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The Effect of Victim's Responses to Coercive Sexual Harassment on Bystander Intentions and Moral Perceptions

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Abstract

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by

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MS, Walden University, 2012

BS, Glukhiv S. M. Sergeyev-Tsensky State Pedagogical Institute, 1995

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

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Abstract

Female graduate students are targets of coercive sexual harassment (SH) three times more than female undergraduates; 67.8% of their harassers were university faculty. While SH victims expected peer support, peers often socially rejected female victims of coercive SH. Gray and Wegner's theory of dyadic morality and Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly's bystander response model guided this quantitative study to examine the effect of victim response on helping intentions by peers. After reading the same vignette that described coercive SH, 207 student participants read one of four randomly assigned victim's responses: victim did nothing, directly confronted the professor during the incident, sought peer emotional support after the incident, or filed an official complaint after the incident. Survey items evaluated the effect of the victim's responses on their intentions to intervene during and after the event. Kruskal-Wallis analyses indicated lack of statistically significant between-group differences in observers' moral perceptions of the victim and the harasser. During the encounter, bystanders were most likely to interrupt and to remove the victim when she was directly confrontational to the perpetrator but not help the victim afterward whereas observers were willing to help the victim when she decided to file an official complaint, sought support, or did nothing. Bystanders were willing to assist with making a formal complaint, informing her of psychological services, and gathering evidence against the harasser. