8= a *great deal*. This was followed by the 12-item action tendencies measurement (adapted from Yzerbyt et al., 2003). Three items measured offensive action tendencies ("be offended in such a situation", "get angry in such a situation" and "confront the male student") three items measured inaction ("do nothing about the situation", "avoid checking e-mails", "cry about something like that"), three items measured avoidance ("want to hear nothing more about it", "stop thinking about it", "want to be reassured

something like that wouldn't happen again") and three items measured mockery ("make fun of a situation like this", "mock a situation like this", "feel happy about a situation like this") The response scale ranged from 1=*very unlikely* to 7= *very likely*. Two items measured reporting tendencies "do you think that the female student should report the male student" and "how likely would you be to report the male student". Finally, whether the participant would class the behaviour as sexual harassment was measured by one item: "how likely would you be to class the male student's behaviour as sexual harassment" and the responses ranged from 1= *very unlikely* to 7= *very likely*.

Procedure

Data collection took place using paper version questionnaires and was conducted in one of the labs at the Department of Psychology at the University of Kent. The questionnaire was titled: "Gender Relationships". A consent form and a demographic information form (age, gender and race) were administered to the participants before the main questionnaire. All participants were required to read and sign the consent form before proceeding, as well as fill in the demographics form. All participants were explicitly informed, prior to commencing the questionnaire, of their right to withdraw participation at any time and without any negative consequences. They were also informed of their right to withdraw their data from being used as part of this study should they have felt so. Upon completion participants were debriefed and thanked.

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Principal Components Analyses: Emotion Scale

The six emotion items were submitted to a principal components analysis. Because the scale was specifically designed to include two main emotions (anger, fear), the chosen method of rotation was Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation and two factors were imposed. The rotated solution confirmed the presence of two distinguishable factors. Factor 1 was measuring fear with three loadings; "scared", "terrified", "anxious" and accounted for 45.5% of the variance with all three loadings >.8. Factor 2 was measuring anger with three loadings; "angry", "irritated", "outraged" and accounted for 41.9% of the variance with all three loadings >.7 (see Table 1).

Table 1: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the 6 items of the Emotions Scale*

Item	Factor 1 (Fear)	Factor 2 (Anger)
Scared	.90	
Terrified	.94	
Anxious	.81	
Angry		.93
Irritated		.94
Outraged		.70
Eigenvalues	2.73	2.51
% of variance	45.5	41.9

N=42

Action Tendencies Measurement

The twelve action tendencies items and the two measuring reporting tendencies were submitted to a principal components analysis using Varimax rotation and five factors were imposed. The rotated solution revealed several items that did not load satisfactorily. These were: two items from the inaction measurement "do nothing about the situation" and "cry about something like this", two items from the avoidance measurement "stop thinking about it" and "want to be reassured something like this wouldn't happen again" and one item from the mockery measurement "feel happy about a situation like this". They were subsequently removed and another principal components analysis was done using the remaining nine items and four factors were imposed. This confirmed the presence of four distinguishable factors. Factor 1 measured offensive action tendencies with three loadings; "be offended", "get angry" and "confront the student". This factor accounted for 24.1% of the variance with all three loadings >.7. Factor 2 measured mockery with two loadings; "mock the situation" and "make fun of the situation". This factor accounted for 22.5% of the variance with both loadings >.8. Factor 3 measured reporting with two factor loadings; "should the victim report the student" and "would you report the student". This factor accounted for 20.9% of the variance with both loadings >.9. Finally, factor 4 measured avoidance with two factor loadings; "avoid checking e-mails", "want to hear nothing more about the situation". This factor accounted for 17.5% of the variance with both loadings >.7 (see Table 2).

Table 2: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Action Tendencies Measurement*

Item	Factor 1 (Offensive)	Factor 2 (Mockery)	Factor 3 (Reporting)	Factor 4 (Avoidance)
"be offended"	.62			
"get angry"	.87			
"confront the student"	.77			
"make fun of the situation"		.85		
"mock the situation"		.82		
"should the victim report"			.93	
"would you report"			.93	
"avoid checking emails"				.87
"want to hear nothing more about it"				.79
Eigenvalues	2.2	2.0	1.8	1.6
% of variance	24.1	22.5	20.9	17.5

N=42

Reliability Analyses

Internal consistency of the questionnaire was calculated using Cronbach's Alpha for each part of the questionnaire. All measures reached high levels of internal consistency (See Table 3).

Table 3: *Cronbach's Alpha For Each Part of the Questionnaire*

Section of the Questionnaire	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Emotion Scale:	
Anger	.91
Fear	.92
Coping Strategies:	
Offensive	.83
Avoidance	.67
Mockery	.90
Reporting	.82

The means, standard deviations and minimum maximum ranges of Emotion Scale, Coping Strategies measures, and Classification of Incident are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: *Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges of Major Variables*

Variable (No. of items)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Emotion Scale (12)		
Anger (3)	4.19 (2.18)	0 - 8
Fear (3)	1.99 (2.05)	0 - 8
Action tendencies (9)		
Offensive (3)	4.96 (1.63)	1- 7
Avoidance (2)	3.61 (1.91)	1- 7
Reporting (2)	4.87 (1.69)	2- 7
Mockery (2)	3.69 (2.02)	1- 7
Classification (1)	4.74 (1.48)	2- 7

Note: All statistics are based on N=42. Emotions were measured on an 8-point scale, Action Tendencies, Unfairness, Classification were measured on a 7-point scale

Classification of incident as sexual harassment

A one-sample t-test was performed against the scale midpoint (4) on the item measuring classification of sexual harassment, in order to establish whether the behaviour described in the scenario was perceived by the participants as sexually harassing. The results indicate that the item was significantly different from the test value of 4 (t= 3.23; df=41; p=.002). The mean suggests that the participants did recognise the scenario as sexual harassment (M=4.74; SD=1.48).

Main Analyses

Anger and Fear

A paired-samples t-test was performed on anger and fear in order to test which emotion was felt more by the participants. This indicated that participants reported

feeling more anger (*M*= 4.19) *t*=7.77, *df*= 40, *p<.001*, than fear (*M*= 1.99). This confirms

that the newspaper article triggered the expected negative emotions.

Action Tendencies

A repeated-measures ANOVA was performed with action tendencies as the

within–subjects factor with four levels (offensive, avoidance, mockery, reporting). This

analysis revealed a significant main effect of action tendencies ($F_{3,39}$=6.83, *MSE*=22.54,

p<.001). Pairwise comparisons were also performed on action tendencies, and indicated

that participants reported more offensive action tendencies (*M*= 4.96) than avoidance

(*M*= 3.61) (*t*=3.71, *df*=41, *p<*.01), or mockery (*M*= 3.69) (*t*=2.83, *df*=41, *p<*.01). No

significant difference was found between participants' offensive (*M*=4.96) and reporting

(*M*=4.87) action tendencies (*t*=.45, *df*=41, *p>*.65). However, participants indicated more

reporting (*M*=4.87) action tendencies than avoidance (*M*= 3.61) (*t*=3.19, *df*=41, *p<*.01*)* or

mockery (*M*= 3.69), *(t*=2.60, *df*=41, *p<*.05).

Correlations of main variables

The relationships of anger and fear (emotions), action tendencies, and the

classification variable were tested in a bivariate correlation analysis. The results of the

analysis revealed significant positive correlations between anger and fear, anger and

offensive, anger and mockery, anger and reporting and anger and classification. The

angrier the participants reported to have felt, the more likely they were to feel fear at the

same time, to report offensive and reporting tendencies and to classify the incident as

sexual harassment. The angrier they felt; the least likely they were to engage in mockery

of the situation. Surprisingly, no significant positive correlations were found between fear

and avoidance, instead the more fearful the participants reported to be the more likely they were to engage in offensive action tendencies, reporting and to classify the incident as sexual harassment. When experiencing fear participants were less likely to engage in mockery (see Table 5).

Table 5: Correlation Table for main variables

	Fear	Offensive	Mockery	Reporting	Avoidance	Classification
Anger	.64**	.78**	-.36**	.51**	.08	.56**
Fear	-	.49**	-.48**	.49**	.09	.48**
Offensive		-	-.26	.69**	.11	.68**
Mockery			-	-.24	-.13	-.43**
Reporting				-	-.01	.71**
Avoidance					-	.30

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

Emotions and Action Tendencies

The relationship between emotions and action tendencies was investigated further. In order to test which emotion predicts a particular action tendency better, separate regressions were performed for each action tendency. Anger and fear were entered simultaneously as predictors of action tendencies. The first regression was performed on offensive action tendencies ($F_{2,38}=29.21$, $p<.001$). Anger ($\beta=.78$, $t=5.96$, $p<.01$), but not fear ($\beta=-.01$, $t=-.07$, $p>.9$) was a significant predictor of offensive action tendencies (see Table 6 for all the values). The more anger participants felt the more offensive action tendencies they reported. The second regression was performed on mockery action

tendencies ($F_{2,38}$=5.96, p<.01). This time fear (β=-.43, t=-2.34, p<.05), but not anger (β=.09, t=.45, p>.6), was a significant negative predictor of mockery. The more fear participants felt the less likely they were to mock the incident. The final regression performed was on reporting action tendencies ($F_{2,38}$=8.22, p<.01). Again anger (β=.35, t=2.00, p<.06), but not fear (β=-.25, t=1.45, p>.1), was the predictor of reporting action tendencies. Avoidance action tendency ($F_{2,38}$=.19, p>.83) was not found to be predicted by either anger (β=.04, t=.19, p>.85), or fear (β=.07, t=.34, p>.74).

Table 6: Anger, Fear and Action Tendencies:

	Anger					Fear				
	Beta(β)	T	Sig.	R^2	r	Beta(β)	T	Sig	R^2	r
Offensive	.78	5.95	<.001	.61	.78	-.01	-.07	.941	.61	.49
Mockery	.09	-.47	.642	.24	.36	-.43	-2.34	.025	.24	.48
Reporting	.35	2.00	.052	.30	.51	.25	1.45	.156	.30	.49
Avoidance	.04	.19	.851	.01	.08	.07	.34	.739	.01	.09

DISCUSSION

The present results are partly consistent with the findings of Yzerbyt et al. (2003). In their studies, they show that people that highly identify with their in-group report feeling more anger than any other emotion at the face of an unfair and threatening event. This study has shown that the women presented with a harassing situation happening to another female victim elicited the emotion of anger more strongly than any other emotion measured (see Table 4). Yzerbyt et al. (2003) also found that offensive action tendencies were reported more than any other action tendency in their study. Although the same

pattern is replicated in this study, specific items measuring the likelihood to report the incident were also measured in this study as an action tendency. Previous research has shown a very small amount of formal complaints being made as a response to sexually harassing events (Charney & Russell, 1994) and it was of particular interest in this study to see how women would react to this scenario in terms of reporting. Furthermore, being a different conceptualisation, this measurement was missing from the Yzerbyt et al (2003) study. The results clearly indicate that participants are more likely to report likelihood to engage in more offensive action tendencies (including reporting) than any other tendency. Because reporting in this questionnaire was measured by items specifically stating the term reporting to a relevant authority, the likelihood of this action can be perceived as actively taking measures against the threatening source, therefore, it may be categorised as "offensive" or "proactive".

The scenario describing the harassing event was recognised by the participants as describing sexual harassment. Previous literature has indicated that the more subtle forms of sexual harassment are not as easily recognised as such, as are the more obvious forms, like touching, or overt sexual advances. Moreover, it has been shown that the higher the occupational status and power of the perpetrator in relation to the victim, the more likely were respondents to acknowledge having been sexually harassed. The present findings in terms of categorisation of the behaviour as sexual harassment appear to be in conflict with the suggestions of previous research. Nevertheless, the mean score of the classification item is not much higher than the midpoint of the scale. However, perceptions of sexual harassment have been found to vary and be affected by several different factors, like gender, personality, organisational status, power and context, affect,

self-esteem and victim-offender relationship among the most notable. All these factors have not been investigated in the present study and will be investigated in later studies.

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the link between particular emotional reactions to the scenario presented and specific action tendencies. In this study anger is the most prevalent emotion indicated by the participants (see Table 4). The results clearly show that offensive and reporting action tendencies are predicted by the emotion of anger and not by fear. This finding is in line with the previous findings of Yzerbyt et al. (2003), and in line with the theoretical proposals by appraisal researchers. In contrast to our expectations, avoidance was not found to correlate with any of the measured variables in this study. However, the first step is achieved by this study in showing that one particular emotion leads to specific behavioural tendencies of the offensive type and that emotion is anger.

The measurement of action tendencies in this study, albeit statistically reliable, merited significant alterations. Even though this measurement proved extremely reliable and valid for the context used in the study by Yzerbyt and colleagues (2003), in the present context of sexual harassment it might not have the best fit. There were effectively three action tendencies present in Study 1: offensive, avoidance and mockery. In the sexual harassment context research has shown that there are many more behavioural tendencies involved as a reaction to a harassing event. Offensive action tendencies and avoidance action tendencies are not specific enough for this context.

As the coping and sexual harassment literature indicates (for a full review see Chapter 1), researchers have adopted multidimensional frameworks (Gutek & Koss, 1993; Knapp et al., 1997). These frameworks introduced different typologies of coping

with sexual harassment, based on focus (self or perpetrator), and mode (support or no support) with regards to external assistance that the victim seeks (Knapp et al., 1997; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). Similar to the types of responses identified by Bingham and Scherer (1993) Knapp et al. (1997) also recognised four response strategies for coping with sexual harassment; advocacy seeking (formal complaint, grievances), social support, avoidance/denial and confrontation/negotiation (with perpetrator) (Knapp et al., 1997; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). According to Knapp et al. (1997) advocacy seeking and social coping are supported in terms of mode of response whereas the remaining two are unsupported. In terms of focus, avoidance/denial and social coping are self focused whereas the remaining two are perpetrator focused.

As such, the next step is to explore the relationship of particular emotions and more context-specific coping strategies. In Study 2, the perpetrator-focused coping strategies (Advocacy, Negotiation) were expected (similarly to offensive and reporting action tendencies) to be related to anger. The self-focused coping strategies (Avoidance, Denial, and Social Coping) were expected to be related to fear. It is also important to note that advocacy seeking could potentially be selected by someone who is angry, but it could also be selected by someone that is fearful as it does not involve direct contact with the perpetrator. However, based on the results of Study 1 with regards to reporting action tendencies, anger seems like a plausible predictor.

Furthermore, in the studies that follow, the scenarios will be referring to hypothetical events where the participants will be asked to imagine themselves in a sexually harassing situation. Our measures of coping strategies seem to make more sense if the participants imagine themselves in the situation.

STUDY 2

Method

Participants

Fifty female students from 18 to 39 years, from the University of Kent volunteered for this study. As in Study 1, psychology students took part in exchange for course credits. 92 percent of the sample were younger than 25 years ($M= 21.3$, $SD= 5$).

Materials and Procedure

Data collection took place in one of the labs of the Department of Psychology of the University of Kent. The procedure was identical to the one described in Study 1. On arrival, participants were presented with a questionnaire booklet on "Gender Relations". Participants that had taken part in the previous study were automatically denied participation by the Research Participation Scheme (RPS) program. Specific instructions given at the time of sign-up advised participants not to take part if they had previously completed any other studies by the same researcher. After signing the consent form and providing their demographic details participants completed the questionnaire. The questionnaire consisted of two main parts: the scenario describing the sexually harassing incident and the main questionnaire. The first part of the questionnaire consisted of the passage describing a sexually harassing incident. The instructions before the passage read as follows: "Thank you for agreeing to take part in this study. Please read the following passage carefully and imagine **YOU** are in this situation".

The sexual harassment paradigm used in the passage was the same as in Study 1, but this time the passage was directed towards the participant. The passage read as follows: *"Recently you have been receiving an abundance of e-mails containing pornographic material and explicit sexist jokes of a demeaning and insulting nature. The person sending this to you is a fellow male student that you have worked with on a group project. The material has been sent to you on numerous occasions and has become embarrassing and distressing as you usually open your mail at university and you have done nothing that would justify this sort of behaviour. You have told him when he first sent these materials to you, that you do not appreciate that kind of joking, that you find it insulting and that he should stop. However the behaviour has not stopped."*

In the second part of the questionnaire, participants were then asked to rate the extent to which they felt an array of emotions whilst reading the article. The emotion scale was the same as the one used in Study 1 and consisted of six items, three items measured anger (angry, irritated, outraged) and three items measured fear (scared, terrified, anxious).

The 13-item coping strategies measure (adapted from Wasti & Cortina, 2002) followed. Participants were asked to continue imagining themselves in this situation and they were asked the likelihood that they would engage in the coping strategies. Advocacy seeking was measured by three items ("Talk to a lecturer/personal tutor about the situation", "Report the male student to the relevant agencies within your University", "Make a formal complaint against the male student"), social coping was measured by four items ("Talk to someone you trust about the situation with the male student", "Ask a friend for advice", "Ask fellow students for support", "Ask friends for support"), and

negotiation was measured by two items ("Ask male student to leave you alone", "Try to make it known to the perpetrator that you dislike the behaviour"). In addition, there were two items that measured avoidance ("try to avoid the male student", "try to stay out of the male student's way") and two items that measured Denial ("Tell yourself this is not so important", "try to forget all about the situation"). The responses were measured on a Likert-type scale ranging from 1= *very unlikely* to 7= *very likely*. Finally classification of the incident as sexual harassment was measured by one item ("How likely would you be to classify the male student's behaviour as sexual harassment?") with the response ranging from 1= *very unlikely* to 7= *very likely*.

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Principal Components Analyses: Emotion Scale

The six emotion items were submitted to a principal components analysis as in Study 1. The rotated solution confirmed the presence of two distinguishable factors. Factor 1 was identified as anger with three loadings; "angry", "irritated", "outraged" and accounted for 42.3% of the variance with all three loadings >.8. Factor 2 was identified as fear with three loadings; "scared", "terrified", "anxious" and accounted for 40.1% of the variance with all three >.6 (see Table 7).

Table 7: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the 6 items of the Emotions Scale*

Item	Factor 1 (Anger)	Factor 2 (Fear)
Angry	**.93**	
Irritated	**.87**	
Outraged	**.81**	
Scared		**.95**
Terrified		**.93**
Anxious		**.68**
Eigenvalues	**2.54**	**2.40**
% of variance	**42.3**	**40.1**

N=50

Coping Strategies Measurement

The thirteen coping strategies items were submitted to a principal components analysis using Varimax rotation and five factors were imposed. The rotated solution confirmed the presence of five distinguishable factors. Factor 1 was identified as social coping with four loadings and accounted for 20.7% of the variance with all four loadings >.7. Factor 2 was identified as advocacy seeking with three factor loadings and accounted for 19.6% of the variance with all loadings >.8. Factor 3 was identified as negotiation with two factor loadings and accounted for 17.2% of the variance with both loadings >.8. Factor 4 was identified as avoidance with two factor loadings and accounted for 15% of the variance (both loadings >.9). Finally, factor 5 was identified as denial with two factor loadings and accounted for 12.8% of the variance with both loadings >.8 (see Table 8).

Table 8: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Coping Strategies Measurement*

Item	Factor 1 (Soc.Cop.)	Factor 2 (Advocacy)	Factor 3 (Negot.)	Factor 4 (Avoid.)	Factor 5 (Denial)
1. Soc.Cop. 1	.83				
2. Soc.Cop.2	.75				
3. Soc.Cop.3	.69				
4. Soc.Cop.4	.79				
5. Advocacy seeking 1		.82			
6. Advocacy seeking 2		.91			
7. Advocacy seeking 3		.88			
8. Negotiation 1			.88		
9. Negotiation 2			.89		
10. Avoidance 1				.90	
11. Avoidance 2				.93	
12. Denial 1					.85
13. Denial 2					.91
Eigenvalues	2.7	2.5	2.2	2.0	1.7
% of variance	20.7	19.6	17.2	15.0	12.8

N=50

Reliability Analyses

Internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured using Chronbach's Alpha for each part of the questionnaire. All measures had high levels of internal consistency (See Table 9).

Table 9: *Cronbach's Alpha For Each Part of the Questionnaire*

Part of the Questionnaire	Chronbach's Alpha (α)
Emotion Scale:	
Anger	.87
Fear	.86
Coping Strategies:	
Advocacy	.88
Social Cop.	.86
Negotiation	.90
Avoidance	.91
Denial	.76

The means, standard deviations and minimum maximum ranges of emotion scale, coping strategies measures and classification of incident are presented in Table 10.

Table 10: Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges of Major Variables

Variable (No. of items)	Mean(SD)		Minimum-Maximum
Emotion Scale (12)			
Anger (3)	5.41	(1.72)	1 - 8
Fear (3)	2.49	(1.74)	0 - 8
Coping Strategies (13)			
Advocacy (3)	3.43	(1.84)	1- 7
Social Coping (4)	5.99	(1.15)	1- 7
Negotiation (2)	6.34	(1.02)	1- 7
Avoidance (2)	5.13	(1.67)	1- 7
Denial (2)	4.49	(1.67)	1- 7
Classification (1)	4.30	(1.69)	1- 7

Note: All statistics are based on N=50. Emotions were measured on an 8-point scale, Coping Strategies, Unfairness, Classification and Power were measured on a 7-point scale

Classification of incident as sexual harassment

A one-sample t-test was performed against the scale midpoint (4) on the item of measuring classification of sexual harassment, in order to establish whether the behaviour described in the scenario was perceived by the participants as sexually harassing. The results indicated that the item was not significantly different from the test value of 4 ($t=$ 1.25; $df=49$; $p=.216$). The mean suggests that the participants did not strongly recognise the scenario as sexual harassment ($M=4.30$; $SD=1.69$).

Main Analyses:

Anger and Fear

Paired samples t-tests were performed on emotions with Bonferroni adjustments, and indicated that participants, reported feeling more anger (*M*= 5.41) *t*=11.60, *df*= 49, *p<.001*, than fear (*M*= 2.49), *t*=11.58, *df*=49, *p<.001*. These results are in-line with the findings of Study 1.

Coping Strategies

A repeated-measures ANOVA was performed with coping strategies as the within –subjects factor with five levels (advocacy, social coping, negotiation, avoidance and denial). This analysis revealed a significant main effect of coping strategies ($F_{3,46}$=34.98, *MSE*=68.63, *p<.001*). Pairwise comparisons were also performed on coping strategies, and indicated that the participants' least favoured option was advocacy (*M*= 3.43) which rated less than social coping (*M*= 5.99) (*t*=-10.86, *df*=49, *p<.001*), less than negotiation (*M*= 6.34) (*t*=-10.94, *df*=49, *p<.001*), less than avoidance (*M*= 5.13) (*t*=-5.56, *df*=49, *p<.001*) and less than denial (*M*= 4.49) (*t*=-2.75, *df*=49, *p<.01*). Negotiation was the participants' most frequently reported coping strategy, more than social coping (*t*=2.52, *df*=49, *p<.05*), more than avoidance (*t*=4.99, *df*=49, *p<.001*) and more than denial (*t*=6.19, *df*=49, *p<.001*). Participants also reported more social coping than avoidance (*t*=3.88, *df*=49, *p<.001*) and denial (*t*=4.72, *df*=49, *p<.001*) and more avoidance than denial (*t*=2.05, *df*=49, *p<.05*).

Correlations of main variables:

The relationships of anger and fear (emotions), coping strategies and classification variables were tested using bivariate correlation analyses. The results of the analysis revealed that when participants felt angrier they were less likely to deny the incident. In turn, the more fear they reported, the more likely they were to engage in advocacy seeking and avoidance (see Table 11).

Table 11: *Correlation Table for main variables*

	Fear	Adv.	Soc.Cop.	Negot.	Avoid.	Denial	Classification.
Anger	.47**	.22	.14	-.08	.17	-.29*	.24
Fear	-	.29*	.16	-.05	.40**	-.20	.31*
Advocacy		-	.46**	.24	.24	-.21	.36**
Social Coping			-	.58**	.44**	-.24	.16
Denial					-		-.31*

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

Emotions and Coping Strategies

The relationship between emotions and coping strategies was investigated further. In order to test which emotion predicts better a particular coping strategy, separate regressions were conducted for each of the coping strategies they were found to correlate with. Anger and fear were entered simultaneously as predictors of coping strategies. The first regression was performed on advocacy and no significant model emerged ($F_{2,47}=2.408$, $p>.10$). Neither anger ($\beta=.11$, $t= .72$, $p>.40$) nor fear ($\beta=.23$, $t= 1.48$,

p>.10) were significant predictors of advocacy. The second regression was performed on Social Coping ($F_{2,47}$=.756, *p*=.47). Again, neither anger (β=.09, *t*=.54, *p*>.50) nor fear (β=.12, *t*= .72, *p*>.40) were significant predictors of social coping. The third regression performed was on Negotiation ($F_{2,47}$=.17, *p*=.85). Again neither anger (β=-.07, *t*=-.44, *p*>.60) nor fear (β=-.02, *t*=-.12, *p*>.90) were significant predictors of negotiation. The fourth regression was on avoidance ($F_{2,47}$=4.42, *p*<.02). Fear (β=.41, *t*= 2.70, *p*<.02) but not anger (β=-.03, *t*= -.18, *p*>.80), was a significant predictor of avoidance. The more fear participants felt the more avoidance they reported. Finally, the regression on denial ($F_{2,47}$=2.31, *p*=.11) revealed that neither anger (β=-.25, *t*=-1.60, *p*>.10) nor fear (β=-.08, *t*=-.51, *p*>.60) were significant predictors (See Table 12).

Table 12: Anger and Fear and Coping Strategies:

	Anger					Fear				
	Beta(β)	T	Sig.	R^2	r	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R^2	r
Advocacy	.11	.72	.472	.09	.22	.23	1.48	.144	.09	.29
Soc.Coping	.09	.54	.591	.03	.14	.12	.72	.476	.03	.16
Negotiation	-.07	-.44	.661	.01	-.08	-.02	-.12	.902	.01	-.02
Avoidance	-.03	-.18	.857	.16	.17	.41	2.70	.010	.16	.40
Denial	-.25	-1.6	.116	.09	-.29	-.08	-.51	.612	.09	-.20

DISCUSSION

The present study was using the coping strategies measurements of Wasti and Cortina (2002) looking at the peer-to-peer sexual harassment paradigm whilst instructing the participants to imagine themselves in the situation. Therefore the coping strategies in this were measured as likelihood to adopt a particular behaviour as a response.

The results of the second study indicate that the participants did feel anger more than any other emotion as a response to reading the scenario. These findings are in-line with Study 1 and research by Yzerbyt and colleagues (2003). In terms of coping strategies, the findings indicate that in Study 2, participants showed more likelihood to negotiate with the perpetrator than any other coping strategy. In Wasti and Cortina's (2002) study, negotiation stands for the behaviours involving direct confrontation with the perpetrator. In terms of behavioural tendencies, one could link the negotiation coping strategies with a general offensive tendency, since both include action against a threatening source.

Advocacy seeking entails, among other behaviours, taking action against the perpetrator by reporting him to relevant authorities or taking legal action against him. The findings of this second study are in line with the findings of Wasti and Cortina (2002) in that advocacy was the least favourite option for the participants as a response to the hypothetical scenario. These findings are also in line with the statistics surrounding the reporting trends of sexually harassed women that show sexual harassment not being formally reported (Grauerholz et al., 1999).

A possible reason for the reluctance in formal reporting in this particular harassment situation is that this hypothetical situation involved a male classmate. The

status of the perpetrator is virtually equal to that of the victim (participants were female students). Therefore, the female participants were more likely to want to handle the situation themselves in terms of approaching the perpetrator and making it known that they dislike his behaviour rather than opting for the formal or legal avenue.

In the present study, although the behaviour elicited anger as an emotion, the participants did not strongly classify the situation as sexually harassing. Their reluctance to formally report this behaviour, therefore, could be attributed to their uncertainty about its particular label.

The second most frequently reported coping strategy was social coping. This coping strategy entails seeking support from family and friends and the people that are close to the women suffering from sexually harassing behaviours. This finding is in line with Fitzgerald and colleagues (1988; 1995) and Gutek and Koss (1993) who posit that confiding in and relying on friends and colleagues is a frequent response to sexual harassment.

The main aim of Study 2 was to examine the relationship between emotions and behavioural responses to sexual harassment but using coping strategies as a measurement. The findings did not show anger to be significantly correlated with the coping strategies that it was expected to. In the present conceptualisation, anger was hypothesised to be correlated with advocacy seeking and negotiation coping strategies, which were the two strategies that involved action (direct-or indirect) against the perpetrator. Fear was the only emotion that was found to have the expected relationship with the coping strategy hypothesised. Although fear was hypothesised to be connected with social coping, avoidance and denial as the more passive coping strategies (in that they did not involve

direct action), it was only found to be correlated with avoidance. The more fear the participants reported, the more likely they were to report avoidance as their chosen coping strategy.

No other relationship was found to be significant in this study; therefore the relationship between anger and particular coping strategies is still to be examined. The findings are in line with the theoretical proposals by appraisal researchers that fear is linked with avoidance behavioural tendencies (Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones, 2004; Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Frijda, 1986; Frijda et al., 1989; Lazarus, 1991).

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The combined results of these studies are in line with the stated hypotheses. Anger was positively correlated with fear throughout, which is expected as both are equally felt negative emotions in the context of sexual harassment. This is the reason why regression analyses were chosen as the method of statistical analysis in these studies. These regressions produced unique patterns for each emotion. Anger in Study 1 was related to offensive action tendencies as previously predicted and fear was related to avoidance coping strategies in Study 2. These findings are also in line with the findings of Yzerbyt et al., 2003, showing that anger is related to offensive action tendencies whereas fear is related to avoidance. Furthermore, in both studies, participants reported experiencing more anger than fear as a result of the reading the harassing incidents. This finding is also in line with the findings of Yzerbyt and colleagues (2003), indicating that anger is the most prevalent emotion when confronted with a negative and undeserved situation.

Regarding participants' reported coping strategies, their chosen response to this particular sexual harassment type was negotiation with the perpetrator. Advocacy seeking was the least chosen response in Study 2, a finding which corroborates the research of Wasti and Cortina (2002) as well as the reporting trends in sexual harassment statistics (Charney & Russell, 1994; Grauerholz et al., 1999) showing that sexually harassed women are reluctant to formally report their experiences.

Participants generally did not significantly classify the scenarios as sexual harassment. Although it appears so in Study 1 the mean is not very far from the mid point of the scale, signifying that even in that case this particular type of subtle sexual harassment is not easily recognisable as such by participants. This finding is in line with sexual harassment research regarding the recognition of different types of the behaviour (Dall'Ara & Maass, 2000; Maass et al., 2003). The scenario was kept virtually the same but the main difference was that in Study 2, the participants had to imagine this as happening to them as opposed to happening to some other female victim. This merits further investigation and different contexts and sexually harassing incidents will be tested to see whether this finding persists or becomes more stable.

What has been achieved in this chapter, by comparing the findings of both studies, is to show that different emotions do lead to distinct behavioural tendencies. Therefore, the first two empirical studies of this thesis have succeeded in investigating the first part of the relationship that is of current interest. As outlined in Chapters 1 and 2, there appears to be a relationship between appraisals of sexually harassing incidents, emotional reactions to them and specific behavioural responses. Although this investigation was exploratory, it has provided the necessary foundation in order to build

on and expand on the next questions of interest as well as provide support for using the tools and theoretical framework of coping strategies by Wasti and Cortina (2002) as a fitting measurement of sexual harassment in this context. The participant numbers in these studies are admittedly lower than normal and this should be acknowledged. These studies should be viewed as diagnostic for the purposes of establishing fitting measurements and therefore treated as extended pilots.

There are questions still remaining to be investigated: are emotions and coping strategies influenced by context? Is the relationship between emotions and coping strategies influenced by context? What is the role of perceived power that the victim has against the perpetrator? In these studies the harasser was a student, a person that has equal power to the victims, which could potentially have affected the findings in these studies. Will the findings differ with more powerful perpetrators? Is it possible that an angry victim that feels powerless may choose the advocacy route instead of direct negotiation? These questions will be attempted in the following chapters.

Previous literature has shown that there are numerous factors associated with the perceptions of sexual harassment and what women are ready to label as sexually harassing such as personality, organisational status, power and context, affect, self-esteem and victim-offender relationship (Adams-Roy & Barling, 1998; Barling et al., 1996; Bingham & Scherer, 1993; Gartner & Macmillan, 1995. For a full review see Chapter 1). All these factors have not been investigated in the present studies but will be experimentally manipulated in the following chapters.

CHAPTER 5

The role of power in women's responses to sexual harassment

This chapter presents the second set of empirical studies for this thesis. The present studies examined the effect of power on the relationship between specific emotions and particular behavioural tendencies that stem from sexually harassing incidents. Study 3 (N=86) tested the relationship between power, emotional reactions and coping strategies of participants that read a scenario describing sexual harassment by a peer. Study 4 (N=95) was a replication of Study 3, and tested the relationship between power, emotions and particular coping strategies of participants that were presented with a more severe harassing situation perpetrated by a superior. The findings of Study 3 showed that in the powerless condition, participants were more willing to label the scenario as sexually harassing, even though overall the classification of the incident was not significantly different than the mean. Furthermore, participants in the powerless condition reported more fear than the people in the powerful condition. Participants felt more anger than fear and reported more negotiation than any other coping strategy. In Study 4, power had no effect on emotions or coping strategies or the classification of the incident. Participants generally felt more anger than fear and reported more social coping than any other coping strategy. In both studies, anger predicted the expected coping strategies of advocacy and negotiation. Fear, as expected, predicted avoidance across both studies.

INTRODUCTION

The previous two studies (Studies 1, and 2) provided findings that suggest that anger and fear are linked with distinct behavioural tendencies. What was generally shown by the results was that anger predicted offensive and reporting action tendencies (Study 1) and fear predicted avoidance coping strategies (Study 2). In this chapter, the role of power in the relationship between emotions and coping strategies in sexual harassment will be examined. It is possible that the relationship between emotions and action tendencies is moderated by perceived power.

The role of power in sexual harassment has been highlighted extensively in Chapter 1. An analysis of power can be classified into three distinct levels, societal, organizational and interpersonal (Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989; Cleveland & Kerst, 1993). The societal and organisational power sources can set the foundations for specific work conditions within an organisation. The frequency and tolerance of sexual harassment may well depend on those power sources. However, the sources cannot solely explain the occurrence or prevalence of sexual harassment. There are other factors, such as the power-related beliefs of the harasser and the characteristics of the victim, which are essential to assist the understanding of the harassment process (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993).

At the individual level, power can be defined by perceptions and beliefs concerning the harasser's own and other's power, as well as by the organisational power that the victim possesses. Research on power and sexual harassment (Pryor, 1987) suggests that the incidence and the form of sexual harassment may partly depend on the harasser's perceptions of the reaction of the victim, as well as the reaction or tolerance of the organisation towards the incident (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993). Previous studies have

also found that emotions may play a role in victims' responses to sexually harassing incidents. The next issue of interest for this thesis is the role of power in victims' consequent emotions and behavioural responses to sexual harassment. It is plausible to assume that a target of sexual harassment who feels relatively powerful will react differently to a sexual harassment incident, in comparison to a relatively powerless victim.

Power and Social Behaviour

Indeed, power has been shown to influence cognitions and behaviour in a number of situations (Galinsky, Gruenfeld & Magee, 2003; Keltner, Gruenfeld & Anderson, 2003). Keltner et al., (2003) define power as: "an individual's relative capacity to modify others' states by providing or withholding resources or administering punishments" (p.265). Resources and punishments according to Keltner et al. (2003) can be material (money, economic opportunities, job reprisals or physical harm) or social (affection, friendship, ostracism and decision-making opportunities). How much other individuals depend on those resources can be a sign of the value of the punishments (Keltner et al., 2003). In their definition, Keltner and colleagues (2003) focus on the capacity to change others' states because they believe that people frequently feel powerful or powerless in the absence of obvious behaviour. Furthermore, they believe that it is possible to have power without status and that power can exist in the absence of formal roles (Keltner, et al., 2003).

Power has often been associated with perceived efficacy, dependence, status, freedom and control (Haidt & Rodin, 1999; Keltner et al., 2003). Keltner et al. (2003) developed a theory of how power, an important aspect of social contexts, influences

behaviour and, in particular, how it influences tendencies to approach or avoid. They claim that power is correlated with increased resources. Powerful individuals live in environments that include financial resources, physical comforts and social resources such as esteem, praise and attraction (Keltner et al., 2003). Furthermore, acting within reward-abundant environments and having the freedom to act without constraints, people with power would be disposed to approach-related cognitions, affect and behaviour (Keltner et al., 2003). By the same token, individuals lacking power, should be disposed to increased inhibitory and avoidance cognitions, affect and behaviour. Lack of power means less access to material goods, social and cultural resources and individuals lacking power are more subject to social threats and reprisals (Domhoff, 1998). Low power individuals may be also be subjected to aggression. For example, they may become victims of bullying (Whitney & Smith, 1993) and discrimination (Sanday, 1981).

How power influences emotions and affect has been a topic widely discussed in the study of emotions (Collins, 1991; Kemper, 2001; Tiedens, Ellsworth & Mesquita, 2000). Numerous lines of research have linked power and social status to emotional experiences (Mondillon et al., 2005). Appraised power is particularly important in distinguishing between the various negative emotions (Mondillon et al., 2005). In the event of a wrongdoing, a person in a position of power may feel anger, and a person in a position lacking power may feel distress or fear (Averill, 1982; Izard, 1977; Roseman, 1984). Tiedens, Ellsworth and Moskowitz (2000) found that individuals higher in status were more likely to experience anger in reaction to negative outcome, while low-status individuals were more likely to feel guilt or sadness.

Positive affect has been seen to facilitate approach related tendencies (Davidson, 1992; Higgins, 1997). Based on the aforementioned, Keltner and colleagues posit that elevated power will be associated with positive emotions such as desire, enthusiasm and pride; whereas a lack of power will be related to negative emotions and affect such as embarrassment, fear, guilt and shame (Keltner et al., 2003, p.270). Furthermore, parallel to the association between affect and power, there is also a relative association between particular action tendencies and power (Frijda, 1986; Frijda et al., 1989; Mackie et al., 2000). According to Mackie et al (2000), if the self is strong enough to cope and react to the situation, then the most likely outcome is an action tendency to aggress against the instigator of the negative event. Similarly, when the person is perceived as not having the relevant resources to react then the expected action tendency is avoidance (Mackie et al., 2000; see Chapter 2). It is reasonable to believe that certain theories of emotions consider power, or lack thereof, as a necessary precursor to the experience of certain emotions. Furthermore, there could also be a mediation effect, with emotions mediating the effects of power on certain action tendencies or coping strategies (Keltner et al., 2003).

Research conducted by Galinsky, Gruenfeld and Magee (2003) has offered more empirical evidence and explanations on the relationship between power and action. According to Galinsky et al. (2003) power is often involved in most actions, in fact, action can be seen as an exercise of power. They posit that power and action are intricately related and that power channels goal-directed behaviour. Their findings show that when participants are primed with high power, they are more likely to act in a goal-consistent manner than those primed with low power. Furthermore, those who possess more power show a greater likelihood to act than those who do not (Galinsky et al.,

2003). Effectively, what their studies show is that power is not only an aspect of the social structure but it is also a cognitive construct that can be manipulated and activated by any appropriate environmental stimulus.

To be more precise, Galinsky et al., (2003) argue that even though power is more often conceived as a structural variable evident in social relationships, it also has a psychological facet. They posit that power can be a "psychological property" of an individual (Galinsky et al., 2003, p.454). The possession of power in any given situation generates a variety of characteristics and proclivities that are noticeable in cognitions, emotions and behaviour (Galinsky et al., 2003; Keltner et al., 2003). Therefore, Galinsky and colleagues believe that the experience associated with power possession can be activated even when possession of power is implied or recalled, consciously or non-consciously. Mental constructs of power possession can be stored in memory and be activated, thus activating the relevant cognitions and behavioural tendencies associated with it (Bargh et al., 1995; Galinsky et al., 2003).

In their studies, Galinsky et al. (2003) decided to prime power in their participants using a narrative essay. In this essay, participants were asked to recall a time when they were in a position of power over someone else (powerful prime) or to recall a time when someone else had power over them (powerless prime). After the narrative essay, participants were asked to do a number of tasks in a room where an annoying stimulus (i.e. a fan in Experiment 2) was present. The researchers wanted to assess whether participants primed with power would be more action oriented and remove the fan. The collective results of three experiments indicate that participants' power was a positive

predictor of whether they would act. Therefore, they reached the conclusion that power increases the tendency towards action (cf. Keltner et al., 2003).

