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ATTRIBUTION OF RESPONSIBILITY IN A CASE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT: THE EFFECTS OF SUBJECT SEX, ATTITUDES TOWARD FEMINISM, VICTIM SEX AND VICTIM REACTION

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The undersigned certify that they have read, and recommend to the Faculty of Graduate Studies for acceptance, a thesis entitled "Attribution of Responsibility in a Case of Sexual Harassment: The Effects of Subject Sex, Attitudes Toward Feminism, Victim Sex and Victim Reaction," submitted by Suzanne J. Cooney in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science.

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of the present study was to test the predictions of both the Just World Hypothesis (Lerner, 1970, 1980) and Defensive Attribution Theory (Shaver, 1970, 1975) and to replicate and extend research on the effects of observer characteristics (i.e., sex and traditional versus less traditional attitudes) on attributions of responsibility in a case of sexual harassment. The Attitudes Toward Feminisim Scale (FEM; Smith, Ferree, & Miller, 1975) was administered to 120 male and 120 female subjects drawn from a university population. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of six conditions (male/female victim x self-blame/ professor-blame/ control). The scenario involved the sexual harassment of a university student by a professor of the opposite sex. After listening to an audio-tape of the victim's account, subjects evaluated the character of both the victim and the perpetrator and rated the responsibility of both.

Overall, subjects held the perpetrator responsible for the incident. FEM had a pervasive and consistent effect on subjects' attribution judgments. In addition, FEM was involved in a number of interactions with the experimental

variables. Subjects with less traditional attitudes attributed less responsibility to the victim and evaluated the victim more favourably than did traditional subjects. Moreover, less traditional subjects attributed more responsibility to the perpetrator than did traditional subjects. The subject sex main effects supported the notion that in cases such as sexual harassment women are motivated to protect the victim, whereas men are motivated to protect the perpetrator. Subjects, traditional subjects and women in particular, blamed the female victim more than the male victim. Victim reaction interacted with subject sex on many of the measures. In general, the male subjects responded in a manner that was consistent with the reaction manipulation. The female subjects, on the other hand, attributed less responsibility to the self-blame victim and evaluated this victim more favourably than either the professor-blame or control victims. Finally, prior victimization did not influence subjects' attribution decisions.

The present study found partial support for the predictions of the defensive attribution theories. Explanation of the Subject Sex x Victim Sex interaction, however, proved to be problematic for the two theories. Future research with actual victims would provide evidence for the applicability of the present study's findings.

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Introduction

Overview

Sexual harassment is a problem for many women and men, both in the workplace and at school (Cammaert, 1985; Safran, 1976; Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982). Victims of sexual harassment can suffer economically through the loss of a job or promotion; they can suffer physically with symptoms such as headaches, nausea, loss of appetite and sleep; and they can suffer psychologically through reduction in self-esteem and job satisfaction.

One of the interesting phenomena associated with sexual harassment is that few victims report their experiences to the relevant authority even though they will report it on a survey questionnaire (Cammaert, 1985; Safran, 1976; Tangri et al., 1982). Their reluctance to pursue justice for their victimization may result, in part, from a fear that others will simply blame them and evaluate them in a negative manner. In fact, this fear may be realistic as victim blaming has been documented in a number of different situations (Lerner, 1980; Lerner & Miller, 1978). As yet, however, little research has examined sexual harassment from this point of view. The present study examined observers' impressions of victims of

sexual harassment and their impressions of the harasser. In addition, it assessed the effects of the victim's reaction to the incident and the observers' characteristics (that is, sex and attitudes toward feminism) on observers' attribution decisions. Analogous research on rape was used as a model, and the hypotheses were derived from the attribution theories of Lerner (1970, 1980) and Shaver (1970, 1975).

Survey Research and Definitions of Sexual Harassment

Previous research on sexual harassment has typically focused on identifying the types of harassment, their frequency and their impact on women (e.g., Farley, 1978; Safran, 1976). Between 40% and 88% of women in the workplace report experiencing some form of sexual harassment (Crull, 1982; Loy & Stewart, 1984; Powell, 1983; Safran, 1976; Tangri et al., 1982) with the figures for female university students being lower (17% to 30%; Cammaert, 1985; McCormack, 1985). The only figures for men indicate that the harassment of males in the workplace is much lower (15% to 37%; Gutek, 1982; Tangri et al., 1982).

In both surveys, women and men have reported that crude remarks and stares were the most common forms of harassment. Some women and men also experienced inappropriate touching and brushing against, sexual propositions promising reward or threatening punishment and

sexual assault. Most victims reacted to the harassment by ignoring the harasser's behaviour or by avoiding the harasser altogether and reported that the harassment persisted despite their attempts to communicate their lack of interest to the harasser. Tangri et al. (1982) also found that more men than women acquiesced to the harasser's demands. Moreover, 23% of the female victims and 21% of the male victims reported that acquiescing only made matters worse. Less than 5% of the male and female victims reported their harassment experience to an employer or other person in authority. More women than men did not report the incident because they (a) felt embarrassed (15% and 10%), (b) feared negative repercussions (23% and 11%), (c) felt little would be done to reprimand the harasser (33% and 17%), or (d) were not aware of the proper procedures for filing a complaint (15% and 7%; Tangri et al., 1982). Interestingly, Gutek (1982) found that fears concerning negative repercussions or being treated as a sex object and having one's physical attributes considered as more important than one's work ability were notably absent from men's responses. Women and to some extent men have reported that the harassment had negative effects on their physical and emotional condition (Crull, 1982; Tangri et al., 1982) as well as on their work habits and attitudes towards others in the work environment

(Tangri et al., 1982). Although most definitions of sexual harassment emphasize situations in which the victim and the harasser have unequal power, most victims report being harassed by a co-worker (Loy & Stewart, 1984; Tangri et al., 1982) or a fellow student (Cammaert, 1985).

Much of the controversy surrounding sexual harassment involves the absence of a definition that is acceptable to all interest groups; researchers, women's groups, unions, business, and the courts to name but a few. Conflicting claims that a particular definition is both too narrow and too broad are not uncommon. However, all definitions of sexual harassment have two common features: (a) harassment involves discrimination against an individual on the basis of sex and (b) the harassed individual finds such discrimination to be objectionable (Cammaert, 1985). One example is the definition adopted by the University of Calgary (March, 1983):

> "Sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when:
>
> 1) such conduct has the purpose or effect of interfering with an individual's work or academic performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working or academic environment, or

> 2) submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment, academic status, or academic accreditation, or
>
> 3) submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment, academic status, or academic accreditation decisions affecting such individuals."

The University of Calgary definition also states that:

> "Sexual harassment may take the form of: verbal abuse or threats; unwelcome remarks, jokes, innuendos or taunting about a person's body, attire, age, or marital status; displaying of pornographic, sexually offensive or derogatory pictures; unneccessary physical conduct such as touching, patting, pinching, punching; unwelcome sexual invitations or requests; physical assault."

According to this definition then, sexual harassment can take many forms, but in every case it is viewed as an abuse of power and is a form of discrimination based on sex.

This concern with the nature of sexual harassment is also reflected in recent psychological research. Two laboratory studies have attempted to determine what characteristics of a situation will lead subjects to define it as sexual harassment (Reilly, Carpenter, Dull, &

Bartlet, 1982; Weber-Burdin & Rossi, 1982). Both research teams asked male and female university students to indicate the degree to which they would label various hypothetical student/professor interactions as sexual harassment. The vignettes were brief descriptions of an interaction between a male professor and a female student. They varied on eight different situational and behavioural variables considered to be potentially relevant to judgments of sexual harassment (e.g., prior relationship between the professor and the student). Both studies found that factors such as a prior relationship between the professor and the student or suggestive behaviour on the part of the female student decreased the harassment ratings by one point on average. Inappropriate touching (i.e., kissing) on the part of the professor raised the harassment ratings by one point on average. A verbal threat suggesting that a grade would be lowered for noncompliance with the professor's demands for sexual favours increased ratings by four points on average. In sum, at least within an educational context, subjects agree with the University of Calgary definition that "unnecessary physical conduct" and making "submission to [physical conduct of a sexual nature]... a term or condition of an individual's academic status..." constitutes sexual harassment.

Recently, investigators have become interested in social perception processes and how the victim is perceived. This research relies on attribution theory for a theoretical framework and therefore the relevant aspects of these theories will be outlined before they are applied to sexual harassment.

Attribution Theory

Among the errors and distortions in observers' attributions of responsibility noted by attribution theorists (e.g., Bem & Allen, 1974; Borgida & Brekke, 1981; Jones & Davies, 1965; Jones & Nisbett, 1972; Kelley, 1972; Ross, 1977; Ross, Greene, & House, 1977) is the tendency to blame an innocent victim or perpetrator of a chance accident. One possible source of such an error is observer's personal motivations. To this end, considerable attention has been given to the investigation of attributions of responsibility for events with tragic or negative consequences such as accidents, crime, natural disasters and disease.

According to Shaver (1975), responsibility has at least three distinct definitions: causality, legal accountability and moral accountability. Although researchers do not generally state which definition they are employing, Shaver (1975) has suggested that most attribution research involves moral accountability. Moral

accountability refers to a value judgment that may or may not be consistent with behavioural evidence. Shaver (1975) argues that while it is difficult to maintain exaggerations of causality in the face of contradictory evidence, beliefs in moral accountability can often serve personal needs in such a way that contradictory evidence may never sway them. For example, observers often hold a rape victim partly responsible for her rape. Although she may have contributed to her chances of being raped, she did not "cause" the rape, the rapist carried out the act; she is not legally accountable as she was the one the crime was committed against. She, however, may be held morally accountable (e.g., observers may see her as being careless for walking down a poorly lit street at night). According to Shaver (1975), decisions of moral accountability are the most easily influenced by perceivers' motivations, and are the most resistant to change even when there is behavioural evidence to the contrary. Two attribution theories that focus on moral accountability have been the source of a considerable amount of research and controversy; the Just World Hypothesis (Lerner, 1970) and Defensive Attribution Theory (Shaver, 1970).

Just World Hypothesis. According to the Just World Hypothesis, individuals have a need to view the world they live in as fair and equitable, a place where people receive

what they deserve. This allows for a sense of predictability and control, but more importantly it reaffirms the notion that things will eventually turn out for the better. Observers' beliefs in a just world are challenged when they come face-to-face with the world of victims (Lerner, 1980). In order for these observers to maintain their beliefs, they must explain any injustice by either altering their perception of the situation (e.g., things are not as bad as they may seem) or, more frequently, by altering their impressions of the victim's behaviour or character (e.g., bad things happen to bad people). This same tendency to alter the "real" events of a situation has been noted in observers' self-perceptions. For example, in a study by Apsler and Friedman (1975) subjects were arbitrarily assigned to either a reward or no reward condition. Subjects who were not rewarded judged their performance on the task to be lower than that of subjects who were rewarded even though they had been informed at the outset of the experiment that assignment to conditions was random. The idea that the reward was arbitrary was not consistent with their life experiences with reward and punishment situations, and therefore, faced with the injustice of not receiving a reward subjects decided that their performance was not adequate. The same judgments were made by third-party observers who also

concluded that the individuals receiving the reward had performed better on the task. Again, they made these judgments despite their knowledge that the reward was arbitrary.

Lerner (1980) has stated that in order to elicit a just world response in third party observers, the manipulations must be sufficiently empathy evoking (i.e., observers must believe that they could find themselves in the same situation). It is the observer's empathy with the victim that creates feelings of injustice and sets in motion the process of victim derogation. To test a related point, Novak and Lerner (1968) devised a study where subjects heard an individual talking about him/herself. The person was either similar or dissimilar in personality to the subject. Half of the subjects were then given information (supposedly inadvertantly, in a note left for the experimenter) that the person they had just heard had recently suffered a mental breakdown. As expected, subjects rated the similar person as more like them and more attractive than the dissimilar person. They also expressed a greater desire to meet the similar person compared to the dissimilar person. In addition, subjects showed a preference for the normal over the mentally ill person in terms of higher ratings of similarity, attractiveness, and a willingness to meet that person. It

was the interaction, however, that was the most revealing finding. Subjects were less likely to want to meet a similar person who was mentally ill than to meet either a normal, similar person or a dissimilar, mentally ill one. Presumably the idea that someone similar to themselves had become mentally ill threatened their notion of the world being just and fair and provoked an avoidance response. The dissimilar, mentally ill person posed no threat, however, and may have even elicited an altruistic response from subjects.

One of the earliest Just World experiments, that later became the model for Just World research was conducted by Lerner and Simmons (1966). In this experiment, female subjects watched another female student (confederate) receive painful shocks for the errors she made during a learning task. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of three conditions. In one condition, they were given the opportunity to restore justice by assigning the victim to the reward condition (victim-compensated condition). In the second condition, subjects were not given the opportunity to compensate the victim. Moreover, they were told that the shocks would continue (victim-uncompensated condition). Finally, in the third condition, subjects were led to believe that the victim had agreed to receive shocks for the sake of the

experiment and so that the others (the observers) would receive credit for their participation (martyr-condition). Most subjects in the victim-compensated condition took advantage of the opportumity to reward the victim. They were also the most favourable in their evaluations of the victim. Subjects in the victim-uncompensated condition did not give favourable evaluations, with victim derogation being the most pronounced in the martyr-condition. Presumably, injustice was greatest in these two conditions. In the victim-uncompensated condition subjects could not restore justice by rewarding the victim. In the martyr-condition the victim's suffering was for the observer's benefit. Therefore, the sight of an innocent person suffering, especially when it was on the behalf of the perceiver, motivated these subjects to devalue the attractiveness of the victim in order to justify her suffering.

Just World theory (Lerner, 1970, 1980) also posits that victim derogation or blame can be in one of two forms: behavioural blame and characterlogical blame. When the victim's behaviour is exemplary, observers are motivated to derogate the victim's character. When the victim's character is above reproach, however, observers blame the victim's behaviour. Evidence for this comes from an experiment by MacDonald (1972). Subjects were presented

with written descriptions of the victim of a stabbing incident in which the innocence of the victim was varied. Observers derogated the victim's character less when the victim's behaviour was responsible for the stabbing.

Few studies examining observers' attributions of responsibility do not mention the Just World Hypothesis. Lerner (1970, 1980) has suggested that self-protective motives are behind observers' willingness to derogate an innocent victim, and a plethora of research in this area has found that under certain conditions observers will derogate a victim. There are, however, a number of conditions that must be met or victim derogation will not occur. First, the situation must be sufficiently threatening to observers to evoke the sense of injustice necessary for character derogation to occur (see Novak & Lerner, 1968). Second, the victim must appear to be innocent of any wrong doing that may have contributed to her/his victimization. Otherwise, there is no need to derogate as no injustice has occurred (see McDonald, 1972). Related to this is that rather than derogate the victim some observers seem willing to infer behavioural responsibility without there being any supportive evidence. This often occurs when the victim's character is beyond reproach (Lerner, 1980). Third, if observers are given the opportunity to restore justice (i.e., compensating the

victim for his/her suffering) then derogation is diminished (see Lerner & Simmons, 1966). Finally, if the observer strongly empathizes with the victim, derogation is also diminished. This condition has been the focus of Defensive Attribution Theory which will be discussed next.

Defensive Attribution Theory. Defensive attribution theory was introduced by Walster (1966) in her investigation of the effects of accident severity on subjects' judgments of responsibility. Her initial findings suggested that people were less likely to attribute the accident to chance and more likely to fault the perpetrator when it had severe consequences compared to when it had mild consequences. The subjects' reluctance to fault the perpetrator of a minor accident suggested a self-protective motive, that is, subjects were aware that this could happen to anyone, including themselves. These findings could not be replicated, however, and to account for this failure, Shaver (1970) introduced two new variables: personal and situational similarity. According to Shaver, motivational effects on attributions of responsibility occur when the observers believe that they could find themselves in a similar situation, that is, the condition of situational similarity holds. The observers are then motivated to deny any personal similarity to the perpetrator and as they are unlike the perpetrator, they

would never act in the same manner. This is similar to the prediction made by the Just World Hypothesis. That is, the observers' need to view the world as providing good consequences to deserving individuals (namely, themselves) motivates them to derogate or blame the victim.

Shaver (1970) in fact, conducted three experiments in an attempt to replicate Walster's (1966). His first experiment used a modification of the experimental paradigm employed by Walster (1966). An automobile accident resulted in either major or minor consequences but Shaver included a second manipulation to test the effect of personal similarity in a situationally relevant condition. The perpetrator was described as either younger, older or approximately the same age as the subjects. Shaver hypothesized that the responses would yield a curvilinear pattern with subjects judging the same aged perpetrator to be less responsible than the younger or older perpetrator. The results did not conform to Shaver's prediction. Instead, they indicated that subjects were reluctant to blame the same age perpetrator only when compared to the older one. Shaver suggested that these results were the product of social norms which hold that with increased age there is increased responsibility for one's actions.

The second experiment was similar to the first except that subjects were instructed to imagine that they were

either similar or dissimilar to the stimulus person. As predicted, perceived similarity led to a decrease in attributed responsibility. Subjects in the similar condition also judged the stimulus person to be more careful and conscientious than subjects in the dissimilar condition.

The final experiment was designed to test the effects of perceived similarity and the degree of situational relevance in attributions of responsibility. Both male and female subjects were asked to judge the responsibility of a male perpetrator for an engineering accident. Shaver hypothesized that the situation would be more personally and situationally relevant for the male subjects than for the female subjects, and therefore the female subjects would judge the perpetrator to be more responsible than would the males. No sex differences emerged, however, and a number of subjects perceived the situation to be relevant but denied any personal similarity to the perpetrator. The denial of personal similarity was not associated with higher levels of responsibility attributed to the perpetrator. Shaver concluded that subjects were engaging in self-protection regardless of the circumstances. Although they saw themselves as different and therefore not likely to behave in this manner (i.e., cause an accident),

they did not want to be held responsible if they did have an accident.

Support for Shaver's modification of defensive attribution theory comes from two other studies (Chaiken & Darley, 1973; Shaw & McMartin, 1977). Chaiken and Darley (1973) presented subjects with a videotape of a worker and a supervisor engaged in a block-stacking task. Half of the subjects were told that they would soon take the role of the supervisor, the other half were to take the worker role. Subjects witnessed the supervisor accidently topple the blocks which resulted in either a small or large monetary loss for the worker. As predicted by defensive attribution theory, future supervisors were more reluctant to blame the supervisor than future workers. In addition, the interaction was marginally significant. Future supervisors blamed the supervisor less, the greater the worker's monetary loss.

Shaw and McMartin (1977) presented male and female university students with a vignette in which either a man or a woman caused a cooking or a chemistry lab accident. In addition, severity of the accident was varied. For the males, it was assumed that the chemistry lab accident would be associated with high situational similarity and the cooking accident with low situational similarity. The reverse was assumed for the females. Moreover, it was

assumed that the male subjects would view the male perpetrator as personally similar and the female subjects would view the female perpetrator as personally similar. When personal similarity was low, the amount of responsibility attributed to the perpetrator of the accident increased with increasing severity. When personal similarity was high, attributions of responsibility decreased with increasing severity. As defensive attribution theory predicts, this effect was only found when situational similarity was high.

This defensive process was labeled "harm-avoidance" by Shaw and McMartin (1977). In "harm-avoidance", if observers do not see themselves as possible perpetrators (no personal similarity) but rather as potential victims, there is a need to avoid "chance" attributions and to find someone at fault. To the extent that personal similarity cannot be denied, subjects will attribute the incident to chance or luck rather than blaming the perpetrator. Here subjects seek "blame-avoidance" (Shaw & McMartin, 1977) given that they see themselves as a potential accident perpetrator.

Research concerned with attribution of responsibility for an accident supports defensive attribution theory when the similarity between the observer and the perpetrator are considered. Moreover, experiments that use strong subject

involvement manipulations (e.g., telling subjects they will be in the role of the perpetrator; see Chaiken & Darley, 1973 above) are more likely to find support for defensive attribution theory than studies with low involvement (e.g., Shaver, 1970; see experiments 1 & 3 above).

A comparison of Defensive Attribution Theory and the Just World Hypothesis. Similarity between the world of the protagonist and that of the perceiver is an important factor in both the Just World and Defensive Attribution theories. Differences between the two theories include (a) the focus of the research questions, (b) who observers are asked to judge, and (c) how similarity is manipulated. Whereas the Just World Hypothesis outlines the circumstances that lead observers to derogate an innocent victim, Defensive Attribution Theory outlines those factors that do not lead to blame. Further, Defensive Attribution Theory clearly stresses that there are two self-protective motives: the avoidance of harm and the avoidance of blame. Just World research has focused on examining observers' need to blame in an effort to protect themselves from injustice. Related to this, Just World research has focused on victims, whereas Defensive Attribution research has by and large focused on perpetrators of accidents. The latter theory also has been used to explain attitudes toward victims, but this is a relatively recent application

of the theory (Fulero & Delara, 1976; Jensen & Gutek, 1982). Although "chance" is a factor in both the victim and the accident perpetrator's plight, a victim may be viewed differently from an accident perpetrator. That is, the victim is more likely to be a passive actor in the scenario, whereas the perpetrator of an accident, despite the lack of intentionality, did something to cause the accident. This could explain the different focus of the questions asked in research guided by the two theories. Just World research examines victim derogation (both behavioural and characterlogical), whereas Defensive Attribution studies examine differences in perceived similarity to the perpetrator and their effects on attributions of responsibility. As the perpetrator's actions or carelessness clearly led to the accident, observers are unlikely to resort to derogation of the perpetrator's character. Therefore, Defensive Attribution research has examined exclusively attributions of responsibility.

While both theories include situational relevance as an important condition for victim blaming to occur, Defensive Attribution Theory alone distinguishes between the separate and combined effects of personal and situational similarity on attributions of responsibility. Manipulating characteristics of the perpetrator (i.e., age,

sex) results in varying personal similarity and manipulating characteristics of the situation (i.e., occupation) or the experimental task requirement (i.e., telling observers that they will play the same role as the perpetrator) results in varying situational similarity. Just World research does not include manipulations of personal and situational similarity. That is, Just World researchers avoid experimental paradigms that would elicit empathy in observers toward the victim as the theory specifies that if similarity to the stimulus person is strong (i.e., the observer "identifies" with the stimulus person), observers will not derogate the stimulus person (Lerner & Miller, 1978). If, on the other hand, there is little similarity (i.e., the situation is not relevant to the observer), there is no need to derogate because there is no threat. Therefore, situational similarity is held constant at a high level.

Application of Attribution Theory to the Context of Rape and Sexual Harassment

Attribution theory has provided researchers with a set of theoretical principles to predict and explain current societal responses to rape that also may be applied to sexual harassment. Furthermore, the rape literature provides a research methodology that can be readily modified for application in the area of sexual harassment.

Many of the issues facing social scientists interested in sexual harassment (e.g., definition, legal and social misconceptions) also face researchers studying rape. In fact, in some circumstances rape can be considered to be an extreme form of sexual harassment. A brief summary of the research on attributions of responsibility to rape victims now follows.

Attribution research focused on rape. Several factors appear to influence attribution decisions in a case of rape. Among these are the level of force used by the rapist (Krulewitz & Payne, 1978); the characteristics of the victim such as marital status (Fulero & Delara, 1976; Jones & Aronson, 1973), appearance (Alexander, 1980) and occupation (Krulewitz & Payne 1978); and any prior relationhip between the victim and her attacker (Krulewitz & Payne, 1978). Researchers have also recognized the importance of observer characteristics in determining the observer's attributions (e.g., Karuza & Carey, 1984; Deitz, Littman, & Bentley, 1984).

Given women and men's different potential roles in rape, it is not surprising that subjects' sex influences their attribution decisions concerning rape. In general, compared to women men hold a less favourable view of rape victims. They see them as more careless (Karuza, & Carey, 1984; Smith, Keating, Hester, & Mitchell, 1976),

less respectable (Fulero & Delara, 1976; Krulewitz & Payne, 1978), and more provocative in behaviour and appearance (Barnett & Field, 1977; Calhoun, Selby, & Warring, 1976; Deitz et al., 1984; Smith et al., 1976); propose a more lenient sentence for the rapist (Barnett & Field, 1977; Smith et al., 1976); and accept more myths concerning rape (Barnett & Field, 1977; Burt, 1980; Smith et al., 1976) than do women. Women's stronger feelings of empathy toward the victim (Deitz, Blackwell, Daley, & Bentley, 1982; Deitz et al., 1984; Krulewitz, 1982) as well as their concern about their own potential victimization (Fulero & Delara, 1976; Smith et al., 1976) undoubtedly results in their more positive attitudes toward rape victims. This is consistent with attribution theory which predicts that identification with the victim will lead to diminished derogation and behavioural blame.

The research findings concerning victim responsibility have been mixed, however. Some studies have reported that men blame the victim more than women (Calhoun et al., 1976; Fulero & Delara, 1976; Gilmartin-Zena, 1983; Kanekar & Vaz, 1983; Karuza & Carey, 1984), others have found that women blame the victim more than do men (Coates et al., 1979; Howard, 1984; Krulewitz & Payne, 1978; Smith et al., 1976; Thornton, Ryckman, & Robbins, 1982) while

others have found no sex differences (Acock & Ireland, 1983).

Subjects' attitudes about the role of women have been found to influence their attributions. Two studies reported that less traditional subjects empathized more with the victim and therefore blamed her less than did traditional subjects (Acock & Ireland, 1983; Deitz et al., 1982). Krulewitz and Payne (1978), on the other hand, found no significant difference between traditional and less traditional subjects on attributions of blame, although the results were in the hypothesized direction. Nonetheless, less traditional female subjects were more aware of societal factors and of the effect of social encouragement on passive female behaviour than were traditional female subjects. This same difference was not found for the males, however. Male subjects generally scored low on the Attitudes Toward Feminism Scale (FEM; Smith, Ferree, & Miller, 1975) making the distinction between traditional and less traditional subjects in the male sub-population less clear than in the female population. The finding that less traditional subjects were less likely to blame the victim than were traditional subjects is consistent with Smith et al.'s (1975) finding that the FEM scale correlates negatively with the Belief in a Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1973). That is, less

traditional subjects do not adhere to the notion of a just world to the same degree as do traditional subjects and therefore less traditional subjects would be expected to derogate or blame a victim less than would traditional subjects.

A third observer variable that has been considered is prior victimization. Few researchers have studied directly the influence of prior victimization on attributions of blame in a case of rape because of the infrequency of finding such subjects in a random sample. To overcome this, researchers have tended to use subjects' feelings of potential victimization or previous contact with rape victims as proxy variables for subject's empathy with rape victims. Coates, Wortman, and Abbey (1979) placed subjects in either a high or low rape vulnerability condition by giving them information about the incidence of rape in their community. Women in the high incidence condition expressed a greater fear of being raped than either women in the low incidence condition or male subjects. These women also held the victim to be more responsible than either the low incidence women or male subjects. Alexander (1980) found similar results in her study of nurses' reactions to rape victims. Nurses with high exposure to rape victims were more negative in their evaluations of the rape victim than were nurses with little or no prior

exposure. Defensive Attribution theory would predict that women who fear victimization or have exposure to victims would not blame the victim due to feelings of personal and situational similarity. Without directly measuring feelings of similarity to the victim, however, it cannot be assumed that being female, fearful of rape, or exposed to rape victims leads to "identification".

Researchers who did not use select groups or artificially manipulate subjects' level of perceived vulnerability obtained different results. Deitz et al. (1982) found that women who had been victims themselves empathized more with another victim than those who had not been victims. They also found that the more the subjects empathized with another victim the less they blamed her. This finding is consistent with the predictions made by Lerner and Miller (1978) and Shaver (1970, 1975).

On the basis of the literature reviewed, it is clear that knowledge of the characteristics of both the victim and the observer are important to our understanding of subjects' attribution decisions. The lack of consistent findings in the rape literature suggests that attribution decisions involve a complex process in which the victim characteristics interact with observers' characteristics. This process may be even more salient in the case of sexual harassment where the ambiguity of the situation may

increase observers' reliance on their prior beliefs and attitudes.

Attribution research on sexual harassment. Several striking similarities exist between the research findings pertaining to sexual harassment and those pertaining to rape. For example, as in the case of rape women tend to label sexual harassment as a more serious crime than do men (Loy & Stewart, 1984; Weber-Burdin & Rossi, 1982). Also, observers' judgments of situations involving sexual harassment are affected by (a) a prior relationship between the victim and the harasser (Reilly et al., 1982; Weber-Burdin & Rossi, 1982), (b) the verbal and physical actions of the characters portrayed in harassment vignettes (Reilly, et al., 1982; Weber-Burdin & Rossi, 1982), and (c) the subjects' attitudes toward women (Jensen & Gutek, 1982).

Despite these parallels, attribution of blame, which is of particular interest in psychological research dealing with rape victimization, has been almost ignored by harassment researchers. To date, only one study has attempted to apply attribution theory to sexual harassment (Jensen & Gutek, 1982). In the authors' initial survey they asked male and female subjects to state whether they agreed or disagreed with the statement "when a woman is asked by a man at work to engage in sexual relations, it is

usually because she did something to bring it about" (p. 126). There was a significant sex difference; males were more likely to agree (54.5%) with the statement than were females (44.7%). The authors suggested that female subjects may have identified with the victim role more than male subjects, resulting in less victim blame. In a second analysis, Jensen and Gutek (1982) studied female sexual harassment victims and the relationship between their attitudes toward women and their attributions of responsibility. Within this subsample, there was a difference between the attributions of the less traditional women and those of the traditional women. Those who held traditional beliefs were more likely to hold the female victim partly responsible for the harassment incident than those with less traditional views. Moreover, a high level of self-blame was associated with a high level of other-woman (another victim) blame and traditional attitudes concerning women (although the actual correlations were small). The negative attitudes toward women that are part of traditional beliefs about women may result in self-blame and the blame of other female victims. On the other hand, those who have adopted less traditional attitudes may see situational and social aspects as fostering sexual harassment, and therefore would be less likely to endorse the view that women become victims of

sexual harassment because of their own provocative behaviour.