Nevertheless, it is also important to consider the possibilities that emotion, albeit dependent to a certain extent on feelings of power or powerlessness, may also be dependent on other appraisals (For an extensive review see Chapter 2). As previously seen (Chapter 2) anger can be elicited by appraisals of injustice and unfairness (Averill, 1982, Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Considering the nature of the workplace, with the explicit power differentials between superiors and subordinates and the implicit power differences present amongst co-workers (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; Fitness, 2000), then it is possible that the appraisals and the elicitors of anger may differ depending on who is the one that experiences anger. According to Fitness (2000) the aim of her study was to investigate the causes of anger-eliciting events, and their relative unfairness from three different perspectives, relative to the power differentials in the workplace: superiors, co-workers and subordinates.

As Fitness notes (2000) and as previously argued in this chapter (see also Chapter 2), anger is associated with approach related tendencies, however, in work settings and especially in the case of sexual harassment, confronting the instigator of anger or injustice may not be a practical option (Fitness, 2000). According to Drory and Ritov (1997) employees tend to adopt a rather submissive stance towards the people whom they think are in control of their future rewards. It is according to these findings that Fitness (2000) hypothesises that power may have a role in confronting the culprit of an unfair or anger-eliciting behaviour. More specifically, she posits that if people were angered by subordinates, they would be more likely to confront offenders than people angered by

superiors. Research has shown that low-power workers that have been treated unfairly, may not take the route of direct confrontation, but rather take a covert retaliatory action in an attempt to balance the situation (Bies & Tripp, 1998; Skarlicki & Folger, 1997).

The findings of Fitness (2000) with regards to what causes anger-eliciting events, point to the perception that one's needs, and/or their expectations of how people should behave have been violated (Berkowitz & Harmon-Jones, 2004; Lazarus, 1991; Kuppens et al., 2003). What was most interesting from Fitness's (2000) research was the fact that what made superiors and co-workers angry was similar, but different to what made subordinates angry. Superiors and co-workers were angered by incompetence, disrespect, laziness and untruthfulness, whereas subordinates were angered mostly by unfair treatment.

In terms of power, these results indicate that the power relationship between participants in an angry situation in the workplace plays an important role in how the angry situation will progress. High power workers are likely to become moderately angry at perceived incompetence or liable behaviour of lower power workers (Fitness, 2000). However, they do not feel high levels of affect for offenders (anger or hate as Fitness describes, 2000) nor do they appraise the situation as unfair. Their reactions were to confront the culprits rather than withdraw. Low power workers on the other hand, were likely to become angry over what they perceived as unjust treatment by higher power workers, and appraise those events as highly unfair. They reported experiencing higher levels of negative affect towards the culprits and their reactions are more likely to be withdrawal (Fitness, 2000).

Current Research

The interest of the current studies was to establish the role of perceived power in victims' responses towards sexual harassment. From the aforementioned, it becomes clear that power may influence a sexual harassment target's responses: A powerful victim may indeed react differently to sexual harassment to a powerless victim. Power has been seen to influence the occurrence of anger in terms of appraisals but also to influence behavioural tendencies (Fitness, 2000; Galinsky et al., 2003; Keltner et al., 2003). However, as argued in Chapter 2, power or lack thereof, may not be the only prerequisite in terms of appraisals for anger to occur. As seen, people may experience anger at an injustice but choose a very different approach or strategy to cope than that usually linked with anger depending on their power (Fitness, 2000). In this situation, power is moderating the relationship between anger and coping strategies adopted as a response.

In the following studies, the feelings of power and powerlessness were manipulated before the scenario describing the sexually harassing event. The procedure followed replicated Galinsky et al., (2003), using narrative essays. The studies were conducted to establish the role of power in emotional reactions and coping strategies. The Galinsky et al., (2003) power-priming method was chosen as the most fitting as it has been shown to be effective and it allows participants to think of powerful or powerless situations and freely give descriptions, therefore making them think and process power-related situations that were memorable to them in an effective way. Participants were expected to feel more anger in the conditions were power is primed. Anger was expected to be related to negotiation, but only in the conditions where power is primed. In the powerless condition, anger may be related to advocacy seeking. In terms of fear, the

victims that were primed with powerlessness were expected to feel more fear, and to adopt avoidance coping strategies. Power may also moderate the relationship between fear and avoidance; strengthening that relationship in the powerless condition. The following study aimed to examine the main effects of condition (powerful vs. powerless) on emotions and coping strategies and to establish whether the relationship between emotions and coping strategies was qualified by condition. Furthermore, it aimed to check whether the effect of condition on coping strategies was mediated by emotions.

Ethical Considerations

Once more, the sensitive nature of the topic that participants were presented with, as well as having to consider powerless situations may potentially have caused distress. Therefore, all participants were explicitly informed in writing that should they find the questionnaire or any of its items distressing that they should immediately stop and were also provided with the relevant departmental contacts for withdrawal of data (see Appendices I & II). All participants were presented with appropriate debrief forms that contained available counselling services and contact numbers specifically for sexual harassment but also general counselling services.

STUDY 3

Method

Participants

Eighty six female students took part in this study. All participants assisted voluntarily. They constituted an opportunity-chosen sample of the undergraduate population of students at the University of Kent. Data was collected on-line. Participant's ages ranged from 17 to 41 years, with 91.9% of the sample being younger than 25 years (*M*= 21.9, *SD*= 4.2).

Design

This study employed a between subjects design, with condition (powerful vs. powerless) as the independent variable. Participant's self reported emotional reactions to the scenario (anger, fear), their self reported coping strategies (advocacy seeking, social coping, negotiation, avoidance and denial) were the dependent variables. Participants were randomly assigned to each of the two conditions; powerful (N=46) and powerless (N=40). Participants in both conditions were asked to imagine themselves in the situation described.

Measures

The questionnaires consisted of three main parts: a power prime instructing participants to recall power situations, a passage describing an incident of harassment and the main questionnaire. The power primes (Galinsky et al., 2003) were dependent on

condition. For condition 1 (powerful) *"Please recall a particular incident in which you had power over someone else. By power, we mean a situation in which you had control over someone's ability to get something they wanted, or were in a position to evaluate them. Please describe this situation in which you had power- what happened, how you felt, etc."* For condition 2 (powerless): *"Please recall a particular incident in which someone else had power over you. By power, we mean a situation in which someone had control over your ability to get something you wanted, or was in a position to evaluate you. Please describe this situation in which you did not have power- what happened, how you felt, etc."* Responses were given in a text box where participants could write freely with no space restrictions. Any participant that had left that part of the questionnaire blank or had given irrelevant answers was excluded from the data analysis and the questionnaires were discarded.

The second part of the questionnaire consisted of the passage describing a sexually harassing incident. For both conditions, participants were given a small text with clear instructions that explained what was expected of them and prompted them to think they were in that situation. The sexual harassment passage was the same as in Study 2. The third part was the main questionnaire that was identical to Study 1 and Study 2. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they felt an array of emotions whilst reading the passage and this was followed by the coping strategies measurement (see Study 2). Whether the participant would class the behaviour as sexual harassment was measured by a single item as in Study 2.

Procedure

Data collection took place using on-line questionnaires powered by the QMS program. All participants that agreed to take part were presented with a questionnaire titled: "Gender Relationships Questionnaire" and were randomly assigned to one of the two conditions. A consent form and a demographic information form (age, gender and race) were also administered to the participants before the main questionnaire. All participants were required to read and click on the consent form before proceeding, as well as fill in the demographics form. All participants were explicitly informed, prior to commencing the experiment, of their right to withdraw participation at any time and without any negative consequences. They were also informed of their right to withdraw their data from being used as part of this study should they have felt so. After the completion of the questionnaire, participants were debriefed and thanked.

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Principal Components Analyses: Emotion Scale

The six emotion items were submitted to a principal components analysis. Because the scale was specifically designed to include two main emotions (anger, fear) the chosen method of rotation was Varimax with Kaiser Normalisation and two factors were imposed. The rotated solution confirmed the presence of two distinguishable factors. Factor 1 was identified as anger with three loadings; "angry", "irritated", "outraged" and accounted for 42.6% of the variance with all three loadings >.9. Factor 2

was identified as fear with three loadings; "scared", "terrified", "anxious" and accounted

for 42.3% of the variance with all three loadings >.8 (see Table 13).

Table 13: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the six items of the Emotions Scale*

Item	Factor 1 (Anger)	Factor 3 (Fear)
Angry	.92	
Irritated	.90	
Outraged	.90	
Scared		.93
Terrified		.93
Anxious		.84
Eigenvalues	2.56	2.53
% of variance	42.6	42.3

N=86

Coping Strategies Measurement

The thirteen coping strategies items were submitted to a principal components

analysis using Varimax rotation and five factors were imposed. The rotated solution

confirmed the presence of five distinguishable factors. Factor 1 was identified as social

coping with four loadings and accounted for 20.1% of the variance with all four loadings

>.6. Factor 2 was identified as advocacy seeking with three factor loadings and accounted

for 17.9% of the variance with both loadings >.8. Factor 3 was identified as negotiation

with two factor loadings and accounted for 16.4% of the variance with both loadings >.9.

Factor 4 was identified as avoidance with two factor loadings and accounted for 12.1% of

the variance with both loadings >.7. Finally, factor 5 was identified as denial with two

factor loadings and accounted for 11.5% of the variance with both loadings >.7 (see Table 14).

Table 14: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Coping Strategies Measurement*

Item	Factor 1 (Soc.Cop.)	Factor 2 (Advocacy)	Factor 3 (Avoid)	Factor 4 (Denial)	Factor 5 (Negot)
Soc.Cop 1	.62				
Soc.Cop.2	.87				
Soc.Cop.3	.77				
Soc.Cop.4	.87				
Advocacy seeking 1		.85			
Advocacy seeking 2		.82			
Advocacy seeking 3		.81			
Avoidance 1			.93		
Avoidance 2			.93		
Negotiation 1				.87	
Negotiation 2				.79	
Denial 1					.72
Denial 2					.83
Eigenvalues	2.6	2.3	2.0	1.6	1.5
% of variance	20.1	17.9	16.4	12.1	11.5

N=86

Reliability Analyses

Internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured using Cronbach's Alpha for each part of the questionnaire. All measures reached high levels of internal consistency (See Table 15).

Table 15: *Cronbach's Alpha for Each Part of the Questionnaire*

Part of the Questionnaire	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Emotion Scale:	
Anger	.91
Fear	.90

Part of the Questionnaire	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Coping Strategies:	
Advocacy	**.83**
Social Cop.	**.80**
Negotiation	**.55**
Avoidance	**.91**
Denial	**.68**

The means, standard deviations and minimum maximum ranges of emotion scale, coping

strategies measures and classification of incident are presented in Table 16.

Table 16: Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges of Major Variables

Variable (No. of items)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Emotion Scale (12)		
Anger (3)	5.16 (1.99)	0 - 8
Fear (3)	2.19 (2.07)	0 - 8
Coping Strategies (13)		
Advocacy (3)	2.88 (1.67)	1 - 7
Social Coping (4)	5.52 (1.27)	1 - 7
Negotiation (2)	6.05 (1.15)	3 - 7
Avoidance (2)	4.33 (1.90)	1 - 7
Denial (2)	4.69 (1.68)	1 - 7
Classification (1)	4.22 (1.84)	1 - 7

Note: All statistics are based on N=86. Emotions were measured on an 8-point scale, Coping Strategies, Unfairness, Classification and Power were measured on a 7-point scale.

Classification of incident as sexual harassment

A one way ANOVA was performed with classification as the dependent variable

and condition (powerful vs. powerless) as the independent variable. The results indicate

that participants' classification of the incident as sexual harassment differed depending

on condition ($F1, 85= 7.99$, $p<.01$.). Participants in the powerless condition were more

likely to classify the incident as sexual harassment than participants in the powerful condition (see Table 17). A one-sample t-test was performed against the scale midpoint (4) on the item of measuring classification of sexual harassment, in order to establish whether the behaviour described in the scenario is overall perceived by the participants as sexually harassing. The results indicate that the item was not significantly different from the test value of 4 ($t= 1.11$; $df=85$; $p>.26$). The mean suggests that the participants did not strongly recognise the scenario as sexual harassment ($M=4.22$; $SD=1.84$). This mean is similar to those obtained in Study 1 and Study 2.

Table 17: *Classification of incident as sexual harassment*

Condition(N)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Powerful (46)	3.72 (1.77)	1 - 7
Powerless (40)	4.80 (2.07)	1 - 7

Main Analyses

Correlations of main variables

The relationships of anger and fear (emotions), coping strategies, and classification variables were tested in a bivariate correlation analysis. Anger was positively correlated with fear as in previous studies. The analysis also showed that the more anger participants reported the more advocacy seeking and the less denial they were likely to report. The more fear participants reported, they less negotiation they were likely to report. Furthermore both anger and fear were positively correlated with classification. Advocacy was positively correlated with negotiation and classification of incident, social coping was positively correlated with avoidance and denial and

negotiation was positively correlated with classification. The results of the analysis are presented below (see Table 18).

Table 18: Correlation Table for main variables

	Fear	Advocacy	Soc.Cop.	Negot.	Avoid	Denial	Classif.
Anger	.33**	.35**	.11	.02	.17	-.31**	.42**
Fear	-	-.17	.09	-.44**	.19	.02	.32**
Advocacy		-	.14	.42**	.06	-.18	.28**
Soc.Cop.			-	.18	.28**	.23*	.02
Negotiation				-	.06	.01	-.23*
Avoidance					-	.29**	.03

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

Effect of Power on Emotions

A 2 x 2 repeated-measures ANOVA was conducted with emotions (anger, fear) as the within-subjects factor and condition (powerful vs. powerless) as the between-subjects factor. The results indicated a significant main effect of emotions ($F_{1,84}=138.97$, $MSE=2.63$ $p<.001$). Participants indicated feeling more anger in response to the sexually harassing scenario ($M=5.16$, $SD=.22$) than fear ($M=2.24$, $SD=.21$). A significant interaction was found between emotions and condition ($F_{(1,84)}=5.32$, $MSE=2.63$, $p<.05$). This interaction is displayed in the graph below (see Figure 1). Simple effects analyses were computed to further examine the interaction found. These analyses revealed that power did not have an effect on anger ($F_{(1, 84)}=.17$, $p>.68$). Fear levels were significantly

different depending on condition ($F_{(1, 84)}$= 9.54, p<.004). Participants in the powerful condition reported less fear (M=1.58, SD=1.45) than participants in the powerless condition (M=2.90, SD=2.44).
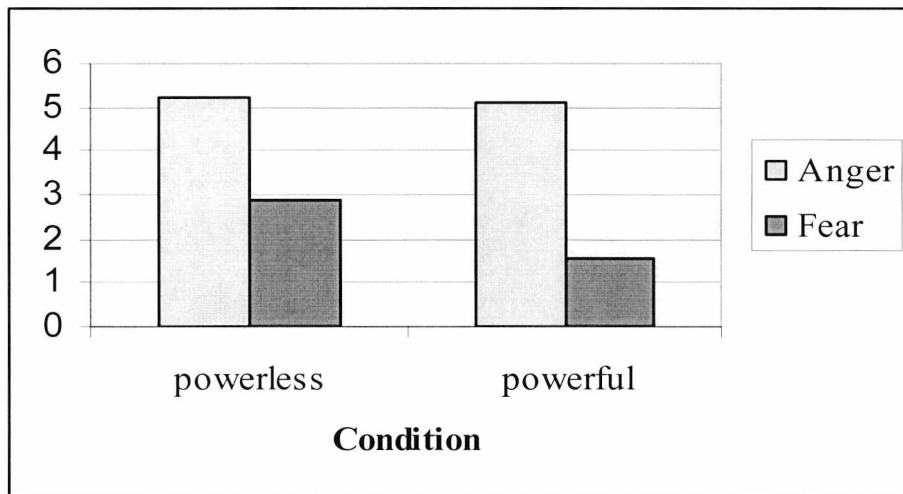
Figure 1: *Effects of Power on Emotions*

Effect of Power on Coping Strategies

A 2 x 5 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with coping strategies (advocacy, negotiation, social coping, avoidance and denial) as the within-subjects factor and condition (powerful vs. powerless) as the between-subjects factor. The results yielded significant main effects of coping strategies ($F_{(4,81)}$=99.18, MSE=2.13, p<.001) (see Table 19). No significant interaction was found between coping strategies and condition ($F_{(4,81)}$=.54, p>.50). Pairwise comparisons were also performed on coping strategies, and indicated that the participants' least favoured option was advocacy (M= 2.88) which was less than social coping (M= 5.52) (t= -12.57, df= 85, p<.001), less than negotiation (M= 6.05) (t= -18.66, df= 85, p<.001), less than avoidance (M= 4.33) (t= -

5.46, *df*= 85, *p*<.001) and less than denial (*M*= 4.69) (*t*= -6.52, *df*= 85, *p*<.001). Negotiation was the participants' most frequently reported coping strategy, more than social coping (*t*= 3.16, *df*= 85, *p*<.01), more than avoidance (*t*= 7.37, *df*= 85, *p*<.001) and more than denial (*t*= 6.20, *df*= 85, *p*<.001). Participants also reported more social coping than avoidance (*t*= 5.63, *df*= 85, *p*<.001) and denial (*t*= 4.16, *df*= 85, *p*<.001). Avoidance and denial were not significantly different (*t*= -1.56, *df*= 85, *p*>.1).

Table 19: *Main effects of coping strategies*

Coping strategy	Total M(SD)	Powerful	Powerless
Advocacy	**2.88 (1.67)**	**2.97(1.63)**	**2.78(1.72)**
Social Coping	**5.52 (1.27)**	**5.65(1.21)**	**5.38(1.33)**
Negotiation	**6.05 (1.15)**	**6.20(.92)**	**5.89(1.37)**
Avoidance	**4.33 (1.90)**	**4.40(1.86)**	**4.25(1.97)**
Denial	**4.69 (1.68)**	**4.80(1.86)**	**4.56(1.84)**

Emotions and Coping Strategies

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed in order to test whether any of the relationships between emotions and coping strategies were qualified by condition. Classification of incident was controlled for in the first step of the regression. I also controlled for the emotion that was not under consideration for each analysis. This analysis showed that none of the relationships between emotions and coping strategies that will be reported below were qualified by condition (all *p's*>.14). It is important to also note, as shown before, that condition had no effects on any of the coping strategies therefore, the conditions for mediation were not met. The analyses to follow will only

show the results for regressions examining the relationship between emotions and coping

strategies.

In order to test which emotion predicts better a particular coping strategy, separate

regressions were conducted for each of the coping strategies. Anger and fear were entered

simultaneously as predictors of coping strategies whilst controlling for classification in

the first step. The first regression was performed on advocacy ($F_{2,82}=10.18$, $p<.001$).

Interestingly, both anger and fear seem to be predictors of advocacy: anger was a positive

predictor ($\beta=.37$, $t=3.45$, $p<.001$) and fear was a negative ($\beta=-.37$, $t=-3.64$, $p<.001$).

This means that the more anger participants feel the more likely they are to seek

advocacy whereas the more fear they feel the less likely they are to do so. The second

regression was performed on negotiation ($F_{2,82}=11.54$, $p<.001$). Again both anger and

fear seem to be predictors of negotiation: anger was a positive predictor ($\beta=.26$, $t=2.44$,

$p<.02$) and fear a negative ($\beta=-.47$, $t=-4.59$, $p<.001$). This means that when participants

feel anger they are more likely to seek negotiation with the perpetrator and they are less

likely to do so when they feel fear. The third regression was on denial ($F_{2,82}=4.26$,

$p<.02$). Anger ($\beta=-.33$, $t=-2.83$, $p<.007$), but not fear ($\beta=.15$, $t=1.36$, $p>.10$) was a

significant predictor for denial coping strategies (See Table 20). The fourth regression

was on social coping ($F_{2,82}=.46$, $p>.71$). Neither anger ($\beta=.11$, $t=.85$, $p>.40$), nor fear

($\beta=.07$, $t=.56$, $p>.57$) were significant predictors of social coping. The final regression

was on avoidance ($F_{2,82}=1.60$, $p>.19$) and again neither anger ($\beta=.14$, $t=1.17$, $p>.24$), nor

fear ($\beta=.17$, $t=1.50$, $p>.13$) were significant predictors of avoidance.

Table 20: *Anger and Fear and Coping_Strategies:*

	Anger					Fear				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R²	r	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R²	r
Advocacy	.37	3.45	.001	.26	.45	-.37	3.64	<.001	.26	-.17
Soc.Coping	.11	.85	.396	.02	.11	.07	.56	.573	.02	.09
Negotiation	.26	2.44	.017	.26	.02	-.47	-4.59	<.001	.26	-.44
Avoidance	.14	1.17	.243	.05	.17	.17	1.50	.138	.05	.20
Denial	-.33	-2.83	.006	.11	-.31	.15	1.36	.178	.11	.02

DISCUSSION

The present study provides an interesting pattern of results. Generally, participants did not recognise the scenario as describing sexual harassment. However, condition had an effect on perception of sexual harassment, with individuals belonging to the powerless condition being more willing to recognise sexual harassment than people belonging to the powerful condition. This finding seems to corroborate the research outlined by Fitness (2000). She reports that individuals lacking power are more prone to recognise injustice towards them than people in powerful positions. Nevertheless, the manipulation of feelings of power did not affect any variable in this study apart from fear. Participants in the powerful condition reported significantly less fear than participants in the powerless condition. Power did not affect feelings of anger or indeed any behavioural tendencies as previous research reviewed in this chapter would have suggested (Fitness, 2000; Galinsky et al., 2003; Keltner et al., 2003). Furthermore, the conditions for mediation or moderation were not met.

The regression analyses performed on emotions and coping strategies produced a pattern of results that is mainly consistent with the overall findings of Studies 1 and 2 (see Chapter 4). Fear was negatively related to negotiation and advocacy seeking and anger positively related to negotiation and advocacy and negatively related to denial. These findings partially support our expectations: In Study 2, fear was the predictor of avoidance coping strategies. Although no effects of fear on avoidance were observed in Study 3, the negative relationship of fear with the two approach related coping strategies of negotiation and advocacy is consistent with our previous findings. In Study 1, anger was a significant predictor of offensive and reporting action tendencies. In this study, anger was a significant predictor of negotiation and advocacy seeking that can be seen as approach-related behavioural tendencies (direct or indirect). Therefore, with regards to anger, these results are also in support of our expectations.

A main concern of the current study and the previous studies reported in this thesis is that people did not strongly classify the event as sexual harassment. This may be the reason why moderation and/or mediation effects were not obtained in the current study. As such, in the next study (Study 4) the perpetrator will be a supervisor and the harassing behaviour will involve attempts at physical contact. We expect that participants will more readily classify this as sexual harassment. It is also possible that in this context, power may start to play some role in women's emotional reactions to sexual harassment. The aim of the following study was to examine the effects of power on emotions and coping strategies, to check whether the relationship between emotions and coping strategies is qualified by condition (power) and whether the effects of condition on coping strategies are mediated by emotions.

STUDY 4

Method

Participants

This study involved ninety-five female students that took part voluntarily. They, once more, constituted of an opportunity-chosen sample of the undergraduate population of students at the University of Kent. Participant's ages were between 18 to 40 years, with 98% of the sample being younger than 26 years ($M= 19.6$, $SD= 3.2$).

Design and Measures and Procedure

Data collection took place using on-line questionnaires powered by the QMS program. This was done in the same way as in Study 3. Participants were randomly assigned to each of the two conditions; powerful (N=48) and powerless (N=47). The questionnaires consisted of three main parts: the power prime instructing them to recall situations depending on condition, the passage describing an incident of harassment and the main questionnaire. The sexual harassment passage read as follows: *"For the past three months, things have become increasingly uncomfortable for you with regards to your final year project supervisor at the University. You and your supervisor have weekly meetings for your project progress. You have actively sought a very civil and professional working relationship with your supervisor; however things have changed significantly in the past few months. The supervisor on several occasions has told you that you would not be working with him, were you not "pretty enough" and always makes inappropriate*

remarks about your appearance. He has also repeatedly requested that you meet outside the University for drinks. What has actually made this worse for you is that on many occasions lately, your supervisor has made attempts to touch you despite your strictly professional behaviour towards him. You have asked him to stop. However the behaviour has not stopped. You are becoming increasingly upset and you are finding the meetings with him more difficult every week."

The third part of the questionnaire was identical to Study 3. The only difference was that two more items were added for the advocacy coping strategy. In order to reflect the policies of the University of Kent with regards to sexual harassment, two relevant questions were added: "Talk to specially appointed harassment contacts" and "Talk to the equality co-ordinator".

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Principal Components Analyses: Emotion Scale

The six emotions were submitted to a principal components analysis. The rotated solution confirmed the presence of two distinguishable factors. Factor 1 was measuring fear with three loadings; "scared", "terrified", "anxious" and accounted for 38.2% of the variance with all three loadings >.7. Factor 2 was measuring anger with three loadings; "angry", "irritated", "outraged" and accounted for 36.5% of the variance with all three loadings >.8 (see Table 21).

Table 21: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the 6 items of the Emotions Scale*

Item	Factor 1 (Fear)	Factor 2 (Anger)
Scared	.91	
Terrified	.90	
Anxious	.76	
Angry		.84
Irritated		.84
Outraged		.80
Eigenvalues	2.29	2.19
% of variance	38.2	36.5

N=95

Coping Strategies Measurement

The fourteen coping strategies items were submitted to a principal components analysis using Varimax rotation and five factors were imposed. The rotated solution confirmed the presence of five distinguishable factors. Factor 1 was identified as advocacy seeking with five loadings and accounted for 25.5% of the variance with all five loadings >.6. Factor 2 was identified as avoidance with two factor loadings and accounted for 14.5% of the variance with both loadings >.9. Factor 3 was identified as social coping with three factor loadings and accounted for 13.1% of the variance all loadings >.6. Factor 4 was identified as denial with two factor loadings and accounted for 12.8% of the variance with both loadings >.8. Finally, factor 5 was identified as negotiation with two factor loadings and accounted for 12.7% of the variance with both loadings >.8 (see Table 22).

Table 22: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Coping Strategies Measurement*

Item	Factor 1 (Advocacy.)	Factor 2 (Avoid.)	Factor 3 (Soc.Cop)	Factor 4 (Denial)	Factor 5 (Negot)
Advocacy seeking 1	.684				
Advocacy seeking 2	.844				
Advocacy seeking 3	.813				
Advocacy seeking 4	.885				
Advocacy seeking 5	.753				
Avoidance 1		.954			
Avoidance 2		.954			
Soc.Cop.1			.607		
Soc.Cop.2			.832		
Soc.Cop.3			.813		
Denial 1				.899	
Denial 2				.886	
Negotiation 1					.900
Negotiation 2					.875
Eigenvalues	3.6	2.0	1.8	1.8	1.8
% of variance	25.5	14.5	13.1	12.8	12.7

N=95

Reliability Analyses

Internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured using Cronbach's Alpha for each part of the questionnaire. All measures reached high levels of internal consistency (See Table 23).

Table 23: *Cronbach's Alpha For Each Part of the Questionnaire*

Part of the Questionnaire	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Emotion Scale:	
Anger	.80
Fear	.82
Coping Strategies:	
Advocacy	.88
Social Cop.	.63
Negotiation	.85

Part of the Questionnaire	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Avoidance	**.96**
Denial	**.83**

The means, standard deviations and minimum maximum ranges of emotions, coping strategies, and classification of incident are presented in Table 24.

Table 24: Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges of Major Variables

Variable (No. of items)	Mean(SD)		Minimum-Maximum
Emotion Scale (12)			
Anger (3)	6.81	(1.14)	3 - 8
Fear (3)	6.09	(1.55)	1 - 8
Coping Strategies (14)			
Advocacy (5)	4.67	(1.35)	1- 7
Social Coping (3)	6.38	(.75)	4- 7
Negotiation (2)	6.09	(1.10)	2- 7
Avoidance (2)	6.16	(1.18)	1- 7
Denial (2)	3.53	(1.67)	1- 7
Classification (1)	5.57	(1.27)	1- 7

Note: All statistics are based on N=95. Emotions were measured on an 8-point scale, Coping Strategies, Unfairness, Classification and Power were measured on a 7-point scale

Classification of incident as sexual harassment

A one way ANOVA was performed with classification as the dependent variable and condition (powerful vs. powerless) as the independent variable. The results indicate that participants' classification of the incident as sexual harassment did not differ depending on condition ($F_{1, 93}$= .48, p>.49). A one-sample t-test was performed against the scale midpoint (4) on the item of measuring classification of sexual harassment, in order to establish whether the behaviour described in the scenario is overall perceived by

the participants as sexually harassing. The results indicate that the item is significantly different from the test value of 4 ($t=12.05$; $df=.94$; $p<.001$). The mean suggests that the participants strongly recognised the scenario used in this study as sexual harassment ($M=5.57$; $SD=1.27$).

Main Analyses

Correlations of main variables

The relationships between anger and fear (emotions), coping strategies, and classification variables were tested in a bivariate correlation analysis. Anger and fear were not significantly correlated in this study. Anger was positively correlated with advocacy and negotiation and negatively correlated with denial, thus indicating that the more anger participants felt, the more advocacy and negotiation and the less denial they were likely to report. When participants reported feeling fear, they were more likely to report avoidance strategies. The results of the analysis are presented below (see Table 25)

Table 25: *Correlation Table for main variables*

	Fear	Advocacy	Negot.	Soc.Cop.	Avoid	Denial	Classif.
Anger	.18	.35**	.44**	.13	.04	-.37**	.19
Fear	-	.04	.26*	.18	.23*	-.15	.16
Advocacy		-	.35**	.20	-.08	.37**	.37**
Negotiation.			-	.34**	.22*	-.27**	.34**
Soc.Cop.				-	.25*	-.09	.26**
Avoidance					-	.11	.17
Denial						-	.26*

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

Effect of Power on Emotions

A 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with emotions (anger, fear) as the within-subjects factor and condition (powerful vs. powerless) as the between-subjects factor. The results indicated a significant main effect of emotions ($F_{(1,93)}$=16.09, p<.001). Participants indicated feeling more anger in response to the sexually harassing scenario (M=6.81, SD=1.14) than fear (M=6.09, SD=1.55). No significant interaction was found between emotions and condition ($F_{(1,93)}$=1.83, p>.10).

Effect of Power on Coping Strategies

A 2 x 5 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted in order to test for the main effect of coping strategies (advocacy, negotiation, social coping, avoidance and denial) and any interaction between coping strategies and condition (powerful vs. powerless). The results indicated a significant main effect of coping strategies ($F_{(4,90)}$=101.95,

$p<.001$) (see Table 26). No significant interaction was found between coping strategies and condition ($F(4,90)=.53$, $p>.50$). Pairwise comparisons were also performed on coping strategies, and indicated that the participants were least likely to opt for denial strategies ($M= 3.53$) which was less than social coping ($M= 6.38$) ($t= -14.66$, $df= 94$, $p<.001$), less than negotiation ($M= 6.09$) ($t= -11.17$, $df= 94$, $p<.001$), less than avoidance ($M= 6.16$) ($t= -13.25$, $df= 94$, $p<.001$) and less than advocacy ($M= 4.67$) ($t= -4.41$, $df= 94$, $p<.001$). Social coping was the participants' most frequently reported coping strategy, more than negotiation ($t= 2.51$, $df= 94$, $p<.02$) more than advocacy ($t= 11.84$, $df= 94$, $p<.001$), but it was not different to avoidance ($t= 1.71$, $df= 94$, $p>.09$). Participants also reported more avoidance ($t= 13.25$, $df= 94$, $p<.001$) than denial. Avoidance and negotiation were not significantly different ($t= .47$, $df= 94$, $p>.64$).

Table 26: Main effects of coping strategies

Coping strategy	Total M(SD)	Powerful	Powerless
Advocacy	4.67 (1.35)	4.49(1.29)	4.85(1.40)
Social Coping	6.38 (.75)	6.38(.68)	6.38(.82)
Negotiation	6.09 (1.10)	5.98(1.16)	6.21(1.05)
Avoidance	6.16 (1.18)	6.19(1.11)	6.14(1.26)
Denial	3.53 (1.67)	3.64(1.66)	3.41(1.70)

Emotions and Coping Strategies

As in Study 3 hierarchical regression analyses were performed first, in order to test whether any of the relationships between emotions and coping strategies were moderated by condition. This showed that none of the relationships between emotions and coping strategies were qualified by condition (all $p>.10$). As shown above, condition

had no effects on either of the emotions or any of the coping strategies. Therefore, the conditions for mediation were also not met in this study.

However, due to the specific predictions of this thesis, the relationship between emotions and coping strategies was investigated further. In order to test which emotion predicts better a particular coping strategy, separate regressions were conducted for each of the coping strategies (advocacy, social coping, negotiation, avoidance and denial). Anger and fear were entered simultaneously as predictors of coping strategies. Classification was controlled for in the first step. The first regression was performed on advocacy ($F_{2,91}$=13.58, p<.001) and anger was the only significant predictor of advocacy (β=.42, t= 4.72, p<.001). Fear was not a significant predictor of advocacy (β=-.09, t= -.99, p>.3). The second regression was performed on negotiation ($F_{2,91}$=12.30, p<.001). Anger (β=.37, t= 4.02, p<.001), but not fear (β=.15, t= 1.69, p>.09), was a significant predictor of negotiation. The third regression was on avoidance ($F_{2,91}$=2.34, p>.05). Fear was the only significant predictor of avoidance (β=.21, t= 2.03, p<.05). Anger was not a predictor (β=-.02, t= -.23, p>.8). The fourth regression was on denial ($F_{2,91}$=6.62, p<.001). Again, anger was a significant predictor for Denial coping strategies (β=-.32, t=- 3.29, p<.001) but not fear (β=-.06, t=- .65, p>.5; See Table 27). The final regression was performed on social coping ($F_{2,91}$=2.98, p<.04). Neither anger (β=.07, t= .65, p>.51) nor fear (β=.13, t= 1.26, p>.20) were significant predictors of social coping.

Table 27: *Anger and Fear and Coping Strategies:*

	Anger					Fear				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R²	R	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R²	r
Advocacy	.42	4.72	<.001	.31	.35	-.09	-.99	.326	.31	.04
Soc.Coping	.07	.65	.517	.09	.13	.13	1.26	.209	.09	.18
Negotiation	.37	4.02	<.001	.29	.44	.15	1.69	.093	.29	.26
Avoidance	-.02	-.23	.817	.07	.04	.21	2.03	.045	.07	.23
Denial	-.32	-3.29	.001	.18	-.37	-.06	-.65	.515	.18	-.15

DISCUSSION

The present study was a replication of Study 3. This study provides an interesting pattern of results that is generally consistent with Study 3. This time, participants did recognise the scenario as describing sexual harassment. Participants were significantly more ready to recognise a supervisor that attempts unwanted physical contact as committing sexual harassment. These findings are consistent with previous research on the acknowledgment of sexual harassment. As aforementioned, it has been shown that a perceived higher organisational status of the perpetrator can affect women's perceptions as well as reactions to sexual harassment (Stockdale et al., 1995). Also, research has shown that harassment that involves physical contact is more likely to be recognised as such, as it is perceived to be more severe (Baker et al., 1990; Hunter & McClelland, 1991; Terpstra & Baker, 1989).

However, condition had no effect on perceptions of sexual harassment, whether individuals belonged to the powerless or the powerful condition made no difference to their perceptions of sexual harassment in this context. Furthermore, the manipulation of feelings of power did not affect any variable in this study. Power did not affect feelings of anger or indeed any behavioural tendencies. Perhaps power is not necessary in order to experience anger, but lack of power is necessary in order to experience fear.

Furthermore, similar to Study 3, the conditions for mediation were not met and there were no moderation effects of condition on the relationship between emotions and coping strategies. The regression analyses performed on emotions and coping strategies produced a pattern of results that is mainly consistent with the overall findings of Studies 1, 2 and 3. Fear in this study was not related to advocacy seeking but positively related to avoidance. Anger was positively related to negotiation and advocacy and negatively related to denial. These findings partially line our expectations. The positive relationship of fear with avoidance coping strategies is consistent with the findings of Study 3. These findings are also in support with emotions theories, which posit that fear leads to avoidance tendencies and anger leads to approach related behavioural tendencies (Frijda, 1986; Frijda et al., 1989; Roseman et al., 1994; Shaver et al., 1987).

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Studies 3 and 4 were designed to assess the role of power in the emotional experience of a sexually harassing event, and the consequent coping strategies of the victim. Interestingly, the effects of power on emotions and coping strategies were not shown in either of the two studies. This finding could be associated with the lack of

relatedness of the manipulation used in these studies to the harassing situation presented afterwards. Power in harassing situations is often related to the context of the harassment, e.g. the status of the perpetrator, the relationship between victim and perpetrator and also the social support and permissiveness of the working environment (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; Schulman & Watts, 1990). As such, the next studies of this thesis will focus on the aforementioned factors which may provide the expected effects.

The combined findings of both studies indicated that participants overall felt more anger as a response to reading the scenarios than fear. Negotiation was the coping strategy favoured by participants in Study 3 whereas social coping was favoured by participants in Study 4. Nevertheless, a confounding element in Study 4 was that along with harassment type (more severe) the status of the perpetrator was also changed (superior). In Study 3 the perpetrator was a person of equal status to the victim, whereas in Study 4 the perpetrator was of higher status. Literature on sexual harassment indicates that victims' decision to confront the perpetrator is linked to the perpetrator's organisational status (Bingham & Scherer, 1993). The higher the status of the perpetrator, the less likely it is that victims will confront their harasser for fear of reprisals or retaliation. Therefore, these findings show that perpetrator status may play a role in victims' emotions and coping strategies. This relationship will be investigated further in the following chapter. Advocacy was the least favoured option by participants in both studies. This finding is consistent with the previous literature on reporting trends and filing formal complaints (Charney & Russel, 1994; USMSPB, 1995).

It is suggested by the findings of Study 3 that anger is not affected by power as previously supported by the literature (Averill, 1982; Izard, 1977; Mondillon et al., 2005;

Roseman, 1984). However, the victims' perception of the power they have in relation to the perpetrator was not measured in these studies. Therefore, it cannot be said with certainty whether the power manipulation worked or not. The studies to follow will include a measurement of perceived power. In fact, the studies presented so far have not addressed the role of appraisals. Emotional reactions have been found to be affected by the way victims appraise certain situations (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Frijda et al., 1989; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985) (see Chapter 2). Therefore, the next empirical chapter will address the role of appraisals in emotions, and measure the appraisals of different contexts of sexual harassment. This will allow for the examination of the main question to emerge from this chapter: whether feelings of anger are indeed affected by appraisals of power or appraisals of unfairness and injustice regardless of power.

CHAPTER 6

Appraisals, emotions and coping strategies

This chapter presents the third set of empirical studies for this thesis. Studies 5 and 6 examined the effect of perpetrator type on the relationship between specific emotions experienced in relation to the sexual harassment and particular behavioural tendencies that stem from it. These studies also examined the role of appraisals of power and perceived unfairness in emotions and coping strategies. Study 5 (N=113) tested the relationship between type of perpetrator (supervisor vs. student), emotional reactions and coping strategies of participants that read a scenario describing gender harassment, including sexist jokes and pornographic material. Study 6 (N=117) tested the relationship between type of perpetrator, emotions and particular coping strategies of participants that were presented with a more severe harassing situation that involves physical contact. The overall findings indicated that in the supervisor condition, participants perceived the incident as more unfair, perceived themselves as having less power than the perpetrator, felt more anger and fear, and were more likely to engage in advocacy seeking and avoidance, as opposed to the participants in the student condition that reported more negotiation with the perpetrator. Anger was consistently related to feelings of unfairness/injustice, whereas fear was related to power in Study 5. Unfairness also mediated the relationship between type of perpetrator and anger. There were no moderating effects of condition on emotions. In terms of coping, unfairness predicted advocacy and denial (negatively) consistently, whereas power predicted avoidance.

INTRODUCTION

The previous four studies showed that emotions play a role in victims' responses to sexual harassment. The results obtained generally highlight that anger is related to the coping strategies of negotiation and advocacy seeking and negatively related to denial, whereas fear is related to avoidance. These results corroborate, on a general basis, the previous literature on emotions and behavioural tendencies (Frijda et al., 1986; Roseman et al., 1994, Yzerbyt et al., 2003). However, in Studies 3 and 4, these effects were not moderated by our manipulation of power. Power has been shown to influence cognitions and behaviour in a number of situations (Galinsky et al., 2003; Keltner et al., 2003). It is expected that the lack of a moderating effect of power might be due to the manipulation itself in this context. To be more precise, although this manipulation has proved effective in other studies (Galinsky et al., 2003), for this particular context of sexual harassment, it was perhaps rather distant from the situation described in the scenarios that followed it. In a more realistic context, victims would usually have differing status relationships with the offender and power perceptions would be tied to that relationship (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; European Commission, 1998; USMSPB, 1995). Therefore, the next set of studies to be presented in this chapter replicate the studies presented in Chapter 5. However, this time the victim is harassed by someone higher in status (professor/supervisor), or someone equal in status to them (fellow student).

In a previous study (Study 4), the status of the perpetrator was also manipulated along with the severity of the harassing incident. This confounded status of perpetrator with type of harassment. As such, there is a need to disentangle this confound in order to better understand the role of status of harasser in victims' perceptions of and responses to

sexual harassment. Each of these studies focused on both types of harassment as well as measuring victims' perceived power in terms of perpetrator status.

When it comes to emotions, some researchers believe that anger cannot be experienced without the feeling of having the necessary means or power to react (Mackie et al., 2000). In this proposed context, it is expected that participants will feel that they have more power in relation to the fellow student rather than the supervisor. Therefore, power would be influencing the experience of the emotion of anger as a response to sexual harassment. The relationship between condition (supervisor vs. student) and coping strategies to be adopted could be mediated by the emotions experienced as a result of the harassment. For example, if the harasser is a superior, participants could potentially choose advocacy seeking as a response but only when the emotion experienced is anger. If they experience fear, then participants may be choosing avoidance strategies instead.

It is also possible that the experience of anger is not related to feelings of power, rather the lack of power is related to the experience of fear (see Chapter 5). Instead, people may experience anger due to a perceived injustice happening to them. Indeed, previous research has claimed that feelings of unfairness may play a definitive role in the experience of negative affect (i.e. anger and sadness; Fitness, 2000; Kuppens et al., 2003). In our research, the supervisor has more power than the student. Therefore, the sexually harassing incident may be perceived as more unfair, in the sense that it is an exploitation of this power. This may result in stronger feelings of anger.

In this case, the status relationship may also moderate the relationship between anger and coping strategies. It is possible that anger will be related to negotiation but only for the student condition. The victim and the student harasser in these studies will be

expected to have equal status. As previously seen, power has often been associated with perceived efficacy, dependence, status, freedom and control (Haidt & Rodin, 1999; Keltner et al., 2003). Therefore, it may be easier to directly approach someone of equal status (fellow student) rather than someone of higher status (supervisor). Hence, in the supervisor condition anger may be related to advocacy seeking, which does not include direct contact with the perpetrator. The victims are also expected to report feeling more fear in the supervisor condition and to use more avoidance coping strategies. Status may also moderate the relationship between fear and avoidance and strengthen it in the supervisor condition, where the victim is expected to feel powerless.

As noted earlier, the role of appraisals has not been addressed up to now in this thesis. One of the main interests of this thesis is to examine whether different appraisals of sexually harassing incidents are the ones underlying the effects of our manipulations. In the two studies presented in this chapter, appraisals of injustice/unfairness and power are measured. As previously seen, these appraisals have been found to be related to the two emotions of interest to this thesis: anger and fear (see Chapter 2). Based on the findings of previous studies of this thesis, as well as a review of the literature surrounding emotions, it is expected that perceived power will be related to fear and perceived injustice will be related to anger (e.g. Fitness, 2000; Kuppens et al., 2003). It is expected that these two appraisals of power and unfairness will mediate the effects of the experimental manipulations on the emotions experienced by the participants. It is anticipated that judgements of power and injustice will be higher for the supervisor. Hence, the important question becomes: what would women do in this situation? What emotions will they experience and how will they cope with it? These are the problems

that are inherent in every harassment situation, as victims are known to experience a range of affect as a response, as well as adopt a multitude of coping strategies.

Appraisals are also expected to be related to coping strategies. In these studies, feelings of injustice may be related to negotiation and advocacy seeking. Power may be related to avoidance on the part of the victim. The question of interest is whether emotions will mediate the relationship between appraisals and coping strategies. This is highly plausible to expect, as previous research has indicated such a relationship with action tendencies (Yzerbyt et al., 2003). Nevertheless, the coping strategies utilised in these studies may be different from action tendencies (see Chapter 4). Action tendencies refer to what one may feel like doing (i.e. an action readiness) (Frijda, 1986; Yzerbyt et al., 2003). Coping strategies are more strategic and imply more cognitive processing than action tendencies (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2004; Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Hence, although emotion plays a clear role in the choices made by victims, they may not necessarily mediate the effects of appraisals on those choices.

As previously shown (e.g. Baumeister et al., 2007), there is always some level of conscious processing behind an action rather than simply feeling and then acting. Most importantly, what they termed "conscious emotion" involves the feedback from appraisals of a situation that assist the cognitive processes behind decision making and action (Baumeister et al., 2007). Therefore, appraisals may have their own independent effect on coping strategy choice. This conceptualisation is similar to what has been described as emotion focused coping versus problem/cognitive focused coping (Lazarus, 1991; Lazarus & Folkman, 1989).

The next two studies, examine the aforementioned relationships. Study 5 manipulated perceived power by presenting participants with a sexually harassing incident perpetrated by either a fellow student (power is equal) or a supervisor (offender has more power). The harassing incident for this study was the sending of pornographic material and sexist jokes (as in Study 3). Perceptions of sexual harassment, perceived power and perceived unfairness will also be measured in Study 5 and Study 6. Manipulation checks (perceived status, classification of incident as sexual harassment), emotions and coping strategies will also be measured.

Ethical Considerations

Participants were explicitly informed in writing that should they find the questionnaire or any of its items distressing that they should immediately stop and theu were also provided with the relevant departmental contacts for withdrawal of data (see Appendices I & II). All participants were presented with debrief forms that contained the appropriate counselling services and contact numbers specifically for sexual harassment but also general counselling services (see Appendix IV).

STUDY 5

Method

Participants

One hundred and thirteen female students from the University of Kent took part in this study on a voluntary basis. They constituted a random sample of the undergraduate

population. Participant's ages ranged from 18 to 45 years. Ninety percent of the sample were younger than 25 years (M= 21.14, SD= 4.68).

Design, Measures and Procedure

This study employed a between subjects design, with condition (student vs. supervisor) as the independent variable. Participant's self reported emotional reactions to the scenario (anger, fear), appraisals (unfairness, perceived power) and their self-reported coping strategies (advocacy seeking, social coping, negotiation, avoidance and denial) were the dependent variables. Participants were randomly assigned to each of the two conditions; the male student (N=55) and the supervisor (N=58). Participants in both conditions were asked to imagine themselves in the situation described.

Data collection took place at various sitting places on campus at the University of Kent. Participants were approached at random and asked to complete a questionnaire. The procedure of this study was identical to Study 3. The only difference was that participants were presented with scenarios describing an occurrence of sexual harassment which were either from a male student or a lecturer supervising the participants research project. These scenarios were similar to those used in Study 3. After reading the scenarios participants were asked to rate the extent to which they felt an array of emotions whilst reading the article. The participants were then asked to respond to four items that were collectively measuring unfairness/injustice. The first item was; "Do you think the male student is doing something wrong?" and the response scale ranged from 1=*not at all* to 7=*very much*. For items 2, 3 and 4 the question was "Do you think the male student's behaviour was…:" and the response ranged from 1=*appropriate* to 7=*inappropriate*, 1=

Unintentional to 7=*Intentional* and 1=*Justified* to 7=*Unjustified*. One item measured perceived status: "Do you agree that you and the male student are of equal status within your university?" and another item measured power: "Do you agree that you and the male student have equal power?" Dependent on condition the wording of the items changed from male student to supervisor. This was then followed by the 13-item coping strategies measurement (adapted from Wasti & Cortina, 2002) and the one item measuring classification of incident as sexual harassment.

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Principal Components Analyses: Emotion Scale

The six emotion items were submitted to a principal components analysis. Similarly to previous studies, the rotated solution confirmed the presence of two distinguishable factors. Factor 1 was identified fear with three loadings; "scared", "terrified", "anxious" and accounted for 44% of the variance. Factor 2 was identified as anger with three loadings; "angry", "irritated", "outraged" and accounted for 41.7% (see Table 28).

Table 28: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the 6 items of the Emotions Scale*

Item	Factor 1 (Fear)	Factor 2 (Anger)
Scared	.91	
Terrified	.91	
Anxious	.85	
Angry		.90
Irritated		.91
Outraged		.81
Eigenvalues	2.63	2.50
% of variance	44.0	41.7

N=113

Coping Strategies Measurement

The thirteen coping strategies items were submitted to a principal components analysis using Varimax rotation and five factors were imposed. The rotated solution confirmed the presence of five distinguishable factors. However, the item "talk to someone you trust about the situation" loaded on the factor intended for advocacy seeking so the item was omitted and another principal components analysis was performed. This again revealed the presence of five distinguishable factors. Factor 1 was identified as advocacy with three loadings and accounted for 19.7% of the variance. Factor 2 was identified as social coping with three factor loadings and accounted for 19.1%. Factor 3 was identified as avoidance with two factor loadings and accounted for 16.3% of the variance. Factor 4 was identified as denial with two factor loadings and accounted for 13.3% of the variance. Finally, the fifth factor was identified as negotiation with two factor loadings that accounted for 12.9% of the variance (see Table 29 below).

Table 29: Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Coping Strategies Measurement

Item	Factor 1 (Advocacy)	Factor 2 (Soc.Cop)	Factor 3 (Avoid)	Factor 4 (Denial)	Factor 5 (Negot.)
1. Advocacy seeking 1	.816				
2. Advocacy seeking 2	.887				
3. Advocacy seeking 3	.814				
4. Soc.Cop 1		.843			
5. Soc.Cop.2		.811			
6. Soc.Cop.3		.925			
7. Avoidance 1			.948		
8. Avoidance 2			.928		
9. Denial 1				.831	
10. Denial 2				.877	
11. Negotiation 1					.888
12. Negotiation 2					.846
Eigenvalues	2.4	2.3	1.9	1.6	1.5
% of variance	19.7	19.1	16.3	13.3	12.9

N=113

Unfairness

Four items collectively measuring unfairness were submitted to a principal components analysis using Varimax rotation. This revealed the presence of one factor accounting for 61.2% of the variance, with four loadings all >.60 (see Table 30).

Table 30: Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Unfairness Measurement

Item	Factor 1 Unfairness
1. Behaviour is wrong	.825
2. Behaviour is inappropriate	.857
3. Behaviour is intentional	.686
4. Behaviour is unjustified	.750
Eigenvalue:	2.45
% of Variance:	61.2

N=113

Reliability Analyses

Internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured using Cronbach's Alpha for each part of the questionnaire. All measures reached high levels of internal consistency (See Table 31).

Table 31: *Cronbach's Alpha for Each Part of the Questionnaire*

Part of the Questionnaire	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Emotion Scale:	
Anger	**.90**
Fear	**.92**
Coping Strategies:	
Advocacy	**.85**
Social Cop.	**.81**
Avoidance	**.92**
Denial	**.75**
Negotiation	**.64**
Unfairness:	**.76**

The means, standard deviations and minimum maximum ranges of emotions, coping strategies, unfairness, power and classification are presented in Table 32.

Table 32: *Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges of Major Variables*

Variable (No. of items)	Mean(SD)		Minimum-Maximum
Emotion Scale (12)			
Anger (3)	5.25	(1.82)	0 - 8
Fear (3)	3.25	(2.25)	0 - 8
Coping Strategies (13)			
Advocacy (3)	4.26	(1.62)	1- 7
Social Coping (3)	5.88	(1.21)	1- 7
Avoidance (2)	5.23	(1.54)	1- 7
Denial (2)	3.86	(1.48)	1- 7
Negotiation (2)	6.17	(.91)	3- 7

Variable (No. of items)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Unfairness (4)	6.23 (.72)	3- 7
Classification (1)	5.09 (1.63)	1- 7
Power (1)	4.06 (2.00)	1- 7

Note: All statistics are based on N=113. Emotions were measured on an 8-point scale; Coping Strategies were measured on a 7-point scale

Classification of incident as sexual harassment

A one way ANOVA was performed with classification as the dependent variable and condition (student vs. supervisor) as the independent variable. The results indicated that participants' classification of the incident as sexual harassment differed dependent on condition ($F_{(1, 112)}= 8.03$, $p<.01$). Participants in the supervisor condition were more likely to classify the incident as sexual harassment than participants in the male student condition (see Table 33). A one-sample t-test was performed against the scale midpoint (4) on the item of measuring classification of sexual harassment, in order to establish whether the behaviour described in the scenario is overall perceived by the participants as sexually harassing. The results indicate that the item is significantly different from the test value of 4 ($t= 7.08$; $df=112$; $p<.001$). The mean suggests that the participants overall recognised the scenario as sexual harassment ($M=5.09$; $SD=1.63$).

Table 33: Classification of incident as sexual harassment

Condition(N)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Supervisor (58)	5.50 (1.52)	2 - 7
Male student (55)	4.65 (1.65)	1 - 7

Ratings of Power

A one way ANOVA was performed with power (equal power) as the dependent variable and condition (student vs. supervisor) as the independent variable. As expected, the results indicate that participants' perception of power differed dependent on condition ($F_{(1, 111)}= 66.78$, $p<.001$.) Participants in the supervisor condition reported having less equal power to the harasser whereas participants in the male student condition reported having more equal power to the male student harasser (see Table 34).

Table 34: *Equal power*

Condition(N)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Supervisor (57)	2.86 (1.39)	1 - 7
Male student (55)	5.31 (1.76)	1 - 7

Ratings of Unfairness

A one way ANOVA was performed with unfairness as a dependent variable and condition (student vs. supervisor) as the independent. As expected, the results indicate that participants' perception of unfairness differed dependent on condition ($F_{(1, 112)}= 14.37$, $p<.0001$.) Participants in the supervisor condition reported the situation as being more unfair than the participants in the male student condition (see Table 35).

Table 35: *Unfairness*

Condition(N)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Supervisor (58)	6.47 (.55)	5 - 7
Male student (55)	5.98 (.80)	3 - 7

Main Analyses

Correlations of main variables

The relationships of anger and fear (emotions), coping strategies, unfairness, power and classification variables were tested in a bivariate correlation analysis. Anger and fear were highly correlated. Participants feeling anger were likely to report advocacy, negotiation, and to rate the incident as unfair. Participants feeling fear were more likely to report advocacy, avoidance, and feeling as having less power than the perpetrator. The results of the analysis are presented below (see Table 36).

Table 36: *Correlations of Main Variables*

	Fear	Adv	SoCop	Neg	Avoid	Den	Unfair	Pow.	Class
Anger	56**	.49**	.10	.25**	.19*	-.31**	.42**	-.15	.46**
F	-	.41**	.29**	.02	.34**	-.28**	.22*	-.46**	.32**
Adv		-	.14	.11	.28**	-.47**	.55**	-.27**	.55**
SC			-	.17	.18	-.15	.26**	-.18	.09
N				-	.01	-.03	.30**	.25**	.14
Avoid					-	-.08	.24**	.16	.35**
D						-	-.37**	.19*	-.38**
U							-	.05	.38**

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

Effect of Perpetrator Type on Appraisals

A 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with appraisals (unfairness, equal power) as the within-subjects factor and condition (male student vs. supervisor) as

the between-subjects factor. The results indicated a significant main effect of appraisals ($F_{(1,110)}=203.82$, $p<.001$). Participants indicated that they perceived the incident as unfair ($M=6.23$, $SD=.73$) and that they generally saw themselves as having less power than the perpetrators overall ($M=4.06$, $SD=2.00$). A significant interaction was found between appraisals and condition ($F_{(1,110)}=96.46$, $p<.001$). Simple effects analyses were computed to further examine the interaction found. These analyses revealed that perpetrator type had an effect on both appraisals. Participants in the supervisor condition perceived the incident as more unfair ($M=6.47$, $SD=.09$) than participants in the student condition ($M=5.98$, $SD=.09$) ($F_{(1,110)}=14.66$, $p<.001$). Perceptions of power were also significantly different depending on type of perpetrator ($F_{(1,110)}=66.78$, $p<.001$). Participants in the supervisor condition reported not having power equal to the perpetrator's ($M=2.86$, $SD=.21$), whereas participants in the student condition reported having more equal power with the perpetrator ($M=5.31$, $SD=.21$).

Effect of Perpetrator type on Emotions

A 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with emotions (anger, fear) as the within-subjects factor and condition (male student vs. supervisor) as the between-subjects factor. The results indicated a significant main effect of emotions ($F_{(1,111)}=136.98$, $MSE=1.67$, $p<.001$). Participants indicated feeling more anger in response to the sexually harassing scenario ($M=5.25$, $SD=1.82$) than fear ($M=3.25$, $SD=2.25$). A significant interaction was found between emotions and condition ($F_{(1,111)}=14.88$, $MSE=1.67$, $p<.001$). Simple effects analyses were computed to further examine this interaction. These analyses revealed that perpetrator type had an effect on

both emotions. Participants in the supervisor condition reported more anger (M=5.60, SD=.23) than participants in the student condition (M=6.88, SD=.24) ($F_{(1,111)}$=4.55, p<.04). Fear was also significantly different depending on type of perpetrator ($F_{(1,111)}$=29.35, p<.001). Participants in the supervisor condition reported feeling more fear (M=4.25, SD=.26), than participants in the student condition (M=2.2, SD=.27).

Effect of Perpetrator Type on Coping Strategies

A 2 x 5 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with coping strategies (advocacy, negotiation, social coping, avoidance and denial) as the within-subjects factor and condition (male student vs. supervisor) as the between-subjects factor. The results indicated a significant main effect of coping strategies ($F_{(4,108)}$=101.28, MSE=1.69, p<.001). However, a significant interaction was found between coping strategies and condition ($F_{4,108}$=13.12, MSE=1.69, p<.001). This interaction is displayed in the graph below (see Figure 2). Simple effects analyses were computed to further examine the interaction found. These analyses revealed that type of perpetrator had an effect on coping strategies. Participants in the supervisor condition reported more advocacy seeking (M=4.97, SD=.19) than participants in the student condition (M=3.51, SD=.20) ($F_{(1,111)}$=27.89, p<.001), more social coping (M=6.15, SD=.15) than participants in the student condition (M=5.58, SD=.16) ($F_{(1,111)}$=6.70, p<.02), less negotiation (M=6.01, SD=.12) than participants in the student condition (M=6.34, SD=.12) ($F_{(1,111)}$=3.94, p<.05) and less denial (M=3.34, SD=.18) than participants in the student condition (M=4.42, SD=.19) ($F_{(1,111)}$=17.14, p<.001). Avoidance strategies did not differ on condition ($F_{(1,111)}$=2.21, p>.1).
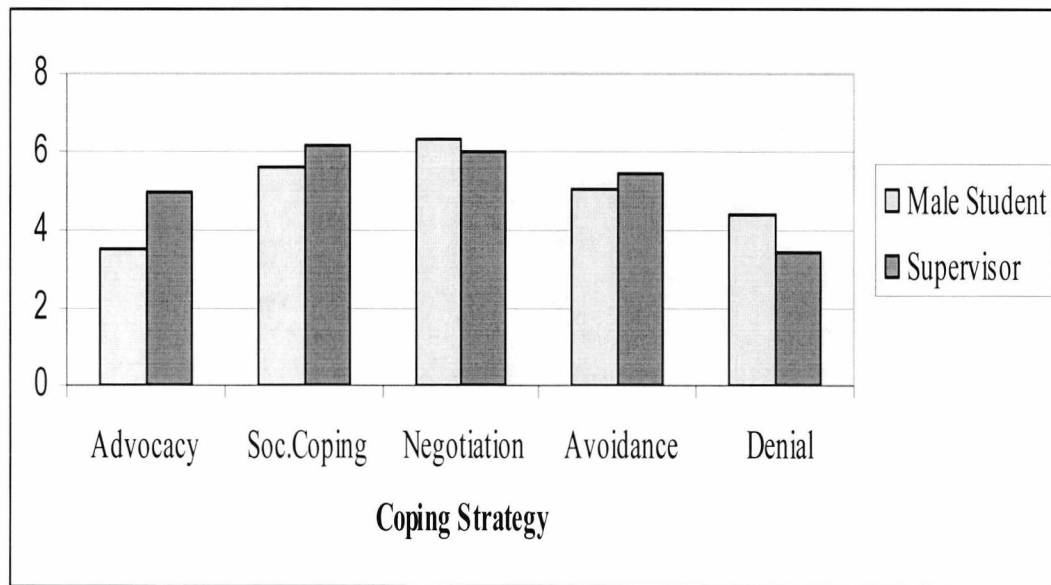
Figure 2: *Effects of Perpetrator Type on Coping Strategies*

Appraisals and Emotions

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed in order to test whether any of the relationships between appraisals and emotions were qualified by condition. Classification of incident as sexual harassment was controlled for in the first step. This showed that none of the relationships between emotions and appraisals that will be reported below were qualified by condition (all $p > .14$). Therefore, the relationship between appraisals and emotions was not different depending on perpetrator type.

Because there are specific predictions in this thesis with regards to appraisals and emotions, a linear regression was performed on the two emotions of anger and fear and the two appraisals they were found to correlate with (unfairness and perceived power) controlling for classification of incident in the first step. This also allowed us to examine the effects of power independent of perceived status. The first regression was performed on anger ($F_{4,112} = 11.81$, $p < .001$). Unfairness ($\beta = .31$, $t = 3.46$, $p < .01$), but not perceived

power was a significant predictor of anger. The second regression was performed on fear ($F_{4,111}=11.69$, $p<.001$) and revealed that perceived power only was a significant negative predictor of fear ($\beta=-.42$, $t=-3.32$, $p<.01$). Further regressions were run to clarify which particular emotions predicted which appraisals. Unfairness ($F_{2,112}=12.18$, $p<.001$) was predicted by anger ($\beta=.44$, $t=4.20$, $p<.001$) and not fear ($\beta=-.01$, $t=-.23$, $p>.80$). Perceived power ($F_{2,111}=16.18$, $p<.001$) was predicted by fear ($\beta=-.55$, $t=-5.4$, $p<.001$) and not anger ($\beta=.16$, $t=1.56$, $p>.10$) (see Table 37).

Table 37: *Anger and Fear and Appraisals:*

	Anger					Fear				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R^2	R	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R^2	R
Unfairness	.44	4.20	<.001	.18	.42	-.02	-.23	.816	.18	.23
Perceived power	.16	1.56	.122	.23	-.15	-.55	-5.40	<.001	.23	-.46

Perpetrator Type, Appraisals and Emotions

Mediation analyses using regressions (Barron & Kenny, 1986) were performed in order to investigate whether the effects of condition on emotion are mediated by appraisals. For the purpose of this analysis, participants' anger was regressed on condition (perpetrator type). As expected, participants in the supervisor condition (vs. student condition) scored higher on anger ($\beta=.20$, $t=2.13$, $p<.03$). Next, participants' perceptions of unfairness were regressed on condition. Women in the supervisor condition (vs. student condition) perceived the incident as more unfair ($\beta=.34$, $t=3.79$, $p<.001$). Unfairness was evaluated further as a potential mediator. In the final step, anger

was regressed on unfairness and condition simultaneously. This analysis revealed a significant relationship between perceived unfairness and anger (β=.31, t= 3.14, p<.01), whereas condition no longer significantly predicted anger (β=.07, t=.67, p<.50, see Figure 5 below). A Sobel test revealed that the reduction in the effect of condition was significant (z=2.87. p<.01).
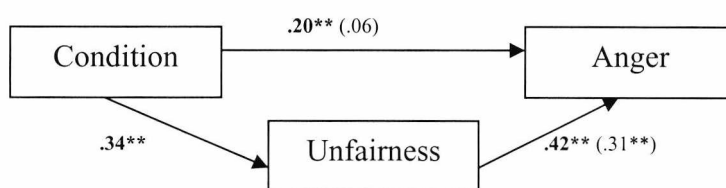
Figure 3: *Mediation of the relationship between condition and anger by perceived unfairness*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

The relationship between fear and condition with power as a mediator was also tested. Participants' fear was regressed on condition (perpetrator type). As anticipated, participants in the supervisor condition (vs. student condition) reported more fear (β=.46, t= 5.42, p<.001). Next, participants' perceptions of perceived power were regressed on condition. Women in the supervisor condition (vs. student condition) reported having less power than the perpetrator (β=-.61, t=-8.17, p<.001). Perceived power was evaluated further as a potential mediator. In the final step, fear was simultaneously regressed on perceived power and condition. This showed a significant relationship between perceived power and fear (β=-.29, t=-2.82, p<.01) and a reduction in the effect of perpetrator type

on fear (β=.27, t=2.57, p<.02, see Figure 4 below). A Sobel test revealed that the reduction in the effect of condition was significant (z=2.65. p<.01).
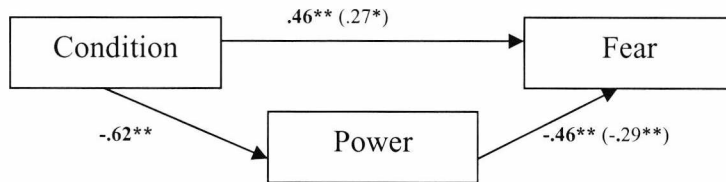
Figure 4: *Mediation of the relationship between Condition and Fear by perceived Power*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

Emotions and Coping Strategies

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed in order to test whether any of the relationships between emotions and coping strategies were moderated by condition. Again, classification of incident was controlled for in the first step. This showed that none of the relationships between emotions and coping strategies were qualified by condition (all p's>.10). Therefore, only the results for the regressions examining the relationship between emotions and coping strategies will be reported.

In order to test which emotion predicts better a particular coping strategy, linear regressions were performed on the two emotions of anger and fear and each of the five coping strategies, controlling for classification in the first step. The first regression was performed on advocacy ($F_{3,112}$=7.96, p<.01) and anger (β=.21, t= 2.14, p<.04), but not fear (β=.17, t= 1.87, p>.05), emerged as the only significant predictor of advocacy. In the second regression on negotiation ($F_{3,112}$=3.36, p=.021) anger (β=.33, t= 2.74, p<.01), but

not fear (β=-.18, t= -1.59, p>.11), emerged again as a significant predictor. The third regression was on social coping ($F_{3,112}$=3.64, p<.01) and fear was the only significant predictor of social coping (β=.34, t= 3.06, p<.01). Anger was not a predictor of social coping (β=-.11, t= -.91, p>.30). Anger and fear were next regressed on avoidance ($F_{3,112}$=8.66, p<.001) and this showed that and fear (β=.31, t=2.98, p<.01), but not anger (β=-.12, t= -1.12, p>.20) was the only significant predictor. Denial ($F_{3,112}$=7.81, p<.001) was not predicted by either fear (β=-.12, t= -1.16, p>.20) or anger (β=-.11, t= -.98, p>.30; See Table 38).

Table 38: Anger and Fear and Coping Strategies:

	Anger					Fear				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R^2	R	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R^2	R
Advocacy	.21	1.14	.034	.40	.49	.17	1.87	.064	.40	.41
Soc.Coping	-.11	-.91	.364	.09	.10	.34	3.06	.003	.09	.29
Negotiation	.33	2.74	.007	.08	.25	-.18	-1.59	.115	.08	.02
Avoidance	-.12	-1.12	.266	19	.19	.31	2.98	.004	.19	.34
Denial	-.11	-.98	.327	.18	-.31	-.12	-1.16	.248	.18	-.28

Appraisals and Coping Strategies

The results concerning emotions and coping strategies were consistent with previous findings of this thesis. Next, we examined whether emotions mediated the relationship between appraisals and coping strategies. First, regressions were performed

to examine the relationship between appraisals (unfairness, power) and coping strategies. Classification was controlled for in these analyses. The first regression ($F_{4,111}=26.37$, $p<.001$) revealed that unfairness was the only significant predictor of advocacy ($\beta=.38$, $t=5.05$, $p<.001$). The second regression was performed on Negotiation ($F_{4,111}=7.62$, $p<.001$) and again unfairness was the only significant predictor of negotiation ($\beta=.35$, $t=3.74$, $p<.001$). The third regression was on Social Coping ($F_{4,111}=3.62$, $p<.01$). Both unfairness and power were significant predictors with unfairness being positively related to social coping ($\beta=.29$, $t=2.94$, $p<.01$) and power being negatively related ($\beta=-.34$, $t=-2.42$, $p<.02$). The fourth regression was on avoidance ($F_{4,111}=4.99$, $p<.01$). Unfairness ($\beta=.12$, $t=1.21$, $p>.20$) and equal power ($\beta=-.10$, $t=-.74$, $p>.40$) were both not significant predictors of avoidance. The final regression was on Denial ($F_{4,111}=8.18$, $p<.001$). Unfairness was the only significant predictor of denial ($\beta=-.25$, $t=-2.71$, $p<.009$) (See Table 39).

Table 39: *Unfairness, Equal Power and Coping Strategies:*

	Unfair					Power				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R^2	R	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R^2	R
Advocacy	.38	5.05	<.001	.50	.55	-.15	-1.40	.163	.50	.27
Soc.Coping	.29	2.94	.004	.12	.26	-.34	-2.42	.017	.12	.18
Negotiation	.35	3.74	<.001	.22	.30	-.01	-.10	.922	.22	.25
Avoidance	.12	1.21	.227	16	.24	-.10	-.74	.460	.16	-.16
Denial	-.25	-2.71	.008	.23	-.37	.11	.84	.400	.23	.20

Mediation Analyses

Analyses were conducted for those variables whose relationships met the conditions for mediation based on the analyses above. These relationships were: Unfairness-Anger-Negotiation, Unfairness-Anger-Advocacy and Power-Fear-Social Coping. Negotiation was regressed on anger and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between anger and negotiation was significantly reduced ($\beta=.15$, $t=1.48$, $p>.10$), whereas the relationship between unfairness and negotiation remained significant ($\beta=.24$, $t=2.44$, $p<.02$). A Sobel test confirmed that the reduction in the effect of unfairness was not significant ($z=1.41$. $p>.15$). We also tested whether the reverse mediation effects occurred (i.e. to see whether the effects of anger on negotiation are mediated by unfairness. We found that perceived unfairness appears to affect the relationship between anger and negotiation ($z=2.21$, $p<.05$; see Figure 5).
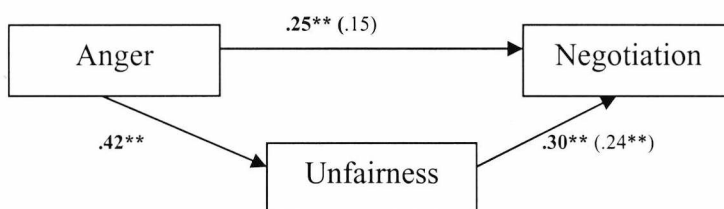
Figure 5: *Mediation of the relationship between Anger and Negotiation by Unfairness*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

The relationship between unfairness and advocacy with anger as a mediator was also examined. Advocacy was regressed on anger and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between anger and advocacy was significant

(β=.31, *t= 3.78, p<.001*), and the relationship between unfairness and advocacy remained

significant (β=.41, *t=5.01, p<.001*) even with anger in the equation. A Sobel test

confirmed that anger partially explains the relationship between advocacy and unfairness

(*z*=2.99, *p*<.01). To see whether the effects of anger on advocacy were mediated by

unfairness another set of mediations was performed and it appears that the appraisal of

unfairness partially explains the relationship between anger and advocacy (*z*=3.51, *p*<.01;

see Figure 6).
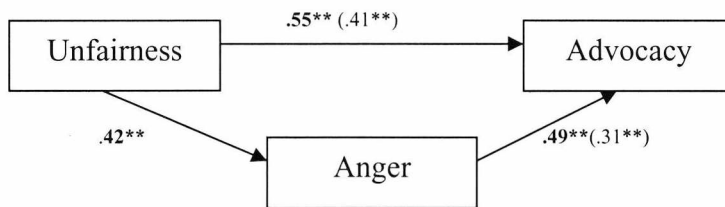
Figure 6: *Mediation of the relationship between Unfairness and Advocacy by Anger*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

We also tested for the relationship between equal power and social coping with

fear as a mediator. For the purpose of this analysis, participants' social coping scores

were regressed on perceived power. Social coping was regressed on fear and perceived

power simultaneously. The relationship between fear and social coping was significant

(β=.25, *t= 2.43, p<.02*), and the relationship between power and social coping was not

significant (β=-.06, *t=-.63, p>.50*) with anger in the equation. A Sobel test confirmed the

reduction in the effect of perceived power was significant. This indicates that the effects

of power on social coping are fully mediated by fear (*z*=2.21, *p*<.03) (see Figure 7). As

shown below the relationship between power and social coping was reduced to non-significant when fear is simultaneously entered. Therefore, the reverse mediation effects shown in the analyses above where not present here.
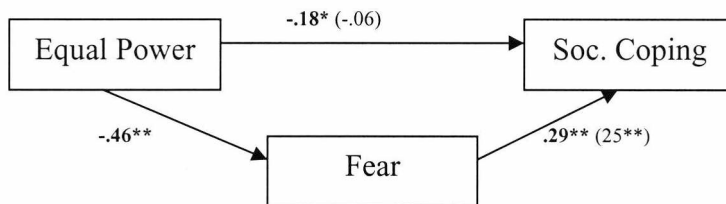
Figure 7: *Mediation of the relationship between Perceived Power and Social Coping by Fear*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

DISCUSSION

The present study provides an interesting pattern of results. Generally, participants recognised the scenario as describing sexual harassment. However, condition had an effect on perception of sexual harassment, with individuals in the supervisor condition more willing to recognise sexual harassment than people in the male student condition. This finding seems to corroborate previous research (European Commission, 1998; Pryor, 1985; Stockdale et al., 1995; USMSPB, 1995) insofar as suggesting that sexually harassing acts perpetrated by people holding more organisational power than the victim, are more readily recognised as sexually harassing.

The results of this study indicate significant effects of condition (i.e. status/type of perpetrator) on appraisals, emotions and coping strategies. Participants in the supervisor condition reported having less power than the perpetrator and perceived the incident as more unfair than participants in the male student condition. These findings are also in line with previous research (European Commission, 1998; Fitness, 2000; Pryor, 1985; Stockdale et al., 1995; USMSPB, 1995). In terms of emotions, participants in the supervisor condition reported feeling more anger and more fear than participants belonging to the male student condition. This finding seems logical in terms of fear since the supervisor clearly has more power than the victim. In terms of anger, these findings are in line with those of Fitness (2000): low power people are likely to become angry over what they perceive as unjust treatment by higher power workers, and will appraise those events as highly unfair. Thus power, may have no effect on anger but rather the lack of power may have an effect on fear.

In terms of coping strategies, participants in the condition where the harasser was a supervisor reported more advocacy seeking, social coping, and more avoidance than the participants with a male student as a harasser. Participants in the male student condition reported more negotiation strategies, and more denial than the participants in the supervisor condition. These findings are generally in line with our predictions as well as with general research on appraisals and behavioural tendencies. Harassers having higher organisational power and status are perceived as more dangerous than harassers that have a similar organisational status and power to the victim. When harassed by superiors, negotiation is not a likely option chosen by victims (Bingham & Scherer, 1993); victims are more likely to negotiate with a perpetrator of lower organisational status (Cortina &

Wasti, 2005). Avoidance of the perpetrator when there is no other viable option is also a strategy often adopted by women harassed by superiors (Bingham & Scherer, 1993).

Findings concerning advocacy seeking were not in-line with predictions. Advocacy seeking is found in the existing literature, to be adopted by victims that are harassed by perpetrators of equal or lower organisational status (Cortina & Wasti, 2005). Nevertheless, in this study, coping strategies are measured as likelihood to adopt a particular strategy. Therefore, women in this study might have felt that since the behaviour of the supervisor is more unfair, acting formally would be more appropriate than it would be in the harassment by the student. Moreover, being harassed by supervisors is more readily recognised by victims and others as sexually harassing (Charney & Russell, 1994) and therefore, for the victim, making a believable case could be perceived as more plausible (Shullman & Watts, 1990).

Appraisals mediated the relationship between type of perpetrator and emotions experienced. In particular, it was the appraisal of unfairness that mediated the relationship between condition (type of perpetrator) and anger, as opposed to the appraisal of power that mediated the relationship between condition and fear. These findings are in line with our predictions and the appraisal theories of emotions (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Frijda et al., 1989; Kuppens et al., 2003; Roseman et al., 1990; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

The regression analyses performed on emotions and coping strategies produced a pattern of results that is mainly consistent with the overall findings of previous studies. Fear was not related to negotiation but was positively related to avoidance and social support and anger was positively related to negotiation and advocacy and negatively

related to denial. These findings support the expectations stated at the beginning of this chapter.

Appraisals were also related to coping strategies, with unfairness predicting advocacy, negotiation and denial (negatively). Social coping was predicted by both power and unfairness. In terms of the mediating role of appraisals, this study indicated a mediating role of unfairness in the relationship between anger and negotiation and a mediating role of power in the relationship between type of perpetrator (condition) and fear. With regard to the mediating role of emotions, anger mediated the relationship between unfairness and advocacy and fear mediated the relationship between equal power and social coping. This pattern of mediations clearly shows that a feedback system of appraisals emotions and behavioural tendencies is more plausible in the context of sexual harassment rather than a linear causal relationship between them (Baumeister et al., 2007).

The results obtained in Study 5 were interesting but we were also interested in replicating these results using a different harassment scenario. This also provided us with the opportunity to disentangle the confound in Study 4, where power was manipulated in conjunction with a more severe harassment paradigm. Hence, in Study 6, a different manipulation of power (student vs. supervisor) was utilised along with a more severe harassing behaviour (attempted touching).

STUDY 6

Method

Participants:

One hundred and seventeen female students, from 18 to 49 years of age, volunteered in this study. They were chosen at random from the undergraduate population of students at the University of Kent. 90.6% of the participants were younger than 25 years (*M*= 20.7, *SD*= 4.624).

Design, Measures and Procedure

Data collection took place on various places on campus at the University of Kent. Again, participants were approached at random and were asked to complete a brief questionnaire. Procedure is identical to that described in Study 5. This study employed a between subjects design, with condition (male student vs. supervisor) as the independent variable. Participant's self reported emotional reaction to the scenario (anger, fear), appraisals (unfairness, perceived power) and their self reported coping strategies (advocacy seeking, social coping, negotiation, avoidance and denial) were the dependent variables. Participants were randomly assigned to each of the two conditions; the male student (N=57) and the supervisor (N=60). Participants in both conditions were asked to imagine themselves in the situation described. For both conditions, the scenarios given to the participants describe an occurrence of sexual harassment involving attempts of physical contact towards an unwanting recipient.

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Principal Components Analyses: Emotion Scale

The six emotion items were submitted to a principal components analysis. The rotated solution confirmed the presence of two distinguishable factors (see Table 40).

Table 40: Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the 6 items of the Emotions Scale

Item	Factor 1 (Fear)	Factor 2 (Anger)
Scared	.91	
Terrified	.88	
Anxious	.83	
Angry		.89
Irritated		.81
Outraged		.73
Eigenvalues	2.50	2.10
% of variance	41.6	34.9

N=117

Coping Strategies Measurement:

The thirteen coping strategies items were submitted to a principal components analysis using Varimax rotation and five factors were imposed. The rotated solution confirmed the presence of five distinguishable factors. However, the item "talk to someone you trust about the situation" did not load satisfactorily on the intended factor, or any other factor, so the item was omitted and another principal components analysis was performed. This again revealed the presence of five distinguishable factors: advocacy (20% of the variance), social coping (18.1% of the variance), avoidance (16.4% of the

variance), negotiation (14.2% of the variance) and denial (14.2% of the variance) (see Table 41).

Table 41: Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Coping Strategies Measurement

Item	Factor 1 (Advocacy)	Factor 2 (Soc.Cop)	Factor 3 (Avoid)	Factor 4 (Negot)	Factor 5 (Denial)
1. Advocacy seeking 1	.79				
2. Advocacy seeking 2	.92				
3. Advocacy seeking 2	.89				
4. Soc.Cop 1		.83			
5. Soc.Cop.2		.77			
6. Soc.Cop.3		.85			
7. Avoidance 1			.97		
8. Avoidance 2			.97		
9. Negotiation 1				.92	
10. Negotiation 2				.88	
11. Denial 1					.88
12. Denial 2					.90
Eigenvalues	2.4	2.2	2.0	1.7	1.7
% of variance	20.2	18.1	16.4	14.2	14.2

N=117

Unfairness:

Four items collectively measuring Unfairness were submitted to a principal components analysis using Varimax rotation. The item measuring intentionality was not loading satisfactorily (.54) and it was therefore omitted, and the three remaining items were resubmitted to a principal components analysis. This revealed the presence of one factor accounting for 76.6% of the variance, with 3 loadings all >.8 (see Table 42).

Table 42: Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Unfairness Measurement

Item	Factor 1 Unfairness
1. Behaviour is wrong	**.90**
2. Behaviour is inappropriate	**.88**
3. Behaviour is unjustified	**.83**
Eigenvalue:	**2.3**
% of Variance:	**76.6**

N=117

Reliability Analyses

Internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured using Cronbach's Alpha for each part of the questionnaire. All measures reached high levels of internal consistency (See Table 43).