Rationale for the Present Study

Research on sexual harassment has developed from case studies and legal cases to surveys and experiments. It has contributed to our understanding of who is most likely to be the victim of harassment, who is most likely to be the harasser, how victims react to their harassment, and when people will apply the label "sexual harassment". A disturbing finding from the survey research is that very few victims report their harassment. Presumably, they fear that the issue will be treated lightly or that they will be blamed. Therefore, it is important to examine the validity of victims' fears and uncover the circumstances that do lead others to blame the victim.

The purpose of this study was to replicate and extend research on the effects of subjects' sex and traditional versus less traditional attitudes on attributions of responsibility in a case of sexual harassment. Female and male subjects were drawn from a university student population and administered the Attitudes Toward Feminism scale (Smith, Ferree, & Miller, 1975). They were then presented with a sexual harassment scenario depicting the harassment of a student by a university professor of the opposite sex. This type of situation (harassment of a

subordinate by a superior) is generally acknowledged to be within the domain of sexual harassment (see definition adopted by the University of Calgary on pp. 4-5) and is situationally relevant to a student population. Two experimental manipulations involved the nature of the vignette: (a) the victim was either male or female and (b) the victim either blamed the harasser, blamed her/himself, or offered no opinion concerning who was to blame. These manipulations will now be discussed in turn.

Although more women than men are victims of sexual harassment, such experiences are not exclusive to women (Gutek, 1982; Tangri et al., 1982). Thus, in this context it is quite reasonable to portray the victim as female or male. Past attribution research, however, has tended to portray a female as the victim (e.g., Lerner & Simmons, 1966) and a male as the perpetrator (e.g., Jensen & Gutek, 1982; Walster, 1966) even when it was not necessary to do so. Often, then, the "victim" role has been confounded with sex of victim. Manipulating victim sex in a case of sexual harassment enabled an examination of the effect of the victim's sex on attributions concerning the victim.

The second independent variable was the victim's reaction to her/his experience. This manipulation was included to examine a suggestion by Coates et al. (1979)

that the strategies used by victims to cope with their misfortune may promote or deter empathy in others and therefore influence observers' treatment and judgments of the victim. Male and female subjects in their study listened to an audio-taped interview with a rape victim. The female victim either (a) attributed some of the blame for her rape to her own behaviour, (b) attributed her rape to chance, or (c) gave no reaction (control). In addition, the victim's affect was either positive or negative. The research examined three questions (a) how attractive or likeable the victim was, (b) how much responsibility would be assigned to the victim, and (c) how well-adjusted subjects felt the victim to be. Victims who expressed sadness and grief over their experience or who engaged in self-blame were rated as more emotionally disturbed than the victims in the other conditions. The victim who expressed negative affect was also rated as less attractive and likeable than the victim who expressed positive affect. There were no significant differences between the reaction conditions on attractiveness or responsibility ratings. Coates et al.'s (1979) findings suggest that victims who express their feelings of depression and need for comfort are most likely to be avoided or rejected by others.

This study included a condition in which the victim engaged in behavioural self-blame. It was predicted that

subjects would view the self-blaming victim as more emotionally distressed than the control victim (as found by Coates et al., 1979). As self-blame is a common victim reaction (Janoff-Bulman, 1979), it was expected to increase the feeling of similarity to the victim and therefore to decrease victim blaming compared to a control condition.

The second victim reaction used by Coates et al. (1979), "chance-blame", was not used in this study. Closer examination of Coates et al's (1979) chance-blame manipulation revealed that the victim was implicitly blaming her attacker. Although the victim used words such as "chance" and "something that was just unavoidable", there was also a strong focus on the rapist's behaviour and what he might have done (i.e., "...he could have killed me. He said he would, and he could have." "He could have had a knife..."). In this study, the second reaction condition involved the victim explicitly blaming the perpetrator. This is the kind of reaction one might expect to find in victims who report their experiences to some agency or body designed to deal with such cases. Finally, a control condition, where subjects heard only the incident and no subsequent reaction, was included to permit assessment of the effect of victim reaction on observers' attributions.

In the present study subjects were asked to evaluate the character of the victim and the harasser using bi-polar

adjectives (e.g., intelligent, unintelligent) as a measure of character derogation. Subjects were also asked to indicate the degree to which the victim and the harasser were responsible for the incident. Most rape research has focused on the victim, and only occasionally have attribution studies assessed individuals' perceptions of the rapist (e.g., Acock & Ireland, 1983). Jensen and Gutek (1982) also focused on the responsibility of the victim of sexual harassment. Knowledge of individuals' perceptions of the harasser may explain attitudes toward the victim. For instance, people who hold the harasser less responsible may view the victim as being more to blame than those who hold the harasser responsible. According to the Just World Hypothesis by allowing subjects to attribute responsibility to the perpetrator they can restore justice and therefore there is no need to derogate or blame the victim (see Lerner & Simmons, 1966 above for the effect of victim compensation). Thus, on the basis of the Just World Hypothesis it was predicted that the perpetrator would be blamed and derogated more than the victim.

In addition, measures similar to those used by Shaver (1970) were employed to assess the victim's responsibility in three specific areas: (a) the victim's actions (behavioural), (b) carelessness on the part of the victim, and (c) the kind of person they were (character). Their

purpose was to identify the reasons underlying subjects global responsibility attributions.

Empathy toward the victim may contribute to an individuals' attribution decisions, and therefore, subjects were asked to indicate how personally similar they were to the victim and how likely they were to find themselves in a situation similar to that of the victim. Subjects who indicated that the situation was highly relevant and that they were similar to the victim were expected to "identify" with the victim and therefore to not blame the victim (Lerner & Miller, 1978; Shaver, 1970, 1975; Shaw & McMartin, 1977). On the other hand, subjects who did not rate themselves as similar to the victim (i.e., low personal similarity) but viewed the situation as likely to happen to them were expected to blame either the victim's behaviour or the victim's character (Shaver, 1975; Shaw & McMartin, 1977). Finally, subjects who did not think the situation could happen to them were not expected to blame the victim because they would not be threatened (Lerner, 1980; Shaver, 1975).

The degree to which subjects feel personally and situationally similar to the victim may depend on observer characteristics such as sex and prior victimization. For instance, women, who are more commonly the victims of sexual harassment, should find a victim less blameworthy,

especially if the victim is female, than should men (as in Jensen & Gutek, 1982). Moreover, women should hold the harasser more responsible than should men as this is a role more often held by men. It is more difficult to predict how male subjects will respond to a male victim because little research has included male victims. Male subjects may sympathize more with a male victim than with a female one and therefore blame him less than a female victim. However, male subjects may simply find the situation not relevant to them, and therefore, according to attribution theory, not blame the victim, regardless of the victim's sex.

The rape literature suggests that prior victimization plays a role in individuals' attribution decisions; it also seems the most likely observer variable to increase the perceived similarity between the victim and the observer. Jensen and Gutek (1982) found that women who had been victims of sexual harassment held the victim less responsible than did women who had not been victims. Although it has never been tested, male victims of sexual harassment also will likely be less harsh to a victim of sexual harassment than males who have not been victims. Subjects were asked if they had been victimized previously so that the relationship between victimization and attributions could be assessed.

A final observer characteristic considered to be important by rape and sexual harassment researchers is subjects' adherence to traditional and less traditional attitudes about the roles of women and men. Past research that has found significant effects has always found that traditional subjects blame the victim more than do less traditional subjects (Acock & Ireland, 1983; Deitz et al., 1983; Jensen & Gutek, 1982). Therefore, in this study the effect of FEM on subjects' attributions was also examined.

In summary, male and female university students listened to an audio taped account of a hypothetical incident of sexual harassment. The victim described her/himself as either a female or male university student who had been harassed by a professor of the opposite sex. Some subjects also heard the victims' reaction to the incident, which was to either blame their own behaviour or to blame the perpetrator. Subjects evaluated the character of the victim and the perpetrator and indicated the degree to which the victim and the perpetrator were responsible for the incident. Background information on sex, age and subjects' attitudes toward feminism were obtained before subjects heard the tape. Prior victimization was measured after subjects had heard the tape and answered the attribution questions.

The major hypotheses were:

1. Female subjects will blame the victim less, particularly a female victim, than will male subjects. Moreover, female subjects will blame the harasser more than will male subjects.

2. Male subjects will blame the female victim more than the male victim.

3. Subjects who hold traditional views about the role of women and men will blame the victim more than will subjects with less traditional beliefs.

4. Subjects who rate themselves high on personal and situational similarity to the victim will attribute less responsibility to the victim and derogate the victim less than subjects who score high on situational similarity only.

5. Male and female subjects who have been victims of sexual harassment will blame the victim less and the harasser more than subjects who have not been victims.

6. Subjects will rate the victim who engages in self-blame as less adjusted than either the victim who blames the perpetrator or the control victim, with subjects rating the control victim the most adjusted.

Method

Subjects

Two hundred and forty (120 male and 120 female) University of Calgary undergraduate student volunteers, 17 to 51 years of age (M= 22.77, SD= 5.87) either were randomly selected from the psychology department subject pool or responded to posters displayed in the vicinity of the psychology department. Initial contact was by telephone. Subjects were informed that (a) the experiment dealt with people's impressions of others, (b) they would listen to a 4 min audio tape of an individual speaking, and (c) they would then answer a series of questions about the individual. Subjects were not informed that the experiment dealt with sexual harassment as such prior knowledge might have biased their responses. The session lasted approximately 30 min and subjects were paid $3.00 upon completion of the experimental task.

Materials

Construction of the vignettes was based on previous research concerning the characteristics of situations that contribute to their being labelled sexual harassment (Reilly et al., 1982; Weber-Burdin & Rossi, 1982). The results of this research indicated that if the harasser (i.e., a professor) offered the victim (i.e., a student) a reward (i.e., a good grade) for co-operating with demands

for sexual relations, or if the harasser kissed and fondled the victim, subjects were likely to rate the situation as sexual harassment. For the purposes of the present research, two stories were developed. In one story (low physical contact) the professor guaranteed the student a good grade on an essay if she/he was willing to co-operate with the professor's request for sexual relations. In addition, the professor kissed the student on the cheek. In the other story (high physical contact) the professor guaranteed the student a good grade if she/he was willing to co-operate, caressed the student's shoulder and kissed him/her on the cheek. There were also three victim reaction conditions: (a) the student responded to the incident by attributing it to his/her own behaviour (self-blame), (b) the student blamed the professor for the incident (professor-blame), and (c) the victim's account of the incident was given with no explicit victim reaction (control condition).

A pilot study was conducted to determine which of these two stories was most suitable as a stimulus in further experiments. One hundred and seventeen Introductory Psychology students were randomly assigned to one of 12 vignettes (2 Story X 2 Victim Sex X 3 Victim Reaction). The vignettes were administered in written form which permitted group testing (group sizes varied from 19

to 53). After reading the vignettes, subjects answered a series of eight questions to test (a) whether they noticed the victim blame manipulations, (b) the credibility of the victim, and (c) whether they thought the incident was sexual harassment.

Subjects were asked to give either a "yes" or "no" answer to the question "Do you think that this incident was a case of sexual harassment?" The majority of subjects labeled both vignettes as sexual harassment, that is said "yes"; 81.36% in the high physical contact condition and 72.41% in the low physical contact condition. Subjects were also asked to indicate on a 7-point scale how confident they were in their judgment. A 2 x 3 x 2 (Victim Sex x Victim Reaction x Story) analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on the responses. The analysis found no significant main effects or interactions (see Appendix A, Table 1). Overall, subjects were confident in the decision they made (M=5.71, SD= 1.37). Two three-way ANOVA's were conducted on the responses to the victim reaction questions (see Appendix A, Tables 2 and 3). The first question asked "To what extent did the student blame her/himself for the incident?" (response alternatives ranged from "1"-"did not blame self" to "7"-"blamed self"). Subjects rated the victim as blaming him/herself more in the self-blame condition (M= 5.58, SD= 1.14) than in the professor-blame

(M= 2.16, SD= 1.56) and control (M= 2.95, SD= 1.60) conditions. Scheffé's test (Kirk, 1982) revealed that the latter two conditions did not differ significantly, but both differed significantly from the self-blame condition. The second question asked "To what extent did the student blame the professor for this incident?" (response alternatives ranged from "1"-"did not blame professor" to "7"-"blamed the professor"). Subjects rated the victim as blaming the professor more in the professor-blame condition (M= 6.09, SD= 1.17) than in the self-blame (M= 2.68, SD= 1.32) and control (M= 4.63, SD= 1.66) conditions. Scheffé's test revealed that all three conditions differed significantly from one another. Thus, on the whole subjects' perceptions of the victim's reaction were consistent with the manipulated reaction. Two other significant main effects, victim sex and story, emerged but neither pertained to the suitability of the vignettes as experimental stimuli. Subjects rated the male victim (M= 4.75, SD= 2.08) as blaming the professor more than the female victim (M= 4.16 SD= 1.94) and the victims in the high physical contact condition (M= 4.76, SD= 1.36) as blaming the professor more than the victims in the low physical contact condition (M= 4.18, SD= 1.32). Although statistically significant, both differences were less than one full point on the rating scale employed.

Two three-way ANOVA's were also performed on the responses to questions concerning the victim's sincerity and truthfulness (see Appendix A, Tables 4 and 5). Subjects were asked "How sincere do you think the student was?" (response alternatives ranged from "1"-"not at all sincere" to "7"-"very sincere"). A significant three-way interaction emerged for the variable, sincerity. Simple main effects tests (see Appendix A, Table 6) indicated that when the vignette involved low physical contact the self-blaming male victim (M= 4.5, SD= 1.72) was rated as less sincere than the self-blaming female victim (M= 6.3, SD= .82). Subjects were also asked "How truthful do you think the student was?" (response alternatives ranged from "1"-"not at all" to "7"-"very truthful"). No statistically significant effects emerged, and generally, subjects rated the victim as truthful (M= 5.41, SD= 1.40).

Two three-way ANOVA's were conducted on subjects' responses to questions concerning the severity of the incident and the appropriateness of the professor's behaviour (see Appendix A, Tables 7 and 8). Subjects were asked "How severe do you think this incident was (i.e., how much did the student suffer)? (response alternatives ranged from "1"-"not at all" to "7"-"very severe"). The analysis revealed a significant main effect for victim sex. Subjects saw the incident as being more severe when the

victim was a female (M= 5.05, SD= 1.47) than when the victim was a male (M= 4.34, SD= 1.39). For the question "All things considered, do you think that the professor's behaviour was appropriate or inappropriate?" (response alternatives ranged from "1"-"very appropriate" to "7"-"very inappropriate"), no significant main effects or interactions emerged. Overall, subjects rated the professor's behaviour as inappropriate (M= 6.34, SD= 1.20).

On the basis of these data, the high physical contact condition was selected for the main experiment (see Appendix B). A somewhat larger number of subjects rated this incident as sexual harassment compared to the low physical contact condition. Moreover, the victims in the high physical contact condition were rated uniformly as sincere.

Measures

(a) Background Questionnaire

This questionnaire was designed specifically for this study to gather information about the subject's sex, age and major area of study (see Appendix C).

(b) Attitudes Toward Feminism (FEM; Smith et al., 1975).

This is a 20-item questionnaire with a 5-point Likert-type scale with end points of "strongly agree" and "strongly disagree". It is a measure of beliefs about tenants central to the feminist movement and has an

inter-item reliablility of .91. The FEM scale correlates positively with identification with the feminist movement (Smith et al, 1975) and negatively with the Just World Scale (Rubin & Peplau, 1973) providing some evidence of construct validity.

(c) Semantic Traits

Fifteen bi-polar adjectives (e.g., intelligent, unintelligent) were used to rate the character of both the victim and the perpetrator (see Appendix C). Between the two adjectives were seven spaces divided by colons; subjects made their ratings by placing a checkmark in the space representing where the perpetrator or victim fell on each dimension. These items have been used to assess character derogation in previous research on the Just World Hypothesis (e.g., Lerner & Simmons, 1966).

(d) Attribution and Sexual Harassment Questionnaire

This questionnaire was designed specifically for this study and contained 21 questions, each rated on a 7-point Likert-type scale (see Appendix C): (1) two questions assessed global responsibility, one for the victim and one for the perpetrator; (2) three questions assessed the victim's responsibility for reasons of behaviour, carelessness, and character; (3) three questions assessed agreement with "beliefs" about sexual harassment; (4) one question assessed whether the perpetrator misused his/her

authority; (5) two questions assessed personal and situational similarity between the subjects and the victim; (6) one question assessed the perceived frequency of such incidents; (7) the victim reaction and believability manipulation checks used in the pilot study; (8) one question assessed the severity of the incident; (9) two questions assessed the victim's level of mental adjustment (adopted from Coates et al., 1979), and (10) one question assessed the appropriateness of the perpetrator's behaviour. Subjects were also asked if the situation should be labelled as sexual harassment yes/no and rated their confidence in this decision on a 7-point scale. Finally, subjects indicated (a) whether the victim should report the incident (7-point scale) and why or why not, (b) what punitive actions should be taken against the perpetrator (choices ranged from nothing to being suspended) and (c) if they had ever been sexually harassed. Subjects with a history of harassment were invited to briefly describe the incident(s) in open-ended fashion if they so desired. A final statement was added which provided subjects who had been victims of sexual harassment with the opportunity to receive counselling.

Procedures

Subjects were randomly assigned to one of the six conditions (female/male victim X self-blame

/professor-blame/ no reaction). They were tested either individually or in dyads. When tested in dyads, subjects were placed at separate tables and asked to not talk to one another or make any overt responses (e.g., laughing) while listening to the tape or answering the subsequent questions. A cover sheet to the questionnaire repeated information given over the telephone about the nature of the experiment. The consent form stated that all responses would remain confidential and that subjects were free to withdraw from the study at any time (see Appendix D). To ensure confidentiality subjects were assigned an identification number that was written on each questionnaire. The background questionnaire and the FEM scale were administered before subjects were exposed to the experimental vignette. After hearing the tape, subjects rated the character of both the victim and the perpetrator using the bi-polar adjectives and then completed the attribution and sexual harassment questionnaire. Once all of the questionnaires were completed, subjects were debriefed and were invited to ask questions about the nature of the study or the issue of sexual harassment. Subjects were then paid and thanked for their participation.

Results

For all analyses, α was set at .05. Post-hoc comparisons were conducted using Tukey's HSD test (Kirk, 1982), unless otherwise indicated.

Checks on Credibility of Experimental Procedures

Analysis of the two manipulation checks was needed to verify that subjects had correctly perceived the victim's attributions of blame (self vs professor). A three-way analysis of variance (ANOVA; Subject Sex x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction) for the self-blame manipulation check revealed a statistically significant main effect for victim reaction, $F(2, 228) = 177.37$ (see Table 1). Post-hoc comparisons revealed that subjects in both the professor-blame ($M = 2.03$, $SD = 1.55$) and the control ($M = 2.94$, $SD = 1.23$) conditions were significantly less likely to rate the victim as self-blaming than subjects in the self-blame condition ($M = 5.81$, $SD = 1.12$). In addition, the professor-blame and control conditions differed significantly from each other.

The ANOVA for the professor-blame manipulation check also yielded a statistically significant main effect for victim reaction, $F(2,228) = 180.05$ (see Table 2). Post-hoc

Table 1:

Summary Table for Subject Sex x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction ANOVA on Self-blame Manipulation Check

Source	df	MS	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	1.350	0.77
Victim Sex (VS)	1	2.400	1.36
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	312.579	177.37**
SS X VS	1	2.400	1.36
SS X VR	2	0.612	0.35
VS X VR	2	4.362	2.48
SS X VS X VR	2	0.463	0.26
ERROR	228	1.762	

**$p<.01$

Table 2:

Summary Table for Subject Sex x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction ANOVA on Professor-blame Manipulation Check

Source	df	MS	F
SS	1	3.750	2.24
VS	1	0.150	0.09
VR	2	301.667	180.05**
SS X VS	1	0.150	0.09
SS X VR	2	0.050	0.03
VS X VR	2	1.400	0.84
SS X VS X VR	2	2.452	1.46
ERROR	228	1.675	

**$p<.01$

comparisons revealed that subjects in both the self-blame (M= 2.73, SD= 1.42) and the control (M= 5.48, SD= 1.42) conditions were significantly less likely to rate the victim as blaming the perpetrator than subjects in the professor-blame condition (M= 6.48, SD= .99). In addition, the self-blame and control conditions differed significantly from each other.

Two questions concerned the sincerity and truthfulness of the victim. Analyses of subjects' responses to these questions assessed whether subjects viewed the victim's testimony as credible. The ANOVA for sincerity revealed two significant main effects: subject sex, F(1,228)= 3.90, and victim sex, F(1,228)= 6.21 (see Table 3). Female subjects viewed the victim as more sincere (M= 5.78, SD= 1.22) than did male subjects (M= 5.47, SD= 1.21). Moreover, subjects in general rated the female victim as more sincere (M= 5.83, SD= 1.11) than the male victim (M= 5.43, SD= 1.39). Overall, the victim was viewed as sincere. For victim truthfulness, the ANOVA revealed a significant main effect for victim sex, F(1,228)= 5.90, and a significant Victim Sex x Victim Reaction interaction, F(2,228)= 4.12 (see Table 4). Overall, the female victim was rated as more truthful (M= 5.78, SD= 1.16) than the male victim (M=5.40, SD= 1.34).

Table 3:

Summary Table for Subject Sex x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction ANOVA on Sincerity

Source	df	MS	F
SS	1	6.017	3.89*
VS	1	9.600	6.21*
VR	2	3.150	2.04
SS X VS	1	1.667	1.08
SS X VR	2	2.217	1.43
VS X VR	2	1.850	1.20
SS X VS X VR	2	1.067	0.69
ERROR	228	1.547	

* $p<.05$

Table 4:

Summary Table for Subject Sex x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction ANOVA on Truthfulness

Source	df	MS	F
SS	1	0.267	0.18
VS	1	8.817	5.90*
VR	2	3.679	2.46
SS X VS	1	5.400	3.61
SS X VR	2	3.304	2.21
VS X VR	2	6.154	4.12*
SS X VS X VR	2	0.163	0.11
ERROR	228	1.495	

* $p<.05$

Post-hoc comparisons of the means involved in the interaction revealed that subjects in the control condition rated the male victim as less truthful than the female victim (see Table 5). Also, subjects rated the female victim in the professor-blame condition as less truthful than the female victim in the control condition. No other means differed significantly. In general, however, subjects rated the victim as truthful.

It was also important to determine whether or not subjects viewed the situation as sexual harassment. Only 36 subjects (15%) did not think the incident was sexual harassment. Therefore, three chi-square (χ^2) analyses were conducted to examine the distribution of "Yes" and "No" responses across levels of subject sex, victim sex, and victim reaction (see Table 6). Interaction effects could not be calculated as cell frequencies were too small to yield reliable results. The only significant effect involved subject sex, $\chi^2(1, N(240) = 11.80)$. More female subjects (93%) viewed the incident as sexual harassment than did males (77%).

Subjects were asked to indicate how confident they were in their judgment that the incident was or was not sexual harassment. A three-way ANOVA (Subject Sex X Victim Sex X Victim Reaction) indicated a main effect for subject sex, $F(1,228) = 6.27$ (see Table 7). On average, females

Table 5:

Victim Sex and Victim Reaction Interaction for Truthfulness

	male victim		female victim	
	M	SD	M	SD
self-blame	5.68	1.47	5.90	0.93
professor-blame	5.40	1.13	5.33	1.23
control	5.13	1.36	6.13	1.18

Note. n= 80.

Table 6

Chi-square Analyses for Sexual Harassment Ratings

Subject Sex

	male subject	female subject
yes	92	112
no	28	8

Note. $\chi^2(1, N=240) = 11.80$, $p<.05$

Victim Sex

	male victim	female victim
yes	97	107
no	23	13

Note. $\chi^2(1, N=240) = 2.65$, n.s.

Victim Reaction

	self-blame	professor-blame	control
yes	69	66	69
no	11	14	11

Note. $\chi^2(1, N=240) = .59$, n.s.

Table 7:

Summary Table for Subject Sex x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction ANOVA on Subject Confidence in Their Judgment of Sexual Harassment

Source	df	MS	F
SS	1	12.604	6.27*
VS	1	2.204	1.10
VR	2	2.188	1.09
SS X VS	1	0.504	0.25
SS X VR	2	5.329	2.65
VS X VR	2	3.454	1.72
SS X VS X VR	2	4.429	2.20
ERROR	228	2.010	

* $p<.05$

were more confident in their decision (M= 6.07, SD= 1.28) than were males (M= 5.61, SD= 1.58).

Hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed on the rest of the measures unless otherwise stated. The effects were ordered in the same manner for all analyses (see Table 8). Sex of subject was entered before FEM as a person's sex precedes the development of opinions concerning sex-roles and feminism. In addition, interactions involving sex of subject were entered before interactions involving FEM at each order of interaction. Post-hoc comparisons were conducted using Tukey's HSD test or the Johnson-Neyman technique (Huitema, 1980). Whenever the main effect of FEM was statistically significant, post-hoc comparisons of means involved in main effects or interactions that did not include FEM were conducted on adjusted means. In this case a modification of Tukey's HSD test was employed (Dunn, personal communication; see Appendix E).

Subjects were asked to indicate how frequently they thought such incidents happened. There were significant main effects for subject sex, $F(1,216)=16.10$, and FEM, $F(1,216)=6.92$. There was also a significant Victim Sex x Victim Reaction interaction, $F(2,216)=3.20$, and a Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction interaction, $F(2,216)=5.05$ (see Table 9). Female subjects rated the

Table 8:

Order of Effect Entry for Multiple Regression Analyses

Step	
1	Subject Sex (SS)
2	Attitudes Toward Feminism (FEM)
3	SS X FEM
4	Victim Sex (VS)
5	Victim Reaction (VR)
6	SS X VS
7	SS X VR
8	FEM X VS
9	FEM X VR
10	VS X VR
11	SS X VS X VR
12	SS X FEM X VS
13	SS X FEM X VR
14	FEM X VS X VR
15	SS X FEM X VS X VR

Table 9

Summary Table for Regression on Frequency

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	28.704	.06	16.10**
FEM	1	12.343	.03	6.92**
SS X FEM	1	0.542	.00	0.30
Victim Sex (VS)	1	6.114	.01	3.43
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	3.408	.01	1.91
SS X VS	1	3.992	.00	2.24
SS X VR	2	1.050	.00	0.59
FEM X VS	1	0.112	.00	0.06
FEM X VR	2	0.552	.00	0.31
VS X VR	2	5.711	.02	3.20*
SS X VS X VR	2	0.817	.00	0.46
SS X FEM X VS	1	0.224	.00	0.13
SS X FEM X VR	2	0.490	.00	0.27
FEM X VS X VR	2	4.448	.02	2.49
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	9.003	.04	5.05**
ERROR	216	1.783		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

frequency of such incidents as higher (M= 4.28, SD= 1.45) than did male subjects (M= 3.60, SD= 1.33). The correlation between FEM and the frequency measure was .25 (b=.10), indicating that the higher subjects' FEM score (i.e., less traditional) the more frequently they thought such incidents occurred. Post-hoc comparisons of the Victim Sex x Victim Reaction interaction means indicated that subjects in the male victim conditions rated the frequency of such incidents as higher in the self-blame condition than in the professor-blame or control conditions (see Table 10 for M's and SD's). There was no significant difference between the professor-blame and control conditions. Also, in the control condition subjects rated the frequency of such incidents as higher when the victim was female than when the victim was male. No other comparisons were significant. Examination of the regression coefficients associated with the Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction interaction indicated that only for male subjects in the female victim, professor-blame reaction condition did FEM influence ratings of frequency, b=.09, t(1,19)= 3.34 (see Appendix F for the regression coefficients). As this question was not a major focus of this study and there was only one significant b, no further analyses were performed.

Table 10

Victim Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Frequency

	male victim			female victim		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
self-blame	4.30	4.33	1.34	4.04	4.00	1.39
professor-blame	3.62	3.63	1.41	4.01	3.95	1.18
control	3.49	3.48	1.29	4.14	4.30	1.51

Note. n=40.

Subjects were also asked to indicate how severe they thought the incident was. There were significant main effects for subject sex, $F(1,216)=5.34$, and FEM$(1,216)=5.22$ (see Table 11). Female subjects rated the incident as more severe (M= 5.05, SD= 1.32) than did male subjects (M= 4.63, SD= 1.49). The correlation between FEM and severity was .16 (b=.02), indicating that less traditional subjects rated the incident as more severe than did traditional subjects.

Finally, subjects were asked to indicate on a 7-point scale whether the perpetrator's actions were a direct misuse of authority. Female subjects were more likely to rate the perpetrator's actions as a misuse of authority (M= 1.33, SD= 0.89) than were male subjects (M= 1.73, SD= 1.11), $F(1,216)$= 9.55 (see Table 12).

Summary. Analysis of the manipulation checks revealed that subjects were aware of the victim's reaction to the incident. In addition, subjects generally rated the victim as sincere and truthful. The majority of subjects labelled the incident as sexual harassment, and rated the perpetrator as abusing his/her position of power. Subjects also gave moderate (i.e., mid-scale) ratings of severity and frequency. There were significant sex differences on several of these measures. The female subjects applied the label "sexual harassment" more often than did the male

Table 11

Summary Table for Regression on Severity

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	10.417	.02	5.34*
FEM	1	10.181	.02	5.22*
SS X FEM	1	6.766	.01	3.47
Victim Sex (VS)	1	3.221	.01	1.65
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	1.618	.01	0.83
SS X VS	1	1.443	.00	0.74
SS X VR	2	1.462	.01	0.75
FEM X VS	1	3.094	.01	1.59
FEM X VR	2	0.236	.00	0.12
VS X VR	2	4.364	.02	2.24
SS X VS X VR	2	0.212	.00	0.11
SS X FEM X VS	1	0.070	.00	0.04
SS X FEM X VR	2	0.590	.00	0.30
FEM X VS X VR	2	4.575	.02	2.35
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	0.467	.00	0.24
ERROR	216	1.950		

* $p<.05$

Table 12

Summary Table for Regression on Authority

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	9.600	.04	9.55**
FEM	1	1.312	.01	1.31
SS X FEM	1	0.125	.00	0.12
Victim Sex (VS)	1	1.234	.00	1.23
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	1.486	.01	1.48
SS X VS	1	0.028	.00	0.03
SS X VR	2	1.856	.01	1.85
FEM X VS	1	0.134	.00	0.13
FEM X VR	2	0.125	.00	0.12
VS X VR	2	1.645	.01	1.64
SS X VS X VR	2	0.344	.00	0.34
SS X FEM X VS	1	2.497	.01	2.48
SS X FEM X VR	2	2.983	.02	2.97
FEM X VS X VR	2	0.382	.00	0.38
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	0.781	.01	0.78
ERROR	216	1.005		

**$p<.01$

subjects. They were also more confident in their judgment than were the males. Moreover, females rated the situation as more frequent and severe than did the males and rated the perpetrator as abusing her/his authority more than did the male subjects. FEM correlated with the measures of frequency and severity, with traditional subjects giving lower ratings than less traditional subjects. The experimental variables also influenced subjects' frequency ratings; the incident was viewed as more likely to occur in the control condition when the victim was a female than when the victim was a male. Subjects also rated the frequency higher when the male victim engaged in self-blame than when he blamed the perpetrator or gave no reaction.

Attribution of Responsibility

Victim character. Subjects evaluated the victim's character using a list of 15 bipolar adjectives. Scores on each of the adjective pairs were summed to obtain a total rating of the victim's character (the possible range of scores was from 15 to 105). There were significant main effects for FEM, $F(1,216)= 8.33$, and victim reaction, $F(2,216)= 3.04$, and a Subject Sex x Victim Reaction interaction, $F(2,216)= 3.67$ (see Table 13). The correlation between FEM and the victim's character evaluation was .21 ($b= .20$), indicating that the higher the subject's FEM score the more positively they evaluated the

Table 13

Summary Table for Regression on Victim Character Evaluation

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	390.150	.01	3.50
FEM	1	927.901	.03	8.33**
SS X FEM	1	37.659	.00	0.34
Victim Sex (VS)	1	417.238	.01	3.75
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	338.679	.02	3.04*
SS X VS	1	106.799	.00	0.96
SS X VR	2	409.161	.03	3.67*
FEM X VS	1	3.27	.00	0.03
FEM X VR	2	94.402	.01	0.85
VS X VR	2	155.183	.01	1.39
SS X VS X VR	2	231.481	.02	2.08
SS X FEM X VS	1	26.009	.00	0.23
SS X FEM X VR	2	60.626	.00	0.54
FEM X VS X VR	2	13.107	.00	0.12
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	252.876	.02	2.27
ERROR	216	111.345		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

victim's character. Subjects evaluated the self-blaming victim (M= 75.17, SD= 9.34, Adjusted M= 75.21) more positively than either the professor-blaming (M= 70.83, SD= 10.32, Adjusted M= 71.06) or control (M= 73.89, SD= 11.57, Adjusted M= 73.61) victims. In addition, the control victim was evaluated more positively than the professor-blaming victim.

Post-hoc analysis of the means involved in the interaction indicated that male subjects in the control condition evaluated the victim's character more positively than male subjects in the professor-blame condition (see Table 14 for M's and SD). For males, there were no other significant differences. Female subjects in the self-blame condition evaluated the victim's character more favourably than female subjects in either the professor-blame or control conditions, but there were no significant differences between the latter two groups. Finally, female subjects evaluated the self-blaming victim more favourably than did male subjects, whereas male subjects evaluated the control victim more favourably than did female subjects.

Two other questions that pertained to the victim's character were those related to victim adjustment and whether the victim was dwelling on the incident. The scale for the victim adjustment measure was reversed during data entry so that a high score indicated that the victim was

Table 14

Subject Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Victim Character Evaluation

	male subject			female subject		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
self-blame	72.87	72.18	9.41	77.54	78.15	9.26
professor-blame	70.05	68.60	9.78	72.05	73.05	10.85
control	75.71	75.28	12.61	71.54	72.50	10.53

Note. n= 40.

adjusted. Originally subjects' responses to this question and the question concerning whether the victim was dwelling on the incident were to be summed. The two measures were not sufficiently correlated to warrant collapsing the data, however, $r(240) = .26$, and therefore separate regression analyses were performed on each measure.

For the question concerning victim adjustment the analysis yielded a significant main effect for FEM, $F(1,216) = 12.89$, and two significant interactions: Subject Sex x Victim Sex, $F(1,216) = 5.15$, and Subject Sex x Victim Reaction, $F(2,216) = 5.50$ (see Table 15). The correlation between FEM and the victim adjustment measure was .21 ($b = .04$), indicating that less traditional subjects rated the victim as more adjusted than did traditional subjects. Post-hoc comparisons of the means involved in the Subject Sex x Victim Sex interaction indicated that female subjects rated the male victim as more adjusted ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.80$, Adjusted $M = 4.14$) than the female victim ($M = 3.70$, $SD = 1.36$, Adjusted $M = 3.59$). Moreover, female subjects rated the female victim as less adjusted than did male subjects ($M = 4.10$, $SD = 1.61$, Adjusted $M = 4.24$). Male subjects' ratings of the male victim ($M = 3.73$, $SD = 1.60$, Adjusted $M = 3.89$) did not differ significantly from the other three groups. Post-hoc comparisons on the Subject Sex x Victim Reaction interaction indicated that male

Table 15

Summary Table for Regression on Victim Adjustment

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	0.504	.00	0.21
FEM	1	30.585	.05	12.89**
SS X FEM	1	0.191	.00	0.08
Victim Sex (VS)	1	0.557	.00	0.23
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	1.764	.01	0.74
SS X VS	1	12.216	.02	5.15*
SS X VR	2	13.046	.04	5.50**
FEM X VS	1	0.080	.00	0.03
FEM X VR	2	3.319	.01	1.40
VS X VR	2	0.005	.00	0.00
SS X VS X VR	2	2.431	.01	1.02
SS X FEM X VS	1	0.440	.00	0.19
SS X FEM X VR	2	7.187	.02	3.03
FEM X VS X VR	2	0.912	.00	0.38
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	1.684	.01	0.71
ERROR	216	2.373		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

subjects rated the control victim as more adjusted than either the self-blame or professor-blame victims (see Table 16 for M's and SD's). There was no significant difference between the self-blame and the professor-blame groups. Female subjects, however, rated the control victim as less adjusted than either the self-blame or professor-blame victims. Again there were no significant differences between the self-blame and professor-blame groups. Finally, males rated the control victim as more adjusted than did females.

For the questions on whether the victim was dwelling on the incident the analysis revealed a main effect for victim reaction, $F(2,216)= 9.63$, and a significant Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Reaction interaction, $F(2,216)= 4.99$ (see Table 17). Post-hoc analyses for the victim reaction main effect indicated that subjects rated both the self-blaming ($M= 2.88$, $SD= 1.77$) and professor-blaming victims ($M= 2.96$, $SD= 1.29$) as dwelling on the incident more than the control victim ($M= 3.71$, $SD= 1.35$). Only one of the regression coefficients associated with the interaction was significant; less traditional attitudes among the male subjects in the professor-blame condition were associated with ratings indicating that the victim was not dwelling on the incident, $b= .03$, $t(1,39)= 3.08$ (see Appendix F Table 2).

Table 16

Subject Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Adjustment

	male subject			female subject		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
self-blame	3.97	3.85	1.64	4.27	4.38	1.63
professor-blame	3.70	3.45	1.43	3.93	4.10	1.43
control	4.52	4.45	1.63	3.39	3.55	1.71

Note. n= 40.

Table 17

Summary Table for Regression on Victim Dwelling on Incident

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	5.104	.01	3.19
FEM	1	3.803	.01	2.38
SS X FEM	1	2.131	.01	1.33
Victim Sex (VS)	1	1.218	.00	0.76
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	15.410	.07	9.63**
SS X VS	1	0.525	.00	0.33
SS X VR	2	2.108	.01	1.32
FEM X VS	1	0.193	.00	0.12
FEM X VR	2	1.664	.01	1.04
VS X VR	2	0.124	.00	0.08
SS X VS X VR	2	2.787	.01	1.74
SS X FEM X VS	1	0.112	.00	0.07
SS X FEM X VR	2	7.982	.04	4.99**
FEM X VS X VR	2	0.752	.00	0.47
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	1.470	.01	0.92
ERROR	216	1.600		

**$p<.01$

Perpetrator character. Subjects evaluated the perpetrator's character using the same bipolar adjectives. Significant main effects for subject sex, $F(1,216)=11.03$, victim sex, $F(1,216)= 5.10$, and victim reaction, $F(2,216)= 6.04$, were found (see Table 18). There were also two statistically significant interactions: Subject Sex x Victim Reaction, $F(2,216)= 3.64$, and Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Reaction, $F(2,216)= 4.38$. Male subjects evaluated the perpetrator more favourably ($M= 60.17$, $SD= 11.14$) than did female subjects ($M= 55.50$, $SD= 11.67$), and subjects in general evaluated the perpetrator more favourably when the victim was male ($M=59.34$, $SD=11.48$) than when the victim was female ($M= 56.33$, $SD= 11.18$). Post-hoc comparisons of the means involved in the victim reaction main effect indicated that the perpetrator was evaluated more favourably in the self-blame condition ($M= 61.35$, $SD= 11.01$) than in either the professor-blame ($M= 56.36$, $SD= 10.87$) or control ($M= 55.79$, $SD= 11.21$) conditions.

Post-hoc analysis of the Subject Sex x Victim Reaction interaction indicated that males in the self-blame condition evaluated the perpetrator's character more positively than did males in the professor-blame condition, but neither group differed significantly from the control condition (see Table 19 for M's and SD's). There were no significant differences between the three reaction

Table 18

Summary Table for Regression on Perpetrator Character Evaluation

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	1306.667	.04	11.03**
FEM	1	302.138	.01	2.55
SS X FEM	2	32.624	.00	0.28
Victim Sex (VS)	1	604.649	.02	5.10*
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	715.904	.04	6.04**
SS X VS	1	38.637	.00	0.35
SS X VR	2	431.507	.03	3.64*
FEM X VS	1	87.425	.00	0.79
FEM X VR	2	11.760	.00	0.10
VS X VR	2	40.772	.00	0.34
SS X VS X VR	2	21.423	.00	0.18
SS X FEM X VS	1	408.094	.01	3.45
SS X FEM X VR	2	518.542	.03	4.38*
FEM X VS X VR	2	44.211	.00	0.37
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	20.756	.00	0.18
ERROR	216	118.445		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

Table 19

Subject Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Perpetrator Character Evaluation

	male subject		female subject	
	M	SD	M	SD
self-blame	64.75	10.50	57.95	11.52
professor-blame	56.25	11.14	56.48	10.59
control	59.50	10.48	52.08	11.93

Note. n= 40.

conditions for the female subjects. Nonetheless, male subjects in the control condition evaluated the perpetrator's character more favourably than did female subjects in the control condition. There were no other statistically significant differences.

The three-way interaction is shown in Figures 1, 2, and 3 in terms of the three FEM x Subject Sex simple interactions at each level of victim reaction. The regression lines are plotted only within the range of FEM scale values obtained by the subjects in the study as extrapolation is inappropriate. In addition, the standard error is shown for the end points of each regression line. Post-hoc analyses were conducted using the Johnson-Neyman technique on 9 of the 15 possible comparisons. Six comparisons were excluded because they involved different levels of both subject sex and victim reaction. Of the nine comparisons four yielded significant results. None of the significant comparisons were between the three female subject groups, and only one of them involved the male subject groups. For males who scored higher than 81.32 (i.e., toward the less traditional end) on the FEM scale, those in the self-blame condition evaluated the perpetrator's character more favourably than did those in the professor-blame condition (compare male subjects in Figures 1 and 2). All three comparisons between male and

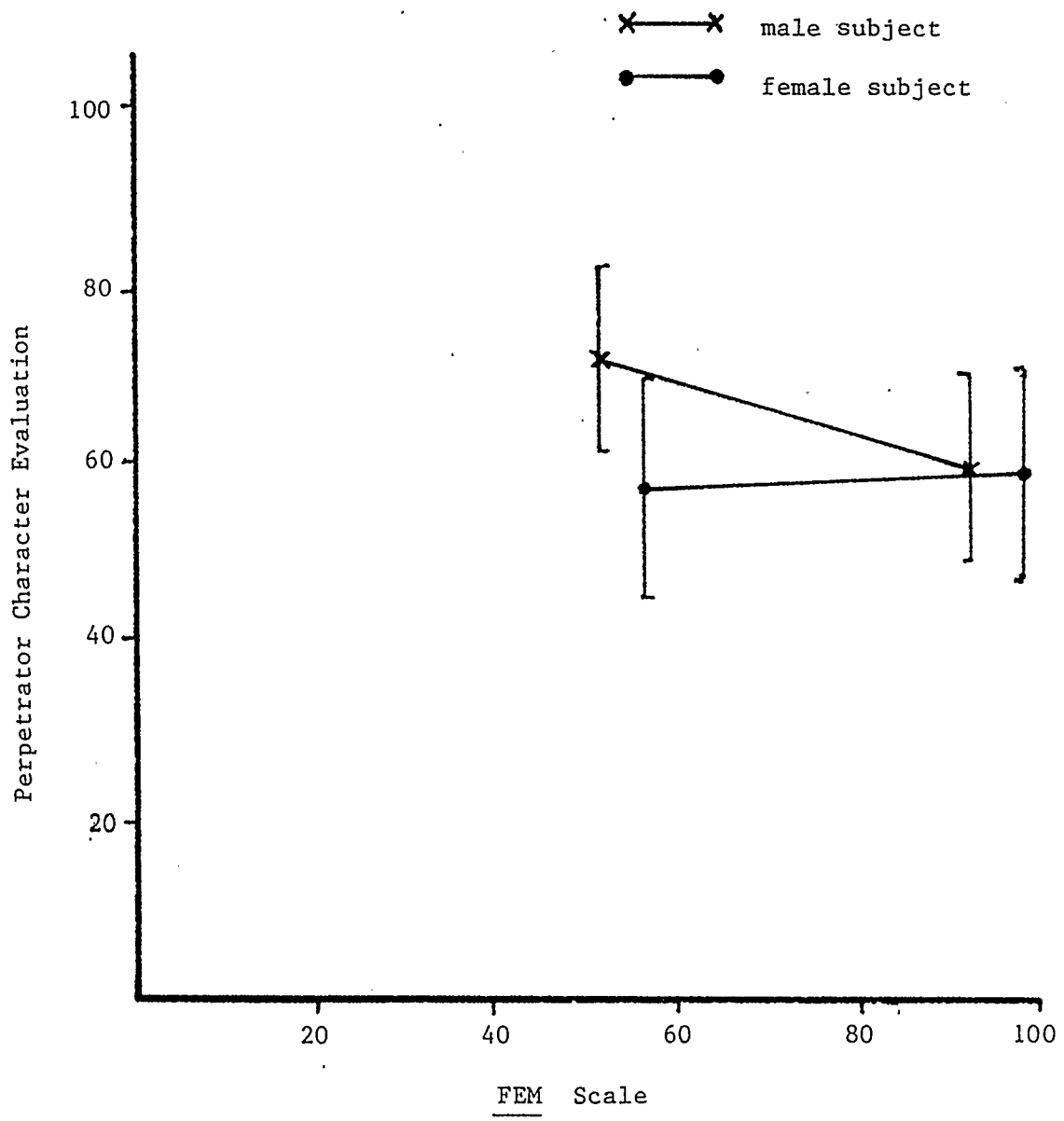

Figure 1: Subject Sex x FEM simple interaction on perpetrator character evaluation for self-blame condition. Male subject b= -.28, female subject b= .04.

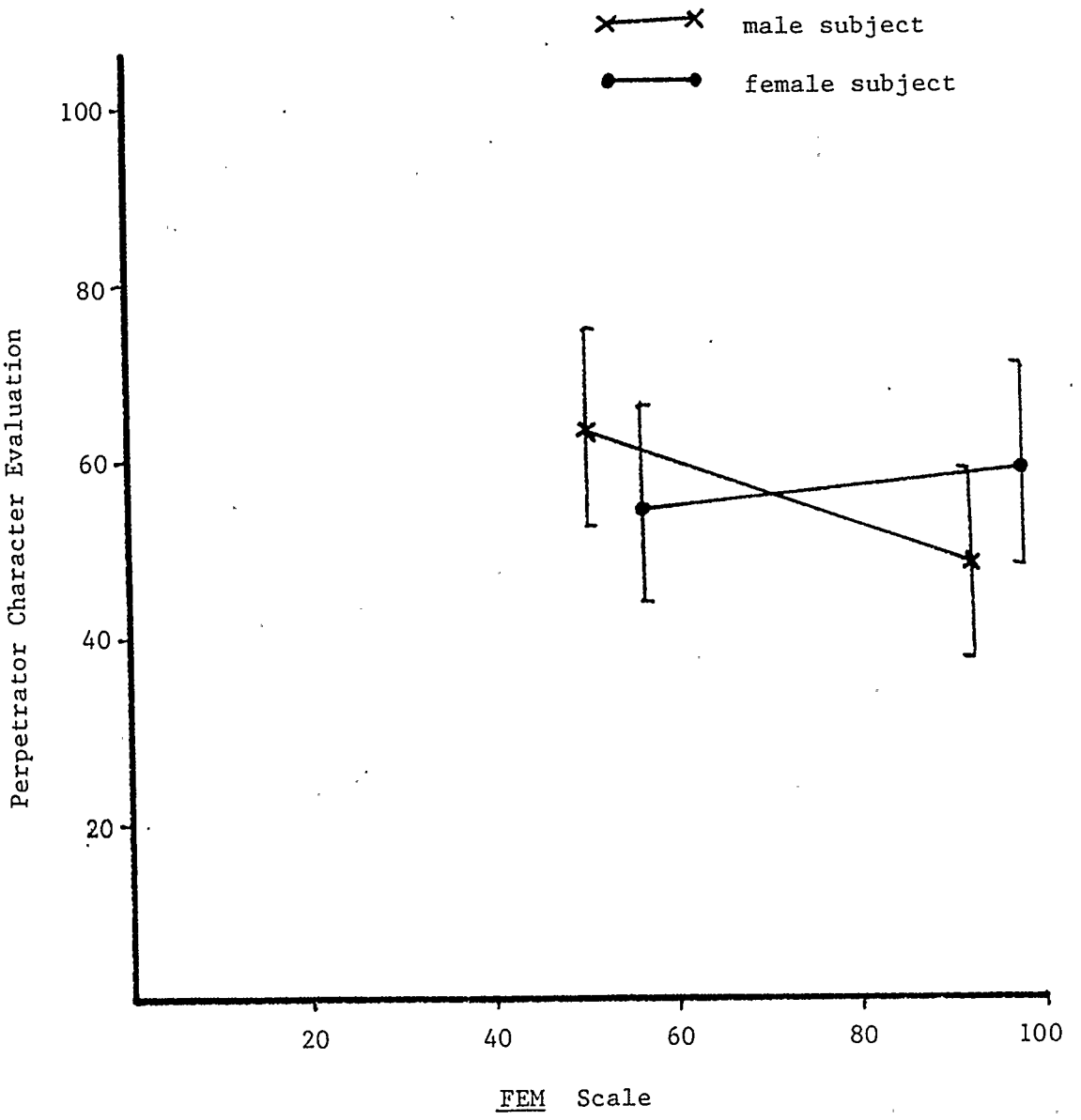

Figure 2: Subject Sex x FEM simple interaction on perpetrator character evaluation for professor-blame condition. Male subject b= -.38, female subject b= .08.

female subjects revealed significant differences. In the self-blame condition for subjects who scored below 61.3 (i.e., toward the traditional end) on the FEM scale, the males evaluated the perpetrator's character more positively than did the female subjects (see Figure 1). In the professor-blame condition for subjects who scored below 60.72 (i.e., toward the traditional end) on the FEM scale, males again gave a more positive evaluation of the perpetrator than did the females (see Figure 2). Finally, in the control condition for subjects who scored above 81 (i.e., toward the less traditional end) on the FEM scale, the males rated the perpetrator's character more favourably than did the female subjects (see Figure 3).

Global responsibility and chance. Subjects rated the responsibility of the victim and the perpetrator on 7-point scales. In addition, they rated the extent to which the incident was due to the victim being in the wrong place at the wrong time (chance). The analysis of victim responsibility yielded a significant main effect for FEM, $F(1,216) = 11.13$, and three significant interactions: Subject Sex x Victim Reaction, $F(2,216) = 4.02$, FEM x Victim Sex, $F(1,216) = 6.65$, and Victim Sex x Victim Reaction, $F(2,216) = 3.51$ (see Table 20). The correlation between FEM and the victim's responsibility was -.20, ($b = -.03$), indicating that subjects who scored high on the FEM scale

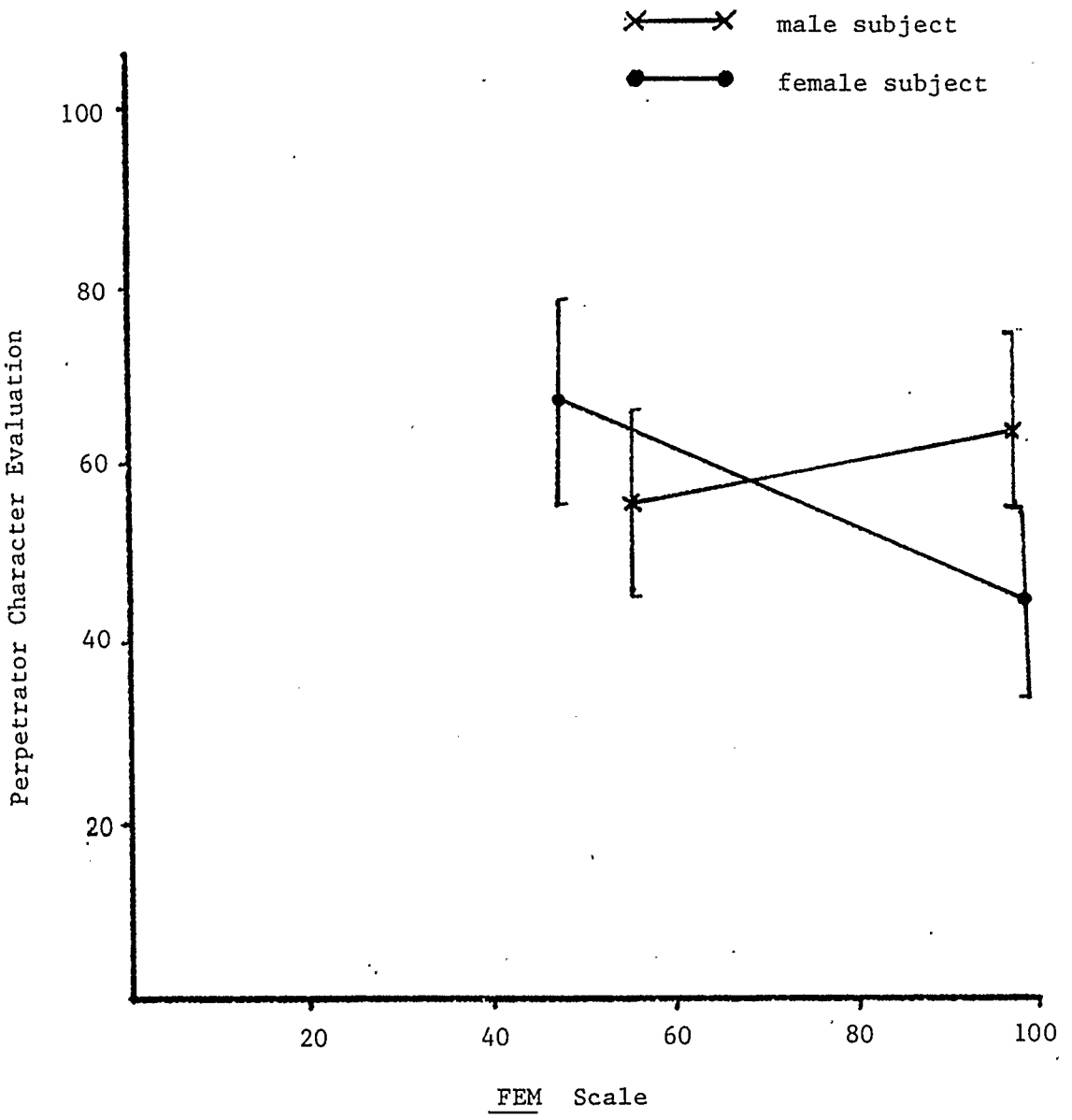

Figure 3: Subject Sex x FEM simple interaction on perpetrator character evaluation for control condition. Male subject b= .19, female subject b= -.42.

Table 20:

Summary Table for Regression on Victim Global Responsibility

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	0.267	.00	0.11
FEM	1	27.859	.04	11.13**
SS X FEM	1	2.309	.00	0.92
Victim Sex (VS)	1	6.980	.01	2.79
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	4.784	.01	1.91
SS X VS	1	3.758	.00	1.50
SS X VR	2	10.046	.03	4.02*
FEM X VS	1	16.632	.03	6.65**
FEM X VR	2	0.000	.00	0.00
VS X VR	2	8.785	.03	3.51*
SS X VS X VR	2	1.222	.00	0.49
SS X FEM X VS	1	0.944	.00	0.38
SS X FEM X VR	2	0.183	.00	0.07
FEM X VS X VR	2	1.529	.00	0.61
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	1.026	.00	0.41
ERROR	216	2.502		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

ascribed less responsibility to the victim than subjects who scored low on the FEM scale.

Post-hoc comparisons on the means involved in the Subject Sex x Victim Reaction interaction indicated that male subjects in the self-blame condition held the victim more responsible than male subjects in either the professor-blame or control conditions (see Table 21 for M's and SD's). There was no significant difference between the professor-blame and control conditions. Female subjects in the self-blame condition held the victim less responsible than female subjects in the professor-blame condition, but neither group differed significantly from the control condition. Finally, in the self-blame condition male subjects held the victim more responsible than female subjects, whereas in both the professor-blame and control conditions female subjects held the victim more responsible than male subjects.

Post-hoc comparisons for the Victim Sex x Victim Reaction interaction indicated that subjects in the self-blame condition ascribed more responsibility to the male victim than did subjects in either the professor-blame or control conditions (see Table 22 for the M's and SD's). There was no significant difference between the latter two groups. Subjects in the professor-blame condition held the female victim more responsible than subjects in either the

Table 21:

Subject Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Victim Responsibility

	male subjects			female subjects		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
self-blame	3.25	3.38	1.33	2.68	2.58	1.67
professor-blame	2.64	2.90	1.40	3.20	3.03	1.93
control	2.17	2.25	1.48	2.89	2.73	1.71

Note. n= 40.

Table 22:

Victim Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Victim Global Responsibility

	male victim			female victim		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
self-blame	3.07	3.03	1.43	2.86	2.93	1.56
professor-blame	2.38	2.38	1.52	3.47	3.55	1.81
control	2.44	2.45	1.59	2.62	2.53	1.60

Note. n= 40.

self-blame or control conditions, but there was no significant difference between the self-blame and control conditions. Finally, in the professor-blame condition subjects held the female victim more responsible than they did the male victim. There were no other statistically significant differences.

Post-hoc analysis of the FEM x Victim Sex interaction revealed that subjects who scored below 75.47 (i.e., toward the traditional end) on the FEM scale held the female victim more responsible than they did the male victim (see Figure 4).