Table 43: Cronbach's Alpha For Each Part of the Questionnaire

Part of the Questionnaire	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Emotion Scale:	
Anger	**.79**
Fear	**.91**
Coping Strategies:	
Advocacy	**.87**
Social Cop.	**.68**
Negotiation	**.76**
Avoidance	**.96**
Denial	**.83**
Unfairness:	**.83**

The means, standard deviations and minimum maximum ranges of the variables measured in this study are presented in Table 44 overleaf.

Table 44: Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges of Major Variables

Variable (No. of items)	Mean(SD)		Minimum-Maximum
Emotion Scale (12)			
Anger (3)	5.32	(1.45)	1 - 8
Fear (3)	4.53	(1.89)	0 - 8
Coping Strategies (13)			
Advocacy (3)	3.79	(1.77)	1- 7
Social Coping (3)	6.06	(.95)	3- 7
Negotiation (2)	6.06	(1.08)	2- 7
Avoidance (2)	5.75	(1.21)	2- 7
Denial (2)	3.32	(1.71)	1- 7
Unfairness (4)	6.25	(.78)	3- 7
Classification (1)	5.30	(1.31)	1- 7
Power (1)	3.97	(2.12)	1- 7

Note: All statistics are based on N=117. Emotions were measured on an 8-point scale, Coping Strategies, Unfairness, Classification and Power were measured on a 7-point scale

Classification of incident as sexual harassment

A one way ANOVA was performed with classification as the dependent variable and condition (student vs. supervisor) as the independent variable. The results indicate that participants' classification of the incident as sexual harassment differed dependent on condition ($F(1, 116)= 6.00$, $p<.02$). Participants in the supervisor condition were more likely to classify the incident as sexual harassment than participants in the male student condition (see Table 45). A one-sample t-test was performed against the scale midpoint (4) on the item of measuring classification of sexual harassment, in order to establish whether the behaviour described in the scenario is overall perceived by the participants as sexually harassing. The results indicate that the item is significantly different from the test value of 4 ($t= 10.69$; $df=116$; $p<.001$). The mean suggests that the participants overall recognised the scenario as sexual harassment ($M=5.30$; $SD=1.31$).

Table 45: Classification of incident as sexual harassment

Condition(N)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Supervisor (60)	5.58 (1.06)	3 - 7
Male student (57)	5.00 (1.49)	1 - 7

Ratings of Power

A one way ANOVA was performed with the item of power (equal power) as the dependent variable and condition (student vs. supervisor) as the independent. As expected, the results indicate that participants' perception of status differed dependent on condition ($F(1, 114)=85.30$, $p<.001$). Participants in the supervisor condition reported not having equal power to the harasser whereas participants in the male student condition reported having equal power to the male student harasser (see Table 46).

Table 46: Equal power

Condition(N)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Supervisor (58)	2.60 (1.46)	1 - 7
Male student (57)	5.37 (1.74)	1 - 7

Ratings of Unfairness

A one way ANOVA was performed with the item of unfairness as the dependent variable and condition (student vs. supervisor) as the independent. As expected, the results indicate that participants' perception of unfairness differed dependent on condition ($F(1, 116)= 26.13$, $p<.001$). Participants in the supervisor condition reported the situation as being more unfair than the participants in the male student condition (see Table 47).

Table 47: Unfairness

Condition(N)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Supervisor (60)	6.58 (.49)	5 - 7
Male student (57)	5.91 (.88)	3 - 7

Main Analyses

Correlations of main variables:

Correlation analyses were performed. These revealed that anger and fear were positively correlated. Anger was also related to advocacy seeking, unfairness and classification of incident. Participants that reported fear also reported advocacy seeking and unfairness and less power but those relationships were less strong than those with anger. The results are summarised in Table 48.

Table 48: Correlation Table for main variables

	Fear	Adv	SoCop	Neg	Avoid	Den	Unfair	Class	Eq.Pow
Anger	.47**	.36**	.12	.07	.14	-.13	.42**	.29**	-.20*
F	-	.21*	.07	-.15	.12	-.08	.21*	.10	-.19*
Adv		-	.18	.32**	-.06	-.43**	.53**	.41**	-.19*
SC			-	.25**	.13	-.10	.09	.19*	-.02
N				-	.06	-.15	.15	.20*	.20*
Avoid					-	.18	.12	.10	-.31**
D						-	-.31**	-.42**	.12
U							-	.36**	-.35**
Cl								-	-.28**

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

Effect of Perpetrator Type on Appraisals

A 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with appraisals (unfairness, equal power) as the within-subjects factor and condition (student vs. supervisor) as the between-subjects factor. The results indicated a significant main effect of appraisals ($F_{(1,113)}$=175.96, $p<.001$). Participants indicated that they perceived the incident as unfair (M=6.24, SD=.78) and that they generally saw themselves as having less power than the perpetrators overall (M=3.97, SD=2.12). A significant interaction was found between appraisals and condition ($F_{(1,113)}$=101.31, $p<.001$). Simple effects analyses were computed to further examine the interaction found. These analyses revealed that perpetrator type had an effect on both appraisals. Participants in the supervisor condition perceived the incident as more unfair (M=6.57, SD=.09) than participants in the student condition (M=5.91, SD=.09) ($F_{(1,113)}$=24.67, $p<.001$). Perceptions of power were also significantly different depending on type of perpetrator ($F_{(1,113)}$=85.30, $p<.001$). Participants in the supervisor condition reported not having power equal to the perpetrator's (M=2.60, SD=.21), whereas participants in the student condition reported having more equal power with the perpetrator (M=5.37, SD=.21).

Effect of Perpetrator Type on Emotions

A 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with emotions (anger, fear) as the within-subjects factor and condition (student vs. supervisor) as the between-subjects factor. The results indicated a significant main effect of emotions ($F_{(1,114)}$=23.84, $p<.001$). Participants indicated feeling more anger in response to the sexually harassing scenario (M=5.32, SD=1.45) than fear (M=4.53, SD=1.87). No significant interaction was

found between emotions and condition ($F_{(1,114)}$=.33, p>.5). However, the trends of the data show a consistent pattern to previous findings in that anger and fear appeared to be higher in the supervisor condition (see Table 49).

Table 49: *main effects of emotions*

Coping strategy	Total M(SD)	Student	Supervisor
Anger	5.32 (1.45)	5.05(1.23)	5.58(1.59)
Fear	4.53 (1.89)	4.15(1.94)	4.88(1.78)

Effect of Perpetrator Type on Coping Strategies

A 2 x 5 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with coping strategies (advocacy, negotiation, social coping, avoidance and denial) as a within-subjects factor and condition (student vs. supervisor) as the between-subjects factor. The results indicated a significant main effect of coping strategies ($F_{(4,111)}$=172.3, p<.001) (see table 51). A significant interaction was found between coping strategies and condition ($F_{(4,111)}$=12.79, p<.001). This interaction is displayed in the graph below (see Figure 8). Simple effects analyses were computed to further examine the interaction found. These analyses revealed that type of perpetrator had an effect on coping strategies. Participants in the supervisor condition reported more advocacy (M=4.56, SD=.20) than participants in the student condition (M=2.97, SD=.21) ($F_{(1,114)}$=19.13, p<.001). Type of perpetrator did not have an effect on negotiation although the trend showed more negotiation in the supervisor condition (M=5.89, SD=.14) than participants in the student condition (M=6.23, SD=.14) ($F_{(1,114)}$=2.92, p>.09). Social coping ($F_{(1,114)}$=.06), avoidance ($F_{(1,114)}$=.53), and denial strategies ($F_{(1,114)}$=1.75) did not differ on condition (all p>.1).
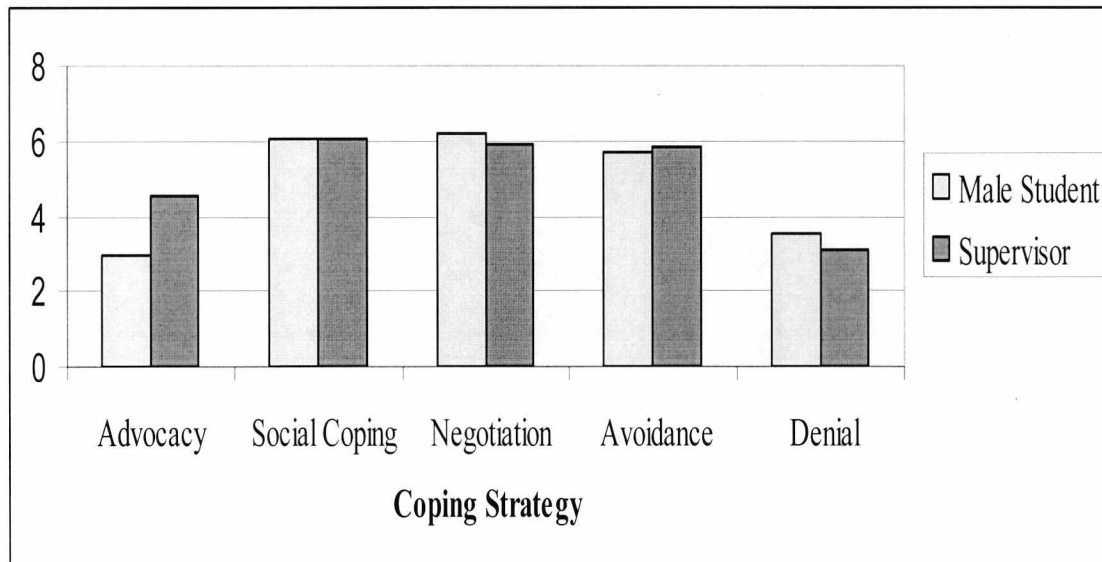
Figure 8: *Effects of Perpetrator Type on Coping Strategies*

Appraisals and Emotions

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed in order to test whether any of the relationships between appraisals and emotions were qualified by condition. Classification of incident was controlled for in the first step. This showed that none of the relationships between emotions and appraisals that will be reported below were qualified by condition (all $p > .19$). Therefore, the relationship between appraisals and emotions was not different depending on perpetrator type.

As in Study 5, linear regressions were performed on the two emotions of anger and fear and the two appraisals they were found to correlate with (unfairness and perceived power) controlling for classification of incident in the first step. The first regression was performed on anger ($F_{4,114} = 6.98$, $p < .001$). Unfairness ($\beta = .36$, $t = 3.75$, $p < .001$), but not perceived power ($\beta = -.14$, $t = -.95$, $p > .30$), was a significant predictor of

anger. The second regression on fear ($F_{4,114}$=2.09, p<.001) revealed neither perceived power nor unfairness were significant predictors of fear: (β=.03, t= .19, p>.80) and (β=.15, t= 1.49, p>.10) respectively. Further regressions were run to clarify which particular emotions predicted which appraisals. Unfairness ($F_{4,114}$=11.21, p<.001) was predicted by anger (β=.34, t= 3.63, p<.001) and not fear (β=-.02, t= -.26, p>.70). Perceived power ($4,114$=58.97, p<.001) was not predicted by either fear (β=.04, t= .70, p>.40) or anger (β=-.10, t= -1.52, p>.10).

Perpetrator type, Appraisals and Emotions

Mediation analyses using regressions were also performed in order to investigate whether the effects of condition on emotion are mediated by appraisals. The only relationship tested was between anger and condition with unfairness as a mediator. For the purpose of this analysis, participant's anger was regressed on condition (perpetrator type). As expected, participants in the supervisor condition (vs. the student condition) scored higher on anger (β=.17, t= 2.02, p<.05). Next, participants' perceptions of unfairness were regressed on condition. As expected, participants in the supervisor condition (vs. the student condition) perceived the incident as more unfair (β=.43, t=5.11, p<.001). Unfairness was investigated as a potential mediator. In the final step, anger was regressed on unfairness and condition simultaneously. This analysis revealed a significant relationship between unfairness and anger (β=.42, t= 4.49, p<.001), whereas condition no longer significantly predicted anger (β=.01, t= .41, p>.90). A Sobel test (z=3.37 p<.001.) revealed that the reduction in the effect of condition was significant (see Figure 9).
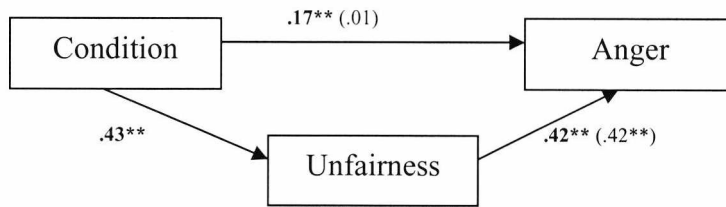
Figure 9: *Mediation of the relationship between Condition (type of perpetrator) and Anger by Unfairness*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

Emotions and Coping Strategies

As in Study 5, hierarchical regressions were performed and these indicated that none of the relationships between emotions and coping that will be reported below are qualified by condition (all p's>.22). Therefore, only the results for the regressions examining the relationship between emotions and coping will be reported. The first regression on advocacy ($F_{3,115}=4.91$, $p<.01$) showed anger as the only significant predictor ($\beta=.23$, $t= 2.32$, $p<.03$). The more anger participants felt the more likely they were to choose advocacy. The second regression was performed on negotiation ($F_{3,115}=3.31$, $p<.03$) and fear appears to be the only negative significant predictor of negotiation ($\beta=-.23$, $t= -2.22$, $p<.03$). The more fear participants reported, the least likely they were to choose negotiation as a coping strategy. The third regression was on social coping ($F_{3,115}=1.6$, $p>.10$). Neither anger nor fear was a significant predictor of social coping. The fourth regression was on avoidance ($F_{3,115}=1.08$, $p>.30$) and again no significant predictor emerged. The final regression was on denial ($F_{3,115}=8.12$, $p<.001$) and again no significant predictor emerged. Results on emotions are weaker than

previous studies but generally consistent with previous patterns (See Table 50 for all values).

Table 50: *Anger and Fear and Coping Strategies:*

	Anger					Fear				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R^2	R	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R^2	R
Advocacy	.23	2.32	.022	.24	.36	.07	.79	.431	.23	.21
Soc.Coping	.05	.48	.629	.04	.12	.03	.30	.764	.04	.07
Negotiation	.13	1.19	.237	.08	.07	-.23	-2.22	.028	.08	-.15
Avoidance	.09	.87	.386	03	.14	.07	.62	.536	.03	.12
Denial	.01	.11	.910	.18	-.13	-.04	-.40	.691	.18	-.08

Appraisals and Coping Strategies

The results of emotions on coping strategies are consistent with previous findings of this thesis. Now the focus is to see whether emotions mediate the relationship between appraisals and coping strategies. First, regressions were performed to examine the relationship between appraisals of unfairness and power and coping strategies. Classification of incident and perceived status were controlled for in these analyses. The first regression ($F_{4,113}=16.44$, $p<.001$) revealed that unfairness was a significant predictor of advocacy ($\beta=.46$, $t=5.43$, $p<.001$) but also fear was a marginally significant predictor ($\beta=.25$, $t=1.86$, $p<.07$). The regression on negotiation ($F_{4,113}=4.85$, $p<.01$) revealed that unfairness was the only marginally significant predictor of negotiation ($\beta=.18$, $t=1.81$, $p<.08$). The regression on social coping ($F_{4,113}=3.62$, $p<.01$) indicated neither unfairness nor equal power were significant predictors (both $p>.60$). The fourth

regression was on Avoidance ($F_{4,113}$=3.29, p<.02). Unfairness was not a predictor of avoidance (β=.03, t= .31, p>.70) but perceived equal power was (β=-.44, t= -2.73, p<.01) was a predictor of avoidance. The more power participants felt they had against the perpetrator, the less avoidance tendencies they reported. The final regression on denial ($F_{4,113}$=7.56, p<.001) revealed that unfairness was the only significant predictor of denial (β=-.19, t=-2.06, p<.05) (See Table 51 for all values).

Table 51: *Unfairness, Equal Power and Coping Strategies:*

	Unfair					Power				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R²	R	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R²	R
Advocacy	.46	5.43	<.001	.38	.36	.25	1.86	.065	.38	.21
Soc.Coping	.02	.24	.811	.05	.18	-.09	-.52	.602	.05	.07
Negotiation	.18	1.81	.073	.15	.07	.15	.93	.352	.15	-.15
Avoidance	.03	.31	.759	.11	.14	-.44	-2.73	.007	.11	.12
Denial	-.19	-2.06	.041	.22	-.13	.09	.58	.564	.22	-.08

Mediation Analyses

Based on the foregoing, mediation analyses could only be done for the relationships among unfairness, anger and advocacy. Advocacy was regressed on anger and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between anger and advocacy was reduced to marginal significance (β=.15, t= 1.76, p<.09), whereas the relationship between unfairness and advocacy remained significant (β=.49, t=5.3, p<.001). A Sobel test confirmed that anger partially explains the relationship between

advocacy and unfairness ($z=1.65$, $p=.09$) (see Figure 10). As in Study 5, to see whether the effects of anger on advocacy are mediated by unfairness another set of mediations was performed and it appears that the appraisal of unfairness partially explains the relationship between anger and negotiation ($z=3.76$, $p<.01$).
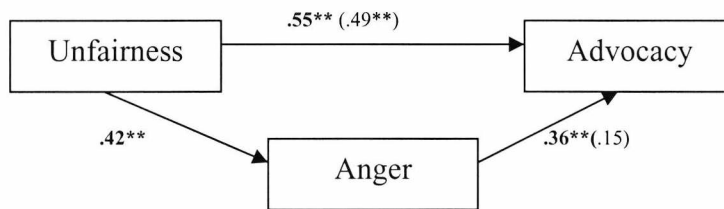
Figure 10: *Mediation of the relationship between unfairness and advocacy by anger*

DISCUSSION

The present study was a replication of Study 4. Generally, participants recognised the scenario as describing sexual harassment. However, condition had an effect on perception of sexual harassment, with individuals belonging to the supervisor condition more willing to recognise sexual harassment than people belonging to the male student condition. This finding seems to corroborate the findings of Study 5 and previous research (European Commission, 1998; Pryor, 1985; Stockdale et al., 1995; USMSPB, 1995) insofar as suggesting that sexually harassing acts perpetrated by people holding more organisational power than the victim, are more readily recognised as sexually harassing.

The results of this study indicate significant effects of condition (i.e. status/type of perpetrator) on appraisals and coping strategies. Participants in the supervisor condition

reported having less power than the perpetrator and perceived the incident as more unfair than participants belonging to the male student condition (see Figure 11). These findings are in line with previous research (European Commission, 1998; Fitness, 2000; Pryor, 1985; Stockdale et al., 1995; USMSPB, 1995). In terms of emotions, no significant effects of condition were replicated. Generally, participants indicated feeling more anger than fear. The patterns of the data however, indicated more anger and fear for the supervisor condition, a finding that is generally in line with previous findings.

In terms of coping strategies, participants belonging to the condition where the harasser was a supervisor reported more advocacy seeking and more avoidance than the participants with a male student as a harasser. Participants in the male student condition reported more negotiation strategies, and more denial than the participants in the supervisor condition. These findings are generally in line with predictions and with general research on appraisals and behavioural tendencies. The only finding that seems to be going against previous findings is that of advocacy seeking (Bingham & Scherer, 1993; Cortina & Wasti, 2005).

Only the appraisal of unfairness was clearly related to anger in this study. The more unfair participants perceived the incident to be the more likely they were to feel anger. Appraisals also mediated the relationship between type of perpetrator (perpetrator status) and anger. In particular, it was the appraisal of unfairness that explained the relationship between type of perpetrator and anger. These findings are in line with predictions made earlier as well as the appraisal theories of emotions (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Frijda et al., 1989; Kuppens et al., 2003; Roseman et al., 1990; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

The effect of anger on advocacy seeking was, in fact, weakened when unfairness was in the equation and no mediation effects involving fear were found in this study. Seemingly, both anger and fear influence the relevant coping strategies but appraisals were also found to influence the relationship between emotions and coping, a finding which points towards the conceptualisation of Baumeister et al. (2007) of a feedback system of emotions on behaviour, where a situation is re-appraised after the initial emotion and consequently affects behaviour.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

Across the two studies presented in this chapter, participants perceived the conduct of the perpetrator as sexual harassment. There was also a main effect of type of perpetrator on perceived sexual harassment. Participants in the supervisor condition perceived the conduct as sexual harassment more than the participants in the student condition. There was also a consistent effect of type of perpetrator on appraisals; participants in the supervisor condition perceived the situation as more unfair and also perceived themselves as having less equal power than participants in the student condition. Furthermore, participants in the supervisor condition consistently reported more anger and more fear than those in the student condition. Coping strategies were also affected by perpetrator type with more advocacy and avoidance in the supervisor condition and more negotiation in the student condition. As expected, the power differentials influence the emotional experience of victims of sexual harassment: harassment perpetrated by a superior is consistently recognised as more sexually

harassing, is considered more unfair and produces more feelings of anger (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; Fitness, 2000; Schullman & Watts, 1990; Stockdale et al., 1995)

The relationship between appraisals and emotions, except for the findings with regards to fear in Study 6, was also consistent across studies. Anger was related to unfairness consistently in both studies and fear was related to perceived lack of power. The mediating effects of appraisals on the relationship between type of perpetrator and emotion are broadly in line with appraisal theories (Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Frijda et al., 1989; Kuppens et al., 2003; Roseman et al., 1990; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Unfairness mediated the relationship between condition and anger in both studies and power mediated the relationship between condition and fear in Study 5.

With regard to the relationship between emotions and coping, no moderating effects of condition were found in both studies. It is possible that the relationship between coping strategies and emotions is not amenable to manipulations because once one feels a particular emotion, a propensity to act may be automatically activated ("automatic affect" by Baumeister et al., 2007, see Chapter 2). Appraisals were also related to coping strategies in both studies. Advocacy and denial were consistently predicted by the appraisal of unfairness (negatively for denial). Avoidance was predicted by lack of power in Study 6. Negotiation was predicted by unfairness only in Study 5. However, there were no consistent mediation effects in both studies. In fact, it appears that appraisals are stronger predictors of coping than emotions were. Therefore, it seems plausible to conclude that in the sexual harassment context, appraisals and emotions are related but distinct predictors of coping strategies (cf. Baumeister et al., 2007).

A very important weakness of the studies reported so far in this thesis is the use of student samples. It could be argued that sexual harassment issues may not be strongly pertinent to students. It is also possible that students are aware of the available options with regard to coping strategies. Universities are well-known for having particular policies with regard to sexually harassing behaviours and therefore, students may be aware of those policies and how to act. This could make students more ready to act on their emotions regardless of the status of the perpetrator. This possibly explains why anger is observed to be a lot higher than fear in these studies. The effects of anger were not moderated by condition in any of the aforementioned studies. Moreover, this could explain the lack of mediation for emotions and appraisals. Therefore, in the following chapter, we run a study using a work-place sample. In contrast to previous studies in this thesis, we also considered the role of organisational support in women's reactions to sexual harassment rather than power.

CHAPTER 7

Organisational Support, Emotions and Coping Strategies

This chapter presents the seventh study of this thesis. More specifically, this study attempted to examine the effect of organisational support on the relationship between emotions and particular coping strategies. Study 7 (N=210) tested the relationship between organisational support (support vs. no support), emotional reactions and action tendencies of participants that read a scenario describing sexual harassment, committed by a perpetrator of higher organisational status than the victim. The results indicated that organisational support had an effect on participants' coping strategies. In the support condition, participants indicated more advocacy and negotiation and less avoidance than the no-support condition. Appraisals of unfairness were related to anger and appraisals of control and power related to fear. Unfairness partially explained the relationship between anger and coping strategies.

INTRODUCTION

The previous six studies have confirmed that emotions play an important role in victims' responses to sexual harassment. The results obtained generally highlight that anger is related to the coping strategies of negotiation and advocacy seeking and negatively related to denial, whereas fear is related to avoidance. The status and organisational power relationship between harasser and victim was consistently shown in previous experiments (Studies 3, 4, 5 and 6) to play a role in victims' perceptions of sexually harassing incidents. Higher organisational status and power (supervisors) significantly affected victims' perceptions of sexual harassment, with incidents perpetrated by superiors being more recognised as sexual harassment than incidents perpetrated by people with equal status and power. This finding is in line with previous literature on perceptions of sexual harassment (Stockdale et al., 1995). The relationship between appraisals and emotions was also consistent across studies. Anger was related to unfairness and fear was related to lack of power.

Nonetheless, the effects of emotions, appraisals and coping strategies have not been moderated by our manipulations in any of our studies. The manipulations of power in Chapter 5 did not work consistently. The manipulations of perpetrator status/power also did not affect the relationships of interest. As such, the current research explores another factor that has consistently been shown to be related to victims' responses towards sexually harassing incidents. This factor is organisational support (Bingham & Scherer, 1993; Willness et al., 2007). The more tolerant the organisational climate towards sexual harassment, the least likely the women that experience it will feel secure in complaining about it (Bingham & Scherer, 1993; USMSPB, 1995). Bingham and

Scherer (1993) also highlight the importance of the social support network from friends and co-workers and claim it is the highest reported strategy used against sexual harassment. Victims tend to seek the closeness, comfort and support from their personal environment and network.

Perceived support has been shown in the coping literature as an important component (Lazarus, 1991). According to Lazarus, the perception of emotional social support is important in emotion-focused coping. The effects of perceived support as an appraisal on the experience of particular emotions, has been shown by Mackie et al. (2000) in the group context. If an individual perceives that his opinions and ideas are supported by others (social support) then the experience is defined as group based. For instance, a group-based appraisal of social support for one's perception of group disadvantage was shown to promote group-based anger as well as willingness to engage in action against an out-group (Mackie et al., 2000). According to Mackie et al., group-based appraisals of social support assist the willingness to engage in action by giving group members the collective power to react. Research conducted by van Zomeren, Spears, Fischer and Leach (2004) in the group-based context, shows that social opinion support (emotional support) and action support (instrumental support) by in-group members, facilitated emotion- focused coping and problem-focused coping respectively. In particular, van Zomeren et al. (2004) manipulated perceived social support in order to investigate its relationship to group based anger and collective action tendencies. Their results showed that social opinion support facilitated collective action tendencies through the experience of group-based anger, hence, indicating emotion-focused coping. In contrast, action support by in-group members affected collective action tendencies

through the appraisals of group efficacy against the out-group, thus indicating problem-focused coping (van Zomeren et al., 2004).

Current Research

The present study aimed to address the role of support in the experience of sexual harassment in terms of emotions and coping strategies. A limitation of the previous studies presented in this thesis is that they are focused on student populations only. Therefore, the present study addressed this issue by examining the role of support in the organisational setting, using participants in the workplace. Thus, the scenario used in the present study was describing a sexual harassment incident at work.

The issue of self-efficacy is proven to be of great importance in organisational settings; according to Bandura, (1997) personal efficacy is the element on which people rely to make important decisions, and thus, they have to be secure in their efficacy perceptions. A strong sense of efficacy is required in order to utilise one's cognitive resources to their best potential, which would help in facing many organisational complexities (Bandura, 1997). Perceived self efficacy to perform occupational demands affects the stress-levels of employees (McAteer-Early, 1992). Particular organisational conditions can affect employees' beliefs and cause a low sense of coping efficacy. Perceived control and social support are considered stress reducers. Therefore, a lack of the aforementioned in the organisational setting may cause great distress for employees (Bandura, 1997). In this study the role of perceptions of control the victims have with regards to the sexually harassing situation was also examined.

When it comes to emotions, it is possible that anger will not be experienced without the appraisals of support from the organisation or the working environment. In

this particular study it is expected that support will influence the experience of anger (cf. van Zomeren et al., 2004). It is, however, also possible that anger may not be related to perceptions of support. Instead fear, could be related to perceptions of lack of support. As shown in previous studies of this thesis, anger may be related to perceptions of injustice. In such a case, the presence of organisational support will be expected to moderate the relationship between anger and coping strategies. More specifically, anger may be related to negotiation and advocacy but only in the condition where there is organisational support. In terms of fear, victims are expected to be more fearful in the no-support condition and consequently adopt more avoidance coping strategies. Support may also moderate the relationship between fear and avoidance strategies and strengthen it in the no-support condition.

Appraisals were also included in this study in order to examine whether they underlie the effects of the manipulation of organisational support. In particular, appraisals of unfairness, perceived power and control were tested. It was expected that appraisals of power and control will be related to fear and perceived unfairness will be related to anger. It was also expected that these appraisals would mediate the effects of the manipulation of support on emotions. Furthermore, it was expected that victims' judgments of how much control they have over the situation, how much power they have in relation to the perpetrator and how unfair they perceive the incident to be, will be higher when they feel that they have the needed organisational support. Appraisals were also expected to be related to coping strategies. Perceived unfairness is expected to be related to negotiation and advocacy seeking strategies whereas perceived control and power are expected to be related to avoidance. The second question of interest in this study is the same as in

previous chapters. Will emotions mediate the relationship between appraisals and coping strategies?

Ethical Considerations

As all previous studies, the nature of the current study was also sensitive, especially considering the fact that participants have to imagine themselves in distressing situations. In order to avoid any negative concequences to participants, they were once more explicitly informed in writing that should they find the questionnaire or any of its items distressing that they should immediately stop and provided with the relevant departmental contacts for withdrawal of data (see Appendices I & II). All participants were presented with debrief forms that contained the appropriate contact numbers and general counselling services (see Appendix IV).

STUDY 7

Method

Participants

Two hundred and ten females took part in this study on a voluntary basis. They were an opportunity-chosen sample of female working population in Britain. Participant's ages ranged from 18 to 56 years. 85% of the sample were younger than 30 years (*M*= 25.8, *SD*= 7.3).

Design

This study employed a between-participants design, with condition (organisational support vs. no organisational support) as the independent variable.

Participant's self reported emotional reaction to the scenario (anger, fear), their appraisals (perceived power, unfairness and control) and their self reported coping strategies (advocacy seeking, social coping, negotiation, avoidance and denial) were the dependent variables. Participants were randomly assigned to each of the two conditions; the organisational support (N=105) and the no organisational support (N=105). Participants in both conditions were asked to imagine themselves in the situation described.

Measures

The organisational support and no-organisational support questionnaires consisted of three main parts; a passage which described a hypothetical working situation where social support was present or absent, a passage describing an incident of sexual harassment and the main questionnaire. The first part of the questionnaire consisted of the passage describing the hypothetical working situation. Participants were instructed to imagine that they worked in this organisation. For condition 1(support), participants were instructed to place themselves in the following situation and were given a small text which read as follows: *"You have been working for BOLT Ltd for nearly two years as an assistant to the branch manager, your duties involve, organising the manager's timetable, all the appointments, along with all of the firm's external and internal events. BOLT Ltd is a well respected national organisation. In fact, it is well known amongst employees that BOLT Ltd has strict Sexual Discrimination Policies. As such, there IS AN independent disciplinary body that employees can refer to when they have complaints about their managers. Furthermore, BOLT Ltd has appointed an independent equal opportunities consultant that all workers can refer to in case of an incident."*

For Condition 2 (no-support) the text read as follows: *"You have been working for BOLT Ltd for nearly two years as an assistant to the branch manager, your duties involve, organising the manager's timetable, all the appointments, along with all of the firm's external and internal events. BOLT LTD is a well respected national organisation. However, it is well known amongst employees that BOLT Ltd has NO Sexual Discrimination Policies. As such, there IS NO independent disciplinary body that employees can refer to when they have complaints about their managers. The only person that complaints can be made to is the General Area Manager."* The hypothetical manipulation was followed by three items that checked that the manipulation worked; "Does BOLT Ltd have a clear sexual discrimination policy?", "Is there an independent disciplinary body where employees can refer to in case of a problem?" and "Is the General Area Manager the only person complaints can be made to?"

The sexual harassment paradigm used for both conditions was constructed using descriptions of occurrence of sexual harassment involving attempts of physical contact towards an unwanting recipient modified to fit the hypothetical situation presented to the participants. The passage read as follows: *"For the past year, things have become increasingly uncomfortable for you at work especially as the manager changed at the beginning of the year. You had a very civil and respectable working relationship with the previous manager however things have changed significantly since the new manager has arrived. The most distressing aspect of this change for you is the manager's behaviour towards you in particular. The manager on several occasions has told you that you would not be working there, were you not "pretty enough" and always shares sexist jokes with the rest of your colleagues in your presence. What has actually made this worse for you*

is that for the past three months, your manager has made attempts to touch you despite your strictly professional behaviour towards him. You are becoming increasingly upset and you are finding the work environment more difficult everyday."

The third part was the main questionnaire which was identical to that used in previous studies except from two items that measured perceived control of the situation: "How much control do you think you have over the situation?" and "How much control do you think the manager has over the situation", one item that measured status: "do you think you and the manager are of different status?", and two items that measured perceived power "do you think you and the manager have equal power?" and "Do you agree that the manager has more power than you within your firm?"

The 12-item coping strategies measurement (adapted from Wasti & Cortina, 2002) was slightly modified to fit the new scenario and situation; Advocacy: "Report your manager to his superior within your firm", "Report your manager to the relevant bodies within your company.", "Make a formal complaint against the manager", Social Coping: "Talk to someone you trust about the situation with the manager", "Ask a friend for advice", "Ask a colleague for support", Negotiation: "Ask manager to leave you alone", "Try to make it known to the manager that you dislike his behaviour", Avoidance: "Try to avoid the manager", "Try to stay out of the manager's way" and Denial: "Tell your self this is not so important", "Try to forget all about the situation"

Procedure

Data collection took place on-line. The method used was the "snowball" method where initially some establishments would be contacted for their workers to take part, and

then participants would be asked to forward the study to their acquaintances and colleagues. All participants were required to be in current employment or to have been in employment in the past year. All participants that agreed to take part were presented with one of two questionnaires, an organisational support questionnaire or a no-organisational support questionnaire. All participants were required to read and click on the consent form before proceeding, as well as fill in the demographics form. All participants were explicitly informed, prior to commencing the experiment, of their right to withdraw participation at any time and without any negative consequences. After completion, participants were debriefed and thanked.

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Principal Components Analyses: Emotion Scale

The six items were submitted to a principal components analysis. Similar to all previous studies, two factors emerged; Factor 1 represented fear and accounted for 38.7% of the variance and factor 2 represented anger and accounted for 35% of the variance (see Table 52).

Table 52: Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the 6 items of the Emotions Scale

Item	Factor 1 (Fear)	Factor 2 (Anger)
Scared	**.93**	
Terrified	**.92**	
Anxious	**.76**	
Angry		**.83**
Irritated		**.76**
Outraged		**.86**
Eigenvalues	**2.32**	**2.10**
% of variance	**38.7**	**35.0**

N=210

Coping Strategies Measurement

The twelve coping strategies items were submitted to a principal components analysis using Varimax rotation and five factors were imposed. The rotated solution confirmed the presence of five distinguishable factors. However, the item "ask colleague for support" did not load satisfactorily on the factor intended (.44), so the item was omitted and another principal components analysis was performed. This again revealed the presence of five distinguishable factors (see Table 53).

Table 53: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Coping Strategies Measurement*

Item	Factor 1 (Advocacy)	Factor 2 (Avoidance)	Factor 3 (Denial)	Factor 4 (Soc.Cop)	Factor 5 (Negot)
Advocacy seeking 1	**.90**				
Advocacy seeking 2	**.86**				
Advocacy seeking 3	**.84**				
Avoidance 1		**.98**			
Avoidance 2		**.98**			
Denial 1			**.87**		
Denial 2			**.89**		
Soc.Cop. 1				**.87**	
Soc.Cop.2				**.89**	
Negotiation 1					**.90**
Negotiation 2					**.79**
Eigenvalues	**2.55**	**1.98**	**1.71**	**1.67**	**1.64**
% of variance	**23.2**	**18.0**	**15.5**	**15.2**	**14.9**

N=210

Unfairness

Four items collectively measuring Unfairness were submitted to a principal components analysis using Varimax rotation. This revealed the presence of one factor accounting for 61.2% of the variance, with four loadings all >.6 (see Table 54).

Table 54: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Unfairness Measurement*

Item	Unfairness
1. Behaviour is wrong	**.91**
2. Behaviour is inappropriate	**.87**
3. Behaviour is unjustified	**.84**
4. Behaviour is intentional	**.68**
Eigenvalue:	**2.75**
% of Variance:	**68.6**

N=210

Reliability Analyses

Internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured using Cronbach's Alpha for each part of the questionnaire. All measures reached high levels of internal consistency (See Table 55).

Table 55: *Cronbach's Alpha for Each Part of the Questionnaire*

Part of the Questionnaire	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Emotion Scale:	
Anger	**.79**
Fear	**.85**
Coping Strategies:	
Advocacy	**.90**
Social Cop.	**.76**
Negotiation	**.75**
Avoidance	**.98**
Denial	**.82**
Unfairness:	**.82**
Manipulation items:	**.91**
Power: (correlation of two items)	**.27****
Control: (correlation of two items)	**.27****

The means, standard deviations and minimum maximum ranges the measures used in this study are presented in Table 56.

Table 56: *Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges of Major Variables*

Variable (No. of items)	Mean(SD)		Minimum-Maximum
Emotion Scale (12)			
Anger (3)	6.92	(1.37)	0 - 8
Fear (3)	4.66	(1.99)	0 - 8
Coping Strategies (13)			
Advocacy (3)	5.08	(1.58)	1 - 7

Variable (No. of items)	Mean(SD)		Minimum-Maximum
Social Coping (3)	6.52	(1.05)	1- 7
Negotiation (2)	5.76	(1.40)	1- 7
Avoidance (2)	5.39	(1.97)	1- 7
Denial (2)	2.40	(1.49)	1- 7
Unfairness (4)	6.51	(.79)	1- 7
Classification (1)	6.18	(1.25)	1- 7
Power (2)	2.23	(1.17)	1- 7
Control (2)	3.01	(.98)	1- 7
Status (1)	4.71	(2.08)	1- 7

Note: All statistics are based on N=210. Emotions were measured on an 8-point scale, Coping Strategies, Unfairness, Classification and Power Status and Control were measured on a 7-point scale

Classification of incident as sexual harassment

A one way ANOVA was performed with classification as the dependent variable and condition (support vs. no-support) as the independent variable. The results indicated that participants' classification of the incident as sexual harassment did not differ depending on condition ($F_{(1,208)}$= .03, p>.80) (See Table 57 for means). A one-sample t-test was performed against the scale midpoint. The results indicate that the item was significantly different from the test value of 4 (t=25.31; df=207; p<.001). The mean suggests that the participants strongly recognised the scenario as sexual harassment (M=6.18; sd=1.25).

Table 57: *Classification of incident as sexual harassment*

Condition(N)	Mean(SD)		Minimum-Maximum
Support (105)	6.19	(1.26)	1 - 7
No Support (105)	6.16	(1.24)	1 - 7

Manipulation Checks

A manipulation check analysis was conducted to assess the effectiveness of the support information given to participants in the support and no-support conditions. A one sample t-test was performed on the manipulation check results (one was reversed) against the scale midpoint (4) for each condition. All items were significantly different from the mean (see Table 58) which indicates that the manipulations were clearly understood by participants.

Table 58: *Manipulation checks*

Item	Condition	N	Mean(SD)	*t(df)*	*p*
1="does BOLT have a clear sex. discrimination policy"	Support	104	5.80(1.61)	11.39(103)	<.001
	No Support	105	1.26(.93)		
2= "Is there an indep. disciplinary body where employees can refer to in case of a problem?"	Support	104	6.38(1.33)	18.40(104)	<.001
	No Support	105	1.21(.81)		
3= "Is the general area manager the only person complaints can be made to?"	Support	104	6.54(.96)	27.11(104)	<.001
	No Support	105	1.57(1.48)		

Ratings of Status

A one way ANOVA was performed with status (different status) as the dependent variable and condition (support vs. no-support) as the independent variable. The results indicate that participants' perception of status did not differ dependent on condition (F(1,

208)= .32, p>.5) Participants in the support condition and participants in the no support condition both reported having different status to the harasser (see Table 59).

Table 59: *Equal status*

Condition(N)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Support (105)	4.63 (2.09)	1 - 7
No Support (105)	4.79 (2.79)	1 - 7

Ratings of Power

A one way ANOVA was performed with power as the dependent variable and condition (support vs. no-support) as the independent variable. The results indicate that participants' perception of power did not differ dependent on condition ($F_{(1, 208)}$= .46, p>.49) Participants in the support condition and participants in the no support condition both reported having less power than the perpetrator (see Table 60).

Table 60: *Power*

Condition(N)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Support (105)	2.29 (1.27)	1 - 7
No Support (105)	2.18 (1.06)	1 - 5

Ratings of Unfairness

A one way ANOVA was performed with perceived unfairness as the dependent variable and condition (support vs. no-support) as the independent variable. The results indicate that participants' perceptions of unfairness did not differ dependent on condition

($F(1, 208)= .58$, $p>.4$.) Participants in the support condition and participants in the no support condition reported the incident as highly unfair (see Table 61).