The analysis of the perpetrator's responsibility yielded significant main effects for FEM, $F(1,216)= 9.54$, and victim reaction, $F(2,216)= 3.50$ (see Table 23). The correlation between FEM and perpetrator responsibility was .21, ($b= .02$), indicating that subjects who ascribed more responsibility to the perpetrator tended to score higher on the FEM scale than did subjects who held the perpetrator less responsible. Post-hoc comparisons of the victim reaction means revealed that subjects in the control condition ($M= 6.51$, $SD= .88$, Adjusted $M= 6.48$) ascribed more responsibility to the perpetrator than did subjects in either the self-blame ($M= 6.18$, $SD= .91$, Adjusted $M= 6.18$) or professor-blame ($M= 6.06$, $SD= 2.31$, Adjusted $M= 6.09$)

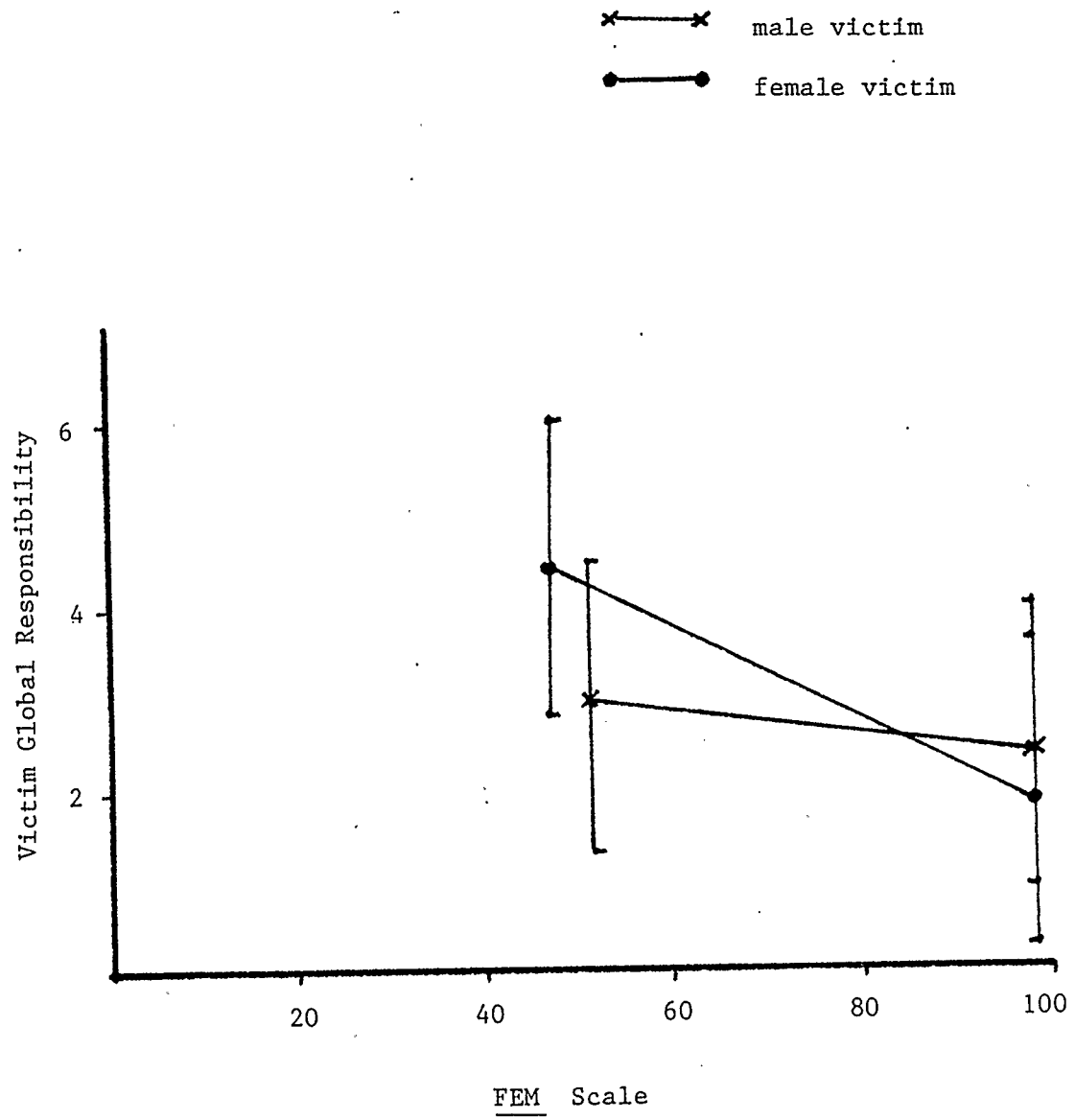

Figure 4: FEM x Victim Sex interaction on victim global responsibility. Male victim b= -.01, female victim b= -.05.

Table 23:

Summary Table for Regression on Perpetrator Global Rsponsibility

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	1.667	.01	1.54
FEM	1	10.297	.04	9.54**
SS X FEM	1	1.446	.01	1.34
Victim Sex (VS)	1	0.755	.00	0.70
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	3.779	.03	3.50*
SS X VS	1	0.015	.00	0.01
SS X VR	2	2.810	.02	2.60
FEM X VS	1	0.768	.00	0.71
FEM X VR	2	0.611	.00	0.57
VS X VR	2	0.378	.00	0.35
SS X VS X VR	2	0.761	.01	0.71
SS X FEM X VS	1	0.035	.00	0.03
SS X FEM X VR	2	0.333	.00	0.31
FEM X VS X VR	2	3.039	.02	2.82
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	1.867	.01	1.73
ERROR	216	1.079		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

conditions. There was no difference between the professor-blame and control conditions.

Related to perpetrator responsibility were subjects' ratings of the appropriateness of the perpetrator's actions and the punitive actions that should be taken against the perpetrator. The regression analysis on the appropriateness of the perpetrator's behaviour yielded significant main effects for subject sex, $F(1,216) = 27.98$, and FEM, $F(1,216) = 4.10$, and a significant Subject Sex x FEM interaction, $F(1,216) = 4.07$ (see Table 24). Female subjects rated the perpetrator's actions as more inappropriate ($M = 6.82$, $SD = 0.57$) than did male subjects ($M = 6.18$, $SD = 1.23$). The correlation between FEM and the appropriateness measure was .24 ($b = .01$), indicating that less traditional subjects rated the perpetrator's behaviour as more inappropriate than did traditional subjects. Post-hoc analyses of the interaction means indicated that for traditional subjects (i.e., those scoring below 70.68 on the FEM scale), males rated the perpetrator's behaviour as more appropriate than did females (see Figure 5). In fact, FEM did not influence female subjects' responses.

Subjects indicated what actions should be taken from among the following five alternatives: nothing at all, a minor reprimand, that the incident should be reported on the perpetrator's work record, a short suspension,

Table 24

Summary Table for Regression on Appropriateness

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	24.704	.10	27.98**
FEM	1	3.621	.02	4.10*
SS X FEM	1	3.591	.02	4.07*
Victim Sex (VS)	1	1.761	.01	1.99
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	0.610	.00	0.69
SS X VS	1	2.518	.01	2.85
SS X VR	2	0.594	.00	0.67
FEM X VS	1	0.671	.00	0.76
FEM X VR	2	0.615	.00	0.70
VS X VR	2	1.039	.01	1.18
SS X VS X VR	2	0.832	.01	0.94
SS X FEM X VS	1	0.901	.00	1.02
SS X FEM X VR	2	2.654	.02	3.01
FEM X VS X VR	2	0.776	.01	0.88
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	0.211	.00	0.24
ERROR	216	0.883		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

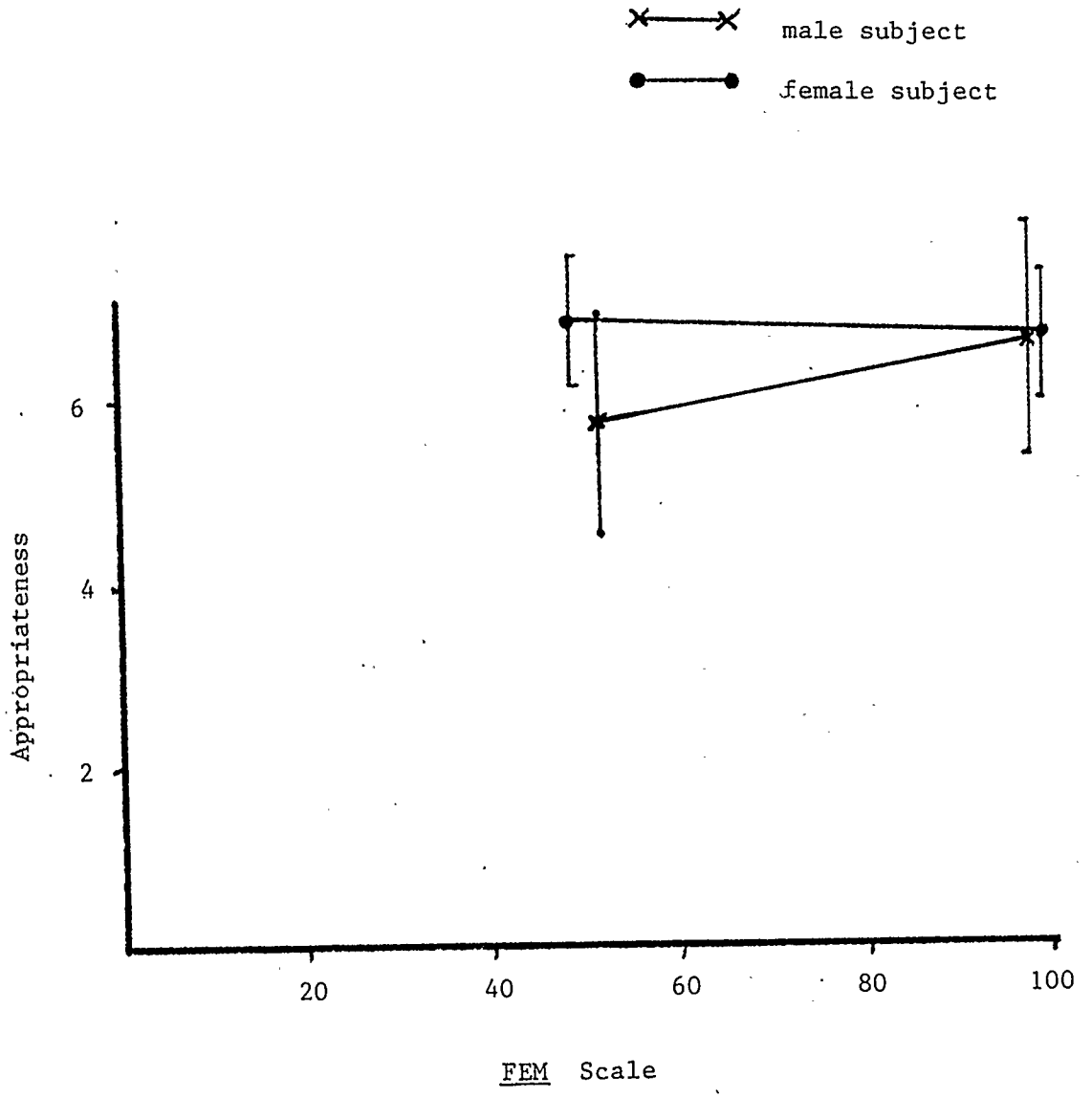

Figure 5: Subject Sex x FEM interaction on appropriateness.

Male subject b= .02, female subject b= -.00.

suspended. As a number of subjects selected more than one of the options, their highest option (i.e., most severe) was taken to be their response. The responses were then recoded as a number from "1" "nothing at all" to "5" "suspended". Significant main effects for subject sex, $F(1,216) = 27.82$, FEM$(1,216) = 6.83$, and victim sex, $F(1,216) = 13.63$, emerged (see Table 25). Male subjects were more lenient in the punishment they assigned to the perpetrator ($M = 3.09$, $SD = 1.23$) than were female subjects ($M = 3.83$, $SD = 1.04$). The correlation between FEM and the punishment measure was .27 ($b = .02$), indicating that less traditional subjects assigned a stiffer punishment than did traditional subjects. Finally, subjects assigned a stiffer sentence to the perpetrator when the victim was female ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 1.08$, Adjusted $M = 3.73$) than when the victim was male ($M = 3.21$, $SD = 3.21$, $SD = 1.14$, Adjusted $M = 3.20$).

The analysis of subjects' chance ascriptions yielded significant main effects for FEM, $F(1,216) = 11.40$, and victim sex, $F(1,216) = 8.34$ (see Table 26). The correlation between FEM and subjects' attributions to chance was -.23, ($b = -.04$), indicating that subjects who scored high on the FEM scale were less likely to attribute the event to chance than subjects who scored low on the FEM scale. In addition, subjects attributed the event to chance more when

Table 25

Summary Table for Regression on Punishment

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	33.750	.10	27.82**
FEM	1	8.290	.02	6.83**
SS X FEM	1	1.618	.00	1.33
Victim Sex (VS)	1	16.528	.05	13.63**
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	1.346	.01	1.11
SS X VS	1	0.427	.00	0.35
SS X VR	2	0.557	.00	0.46
FEM X VS	1	0.008	.00	0.01
FEM X VR	2	0.538	.00	0.44
VS X VR	2	0.817	.00	0.67
SS X VS X VR	2	0.777	.00	0.64
SS X FEM X VS	1	0.237	.00	0.20
SS X FEM X VR	2	1.967	.01	1.62
FEM X VS X VR	2	1.780	.01	1.47
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	0.806	.00	0.66
ERROR	216	1.213		

** $p<.01$

Table 26

Summary Table for Regression on Attributions to Chance

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	5.104	.01	1.87
FEM	1	31.106	.05	11.40**
SS X FEM	1	0.612	.00	0.22
Victim Sex (VS)	1	22.761	.03	8.34**
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	0.959	.00	0.35
SS X VS	1	0.036	.00	0.01
SS X VR	2	2.212	.01	0.81
FEM X VS	1	1.933	.00	0.71
FEM X VR	2	1.745	.01	0.64
VS X VR	2	0.838	.00	0.31
SS X VS X VR	2	0.844	.00	0.31
SS X FEM X VS	1	2.073	.01	0.85
SS X FEM X VR	2	2.073	.01	0.85
FEM X VS X VR	2	3.068	.01	1.12
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	4.669	.01	1.71
ERROR	216	2.729		

** $p<.01$

the victim was a male (M= 3.16, SD= 1.77, Adjusted M= 3.18) than when a female (M= 2.57, SD= 1.55, Adjusted M= 2.57).

Responsibility of victim's behaviour, carelessness, and character. Subjects rated the degree to which the victim's behaviour, carelessness and character were responsible for the incident. Unlike the previous questions, high scores indicated low ascriptions of responsibility.

The analysis for the victim's behavioural responsibility measure yielded significant main effects for subject sex, F(1,216)= 4.28, FEM, F(1,216)= 8.49, victim sex, F(1,216)= 6.25, and victim reaction, F(2,216)= 4.25. There were also three significant interactions: Subject Sex x Victim Reaction, F(2,216)= 5.29, Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex, F(1,216)=5.03, and Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction, F(2,216)= 3.12 (see Table 27). The correlation between FEM and behavioural responsibility was .21, (b= .03), indicating that high scores on the FEM scale were associated with low ratings of behavioural responsibility. Male subjects rated the victim's behaviour as more responsible (M= 4.43, SD= 1.61) than did female subjects (M= 4.85, SD= 1.79), but in general subjects rated the female victim's behaviour (M= 4.36, SD= 1.75, Adjusted M= 4.37) as more responsible for the incident than the male victim's behaviour (M= 4.92, SD= 1.60, Adjusted M= 4.91).

Table 27:

Summary Table for Regression on Victim Behavioural Responsibility

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	10.838	.02	4.28*
FEM	1	21.496	.03	8.49**
SS X FEM	1	5.608	.01	2.21
Victim Sex (VS)	1	15.820	.02	6.25*
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	10.753	.03	4.25*
SS X VS	1	2.148	.00	0.85
SS X VR	2	13.396	.04	5.29**
FEM X VS	1	8.404	.01	3.32
FEM X VR	2	1.475	.00	0.58
VS X VR	2	3.134	.01	1.24
SS X VS X VR	2	0.950	.00	0.38
SS X FEM X VS	1	12.732	.02	5.03*
SS X FEM X VR	2	0.459	.00	0.18
FEM X VS X VR	2	1.266	.00	0.50
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	7.912	.02	3.12*
ERROR	216	2.533		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

Post-hoc comparisons of the means involved in the victim reaction main effect revealed that subjects in the professor-blame condition (M= 4.21, SD= 1.66, Adjusted M= 4.24) held the victim more responsible for the incident than did subjects in either the self-blame (M= 4.85, SD= 1.56, Adjusted M= 4.86) or control (M= 4.85, SD= 1.68, Adjusted M= 4.81) conditions. There was no difference in subjects' ratings between the self-blame and control conditions.

Comparison of the means for the Subject Sex x Victim Reaction interaction indicated that male subjects in the control condition blamed the victim's behaviour less than did male subjects in the self-blame condition (see Table 28 for M's and SD's). Neither group differed significantly from the professor-blame condition. Female subjects in the self-blame condition held the victim's behaviour less responsible than did female subjects in either the professor-blame or control conditions. In addition, female subjects in the control condition held the victim less responsible than did females in the professor-blame condition. Finally, female subjects in the self-blame condition held the victim less behaviourally responsible than did male subjects. There were no other significant differences.

Table 28

Subject Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Victim Behavioural Responsibility

	male subject			female subject		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
self-blame	4.31	4.20	1.57	5.40	5.50	1.54
professor-blame	4.43	4.20	1.50	4.07	4.23	1.83
control	4.95	4.88	1.71	4.68	4.83	1.66

Note. n= 40.

The Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex interaction is graphed in terms of two simple interactions (Subject Sex x FEM at each level of victim sex; see Figures 6 and 7). The Johnson-Neyman technique was applied to four of the possible six comparisons; the other two involved different levels of both subject sex and victim sex. Due to limitations in the data, it was impossible to determine the region of non-significance when comparing male subjects in the male victim condition with the male subjects in the female victim condition. These limitations included (a) the skew of the FEM scale distribution, and (b) the limited range of responses on the dependent measure (1 to 7) compared with the FEM scale (20 to 100). Neither regression slope associated with the male subjects was statistically significant, however, indicating that FEM did not influence the male subjects' responses in these two conditions (see Table 29 for t's and b's). Moreover, the standard errors for both groups indicated considerable overlap (compare male subjects in Figures 6 and 7). Nonetheless, female subjects who scored below 58.4 on the FEM scale rated the female victim as more responsible than the male victim (compare female subjects in Figures 6 and 7). There was no significant difference in male and female subjects' ascriptions of behavioural responsibility for the male victim (see Figure 6), but in the female victim

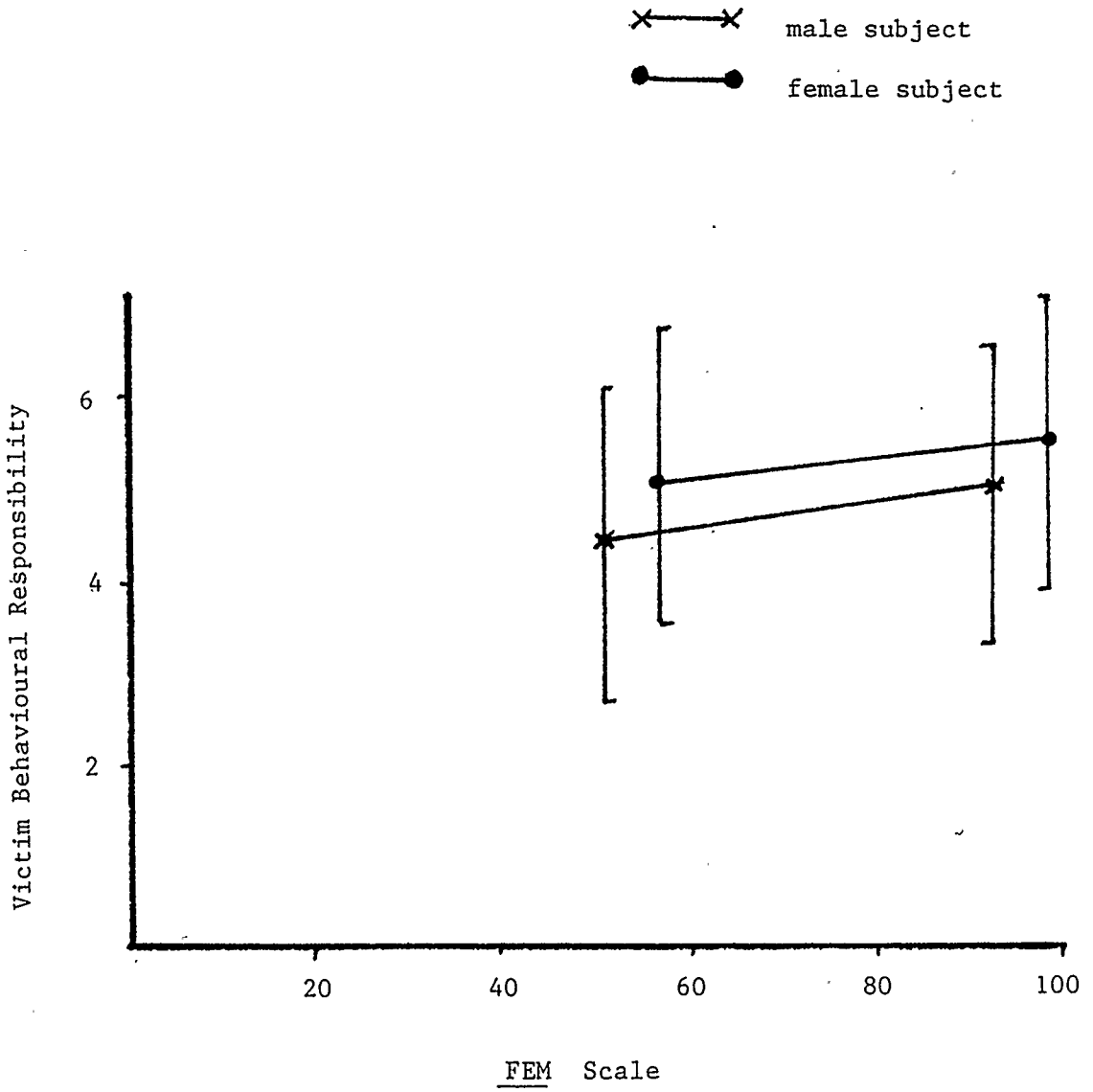

Figure 6: Subject Sex x FEM simple interaction on behavioural responsibility for the male victim condition. Male subject b= .01, female subject b= .01.

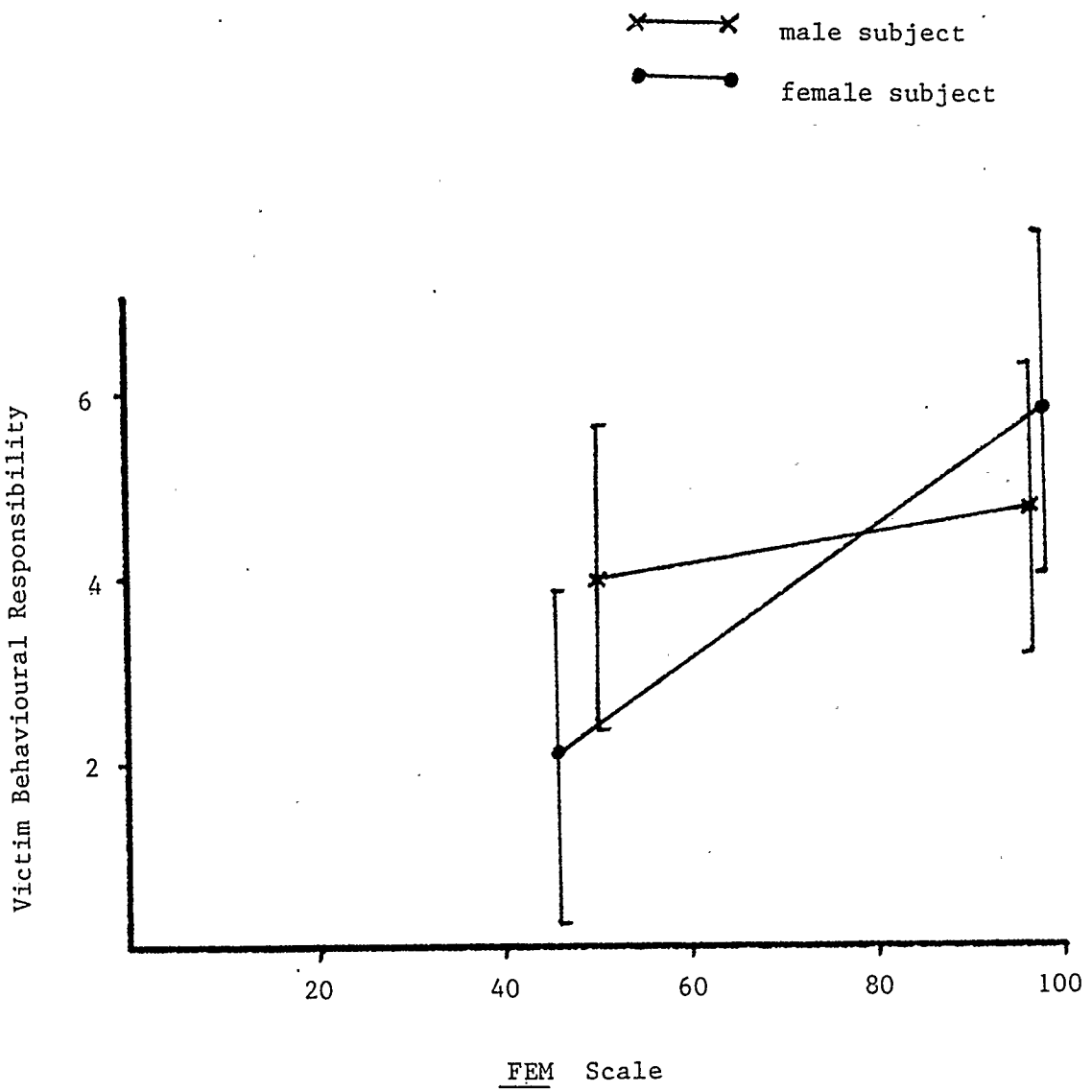

Figure 7: Subject Sex x FEM simple interaction on behavioural responsibility for the female victim condition. Male subject b= .02, female subject b= .07.

Table 29

Regression Coefficients for Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex Interaction on Victim Behavioural Responsibility

Condition	b	t
male subject, male victim	.01	0.61
male subject, female victim	.02	0.91
female subject, male victim	.00	0.45
female subject, female victim	.07	3.10*

* $p<.05$

condition, for subjects who scored below 58.28 (i.e., toward the more traditional end) of the FEM scale, female subjects attributed more responsibility to the victim's behaviour than did males (see Figure 7).

The Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction interaction is graphed in terms of six simple simple interactions (FEM x Subject Sex at each possible combination of Victim Sex and Victim Reaction; see Figures 8-13). In order to simplify the post-hoc tests, an alternative to the Johnson-Neyman techinque was employed. This involved conducting a homogeneity of regression test (Huitema, 1980). The test was first applied to all possible three-way interactions holding the fourth variable constant (see Table 30). If a three-way interaction yielded a significant F value, then the hypothesis that there was homogeneity of regression slopes was rejected. Three of the interactions were significant; FEM x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction for female subjects, Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex for self-blame reaction, and Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex for professor-blame reaction. In this case a homogeneity of regression test was performed on the simple simple two-way interactions (that is, interactions between two of the variables holding the other two constant). The Johnson-Neyman technique was then applied to all statistically significant simple simple two-way

Table 30

Summary of Homogeniety of Regression Test on Victim Behavioural Responsibility

Source	df	MS	F
FEM X VS X VR at male subjects	2	1.474	0.58
FEM X VS X VR at female subjects	2	7.707	3.04*
FEM X VR at female subject,male victim	2	5.036	1.99
FEM X VR at female subject,female victim	2	4.266	1.68
FEM X VS at female subject,self-blame	1	19.472	7.69**
FEM X VS at female subject,professor	1	16.589	6.55*
FEM X VS at female subject,control	1	0.240	0.09
SS X FEM X VR at male victim	2	5.916	2.34
SS X FEM X VR at female victim	2	2.647	1.05
SS X FEM X VS at self-blame	1	17.734	7.00**
FEM X VS at self-blame,male subject	1	1.119	0.44
SS X FEM at self-blame,male victim	1	7.127	2.81
SS X FEM at self-blame,female victim	1	12.013	4.74*
SS X FEM X VS at professor-blame	1	11.734	4.68*
FEM X VS at professor,male subject	1	0.432	0.17
SS X FEM at professor,male victim	1	0.919	0.36
SS X FEM at professor,female victim	1	12.178	4.81*
SS X FEM X VS at control	1	0.386	0.15
ERROR	216	2.533	

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

interactions, but, it was not possible to accurately calculate the boundaries of non-significance given the data obtained in this study. The problems included those mentioned above as well as the relatively small number of subjects per condition (n=20).

Nonetheless, the regression slopes for the various groups provide some useful descriptive information (see Table 31 for t's and b's). In the male victim, self-blame condition the range of scores on the FEM scale for female subjects (72 to 98) was half the size of the range for the male subjects (51 to 92) making comparisons between these two groups difficult, especially at the lower end of the FEM scale. The males, however, consistently rated the male victim in this condition as more responsible than did the females (see Figure 8). Moreover, for the male subjects the slope was non-significant, indicating that FEM did not influence their behavioural ascriptions. For female subjects, however, the slope of the regression line approached significance, $b = -.09$, $t(1,19) = -1.99$, $p < .06$, indicating that high scores on FEM were associated with higher ratings of victim behavioural responsibility. In the male victim, professor-blame condition neither slope was statistically significant (see Figure 9 and Table 31). Moreover, the standard errors indicate a high degree of overlap between the responses of male and female subjects.

Table 31

Regression Coefficients for Victim Behavioural Responsibility Four-way Interaction

Condition	b	t
male subject,male victim,self-blame	.02	0.65
male subject,male victim,professor-blame	.04	1.22
male subject,male victim,control	-.03	-0.57
male subject,female victim,self-blame	-.01	-0.29
male subject,female victim,professor-blame	.02	0.31
male subject,female victim,control	.01	0.40
female subject,male victim,self-blame	-.09	-1.99
female subject,male victim,professor-blame	.01	0.32
female subject,male victim,control	.05	1.48
female subject,female victim,self-blame	.10	3.14*
female subject,female victim,professor-blame	.18	2.92*
female subject,female victim,control	.06	1.66

* $p<.05$

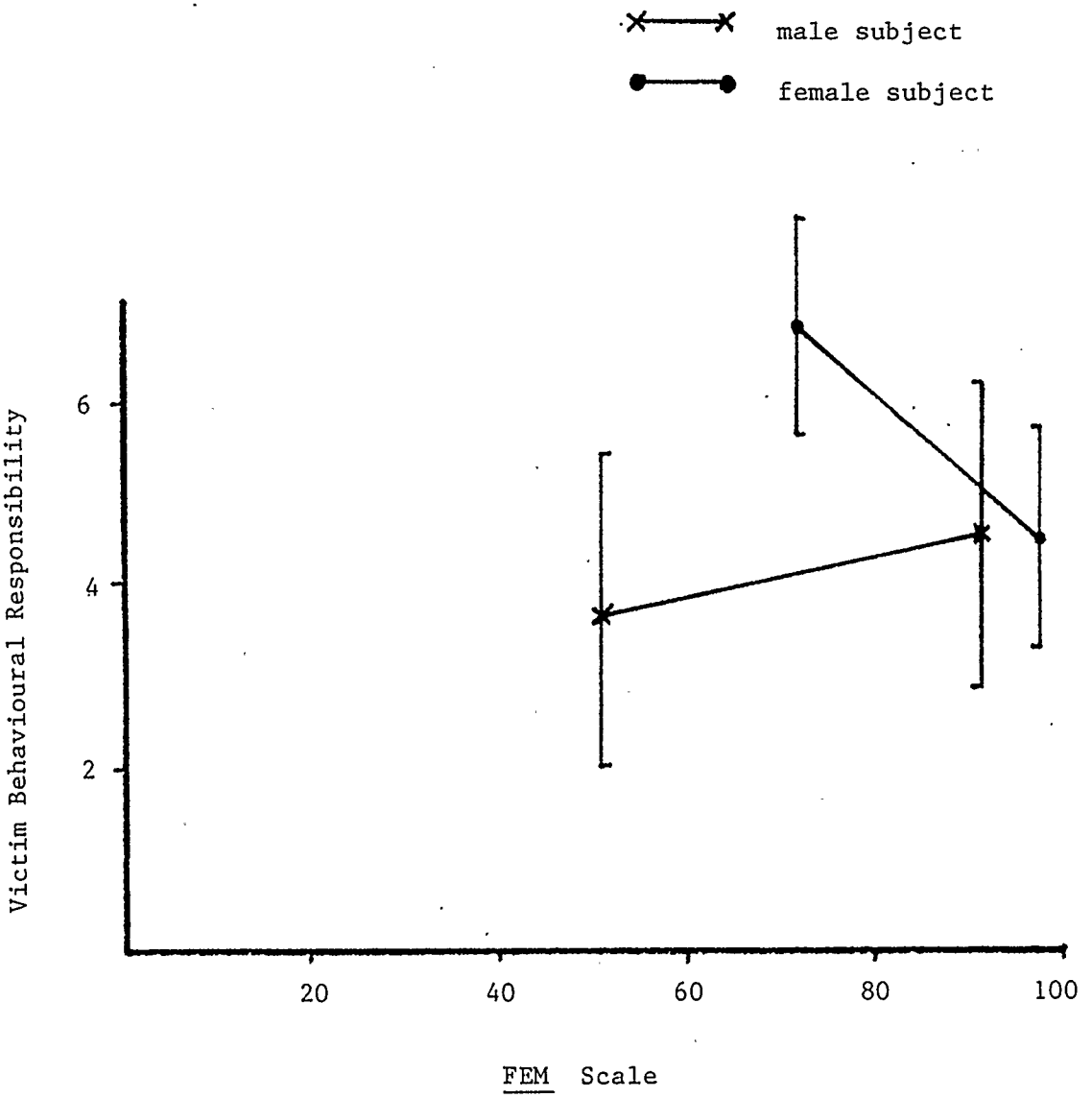

Figure 8: Subject Sex x FEM simple simple interaction on behavioural responsibility for male victim, self-blame condition. Male subject b= .02, female subject b= -.09.

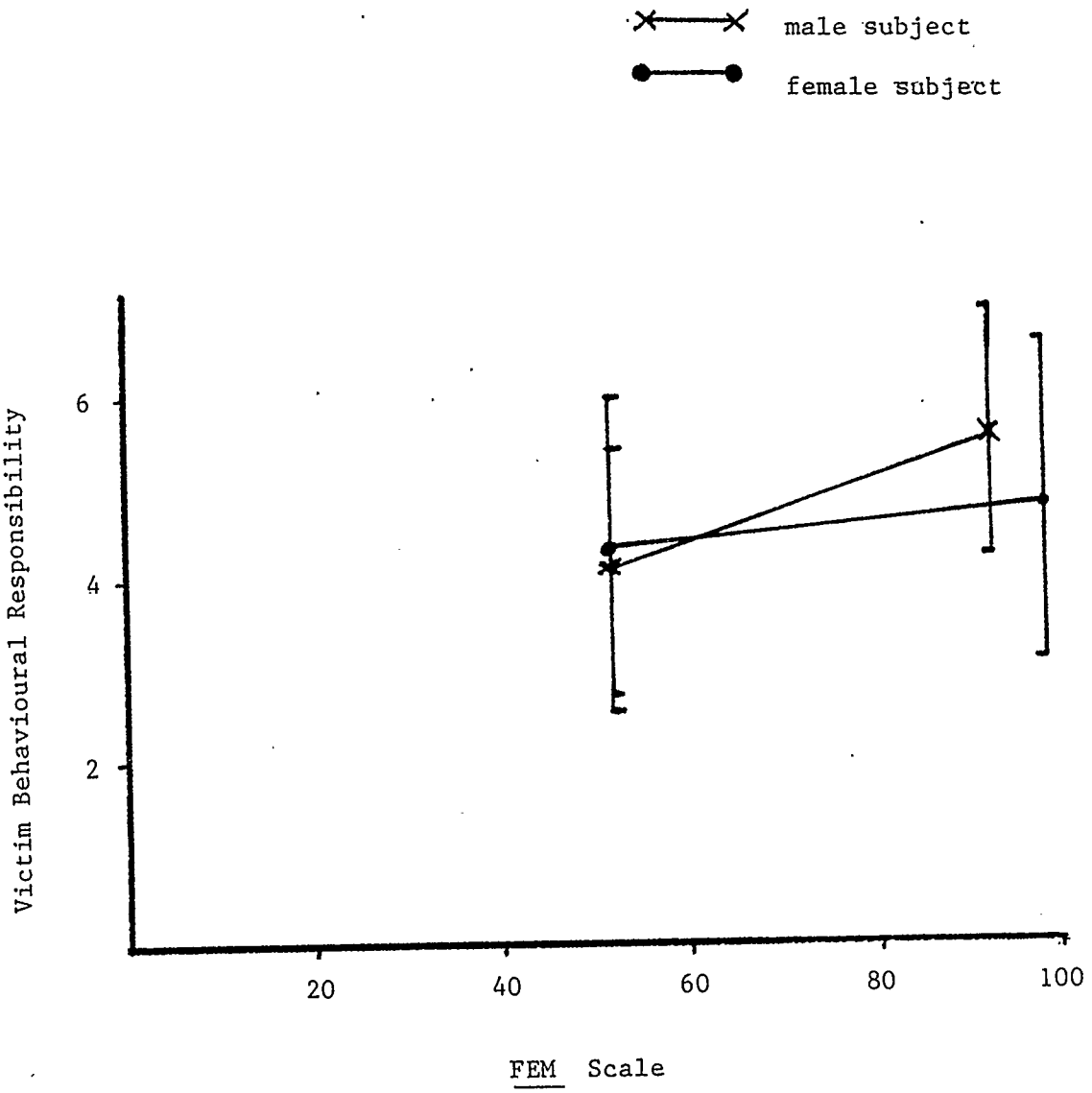

Figure 9: Subject Sex x FEM simple simple interaction on behavioural responsibility for male victim, professor-blame condition. Male subject b= .04, female subject b= .01.

The range of scores on the FEM scale for male subjects was 57 to 93 and for female subjects it was 57 to 99. In the male victim, control condition male subjects had a more restricted range of scores on the FEM scale (55 to 85) than did female subjects (58 to 98). Overall however, FEM did not influence subjects' responses in this condition, as neither regression slope was significant (see Figure 10 and Table 31). For the female victim, self-blame condition FEM did not influence the ratings of male subjects (see Figure 11 and Table 31). The slope for female subjects, however, was significant, $b=.10$, $t(1,19)= 3.14$. Female subjects who scored high on the FEM scale attributed less responsibility to the victim's behaviour than did female subjects who scored relatively low. The range of scores on the FEM scale for male subjects was 51 to 89 and for female subjects it was 56 to 93. In the female victim, professor-blame condition, FEM did not influence the ratings of the male subjects, whose range on the FEM scale was 51 to 89 (see Figure 12 and Table 31), but for the female subjects the slope of the regression line was statistically significant $b=.18$, $t(1,19)=2.92$. Despite the narrow range of scores on the FEM scale (65 to 89) for the female subjects in this condition, those who scored high on the FEM scale held the student's behaviour less responsible for the incident than those who scored relatively low.

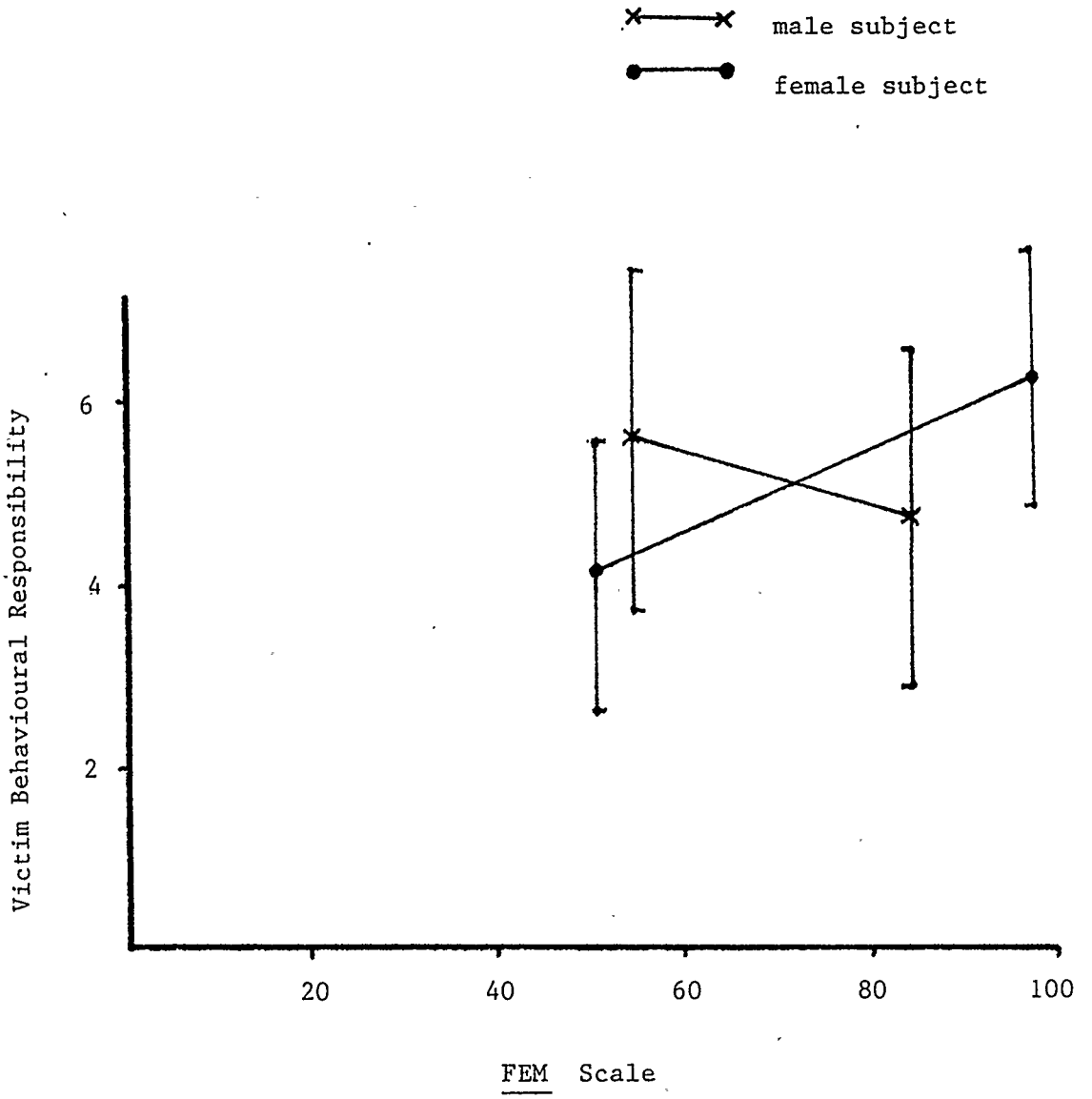

Figure 10: Subject Sex x FEM simple simple interaction on behavioural responsibility for male victim, control condition. Male subject b= -.03, female subject b= .05.

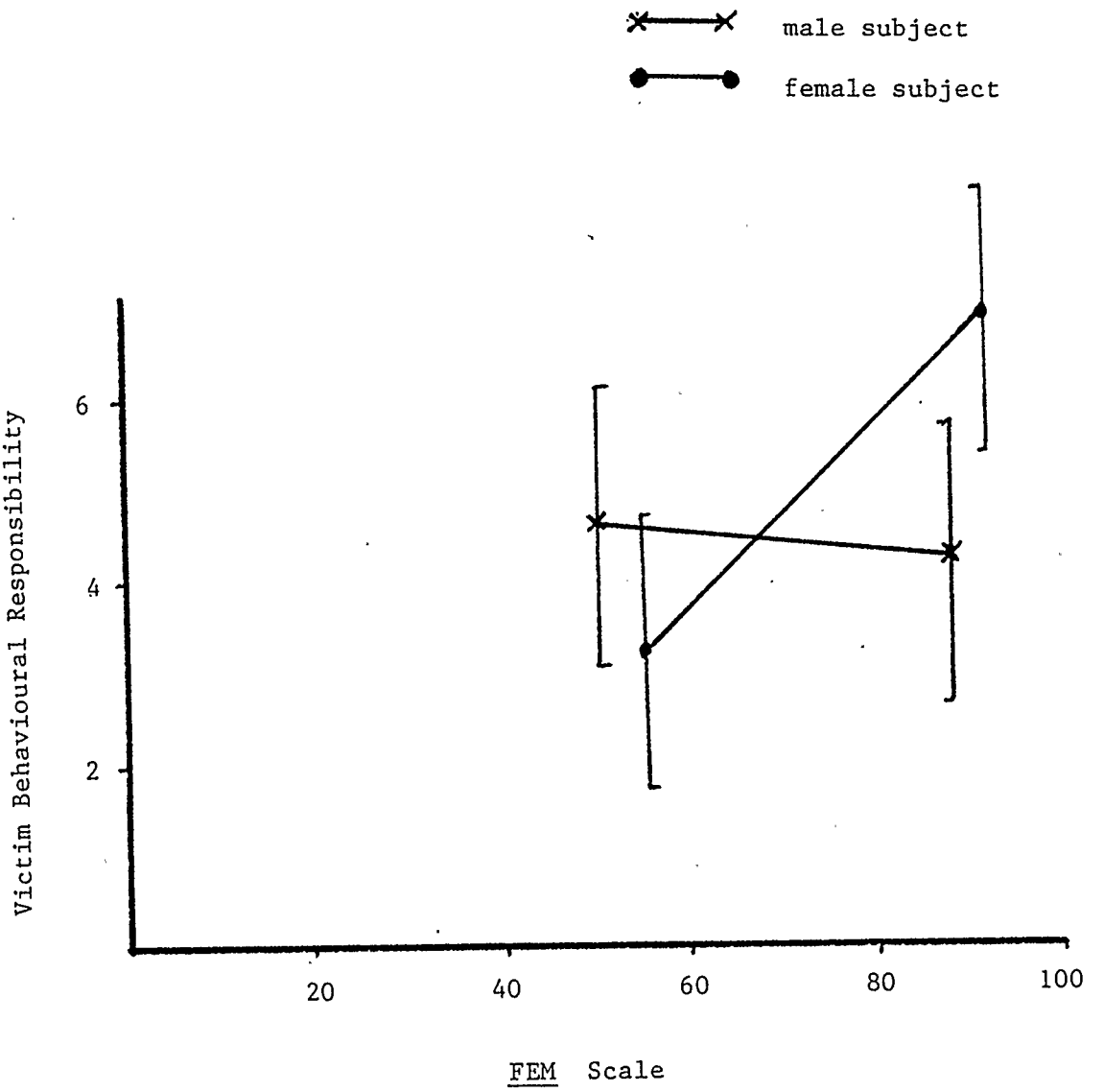

Figure 11: Subject Sex x FEM simple simple interaction on behavioural responsibility for female victim, self-blame condition. Male subject b= -.01, female subject b= .10.

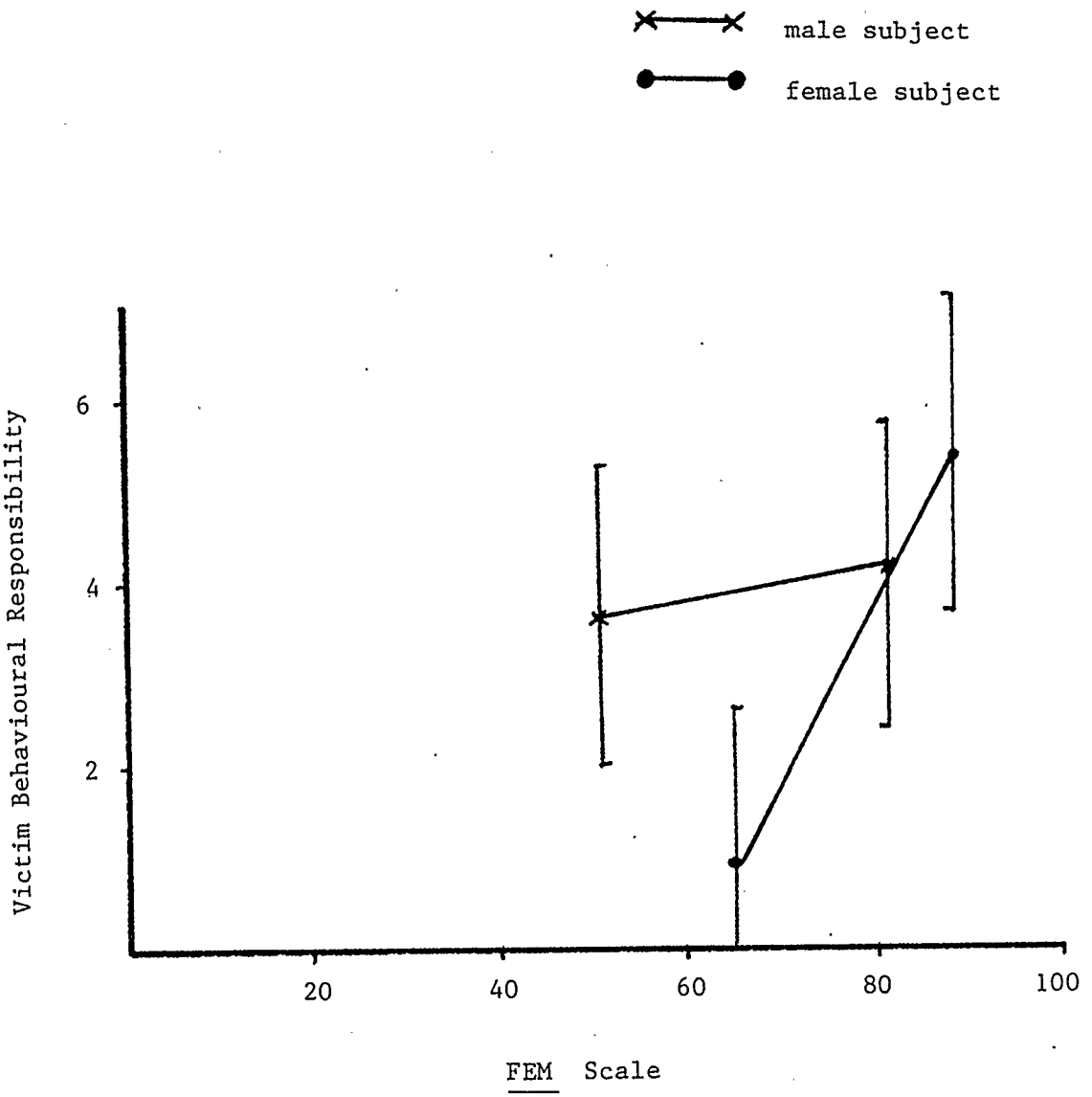

Figure 12: Subject Sex x FEM simple simple interaction on behavioural responsibility for female victim, professor-blame condition. Male subject b= .02, female subject b= .18.

Finally, in the female victim, control condition both regression slopes were nonsignificant (see Figure 13 and Table 31). In this condition male subjects consistently rated the victim's behaviour as being less responsible than did the female subjects. The range of scores on the FEM scale was 58 to 98 for males and 47 to 99 for females.

The nonsignificant simple three-way and simple simple two-way interactions indicated that FEM did not interact with the other independent variables involved. Therefore, comparisons of adjusted means were performed on all of the means associated with these nonsignificant interactions, except the FEM x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction interaction for male subjects (The homogeneity of regression test revealed that there were no significant main effects or interactions contained within this simple three-way interaction.):

(a) Subject Sex x Victim Reaction for the male victim

The male subjects in the self-blame condition rated the male victim as more responsible than did the male subjects in the control condition (see Table 32 for M's and SD's). There were no other significant differences for the male subjects. The female subjects rated the male victim who blamed the professor as more behaviourally responsible than the male victim in either the self-blame or control conditions. Moreover,

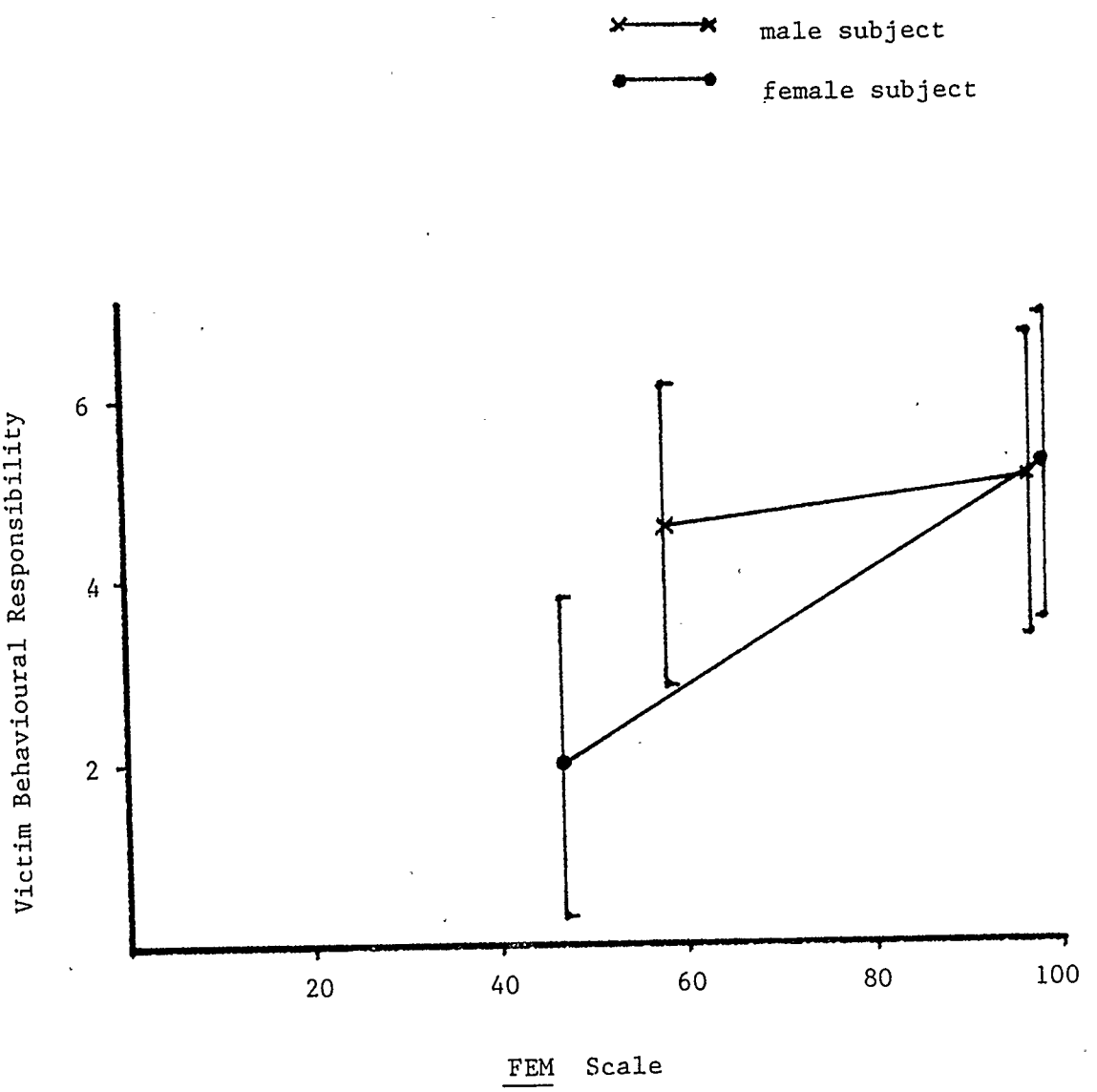

Figure 13: Subject Sex x FEM simple simple interaction on behavioural responsibility for female victim, control condition. Male subject b= .01, female subject b= .06.

Table 32

Adjusted Means for Subject Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction, Male Victim

	male subject			female subject		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
self-blame	4.15	4.15	1.66	5.80	5.80	1.32
professor-blame	4.55	4.55	1.40	4.50	4.50	1.67
control	5.05	5.05	1.79	5.45	5.45	1.47

Note. n=20.

the females attributed more responsibility to the male victim in the control condition than the male victim in the self-blame condition. Finally, the male subjects attributed more responsibility to the male victim in the self-blame condition than did the female subjects.

(b) Subject Sex x Victim Reaction for the female victim
There was no effect of the reaction manipulation on the male subjects (see Table 33 for M's and SD's). The female subjects, however, attributed less responsibility to the self-blame female victim than to either the professor-blame or control female victims. There was no significant difference between the professor-blame and control conditions. In the control condition, the female subjects attributed more responsibility to the female victim's behaviour than did the male subjects.

(c) Subject Sex x Victim Sex for the control condition
The female subjects attributed more responsibility to the female victim's behaviour than the male victim's behaviour (see Table 34 for M's and SD's). There were no other statistically significant differences.

(d) Victim Reaction for female subjects, male victim
The female subjects attributed more responsibility to the behaviour of the male victim who blamed the professor (M= 4.50, SD=1.67, Adjusted M=4.51) than to

Table 33

Adjusted Means for Subject Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction, Female Victim

	male subject			female subject		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
self-blame	4.47	4.25	1.48	5.16	5.20	1.77
professor-blame	4.01	3.85	1.60	3.65	3.95	1.99
control	4.64	4.70	1.63	3.82	4.20	1.85

Note. n=20.

Table 34

Adjusted Means for Subject Sex x Victim Sex, Control Condition

	male subject			female subject		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
male victim	5.19	5.05	1.79	5.39	5.45	1.47
female victim	4.72	4.70	1.63	4.10	4.20	1.85

Note. n=20.

the behaviour of either the self-blaming male victim (M= 5.8, SD= 1.32, Adjusted M= 5.81) or the male victim who gave no reaction (M=5.45, SD= 1.47, Adjusted M= 5.44). There was no significant difference between the self-blame and control conditions.

(e) Victim Reaction for female subjects, female victim
The female victim who engaged in self-blame was rated as less responsible (M= 5.2, SD= 1.77, Adjusted M= 5.58) than either the professor-blame (M= 3.95, SD= 2.00, Adjusted M= 3.84) or the control female victims (M= 4.2, SD= 1.85, Adjusted M= 3.93). There was no significant difference between the latter two groups.

(f) Victim Sex for female subjects, control condition
The female victim's behaviour was rated as more responsible (M= 5.45, SD= 1.47, Adjusted M= 5.49) than the male victim's behaviour (M= 4.20, SD= 1.85, Adjusted M= 4.16).

(g) Victim Sex for male subjects, self-blame condition
There was no significant difference between the responsibility attributed to the male victim (M= 4.15, SD= 1.66, Adjusted M= 4.15) and to the female victim (M= 4.25, SD= 1.48, Adjusted M= 4.25).

(h) Subject Sex for the male victim, self-blame condition
The male subjects attributed more behavioural

responsibility to the male victim (M= 4.15, SD= 1.66, Adjusted M= 4.00) than did female subjects (M= 5.8, SD= 1.32, Adjusted M= 5.96).

(i) Victim Sex for male subjects, professor-blame condition

The male subjects attributed more responsibility to the female victim (M= 3.85, SD= 1.60, Adjusted M= 3.91) than they did to the male victim (M= 4.55, SD= 1.40, Adjusted M= 4.49).

(j) Subject Sex for the male victim, professor-blame condition

Male (M= 4.55, SD= 1.40, Adjusted M= 4.70) and female subjects (M= 4.50, SD= 1.67, Adjusted M= 4.35) did not differ significantly.