Table 61: *Unfairness*

Condition(N)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Support (105)	6.46 (.93)	1 - 7
No Support (105)	6.55 (.63)	2 - 7

Main Analyses

Correlations of main variables

The relationships among the variables were tested in a bivariate correlation analysis. Anger and fear were once more positively correlated. The more anger participants felt, the more advocacy, social coping, negotiation, avoidance and denial they reported. Participants that reported fear were also likely to report advocacy, social coping and avoidance. Unfairness was positively correlated with both anger and fear. Perceived control was negatively correlated with anger and fear. Perceived equal power and equal status only correlated with fear. Classification of incident was correlated with both emotions. The results of the analysis are presented in Table 62.

Effect of Support on Appraisals

A 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with appraisals (unfairness, equal power and control) as the within subjects factor and condition (support vs. no-support) as the between-subjects factor. The results indicated a significant main effect of

appraisals ($F_{(2,207)}$=896.86, MSE =.97, p<.001). Participants indicated that they perceived the incident as unfair (M=6.51, SD=.79) and that they generally saw themselves as having less power than the perpetrator overall (M=2.23, SD=2.00) and less control of the situation than the perpetrator (M=3.01, SD=.98). No significant interaction was found between appraisals and condition ($F_{(2,207)}$=.43, p>.6).

Effect of Support on Emotions

A 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with emotions (anger, fear) as the within-subjects factor and condition (support vs. no support) as the between-subjects factor. The results indicated a significant main effect of emotions ($F_{(1,208)}$=248.32, MSE=2.16 p<.001). Participants indicated feeling more anger in response to the sexually harassing scenario (M=6.92, SD=1.37) than fear (M=4.66, SD=1.99). Again, no significant interaction was found between emotions and condition ($F_{(1,108)}$=1.05, p>.3).

Table 62: *Correlation Table for main variables*

	Fear	Adv	SoCop	Neg	Avoid	Den	Unfair	Control	Power	Class.	Status
Anger	28**	.53**	.52**	.39**	.18**	-.17*	.68**	-.22**	.11	.54**	-.01
F	-	.17*	.25**	.04	.25**	.12	.26**	-.32**	-.25**	.25**	.20**
Adv		-	.29**	.50**	.13	-.42**	.49**	.04	.10	.51**	-.06
SC			-	.31**	.10	-.05	.50**	-.23**	-.16*	.35**	.08
N				-	-.08	-.34**	.37**	.05	-.03	.37**	.01
Avoid					-	.26**	.18**	-.12	-.01	.10	-.01
Den.						-	-.17**	-.11	.00	-.24**	.04
Unf.							-	-.27**	-.16*	.62**	.09
Control								-	.39**	-.19**	.31**
Power									-	-.08	.49**

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

Effect of Support on Coping Strategies

A 2 x 5 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with coping strategies (advocacy, negotiation, social coping, avoidance and denial) as the within-subjects factor and condition (support vs. no support) as the between-subjects factor. The results indicated a significant main effect of coping strategies ($F_{(4,205)}$=328.07, MSE= 2.2, p<.001) (see Table 63). However, a significant interaction was also found between coping strategies and condition ($F_{(4,205)}$=4.86, p<.01). This interaction is displayed in the graph below (see Figure 11). Simple effects analyses were computed to further examine the interaction found. These analyses revealed that organisational support had an effect on coping strategies. Participants in the support condition reported more advocacy (M=5.47, SD=.15) than participants in the no-support condition (M=4.69, SD=.15) ($F_{(1,208}$=13.67, p<.001), more negotiation (M=5.96, SD=.13) than participants in the no-support condition (M=5.55, SD=.13) ($F_{(4,208)}$=4.57, p<.04), and less avoidance (M=5.01, SD=.19) than participants in the no-support condition (M=5.78, SD=.19) ($F_{(4,208)}$=8.18, p<.01). Social coping ($F_{(4,208)}$=.86) and denial ($F_{(4,208)}$=1.80) strategies did not differ on condition (both p>.1).
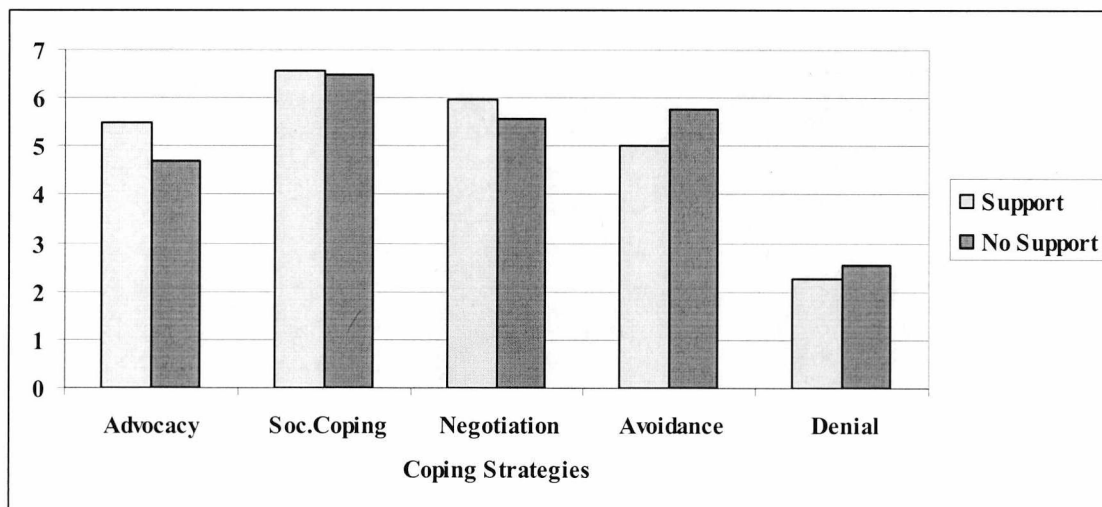
Figure 11: *Effects of Perpetrator Type on Coping Strategies*

Appraisals and Emotions

Hierarchical regression analyses were performed in order to test whether any of the relationships between appraisals and emotions were qualified by condition (support vs. no support). Classification of incident was controlled for in the first step. This showed that none of the relationships between emotions and appraisals that will be reported below were qualified by condition (all $p>.19$). Therefore the relationship between appraisals and emotions was not different depending on whether participants perceived having social support.

A linear regression was performed on the two emotions of anger and fear and the three appraisals they were found to correlate with (unfairness, control and perceived power) controlling for classification of incident in the first step. The first regression on anger ($F_{4, 209}=48.11$, $p<.001$) revealed that unfairness ($\beta=.56$, $t=8.51$, $p<.001$), but not perceived power ($\beta=.03$, $t=.05$, $p>.90$) or control ($\beta=-.03$, $t=-.57$, $p>.50$), was a significant predictor of anger. The more unfairness participants perceived the more anger

they would report. The second regression on fear ($F_{4, 209}$=10.17, p<.001) revealed that perceived power (β=-.14, t=- 1.99, p<.05) and control (β=-.22, t= -3.09, p<.01) were significant negative predictors of fear, but not unfairness (β=.09, t= 1.08, p>.2). The less power women perceived to have against the perpetrator, the more fear they would experience. Further regressions were run to clarify which particular emotions predicted which appraisals. Unfairness ($F_{3, 209}$=87.12, p<.001) was predicted by anger (β=.48, t= 8.57, p<.001) and not fear (β=.04, t= .75, p>.40). Perceived power ($F_{3,209}$=4.75, p<.01) was predicted by fear (β=-.24, t= -3.36, p<.01) and not anger (β=-.05, t= -.57, p>.50) and control ($F_{3,209}$=9.86, p<.001) was predicted by fear (β=-.28, t= -4.1, p<.001) and not anger (β=-.10, t=- 1.33, p>.10) (see Table 63).

Table 63: Anger and Fear and Appraisals:

	Anger					**Fear**				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R^2	R	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R^2	r
Unfairness	.48	8.57	<.001	.56	.68	.04	.75	.450	.56	.26
Perceived power	-.05	-.57	.569	.06	.11	-.24	-3.36	.001	.06	-.25
Perceived control	-.10	-1.33	.184	.13	-.22	-.28	-4.10	<.001	.13	-.32

Mediation analyses could not be performed in order to investigate whether the effects of condition on emotion are mediated by appraisals, as the condition had no effect on emotions. Therefore, support is not related to anger and fear (regression analyses on support confirm the above), nor does it strengthen the relationship between appraisals and

emotions. The results partially support appraisal theories of emotions particularly for anger, and the direction of the relationships indicates the same for fear.

Emotions and Coping Strategies

In order to test which emotion predicts better a particular coping strategy, linear regressions were performed on the two emotions of anger and fear and the five coping strategies, controlling for classification in the first step. The first regression was performed on advocacy ($F_{3, 209}=37.21$, $p<.001$). Anger ($\beta=.36$, $t= 5.28$, $p<.001$), not fear ($\beta=-.01$, $t= -.14$, $p>.80$), was the only significant predictor of advocacy. The second regression was performed on social coping ($F_{3, 209}=27.97$, $p<.001$). Anger ($\beta=.45$, $t= 6.31$, $p<.001$), not fear ($\beta=.10$, $t= 1.68$, $p>.09$), was the only significant predictor of social coping. Social coping has not been predicted by anger in previous studies. The third regression was on negotiation ($F_{2, 209}=16.88$, $p<.001$). Anger ($\beta=.29$, $t= 3.90$, $p<.001$), but not fear ($\beta=-.10$, $t=- 1.52$, $p>.10$), was the only significant predictor of social coping. The fourth regression was on avoidance ($F_{2, 209}=5.76$, $p<.01$). Fear ($\beta=.22$, $t= 3.15$, $p<.01$), and not anger ($\beta=.13$, $t= 1.62$, $p>.10$), was the only significant predictor of avoidance. The final regression was on denial ($F_{2, 209}=7.71$, $p<.001$) (See Table 64).

Table 64: *Anger and Fear and Coping Strategies:*

	Anger					Fear				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R²	R	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R²	r
Advocacy	.36	5.28	<.001	.35	.53	-.01	-.14	.889	.35	.17
Soc.Coping	.45	6.31	<.001	.29	.52	.10	1.68	.095	.29	.25
Negotiation	.29	3.90	<.001	.20	.39	-.10	-5.52	.130	.20	.04
Avoidance	.13	1.62	.108	.08	.18	.22	3.15	.002	.08	.25
Denial	-.11	-1.35	.177	.10	-.17	.21	3.07	.002	.10	-.12

We ran hierarchical regression analyses to examine whether the effects reported above were qualified by condition. In the hierarchical regressions, we controlled for the emotion not under consideration. In the second step, the emotion under consideration and condition (support vs. no-support) were entered simultaneously. In the third step, the interaction term (condition x emotion) was entered. Significant interactions were only found between fear and condition for negotiation ($F_{4, 209}=12.09$, $p<.001$), and fear and condition for social coping ($F_{4, 209}=24.42$, $p<.001$) (see Tables 65, 66). This implies that the relationship between fear and negotiation and fear and social coping differed on different levels of support.

Simple slope analyses were performed on the data to further examine the nature of the interaction effects obtained for fear and condition (support) in negotiation (Aitken & West, 1991). These analyses revealed that in the no-support condition, the relationship between fear and negotiation failed to reach significance ($\beta=-.09$, $t= -.87$, $p>.30$). In contrast, in the support condition there was a significant positive relationship between

fear and negotiation (β=.20, t= 2.07, p<.05). The higher fear participants reported, the more negotiation they reported. This finding was very interesting and it is plausible if support is taken into consideration: if participants had support from the organisation, even if fearful they would still negotiate with the perpetrator (see Figure 12).

Table 65: *The Effects of Support and Fear on Negotiation*

Regression Step		Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R²	R
Step 1	Condition	-.12	-1.96	.052		-.15
	Fear	-.07	-1.00	.317	.17	.04
Step 2	Condition x Fear	-.53	-2.08	.039	.19	-.09
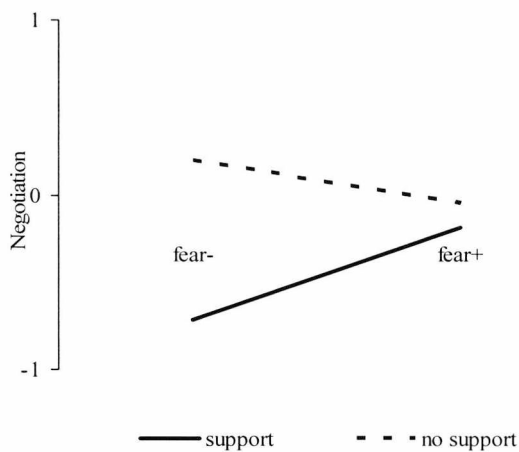
Figure 12: *The effects of Support and Fear on Negotiation*

Simple slope analyses were also performed on the data to further examine the nature of the interaction effects obtained for fear and condition (support) in social coping.

These analyses revealed that in the no-support condition, the relationship between fear and social coping failed to reach significance (β=.06, t= .65, p>.50). In contrast, in the support condition there was a significant positive relationship between fear and social coping (β=.44, t= 5.00, p<.001). The more fear participants reported, the more social coping they reported. This finding appears to make sense. When feeling fear participants will choose social coping only when support is available. Despite these interesting findings above, anger is still the most important predictor of negotiation and social coping.

Table 66: *The Effects of Support and Fear on Social Coping*

Regression Step		Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R^2	R
Step 1	Condition	-.02	-.37	.713		-.15
	Fear	.11	1.86	.064	.28	.04
Step 2	Condition x Fear	-.80	-3.40	.001	.32	-.09
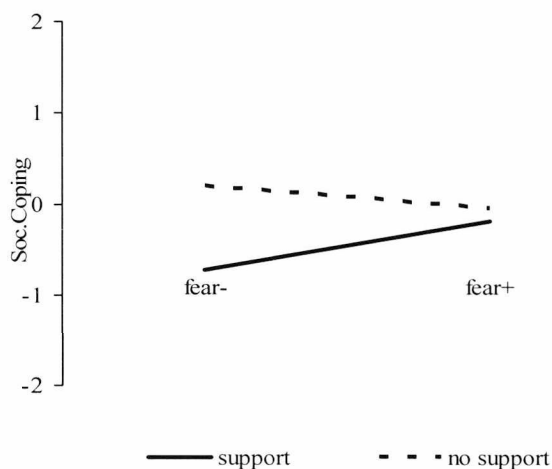
Figure 13: *The effects of Support and Fear on Social Coping*

Appraisals and Coping Strategies

The results of emotions on coping strategies are consistent with previous findings of this thesis. Now the focus is to see whether emotions mediate the relationship between appraisals and coping strategies. First, regressions were performed to examine the relationship between appraisals of unfairness, control and power and coping strategies. Classification and status were controlled for in these analyses. The first regression was performed on advocacy ($F_{5,209}=22.52$, $p<.001$). Unfairness ($\beta=.33$, $t=4.50$, $p<.001$) and perceived control ($\beta=.14$, $t=2.27$, $p<.03$) were significant predictors of advocacy but power ($\beta=.12$, $t=1.82$, $p>.05$) was not. The second regression was performed on negotiation ($F_{5,209}=9.67$, $p<.001$). Again, unfairness ($\beta=.26$, $t=3.17$, $p<.003$) and perceived control ($\beta=.18$, $t=2.51$, $p<.02$) were significant predictors of negotiation but power ($\beta=-.04$, $t=-.48$, $p>.6$) was not. The third regression on social coping ($F_{2,107}=6.43$, $p<.01$) revealed that only unfairness ($\beta=43$, $t=5.53$, $p<.001$) was a significant predictor of social coping, whereas perceived control ($\beta=-.09$, $t=-1.27$, $p>.20$) and power ($\beta=-.06$, $t=-.82$, $p>.40$) were not significant predictors. The fourth regression on avoidance ($F_{5,209}=1.83$, $p>.10$) revealed that only unfairness ($\beta=.18$, $t=2.00$, $p<.05$) was a significant predictor of avoidance whereas perceived control ($\beta=-.10$, $t=-1.31$, $p>.1$) and power ($\beta=.04$, $t=.47$, $p>.6$) were not. The final regression was on denial ($F_{5,209}=3.99$, $p<.003$) and revealed that control was the only significant negative predictor of denial ($\beta=-.19$, $t=-2.50$, $p<.02$). Unfairness ($\beta=-.08$, $t=-.90$, $p>.3$) and power ($\beta=.06$, $t=.78$, $p>.4$) were not predictors of denial (See Table 67).

Table 67: Unfairness, Power, Control and Coping Strategies

	Unfair					Control					Power				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R²	r	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R²	R	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R²	r
Ad	.33	4.50	<.001	.36	.49	.14	2.27	.02	.36	.04	.12	1.8	.07	.36	.10
SC	.43	5.53	<.001	.27	.50	-.09	-1.27	.21	.27	-.23	-.06	-.82	.41	.27	-.16
N.	.26	3.17	<.001	.19	.37	.18	2.51	.01	.19	.05	-.04	-.48	.63	.19	-.03
Av.	.18	2.00	.05	.04	.18	-.10	-1.31	.19	.04	-.12	.04	.47	.64	.04	-.01
D.	-.08	-.90	.37	.09	-.17	-.19	-2.50	.01	.09	-.11	.06	.78	.44	.09	.00

Appraisals Emotions and Coping Strategies

Mediation analyses were performed in order to test whether emotions mediated the effects of appraisals on coping strategies. The only analyses that were done and presented were those that have met the conditions for mediation based on foregoing analyses. That meant that the only relationships to be tested were unfairness-anger–negotiation; unfairness-anger–advocacy; unfairness-anger-social coping, and unfairness-anger-denial. The first relationship tested was that between unfairness and negotiation with anger as a mediator. Negotiation was regressed on anger and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between anger and negotiation was reduced but remained significant (β=.26, t= 3.07, p<.01). Similarly, the relationship between negotiation and unfairness remained significant, albeit reduced (β=.19, t=2.15, p<.04). A Sobel test confirmed that anger partially explains the relationship between negotiation and unfairness (z=2.99, p<.01; see Figure 14). We also

found that unfairness partially explains the relationship between anger and negotiation (z=2.14, p<.04).
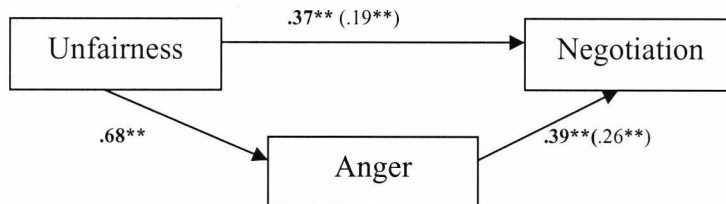
Figure 14: *Mediation of the relationship between Unfairness and Negotiation by Anger*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

The next relationship tested was that between unfairness and advocacy with anger as a mediator. Advocacy was regressed on anger and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between anger and advocacy remained significant (β=.36, t= 4.63, p<.001), and the relationship between unfairness and advocacy remained significant, but was slightly reduced (β=.24, t=3.02, p<.01). A Sobel test confirmed that anger partially explains the relationship between advocacy and unfairness (z=4.37, p<.001; see Figure 15). Similarly, unfairness partially mediated the relationship between anger and advocacy (z=2.93, p<.01).
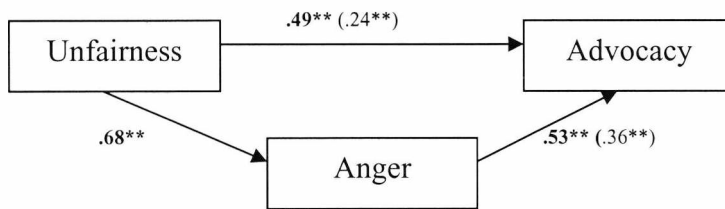
Figure 15: *Mediation of the relationship between unfairness and advocacy by anger*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

The third relationship tested was that between unfairness and social coping with anger as a mediator. Social coping was regressed on anger and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between anger and social coping remained significant but was reduced (β=.33, t= 4.24, p<.001), and the relationship between unfairness and social coping remained significant but also was reduced (β=.28, t=3.52, p<.01). A Sobel test confirmed that anger partially explains the relationship between social coping and unfairness (z=4.04, p<.001; see Figure 16). It appears that the appraisal of unfairness also partially explains the relationship between anger and social coping (z=3.40, p<.001).
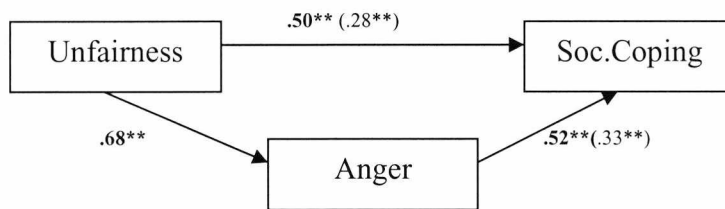
Figure 16: *Mediation of the relationship between unfairness and social coping by anger*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

The final relationship tested was between unfairness and denial, with anger as a mediator. Denial was regressed on anger and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between anger and denial was non significant (β=-.10, t= -1.12, p>.20), as was the relationship between unfairness and denial (β=-.10, t=-1.1, p>.20). Therefore, anger did not mediate the relationship between unfairness and denial and no other mediations were computed.

DISCUSSION

The present study provides an interesting pattern of results. Generally, participants highly recognised the scenario as describing sexual harassment. However, condition had no effect on perception of sexual harassment, with individuals belonging to both conditions willing to recognise sexual harassment. This finding seems to corroborate the previous research (European Commission, 1998; Pryor, 1985; Stockdale et al., 1995; USMSPB, 1995) insofar as suggesting that sexually harassing acts perpetrated by people holding more organisational power than the victim, are more readily recognised as

sexually harassing. Furthermore, the sexually harassing incident involved attempted touching and quid-pro-quo sexual harassment which is consistently more readily recognised by people (Charney & Russell, 1994; Fitzgerald, 1996; Fitzgerald & Schullman, 1993; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Gelfand et al., 1995)

The results of this study indicated no significant effects of condition (i.e. organisational support) on appraisals or emotions. Participants in both conditions felt more anger than fear. This finding seems logical in terms of fear since the perpetrator has more organisational power than the victim. Participants in both conditions also found the incident highly unfair, reported having less power than the perpetrator and less control of the situation than the perpetrator. In terms of anger, these findings are in line with those of Fitness (2000): low power people are likely to become angry over what they perceive as unjust treatment by people with superior organisational positions, and will appraise those events as highly unfair.

However, support had an effect on coping strategies. Participants belonging to the support condition reported more advocacy and negotiation and less avoidance than participants in the no support condition. Overall, participants least reported strategy was denial. This finding is consistent with the severity and high recognition of this evident type of harassment. Participants' favoured coping strategy was social coping. This is consistent with our earlier predictions as well as previous literature. The higher the perpetrator status, and the more severe the incident is, affected women will chose to confide in and turn for support to their immediate social circle (European Commission, 1998; Fitness, 2000; Pryor, 1985; Stockdale et al., 1995; USMSPB, 1995).

When harassed by superiors, negotiation is not a likely option chosen by victims (Bingham & Scherer, 1993); victims are more likely to negotiate with a perpetrator of lower organisational status (Cortina & Wasti, 2005). However, in this study, negotiation still remained higher than avoidance of the perpetrator which reported to be the strategy often adopted by women harassed by superiors (Bingham & Scherer, 1993). A possible explanation again lies with the severity of the incident: this type of harassment is so pervasive and severe that victims perhaps have no other option but to react.

Again advocacy seeking remains high in this study even if it is not the preferred option by participants. Advocacy seeking is said to be adopted by victims that are harassed by perpetrators of equal or lower organisational status (Cortina & Wasti, 2005). Similarly to Studies 5, and 6, in this study, coping strategies are measured as likelihood to adopt a particular strategy. A very important finding of this study is that it corroborates previous findings in terms of the role of organisational support in victims' experiences of sexual harassment (Willness et al., 2007). The findings of this study clearly show that in cases where there is organisational support, victims of sexual harassment, even of the severest form, are more willing to report the incident to the relevant authorities than when there is no organisational support.

Appraisals were related to emotions similarly to previous studies. Anger was related to unfairness, but had a weaker relationship with perceived control of the situation, whereas fear has a strong relationship with power and perceived control. This finding has been consistent so far throughout this thesis. There was no overall moderating effect of support on the relationship between emotions and coping strategies. Two weak moderating effects were found on the relationships between fear and negotiation and fear

and social coping. However, upon further inspection, anger remained the strongest predictor of negotiation and social coping.

The regression analyses performed in this study have produced an overall pattern that is consistent with previous studies. Fear was not related to advocacy and negotiation, but is instead positively related to avoidance, and anger is positively related to negotiation and advocacy seeking, and not related to avoidance. Contrary to previous studies, the negative relationship between anger and denial was not replicated in this study. These findings partially support our expectations and corroborate previous literature on appraisals, emotions and behavioural tendencies (Frijda et al., 1989; Kuppens et al., 2003; Roseman et al., 1990; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

In terms of the mediating role of emotions in the relationship between appraisals and coping, only anger was found to mediate appraisals (unfairness only) and coping strategies (negotiation, advocacy, social coping). It has to be noted that social coping has not been associated with the emotion of anger previously in any of the studies in this thesis. It is possible that due to the high number of participants, many relationships that were previously not significant now emerge as strong. In terms of the mediating role of appraisals, this study indicated a mediating role of unfairness in the relationship between anger and negotiation, anger and advocacy and anger and social coping. This finding is in line with the findings of Chapter 6. This pattern of mediations clearly shows that a feedback system of appraisals emotions and behavioural tendencies is more plausible in the context of sexual harassment rather than a linear causal relationship between them (Baumeister et al., 2007). Similar to previous studies (Studies 5 and 6) emotions and appraisals remain distinct but related predictors of coping strategies.

An important limitation of this study was that participants were not explicitly asked whether they had prior personal experiences of sexual harassment. It must be acknowledged that prior harassment experiences may have affected the responses. In particular, previously harassed individuals may have been more likely to take part in the study than non harassed individuals. The survey to be presented in the following chapter has acknowledged and addressed this issue.

CHAPTER 8

Emotions and Coping Strategies in Real-life Experiences of Sexual Harassment

In this chapter, the findings from a survey using a working population with experiences of sexual harassment are presented. First, the issues pertaining to the use of vignette and recall-based methodologies in the study of emotion and sexual harassment are considered. Study 8 (N=334) was a survey using a retrospective methodology, where participants who had experienced sexual harassment in their workplace were asked questions with regards to their experience, their emotional reactions and their subsequent behaviour. The demographics and general trends of the data show that a large proportion (43%) of the women asked had been harassed. The most frequent type of harassment reported overall was unwanted sexual attention. The majority of the women asked in this survey were harassed by males (87%). 62% were harassed by superiors and 32% were harassed by equal status perpetrators. The findings on the particular relationships of interest to this thesis showed that anger was predicted by unfairness and fear was predicted by power. Anger also predicted advocacy, social coping, negotiation and denial (negatively), whereas fear predicted avoidance. Unfairness predicted all five coping strategies, organisational support predicted advocacy and social coping, whereas power only predicted denial (negatively). Anger mediated the relationship between unfairness and negotiation, unfairness and advocacy seeking and unfairness and social coping whereas fear mediated the relationship between unfairness and avoidance. The

appraisal of unfairness also mediated the relationship between anger and negotiation and fear and avoidance.

INTRODUCTION

The six studies presented in this thesis have confirmed that emotions play an important role in victims' responses to sexual harassment. The results generally underline that anger is related to the coping strategies of negotiation and advocacy seeking and negatively related to denial, whereas fear is related to avoidance coping strategies. These results corroborate, on a general basis, previous literature on emotions and particular behavioural tendencies (Frijda et al., 1986; Roseman et al., 1994; Yzerbyt et al., 2003). Furthermore, in Study 7, the people that took part were actively working; hence the situations described would be more real to them. However, in Study 7, status differences were not examined. The remaining task for this thesis is to cross status differences with organisational support: It may well be that even when the harasser is of higher status and therefore has higher power than the victim; the victims may choose to confront that harasser if there is organisational support present.

So far, scenarios and vignettes of sexual harassment have been employed in order to examine women's reactions to sexual harassment (Studies 1-7). Scenarios are widely used in the study of social phenomena and have been particularly useful in the study of appraisals (Robinson & Clore, 2001a; 2001b; Roseman, 1991) as well as in the study of delicate and affectively negative topics such as rape and sexual harassment (Baker et al., 1990; Bohner et al., 1993; Malovich & Stake, 1990; Perry et al., 1997; Terpstra & Baker, 1989).

Retrospective methods are also widely used in the research of emotions, where participants are asked to recall emotional experiences and episodes from their past (e.g., Frijda et al., 1989; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Retrospective reports and survey methods where participants are asked to recall incidents or experiences of unwanted sexual conduct have also been widely used in the research of sexual harassment (Bingham & Scherer, 1993; European Commission, 1998; Gruber & Smith, 1995; USMSPB, 1981).

There has been a debate in the recent literature about scenario/vignette-based methodologies (Robinson & Clore, 2001a; Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). Woodzicka and LaFrance (2001) claim that, in the research on sexual harassment in particular, hypothetical scenarios and retrospective studies may overestimate the extent to which victims confront their harassers. Their criticism is that victims' emotional reactions with regard to the sexual harassment are not clearly understood and that they are often blamed for not confronting their harassers (Cohen & Cohen, 1993; Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). As Woodzicka and LaFrance (2001) claim, although scenario-based research has shown that women believe that they would confront their harassers (i.e. Baker et al., 1990; Terpstra & Baker, 1989), in actuality, it has been shown that in sexual harassment cases, victims rarely report or confront their harassers (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Gutek, 1985). In this thesis, formal reporting (advocacy seeking) has been consistently shown to be the least preferred coping strategy, less so than negotiating with the perpetrator (Studies 2-6). The only exception was found in Study 7, where advocacy was reported more than negotiation but only in the condition where there was organisational support.

Retrospective studies and surveys have been useful for researchers as they help document the incidence and the characteristics of sexually harassing events and

perpetrators. However, a problematic aspect of surveys (as previously reviewed in Chapter 1) is that direct and clear questions about sexual harassment and the use of the term "sexual harassment" elicit unexpected responses from participants. Less than half the women who would otherwise reply affirmatively to items regarding unwanted sexual behaviour in surveys (i.e. European Commission, 1998; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Magley, Hulin et al., 1999) would label themselves as victims of sexual harassment. Therefore, clear use of the term "sexual harassment" in surveys may potentially exclude a substantial proportion of women who would not have termed their experience sexual harassment even though it may fit the criteria (Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). Lengnick-Hall (1995) also expressed caution at vignettes and scenario based research, claiming that some of the measurements or the descriptions in the vignettes themselves, or the questions that follow them, may be more assertive or imply more confrontation than what would actually be involved in a real harassment situation.

It is clear from the aforementioned that in the research of sexual harassment, scenario-based methodologies along with being vital to the study of the phenomenon, do not come free of shortcomings or potential limitations. Woodzicka and LaFrance (2001) suggest that the immediate emotional reactions and responses to sexual harassment, as well as the very important non-verbal behaviours and responses, are neglected using distal methodologies. Referring to Fitzgerald et al. (1995) they claim that imagined harassment fails to evoke the stress and fear involved in real harassment, and that it also underestimates the costs and benefits linked with taking action against a perpetrator (Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). In their studies they utilised both imagined responses to sexual harassment using scenarios, as well as real responses by creating a sexually

harassing incident in the laboratory, and they also measured emotional reactions. Their scenarios consisted of the description of a sexually harassing job interview and their participants had to imagine themselves as the target. They posit that on the basis of ethical considerations they could not invoke harassment of any severe kind and therefore recreated gender harassment in the laboratory. For their second study, they recruited participants by advertising a cover story about testing for eligibility of candidates for a research assistant position. A confederate would interview the job applicant (the participant) and ask harassing questions among typical questions (Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001).

Their findings suggest that in the imagined situation, most participants reported that they would confront the harasser by either saying something about the inappropriateness of the questions or by leaving the interview (to a lesser extent). Most notably, most of their participants reported feeling angry as a response to the harassment rather than fear. In the real-harassment situation their findings indicate that very few participants actually commented on the harassing questions or confronted the harasser and that the majority ignored the harassment (Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). Furthermore, the results of this study indicated that fear was the most reported reaction from women in the harassing interview as opposed to anger in the imagined one. Fear was negatively correlated with confronting the harasser in the real harassment situation and anger was positively related with confronting in the imagined situation (Woodzicka and LaFrance, 2001). It is important to note at this point that the studies in this thesis have anticipated and shown both these relationships in the imagined situations tested: Anger has been consistently positively related to negotiation and advocacy seeking and

fear has been consistently positively related to avoidance. In Study 3, fear was also negatively related to advocacy and negotiation and in Study 6 fear was negatively related to negotiation.

Regarding the aforementioned research, the points that are highlighted concerning the limitations of scenario-based research are both understandable and plausible. However, there are problems and serious considerations with respect to creating sexually harassing situations and environments in the laboratory. This author maintains that it is neither ethically acceptable, nor desirable to induce sexual harassment on any participant, be that gender harassment or indeed any severer harassing behaviour. Woodzicka and LaFrance (2001) maintain that the stress and fear intrinsically linked with the experience of sexual harassment cannot be induced with scenario based research. For the sake of participants' well-being, however, perhaps this is a positive thing. Furthermore, gender harassment is a negative and undesirable situation in itself, the effects of which are proven to be negative, pervasive and long lasting. Hence, the well-being of participants cannot be compromised in such a way.

With respect to Woodzicka and LaFrance's (2001) findings regarding emotional experiences, they find fear experienced more in the real harassment situation and anger being reported more in their vignette paradigm. The findings of this thesis as well as previous literature on sexual harassment (see Dougherty, 1999) indicate that sexual harassment experiences apart from personal they are also varied and complex for the victims. The research presented in this thesis so far confirms the complexity of the harassment situation. The relationships obtained in the previous studies (Studies 5 to 7) indicate a feedback system of emotions (i.e. Baumeister et al., 2007). This demonstrates

complex cognitive processing behind sexual harassment experiences, with women using their appraisals of the particular situation as well as their emotions constantly to inform their action choices and coping strategies. If a feedback system of emotions and appraisals is to be considered (see Chapter 2), then it is possible that through the process of re-appraising a situation, the primary, instinctive emotion could change into a more cognitively complex emotion. It is possible, therefore, that the fear reported in the real harassment paradigms by Woodzicka and LaFrance (2001) transforms into what is reported as anger in the scenario-based research or retrospective methodologies. The distance from and re-appraisal of the situation (i.e. unfairness), could well explain this difference.

In addition, the harassment situation that was recreated in the Woodzicka and LaFrance (2001) study was a particular incident of sexually harassing conduct that is not indicative or representative of all sexually harassing incidents. Gender harassment in particular, is usually a behaviour that is repetitive, pervasive and deleterious for its victims (Wiener & Hurt, 2000). The lack of repetitiveness and pervasion in this paradigm may have deemed it difficult for participants to label the behaviour as sexual harassment and therefore be unsure about confronting the perpetrator as a result (see Stockdale et al., 1995). Furthermore, this situation was a single episode, in an environment that was novel and not the working environment of participants, where participants had availability of escape from the situation, and no severe effects or repercussions as usually found in harassment (Willness et al., 2007). It is clear that the more severe sexual harassment types could not be recreated in the laboratory without negative effects on the participants.

Sexual harassment is not the only literature that has posed questions regarding scenario-based research. In the appraisals and emotions literature, scenario-based methods (Dumont et al., 2003; Mackie et al., 2000; Roseman, 1991; Yzerbyt et al., 2002; 2003) have been widely utilised, whereas immediate appraisals and experience methods are more rare (i.e. Folkman & Lazarus, 1987; Smith & Ellsworth, 1987). Although vignette and recall methodologies are different from actual experience, they are similar to each other in the sense that they ask participants to recall emotions that they are not currently experiencing (Parkinson & Manstead, 1993; Robinson & Clore, 2001a), therefore, these methodologies would appear to be based on representations of emotions rather than emotions themselves (Robinson & Clore, 2001a).

Robinson and Clore (2001a) conducted two studies testing for the convergence of appraisals and emotions in both concurrent as well as simulated conditions using either descriptions of slides with emotive content or showing actual slides. Their findings suggest that imagined reactions to emotional stimuli are nearly identical to those in concurrent situations. In terms of emotions, their findings indicate that in simulated conditions participants do report that they would experience more fear and anxiety as a response to dangerous slides, than the participants in the concurrent situation had actually experienced. However, Robinson and Clore (2001a) report that even when significant dissociations were found between conditions (albeit rare), the patterns of appraisals and emotions in both conditions were very similar.

The most striking finding was pertaining to the appraisal-emotion relationship. The correlations found between the two conditions were so high that they were practically identical (Robinson & Clore, 2001). Considering the absence of concomitant

emotional experience in the simulated conditions, this extent of correspondence in the appraisal-emotion relationship between conditions provides important evidence concerning the validity of scenario-based methods in the appraisal-emotions research (Robinson & Clore, 2001a). As Robinson and Clore (2001a) suggest, if scenarios are to be thought as containing commonsense beliefs about how to respond or feel in a given situation, more discrepancies would be expected to be found between the two conditions, which was not the case in this study.

Current Research

In this thesis, hypothetical scenarios were employed up to this point, in order to examine people's emotional and behavioural reactions to sexually harassing incidents. Based on the review of the aforementioned debate regarding scenario-based and recall research and concurrent/real incidents, the choice of methodologies employed in this current research programme appears to be justified. For this context, the methodologies chosen were optimal for allowing the examination of a variety of scenarios and sexual harassment types as well as various appraisals (see Chapters 4-7). Whereas behaviour like negotiation or avoidance can be observed, appraisals of sexual harassment cannot be observed in real-life harassment experiences. In order to capture as many facets of sexual harassment as possible, without compromising the well-being of participants, the use of scenarios and retrospective methodologies seems the most appropriate option.

The present study aimed to address the obtained findings from the previous studies between appraisals, emotions and coping strategies in real-life experiences of sexual harassment. As argued previously, it is not ethically acceptable, nor desirable to induce sexual harassment on participants. In addition, gender and hostile environment

harassment are recognised easier when behaviours are repetitive and pervasive. It is only with very serious harassment cases like quid-pro-quo and sexual assault, that no repetition of the behaviour is necessary for them to be clearly recognised (Gutek & O'Connor, 1995; Wiener & Hurt, 2000). As aforementioned, scenario and retrospective methods allow for the testing of a variety of sexually harassing experiences, as well as assessing the current trends of sexually harassing incidents in terms of typology and perpetrator characteristics.

Because this thesis has particular expectations pertaining to the relationship between appraisals, emotions and behavioural tendencies, a recall-based survey was the most appropriate method and was consequently used in the present study. The purpose was to test whether the relationships between the aforementioned factors would replicate themselves in real-life experiences of sexual harassment as well as assess the current trends with respect to prevalence and typologies of sexual harassment. This is the reason why despite previous concerns expressed in this thesis (i.e. Alemany, 1998; Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001), we explicitly asked participants whether they considered themselves as having been victims of sexual harassment. Essentially the interest lies in their appraisals of their experience.

Therefore, it was expected that participants' appraisals of unfairness would be linked with anger and appraisals of power would be linked with fear. Anger was expected to be linked with confrontation-associated coping strategies like negotiation with the perpetrator and advocacy seeking, whereas fear was expected to be associated with avoidance tendencies. In addition, this survey also provided important information on the prevalence of different types of harassment in the United Kingdom. As such, the victims'

relationship with the harasser and the presence of harassment policies on the part of the organisation were measured in this survey. Furthermore, perceived power, perceived unfairness and perceived organisational support were also measured similarly to previous studies, as well as emotions and the extent to which they engaged in various coping strategies. As aforementioned, the goal of the present study is to confirm whether the previous findings of this thesis will be replicated in applied settings.

Ethical Considerations

This particular study focused on real-life victims of sexual harassment, for which the topic is a painful reality. Being sensitive to the needs of victims, it was ensured that they were explicitly informed in writing that should they find the questionnaire or any of its items distressing that they should immediately stop and provided with the relevant departmental contacts for withdrawal of data and complaint procedures (see Appendices I & II). All participants were presented with debrief forms that contained the appropriate counselling services and contact numbers specifically for sexual harassment but also general counselling services and also relevant Equal Opportunities Commission contacts and the Equal Treatment Directive (see Appendix IV).

STUDY 8

Method

Participants

Three hundred and thirty four females participated voluntarily in this study. They constituted a sample of female working population in Britain. Ages ranged from 18 to 83

years and 81.7% of the sample was younger than 50 years (*M*= 36.6, *SD*= 12.5). Out of

the 334 participants, 190 responded that they had not experienced sexual harassment

whereas 144 responded that they had experienced sexual harassment.

Ethnicity

89% of the participants where white, 3.6% were black or British black, 1.5% were

Chinese/Oriental, 0.9% were mixed background and 3.9% of participants stated "other".

Marital Status

24% of the sample reported being single, 22.9% reported being "in a

relationship", 42% were married, 6.6% were divorced, 3.6% were separated and 0.9%

were widowed.