The analysis of the carelessness measure yielded significant main effects for FEM, F(1,216)= 9.70, and victim sex, F(1,216)= 7.44 (see Table 35). There were also two statistically significant interactions: Subject Sex x Victim Reaction, F(2,216)= 4.32, and FEM x Victim Sex, F(1,216)= 3.89. The correlation between FEM and carelessness was .21 (b= .03), indicating that subjects who scored high on the FEM scale rated the victim as less careless than subjects who scored low on the FEM scale. Subjects also rated the male victim (M= 5.10, SD= 1.63, Adjusted M= 5.09) as less careless than the female victim (M= 4.47, SD= 1.75, Adjusted M= 4.48).

Table 35:

Summary Table for Regression on Victim Carelessness

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	6.667	.01	2.35
FEM	1	27.520	.04	9.70**
SS X FEM	1	2.008	.00	0.71
Victim Sex (VS)	1	21.088	.03	7.44**
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	7.955	.02	2.81
SS X VS	1	8.873	.01	3.13
SS X VR	2	12.254	.03	4.32*
FEM X VS	1	11.039	.01	3.89*
FEM X VR	2	0.129	.00	0.05
VS X VR	2	6.717	.02	2.37
SS X VS X VR	2	3.606	.01	1.27
SS X FEM X VS	1	1.967	.00	0.69
SS X FEM X VR	2	1.101	.00	0.39
FEM X VS X VR	2	2.674	.01	0.94
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	3.534	.01	1.25
ERROR	216	2.836		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

Post-hoc comparisons of the Subject Sex x Victim Reaction means revealed that male subjects in the control condition rated the victim as less careless than male subjects in either the professor-blame or self-blame conditions (see Table 36 for M's and SD's). The latter two groups did not differ significantly. Female subjects in the self-blame condition rated the victim as less careless than did females in either the professor-blame or control conditions. The latter two groups did not differ significantly. Finally, in the control condition male subjects rated the victim as less careless than did female subjects, whereas in the self-blame condition female subjects rated the victim as less careless than did male subjects. In the professor-blame condition male and female subjects did not differ significantly.

For the FEM x Victim Sex interaction the Johnson-Neyman technique did not reveal any statistically significant differences (see Figure 14). The region of nonsignificance included all but one subject.

The analysis of character responsibility (i.e., to what extent was the incident due to the victim's character) yielded a significant main effect for FEM, $F(1,216) = 10.37$, and a significant Subject Sex x Victim Sex interaction, $F(1,216) = 5.05$ (see Table 37). The correlation between FEM and character responsibility was .21 ($b = .04$); subjects who

Table 36:

Subject Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Victim Carelessness

	male subject			female subject		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
self-blame	4.49	4.38	1.52	5.37	5.48	1.54
professor-blame	4.49	4.25	1.56	4.39	4.55	1.76
control	5.30	5.23	1.87	4.67	4.83	1.85

Note. n= 40.

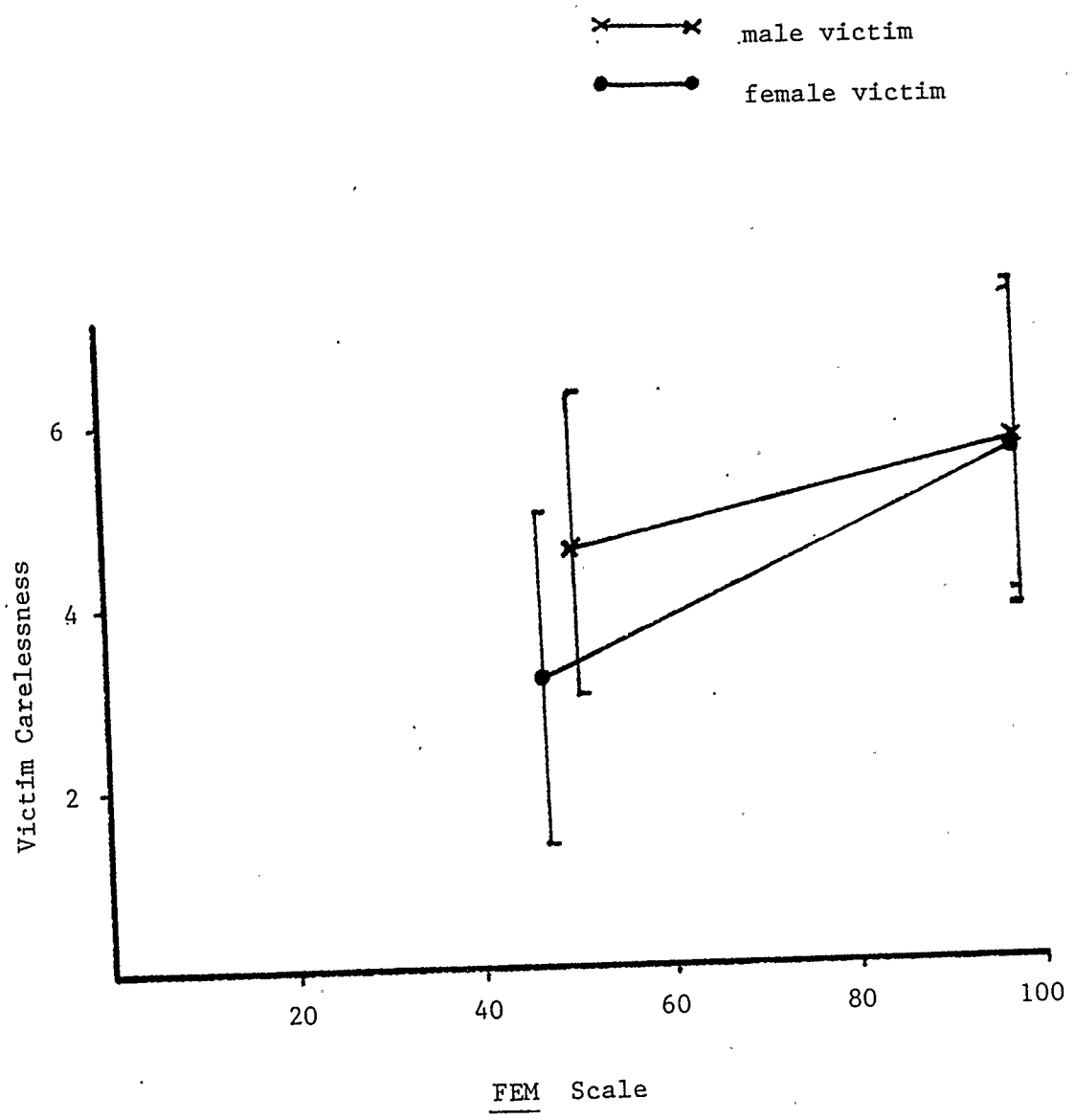

Figure 14: FEM x Victim Sex interaction on carelessness.
Male victim b= .02, female victim b= .04.

Table 37:

Summary Table for Regression on Victim Character Responsibility

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	3.267	.00	1.10
FEM	1	30.928	.04	10.37**
SS X FEM	1	0.168	.00	0.06
Victim Sex (VS)	1	0.637	.00	0.21
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	1.505	.00	0.50
SS X VS	1	15.053	.02	5.05*
SS X VR	2	6.875	.02	2.30
FEM X VS	1	0.175	.00	0.06
FEM X VR	2	5.196	.01	1.74
VS X VR	2	0.842	.00	0.28
SS X VS X VR	2	4.110	.01	1.38
SS X FEM X VS	1	0.197	.00	0.07
SS X FEM X VR	2	8.440	.02	2.83
FEM X VS X VR	2	0.785	.00	0.26
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	3.554	.01	1.19
ERROR	216	2.983		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

scored high on the FEM scale were less likely to hold the victim's character at fault than were subjects who scored low on the FEM scale. Post-hoc comparisons of the interaction means indicated that male subjects held the male victim's character more responsible than did female subjects (see Table 38 for M's and SD's). Moreover, female subjects blamed the female victim more than the male victim.

Related to victim responsibility were subjects' ratings of whether the victim should report the incident. The regression analysis yielded significant main effects for subject sex, $F(1,216)= 27.75$, FEM, $F(1,216)= 5.13$, and victim sex, $F(1,216)= 8.51$ and a significant FEM x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction interaction, $F(2,216)= 5.25$ (see Table 39). Female subjects were more strongly in favour of the victim reporting the incident ($M= 5.88$, $SD= 1.54$) than were male subjects ($M= 4.68$, $SD= 2.08$). The correlation with FEM was .25 ($b= .03$), indicating that less traditional subjects favoured the victim reporting his/her experience more strongly than did traditional subjects. Subjects also more strongly favoured the victim reporting the incident when the victim was a female ($M= 5.59$, $SD= 1.61$, Adjusted $M= 5.58$) than when the victim was a male ($M= 4.96$, $SD= 1.95$, Adjusted $M= 4.97$). Two of the regression coefficients associated with the interaction were

Table 38:

Subject Sex x Victim Sex Interaction on Victim Character Responsibility

	male subject			female subject		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
male victim	3.95	3.78	1.68	4.37	4.57	1.79
female victim	4.20	4.05	1.43	3.96	4.08	2.02

Note. n= 60.

Table 39

Summary Table for Regression on Victim Report Measure

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	86.400	.10	27.75**
FEM	1	15.962	.02	5.13*
SS X FEM	1	0.525	.00	0.17
Victim Sex (VS)	1	26.506	.03	8.51**
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	0.898	.00	0.29
SS X VS	1	0.352	.00	0.11
SS X VR	2	3.947	.01	1.27
FEM X VS	1	0.637	.00	0.20
FEM X VR	2	1.193	.00	0.38
VS X VR	2	4.503	.01	1.45
SS X VS X VR	2	5.996	.01	1.93
SS X FEM X VS	1	0.236	.00	0.08
SS X FEM X VR	2	3.505	.01	1.13
FEM X VS X VR	2	16.358	.04	5.25**
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	3.466	.01	1.11
ERROR	216	3.114		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

statistically significant; male victim, control condition, b= .11, $t(1,39)$= 3.70, and female victim, self-blame condition, b= .10, $t(1,39)$= 3.61 (see Appendix F Table 3). Within both conditions less traditional subjects favoured reporting the incident more than did the traditional subjects.

Subjects also stated in their own words why they thought the victim should or should not report the incident. Rationalizations for reporting the incident that occurred with a frequency of greater than once (i.e., they were not ideosyncratic) are provided in Table 40. The most frequent reasons included inappropriateness of the perpetrator's behaviour, concern for the victim's well-being, and a concern with deterence (see Table 40). The females were twice as likely to show concern for the victim's well-being compared to the males. They were also more likely to express concern for the prevention of sexual harassment than were the males. The most frequent reason given for not reporting the incident was that no harm had really been done (see Table 41).

Summary. The results of the attribution measures are summarized in Table 42. Female subjects attributed less responsibility to the victim by virtue of the victim's behaviour than did the male subjects, and they evaluated the perpetrator's character less favourably than did the

Table 40

Reasons Victim Should Report the Incident

	male subject	female subject
perpetrator abused his/her authority	32	37
victim's well-being (e.g., grades,psychological)	12	25
prevention of harassment	31	55
to punish the perpetrator	5	2
to let "authorities" know	4	5
victim did nothing to provoke the incident	1	2
this is sexual harassment	3	0

Table 41

Reasons Victim Should Not Report the Incident

	male subject	female subject
no harm done	21	3
perpetrator's career	6	1
who would believe victim	4	3
more harm to victim	9	4
victim is also to blame	5	3
discuss it with perpetrator first	6	0

Table 42

Summary Table of Regression Analyses on Attribution Measures

	Victim Character Evaluation	Victim Global Responsibility	Victim Behavioural Responsibility	Victim Carelessness	Victim Character Responsibility	Perpetrator Character Evaluation	Perpetrator Global Responsibility	Chance
Subject Sex (SS)			X			X		
FEM	X	X	X	X	X		X	X
SS X FEM								
Victim Sex (VS)			X	X		X		X
Victim Reaction (VR)	X		X			X	X	
SS X VS					X			
SS X VR	X	X	X	X		X		
FEM X VS		X		X				
FEM X VR								
VS X VR		X						
SS X VS X VR								
SS X FEM X VS			X					
SS X FEM X VR						X		
FEM X VS X VR								
SS X FEM X VS X VR			X					

Note. A "X" indicates that the effect was significant.

male subjects. Responses to the questions related to the attribution measures were consistent; female subjects were more strongly in favour of the victim reporting the incident, viewed the perpetrator's actions as more inappropriate, and sought stiffer penalties than did the male subjects. FEM correlated with most of the attribution measures with less traditional subjects attributing less responsibility to the victim or to chance and more responsibility to the perpetrator than did traditional subjects. Similarly, less traditional subjects also rated the victim as more adjusted and were more strongly in favour of the victim reporting the incident than were traditional subjects. They also rated the perpetrator's actions as more inappropriate and sought stiffer penelties than did traditional subjects. Subjects (particularly, traditional subjects and female subjects) attributed more responsibility to the victim and rated the victim as less adjusted when the victim was a female than when the victim was a male. Despite this, subjects also evaluated the perpetrator's character less favourably, sought stiffer penalties against the perpetrator and were more strongly in favour of the victim reporting the incident when the victim was a female than when the victim was a male. In general, the female subjects attributed less responsibility to the victim who engaged in self-blame and rated this victim as

more adjusted than did the male subjects. For female subjects the self-blame condition differed significantly from the other two conditions. The perpetrator's character was evaluated less favourably by traditional female subjects in both the self-blame and professor-blame conditions than by traditional male subjects in these two conditions. In the control condition, the perpetrator was evaluated less favourably by less traditional female subjects than by less traditional male subjects. Finally, subjects attributed more overall responsibility to the female victim who blamed the perpetrator and the male victim who blamed himself than to the other victims.

Personal and Situational Similarity

Regression analyses were performed on subjects' ratings of personal and situational similarity to the victim. For personal similarity the analysis yielded a significant main effect for FEM, $F(1,216)=4.37$, and a Subject Sex x Victim Reaction interaction, $F(2,216)= 5.01$ (see Table 43). The correlation between FEM and subjects' ratings of personal similarity was .15 ($b=.02$), indicating that less traditional subjects rated themselves as being more like the victim than did traditional subjects. Post-hoc comparisons of the interaction means indicated that male subjects rated themselves as more similar to the control victim than the self-blame victim (see Table 44 for

Table 43

Summary Table for Regression on Personal Similarity

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	4.004	.01	1.33
FEM	1	13.144	.02	4.37*
SS X FEM	1	10.288	.01	3.42
Victim Sex (VS)	1	5.914	.01	1.96
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	0.254	.00	0.08
SS X VS	1	0.440	.00	0.15
SS X VR	2	15.090	.04	5.01**
FEM X VS	1	0.276	.00	0.09
FEM X VR	2	1.859	.00	0.62
VS X VR	2	1.589	.00	0.53
SS X VS X VR	2	2.618	.01	0.87
SS X FEM X VS	1	4.320	.01	1.44
SS X FEM X VR	2	2.934	.01	0.97
FEM X VS X VR	2	3.088	.01	1.03
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	5.628	.01	1.87
ERROR	216	3.010		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

Table 44

Subject Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Personal Similarity

	male subject			female subject		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
self-blame	3.46	1.74	3.38	4.47	1.59	4.55
professor-blame	3.86	1.67	3.68	3.72	1.69	3.85
control	4.28	1.85	4.22	3.56	1.89	3.68

Note. n=40.

M's and SD's). Female subjects, on the other hand, rated themselves as more similar to the self-blame victim than to the professor-blame or control victims. Female subjects rated themselves as more personally similar to the self-blame victim than did male subjects, whereas male subjects rated themselves as personally similar to the control victim than did female subjects. No other means differed significantly.

The analysis for situational similarity yielded significant main effects for subject sex, $F(1,216)= 34.07$ and victim sex, $F(1,216)= 7.50$ and a significant Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction interaction, $F(2,216)= 3.08$ (see Table 45). Female subjects rated the incident as more likely to happen to them ($M= 3.98$, $SD= 1.68$) than did male subjects ($M= 2.80$, $SD= 1.57$). Moreover, subjects in the male victim condition rated the situation as more likely to happen to them ($M= 3.68$, $SD= 1.56$) than did subjects in the female victim condition ($M= 3.11$, $SD= 1.62$). Inspection of the regression coefficients for the interaction revealed only one statistically significant slope. For male subjects in the male victim, control condition there was a negative relationship between situational similarity and scores on the FEM scale, $b=-.05$, $t(1,19)= -2.13$ (see Appendix F, Table 4 for regression coefficients). In other words, less

Table 45

Summary Table for Regression on Situational Similarity

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	84.017	.12	37.07**
FEM	1	4.549	.01	1.84
SS X FEM	1	0.008	.00	0.00
Victim Sex (VS)	1	18.486	.03	7.50**
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	2.996	.01	1.21
SS X VS	1	8.936	.01	3.62
SS X VR	2	7.282	.02	2.95
FEM X VS	1	0.307	.00	0.12
FEM X VR	2	0.422	.00	0.17
VS X VR	2	0.216	.00	0.09
SS X VS X VR	2	5.111	.01	2.07
SS X FEM X VS	1	3.129	.00	1.27
SS X FEM X VR	2	2.224	.01	0.90
FEM X VS X VR	2	3.329	.01	1.35
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	7.593	.02	3.08*
ERROR	216	2.466		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

traditional attitudes were associated with lower levels of situational similarity. Due to problems associated with post-hoc testing in this situation and the marginal importance of this effect in the context of the primary hypothesis, no further analyses were performed.

Personal and situational similarity ratings were then split at the median (that is, into those that were less than 4 and those equal to 4 and above) to enable an examination of their effects on attributions of responsibility (see Table 46 for cell frequencies). FEM was entered as a covariate in the regression analysis to control for its effect on the attribution measures. As the relationships between FEM and the dependent variables have already been described, they will not be mentioned here. Three of the analyses involving ratings of the victim yielded one significant main effect for personal similarity: (a) victim character evaluation, $F(1,235)=24.40$ (see Table 47), (b) victim behavioural responsibility, $F(1,235)=4.64$ (see Table 48), and (c) attributions to the victim's character, $F(1,235)=7.25$ (see Table 49). The means are presented in Table 50. Subjects who scored high on personal similarity (i.e., said they were like the victims) evaluated the victim's character more favourably and attributed less responsibility to the victim's behaviour or character than did subjects who

Table 46

Cell Frequencies of High/Low Personal Similarity x High/Low Situational Similarity

	Situational Similarity	
	high	low
Personal Similarity		
high	81	56
low	32	71

Table 47

Summary Table for Personal Similarity x Situational Similarity Regression on Victim Character Evaluation

Source	df	MS	R2	F
FEM	1	1291.557	.04	12.14**
Personal Similarity (PS)	1	2599.174	.09	24.42**
Situational Similarity (SS)	1	3.937	.00	0.04
PS X SS	1	11.214	.00	0.11
ERROR	235	106.423		

** $p<.01$

Table 48

Summary Table for Personal Similarity x Situational Similarity Regression on Victim Behavioural Responsibility

Source	df	MS	R2	F
FEM	1	31.247	.04	11.63**
Personal Similarity (PS)	1	12.456	.02	4.64*
Situational Similarity (SS)	1	8.953	.01	3.33
PS X SS	1	9.738	.01	3.62
ERROR	235	2.687		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

Table 49

Summary Table for Personal Similarity x Situational Similarity Regression on Victim Character Responsibility

Source	df	MS	R2	F
FEM	1	33.715	.04	11.28**
Personal Similarity (PS)	1	21.671	.03	7.25**
Situational Similarity (SS)	1	0.982	.00	0.33
PS X SS	1	1.653	.00	0.55
ERROR	235	2.989		

** $p<.01$

Table 50

Means for High/Low Personal Similarity Groups

	high personal similarity			low personal similarity		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
victim character evaluation	76.23	76.78	9.83	69.38	69.14	11.20
victim behavioural responsibility	4.89	4.92	1.65	4.30	4.26	1.73
attributions to victim's character	4.46	4.50	1.82	3.87	3.83	1.67
victim global reponsibility	2.47	2.45	1.56	3.27	3.29	1.66
victim carelessness	5.12	5.15	1.70	4.33	4.29	1.81

scored low on personal similarity. The analyses on victim global responsibility and victim carelessness also revealed a main effect for personal similarity, $F(1,235)= 9.66$ and $F(1,235)= 8.22$, as well as a situational similarity main effect, $F(1,235)=5.31$ and $F(1,235)=4.34$ (see Tables 51 and 52). Again, high personal similarity was associated with low levels of victim responsibility (see Table 49). Subjects who scored high on situational similarity (i.e., saw the incident as likely to happen to them) attributed less responsibility to the victim ($M= 2.42$, $SD= 1.44$, Adjusted $M= 2.47$) and rated the victim as less careless ($M= 5.15$, $SD= 1.66$, Adjusted $M= 5.09$) than did subjects who scored low on situational similarity ($M= 3.11$, $SD= 1.61$, Adjusted $M= 3.06$ for global responsibility and ($M= 4.47$, $SD= 1.77$, Adjusted $M= 4.52$ for victim carelessness). For victim global responsibility there was also a significant Personal Similarity x Situational Similarity interaction, $F(1,235)= 5.17$ (see Table 50). Post-hoc comparisons of the interaction means using Scheffé's test indicated that subjects who scored low on both personal and situational similarity attributed more responsibility to the victim than did subjects in the other three groups (see Table 53 for M's and SD's). No other comparisons were significant.

Finally, personal and situational similarity to the victim did not influence subjects' evaluations of the

Table 51

Summary Table for Personal Similarity x Situational Similarity Regression on Victim Global Responsibility

Source	df	MS	R2	F
FEM	1	25.078	.04	10.36**
Personal Similarity (PS)	1	23.375	.04	9.66**
Situational Similarity (SS)	1	12.867	.02	5.31*
PS X SS	1	12.523	.02	5.17*
ERROR	235	2.421		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

Table 52

Summary Table for Personal Similarity x Situational Similarity Regression on Victim Carelessness

Source	df	MS	R2	F
FEM	1	34.166	.04	11.80**
Personal Similarity (PS)	1	23.804	.03	8.22**
Situational Similarity (SS)	1	12.559	.02	4.34*
PS X SS	1	7.203	.01	2.49
ERROR	235	2.896		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

Table 53

Personal Similarity X Situational Similarity Interaction on Victim Global Responsibility

	Situational Similarity					
	high			low		
Personal Similarity	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
high	2.42	2.37	1.57	2.53	2.55	1.55
low	2.52	2.47	1.29	3.60	1.68	3.66

Note. see Table 46 for cell frequencies.

perpetrator's character, level of responsibility, or chance attributions (see Tables 54, 55 and 56).

Summary. FEM correlated with subjects' ratings of personal similarity with less traditional subjects rating themselves as more similar to the victim than traditional subjects. It did not strongly influence subjects' ratings of situational similarity, however, and emerged as significant only in the four-way interaction. The female subjects reported a higher likelihood of being a victim of sexual harassment than did the male subjects. Female subjects, also rated themselves as more similar to the victim who engaged in self-blame than did the male subjects. This rating also differed significantly from the other two conditions. The male subjects rated themselves as more similar to the control victim than did the female subjects. This rating was also higher than that given by the male subjects in the self-blame condition. Finally, subjects rated the situation as more likely to happen to them when the victim was a male than when the victim was a female.

Analyses of the effects of personal and situational similarity on subjects' attributions of responsibility (see Table 57) indicated that higher ratings of either personal or situational similarity led to less victim blame than did low ratings. Also, these two variables did not affect

Table 54

Summary Table for Personal Similarity x Situational Similarity Regression on Perpetrator Character Evaluation

Source	df	MS	R2	F
FEM	1	957.647	.03	7.19**
Personal Similarity (PS)	1	1.622	.00	0.01
Situational Similarity (SS)	1	11.422	.00	0.09
PS X SS	1	29.642	.00	0.22
ERROR	235	133.134		

** $p<.01$

Table 55

Summary Table for Personal Similarity x Situational Similarity Regression on Perpetrator Responsibility

Source	df	MS	R2	F
FEM	1	11.934	.04	10.86**
Personal Similarity (PS)	1	3.349	.01	3.03
Situational Similarity (SS)	1	0.539	.00	0.49
PS X SS	1	1.406	.01	1.28
ERROR	235	1.099		

** $p<.01$

Table 56

Summary Table for Personal Similarity x Situational Similarity Regression on Attributions to Chance

Source	df	MS	R2	F
FEM	1	36.126	.05	13.29**
Personal Similarity (PS)	1	0.014	.00	0.01
Situational Similarity (SS)	1	7.419	.01	2.73
PS X SS	1	1.993	.00	0.73
ERROR	235	2.718		

** $p<.01$

Table 57

Summary Table of Personal and Situational Similarity on Attribution Measures

	Personal Similarity (PS)	Situational Similarity (SS)	(PS X SS)
Victim Character Evaluation	X		
Victim Global Responsibility	X	X	X
Victim Behavioural Responaibility	X	X	
Victim Carelessness	X	X	
Victim Character Responsibility	X		
Perpetrator Character Evaluation			
Perpetrator Global Responsibility			
Chance			

Note. A "X" indicates that the effect was significant.

subjects' attributions toward the perpetrator or to chance. Finally, the interaction revealed that subjects who denied either personal or situational similarity attributed more overall responsibility to the victim than did subjects in the other three groups.

Beliefs About Sexual Harassment

Subjects were asked three questions regarding their beliefs about sexual harassment, with low scores indicating agreement with the beliefs. Regression analyses were conducted on subjects' responses to each belief. Overall, subjects indicated that the victim had not misinterpreted the actions of the perpetrator (M= 6.18, SD=1.51) and, the regression analysis yielded no statistically significant effects (see Table 58). For the question asking whether the perpetrator had misinterpreted the actions of the victim, there were significant main effects for subject sex, F(1,216)= 11.85, FEM, F(1,216)= 5.32, and victim reaction, F(2,216)=3.65, and two significant interactions: Subject Sex x Victim Reaction, F(2,216)= 3.50, and FEM x Victim Sex, F(1,216)= 7.16 (see Table 59). The females were less likely to rate the perpetrator as misinterpreting the victim's actions (M= 3.97, SD= 2.07) than were the males (M= 3.14, SD= 1.81). The correlation between FEM and this belief was .21 (b=.03), indicating that less traditional subjects were less likely to believe that the

Table 58

Summary Table for Regression on the Belief that the Victim Misinterpreted the Perpetrator

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	0.267	.00	0.11
FEM	1	0.053	.00	0.02
SS X FEM	1	0.864	.00	0.37
VS	1	1.803	.00	0.77
VR	2	2.920	.01	1.25
SS X VS	1	3.641	.01	1.56
SS X VR	2	1.390	.00	0.60
FEM X VS	1	1.332	.00	0.57
FEM X VS	2	0.284	.00	0.12
VS X VR	2	0.320	.00	0.14
SS X VS X VR	2	0.629	.00	0.27
SS X FEM X VS	1	2.858	.01	1.23
SS X FEM X VR	2	2.921	.01	1.25
FEM X VS X VR	2	5.925	.02	2.54
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	0.687	.00	0.29
ERROR	216	2.331		

Table 59

Summary Table for Regression on Perpetrator Misinterpreted the Victim

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	40.838	.04	11.85**
FEM	1	18.348	.02	5.32*
SS X FEM	1	0.739	.00	0.21
Victim Sex (VS)	1	5.178	.01	1.50
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	12.573	.03	3.65*
SS X VS	1	1.023	.00	0.30
SS X VR	2	12.068	.03	3.50*
FEM X VS	1	24.695	.03	7.16**
FEM X VR	2	8.517	.02	2.47
VS X VR	2	5.200	.01	1.51
SS X VS X VR	2	0.641	.00	0.19
SS X FEM X VS	1	5.498	.01	1.60
SS X FEM X VR	2	6.195	.01	1.79
FEM X VS X VR	2	0.641	.00	0.19
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	4.162	.01	1.21
ERROR	216	3.447		

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim than were traditional subjects. Post-hoc comparisons of the victim reaction means indicated that subjects in the self-blame condition were more likely to rate the perpetrator as misinterpreting the victim (M= 3.25, SD= 1.75, Adjusted M= 3.26) than subjects in the control condition (M= 4.04, SD= 2.10, Adjusted M= 4.00). There was no significant difference between subjects' responses in these two conditions and the professor-blame condition (M= 3.38, SD= 1.76, Adjusted M= 3.40). Post-hoc comparisons of the means involved in the Subject Sex x Victim Reaction interaction indicated that male subjects in the self-blame condition were more likely to believe that the perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim than were male subjects in either the professor-blame or control conditions (see Table 60 for M's and SD's). There were no significant differences between the latter two groups. Female subjects in the professor-blame condition were more likely to believe that the perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim than were female subjects in the control condition. There was no significant difference between the self-blame and control conditions. In the self-blame condition male subjects were more likely to agree with this belief than were female subjects. Post-hoc comparisons of the FEM x Victim Sex interaction indicated that subjects who scored below 72.65

Table 60

Subject Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Perpetrator Misinterpreted Victim Belief

	male subject			female subject		
	Adj M	M	SD	Adj M	M	SD
self-blame	2.53	2.43	1.30	3.98	4.08	2.21
professor-blame	3.42	3.20	1.71	3.40	3.55	1.91
control	3.86	3.80	2.10	4.13	4.28	2.08

Note. n= 40.

on the FEM scale (i.e., toward the more traditional end) were more likely to believe that the perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim when the victim was female than when the victim was male (see Figure 15). In fact, FEM did not influence this belief when the victim was male.

Finally, the analysis for the question concerning whether the perpetrator was attracted to the victim revealed a significant Subject Sex x Victim Sex interaction, $F(2,216)= 4.88$ (see Table 61). Male subjects rated the perpetrator as more attracted to the victim when the victim was female ($M= 2.07$, $SD= 1.07$) than did female subjects ($M= 2.72$, $SD= 1.47$). Male ($M= 2.17$, $SD= 1.09$) and female ($M= 2.13$, $SD= 1.37$) subjects did not differ on their ratings when the victim was male.

Summary. The subjects did not believe that the victim had misinterpreted the perpetrator. However, both the male subjects and the subjects with traditional attitudes were more likely to believe that the perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim than were the female subjects or the subjects with less traditional attitudes. Moreover, traditional subjects were more likely to believe this when the victim was a female than when the victim was a male. Although the male subjects were more likely to believe that the perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim who engaged in self-blame than were the female subjects, the female

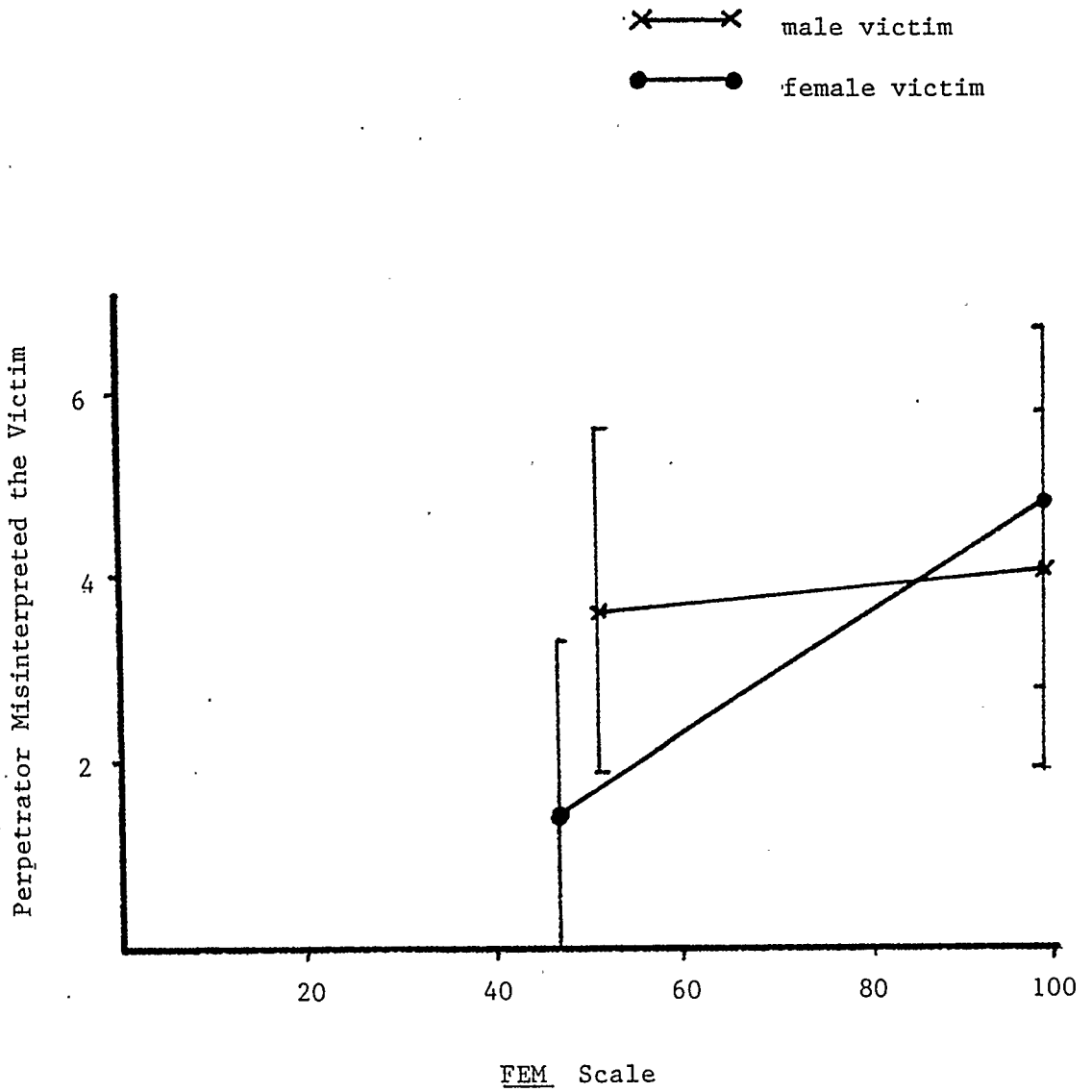

Figure 15: FEM x Victim Sex interaction on the belief that the perpetrator misinterpreted the victim. Male victim b= .01, female victim b= .07.

Table 61

Summary Table for Regression on Attraction

Source	df	MS	R2	F
Subject Sex (SS)	1	5.704	.01	3.59
FEM	1	1.350	.00	0.85
SS X FEM	1	1.550	.00	0.97
Victim Sex (VS)	1	4.036	.01	2.54
Victim Reaction (VR)	2	3.016	.01	1.90
SS X VS	1	7.768	.02	4.88*
SS X VR	2	2.759	.01	1.73
FEM X VS	1	0.998	.00	0.63
FEM X VR	2	3.809	.02	2.39
VS X VR	2	0.128	.00	0.08
SS X VS X VR	2	2.330	.01	1.46
SS X FEM X VS	1	1.400	.00	0.88
SS X FEM X VR	2	0.132	.00	0.08
FEM X VS X VR	2	0.165	.00	0.10
SS X FEM X VS X VR	2	0.154	.00	0.10
ERROR	216	1.591		

* $p<.05$

subjects were more likely to hold this view when the victim blamed the perpetrator than when the victim gave no reaction. Finally, the male subjects were more likley to believe that the perpetrator was attracted to the female victim than were the female subjects. There was no sex difference on the attraction rating when the victim was a male.

Prior Victimization

Subjects were asked whether they had ever experienced sexual harassment in either the workplace or at school (see Table 62 for categories). Females reported being harassed more often (42%) than did males (21%). Moreover, females reported more types than did males. Females reported 80 of the 118 incidents and reported at least one experience in eight of the nine categories. Males, on the other hand, reported only 38 incidents which fell into five of the nine categories. Both sexes reported that harassment most often came from co-workers or other students and both reported experiencing more sexual harassment in the workplace than at university.

As prior victimization may influence observer's attributions of responsibility, a multivariate t-test was conducted on the attribution measures. The analysis revealed no significant effect of prior victimization on subjects' attribution judgments.

Table 62

Subject's Sexual Harassment Experiences

	males	females	total
professor U of Calgary	0	3	3
T.A. U of Calgary	0	1	1
student U of Calgary	9	11	20
professor other U	0	2	2
T.A. other U	0	0	0
student other U	3	5	8
high school teacher	8	8	16
supervisor (work)	7	21	28
co-worker	11	29	40
TOTAL	38	80	118

Discussion

Overall, the victim was evaluated more favourably than the perpetrator and less responsibility was attributed to the victim than to the perpetrator across all conditions. This is consistent with previous research in the rape literature (Acock & Ireland, 1983; Scroggs, 1976). One possible explanation for the low levels of victim derogation and blame was that the subjects were asked to attribute blame to the perpetrator as well as to the victim. According to Lerner and Miller (1978), if the subjects are allowed to restore justice by either rewarding the victim (e.g., Lerner & Simmons, 1966) or by assigning blame to another person (e.g., a rapist or harasser) then the sense of injustice is abated and subjects are not motivated to blame the victim.

Attitudes Toward Feminism

As predicted, subjects with less traditional attitudes toward the roles of men and women derogated the victim less, attributed less responsibility to the victim and attributed more responsibility to the perpetrator than did subjects with traditional attitudes. There was a main effect of FEM on subjects' evaluations and attributions of responsibility for all but one of the eight measures, perpetrator character evaluation. (On some of these the FEM main effect was qualified by subject sex or the

experimental variables. These interactions will be dealt with in the sections to follow). Even on the evaluation of the perpetrator's character, however, FEM was involved in a three-way interaction with subject sex and victim reaction. Here, FEM affected only the female subjects in the control condition, and was marginally significant for the male subjects in the self-blame and the professor-blame conditions. As was the case with the other variables, within these three conditions, less traditional attitudes were associated with a more negative evaluation of the perpetrator's character. Taken together, these findings extend those obtained by Acock and Ireland (1983) and Thornton et al. (1982).

FEM was also related to subjects' responses to questions bearing on evaluations of the victim's character and the victim's responsibility (i.e., victim adjustment and whether the victim should report the incident). Again, less traditional attitudes were associated with a more positive evaluation of the victim; less traditional subjects rated the victim as more adjusted than did traditional subjects. Subjects' assessments of victim adjustment were significantly correlated with their evaluations of the victim's character on the bipolar adjective measure, $r(240) = .54$, and their attributions of responsibility (see Appendix G, Table 3), indicating that

subjects who evaluated the victim's character unfavourably and attributed responsibility to the victim also viewed the victim as disturbed. Consistent with these findings, less traditional subjects were also more in favour of the victim reporting the incident than were traditional subjects.

In addition, FEM was related to subjects' responses to a number of questions bearing on attributions of responsibility to the perpetrator (i.e., whether the perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim, the appropriateness of the perpetrator's actions, and the punitive actions that should be taken against the perpetrator). In all cases, less traditional attitudes were associated with a more negative assessment of the perpetrator, that is, less traditional subjects were more likely to view the perpetrator's behaviour as being inappropriate under the circumstances, were less likely to view the perpetrator's actions as being caused by a misunderstanding, and suggested harsher punitve actions to be taken against the perpetrator than did traditional subjects. These results are logically consistent with the prediction that less traditional attitudes would be associated with less victim blame and consistent with the findings of Acock and Ireland (1983).

Finally, FEM was related to subjects' responses to a number of questions bearing on their perceptions of the

sexual harassment situation (i.e., the frequency and severity of such incidents). Less traditional subjects rated both the frequency and severity of the incident as higher than did traditional subjects.

These results may be attributed to identification with the victim by subjects who scored high on the FEM scale (Deitz et al., 1982). In fact, FEM was related to subjects' ratings of personal similarity to the victim, that is, less traditional subjects rated themselves as being more like the victim than did traditional subjects. However, a comparable relationship was not found for situational similarity. Instead, FEM interacted with subject sex, victim sex, and victim reaction, and contrary to the identification hypothesis, less traditional male subjects in the male victim, control condition rated the incident as less likely to happen to them than did traditional male subjects. FEM was unrelated to situational similarity in the other conditions. The absense of a FEM main effect for situational similarity is not surprising as sexual harassment is more relevant for females than for males regardless of the subjects' attitudes. In addition, the four-way interaction is not a reliable finding given the present study's design. Thus, the notion that less traditional attitudes lead to greater identification with the victim and therefore, less

derogation and blame toward the victim was supported at least partially.

The pervasive effect of FEM on subjects' responses suggests that FEM should be taken into consideration in research dealing with similar issues.

Subject Sex

Predictions for a subject sex main effect and a Subject Sex x Victim Sex interaction were made on the basis of the defensive attribution theories. Subject sex emerged as a main effect on only two of the attribution variables, victim behavioural responsibility and perpetrator character evaluation, and subject sex interacted with victim sex on victim character responsibility. Nonetheless, subject sex was involved in statistically significant interactions on six of the eight attribution variables. For three of these (i.e., victim character evaluation, victim global responsibility, and victim carelessness) the highest order significant interaction involved subject sex and victim reaction. In the case of perpetrator character evaluation, there was a Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Reaction interaction. Finally, there was a four-way interaction on victim behavioural responsibility. Thus, only perpetrator global responsibility and attributions to chance were not related to subjects' sex.

The results partially supported the main effect prediction. The female subjects attributed less behavioural responsibility to the victim and evaluated the perpetrator more negatively than did the male subjects. However, the actual difference between the male and female subjects' ratings was small. Moreover, in both cases the effect of subject sex was qualified by other variables. These interactions will be dealt with below.

Other sex differences also support the predictions of attribution theory. The female subjects were more likely to rate the perpetrator's behaviour as being inappropriate, and to view the perpetrator as having abused his/her power than were the male subjects. In addition, the female subjects were less likely to agree that the perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim and proposed harsher penalties than did the male subjects. These findings are consistent with the notions of harm-avoidance and blame-avoidance. On this account, the female subjects were more negative toward the perpetrator than were the male subjects because they feared future victimization (i.e., were motivated by harm-avoidance). On the other hand, the male subjects, who are more likely to find themselves accused of sexual harassment, endeavoured to excuse the perpetrator's behaviour (i.e., they were motivated by blame-avoidance). This is also consistent with previous research in the rape

literature indicating that women seek longer prison sentences for perpetrator's of sex-linked crimes than do men (Barnett & Field, 1977; Kanekar, Pinto, & Mazumdar, 1985; Scroggs, 1976). Nonetheless, these findings are not consistent with Gutek, Morasch, and Cohen (1983) who found that male subjects rated the actions of a high status perpetrator as more inappropriate than did the females. In the present study, the subject sex main effect on this measure was qualified by FEM; the traditional males viewed the perpetrator's behaviour as being more appropriate than did the traditional females. No explanation for the contradictory findings is apparent, but the consistency of the present results suggest that Gutek et al.'s (1983) findings were spurious.

Although the majority of subjects labelled the incident as sexual harassment and were confident in their decision, the female subjects applied this label significantly more often than did the male subjects and were more confident in their judgments than were the males. This is consistent with previous research in which females rated more behaviours and gestures as sexual harassment and gave higher sexual harassment ratings to a variety of vignettes than did males (Gutek et al., 1983; Reilly et al., 1982). Compared to the males, the female subjects in this study also were more likely to suggest that the victim

report the incident, rated the incident as occurring more frequently, and viewed the incident as more severe. Again, the male subjects may have been downplaying the seriousness of the incident in an attempt to avoid blame. Previous research has found that men are more likely than women to think that the victim (usually a female) is flattered by sexual overtures, and are more likely to believe that women encourage such advances by their actions (Gutek, 1982). Gutek (1982) has suggested that by believing that women control the situation, men can absolve themselves from blame. Moreover, she notes that the majority of men find sexual comments or advances very flattering; therefore men may assume that most women do also. Subjects' rationalizations for reporting or not reporting the incident suggest that the females viewed reporting the incident as a means of preventing further incidents of harassment, whereas the males questioned the seriousness of the situation and were concerned with the effect this might have on the perpetrator's career. Taken together, these results reflect the harm-avoidance and blame-avoidance motivations and are consistent with previous research on sexual harassment (Collins & Blodgett, 1981; Gutek et al., 1983) and rape (Barnett & Field, 1977; Krulewitz, 1982).

The two interactions involving subject sex and victim sex (i.e., on victim character responsibility and victim

behavioural responsibility) failed to support the hypothesis. Male subjects rated the male victim as more responsible by virtue of his character than did female subjects, and female subjects rated the female victim as more responsible than the male victim. Although for the male subjects the difference between the male and female victims was not statistically significant, the ordering of the means was the reverse of that obtained for the female subjects (i.e., the mean for the male victim was smaller than the mean for the female victim).

The highest order significant interaction on victim behavioural responsibility was the four-way interaction. Analysis of this interaction was problematic and therefore its interpretation must be based on largely descriptive information. When differences between the male and the female subjects emerged, they were consistent with those obtained on attributions to the victim's character. Specifically, male subjects attributed more responsibility to the male victim than did female subjects, and female subjects attributed more responsibility to the female victim than did male subjects. FEM appeared to influence primarily the female subjects' responses. When the victim was female and either self-blaming or blamed the perpetrator, non-traditional attitudes were associated with relatively low levels of responsibility. Nonetheless, the

effects involving FEM emerged in only 2 of the 12 conditions.

The Subject Sex x Victim Sex interaction was also related to responses to questions bearing on the evaluation of the victim's character (i.e., victim adjustment) and subjects' belief that the perpetrator was attracted to the victim. Again, the female subjects rated the female victim as less adjusted than the male victim and viewed her as less adjusted than did the male subjects. Although, the male subjects' adjustment ratings between the male and female victim were not statistically significant, the mean for the male victim was smaller than for the female victim. Partially consistent with attribution theory, however, the female subjects were less likely to believe that the perpetrator was attracted to the victim when the victim was a female than were the male subjects. There was no difference between the male and female subjects for the male victim, however, with subjects rating the female perpetrator as being attracted to the male victim.

The prediction of a Subject Sex x Victim Sex interaction was based on the assumption that victim sex would affect ratings of similarity between the victim and the subject. That is, it was expected that the female subjects would identify with the female victim and the male subjects would identify with the male victim. There was,

however, no interaction between victim sex and subject sex on ratings of personal similarity. Moreover, on situational similarity, while the female subjects rated the incident as more likely to happen to them than did the male subjects, both the males and the females rated the incident as more situationally relevant when the victim was male. While the former finding is expected, the latter seems somewhat counter-intuitive, that is, men are not usually the victims of sexual harassment and therefore it seems unusual that subjects would rate the situation as more relevant in this condition. One possible explanation for this finding comes from an examination of the means for the male and female subjects' ratings of situational similarity when the victim was either a male or a female. Although this interaction was not statistically significant, it approached significance. The means for the female subjects indicate that they saw the incident as relevant regardless of the victim's sex. The means for the male subjects, on the other hand, indicate that they rated the incident as somewhat relevant only when the victim was a male. Therefore, the female subjects' disregard of the victim's sex when making their judgments of situational similarity, combined with the male subjects' higher ratings when the victim was a male led to the victim sex main effect where subjects' ratings of situational similarity were higher

when the victim was a male than when the victim was a female. To summarize, sex of the victim did not determine the occurrence of identification with the victim, as measured by personal similarity. In this case, the Just World Hypothesis (Lerner, 1980; Lerner & Miller, 1978) predicts that subjects will be threatened by a victim of the same sex more than by a victim of the opposite sex. Thus, as found in the present study, they would derogate and blame the same sex victim more than the victim of the opposite sex. Nonetheless, the ratings of situational similarity remain inconsistent. According to these ratings, the female subjects ought to have been threatened regardless of the victim's sex and only the male subjects ought to have shown differential responding to the male and female victims.

Examination of the two-way interactions involving subject sex and victim reaction revealed a fairly consistent pattern of findings. The male subjects evaluated the control victim's character more favourably than did the female subjects and also attributed less overall responsibility to the control victim and less responsibility by virtue of his or her carelessness. The female subjects, on the other hand, evaluated the self-blaming victim's character more favourably than did the male subjects and attributed less overall

responsibility to the self-blaming victim and less responsibility by virtue of her or his carelessness. No clear-cut sex differences emerged for the professor-blaming victim; the male and female subjects did not differ on victim character evaluation or attributions to victim carelessness, but the female subjects attributed more overall responsibility to this victim than did the male subjects.

Sex differences in the evaluation of the perpetrator's character depended on the victim's reaction and subjects' FEM scores. In the self-blame and professor-blame conditions, traditional male subjects evaluated the perpetrator's character more positively than did traditional female subjects. In the control condition, however, less traditional male subjects evaluated the perpetrator's character more positively than did less traditional females.

Consistent with these findings, the female subjects rated the self-blame victim as more adjusted than the victim who blamed either the perpetrator or the control victim, whereas, the male subjects rated the control victim as more adjusted than the self-blame or professor-blame victims. In addition, the male subjects were more likely to believe that the perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim who engaged in self-blame than either the victim who

blamed the perpetrator or the control victim. The female subjects, however, were more likely to believe that the perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim when the victim blamed the perpetrator than when the victim gave no reaction (i.e., control victim). Finally, subject sex and victim reaction were involved in an interaction with FEM on the measure concerning whether the victim was dwelling on the incident. Less traditional male subjects in the professor-blame condition rated the victim as dwelling on the incident less than did traditional males.

The interactions between victim reaction and subject sex were not expected. Coates et al. (1979) found no effect of a rape victim's reactions on either subjects' attributions of responsibility or their evaluations of the victim's attractiveness, and while Krulewitz (1982) found that the victim's reaction did affect subjects attributions of responsibility, both male and female subjects responded in a similar manner. Again, identification processes may explain the findings of the present study. A Subject Sex x Victim Reaction interaction emerged on personal similarity. The female subjects rated themselves as more similar to the victim who engaged in self-blame than did the male subjects, and more similar to the self-blame victim than either the professor-blame or control victims. The male subjects, on the other hand, rated themselves as more

similar to the control victim than did the female subjects, and as more similar to the control victim than to the self-blame victim. For the female subjects, then, identification with the self-blaming victim may have led to their more favourable opinions of this victim. The male subjects, on the other hand, identified with the victim who gave no reaction (i.e., the control victim), which may have led to their more positive opinions of this victim. The male subjects' ratings of situational similarity on the whole were low and therefore it is questionable whether the situation was sufficiently relevant to elicit identification. Another possible explanation of the attribution judgments made by the male subjects is that they were simply responding in accordance with the victim's reaction. That is, the male subjects derogated the victim and attributed more responsibility to the victim who held his/her own behaviour partly responsible for the incident compared to the victim who blamed the perpetrator or who gave no reaction. In addition, less traditional males gave a less favourable evaluation of the perpetrator's character in the professor-blame condition than in the self-blame condition.

Overall, the findings are consistent with previous research which has found that women attribute less responsibility to victims of sexual harassment than do men

(e.g., Fulero & Delara, 1976). The subject sex main effect, however, was often qualified by the experimental variables. Contrary to the hypotheses in the present study, subjects did not identify with the victim on the basis of the victim's sex. Instead, the victim's reaction affected subjects' ratings of personal similarity. The effect of victim reaction on sex differences in attribution decisions, while inconsistent with previous research, is consistent with attribution theory, which predicts that identification decreases derogation and blame. Although the male subjects may have been sensitive to cues given by the victim, the female subjects may have been affected by their own fears of victimization and how they felt they would react under similar circumstances.

Victim Sex and Victim Reaction

Examination of the effects of the experimental variables on subjects' attributions revealed significant main effects for victim sex and victim reaction on four of the eight attribution measures: victim behavioural responsibility, victim carelessness, perpetrator character evaluation, and chance for victim sex; and victim character evaluation, victim behavioural responsibility, perpetrator character evaluation, and perpetrator responsibility for victim reaction. Victim sex also interacted with FEM and victim reaction on victim global responsibility. The

female victim was rated as more responsible for her victimization by virtue of her behaviour and carelessness than was the male victim. While less traditional subjects did not differ on their ratings of the male and female victims, traditional subjects rated the female victim as more responsible overall than the male victim. Similarly, traditional subjects were more likely to agree that the perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim when the victim was female than when the victim was male, which suggests that the traditional subjects held a more stereotyped belief about sexual harassment and about male/female sexual interactions. This is similar to the view traditional subjects hold about rape victims and rapists (Acock & Ireland, 1983). Consistent with this interpretation, subjects were also more likely to attribute the situation to chance when the victim was a male than when the victim was a female. Moreover, subjects evaluated the perpetrator's character less favourably when the victim was a female (i.e., the perpetrator was a male) than when the victim was a male (i.e., the perpetrator was a female) and sought harsher penalties against the perpetrator when the victim was a female than when the victim was a male. This is consistent with Gutek et al. (1983), where subjects found a male who made sexual comments to a female in a work-setting to be more offensive than a female who made

sexual comments to a male in the same setting. Such attitudes also reflect a stereotypic view of women as dependent beings who need protection.

The victim who engaged in self-blame was evaluated more favourably than the other two victims, and subjects also evaluated the perpetrator's character more favourably in this condition than in the other two conditions. Moreover, subjects were more likely to agree that the perpetrator had misinterpreted the victim in the self-blame condition than in the control condition, and attributed less responsibility to the perpetrator in the self-blame and professor-blame conditions than in the control condition. Finally, subjects attributed more responsibility to the victim who blamed the perpetrator by virtue of his/her behaviour than to either the self-blame or control victims.

The prediction that subjects would rate the victim who engaged in self-blame as less adjusted and dwelling on the incident more than the control victim was only partially supported. Victim reaction emerged as a main effect on the measure of whether the victim was dwelling on the incident. However, both of the victims who reacted were rated as dwelling on the incident in comparison to the control victim. Moreover, on both measures victim reaction interacted with the subject variables (i.e, with subject

sex on victim adjustment and with subject sex and FEM on whether the victim was dwelling on the incident). For the measure of victim adjustment the responses of the male subjects were partially consistent with the prediction, that is, they rated the control victim as more adjusted than the victims who reacted. The female subjects, however, rated the control victim as less adjusted than either the self-blame or professor-blame victims. These interactions are inconsistent with Coates et al. (1979). The present study used only two of the four measures employed by Coates et al. (1979). Moreover, Coates et al. (1979) summed subjects' scores for the four adjustment measures; in the present study, subjects' responses to the two measures were analyzed separately. Nonetheless, the interaction effects obtained in this study are consistent with other findings in the present study providing some evidence for their reliability. Overall however, it should be noted that subjects gave fairly low ratings of adjustment and rated the victims as dwelling on the incident.

The interactions between victim sex and victim reaction indicate that subjects' attributions were influenced by stereotypes related to appropriate masculine and feminine behaviour. That is, subjects attributed more overall responsibility to the male victim who engaged in

self-blame than to the professor-blame or control male victims. This reaction may be viewed as a response more commonly associated with women (e.g., rape victims often engage in self-blame; Janoff-Bulman, 1979). Similarly, more responsibility was attributed to the female victim who blamed the perpetrator than to the self-blaming or control female victims. Expressions of anger or aggression may be viewed as unwomanly. Victim sex and victim reaction were also involved in an interaction with FEM on subjects' ratings of whether the victim should report the incident. Consistent with sex-role stereotypes, subjects felt that the male victim who offered no reaction (i.e., the control victim) and the female victim who attributed some of the responsibility to herself should report the incident. Surprisingly, however, it was less traditional attitudes that led to these decisions.

Personal and Situational Similarity

It was hypothesized that subjects who "identified" with the victim, that is, scored high on both personal and situational similarity would attribute less responsibility to the victim than would subjects who scored high on only situational similarity. Personal and situational similarity had an effect on variables associated with victim responsibility and character evaluation, but not on variables related to the perpetrator or attributions to

chance. The effects of personal similarity were most consistent; high personal similarity was associated with a more positive evaluation of the victim's character and lower ratings of responsibility on all four victim responsibility variables. High situational similarity, on the other hand, was associated with lower ratings of victim global responsibility, victim behavioural responsibility, and victim carelessness. An interaction emerged only for the victim global responsibility measure. Subjects who scored low on both personal and situational similarity attributed more overall responsibility to the victim than subjects who scored high on both variables or high on one and low on the other. This is inconsistent with the findings of Shaw and McMartin (1977) who found that subjects in the high personal and high situational similarity condition rated an accident perpetrator as less responsible than subjects in the low personal and high situational similarity condition. Shaw and McMartin's (1977) findings were consistent with defensive attribution theory, in that, despite high situational relevance subjects who deny personal similarity to the victim are expected to attribute more responsibility to the victim than those who do not deny personal similarity. In the present study, however, subjects who rated themselves as unlike the victim, but likely to find themselves in a

situation similar to that of the victim, did not rate the victim as being significantly more responsible than subjects who scored high on both. In fact, this group's ratings were more similar to the subjects who scored high on both similarity measures than the other two groups.

Also inconsistent with defensive attribution theory was the finding that the subjects who scored low on both variables differed from those who scored high on both variables. That is, Shaver (1975) predicts a curvilinear relationship with high scorers and low scorers attributing low levels of blame to the victim. Presumably, the subject who scores low on both measures does not view the situation as relevant and therefore is not threatened. In the present study, however, despite the denial of similarity by subjects who scored low on both measures they blamed the victim more than did subjects in the other three groups.

A major difference between the present study and Shaw and McMartin's (1977) research was that Shaw and McMartin used an experimental paradigm in which they attempted to manipulate similarity. An equal number of males and females were randomly assigned to each condition. In the present study subjects rated their level of similarity to the victim and to the situation depicted. Shaw and McMartin's (1977) manipulation of both the sex of the accident perpetrator and the sex-role stereotypic

occupations may not have been independent manipulations of personal and situational similarity. That is, the manipulation of occupation may have affected not only subjects' situational similarity but also their personal similarity to the stimulus person. This cannot be determined, however, as no manipulation checks were obtained. In the present study, a male and a female victim was used in an attempt to manipulate personal similarity. The sex of the victim had no effect on subjects' ratings of similarity to the victim, however.

Prior Victimization

Although the means were in the appropriate direction, the results of the analysis did not support the hypothesis that prior victimization would result in greater empathy with the victim and therefore less derogation and blame. One possible explanation for this finding is that a poor measure of prior victimization was used. Subjects were not provided, with a definition of sexual harassment, nor were they asked, to provide their own definition. Therefore the accuracy of their claims of harassment could not be judged, and although subjects were provided the opportunity to discuss their experiences not all subjects did so. In addition, the subjects' own experiences were often different from the experience of the victim in the vignette. That is, the majority of subjects who stated

that they had been victims of sexual harassment reported being harassed by another student or co-worker. The victim in the vignette, on the other hand, was harassed by someone in a position of authority. Thus, it may have been difficult for subjects who had been victims to relate to the situation experienced by the victim in the story.

Limitations of the Study

The victim reaction manipulation checks and the measures of victim credibility indicated that subjects noticed the victim reaction manipulation and viewed the victim as both sincere and truthful. Despite the fairly high ratings on the credibility measures, however, the male subjects rated the victim as less truthful and sincere than did the female subjects. This is consistent with blame-avoidance and harm-avoidance. In addition, the subjects rated the male victim as less sincere and truthful than they did the female victim. Subjects were probably more suspicious of the male victim because male victims of sexual harassment are rare. In general, attributions for the male victim may reflect the unusual nature of their victimization as well as their sex.