Employment Status

49.1% of the women participants were employed at the time of the survey, 9.3%

were self-employed, 7.5% were unemployed, 12% were students, 5.1% were retired and

16.9% were home makers.

Children living at home

42% of the sample reported having children living at home whereas 58% reported

not having children living at home.

Harassment

43.2% of the women that took part reported having been victims of some form of

harassment whereas 56.8% reported not having experienced sexual harassment.

Type of harassment experienced overall

The women that took part in this survey more frequently reported having received

indecent and sexist remarks, closely followed by having received comments about the

way they looked which they found demeaning. The least frequently reported behaviours were the more severe ones of being subjected to serious sexual assault and being subjected to threats with regards to sexual demands from people at work. Moreover, the sending of sexist jokes and pornographic content via e-mail at work was also reported by the minority of the sample as a sexually harassing behaviour. The overall frequency of participants' experiences of different sexual harassment types is summarised in Table 68.

Table 68: *Overall Experiences of Harassment*

	Frequency	
Type of Harassment	Yes	No
Gender Harassment 1: "bullied at work"	41.4%	58.6%
Gender Harassment 2: "purposefully violated dignity"	47.9%	52.1%
Sexual Harassment 1: "demeaning comments about looks"	57.1%	42.9%
Sexual harassment 2: "indecent or sexist remarks"	62.1%	37.9%
Sexual Harassment 3: "questions about one's sex life"	50%	50%
Sexual Harassment 4: "sexual demands/quid-pro-quo"	19.3%	80.7%
Sexual Harassment 5: "pornographic e-mails at work"	5.7%	94.3%
Sexual Harassment 6: "unwanted physical contact"	55.7%	44.3%
Sexual Harassment 7: "threats for sexual demands"	7.9%	92.1%
Sexual Harassment 8: "serious sexual assault"	5%	95%

* N=144

Perpetrators of overall harassment experiences

0.7% of the sample did not answer the question about whether it was a single or many perpetrators and the perpetrator's gender. 58.6% of the sample reported one person as the perpetrator whereas 40.7% reported more than one person as the perpetrators. 87.2% reported males as perpetrators, 2.8% reported females as perpetrators whereas 9.3% reported both males and females as perpetrators of their overall experiences.

Type of most recent harassment experienced

With regard to the most recent experiences, 15.6% of the women that took part in this survey reported having been bullied at work, 13.3% reported having their dignity purposefully violated, 9.6% reported having received demeaning comments about their looks, 13.3% having received indecent sexist remarks, 14.8% reported having received questions about their sex life, 1.5% reported quid-pro-quo sexual harassment, 15.6% reported having received unwanted physical contact, 1.5% reported having received threats for sexual demands. Although participants were explicitly told to choose 1 behaviour out of the ones specified 12.6% gave multiple responses with regards to their most recent experience. 2.2% reported other behaviours not specified in the choices outlined. Among the behaviours not specified but reported by the participants were: "passed over for promotion because of motherhood", "other colleagues much preferred to me", "I was hired based on the size of my chest", "sent presents", "I was a student and had the rug pulled out from under me for not sleeping with the professor", "I was hired to do the job because of the way that I looked and certain 'assets' ", "text messages (up to 100 a day) asking for text sex, pictures etc. a reduction in the hours I was given to work when I said no" and "I was raped by my boss", which was the only response given that

fits the criteria for serious sexual assault. The particular participant belonged to those that chose more than one response.

Perpetrators of most recent harassment experiences

3.7% of the sample did not answer the question about whether it was a single or many perpetrators and the perpetrator's gender. 83.1% of the sample reported one person as the perpetrator whereas 13.2% reported more than one person as the perpetrators. 86.7% reported males as the sole perpetrators, 7.4% reported females as the sole perpetrators whereas 2.2% reported both males and females as perpetrators of their most recent experience.

Status of Perpetrator

76 participants (61.8%) were harassed by perpetrators of superior status, 40 participants were harassed by equal status perpetrators (32.5%) and 7 participants were harassed by subordinates (5.7%).

Organisational Policies

Out of the women that reported having been harassed in this sample (N=144), 48% answered no/not sure whether their organisation had clear harassment policies, whereas 52% answered yes.

Gender of Perpetrator:

For the overall harassment experience 121 participants reported having been harassed by males, 4 participants reported having been harassed by females and 13 having been harassed by both males and females. For the most recent harassment experience, 117 participants reported having been harassed by males, 10 having been harassed by females and 3 having been harassed by both males and females.

In order to be consistent with the previous studies in this thesis, the analyses to follow focused on victims that had been harassed by men only. Furthermore, due to the size of the sample that were harassed by women, no meaningful analyses could be performed. Therefore the people that were harassed by women, or both women and men, were excluded from the sample leaving a total sample of 117 participants. After participants with incomplete data were omitted, the remaining and final sample consisted of 105 participants.

Design

This study employed a within-participants design, women's self-reported harassment experiences, emotional reaction to the scenario (anger, fear), their appraisals (perceived power, unfairness, severity of incident and control) and their self reported coping strategies (advocacy seeking, social coping, negotiation, avoidance and denial) were the dependent variables.

Procedure and Measures

Data collection took place on-line. Various working establishments were selected randomly and approached via e-mail requesting that the survey was circulated. Again, participants were kindly asked to forward the survey to colleagues and acquaintances. All participants that agreed to take part were presented with the survey. They were also entered automatically into a prize draw for participating in the survey. Participants were aware of this prior to commencing the experiment.

The survey consisted of two main parts: the information page and the main survey questionnaire. The information page consisted of the definition of sexual harassment as stated in the Equal Opportunities Commission (2005) website describing the two types of harassment: Gender harassment and sexual harassment. This was followed by the demographics information which consisted of seven questions: age, gender, ethnicity, nationality, marital status, employment status, and whether they have children living at home. The final question of the first part prompted participants to answer as honestly as they can to the following question: "Thinking about where you work, or worked, have you ever experienced sexual harassment in any of the ways described previously?" Participants that answered "yes" were allowed to continue on to the main survey. Participants that answered "no" were automatically debriefed and thanked, exiting the survey.

The main survey consisted of four parts: The harassment experience questions, the appraisals questions, the six-item emotions measurement and the 13 coping strategies measurement. The first part of the main survey (harassment experience questions) consisted of two stages of questions, one pertaining to general harassment experiences where participants could select more than one harassment experience, and one pertaining to the harassment experience that is the most recent where participants could only select one behaviour. The questions of this part were generated using the information in the Equal Opportunities Commission definition (2005) as taken from their website (2007). The reason for that choice of different harassment experiences is that it is the most comprehensive list of experiences that are closest to the current definition of sexual harassment in the United Kingdom, and the Equal Opportunities Commission website is

easily accessible and should be familiar to most workers. Participants were prompted to choose which type (or types depending on general or recent questions) best described their experience: two questions were specific to gender harassment: 1) "Bullied at work, where the harasser would not treat somebody of the opposite sex in this way" and 2) "Experienced any behaviour that purposefully (or as a result) violated your dignity or created an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment for you". Eight questions were specific to sexual harassment: 1) "Received comments about the way you look which you found demeaning", 2) "Received indecent or sexist remarks", 3) "Received questions about your sex life", 4) "Experienced sexual demands by a member of your own or the opposite sex (quid-pro-quo)", 5) "Received e-mails which included pornographic/explicit material sent by people at work", 6) "Received unwanted physical contact from the perpetrator(s) at work (e.g. touching)", 7) "Subjected to threats with regards to sexual demands from a person/people at work" and 8) "Subjected to any serious sexual assault whilst at work". In both these sections participants were also asked to describe any other behaviour that was not specified by the above questions and two questions about the perpetrator characteristics: 1) "Was it a single perpetrator or many perpetrators?" and 2) "What was the gender of the perpetrator(s)?" (Responses were "male", "female" or "both male and female")

The second part of the main survey was the appraisals section which included three questions on perpetrator status: 1) "Superior (supervisor, manager, employer, etc.)", 2) "Equal Status (colleague)" and 3) "Subordinate (someone you manage, or supervise, or employ, etc.)". This section also included one question on perpetrator power: "In terms of power over you at work, how would you rate the perpetrator?" response ranged from 1=

no power to 7= *absolute power*. This was followed by the index of support, containing two questions about organisational support: 1) "Thinking again of the last incident, how much support did you receive from your organisation (manager, company, etc.)?" and 2) "During the harassment how much support did you think you would get from your organisation (manager, company, etc.)?" Responses for both items ranged from 1= *no support at all* to 7= *a great deal of support*. One question pertained to sexual harassment policies: "Did your organisation have clear policies on Sexual Harassment?" (*Yes, no, not sure*). This was followed by the four-item measurement of unfairness as used in the previous studies of this thesis (see Studies 1-7).

In the third part of the main survey participants were prompted by the following question: "After the harassment incident happened, to what extent did you experience the following emotions?" to respond to the six-item emotions measurement which was identical to the one used in previous studies (see Studies 1-7).

The final part of the main survey questionnaire prompted participants with the following: "In terms of your reaction to the incident, please report how much you engaged in the following behaviours" to answer the 13-item coping strategies measurement (adapted from Wasti & Cortina, 2002). Four items measured Advocacy: "Talked with a superior, manager, or the union about the incident", "Reported the perpetrator.", "Made a formal complaint against the perpetrator", and "Filed a grievance". Three items corresponded to Social Coping: "Talked to someone you trust about the situation", "Asked a friend for advice", "Talked to friends for support". Two items corresponded to Negotiation: "Asked the perpetrator to leave you alone", "Tried to make it known to the perpetrator that you disliked the behaviour", two items to

Avoidance: "Tried to avoid the perpetrator", "Tried to stay out of the perpetrator's way" and two items to Denial: "Told your self this is not so important", "Tried to forget all about the situation".

RESULTS

Data Preparation:

Some of the categories had very few participants and therefore, meaningful analyses could not be performed. The options were either to exclude data and reduce sample size or collapse the data into fewer categories. In order to test whether there were any significant differences between categories, chi-square analyses were performed on the sample. Chi-square analyses were performed on harassment experience (whether participants had been harassed or not) and no significant difference between harassed and non-harassed people was found based on ethnicity, $\chi^2 = 4.15$, $df=4$, $p>.30$, marital status, $\chi^2 = 2.01$, $df=5$, $p>.80$, or having children living at home $\chi^2 = 1.25$, $df=1$, $p>.26$. The only significant difference found was on employment status, $\chi^2 = 13.36$, $df=5$, $p<.02$, with the home makers being less likely to have experienced sexual harassment: 44 home makers saying they had not experienced sexual harassment compared to 12 that had. It should be noted that home makers are expected to have a lower likelihood of experiencing sexual harassment as they do not have jobs. An independent samples t-test was also performed on participants' age in order to test whether there were any differences between harassed and non-harassed people, and this indicated no significant difference based on age, $t=-.54$, $df=32$ $p>.50$.

Further analyses were performed on the data using the final sample of 105 participants in order to establish the possibility of collapsing data. The first analysis was performed on status of perpetrator: since only seven participants were harassed by subordinates, we wanted to establish whether there were any differences in perceptions of harasser's power between equal status and subordinate perpetrators in order to collapse the data. An independent samples t-test was performed on the data and revealed no significant difference between perceived power of equal status vs. subordinate perpetrators, $t=1.48$, $df=40$ $p>.10$. Therefore, in our analyses we compared superior vs. equal/subordinate perpetrators (63 and 42 participants respectively).

There were also no differences found in perceived support (totalled scores of both support variables, see preliminary analyses to follow) for those who said "no" versus those who said "not sure" on the appraisal of support question "did your organisation have clear policies on Sexual Harassment?" $t=1.11$, $df=45$ $p>.27$. Therefore, in the analyses to follow, for appraisals of support (presence of policies) we compared yes and no/not sure people (58 and 47 participants respectively).

The final comparison was performed on participants that were harassed by one vs. participants that were harassed by more perpetrators and all the dependent variables of interest. No significant differences between single or many perpetrators were obtained for any of the dependent variables, as such, we collapsed the data (see Table 69).

Table 69: Comparisons between Number of Perpetrators and Dependent Variables of Interest

	Recent harassment	Gender of perpetrator	Status of perpetrator	Power of perpetrator	Actual Support	Perceived org support(policies)
Single of Many perpetrators	$\chi^2=14.81$ $p>.09$	$\chi^2=.55$ $p>.76$	$\chi^2=2.26$ $p>.32$	$t=-.08$ $p>.93$	$t=.24$ $p>.81$	$\chi^2=.05$ $p>.82$

* χ^2 *crosstabulations for categorical variables*
***all other variables were computed using independent samples t-tests*

Preliminary Analyses

Principal Components Analyses: Emotion Scale

The six items were submitted to a principal components analysis. Similar to all previous studies two factors emerged; Factor 1 represented fear and accounted for 40.6% of the variance and factor 2 represented anger and accounted for 34.4% of the variance (see Table 70).

Table 70: Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the 6 items of the Emotions Scale

Item	Factor 1 (Fear)	Factor 2 (Anger)
Scared	.91	
Terrified	.89	
Anxious	.81	
Angry		.77
Irritated		.82
Outraged		.84
Eigenvalues	2.43	2.07
% of variance	40.6	34.4

N=105

Coping Strategies Measurement

The thirteen coping strategies items were submitted to a principal components analysis using Varimax rotation and five factors were imposed. The rotated solution confirmed the presence of five distinguishable factors (see Table 71).

Table 71: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Coping Strategies Measurement*

Item	Factor 1 (Advocacy)	Factor 2 (SocCop)	Factor 3 (Avoidance)	Factor 4 (Denial)	Factor 5 (Negot)
Advocacy seeking 1	.72				
Advocacy seeking 2	.88				
Advocacy seeking 3	.89				
Advocacy seeking 4	.86				
Soc.Cop 1		.84			
Soc.Cop.2		.77			
Soc.Cop.2		.85			
Avoidance 1			.90		
Avoidance 2			.92		
Denial 1				.93	
Denial 2				.84	
Negotiation 1					.90
Negotiation 2					.85
Eigenvalues	3.14	2.34	1.81	1.71	1.69
% of variance	24.2	18.0	13.9	13.2	13.0

N=105

Unfairness

Four items collectively measuring Unfairness were submitted to a principal components analysis which revealed the presence of one factor accounting for 61.9% of the variance, with four loadings all >.5 (see Table 72)

Table 72: *Results of Principal Components Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Unfairness Measurement*

Item	Factor 1 Unfairness
1. Behaviour is wrong	.88
2. Behaviour is inappropriate	.86
3. Behaviour is unjustified	.81
4. Behaviour is intentional	.55
Eigenvalue:	2.47
% of Variance:	61.9

N=105

Reliability Analyses

Internal consistency of the questionnaire was measured using Cronbach's Alpha for each part of the questionnaire. All measures reached high levels of internal consistency (See Table 73).

Table 73: *Cronbach's Alpha for Each Part of the Questionnaire*

Part of the Questionnaire	Cronbach's Alpha (α)
Emotion Scale:	
Anger	**.78**
Fear	**.87**
Coping Strategies:	
Advocacy	**.90**
Social Cop.	**.83**
Negotiation	**.79**
Avoidance	**.86**
Denial	**.80**
Unfairness:	.73
Manipulation item:	
Support:(correlations of two items)	**.45****

The means, standard deviations and minimum maximum ranges of all the measured variables are presented in Table 74.

Table 74: *Means, Standard Deviations and Ranges of Major Variables*

Variable (No. of items)	Mean(SD)		Minimum-Maximum
Emotion Scale (12)			
Anger (3)	5.76	(1.80)	1 - 8
Fear (3)	3.77	(2.35)	0 - 8
Coping Strategies (13)			
Advocacy (3)	2.47	(1.95)	1- 7
Social Coping (3)	4.93	(2.00)	1- 7

Variable (No. of items)	Mean(SD)	Minimum-Maximum
Negotiation (2)	4.89 (2.12)	1- 7
Avoidance (2)	5.58 (1.79)	1- 7
Denial (2)	4.50 (2.01)	1- 7
Unfairness (4)	6.39 (.84)	3- 7
Power (1)	4.29 (2.11)	1- 7
Support (2)	2.49 (1.98)	1- 7

Note: All statistics are based on N=105. Emotions were measured on an 8-point scale, Coping Strategies, Unfairness, Classification and Power Status and Control were measured on a 7-point scale

Ratings of Support

A univariate ANOVA was performed with the index of support (two support items) as the dependent variable and status of perpetrator (superior vs. equal status/subordinate) and presence of organisational policies as independent variables. The results indicate that participants' reported organisational support did not differ dependent on perpetrator status ($F_{(1, 104)}$= 3.29, MSE= 3.05, p>.05), or dependent on presence of policies ($F_{(1, 104)}$= .21, MSE= 3.05, p>.79). No interaction effects were obtained for ratings of support; participants, independent of harasser status or presence of policies reported low ratings of received organisational support (see Table 75).

Table 75: Support

Support (N)	Mean(SD)
Equal Status (42)	2.86 (1.97)
Superior (63)	2.24 (1.56)
Policies Present (58)	2.38 (1.82)
Policies Absent (47)	2.58 (1.71)

Ratings of Power

A univariate ANOVA was performed with the item measuring perpetrator power as the dependent variable and status of perpetrator (superior vs. equal status/subordinate) and presence of organisational policies as independent variables. The results indicate that participants' perceptions of perpetrator power differed significantly dependent on perpetrator status ($F_{(1, 104)}$= 116.11, *MSE*= 2.03, $p<.001$), with participants that were harassed by superiors reporting more perpetrator power than participants that were harassed by equal status/subordinates. Participants' perceptions of perpetrator power also differed significantly dependent on policies ($F_{(1, 104)}$= 5.57, *MSE*= 2.03, $p<.03$). Participants, perceived the harasser as having more power when there were no organisational policies compared to when there were policies were present (see Table 76).

Table 76: Perceptions of Perpetrator Power

Perpetrator Power (N)	Mean(SD)
Equal Status (42)	2.40 (1.65)
Superior (63)	5.54 (1.30)
Policies Present (58)	3.88 (2.04)
Policies Absent (47)	4.79 (2.12)

Ratings of Unfairness

A univariate ANOVA was performed with perceived unfairness as the dependent variable and status of perpetrator (superior vs. equal status/subordinate) and presence of organisational policies as independent variables. The results indicate that participants' perceptions of unfairness did not differ depending on perpetrator status ($F_{(1, 104)}$= .21,

$MSE= .72, p>.64$), or depending on presence or absence of policies ($F(1, 104)= .70, MSE= .72, p>.41$). No interaction effects were obtained; participants perceived the incident as highly unfair regardless of whether they were harassed by superiors or equals and regardless of whether there was absence or presence of policies (see Table 77).

Table 77: Perceptions of Unfairness

Unfairness (N)	Mean(SD)
Equal Status (42)	6.34 (.62)
Superior (63)	6.42 (.97)
Policies Present (58)	6.31 (.93)
Policies Absent (47)	6.48 (.72)

Main Analyses

Correlations of main variables

The relationships of anger and fear (emotions), coping strategies, unfairness, perceived perpetrator power, perpetrator status, organisational support and organisational policies variables were tested in a bivariate correlation analysis. Anger and fear were once more positively correlated. The more anger participants felt, the more advocacy, social coping, negotiation, avoidance and the less denial they reported. Participants that reported fear were also more likely to report advocacy, social coping and avoidance. Unfairness was once more positively correlated with both anger and fear and with all 5 coping strategies. Organisational support was not correlated with either anger or fear. It was nevertheless positively correlated with advocacy seeking, and social coping. As expected, the more power participants perceived the perpetrator to have, the less support

they reported to have had received. Perpetrator power was positively correlated with both anger and fear. Perpetrator status was positively correlated only with perpetrator power. The results of the analysis are presented below (see Table 78).

Table 78: *Correlation Table for main variables*

	Fear	Adv	SoCop	Neg	Avoid	Den	Unfair	Support	Power	Policies	Status
Anger	42**	.35**	.34**	.25**	.30**	-.28**	.53**	.03	.21**	-.02	-.00
F	-	.20*	.34**	.15	.42**	.01	.31**	.06	.25**	-.12	.15
Adv		-	.46**	.38**	.32**	-.34**	.32**	.41**	.00	-.10	.00
SC			-	.32**	.32**	-.21*	.26**	.31**	.15	-.06	-.00
N				-	.25*	-.14	.32**	.09	.15	.03	.14
Avoid					-	.04	.42**	.12	.10	-.20*	.00
Den.						-	-.28**	-.09	-.05	-.11	-.16
Unf.							-	.10	.14	-.10	.04
Support								-	-.24*	.05	-.17
Power									-	-.21*	.73**
Policies										-	-.07

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

Effect of Perpetrator Status and Organisational Policies on Appraisals

A 3 x 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with appraisals (unfairness, power, and organisational support) as the within-subjects factor and perpetrator status (equal status/subordinate vs. superior) and presence of organisational policies (yes vs. no) as the between-subjects factors. The results indicated a significant main effect of appraisals ($F_{(2,100)}=187.75$, $MSE=1.96$ $p<.001$), women perceived the incident as highly unfair, the perpetrator as having more power than them and having received little support from their organisation. A significant interaction was found between appraisals and perpetrator status ($F_{(2,100)}=49.37$, $p<.001$). No significant interaction was obtained for appraisals and presence of organisational policies ($F_{(2,100)}=1.96$, $p>.14$). No significant three-way interaction was found between appraisals, perpetrator status and presence of organisational policies ($F_{(2,100)}=.57$, $p>.56$). Simple effects analyses were performed on appraisals and perpetrator status. These analyses indicated that the participants that were harassed by superior perpetrators perceived the perpetrator as having more power ($M=5.56$) than women that were harassed by equals ($M=2.46$) ($F_{(1,101)}=116.12$, $p<.001$). No other significant effects were found; women in both conditions perceived the incident as highly unfair (superior, $M=6.42$, equal status $M=6.34$) ($F_{(1,101)}=.21$, $p>.64$) and reported low organisational support (superior, $M=3.37$, equal status, $M=2.87$) ($F_{(1,101)}=3.28$, $p>.07$).

Effect of Perpetrator Status and Organisational Policies on Emotions

A 2 x 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with emotions (anger, fear) as the within-subjects factor and perpetrator status (equal status/subordinate vs.

superior) and presence of organisational policies (yes vs. no) as the between-subjects factors. The results indicated a significant main effect of emotions ($F_{(1,101)}=78.28$, $MSE=2.60$ $p<.001$). Participants indicated feeling more anger in response to the sexually harassing experience (M=5.76, SD=1.80) than fear (M=3.77, SD=2.35). No significant interaction was found between emotions and perpetrator status ($F_{(1,101)}=2.39$, $p>.12$) and emotions and presence of organisational policies ($F_{(1,101)}=.97$, $p>.32$). No significant three-way interaction was found between emotions, perpetrator status and presence of organisational policies ($F_{(1,101)}=.01$, $p>.91$). Simple effects analyses were performed on emotions, perpetrator status and presence of policies regardless of the lack of statistical significance in order to examine the trend of the data. These analyses indicated that the participants that were harassed by equal status perpetrators felt more anger (M= 5.76) than fear (M= 3.38) ($F_{(1,101)}=44.99$, $p<.001$). Similarly, participants that were harassed by superiors felt more anger (M= 5.75) than fear (M= 4.07) ($F_{(1,101)}=31.03$, $p<.001$). In the superior condition the data trend shows that participants reported more fear than in the equal status condition. When there were no clear harassment policies, participants reported more anger (M= 5.79) than fear (M= 3.98) ($F_{(1,101)}=27.26$, p<.001) similarly, when there were clear policies anger still remained stronger (M= 5.73) than fear (M= 3.47) ($F_{(1,101)}=55.83$, p<.001).

Effect of Perpetrator Status and Organisational Policies on Coping Strategies

A 2 x 2 x 5 repeated measures ANOVA was conducted with coping strategies (advocacy, negotiation, social coping, avoidance and denial) as the within-subjects factor and perpetrator status (equal status/subordinate vs. superior) and presence of

organisational policies (yes vs. no) as the between-subjects factors. The results indicated a significant main effect of coping strategies ($F_{(4, 98)}$=61.86, MSE= 3.40, p<.001). Pairwise comparisons of coping strategies indicated that the participants' least favoured overall option was advocacy seeking (M= 2.52) which was less than social coping (M= 4.95) (t=-12.18, df=104, p<.001), less than negotiation (M= 4.83) (t=-10.86, df=104, p<.001), less than avoidance (M= 5.61) (t=-14.49, df=104, p<.001) and less than denial (M= 4.61) (t=-6.41, df=104, p<.001). Avoidance was the participants' most frequently reported coping strategy, more than negotiation (t=2.93, df=104, p<.01), more than social coping (t=2.98, df=104, p<.01) and more than denial (t=4.17, df=104, p<.001).

No significant interactions were found between coping strategies and perpetrator status ($F_{(4,98)}$=1.33, p>.27). Simple effects analyses were computed despite the lack of significance to further examine the trend of the data. The data obtained for both status categories were virtually identical. Participants that were harassed by a superior reported slightly less advocacy (M=2.47) than participants that were harassed by equal status perpetrators (M=2.56) ($F_{(1,101)}$=.05, p>.82), more negotiation (M=5.12) (vs. equal status M=4.54) ($F_{(1,101)}$=1.88, p>.17), less avoidance (M=5.60) than participants that were harassed by equal status perpetrators (M=5.63) ($F_{(1,101)}$=.01, p>.92) and less denial (M=4.24) versus (M=4.97) ($F_{(1,101)}$=3.32, p>.07). No significant interaction was also found between coping strategies and organisational policies ($F_{(4,98)}$=.83, p>.51). Simple effects analyses were again performed to see the trend of the data and these indicated that participants reported slightly more negotiation when there were policies present (M=4.89) than when there were no policies (M=4.77) ($F_{(1,101)}$=.08, p>.78) more denial when policies were absent (M=4.90) than when they were present (M=4.32) ($F_{(1,101)}$=2.05,

$p>.15$) and more avoidance when there were no policies ($M=5.96$) than when there were policies present ($M=5.27$) ($F_{(1,101)}=3.75$, $p>.06$). No interaction between coping, perpetrator status and organisational policies was obtained ($F_{(4,98)}=.54$, $p>.70$).

Appraisals and Emotions

Hierarchical regression analyses were run in order to examine the effect of appraisals of perpetrator power, organisational support and unfairness on participants' emotions. This showed that none of the effects reported below were qualified by perpetrator status or organisational policies (all $p>.05$). Therefore the relationship between appraisals and emotions was not different depending on whether participants were harassed by perpetrators of equal or superior status or whether there were organisational policies present or not.

Because of the specific predictions in this thesis with regards to appraisals and emotions, a linear regression was performed on the two emotions of anger and fear and the three appraisals they were found to correlate with (unfairness, support and perpetrator power). The first regression on anger ($F_{3,104}=14.32$, $p<.001$) revealed that unfairness ($\beta=.51$, $t=5.97$, $p<.001$), but not perpetrator power ($\beta=.14$, $t=1.59$, $p>.11$) or support ($\beta=-.01$, $t=.16$, $p>.87$), was the only significant predictor of anger. Therefore, the more unfairness women perceived in the harassment the more anger they experienced. The second regression on fear ($F_{3,104}=5.77$, $p<.01$) revealed that perpetrator power ($\beta=.23$, $t=2.41$, $p<.02$) and unfairness ($\beta=.27$, $t=2.85$, $p<.01$) were both significant predictors of fear, but not support ($\beta=.09$, $t=.93$, $p>.36$). This indicated that regardless of whether there was organisational support, the more unfair the incident and the more power the

perpetrator had, the more fear women reported. Further regressions were run to clarify which particular emotions predicted which appraisals. Unfairness ($F_{2,104}=20.84$, $p<.001$) was predicted by anger ($\beta=.48$, $t=5.28$, $p<.001$) and not fear ($\beta=.11$, $t=1.18$, $p>.24$). Perpetrator power ($F_{2,104}=4.14$, $p<.02$) was marginally predicted by fear ($\beta=.20$, $t=1.88$, $p<.07$) and not anger ($\beta=.13$, $t=1.20$, $p>.23$) and organisational support ($F_{2,104}=.19$, $p>.83$) was predicted by neither fear ($\beta=.06$, $t=.51$, $p>.61$) nor anger ($\beta=.01$, $t=.09$, $p>.93$). These findings confirm that unfairness is an important component in the experience of anger whereas perceptions of power are important for the experience of fear (see Table 78).

Table 79: Anger and Fear and Appraisals

	Anger					Fear				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R²	r	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R²	r
Unfairness	.48	5.28	<.001	.29	.53	.11	1.18	.239	.29	.31
Perpetrator power	.13	1.20	.232	.07	.21	.20	1.88	.064	.07	.25
Organisational Support	.01	.09	.927	.00	.03	.06	.51	.607	.00	.06

Appraisals and Emotions

Analyses could not be performed in order to investigate whether the effects of status of perpetrator or presence of policies on emotion are mediated by appraisals, as these variables had no effect on emotions. Therefore, status of perpetrator and organisational policies are not related to anger or fear, nor do they strengthen the relationship between appraisals and emotions. The results partially support appraisal theories of emotions especially regarding anger, and the direction of the relationships indicates the same for fear.

Emotions and Coping Strategies

Regressions were performed on the two emotions of anger and fear and the five coping strategies in order to test which emotion better predicts which coping strategy. In the first regression on advocacy ($F_{2,104}$=7.30, $p<.01$), anger (β=.32, $t=$ *3.14, p<.01*), not fear (β=.07, $t=$ *.67, p>.50*), was the only significant predictor of advocacy. The second regression was performed on social coping ($F_{2,104}$=10.03, $p<.001$). Both anger (β=.24, $t=$ *2.39, p<.02*), and fear (β=.24, $t=$ *2.45, p<.02*), were significant predictors of social coping. Social coping has been predicted by anger only in Study 7. The third regression was on negotiation ($F_{2,104}$=3.59, $p<.04$). Anger (β=.23, $t=$ *2.20, p<.04*), but not fear (β=.05, $t=.47$, *p>.6*), was the only significant predictor of negotiation. The fourth regression was on avoidance ($F_{2,104}$=12.50, $p<.001$). Fear (β=.36, $t=$ *3.67, p<.001*), and not anger (β=.15, $t=$ *1.57, p>.12*), was the only significant predictor of avoidance. The final regression was on denial ($F_{2,104}$=5.74, $p<.01$) where anger was the only significant negative predictor (β=-.35, $t=$ *-3.38, <.01*), (See table 79).

Table 80: *Anger and Fear and Coping Strategies:*

	Anger					Fear				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R^2	r	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R^2	R
Advocacy	.32	3.14	.002	.12	.35	.07	.67	.506	.12	.20
Soc.Coping	.24	2.39	.019	.16	.34	.24	2.45	.016	.16	.34
Negotiation	.23	2.20	.030	.07	.25	.05	.47	.637	.07	.15
Avoidance	.15	1.57	.120	.20	.30	.36	3.67	<.001	.20	.42
Denial	-.35	-3.38	.001	.10	-.28	.16	1.54	.127	.10	.01

We ran hierarchical regression analyses to examine whether the effects reported above were qualified by status of perpetrator or by presence/absence of organisational policies. No effects of organisational policies were obtained (all p's >.08). In the first step we controlled for the emotion not under consideration, in the second step, the emotion under consideration and status of perpetrator (superior vs. equal/subordinate) were entered simultaneously. In the third step, the interaction term (status x emotion) was entered. Significant interactions were only found between fear and status for advocacy ($F_{4,104}=4.93$, $p<.01$), and anger and status for negotiation ($F_{4,104}=3.62$, $p<.01$) (see Tables 80, 81). This implies that the relationship between anger and negotiation and fear and advocacy differed on different levels of perpetrator status. Simple slope analyses were performed on the data to further examine the nature of the interaction effects obtained for anger and status in negotiation (Aitken & West, 1991). All variables were centred prior to analysis (Jaccard & Turissi, 2003). These analyses revealed that in the equal status condition, the relationship between anger and negotiation failed to reach significance ($\beta=-.04$, $t= -.24$, $p>.81$). In contrast, in the superior condition there was a significant positive relationship between anger and negotiation ($\beta=.42$, $t= 3.59$, $p<.01$). The more anger participants reported, the more negotiation they reported. This finding was very interesting and it is plausible if status is taken into consideration: if participants were harassed by someone of higher status, they would feel angrier and as a result, they would be more likely to negotiate with the perpetrator.

Table 81: The Effects of Status of perpetrator and Anger on Negotiation

Regression Step		Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R²	R
Step 1	Status	.14	1.47	.145		.14
	Anger	.24	2.32	.022	.08	.25
Step 2	Status x Anger	.78	2.17	.032	.13	.28

Simple slope analyses were also performed on the data to further examine the nature of the interaction effects obtained for fear and status in advocacy seeking. These analyses revealed that in the superior condition, the relationship between fear and advocacy failed to reach significance (($F_{1,61}=.08$, $p>.78$) ($\beta=.04$, $t= .28$, $p>.78$). In contrast, in the equal status condition there was a significant positive relationship between fear and advocacy ($\beta=.44$, $t= 3.12$, $p<.01$). The more fear participants reported, the more advocacy seeking they reported but only when the perpetrator was of equal status. This finding was in general accordance with the theoretical predictions of this chapter. Despite these interesting and plausible findings, anger still remains the strongest predictor for both advocacy and negotiation. Therefore, we focus the analyses to follow on mediations.

Table 82: The Effects of Perpetrator Status and Fear on Advocacy

Regression Step		Beta (β)	T	Sig.	R²	R
Step 1	Status	-.01	-.10	.921		.00
	Fear	.07	.67	.504	.12	.20
Step 2	Status x Fear	-.47	-2.17	.032	.16	.02

Appraisals and Coping Strategies

The relationship between emotions and coping strategies is consistent with previous findings of this thesis. To analyse the impact of perpetrator status and organisational polices on the relationship between appraisals and coping strategies, hierarchical regressions were performed. These analyses revealed only one significant effect between perpetrator status and perpetrator power for social coping only in the superior condition[1]. Now the interest is to see whether emotions mediate the relationship between appraisals and coping strategies. First regressions were performed to examine the relationship between appraisals of unfairness, organisational support and perpetrator power and coping strategies. The first regression was performed on advocacy ($F_{3,101}=11.15$, $p<.001$). Unfairness ($\beta=.27$, $t=3.02$, $p<.01$) and organisational support ($\beta=.40$, $t=4.44$, $p<.001$) were significant predictors of advocacy but power ($\beta=.06$, $t=.71$, $p>.48$) was not. When there is organisational support and women perceive the behaviour as highly unfair, then they are more likely to seek advocacy. The second regression was performed on Negotiation ($F_{3,101}=4.76$, $p<.01$). Unfairness ($\beta=.29$, $t=3.07$, $p<.01$) was the only significant predictor of negotiation. Organisational support ($\beta=.10$, $t=.99$, $p>.32$) and power ($\beta=.13$, $t=1.38$, $p>.16$) were not significant predictors. When women feel that the behaviour is highly unfair, regardless of whether the perpetrator has more power or whether there is presence of organisational support, they are likely to negotiate with the perpetrator. The third regression on social coping ($F_{3,101}=7.87$, $p<.001$) revealed that unfairness ($\beta=.20$, $t=2.14$, $p<.05$), organisational support ($\beta=.34$, $t=3.67$, $p<.001$) and power ($\beta=.21$, $t=2.21$, $p<.05$) were all significant predictors. The fourth regression on

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[1] When harassed by a superior, the more power women perceive the perpetrator to have, the more likely they are to engage in social coping ($\beta=.45$, $t=3.97$, $p<.001$).

avoidance ($F_{3,101}=7.57$, $p<.001$) revealed that only unfairness ($\beta=.40$, $t=4.34$, $p<.001$) was a significant predictor of avoidance whereas organisational support ($\beta=.09$, $t=.98$, $p>.33$) and power ($\beta=.06$, $t=.68$, $p>.50$) were not. This finding contradicts our expectations as well as previous findings. The final regression was on Denial ($F_{3,101}=3.08$, $p<.05$) and revealed that unfairness was the only significant negative predictor of denial ($\beta=-.27$, $t=-2.75$, $p<.01$). Organisational support ($\beta=-.07$, $t=-.74$, $p>.46$) and power ($\beta=-.03$, $t=-.34$, $p>.73$) were not predictors of denial (See table 82).

Table 83: *Unfairness, Power, Organisational Support and Coping Strategies:*

	Unfair					Support					Power				
	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R^2	r	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R^2	r	Beta (β)	T	Sig	R^2	r
Ad	.27	3.02	.01	.25	.32	.40	4.44	<.001	.25	.41	.06	.71	.48	.25	.00
SC	.20	2.14	.03	.19	.26	.34	3.67	<.001	.19	.31	.21	2.21	.03	.19	.15
N.	.29	3.07	.01	.12	.32	.10	.99	.32	.12	.09	.13	1.38	.17	.12	.15
Av.	.40	4.34	<.001	.18	.42	.09	.98	.33	.18	.12	.06	.68	.50	.18	.10
D.	-.27	-2.75	.01	.08	-.28	-.07	-.74	.46	.08	-.09	-.03	-.34	.73	.08	-.05

Appraisals Emotions and Coping Strategies

Mediation analyses were performed in order to test whether emotions mediated the effects of appraisals on coping strategies. The only analyses that were executed and are presented are those that have met the conditions for mediation based on foregoing analyses. That means that the only relationships tested were unfairness, anger and negotiation, unfairness, anger and advocacy, unfairness, anger and social coping, unfairness anger and denial and unfairness, fear and avoidance. The first relationship

tested was that between unfairness and negotiation with anger as a mediator. For the purpose of this analysis, participants' negotiation scores were regressed on unfairness. As expected, participants that perceived the incident as more unfair, also scored high on negotiation (β=.32, t= 3.45, p<.01). Next, participants' scores on anger were regressed on perceptions of unfairness. People that perceived the incident as more unfair scored higher on anger (β=.53, t=6.33, p<.001). In the final step, negotiation was regressed on anger and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between anger and negotiation was reduced to non significant when anger was in the equation (β=.11, t= 1.04, p>.30), therefore the criteria for mediation were not met.

As in previous studies, to see whether the effects of anger on negotiation are mediated by unfairness, another set of mediations was performed (z=2.23, p<.03) and it appears that the appraisal of unfairness fully explains the relationship between anger and negotiation (see Figure 17)

Figure 17: *Mediation of the relationship between anger and negotiation by unfairness*

*Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01*
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

The next relationship tested was that between unfairness and advocacy with anger as a mediator. Participants' advocacy scores were regressed on unfairness. As expected,

participants that perceived the incident as more unfair, also scored high on advocacy (β=.32, t= 3.39, p<.01). Next, participants' scores on anger were regressed on perceptions of unfairness. People that perceived the incident as more unfair scored higher on anger (β=.53, t=6.33, p<.001). In the final step, advocacy was regressed on anger and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between anger and advocacy remained significant (β=.25, t= 2.33, p<.05), albeit reduced, and the relationship between unfairness was reduced to non-significant (β=.18, t=1.70, p>.09). A Sobel test confirmed that anger fully explains the relationship between advocacy and unfairness (z=2.19, p<.03) (see Figure 18). The criteria for unfairness to mediate the relationship between anger and advocacy were not met.
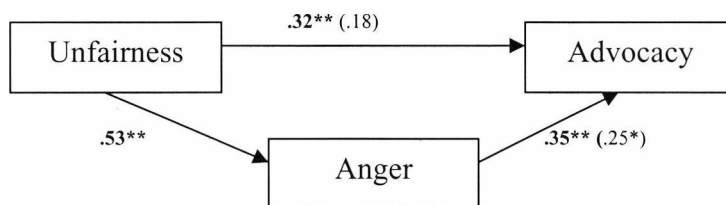
Figure 18: *Mediation of the relationship between unfairness and advocacy by anger*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

The third relationship tested was that between unfairness and social coping with anger as a mediator. Participants' social coping scores were regressed on unfairness. Participants that perceived the incident as more unfair, also scored high on social coping (β=.26, t= 2.74, p<.01). Next, participants' scores on anger were regressed on perceptions of unfairness. Similarly to the above analyses, people that perceived the incident as more

unfair scored higher on anger (β=.53, t=6.33, p<.001). In the final step, social coping was regressed on anger and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between anger and social coping remained significant but was reduced (β=.28, t= 2.56, p<.05), and the relationship between unfairness and social coping was reduced to non-significant (β=.11, t=1.03, p>.30). A Sobel test confirmed that anger explains the relationship between social coping and unfairness fully (z=2.37, p<.02) (see Figure 19). The criteria for unfairness as a mediator of the relationship between anger and social coping were not met.
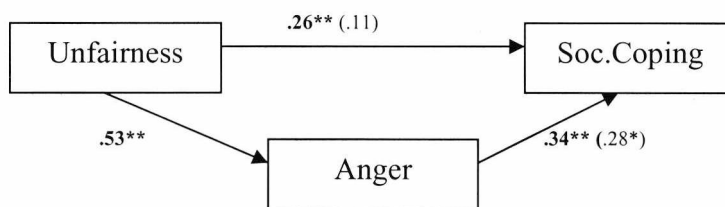
Figure 19: *Mediation of the relationship between unfairness and social coping by anger*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

The next relationship tested was between unfairness and denial, with anger as a mediator. Participants' denial scores were regressed on unfairness. As expected, participants that perceived the incident as more unfair, scored less highly on denial (β=-.28, t= -2.97, p<.01). Next, participants' scores on anger were regressed on perceptions of unfairness. Again, people that perceived the incident as more unfair scored higher on anger (β=.53, t=6.33, p<.001). In the final step, denial was regressed on anger and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between anger and

denial was non significant (β=-.19, t= -1.70, p>.05), as was the relationship between unfairness and denial (β=-.18, t=-1.64, p>.10). Therefore, anger did not mediate the relationship between unfairness and denial and no other mediations were computed.