Several anomalous unusual findings involving victim sex could be explained by such an effect. For example, although subjects attributed less responsibility to the male victim than to the female victim, they evaluated the

perpetrator's character more favourably when the victim was a male than when the victim was a female. In addition, in the Subject Sex x Victim Sex interaction on the measure of whether the perpetrator was attracted to the victim, the male and female subjects' ratings in the female victim condition was consistent with the predictions of attribution theory. That is, the female subjects were less likely to believe that the perpetrator acted out of attraction for the female victim than were the male subjects. In the male victim condition, however, there were no sex differences; both sexes believed that the perpetrator was attracted to the male victim. Related to this, subjects felt more strongly that the female victim should report the incident than the male victim. Similar results were obtained by Gutek et al. (1983). Taken together, these results suggest that sex of victim and the victim "role" are necessarily confounded when the crime is one most often associated with female victims.

A number of problems were encountered in the analysis of the results; several higher order interactions involving FEM were uninterpretable. The regression coefficients often indicated that only one or two of the conditions involved in the interactions were influenced by the continuous variable. In retrospect, 20 subjects per condition was not sufficient to adequately test statistical

hypotheses involving higher order interactions that included a continuous variable, although they were adequate to test those hypotheses involving the categorical variables. Nonetheless, FEM proved to be an important variable that consistently contributed to subjects' attributions. It would be worthwhile to examine the effects of FEM under various treatment combinations when the conditions are more favourable (i.e., larger sample sizes). The difficulties associated with the present study highlight at least one practical problem stemming from the combination of experimental and nonexperimental independent variables within a single research design. Practically speaking, it is difficult to design a study that can handle both types of variables with equal power and not place a considerable strain on resources.

The present study took a univariate approach in analyzing subjects' responses to the dependent measure which raises questions concerning the reliability of the findings. A hypothsis-wise α level was adopted rather than an experiment-wise level and therefore, the actual likelihood of making a Type I error was greater than .05. However, a multivariate analysis confirmed the findings obtained in the univariate analyses suggesting that replication of the effects obtained is likely.

Some of the other difficulties encountered in the present study have been discussed in the previous sections. To reiterate, the manipulation of victim sex was not sufficient to evoke identification. Thus, manipulations of personal similarity must be more involving as in the case of Shaver's (1970) second experiment. In retrospect, it is not surprising that the victim reaction manipulation affected personal similarity more than the manipulation of victim sex. In two of his experiments Shaver (1970) also failed to confirm his hypotheses when he used variables such as age and sex in order to manipulate personal similarity. Manipulation of victim reaction, on the other hand, may cause observers to reflect on how they would deal with the situation. Instead, the manipulation of victim sex affected subjects' ratings of situational similarity. While it had little effect on the female subjects' similarity ratings, the male subjects did rate their likelihood of being harassed slightly higher when the victim was a male than when the victim was a female. This suggests that the manipulation of victim sex increased the salience of the situation for those subjects (i.e., the men) for whom situational similarity would not normally be high.

The present study examined factors that might increase identification with a victim. Future research

should examine the effects of identification on people's willingness to help a victim, and in particular, the type of aid or advice they would give to a victim. Finally, a more appropriate measure of prior victimization is needed in order to assess the effects of this variable on people's attribution decisions, as well as its effect on identification with the victim.

Implications of the Present Study

The results of the present study suggest that observer characteristics (in particular attitudes) are important in understanding individuals' reactions to a case of sexual harassment. Thus, researchers should continue to take these factors into account. Moreover, theories that attempt to explain individuals' perceptions of others may be useful in making research predictions about how observers will react to a victim. While the findings did not wholly conform to the predictions, sometimes because erroneous asumptions had been made (e.g., the importance of victim sex), they were consistent generally with the principles of attribution theory. Moreover, many of the sex differences obtained lend support to Shaw and McMartin's (1977) notion that observers may be motivated by either a fear of blame or by a fear of victimization.

The effect of these motives may have been heightened in the present study because the incident was presented

from the point of view of the victim. This may have increased identification between the victim and those observers who were most likely to be victimized (i.e., women). Moreover, it may have made it easier for those who were more likely to find themselves accused of harassment (i.e., men) to question the guilt of the perpetrator. Most attribution studies involving crimes such as rape present the situation from a third person perspective where the guilt of the perpetrator is more obvious than in the present study. This does not detract from the present study however because, except in those cases where the perpetrator admits his/her guilt or is caught in the act, most cases of sexual harassment involve the victim's word against that of the perpetrator. Therefore, because sexual harassment involves both a victim and a harasser and because subjects may be motivated to protect one or the other parties by their own feelings of vulnerability, researchers need to examine observers' attributions of responsibility to both the victim and the perpetrator.

While the results of the subject sex and FEM main effects and the Subject Sex x Victim Reaction interactions were consistent with the predictions of attribution theory, the results of the Subject Sex x Victim Sex interactions were not. The female subjects' attributions of responsibility for the male and female victims proved to be

problematic for attribution theory. They were consistent with aspects of the Just World Hypothesis but were not consistent with the women's own responses to the measures of personal and situational similarity. No explanation for these results is apparent.

In the research literature there is currently a difference of opinion concerning the adjustment of victims who engage in self-blame. Although researchers such as Bulman and Wortman (1977) and Janoff-Bulman (1979) have suggested that self-blame, in particular behavioural self-blame (Janoff-Bulman, 1979), may help victims to regain a sense of control over their lives, observers (Coates et al., 1979; Janoff-Bulman, 1982; Krulewitz, 1982) view self-blame as a sign of poor coping. In the present study the female subjects were more sympathetic toward this victim than were the male subjects, and more sympathetic toward this victim compared to the other victims. Observer empathy could have positive or negative consequences. On the one hand, behavioural self-blame could be construed as instrumental control. That is, by blaming her/his own behaviour the victim is attempting to develop effective strategies for preventing and/or coping with future similar incidents. Thus, empathy on the part of others would serve to reinforce this adaptive response. Moreover, in a clinical context it would be important for a counsellor to

respond favourably to the victim regardless of his/her reaction in order to faciliate a bond of trust between the victim and counsellor. Self-blame may, in fact, be an initial reaction to victimization which is replaced later on by a more complex analyses including the role of the perpetrator and societal factors. A counsellor would be in a better position to guide the victim through this process once trust is established. On the other hand, a positive response to the self-blaming victim may have unintended negative consequences when it comes from a causual observer who does not then become more closely involved with the victim. It may unwittingly reinforce what is essentially an incorrect belief about the victim's role and the nature of sexual harassment, that the victim must have done something to cause the harassment to occur. The effect of such a belief on the victim may be considerable. Assuming that the victim is female, reinforcing the self-blame reaction is also likely to reinforce for her the "correctness" of the sexual double standard where the male takes on the role of the aggressor and the female must protect her virtue (Perlman & Cozby, 1983).

Moreover, while the self-blame reaction may be an effective coping mechanism for the first-time victim, it may be less effective for the revictimized. Assuming that a person who has been previously victimized has attempted

to learn from her/his experience and taken what he considers to be the necessary precautions to avoid further incidents, a second harassment experience could be highly traumatic, especially, if the victim does not feel she/he dealt with the situation in a better way on the second occasion. Thus, the control provided by the self-blame reaction will not necessarily buffer the victim when she/he encounters other coercive sexual experiences. This possible problem may only apply to those victims who do not move on from the "self-blaming" phase of coping.

Although the measure of prior victimization was not ideal, the results indicated that the types of sexual harassment experienced by subjects did not conform to those used thusfar in research on sexual harassment (including the present study). That is, most victims reported being harassed by an "equal" (i.e., another student or co-worker). On the other hand, most research vignettes involve a harasser who is in a position of authority over the victim. The survey research on sexual harassment concurs that people are more often harassed by a peer than by a superior (see Cammaert, 1985; Gutek, 1982; Tangri et al., 1982). Further research focussed on sexual harassment between "equals" could examine whether observers are as likely to view such interactions as sexual harassment as when the interaction is between a superior and a

subordinate and whether attributions of responsibility differ in the two situations. Moreover, vignettes that include more ambiguous forms of sexual harassment (e.g., an equal power dyad) may provide some insight into what behaviours constitute socially acceptable male/female interactions. That is, it may help to define the boundaries of sexual harassment and suggest possible reasons for the reluctance of some individuals to label certain interactions as sexual harassment.

The present study provides some indication of people's attributions of responsibility in a case of sexual harassment. While subjects' responses were significantly affected by the variables examined in the present study, overall subjects held the perpetrator responsible for the harassment incident. To the extent that observers' perceptions of a victim are linked to their treatment, the present study set out to examine which victim faired better. The results, however, suggest that there is no straightforward answer to this question. That is, subjects' responses were motivated by a number of factors which sometimes resulted in contradictory responses. For example, although the female victim was rated as more responsible by virtue of her behaviour or carelessness than was the male victim, nonetheless, subjects proposed harsher penalties for the perpetrator when the victim was a female

than when the victim was a male. Finally, while many of the results confirmed the predictions made on the basis of attribution theory (e.g., sex differences), the differences between group means were often small. Thus, the meaningfulness of those statistically significant differences remains a question. It remains for future research involving actual victims to provide evidence for the applicability of these findings to how victims are treated by others.

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Appendix A

Table 1

Summary Table for Victim Sex x Victim Reaction x Story ANOVA on Confidence

Source	df	MS	F
Victim Sex (VS)	1	0.516	0.27
Victim Raction (VR)	2	3.016	1.58
Story (S)	2	0.816	0.43
VS X VR	2	1.433	0.75
VS X S	1	3.047	1.59
VR X S	2	0.569	0.30
VS X VR X S	2	0.300	0.16
ERROR	105	1.915	

Table 2

Summary Table for Victim Sex x Victim Reaction x Story ANOVA on Self-blame Manipulation Check

Source	df	MS	F
VS	1	6.064	2.84
VR	2	125.666	58.89**
S	1	3.033	1.42
VS X VR	2	4.567	2.14
VS X S	1	0.633	0.30
VR X S	2	1.382	0.65
VS X VR X S	2	0.997	0.47
ERROR	105	2.134	

**$p < .01$

Table 3

Summary Table for Victim Sex x Victim Reaction x Story ANOVA on Professor-blame Manipulation Check

Source	df	MS	F
VS	1	9.743	4.68*
VR	2	115.919	55.69**
S	1	9.743	4.68*
VS X VR	2	1.468	0.71
VS X S	1	0.119	0.06
VR X S	2	0.903	0.43
VS X VR X S	2	0.322	0.155
ERROR	105	2.082	

* $p<.05$

** $p<.01$

Table 4

Summary Table for Victim Sex x Victim Reaction x Story ANOVA on Sincerity

Source	df	MS	F
VS	1	1.324	0.62
VR	2	2.641	1.23
S	1	1.771	0.83
VS X VR	2	1.093	0.51
VS X S	1	6.307	2.95
VR X S	2	3.579	1.67
VS X VR X S	2	6.785	3.17*
ERROR	105	2.140	

*$p<.05$

Table 5

Summary Table for Victim Sex x Victim Reaction x Story ANOVA on Truthfulness

Source	df	MS	F
VS	1	3.504	1.80
VR	2	1.070	0.55
S	1	0.084	0.04
VS X VR	2	0.705	0.36
VS X S	1	5.809	2.98
VR X S	2	4.290	2.20
VS X VR S	2	0.223	0.12
ERROR	105	1.947	

Table 6

Summary Table for Sincerity Simple Main Effects Test

Source	df	MS	F
Victim Sex,Victim Reaction at kiss-only	5	4.207	1.97
Victim Sex,Victim Reaction at kiss/caress	5	3.243	1.51
Victim Sex,Story at self-blame	3	6.533	3.05*
Victim Sex at self-blame,kiss-only	1	16.200	7.57**
Victim Sex at self-blame,kiss/caress	1	1.800	0.84
Story at self-blame,male victim	1	12.800	5.98
Story at self-blame,female victim	1	3.200	1.50
Victim Sex,Story at professor-blame	3	2.491	1.16
Victim Sex,Story at control	3	1.647	0.77
Victim Reaction,Story at male victim	5	4.171	1.95
Victim Reaction,Story at female victim	5	3.356	1.57
ERROR	105	2.140	

** $p<.01$

* $p<.05$

Table 7

Summary Table for Victim Sex x Victim Reaction x Story ANOVA on Severity

Source	df	MS	F
VS	1	14.788	7.24**
VR	2	3.141	1.54
S	1	0.362	0.18
VS X VR	2	2.735	1.34
VS X S	1	2.037	1.00
VR X S	2	1.780	0.87
VS X VR X S	2	1.990	0.98
ERROR	105	2.041	

**$p<.01$

Table 8

Summary Table for Victim Sex x Victim Reaction x Story ANOVA on Appropriateness of Professor's Behaviour

Source	df	MS	F
VS	1	2.853	1.98
VR	2	0.532	0.37
S	1	0.61	0.04
VS X VR	2	1.674	1.16
VS X S	1	3.001	2.08
VR X S	2	0.850	0.59
VS X VR X S	2	1.500	1.04
ERROR	105	1.441	

Appendix B

Story

My name is Mary (Jim). I am a nineteen year-old university student. I decided to go back to school after working for a year. The job I was in just wasn't for me. I could see myself stuck there unless I upped my credentials. So, I registered as a part-time student to see how I liked being back at school. It was a bit overwhelming at first; getting courses, all the people, finding your way around, etc., not to mention the frustration of standing in countless lines for things. That's why I was relieved when one of my professors, Dr. Mitchinson, seemed so understanding. He (she) seemed to notice my frustration about university when I came to his (her) office one day to ask if I could be admitted into his (her) course. He (she) said that if I ever had any problems with his (her) course, or life in general, I could come and talk to him (her).

I remember this one assignment we had, a term paper. It was the first essay I had written since finishing high school. Naturally I was anxious about it, as I have always hated writing essays, but I wanted to make a good first impression. I had set an early afternoon appointment to talk to Dr. Mitchinson. It was about one o'clock in the

afternoon, and as usual it was crazy trying to walk through the corridors. I knocked on his (her) office door and he (she) asked me to come in. I came into his (her) office and closed the door behind me. He (she) asked me what the problem was and motioned to me to sit down. I chose the closest chair, the one next to his (her) desk. I told him (her) that I was having problems with the essay and that I didn't have a clue where to begin looking for materials for the assignment he (she) had given us. I remember he (she) smiled at me and said that he (she) was confident that I was a very capable young woman (man) and that we could work something out. I thought little about the comment at the time.

He (she) asked me how I was finding other aspects of university life. I said that it was very different from the working world. There you knew what your job was and did it. Here, I said, I often felt that I was missing some important point that everyone else in the class knew but me. I also told him (her) about the trouble I was having meeting interesting and mature men (women) and that I couldn't imagine myself developing a truly initmate and sexual relationship with some of the boys (girls) in my classes. The lack of a social life was making my adjustment to university even more difficult.

We eventually got back to the topic of the assignment and he (she) went to his (her) bookshelf and selected a textbook he (she) said he (she) felt would help me begin my search for reference material. He (she) began flipping through the book while walking around his (her) office until he (she) was directly behind my chair and then he (she) leaned over my right shoulder and placed the book on his (her) desk directly in front of me. It was at this point that I started to feel uncomfortable. He (she) said that he (she) would be most willing to help me and that I really didn't have to worry about the essay. He (she) could guarantee that I would do well that's if I was willing to help him (her) with some of his (her) problems. That's when he (she) leaned closer, put his (her) arm around me, caressed by shoulder and kissed me on the cheek. I was shocked but didn't really know how to handle it or what to say to him (her). I knew that he (she) was looking at me waiting for my response. I gave what must have sounded like a rather weak excuse to have to leave his (her) office picked up my books and left.

Self-blame

It has been a month since the incident. At first I felt upset and then I felt embarrassed by what had happened, somehow I could not see myself in his (her) class after that. Besides I had heard of this kind of thing

happening to other students and they usually got into some sort of trouble, so shortly after the incident I dropped the course. I remember going to the cafeteria after my encounter with Dr. Mitchinson and as I was sitting there the events of our discussion kept running through my head, what I had said (mostly what I shouldn't have said) and what he (she) had said and done. It was then that I realized that he (she) had probably misinterpretted the whole situation. My going on about all of my personal problems, finding the right man (woman), etc., may have led him (her) to believe that I was interested in him (her) or something. Also I didn't really have to sit so close to him (her) I could have sat elsewhere. And when I just sat there like a fool when he (she) kissed me; I mean he (she) must have thought that I wasn't upset by what he (she) was doing. I don't know sometimes I can be so naive, not really thinking about what I am saying or how it could be interpreted.

Professor-blame

It has been a month since the incident. At first I felt upset and then I felt angry about what had happened, somehow I could not see myself being in his (her) class after that. Besides I had heard about this kind of thing happening to other students and they usually got into some sort of trouble, so shortly after the incident I dropped

the course. I remember going to the cafeteria after my encounter with Dr. Mitchinson and as I was sitting there the events of our discussion kept running through my head, what I had said (mostly what I should have said) and what he (she) had said and done. It was then that I realized that he (she) had taken advantage of the situation, of my having problems with school and my trusting him (her). Here he (she) was coming across, at first, as being the helpful professor to a student with a legitimate problem and all along he (she) had something else in mind. I mean what kind of a person would abuse his (her) position like that. Professors like him (her) should be barred from teaching. I certainly didn't do anything to provoke him (her). I had a straightforward problem with the essay and he (she) used it as a means to a totally different end.

Appendix C

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

SEX: Male _____ Female _____

AGE: _____

AREA OF STUDY: _____

_____

Personal Evaluation Questionnaire

The following is a list of adjective pairs such as good-bad, hot-cold. Your task is to rate THE STUDENT (THE PROFESSOR) by placing a checkmark at the appropriate place on the scale which best shows how you feel about THE STUDENT (THE PROFESSOR).

INTELLIGENT	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	UNINTELLIGENT
LIKEABLE	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	UNLIKEABLE
UNCOOPERATIVE	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	COOPERATIVE
BOSSY	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	EASY-GOING
IMMATURE	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	MATURE
IMAGINATIVE	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	UNIMAGINATIVE
IRRESPONSIBLE	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	RESPONSIBLE
NERVOUS	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	CALM
PATIENT	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	IMPATIENT
REASONABLE	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	UNREASONABLE
RIGID	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	FLEXIBLE
COURTEOUS	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	RUDE
SELFISH	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	UNSELFISH
WARM	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	COLD
SINCERE	__	__	__	__	__	__	__	INSINCERE

Sexual Harassment Questionnaire

Please answer the following questions about the student and the professor by circling the number that best corresponds to what you think. Answer the questions in the order that they are presented (i.e., do not skip over questions and then answer them later). Do not turn to the next page until you have completed the questions on the previous page.

1. To what extent was the student responsible or not responsible for this incident?

Not At All Responsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Responsible

2. To what extent was the professor responsible or not responsible for this incident?

Not At All Responsible	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Responsible

3. To what extent was this incident simply due to the student being in the wrong place at the wrong time?

Not At All Due To Being In The Wrong Place ...	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Entirely Due To Being In The Wrong Place ...

4. How likely or unlikely is it that the student's actions led to this incident?

Very Likely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Unlikely

5. How likely or unlikely is it that this incident occurred as a result of carelessness on the part of the student?

Very Likely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Unlikely

6. How likely or unlikely is it that this incident happened because of the kind of person the student is?

Very Likely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Unlikely

7. Do you think that the student misinterpreted the actions of the professor?

Clear Misinter-pretation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	No Misinter-pretation

8. Do you think that the professor misinterpreted the actions of the student?

Clear Misinter-pretation	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	No Misinter-pretation

9. Do you think that the professor was attracted to the student?

Very Attracted To Student	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Not At All Attracted To Student

10. Do you think that the professor's actions reflect a misuse of authority?

A Direct Misuse of Authority	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	No Misuse of Authority

11. To what extent is the student like or unlike you?

Not At All Like Me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Much Like Me

12. To what extent is it likely or unlikely that you could have an experience similar to that of the student?

Very Unlikely	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Likely

13. How often do you think such incidents happen?

Not At All	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Often

14. To what extent did the student blame himself (herself) for this incident?

Did Not Blame Self	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Blamed Self

15. To what extent did the student blame the professor for this incident?

Did Not Blame The Professor	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Blamed The Professor

16. How sincere do you think the student was?

Not At All Sincere	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Sincere

17. How truthful do you think the student was?

Not At All Truthful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Truthful

18. How severe do you think this incident was (i.e., how much did the student suffer)?

Not At All Severe	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Severe

19. To what extent did the student dwell on the incident?

Not At All	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Too Much

20. Do you think that the student was well-adjusted?

Not Well-Adjusted	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Adjusted

21. All things considered, do you think the professor's behaviour was appropriate or inappropriate?

Very Appropriate	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Inappropriate

22. Do you think that this incident was a case of sexual harassment?

Yes_____ No_____

23. How confident are you in this judgment?

Not Very Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Very Confident

24. Do you think that the student should or should not report the incident?

Should Not Report It	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	Should Report It

25. In your own words, why do you think that the student should or should not report this incident?

_____

_____

26. What, if anything, shoulf be done about the professor's behaviour?

	Yes	No
Nothing at all	_____	_____
Minor reprimand	_____	_____
Reported on work record	_____	_____
Short suspension from work duties	_____	_____
Suspended from teaching duties	_____	_____

27. Have you ever been sexually harassed:

	Yes	No
By a professor at this university	_____	_____
By a teaching assistant at this university	_____	_____
By another student at this university	_____	_____
By a professor at another university or college	_____	_____
By a teaching assistant at another university or college	_____	_____
By a classmember at another university or college	_____	_____
By a high school teacher	_____	_____
By an employer or supervisor	_____	_____
By a co-worker	_____	_____

28. If you responded yes to any of the items in question 27, please describe briefly your experience (this question is optional).

29. If any of these things have happened to you and you would like to receive counselling or some other help, please speak to the experimenter and she will arrange it for you.

Appendix D

CONSENT FORM

I,_____ agree to participate in this study which is being conducted by Suzanne J. Cooney an MSc psychology student supervised by Dr. Lorraine Radtke at the University of Calgary. I have been informed that this is an experiment concerning people's impressions of others. I understand that all of my responses will be held in strict confidence, that I shall remain annonymous, and that I am free to withdraw from the study at any time.

_____ _____

date Signature

Instructions to Subjects

PLEASE DO NOT TURN OVER THIS PAGE UNTIL INSTRUCTED TO DO SO

This is an experiment concerning people's impressions of others. First you will answer a number of background and attitude questions. Then, you will listen to an audio tape message of an individual describing a personal experience. Finally, you will answer a series of questions (to be handed to you later) about that individual and the experience. It is very important that you do not influenec the responses of others or that your responses not be influenced by those of others. Therefore, do not make any overt responses (e.g., talking, laughing) while listening to the personal account or responding to the questions.

Participation in this study is voluntary. On the second page of this booklet is a consent form explaining your role and rights as a subject in the experiment. You are free to withdraw from this study at any time. Please read the consent form carefully and sign it before proceeding with the experiment.

I will explain the purpose of this experiment after all of the questionnaires have been completed and turned in to me.

Appendix E

Formula for Post-hoc Analyses

$$\frac{q\alpha;p,\gamma}{2}\sqrt{\frac{\text{MS error}}{n}}$$

Appendix F

Table 1

Regression Coefficients on Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Frequency

Condition	b	t
male subject,male victim,self-blame	.02	0.81
male subject,male victim,professor-blame	-.03	-0.87
male subject,male victim,control	.05	1.53
male subject,female victim,self-blame	-.04	-1.33
male subject,female victim,professor-blame	.09	3.34*
male subject,female victim,control	.01	0.54
female subject,male victim,self-blame	-.07	-1.52
female subject,male victim,professor-blame	.03	0.95
female subject,male victim,control	.05	1.86
female subject,female victim,self-blame	.06	2.08
female subject,female victim,professor-blame	.02	0.47
female subject,female victim,control	.00	0.02

* $p<.05$

Table 2

Regression Coefficients for Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Reaction on Victim Dwelling on Incident

Condition	b	t
male subject,self-blame	-.03	-1.45
male subject,professor-blame	.07	3.08*
male subject,control	.02	0.80
female subject,self-blame	.02	1.13
female subject,professor-blame	-.03	-1.50
female subject,control	.01	0.51

*$p<.05$

Table 3

Regression Coefficients for FEM x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction Interaction on Reporting the Incident

Condition	b	t
male victim,self-blame	.04	1.04
male victim,professor-blame	.02	1.01
male victim,control	.11	3.70*
female victim,self-blame	.03	1.32
female victim,professor-blame	.10	3.61*
female victim,control	-.01	-0.61

* $p<.05$

Table 4

Regression Coefficients for Subject Sex x FEM x Victim Sex x Victim Reaction on Situational Similarity

Condition	b	t
male subject,male victim,self-blame	.06	1.73
male subject,male victim,professor-blame	-.05	-2.13*
male subject,male victim,control	.07	1.77
male subject,female victim,self-blame	-.01	-0.18
male subject,female victim,professor-blame	.05	1.10
male subject,female victim control	.04	1.37
female subject,male victim,self-blame	-.04	-0.87
female subject,male victim,professor-blame	.01	0.25
female subject,male victim,control	.06	1.60
female subject,female victim,self-blame	-.00	-0.07
female subject,female victim,professor-blame	.02	0.29
female subject,female victim,control	.00	0.14

* $p<.05$

Appendix G

Table 1

Correlation Matrix for Attribution Measures

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 victim character evaluation		-.31*	.33*	.30*	.20*	.01	.16	-.19*
2 victim global responsibility			-.58*	-.61*	-.32*	.24*	-.30*	.02
3 victim behavioural responsibility				.61*	.41*	-.28*	.24*	-.13
4 victim carelessness					.42*	-.25*	.27*	-.13
5 victim character responsibility						-.23*	.19*	-.17*
6 perpetrator character evaluation							-.34*	.07
7 perpetrator global responsibility								-.00
8 chance								

Note. n = 240.

* $p < .01$

Table 2

Correlation Matrix for Dependent Measures Related to the Victim

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1 personal similarity		.33*	.14	.36*	.06	.30*	.28*	.27*
2 situational similarity			.12	.16	-.09	.11	.13	.20*
3 victim misinterpreted perpetrator				.06	.08	.08	.10	.10
4 adjustment					.26*	.32*	.41*	.18*
5 dwelling						-.00	.04	.10
6 sincerity							.61*	.28*
7 truthfulness								.26*
8 report								

Note. n = 240.

* $p < .01$

Table 3

Correlation Matrix for Attribution Measures and Dependent Measures Related to the Victim

	personal similarity	situational similarity	victim misinterpreted	adjustment	dwelling	sincerity	truthfulness	report
victim character evaluation	.40*	.16	.02	.54*	.17*	.54*	.43*	.26*
victim global responsibility	-.29*	-.25*	-.06	-.26*	-.09	-.33*	-.31*	-.23*
victim behavioural responsibility	.22*	.21*	.10	.32*	.11	.37*	.37*	.31*
victim carelessness	.28*	.24*	.11	.32*	.15	.27*	.28*	.22*
victim character responsibility	.23*	.11	.12	.28*	.05	.21*	.26*	.13
perpetrator character evaluation	-.06	-.08	.04	-.08	-.02	-.14	-.17*	-.31*
perpetrator global responsibility	.16	.07	.03	.20*	.10	.31*	.29*	.19*
chance	-.01	.02	-.12	-.08	-.09	-.09	-.09	-.20*

Note. $n = 240$

* $p < .01$

Table 4

Correlation Matrix for Dependent Measures Related to the Perpetrator

	1	2	3	4	5
1 perpetrator misinterpreted victim		.13	-.07	.18*	.23*
2 attraction			-.01	.06	.08
3 authority				-.32*	-.40*
4 appropriateness					.37*
5 punishment					

Note. n =240.

* $p < .01$

Table 5

Correlation Matrix for Attribution Measures and Dependent Measures Related to the Perpetrator

	perpetrator misinterpreted victim	attraction	authority	appropri-ateness	punish-ment
victim character evaluation	.12	-.07	-.21*	.27*	.32*
victim global responsibility	-.26*	.10	.10	-.14	-.24*
victim behavioural responsibility	.21*	-.08	-.14	.27*	.27*
victim carelessness	.30*	-.08	-.21*	.22*	.17*
victim character responsibility	.16	.03	-.07	.16	.19*
perpetrator character evaluation	-.15	-.14	.25*	-.24*	-.31*
perpetrator global responsibility	.23*	.04	-.32*	.25*	.16
chance	-.11	-.03	.20*	-.07	-.25*

Note. $n = 240$.

* $p < .01$

Table 6

Correlation Matrix for Measures Related to the Victim and Measures Related to the Perpetrator

	perpetrator misinterpreted victim	attraction	authority	appropri-ateness	punish-ment
personal similarity	.09	-.03	-.22*	.26*	.24*
situational similarity	.20*	.00	-.03	.09	.21*
victim misinterpreted perpetrator	-.09	.01	-.07	.18*	.02
adjustment	.16	.01	-.09	.27*	.19*
dwelling	.15	-.06	-.06	.10	.09
sincerity	.12	-.06	-.18*	.34*	.28*
truthfulness	.17*	-.01	-.12	.30*	.29*
report	.11	.08	-.41*	.34*	.70*

Note. $n = 240$.

* $p < .01$