The final relationship tested was between unfairness and avoidance, with fear as a mediator. Participants' avoidance scores were regressed on unfairness. Participants that perceived the incident as more unfair, scored highly on avoidance (β=.42, t= 4.66, p<.001). Next, participants' scores on fear were regressed on perceptions of unfairness. People that perceived the incident as more unfair scored higher on fear (β=.31, t=3.31, p<.01). In the final step, avoidance was regressed on fear and unfairness simultaneously. This analysis revealed that the relationship between fear and avoidance remained significant, but slightly reduced (β=.32, t= 3.62, p<.001), as was the relationship between unfairness and avoidance (β=.32, t=3.56, p<.001). A Sobel-test revealed that this reduction is significant (z=2.44, p<.01) (see Figure 20). Therefore, fear partially explains the relationship between unfairness and avoidance. To see whether the effects of fear on negotiation are mediated by unfairness, another set of mediations was performed (z=2.42, p<.01) and it appears that the appraisal of unfairness partially explains the relationship between fear and avoidance.
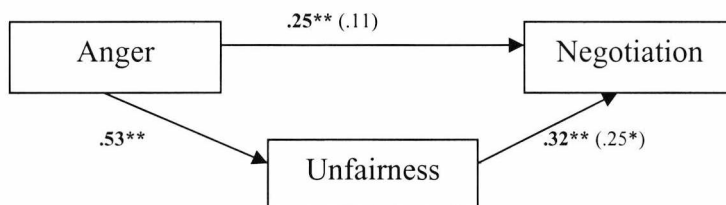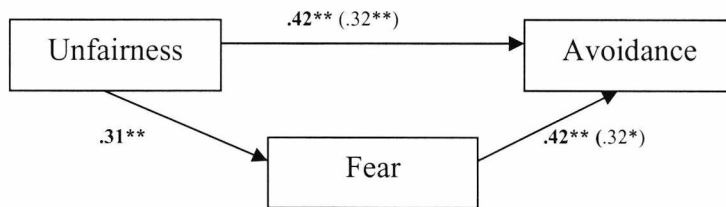
Figure 20: *Mediation of the relationship between unfairness and avoidance by fear*

Note: *=p<.05; **=p<.01
Figures are standardised regression coefficients. Figures in parentheses indicate beta values when the effect of the other predictor is accounted for.

DISCUSSION

The present survey provides an interesting pattern of results. A large proportion of the women that took part in the study reported having been harassed, a finding which corroborates present statistics of the prevalence of sexual harassment (European Commission, 1998; The Irish Presidency et al., 2004). The most frequent types of harassment experienced by the women in this survey were those that fall under the category of "hostile environment harassment" which includes unwanted sexual attention (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1980; Equal Opportunity Commission, 2007; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Lucero et al., 2003; Timmerman & Bajema, 1998); 62 percent reported having endured sexist and indecent remarks, 57 percent received demeaning comments about their looks and 50 percent suffered unsolicited questions about their personal/sex life. This finding is in accordance with previous statistical findings, where unwanted sexual attention is the most frequently encountered type of sexual harassment (USMSPB, 1995). Gender harassment was also quite high with 41

percent of women reporting having been bullied at work and 48 percent having had their dignity purposefully violated (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2005).

In reference to the more serious types of sexual harassment, the most frequently reported in this survey was unwanted physical contact from the perpetrator. 56 percent of the sample reported having suffered this type of behaviour, making it the most prevalent of the severe types. As expected, the incidence of very severe sexual harassment cases was lower, with quid-pro-quo harassment experienced by 19 percent of our sample and threats for sexual demands experienced by eight percent. Five percent of the sample actually suffered serious sexual assault, with one participant reporting having been raped by their boss. These findings mirror the statistical trends surrounding the more severe sexual harassment types (USMSPB, 1995).

While it is not always the case, as it has been noted in previous research (European Commission, 1998; Pryor, 1995; USMSPB, 1995), similarly in the present sample the majority of women were harassed by men (87%). Furthermore, the majority of women were harassed by perpetrators of higher status (62%). A combined percentage of 32.5 were harassed by equal status perpetrators and 5.7 were harassed by subordinates. This is an interesting finding that goes against the existing statistical trends and literature that has peer-to-peer sexual harassment as more prevalent (USMSPB, 1995). However, on closer inspection, this finding seems to also be in line with previous research (European Commission, 1998; Pryor, 1985; Stockdale et al., 1995; USMSPB, 1995) insofar as suggesting that sexually harassing acts perpetrated by people holding more organisational power than the victim, are more readily recognised as sexually harassing.

With respect to the more recent sexually harassing experiences, with men as perpetrators, upon which the main analyses of this study have focused on, the trends remained similar with unwanted physical contact, and indecent remarks being frequently reported by our sample. The incidence of gender harassment (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2005) also remained high with 14 percent reporting having been bullied at work and 12 percent having had their dignity violated at work. Although explicitly instructed to choose one event as the most recent, 15 percent of the women instead chose multiple responses.

Pertaining to the particular relationships of interest to this thesis, the results of this study indicated no significant effects of perpetrator status or organisational policies on emotions or coping strategies. Participants overall felt more anger than fear, regardless of status of perpetrator or presence/absence of organisational policies. This finding is consistent with the findings obtained in previous studies in this thesis. Anger appears to be the most prevalent emotion when sexually harassed, in both recall situations as well as experimental analogues (Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). The only effect obtained was that of perpetrator status on appraisals of power, with women that were harassed by superiors perceiving the perpetrator as having more power than them. Participants in both conditions also found the incident highly unfair, reported having had low organisational support at the time of the harassment. In terms of anger, these findings are in line with those of Fitness (2000): even low power people are likely to become angry over what they perceive as unjust treatment by people with superior organisational positions, and will appraise those events as highly unfair.

With regard to coping strategies, women overall reported avoidance strategies most frequently, and very low advocacy seeking. This finding is consistent with previous research that indicates avoidance of the perpetrator is the strategy often adopted by women harassed by superiors (Adams-Roy & Barling, 1998; Bingham & Scherer, 1993; Gruber & Bjorn, 1986; Knapp et al., 1997; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). When women are harassed, their least likely option for fear of retaliation or reprisals, is advocacy seeking. Many women also often perceive their situation as not meriting formal action, or have low expectations and confidence, in that nothing serious would be achieved from reporting it (USMSPB, 1995). Although no significant interactions were obtained in this study, the trends of the data show that when harassed by superiors, women were less likely to adopt advocacy and avoidance than when harassed by equal status perpetrators. Moreover, when policies were present women reported slightly more negotiation, whereas when policies were absent they reported more avoidance. These findings are plausible and in line with previous research (Adams-Roy & Barling, 1998) as well as theoretical predictions (Cortina & Wasti, 2005).

When harassed by superiors, negotiation is not a likely option chosen by victims (Bingham & Scherer, 1993); victims are more likely to negotiate with a perpetrator of lower organisational status (Cortina & Wasti, 2005). In this study, contrary to the findings obtained in previous studies in this thesis, negotiation was significantly lower. This finding is in line with the research by Woodzicka & LaFrance (2001) insofar as showing that in the experimental analogues (Studies 1-7) participants estimated their confrontation of the perpetrator as being higher than that of women that actually were

harassed. However, negotiation was still high, and it was higher than advocacy seeking, which indicates that women are still willing to confront the perpetrator.

Appraisals were related to emotions similarly to previous studies. Anger was uniquely related to unfairness and fear has a weak relationship with power. This finding has been overall consistent so far throughout this thesis. Reverse regressions showed that unfairness predicted anger (and fear, but less) and power predicted only fear. Two moderating effects of perpetrator status were found on the relationships between fear and advocacy and anger and negotiation. For women that were harassed by superiors, the more anger they felt the more negotiation they reported. Women that were harassed by someone of higher status, felt angrier and as a result, they were more likely to negotiate with the perpetrator. In contrast, only for women that were harassed by equals, the more fear they felt, the more advocacy seeking they reported. This finding was in general accordance with previous findings in this thesis (Studies 5, 6). Despite these interesting and plausible findings, anger still remains the strongest predictor for both advocacy and negotiation. When women felt more anger overall, the more likely they were to report negotiation as well as advocacy.

The regression analyses performed in this study have produced an overall pattern that is consistent with previous studies. Fear was not related to advocacy and negotiation, but is instead positively related to avoidance, and anger is positively related to negotiation and advocacy seeking, and not related to avoidance. Similar to previous studies (Studies 1-6), the negative relationship between anger and denial was replicated in this study. These findings partially support our expectations and corroborate previous

literature on appraisals, emotions and behavioural tendencies (Frijda et al., 1989; Kuppens et al., 2003; Roseman et al., 1990; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985).

In terms of the mediating role of emotions in the relationship between appraisals and coping, anger was found to mediate appraisals (unfairness only) and the coping strategies of negotiation, advocacy and social coping. Fear mediated the relationship between unfairness and avoidance. Social coping has only been associated with the emotion of anger previously in Study 7. Again, theoretically, this relationship is not expected, and it is possible that due to the high number of participants, many relationships that were previously not significant now emerge as strong. In terms of the mediating role of appraisals, this study indicated a mediating role of unfairness in the relationship between anger and negotiation, anger and advocacy and anger and social coping and fear and avoidance. This finding is in line with the findings of Studies 5, 6, and 7. This pattern of mediations for the present study as well as throughout the thesis clearly and consistently shows that a feedback system of appraisals emotions and behavioural tendencies is more plausible in the context of sexual harassment rather than a linear causal relationship between them (Baumeister et al., 2007). Similar to previous studies (Studies 5, 6 and 7) emotions and appraisals remain distinct but related predictors of coping strategies.

CHAPTER 9

Summary, Conclusions and Suggestions for Future Research

In this chapter, the findings from the current research programme are summarised and future research directions are suggested. First, the background and aims of the thesis are reviewed. A summary of the results obtained in the studies of this thesis is presented. This is followed by a detailed discussion of the theoretical and practical implications of the findings described in this thesis. In this respect, the roles of emotions and coping strategies in the sexual harassment experience are discussed. The role of appraisals in influencing these emotions and consequent coping strategies is also discussed. Finally, the limitations of this series of studies are discussed and suggestions for future research are offered.

BACKGROUND AND AIMS OF THESIS

Sexual harassment in modern day societies is one of the most debated of social problems (Thomas & Kitzinger, 1997). Its pervasiveness and negative consequences to the lives of women have led several researchers to examine and define the nature of, as well as measure, the phenomenon (i.e. Equal Employment Opportunities Commission, 1980; Fitzgerald, 1996; 1993; Gutek, 1985; McKinnon, 1979; Pryor, 1987; Stockdale, 1996). There has been significant research conducted over the past 35 years on sexual harassment, focusing on typologies and definitions (i.e. Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Gruber et al., 1996), the prevalence (i.e. European Commission, 1998; USMSPB, 1980; 1981; 1995), as well as perceptions of what constitutes

harassment for people (Stockdale et al., 1995). Particular focus in recent research has been given to the antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment (i.e. organisational climate, power, stress, job dissatisfaction, quality of life).

There has also been a recent focus on how women respond to sexual harassment (see Adams-Roy & Barling, 1998; Barling et al., 1996; Bingham & Scherer, 1993). Links have been proposed between stress and coping (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) and sexual harassment (see Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Knapp et al., 1997; Wasti & Cortina). This literature suggests the presence of five basic coping strategies as responses to sexual harassment: advocacy seeking, social support seeking, negotiation with the perpetrator, avoidance and denial (Wasti & Cortina, 2002).

Nevertheless, the majority of research conducted on sexual harassment thus far has been predominantly informed by and focused on perpetrator characteristics, antecedents and consequences. The research by Wasti and Cortina (2002), although focused on the coping mechanisms of harassed women, largely ignored the role of appraisals in the sexual harassment experience. Negative affect, albeit having been documented in many studies of sexual harassment (i.e. Dougherty, 1999; European Commission, 1998; Kidder et al., 1995; Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001) has never been examined specifically in relation to appraisals of sexually harassing incidents and behavioural responses stemming from them.

The relationship between emotions and behaviour has been extensively documented and examined in the literature of emotions. Emotions can influence behaviour either directly (Booth & Pennebaker, 2000; Frijda, 1986) or through a system of evaluation and cognitive processing (feedback system, i.e. Baumeister et al., 2007).

The central theme, and predominant concern for this thesis was to examine the combined role of different appraisals of sexual harassment, the emotional experiences emerging from the experience and the consequent coping strategies that are adopted by the victims as a behavioural response.

SUMMARY OF METHODS

A review of the existing literature on sexual harassment (see Chapter 1) suggests that a variety of behaviours can be regarded as sexually harassing, from offensive verbal comments escalating up to actual sexual attack. In order to capture and measure as many of those behaviours as possible, in the current theoretical framework of appraisals, emotions and actions, a variety of methodologies have been employed in this thesis. The current research programme consisted of 8 empirical studies and has largely utilised scenario-based methods (Studies 1-7) but also included a recall-based survey of actual sexual harassment experiences (Study 8). Bearing in mind the many ethical concerns surrounding the negative effects of sexual harassment on its victims, as well as the fact that this thesis was concerned with examining the effects of different types of harassment on the victims' emotions and coping strategies, the aforementioned methodologies were chosen as appropriate approaches in this thesis.

Study 1 employed a scenario describing sexual harassment via sending electronic mail to an unwilling recipient. This first study was describing sexual harassment as happening to someone else. This study also measured participants' ratings of whether this constituted sexual harassment, their reported levels of anger and fear, and reported their action tendencies as a response to reading the scenario. Studies 2 and 3 employed the same scenario as in Study 1, but this time explicitly instructing participants to imagine

themselves in the situation described. Participants' anger and fear ratings as well as their reported coping strategies were measured in these studies. In Study 3, power manipulations were also included by instructing participants to recall a time when they had power over someone else or a time when someone else had power over them (powerful vs. powerless). In all the above studies the perpetrator was a fellow student.

In Study 4, the scenario described sexual harassment of a more severe type, including attempts at physical contact. This time the perpetrator described in the scenario was a supervisor. Again, anger and fear as well as coping strategies and whether the participants would classify the behaviour as sexual harassment were measured. In Study 5, participants were either presented with a scenario describing sexual harassment via the sending of e-mails containing sexist jokes and pornographic content (as described in all previous studies) perpetrated by a fellow student, or the same harassing behaviour perpetrated by a superior (supervisor). This time appraisals of the situation were also measured: perceived unfairness of the situation as well as perceived power in relation to the perpetrator. Emotions, coping strategies and classification of the incident were measured as standard.

Study 6 employed the same methodology as Study 5, whereby participants were asked to imagine themselves in a situation where they were harassed by either a fellow student or a supervisor, but this time the scenario described a more severe type of sexual harassment including quid-pro-quo behaviour and attempted physical contact (as in Study 4). Appraisals, emotions and coping strategies, as well as classification of incident were also measured.

Study 7 employed a scenario whereby participants had to imagine themselves being harassed by a superior in their place of work. Similar to Studies 4 and 6, the behaviour described in the scenario was unwanted physical contact. Participants received one of two questionnaires, either describing organisational support from their place of work or no organisational support. Two more manipulation checks were added to this study: perceived control of the situation and the status of the perpetrator. Again, appraisals, emotions, coping strategies and classification of incident were measured as standard.

Finally, Study 8 was a recall-based survey of working women in the United Kingdom with prior experiences of sexual harassment in the workplace. In this survey, females were asked to describe the type(s) of sexual harassment that they have encountered whilst in the workplace. These questions were formulated using the Equal Opportunities Commission definition (2005) of gender and sexual harassment. They were also asked about the status of the perpetrator, their relative power against the perpetrator, the seriousness of the incident, the organisational support they perceived and received, the relevant policies existing in their workplace at the time of the harassment and perceived unfairness of the incident. Again, emotional experiences and coping strategies were included in this survey.

Studies 1-6 tested sexual harassment in academic settings using student population. Studies 7 and 8 focused on sexual harassment in the workplace and tested random samples of the working populations of the United Kingdom. Studies 1 and 2 were collected in a controlled environment (laboratory) and Studies 5 and 6 were collected in various sitting places on campus at the University of Kent. Both sets of studies used

paper and pencil versions of the questionnaires. Studies 3, 4, 7, and 8 were collected on-line using the University of Kent, Department of Psychology's QMS questionnaire system. Only fully completed questionnaires were included in the data analyses throughout this thesis. Any incomplete questionnaires were discarded (see Studies 3 and 4). No significant outliers were detected for any of the studies throughout this thesis. Specifically in Study 8 (see section Data Preparation, p. 225), some of the data were collapsed due to lack of participants in certain categories.

As outlined above, this thesis applied a variety of different methodologies in order to test for various types of sexual harassment both in the workplace as well as in the academia. As argued previously, a conscious effort was made to test for as many typologies of sexual harassment, perpetrators and contexts as possible, using acceptable ethical methods in order to test for their effects on women's emotions and coping strategies as a response to sexual harassment.

SUMMARY OF RESULTS

Perceiving Harassment

Participants' recognition of the scenarios as sexually harassing varied depending on the type of harassment described in each scenario. In Study 1, participants rated the scenario as sexual harassment but the overall score was not that different from the scale midpoint. In Study 2, participants overall rating of the scenario was not significantly different from the midpoint and they did not highly classify the scenario as sexually harassing. In both these studies the scores were close to the median (test) value;

indicating that participants were unsure of how to classify the scenarios. This confirmed that subtle behaviours were not easily classified as describing sexual harassment

Similarly, in Study 3, participants' overall rating of the scenario was not significantly different from the mean. However, condition had an effect on perceptions of harassment, with participants belonging to the powerless condition more willing to label the behaviour as sexually harassing than participants in the powerful condition. In Studies 4, 5, 6 and 7 the women tested recognised the behaviours described in the scenarios as sexually harassing. Study 7 obtained the highest ratings of sexual harassment in this thesis. The conditions had no effect on participants' perceptions of sexual harassment in either Study 4 (powerful vs. powerless) or in Study 7 (support vs. no support). In Studies 5 and 6 condition had an effect on participants' perceptions of sexual harassment with women belonging to the condition where the harasser was a superior being more willing to label the scenario as sexually harassing than those belonging to the male student condition. Study 8 only considered women that were willing to explicitly classify their experience as sexual harassment. These findings show that severity of incident as well as status of perpetrator generally affects women's perceptions of sexual harassment

Effects of Conditions on Emotions

The first two studies (Studies 1, 2) of the thesis were of an exploratory nature and generally indicated that women were reporting more anger than fear as a response to reading the scenarios of sexual harassment. The results of Study 3 indicated that participants generally reported feeling more anger than fear as a response to the scenario. Furthermore, power had an effect on emotions and in particular on fear: participants that

were primed in the powerless condition reported more fear than those primed with power. Study 4, findings again suggest that anger was overall reported more than fear by participants; however, power had no effect on emotions in this study.

Similarly in Studies 5, 6 and 7 anger was reported more frequently as a response to the scenarios than fear was. The condition (supervisor vs. male student) had an effect on emotions in Study 5, whereby participants in the supervisor condition reported feeling more anger and more fear than the participants in the male student condition. No other effects of condition were found in Study 6 (supervisor vs. male student) or Study 7 (support vs. no support).

In Study 8, the effects of perpetrator status and presence of organisational policies on women's emotions towards real experiences of harassment were examined. The findings indicated no significant effect of either of these factors on emotions. Similar to our findings from the experimental research, the women that responded in the survey reported experiencing more anger than fear overall. Women felt more anger than fear regardless of whether they were harassed by superiors or equals, and regardless of whether there were specific organisational policies in their workplaces or not.

Effects of Conditions on Appraisals

Studies 1-4 were not measuring appraisals therefore the studies to be discussed in this section are Studies 5-8. The results of Studies 5, 6 and 7 suggest that women perceived the behaviours described in the scenarios as highly unfair and also perceived themselves as having less power than the perpetrator. In Studies 5 and 6, the type of perpetrator had an effect on appraisals; the sexual harassment perpetrated by superiors

was perceived as more unfair and the participants perceived having less power than in the sexual harassment perpetrated by male students. In Study 7, the presence of organisational support, or lack thereof, had no effect on participants' appraisals of unfairness, perceived control and perceived power. Participants rated the incident as highly unfair and rated themselves as having less power and less control of the situation than the perpetrator.

In Study 8, organisational policies (presence or absence) had no effect on women's appraisals of the harassment they endured. Regardless of whether their organisations had clear harassment policies, they perceived the incident as highly unfair and that they were receiving little support from their organisations at the time of harassment. They also perceived the perpetrators as having more power than them. With respect to perpetrator status, this only had an effect on perceptions of power, with women that had been harassed by perpetrators of higher status (superiors) reporting that the perpetrators had more power than those that had been harassed by equal-status perpetrators.

Effects of Conditions on Coping

As aforementioned Studies 1 and 2 were exploratory therefore only main effects of behavioural tendencies were measured. In Study 1, behavioural inclinations were measured using action tendencies whereas in all other studies behavioural tendencies were measured using coping strategies. In Study 1, participants generally indicated more offensive action tendencies and more reporting tendencies than avoidance. In Study 2, participants reported more negotiation with the perpetrator than any other coping strategy

and advocacy seeking was the least favoured strategy. Participants also indicated more social coping than avoidance or denial.

Participants in Study 3 indicated that their favoured coping strategy again was negotiating with the perpetrator which was more frequently reported than social coping, avoidance, denial and advocacy. Advocacy was again the least favoured coping strategy by participants. Whether the participants were primed with feelings of power or powerlessness prior to the experiment had no effect on their chosen coping strategies. Similarly, in Study 4, condition (powerful vs. powerless) had no effect on participants' coping strategies. Social coping was the favoured strategy of the participants which was more frequently indicated than negotiation, avoidance, advocacy or denial. Denial was the least reported strategy by the participants of Study 4. However, the status of perpetrator was also higher in this study therefore providing a plausible explanation for the difference in the favoured coping strategy.

In Study 5, participants were more likely to report negotiation with the perpetrator, than social coping, avoidance, advocacy or denial. Again, denial in this study was the least favoured strategy of participants. Type of perpetrator (supervisor vs. male student) had an effect on participants coping strategies: Participants that had to imagine being harassed by supervisors, reported more advocacy seeking, more social coping, less negotiation and less denial coping strategies than participants that had to imagine being harassed by a male student. In Study 6, participants reported overall more negotiation and social coping (they did not differ) than avoidance, advocacy or denial. Similarly to Study 5, type of perpetrator had an effect on participants' coping strategies: participants in the

supervisor condition reported more advocacy seeking and marginally less negotiation than the participants in the male student condition.

In Study 7, results indicated that the participants' least favoured coping strategy was denial and the favoured option was social coping which was more frequently reported than advocacy, negotiation, avoidance or denial. The condition (support vs. no support) had an effect on participants' coping strategies: when participants had the necessary organisational support, they reported more advocacy seeking, more negotiation and less avoidance than participants in the no support condition.

In Study 8, the findings showed that for women that reported real-life sexual harassment experiences, the most frequent response was avoidance of the perpetrator. This finding has not been obtained in any of the previous studies using experimental analogues, although when the status of perpetrator and severity of incident was higher, then social coping (another non-approach strategy) was also more likely to be reported. The least favoured strategy adopted by women that were harassed was advocacy seeking. Status of perpetrator and organisational policies had no effect on women's responses in Study 8.

Relationship between Appraisals and Emotions

As mentioned in the previous section the only studies that included appraisal measurements were Studies 5-8, the findings of which will be summarised in this section. The results of Study 5 indicated that the type of perpetrator had no effect on the relationship between appraisals and emotions. However, the results did indicate that different appraisals are linked to distinct emotions. Regardless whether the perpetrator

was a superior or a student, appraisals of unfairness uniquely predicted anger whereas perceived lack of power predicted fear. The reverse effect was also obtained where appraisals of unfairness were uniquely predicted by anger and appraisals of lack of power were uniquely predicted by fear.

Similarly, in Study 6, the relationship between appraisals and emotions did not differ depending on type of perpetrator. Correspondingly, unfairness uniquely predicted anger in this study and anger uniquely predicted unfairness. Interestingly, neither unfairness nor lack of power, were predictors of fear, and fear was not a predictor of either appraisal. In Study 7, again the relationship between appraisals and emotions was not affected by organisational support. Perceived control was also measured as an appraisal in this study. Unfairness uniquely predicted anger whereas perceived control and perceived power both predicted fear. Similarly to Study 5, anger uniquely predicted unfairness whereas fear was the only emotion to predict both perceived control and perceived power. Similarly for Study 8, the relationship between appraisals and emotions was not affected overall by either the status of perpetrator, or the presence/absence of organisational policies. Organisational support was also measured as an appraisal in Study 8. Unfairness predicted both anger and fear whereas power uniquely predicted fear. Whether there was organisational support present or not had no effect on emotions. The participants still experienced more anger than fear. Similarly to the above findings, anger uniquely predicted unfairness, whereas power was uniquely predicted by fear (marginally).

In Studies 5 and 6 further mediation analyses indicated that the appraisal of unfairness significantly reduced the effect of type of perpetrator on anger, thus, signifying

that unfairness may explain the relationship between type of perpetrator and anger. When women are harassed by a supervisor or a student, they experience anger as a result, but the extent and strength of that anger may depend on how unfair they perceive the behaviour to be. Similarly, but only in Study 5, the appraisal of perceived power reduced the effect of the type of perpetrator on fear, therefore indicating that the relationship between condition and fear is partially explained by the appraisal of perceived power. In Studies 7 and 8 no mediation analyses could be performed on the data as the conditions had no effect on emotions.

Relationship between Emotions and Coping

As stated above, in the exploratory Study 1, action tendencies instead of coping strategies were measured. The findings indicate that anger, and not fear, was a significant predictor of both offensive and reporting action tendencies. Neither fear nor anger was a significant predictor of avoidance tendencies. In Study 2, the findings indicate that fear uniquely predicted avoidance coping strategies. No other significant relationships were obtained in this study.

Study 3 findings indicate that both anger and fear significantly predicted advocacy seeking and negotiation. The more anger and the less fear participants felt, the more likely they were to negotiate and/or seek advocacy. Furthermore, the more anger participants experienced, the less denial they would report. No other relationship was significant. In Study 4 as expected, advocacy and negotiation were uniquely predicted by anger, whereas avoidance coping strategies were uniquely predicted by fear.

In Study 5, both emotions positively predicted advocacy seeking coping strategies. However, as expected, anger was the unique predictor of negotiation, whereas fear was the unique predictor of avoidance coping strategies. Only when feeling anger would participants be more likely to engage in negotiation with the perpetrator. Social coping was predicted by fear only in this study. Interestingly, in Study 6, negotiation was uniquely predicted by fear (negatively) indicating that the more fear participants reported the less negotiation they would engage in, which is an expected result. However, anger did not predict negotiation in this study. It did however, uniquely predict advocacy seeking. No other relationship was significant.

The results of Study 7 generally confirmed the theoretical predictions and the findings of Study 6. These results indicated that anger was the only predictor of advocacy, negotiation and social coping whereas fear was the only predictor of avoidance and denial coping strategies. In Study 7, organisational support had an impact on emotions and coping: to be precise, only two significant interactions were obtained between emotions and organisational support, in negotiation and social coping. These results indicate that only in the support condition was there a significant relationship between fear and negotiation. The more fear participants reported the more negotiation they reported. Nevertheless, anger still remained the most significant predictor of negotiation. Correspondingly, only in the support condition was there a significant relationship between fear and social coping as well. The more fear participants reported the more social coping they reported. This shows that our manipulation worked. Interestingly, anger remained the strongest predictor of social coping.

The results of Study 8 also corroborate theoretical predictions and the general findings in this thesis and indicated anger as the only predictor of advocacy, negotiation and denial (negatively). Fear was the unique predictor of avoidance. Social coping was predicted by both anger and fear in this study. Participants would choose to seek social coping regardless of whether the emotion they experienced was fear or anger. In Study 8, only perpetrator status (not organisational policies) had an impact on emotions and coping: to be precise, only two significant interactions were obtained between emotions and perpetrator status, for negotiation and advocacy. These results indicate that only in the condition of harassment by a superior was there a significant relationship between anger and negotiation. The more anger participants reported the more negotiation they reported. In contrast, only in the equal-status condition was there a significant relationship between fear and advocacy seeking as well. The more fear participants reported the more advocacy seeking they reported. Similarly to Study 7, anger remained the strongest predictor of social coping.

Relationship between Appraisals and Coping

The studies in Chapters 6-8 were the only ones that addressed appraisals and therefore the only ones to be discussed below. In Chapter 6, the two studies (Studies 5 and 6) addressed the appraisals of unfairness and perceived power and the results generally showed that the more unfair participants perceived the harassment to be, the more likely they were to seek advocacy, to negotiate with the harasser and the less likely to deny the incident in both studies. However, in Study 5, only social coping was predicted by perceived power and avoidance was not predicted by perceived power.

Social coping was also predicted by unfairness in Study 5. In Study 6, advocacy was also predicted by perceived power, but avoidance was now uniquely predicted by perceived power.

Study 7 generated mixed results: Advocacy was predicted by all three appraisals (unfairness, control and power) although marginally in the case of perceived power. Social coping was uniquely predicted by unfairness whereas negotiation was predicted by both unfairness and perceived control of the situation. Avoidance, contrary to Study 6 was now predicted by unfairness and not perceived power or perceived control. Denial was uniquely negatively predicted by perceived control.

In Study 8, unfairness manifested as the strongest overall predictor of coping strategies for real-life experiences of sexual harassment. Advocacy was predicted by both organisational support and unfairness. Social coping was predicted by all three appraisals (unfairness, support, power). Negotiation was uniquely predicted by unfairness. This indicated that participants need only appraise the situation as unfair for them to be more likely to confront the perpetrator. Interestingly, avoidance was also uniquely predicted by unfairness. Furthermore, as expected, the more unfair women perceived the harassment to be, the less likely they were to choose denial as a coping strategy. There was an effect of perpetrator status on social coping. Results indicated that when harassed by a superior, the more power they perceive the perpetrator to have, the more women were likely to engage in social coping.

Relationship between Appraisals, Emotions and Coping

In Chapter 6, mediation analyses were performed in order to investigate the relationship between appraisals emotions and coping strategies. Because no specific directional relationship was expected in this study with regards to the aforementioned relationship, mediation analyses were performed to test the contributions of both appraisals and emotions in coping strategies. In Study 5, the data indicated that the appraisal of unfairness significantly reduced the effect of anger on negotiation coping strategies, as well as reducing the effect of anger on advocacy seeking. This indicated that the appraisal of unfairness could potentially explain the relationship between anger and negotiation. Anger was also found to partially explain the relationship between the appraisal of unfairness and advocacy seeking. In addition, Study 5 findings indicated that fear significantly reduced the effects of the appraisal of power on social coping.

Similarly to Study 5, in Study 6, appraisals of unfairness partially explained the relationship between anger and advocacy seeking, but also anger partially explained the relationship between unfairness and advocacy seeking. Again, Study 7 provided the most significant relationships between appraisals, emotions and coping strategies. Anger partially explained the relationship between the appraisal of unfairness and the strategies of negotiation, advocacy seeking and social coping. Similarly to the results obtained in previous studies, appraisals of unfairness also partially explained the relationships between anger and the coping strategies of negotiation, advocacy and social coping.

In accordance with Study 7, in Study 8 anger fully explained the relationship between the appraisal of unfairness and advocacy seeking. Anger also fully explained the relationship between unfairness and social coping. Fear partially explained the

relationship between unfairness and avoidance. Appraisals of unfairness also fully explained the relationship between anger and negotiation, as well as the relationship between fear and avoidance. These findings show that a combination of the specific appraisals and their related emotions could explain women's particular choices of coping strategies.

THEORETICAL IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

The findings obtained in this thesis have important theoretical implications for the study of sexual harassment in particular, as well as particular theoretical implications for the study of emotions in the context of sexual harassment. These implications will be outlined below. First the role of appraisals in the sexual harassment experience will be considered. The role of emotions in sexual harassment will then be discussed. The role of coping in sexual harassment will be reviewed next. Finally, the combined role of appraisals and emotions on coping will be examined.

Perceptions of Sexual Harassment

The combined results of this thesis support the existing literature on perceptions of sexual harassment. The first three studies described sexual harassment whereby a perpetrator was sending pornographic content and sexist jokes via electronic mail. Although this has been recognised by previous research as a form of sexual harassment (Dall'Ara & Maass, 2000; Maass et al., 2003), it remains one of the subtler forms of the behaviour. Subtler forms of sexual harassment, although more prevalent in frequency (European Commission, 1998; USMSPB, 1995), are not as easily labelled as sexual harassment by people (Stockdale et al., 1995). As Stockdale et al. (1995) posit: the

severity of the harassment will determine whether lay observers as well as victims will classify the behaviour as sexual harassment. Indeed, the findings of this thesis corroborate the previous positions in showing that in the first three studies participants did not strongly recognise the behaviours as sexually harassing. In contrast, when the harassing scenarios were more severe (Studies 5, 6, and 7) participants were significantly more willing to classify those scenarios as describing sexual harassment (i.e. Baker et al., 1990; Hunter & McClelland, 1991; Terpstra & Baker, 1989).

The organisational-power model proposed by Stockdale et al. (1995) examines different power sources within the organisation and predicts that behaviours are more likely to be labelled as sexual harassment if the perpetrator's status is higher than that of the victim. The findings of this thesis are in support of the organisational power model; in Study 3 the harassment was perpetrated by a peer and was not clearly labelled as sexual harassment, in contrast, in Study 4 where the perpetrator was a superior, the behaviour was clearly labelled by participants as sexual harassment. The same findings were replicated in Studies 5 and 6. In both studies participants would recognise the behaviour as sexual harassment more in the conditions where the harasser was a superior as opposed to where the harasser was of equal status.

Appraisals and Emotions in Sexual Harassment

Although the presence of negative emotions has been measured and identified in sexual harassment, the particular role of emotions in women's responses to the phenomenon has been largely neglected in previous literature, with the exception of one study (Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). This thesis attempted to examine the role of

negative emotions in sexual harassment, as well as what appraisals of sexual harassment lead to which particular emotion. The combined results confirmed that negative emotions are indeed present in the experience of sexual harassment. In particular, the novel finding in this thesis is that the most prevalent emotion experienced when sexual harassment occurs is anger, which has never been explicitly measured or linked with sexual harassment before (for a review, see Chapter 1). We obtained this finding for both the experimental and survey research. Fear, although clearly linked with harassment in the past literature (i.e. Dougherty, 1999) was also experienced, but to a lesser extent. The affective model of sexual harassment proposed by Stockdale et al. (1995) proposes that the negative affect experienced as a result of the harassment could be more important than the type of behaviour experienced. This proposal potentially explains the prevalence of anger as an emotion, regardless of what the status of perpetrator is.

In the literature of emotions, anger and fear are linked with particular and distinct appraisals (Frijda et al., 1989; Kuppens et al., 2003; Roseman et al., 1990). Anger has been linked with appraisals of illegitimacy/unfairness, efficacy and power (Fitness, 2000; Kuppens et al., 2003), whereas fear has been linked with lack of power, sudden and threatening events (Kemper, 2001; Mondillon et al., 2005; Scherer, 1997; Tiedens et al., 2000) and particularly in sexual harassment, fear has been linked with threat to physical harm and marginalisation (Dougherty, 1999).

The collective results of this thesis also support the proposal that appraisals provide a mechanism through which women's experiences of sexual harassment are perceived and assessed (i.e. Ellsworth & Smith, 1988; Frijda et al., 1989; Smith & Ellsworth, 1985). Two main appraisals were tested consistently in Studies 5-8: the

appraisal of unfairness and the appraisal of power. Two more appraisals were also added: control of the situation (Study 7) and organisational support (Study 8).

Sexually harassing behaviours are inherently unfair. The definition of sexual harassment (Equal Opportunities Commission, 2005) states it as "unwanted, unreasonable and offensive" behaviour. Indeed, the overall findings obtained in the above studies show consistently that women, in both the experimental analogues as well as the actual experiences (recall-based survey) rate their experiences as highly unfair.

As previously seen in this thesis (see Chapters 1 and 5) the issue of power is central in sexual harassment and can be defined by perceptions and beliefs concerning the harassers' own and other's power as well as the organisational power of the victim (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993). Power has been shown to be related to the context of the harassment; the status of the perpetrator, the relationship between the victim and the perpetrator and also the social support and the permissiveness of the environment (Cleveland & Kerst, 1993; Schulman & Watts, 1990).

The combined findings of this thesis confirm that in the sexual harassment context, unfairness is the necessary component for anger to occur, whereas lack of power is the necessary component for fear to occur (see Studies 5-8). When women perceive the incident as highly unfair, then the emotion experienced is anger. Because sexual harassment is inherently unfair as a phenomenon, anger is consistently felt stronger than fear. The experience of fear was found to vary depending on the perpetrator's status and the severity of the harassing incident. Furthermore, the findings of Study 7 showed that when women perceived that they have no control over the harassing situation the emotion they consequently experienced was fear.

A dominant idea in the literature of appraisals and emotions is that perceived power is a necessary component for anger to occur (Averill, 1982; Izard, 1977; Roseman, 1984). It is widely believed that, in cases of wrongdoing, when people appraise themselves as having power, then the likely emotion will be anger, whereas when they appraise themselves as lacking power, the likely emotion will be fear (Mackie et al., 2000). The studies of this thesis clearly show that perceived power is not a necessary component for anger to occur; unfairness has been the most constant predictor of anger throughout this thesis. This indicates that women need only appraise the unfairness and illegitimacy of the incident in order to feel anger regardless of power (c.f. Williams et al., 1995). Understandably, lack of power is a predictor of fear fairly constantly in this thesis.

Coping and Sexual Harassment

Coping and sexual harassment have only recently been studied together in sexual harassment research (Bingham & Scherer, 1993; Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Knapp et al., 1997; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). This research proposes that there are particular coping mechanisms that are linked with sexual harassment; advocacy seeking, negotiation with perpetrator, social coping, avoidance and denial (Wasti & Cortina, 2002).

The literature surrounding victim responses to sexual harassment suggests that formal and informal complaints are not usually chosen by harassed women (Bingham & Scherer, 1993; USMSPB, 1995). The preferred response is to seek social support from a close network of friends, and to a lesser extent confrontation of the harasser, although the latter depends on the harassers' status; the higher the status, the less likely women will resort to confrontation (Bingham & Scherer, 1993). Indeed, the overall findings of this

thesis confirm that formal reporting (i.e. advocacy seeking) is the strategy least likely to be chosen by harassed women, and negotiation (and social coping in Studies 6 and 7) are the strategies most preferred.

Past literature suggests that the coping mechanisms that women adopt in order to deal with harassing incidents depend on many factors like frequency of incident, the severity of the harassment and the status of perpetrator (Cortina & Wasti, 2005). In this thesis, type of harassment and status of perpetrator were manipulated and the findings confirm that the coping mechanisms of women change accordingly. In particular, negotiating with the perpetrator is always chosen by the women in this thesis but the frequency fluctuates depending on harassment type and status of perpetrator. In Studies 2, 3 and 5 negotiation was the most chosen coping strategy, when the perpetrator was of equal status to the victim. When the perpetrator status was superior, then social coping was more likely to be chosen by victims. In the real-life experience of sexual harassment that was measured in this research programme (Study 8), avoidance was found to be the most prevalent coping strategy. However, several types of sexual harassment ranging on severity, were reported having been experienced by the victims. Meaningful analyses could not be performed on 'type of harassment' in this study, which could have potentially explained why the coping strategy found in this study was so different to the other findings of this thesis.

It is possible that women that are presented with scenario-based sexual harassment overestimate the extent to which they would confront the perpetrator (i.e. Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). Indeed the findings of this thesis show that negotiation was a dominant coping strategy for the scenario-based studies. The findings of the study

examining real harassment experiences indicate that avoidance was the dominant coping strategy. Nevertheless, negotiation with the perpetrator remained high even in the real-life harassment situation. This finding highlights women's consistent efforts to make known to the perpetrator(s) that the behaviour is unwanted.

Furthermore, even though avoidance was higher in Study 8 than any other study the relationships between appraisals and emotions and also between appraisals and coping strategies remained unaffected. If one considers the low ratings of organisational support, this indicates that when women appraise themselves as lacking the necessary means to react, then the likely behavioural response would be avoidance.

The novel proposal of this thesis was the examination of a potential relationship between emotions and particular coping strategies in the sexual harassment context. Research on emotions and behaviour suggests that emotions are easily distinguished by the action tendencies related to them (Roseman et al., 2004). Anger has been consistently linked with approach tendencies, whereas fear has been linked with avoidance tendencies (Frijda, 1986; Mackie et al., 2000; Roseman et al., 1994). Using coping strategies as behavioural components in the harassment process, this thesis proposed that there would be particular links between anger and the approach related coping strategies (i.e. negotiation, advocacy seeking) and fear with the avoidance related coping strategies (social coping, avoidance). As expected, the overall findings of the thesis confirmed the expected relationships between emotions and coping strategies. Anger was consistently found to be related to negotiation coping strategies whereas fear was consistently found to be related to avoidance. What this shows is that when women feel anger towards the

harassing incident, they are more likely to try and negotiate with the perpetrator. In contrast, when they feel fear, they are more likely to avoid confrontation.

This thesis also established a strong link between the appraisal of unfairness and particular coping strategies. The results indicated that unfairness was always related to negotiation. The women in this study indicated that the more unfair they perceived the harassment to be; the more likely they were to negotiate with the perpetrator. This finding was obtained in both the experimental studies and the survey study. Unfairness also predicted advocacy and denial fairly consistently. The link between appraisals of powerlessness and inaction/avoidance has been established in previous literature (Galinsky et al., 2003; Keltner et al., 2003). In this thesis, this link was found in Study 6, where lack of power predicted avoidance coping strategies, and in Studies 5 and 8, powerlessness also predicted social coping which was conceptualised as a non-confrontational coping strategy.

Appraisals, Emotions and Coping

In the literature of emotions the combined impact of appraisals and emotions on behaviour has been thoroughly documented (Lerner & Keltner, 2001; van Zomeren et al., 2004; Yzerbyt et al., 2003). Appraisals of power and unfairness have been particularly important in distinguishing between negative emotions as well as behaviour (Galinsky et al., 2003; Fitness, 2000; Keltner et al., 2003).

There are two main positions with regard to the role of appraisals and emotions on behaviour; one is a direct causal link from appraisals, to emotions, to action (c.f. Booth & Pennebaker, 2000; Frijda, 1986; Solomon, 2000; van Zomeren et al., 2004) and the other

is a feedback system of emotions and appraisals on behaviour (c.f. Baumeister et al., 2007). The combined findings of this thesis confirm that in the specific context of sexual harassment there is the presence of a feedback system of appraisals and emotions on the coping strategies.

A review of the sexual harassment literature clearly indicates that responses to sexual harassment are personal, varied and complex and that there are many factors that affect those responses (Barling et al., 1996; Bingham & Scherer, 1993; Gartner & Macmillan, 1995). In sexual harassment the presence of negative emotions is evident but women's consequent decisions on how to act may appear in conflict with specific expectancies related to those emotions. The feedback system of emotions is a fitting explanation of these discrepancies, if one considers the complexity of the harassing experience as a whole (power differentials, job-related reprisals, alienation etc.).

The anger experienced and expressed by the women who participated in these studies is a conscious emotion that is derived by the cognitive processing of the situational factors present and the appraisals of the harassment behaviour as a whole. According to the feedback approach (Baumeister et al., 2007) it is the conscious emotion that influences the processes behind decision making and consequent behaviour, which through the feedback system, is constantly informed by appraisals of the situation experienced.

Indeed the findings of this thesis confirm both a distinct and a combined impact of appraisals and emotions on the coping strategies reported by women. Both the appraisals of unfairness as well as the emotion of anger affected participants' coping strategies of negotiation and advocacy. Appraisals of power and the emotion of fear impacted on the

strategies of social coping. What this suggests about sexual harassment in particular is that although women experience strong emotions as a result of the behaviour, their appraisals of the situational components as well as their appraisals of the behaviour in particular will determine the type of coping strategy they will adopt in order to deal with the occurrence.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS OF FINDINGS

The findings of this thesis have several important social, legal and organisational implications. The survey conducted in Chapter 8, provided some valuable and interesting results with regards to the prevalence of different types of sexual harassment. There is a lack of recent statistical data on the prevalence of sexual harassment. Out of 334 women that took part in the survey, 144 reported having had at least one recent experience of sexual harassment. This translates to 43 percent of the sample having experienced sexual harassment. This is quite a significant percentage if one considers the size of this sample; indicating that sexual harassment still remains a prevalent phenomenon for working women (i.e. European Commission, 1998; The Irish Presidency et al., 2004; USMSPB, 1995).

The overall findings of this thesis also confirm that despite the prevalence of the phenomenon, it largely remains underreported (European Commission, 1998; USMSPB, 1995). Advocacy seeking was the least frequently chosen strategy by the women in this thesis. The particular findings of the survey outlined in Study 8, also indicated that despite the fact that 43 percent of the sample acknowledged having been harassed, the majority of that sample chose to not report it.

The survey outlined in this thesis also provided valuable data regarding the prevalence of different types of sexual harassment as well as information on the types of perpetrators. Study 8 showed that the most frequent types of harassment experienced by women were "hostile environment" types (i.e. Fitzgerald et al., 1995) which included unwanted sexual attention (sexist and demeaning comments, indecent remarks and questions about sex-life). Gender harassment also appeared to be quite frequent (bullying at work, violated dignity). With respect to the more serious types, unwanted touching was one of the most prevalent of the severe types (56%). Fortunately, very severe cases of sexual harassment and sexual assault remained lower in frequency. The perpetrators were recognised as predominantly male superiors.

The findings of the survey listing real experiences of sexual harassment also showed that many women reported having very little organisational support with their harassment experience. Although the impact of organisational policies was not significant on any of the relationships in this thesis, the finding of Study 8 clearly underlines the importance of organisational support, in showing that the more support women perceived to have from the organisation the more likely they would be to seek advocacy. This finding confirms the existing literature on antecedents of sexual harassment which indicates that organisational climate plays an important role in the harassment experience. How permissive the organisational climate is, determines the risk perceived by potential victims in complaining (Willness et al., 2007).

The general findings of this thesis with regard to the recognition of different types of sexual harassment highlight the importance of awareness of the phenomenon by individuals as well as organisations. Both subtle and more severe harassing behaviours

can have equally negative and deleterious effects on their victims, since as is well known, the harassing experience is personal (Stockdale et al., 1995). Recent amendments in legislation (British Employment Law, 2007) have confirmed the seriousness of sexual harassment and its effects on the working and personal lives of affected women. Organisational policies are slowly but surely entering workplaces everywhere, but the important factor of awareness for both genders at work still remains crucial; if awareness of even the subtle types of harassment is high, then perhaps the behaviour can be stopped at earlier stages, by women themselves, if they are made to feel secure in labelling and recognising their experiences.

The findings of this thesis clearly show the important role of emotions and appraisals in the harassment process. Although fear was not the predominant emotion in the experiences of the participants in this thesis, it was present and intrinsically related to anger. Both are strong and negative emotions with detrimental physiological and psychological long term effects on the well-being of the affected individuals (Dougherty, 1999; Izard, 1977; Lazarus, 1991). The literature on the consequences of sexual harassment on its victims also highlights the long-term detrimental effects of this behaviour on women (i.e. job dissatisfaction, anxiety, loss of commitment; and marginalisation). This thesis highlights the necessity of interventions for affected women. The long-term deleterious effects of sexual harassment could potentially be addressed with counselling possibilities and support from the part of the organisation, combined with better awareness and incorporation of policies in the organisational routine.

The findings also bring to light the complexity of the coping mechanisms chosen by women as a response to harassment. This thesis has provided a better understanding of

the coping process behind sexually harassing incidents (Lazarus, 1991), particularly with respect to how the coping behaviour is informed by both the emotional experiences connected to the incident, as well as the different appraisals of the situational aspects and resources available to the victims. This could also assist in the formulation of tailor-made interventions that would consider the aforementioned findings. These could potentially help women come to terms with and deal effectively with their harassment, but it could also provide them with the necessary outlets in order to prevent the long-term negative effects, and better their working experiences.

LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE RESEARCH

The present analysis has illustrated the role of emotions and appraisals in women's responses toward sexual harassment. The prevalence of the phenomenon and the different types of sexual harassment have also been examined. However, there are a number of limitations within the current thesis which may raise interesting possibilities for further research on the topic. This section will outline these limitations and will attempt to link them with suggestions for future research.

A very important caveat in the research reported in this thesis is that the majority of the studies (with the exception of Studies 7 and 8) used student samples. Although sexual harassment is present in the academia as well as workplaces (Paludi, 1996), students may not have the relevant experiences of sexual harassment, and therefore, may have found it difficult to engage in, or relate to the scenarios in this thesis. Furthermore, universities are known for having explicit and clear equal opportunities policies and very strict rules about sexually harassing conduct. There are various outlets for students to

direct their complaints and most of the students are very likely to be aware of their options with regard to responding to sexual harassment. This may explain the high ratings of negotiation that we obtained for those studies.

While Study 8 provided important findings regarding the prevalence of sexual harassment as well as information on victim and perpetrator characteristics, the number of participants was not high enough in order to make meaningful analyses regarding the effect of type of harassment experienced on the relationships of interest to this thesis. Therefore, a possibility for future research would be to conduct a nationwide survey in order to obtain more data and variability on the different types experienced in order to test for their effect on emotions and coping strategies.

Sexual harassment is known to elicit a variety of negative emotions on its victims (Equal Opportunities Commission, 1998; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Kelly, 1988; Magley, Hulin et al., 1999). This thesis, although providing interesting results with regard to the experience and the impact of emotions on the sexual harassment experience, measured only two emotions. As an interesting addition to the topic's research, further researchers could test for a wider range of emotions (e.g. surprise, frustration, sadness, humiliation, betrayal etc.) in order to examine their effect on coping strategies of sexual harassment.

While we obtained some limited qualitative data in Study 8, they were not enough in order to conduct any meaningful analyses. Qualitative data on sexual harassment may be an invaluable source of information that could otherwise not be detected using questionnaires with already predefined answers. There could be women that feel their particular experience of sexual harassment may not fall directly under any predefined category. Future research could potentially focus on obtaining qualitative data (e.g.

content analysis) on the existing variables tested in this thesis, and therefore provide a more holistic overview of the experience of sexual harassment.

The samples used in this thesis were obtained primarily from the British population. Although the findings of this thesis provide interesting results about the prevalence of sexual harassment as well as the preferred coping mechanisms of harassed women, the existing cultural differences in responses to sexual harassment have been previously outlined in past research (i.e. Wasti & Cortina, 2002). It would be very interesting to see whether the appraisals and emotional experiences and their link with coping strategies would differ when tested in different cultures.

The factors that influence the occurrence of sexual harassment have been thoroughly documented in the sexual harassment literature (i.e. Lapierre et al., 2005; Willness et al., 2007) An interesting proposal for further research would be risk assessment in sexual harassment. Establishing what particular groups of individuals are more at risk of being victimised as well as establishing what particular organisational aspects may affect that risk of victimisation would be of crucial importance to policy making and general awareness. This research may assist in showing the role of organisational policies in sexual harassment prevalence.

Future researchers may also want to measure more factors that could potentially determine the emotions and coping strategies of sexually harassed women. In the majority of our studies we focused on classification of harassment, however, there have been other factors that could potentially influence experiences and coping in sexual harassment such as perceived seriousness and pervasiveness of the incident (Stockdale et al., 1995). Individual characteristics have also been shown to be crucial in the sexual

harassment experience. What is perceived as obtrusive and offensive for some individuals may not be perceived as such by others (Stockdale et al., 1995). Personality characteristics such as endorsement of traditional gender values may make certain women feel powerless, lacking efficacy, or may lead some others to justify the perpetrator's behaviour.

Finally, gender differences in perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment have also been documented in previous literature (Blumenthal, 1998; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; Weiner et al., 1997). Women are found to be less tolerant of sexual harassment and also to recognise even the more subtle of harassing behaviours. It would be an interesting possibility to explore the differences in perceptions and emotional reactions of men that would be confronted with harassing behaviours. This study has only focused on the perceptions and experiences of women as the victims of sexual harassment. Although statistics show that males are the most likely perpetrators and females the most likely victims, it would be interesting to explore for differences in the experiences and perceptions of sexual harassment in males.

SUMMARY

In sum, the current thesis examined women's experiences of sexual harassment using various interesting methodologies. Utilising the current research findings of the emotions literature, a potential link between appraisals, emotions and coping strategies was conceptualised and tested in the sexual harassment context. Consequently, the role of appraisals and emotions in sexual harassment were explored first, then the role of coping strategies in the harassment experience was also investigated and finally the combined

relationship between appraisals, emotions and coping was examined. As such, the findings of this thesis have important theoretical implications for the research into both sexual harassment and emotions. It appears to be the case that in the context of sexual harassment, appraisals and emotions play distinct, but related roles in women's coping strategies. These findings are in line with Baumeister et al.'s (2007) proposals of a feedback-system of emotions, whereby the constant cognitive processing of emotions and appraisals informs the consequent behavioural responses of individuals. This theoretical position seems to be fitting in explaining the variability in women's responses towards sexually harassing incidents.

There are also important social, legal and organisational implications within the findings of this thesis. The research outlined in Chapter 8 tested for actual experiences of sexual harassment and recorded the prevalence of particular types of sexual harassment, as well as perpetrator and victim characteristics in the current sample. This survey also confirmed the general lack of reporting in sexual harassment with a large proportion of this sample not willing to formally report their experiences. This lack of reporting could potentially be linked with the lack of organisational support encountered by the women in the current sample. This finding highlights the importance of organisational support in the harassment experience. The more support they reported having had, the more likely they were to seek advocacy. Therefore, organisational support could not only assist in the reporting of the phenomenon, but also in it's prevention, whereby more women would feel supported and therefore assertive in confronting their perpetrators.

Despite the theoretical and practical implications of the work in this thesis, there are important limitations. These limitations need to be addressed in further research of

this topic. Future research may include males in the study of the particular relationships outlined in this thesis. Future researchers could also use a qualitative methodology in order to obtain more detailed information about the relationships between emotions and coping strategies in harassed individuals. Further research is also needed in order to establish the underlying effects of the different types of sexual harassment on emotions and coping strategies, and therefore a nationwide study could provide interesting results as well as a more powerful indication of the prevalence of sexual harassment. Power could be manipulated in a more context-relevant manner in order to see whether the expected effects on emotions and coping strategies would manifest themselves. Finally, future researchers may wish to examine personality characteristics, beliefs and individual factors and their effect on appraisals and emotions in a sexual harassment context and their consequent effects on coping strategies.

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APPENDICES

Appendix I

Information sheet for paper version studies

Information sheet for Potential Participants
A Research Project Investigating Male – Female relationships

Introduction.

I would like to invite you to participate in this study, which is concerned with male and female relationships

Why am I doing this project?

I am a postgraduate student , conducting this project as part of my PhD at the university of Kent at Canterbury. It is hoped that this project will provide useful information on gender relationships in modern day society.

What will you have to do if you agree to take part?

If you agree to take part in this study you will have to

1. Read carefully through and sign the consent form to show your willingness to take part in the study.
2. Answer a brief questionnaire. It is not expected to take more than 15 minutes.

Upon completion of the study you are free to e-mail me with any questions involved and I will be more than happy to answer and give you more details on the study. When the study is completed you are more than welcome to request a summary of the findings via an e-mail that is provided at the bottom of this document, which I will be more than happy to send to you if you are interested.

How much of your time will participation involve?

The whole study is not expected to take up more than 15 minutes of your time.

Will your participation in the study remain confidential?

If you agree to take part your name will not be recorded at any stage, or stated anywhere on the questionnaires. The information provided by you will be used solely for research purposes and will not be disclosed to other parties. You can be assured that, should you wish to take part in this study, you will remain anonymous and your information treated with strict confidentiality.

What are the advantages of taking part?

You will have the chance to become an active part of psychological research, which could increase your knowledge of psychological research, especially since you have the chance to be fully informed of the purposes as well as the results of this study upon its completion.

Are there any disadvantages involved?

It is possible, due to the nature of the questionnaire, that you may find some of the facts and questions distressing. But you should be once again informed that you have the right to withdraw participation and immediately stop at any time, should you feel so, without any negative consequences on you. In such a case you are to contact the Departmental Office (01227 833961) and inform us that you wish to withdraw any existing data as well.

Do you have to take part in this study?

No, your participation is entirely voluntary you are by no means obliged to take part. If you do not wish to do so, you do not have to give a reason and you will not be contacted again. Accordingly, if you do wish to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time, and furthermore, upon completion of the task you will not be contacted again unless you express a wish to be further informed on the purposes and results of the study.

You are also free to contact us at a later date if you have changed your mind and you no longer wish for us to use your data. If you contact us at a later date with such a request, the questionnaire that bears your participant number will be deleted from the data file and your data will not be used.

If you have any serious concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Panel(via the Psychology Department Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern.

Researcher: Afroditi Pina

ap98@kent.ac.uk

Postgraduate researcher

Supervisor: Dr Tendayi Viki

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phone:01227824110

Department of Psychology

Appendix II

Information sheet for online studies

Information sheet for Potential Participants
A Research Project Investigating Male – Female relationships

Introduction.

I would like to invite you to participate in this study, which is concerned with male and female relationships

Why am I doing this project?

I am a postgraduate student , conducting this project as part of my PhD at the university of Kent at Canterbury. It is hoped that this project will provide useful information on gender relationships in modern day society.

What will you have to do if you agree to take part?

If you agree to take part in this study you will have to

1. Read carefully through and click on the appropriate button on the consent form to show your willingness to take part in the study.

2. Answer a brief questionnaire. It is not expected to take more than 15 minutes.

Upon completion of the study you are free to e-mail me with any questions involved and I will be more than happy to answer and give you more details on the study. When the study is completed you are more than welcome to request a summary of the findings via an e-mail that will be provided on-screen, which I will be more than happy to send to you if you are interested.

How much of your time will participation involve?

The whole study is not expected to take up more than 15 minutes of your time.

Will your participation in the study remain confidential?

If you agree to take part your name will not be recorded at any stage, or stated anywhere on the questionnaires. The information provided by you will be used solely for research purposes and will not be disclosed to other parties. You can be assured that, should you wish to take part in this study, you will remain anonymous and your information treated with strict confidentiality.

What are the advantages of taking part?

You will have the chance to become an active part of psychological research, which could increase your knowledge of psychological research, especially since you have the chance to be fully informed of the purposes as well as the results of this study upon its completion.

Are there any disadvantages involved?

It is possible, due to the nature of the questionnaire, that you may find some of the facts and questions distressing. But you should be once again informed that you have the right to withdraw participation at

any time, and immediately stop should you feel so, without any negative consequences on you. In such a case you are to contact the Departmental Office (01227 833961) and inform us that you wish to withdraw your existing data.

Do you have to take part in this study?

No, your participation is entirely voluntary you are by no means obliged to take part. If you do not wish to do so, you do not have to give a reason and you will not be contacted again. Accordingly, if you do wish to participate, you are free to withdraw at any time, and furthermore, upon completion of the task you will not be contacted again unless you express a wish to be further informed on the purposes and results of the study.

You are also free to contact us at a later date if you have changed your mind and you no longer wish for us to use your data. If you contact us at a later date with such a request, the questionnaire that bears your participant number will be deleted from the data file and your data will not be used.

If you have any serious concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Panel(via the Psychology Department Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern.

Researcher: Afroditi Pina   Supervisor: Dr Tendayi Viki

 ap98@kent.ac.uk   **g.t.viki@kent.ac.uk**

                                                     phone:01227824110

Postgraduate researcher   Department of Psychology

Appendix III

Consent Forms for paper version and online studies

Volunteer Consent

Please read the following consent statements carefully and sign on the bottom of the page, which indicates that you fully consent to participate in this study.

I have been adequately informed about the nature of this study and received full information about my ethical rights as a participant and I have been given opportunity to ask questions.

I fully understand that the decision to participate is up to me and that I can change my mind and withdraw from the study at any time without it affecting how I am treated in the future. I also understand that I am not obliged to answer any questions in this questionnaire that make me uncomfortable.

I have been guaranteed that all the information collected in this study is strictly confidential and will not bear any personal details that may identify me.

I have read the participant information and agree to take part in this study.

Signature:

_____

Thank you for deciding to participate in this study. Your assistance is greatly appreciated.

Researcher: Afroditi Pina

Supervisor: Dr. Tendayi Viki

Volunteer Consent

Please read the following consent statements carefully and click at the button on the bottom of the page, which indicates that you fully consent to participate in this study.

I have been adequately informed about the nature of this study and received full information about my ethical rights as a participant and I have been given opportunity to ask questions.

I fully understand that the decision to participate is up to me and that I can change my mind and withdraw from the study at any time without it affecting how I am treated in the future. I also understand that I am not obliged to answer any questions in this questionnaire that make me uncomfortable.

I have been guaranteed that all the information collected in this study is strictly confidential and will not bear any personal details that may identify me.

I have read the participant information and agree to take part in this study.

Start questionnaire

Thank you for deciding to participate in this study. Your assistance is greatly appreciated.

Researcher: Afroditi Pina

Supervisor: Dr. Tendayi Viki

Appendix IV

Example Debriefing Forms

Debriefing Form Studies 3 & 4

The purpose of the current project is to understand and determine some of the factors that influence people's emotional reactions to a negative event, how they appraise it and consequently, how they will choose to handle the event (coping styles). According to Wasti & Cortina (2002), victim response to (i.e. coping) sexually harassing behaviour represents an important component of harassment processes. The above researchers identify 5 basic styles of coping 1) Advocacy seeking: i.e. making formal complaint, 2) Social Coping: i.e. social support from friends and colleagues, 3) Negotiation: i.e. telling the perpetrator to stop, 4) Avoidance: i.e. avoiding contact with perpetrator, and 5) Denial: i.e. telling yourself that this is not important. Furthermore, based on appraisal theories (Frijda, 1986) one of the factors determining the experience of anger is perceived control of the situation, and strength that the self has against the instigator of the sexual harassment. When the self is perceived as having the relevant resources to react, then anger is the most likely emotion to be experienced, whereas when the self is perceived to be weak against the instigator, then the most likely emotion to be experienced is fear (Frijda, 1986; Scherer, 1988).

Research has supported the notion that individuals with power should exhibit a greater action orientation than those without power, regardless of the social consequences of their acts (Galinsky, Gruenfeld & Magee, 2003). In their article, Galinsky, Gruenfeld and Magee (2003) demonstrated that those who possess power exhibit a greater proclivity to act than those who do not. Furthermore, those who are primed with high power are more likely to act in a goal-consistent manner, that is, to act in ways that are consistent with desired end states, than are those who are primed with low power (Galinsky, Gruenfeld & Magee, 2003, p.453).

This particular study is interested in looking at the various coping styles chosen by each participant towards the harassing behaviour based on the perception of power in each situation. For example the participants belonging to the conditions priming low power are expected to feel more fear than anger and choose social coping, avoidance, or denial strategies to cope. The participants belonging to high power conditions are expected to demonstrate more anger and engage in more advocacy seeking coping styles because it is hypothesised that they would feel more in control of the situation.

If you have any serious concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the Psychology Research Ethics Panel(via the Psychology Department Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern. **Once again you are reminded that you are free to withdraw participation at any stage of this study.**

If you think you are a victim of sexual harassment or you know someone who may have experienced sexual harassment, below are some helpful numbers of organisations you can consult.

Student Counselling Service.
Room C2.4 in Darwin College
Extension 3206 or Direct Line 01227- 823206.
Email counselling@ukc.ac.uk

University of Kent Personnel
personnel@kent.ac.uk

Samaritans: http://www.samaritans.org.uk/

In the UK dial GB +44 8457909090 Call , for the cost of a local call.

In the Republic of Ireland dial 1850 60 90 90, for the cost of a local call.

Niteline.
Every night during term between 8pm and 8am.
Telephone 01227- 454866 or Extension 7633

 Supervisor: G.T.Viki@kent.ac.uk , Phone: 01227824110
Researcher: Afroditi Pina ap98@kent.ac.uk

Debriefing form Study 7

THANK YOU FOR TAKING PART, YOUR ASSISTANCE IS GREATLY APPRECIATED

The purpose of the current project is to understand and determine some of the factors that influence people's emotional reactions to a negative event, how they appraise it and consequently, how they will choose to handle the event (coping styles). According to Wasti & Cortina (2002), victim response to (i.e. coping) sexually harassing behaviour represents an important component of harassment processes. The above researchers identify 5 basic styles of coping 1) Advocacy seeking: i.e. making formal complaint, 2) Social Coping: i.e. social support from friends and colleagues, 3) Negotiation: i.e. telling the perpetrator to stop, 4) Avoidance: i.e. avoiding contact with perpetrator, and 5) Denial: i.e. telling yourself that this is not important. Furthermore, based on appraisal theories (Frijda, 1986) one of the factors determining the experience of anger is perceived control of the situation, and strength that the self has against the instigator of the sexual harassment. When the self is perceived as having the relevant resources to react, then anger is the most likely emotion to be experienced, whereas when the self is perceived to be weak against the instigator, then the most likely emotion to be experienced is fear (Frijda, 1986; Scherer, 1988).

According to the Stress & Coping literature (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) the more threatening and severe an event is, the more individuals use a variety of mechanisms to cope with it, and in particular they seek more support from various sources both formal and informal (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Hobfoll, 1998). Research has also shown that women working in organisations that are intolerant of sexual harassment, tend to seek more formal support/advocacy (Bergman et al, 2002; Offerman & Malamut, 2002). Leaders of such organisations can communicate such intolerance by taking complaints seriously, sanctioning harassing behaviour and harassers. (Cortina & Wasti, 2005). Such consistent proactive leadership behaviour may actually be more effective and important than antiharassment policies in the management of harassment behaviour (Hulin, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 1996; Williams, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 1999)

This particular study is interested in looking at the various coping styles chosen by each participant towards the harassing behaviour based on the perception of social support in each situation. For example the participants belonging to the conditions priming tolerance towards sexual harassment are expected to feel more fear than anger and choose social coping, avoidance, or denial strategies to cope. The participants belonging to conditions priming

intolerance towards sexual harassment are expected to demonstrate more anger and engage in more advocacy seeking coping styles.

If you have any serious concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the

Psychology Research Ethics Panel(via the Psychology Department Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern. ONCE AGAIN YOU ARE REMINDED THAT YOU ARE FREE TO WITHDRAW PARTICIPATION AT ANY STAGE OF THIS STUDY.

If you think you are a victim of sexual harassment or you know someone who may have experienced sexual harassment, below are some helpful numbers of organisations you can consult.

Student Counselling Service.

Room C2.4 in Darwin College

Extension 3206 or Direct Line 01227- 823206.

Email counselling@ukc.ac.uk

University of Kent Personnel

personnel@kent.ac.uk

Equal Opportunities Commission Website:

http://www.eoc.org.uk/Default.aspx?page=0

Equal Opportunities Commission Website (useful links)

http://www.eoc.org.uk/Default.aspx?page=14968

Samaritans: http://www.samaritans.org.uk/

In the UK dial GB +44 8457909090 Call , for the cost of a local call.

In the Republic of Ireland dial 1850 60 90 90, for the cost of a local call.

The British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy

http://www.bacp.co.uk/information/

Supervisor: G.T.Viki@kent.ac.uk , Phone: 01227824110

Researcher: Afroditi Pina ap98@kent.ac.uk

Sexual Harassment Experience Survey Debrief

Thank you for completing the questionnaire your assistance is greatly appreciated.

The purpose of the current project is to understand and determine some of the factors that influence people's emotional reactions to sexual harassment, how they appraise it and consequently, how they will choose to handle the event (coping styles). According to Wasti & Cortina (2002), victim response to (i.e. coping) sexually harassing behaviour represents an important component of harassment processes. The above researchers identify 5 basic styles of coping 1) Advocacy seeking: i.e. making formal complaint, 2) Social Coping: i.e. social support from friends and colleagues, 3) Negotiation: i.e. telling the perpetrator to stop, 4) Avoidance: i.e. avoiding contact with perpetrator, and 5) Denial: i.e. telling yourself that this is not important. Furthermore, based on appraisal theories (Frijda, 1986) one of the factors determining the experience of anger is perceived control of the situation, and strength that the self has against the instigator of the sexual harassment. When the self is perceived as having the relevant resources to react, then anger is the most likely emotion to be experienced, whereas when the self is perceived to be weak against the instigator, then the most likely emotion to be experienced is fear (Frijda, 1986; Scherer, 1988).

According to the Stress & Coping literature (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) the more threatening and severe an event is, the more individuals use a variety of mechanisms to cope with it, and in particular they seek more support from various sources both formal and informal (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Hobfoll, 1998). Research has also shown that women working in organisations that are intolerant of sexual harassment, tend to seek more formal support/advocacy (Bergman et al, 2002; Offerman & Malamut, 2002). Leaders of such organisations can communicate such intolerance by taking complaints seriously, sanctioning harassing behaviour and harassers. (Cortina & Wasti, 2005). Such consistent proactive leadership behaviour may actually be more effective and important than antiharassment policies in the management of harassment behaviour (Hulin, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 1996; Williams, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 1999)

This particular study is interested in looking at the various coping styles chosen by each participant towards the harassing behaviour based on the type of harassment experienced, the perpetrator's status, the severity and the perception of social support in each situation. Your assistance is particularly

appreciated as your emotional experiences and how you handled the incident is invaluable information for the research and will give us the necessary insight into this complex topic from the woman's perspective.

Sexual harassment is against the law

Women and men have a right not to be subjected to sexual harassment at work.

The Sex Discrimination Act (SDA) makes it unlawful for employers in Great Britain to subject a woman (or man) to sexual harassment. It is also unlawful to harass someone because they intend to undergo, are undergoing, or have undergone gender reassignment.

Sexual harassment itself is prohibited by the SDA but in many instances it will be accompanied by other forms of unfavourable treatment such as not being recruited, criticism of work, lack of promotion, enforced transfer and ill health or dismissal. (See also general less favourable treatment)

(Equal Opportunities Commission Website, 2006)

If you have any serious concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the

Psychology Research Ethics Panel(via the Psychology Department Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern. ONCE AGAIN YOU ARE REMINDED THAT YOU ARE FREE TO WITHDRAW PARTICIPATION AT ANY STAGE OF THIS STUDY.

Below are some helpful organisations you can consult for further information or support.

Equal Opportunities Commission Website:

http://www.eoc.org.uk/Default.aspx?page=0

Equal Opportunities Commission Website (useful links)

http://www.eoc.org.uk/Default.aspx?page=14968

Samaritans: http://www.samaritans.org.uk/

In the UK dial GB +44 8457909090 Call , for the cost of a local call.

In the Republic of Ireland dial 1850 60 90 90, for the cost of a local call.

The British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy

Researcher: ap98@kent.ac.uk , Supervisor: g.t.viki@kent.ac.uk Phone: 01227824110

Debrief for non-sexually harassed

Sexual Harassment Experience Survey

Thank you for completing the questionnaire your assistance is greatly appreciated. Since you reported you have not experienced sexual harassment of any form, you will not need to proceed to the next questions. Below is a debrief of what the research is about. (if you click continue you will be redirected to the University of Kent Psychology website)

The purpose of the current project is to understand and determine some of the factors that influence people's emotional reactions to sexual harassment, how they appraise it and consequently, how they will choose to handle the event (coping styles). According to Wasti & Cortina (2002), victim response to (i.e. coping) sexually harassing behaviour represents an important component of harassment processes. The above researchers identify 5 basic styles of coping 1) Advocacy seeking: i.e. making formal complaint, 2) Social Coping: i.e. social support from friends and colleagues, 3) Negotiation: i.e. telling the perpetrator to stop, 4) Avoidance: i.e. avoiding contact with perpetrator, and 5) Denial: i.e. telling yourself that this is not important. Furthermore, based on appraisal theories (Frijda, 1986) one of the factors determining the experience of anger is perceived control of the situation, and strength that the self has against the instigator of the sexual harassment. When the self is perceived as having the relevant resources to react, then anger is the most likely emotion to be experienced, whereas when the self is perceived to be weak against the instigator, then the most likely emotion to be experienced is fear (Frijda, 1986; Scherer, 1988).

According to the Stress & Coping literature (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) the more threatening and severe an event is, the more individuals use a variety of mechanisms to cope with it, and in particular they seek more support from various sources both formal and informal (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Hobfoll, 1998). Research has also shown that women working in organisations that are intolerant of sexual harassment, tend to seek more formal support/advocacy (Bergman et al, 2002; Offerman & Malamut, 2002). Leaders of such organisations can communicate such intolerance by taking complaints seriously, sanctioning harassing behaviour and harassers. (Cortina & Wasti,

2005). Such consistent proactive leadership behaviour may actually be more effective and important than antiharassment policies in the management of harassment behaviour (Hulin, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 1996; Williams, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 1999)

This particular study is interested in looking at the various coping styles chosen by each participant towards the harassing behaviour based on the type of harassment experienced, the perpetrator's status, the severity and the perception of social support in each situation.

If you have any serious concerns about the ethical conduct of this study, please inform the Chair of the

Psychology Research Ethics Panel(via the Psychology Department Office) in writing, providing a detailed account of your concern. ONCE AGAIN YOU ARE REMINDED THAT YOU ARE FREE TO WITHDRAW PARTICIPATION AT ANY STAGE OF THIS STUDY.

Below are some helpful organisations you can consult for further information or support.

Equal Opportunities Commission Website:

http://www.eoc.org.uk/Default.aspx?page=0

Equal Opportunities Commission Website (useful links)

http://www.eoc.org.uk/Default.aspx?page=14968

Samaritans: http://www.samaritans.org.uk/

In the UK dial GB +44 8457909090 Call , for the cost of a local call.

In the Republic of Ireland dial 1850 60 90 90, for the cost of a local call.

The British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy

http://www.bacp.co.uk/information/

Researcher: G.T.Viki@kent.ac.uk , Phone: 01227824110

Appendix V

Power Primes

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this study. Please read the following carefully and give as much detail as you can.

"Please recall a particular incident in which you had power over someone else. By power, we mean a situation in which you had control over someone's ability to get something they wanted, or were in a position to evaluate them. Please describe this situation in which you had power- what happened, how you felt, etc".

_____
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_____

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this study. Please read the following carefully and give as much detail as you can.

"Please recall a particular incident in which someone else had power over you. By power, we mean a situation in which someone had control over your ability to get something you wanted, or was in a position to evaluate you. Please describe this situation in which you did not have power- what happened, how you felt, etc".

_____

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Appendix VI

Example Materials

Sexual Harassment Experience Survey

For the purposes of this questionnaire we would like to remind you of the Equal Opportunities Commission 2005 definition of Sexual Harassment in the Workplace:

There are two types of sexual harassment

1. Unwanted conduct on the grounds of your sex:

The harassment happens because you are a woman (or a man). For example, if you are being bullied at work and the harasser would not treat somebody of the opposite sex in this way. The conduct does not have to be of a sexual nature for this form of harassment.

It must be done with the purpose of, or have the effect of, violating your dignity, or of creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment for you.

OR

2. Unwanted physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct of a sexual nature:

If the behaviour of the perpetrator is of a sexual nature, this is unlawful in itself and you do not have to compare yourself to how somebody of the opposite sex would be treated. This could include:

* Comments about the way you look which you find demeaning

* Indecent remarks

* Questions about your sex life

* Sexual demands by a member of your own or the opposite sex

(Incidents involving touching and other physical threats are criminal offences and should also be reported to the police).

Again, the behaviour is done with the purpose of, or have the effect of, violating your dignity, or of creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment for you.

It is also sexual harassment if your employer treats you less favourably because you have rejected, or submitted to, either form of harassment described above.

Equal Opportunities Commission website (2006)

Participant Number is any number you wish

Participant number: [_____]

Gender: ◦ Male   ◦ Female

Age: [_____]

Ethnicity: [_____]

Nationality: [_____]

1) Marital Status: single, in a relationship , married, divorced, separated, widowed
2) Employment Status: employed, self-employed, unemployed, student, retired, home-maker
3) Do you have children living at home? Yes, No

Please answer the following questions as honestly as you can.

                                                                              Yes No

4. Thinking about where you work, or worked, have you ever experienced   ◦   ◦
   sexual harassment in any of the ways described previously?

If yes, which of the following type(s) of sexual harassment did you experience (you can choose however many apply to you):

5. Bullied at work, where the harasser would not treat somebody of the opposite sex in this way

   ▢

6. Experienced any behaviour that purposefully (or as a result) violated your dignity or created an itimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment for you

   ▢

7. Received comments about the way you look which you found demeaning

   ▢

8. Received indecent or sexist remarks

   ▢

9. Received questions about your sex life

   ▢

10. Experienced sexual demands by a member of your own or the opposite sex (quid-pro-quo)

☐

11. Received e-mails which included pornographic/explicit material sent by people at work

☐

12. Received unwanted physical contact from the perpetrator(s)at work (e.g.touching)

☐

13. Subjected to threats with regards to sexual demands from a person/people at work

☐

14. Subjected to any serious sexual assault whilst at work

☐

15. Any other type of behaviour you were subjected to which is not covered in the above (If not applicable just write N/A)

☐

16. Was it a single perpetrator or many perpetrators?
One person, More than one person
17. What was the gender of the perpetrator(s)?
Male, Female, Both males and females

We would now like you to think of the most recent incident of sexual harassment that you experienced. What type was it? (please tick only one)

18. Bullied at work, where the harasser would not treat somebody of the opposite sex in this way

☐

19. Experienced any behaviour that purposefully (or as a result) violated your dignity or created an itimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment to you

☐

20. Received comments about the way you look which you found demeaning

☐

21. Received indecent or sexist remarks

☐

22. Received questions about your sex life

☐

23. Experienced sexual demands by a member of your own or the opposite sex (quid-pro-quo)

   ⌐

24. Received e-mails which included pornographic/explicit material sent by people at work

   ⌐

25. Received unwanted physical contact from the perpetrator(s)at work (e.g.touching)

   ⌐

26. Subjected to threats with regards to sexual demands from a person/people at work

   ⌐

27. Subjected to any serious sexual assault whilst at work

   ⌐

28. Any other type of behaviour you were subjected to which is not covered in the above (If not applicable just write N/A)

29. Was it a single perpetrator or many perpetrators?
One person, More than one person

30. What was the gender of the perpetrator(s)?
Male, Female, Both males and females

Thinking of the perpetrator, in relation to yourself was he/she:

31. Superior(supervisor, manager, employer etc.)

   ⌐

32. Equal Status (colleague)

   ⌐

33. Subordinate (someone you manage, or supervise, or employ etc.)

   ⌐

	No Power	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Absolute Power
34. In terms of power over you at work, how would you rate the perpetrator?		⌐	⌐	⌐	⌐	⌐	⌐	⌐	

	Not at all serious	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very serious
35. How serious/severe would you say the incident was?		⌐	⌐	⌐	⌐	⌐	⌐	⌐	

	No support at all	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	A great deal of support

36. Thinking again of the last incident, how much support did you receive from your organisation (manager, company, etc.)? ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌

37. During the harassment how much support did you think you would get from your organisation (manager, company, etc.)? ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌

Yes   No

38. Did your organisation have clear policies on Sexual Harassment? ◌   ◌

	Definitely not	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Definitely yes

39. Did you think that the perpetrator's behaviour was wrong? ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌

	Appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Inappropriate

40. Did you think that the perpetrator's behaviour was appropriate?: ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌

	Justified	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Unjustified

41. Did you think the perpetrator's behaviour was justified?: ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌

	Unintentional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Intentional

42. Did you think the perpetrator's behaviour was intentional?: ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌ ◌

After the harassment incident happened, to what extent did you experience the following emotions?

	Not at All	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	A Great Deal
43. Angry		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
44. Irritated		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
45. Outraged		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
46. Scared		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
47. Terrified		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
48. Anxious		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	○	

In terms of your reaction to the incident, please report how much you engaged in the following behaviours:

	Not at All	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Definitely yes
49. Talked with a superior, manager, or the union about the incident		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
50. Reported the perpetrator		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
51. Made a formal complaint against the perpetrator		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
52. Filed a grievance		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
53. Asked a friend for advice		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
54. Talked to someone you trusted about the incident		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
55. Talked to friends for support		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
56. Asked the perpetrator to leave you alone		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
57. Tried to let the perpetrator know that you disliked the behaviour		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
58. Stayed out of the perpetrators way		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
59. Avoided being alone with the perpetrator		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
60. Tried to forget all about the incident		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	
61. Told yourself it was not important		○	○	○	○	○	○	○	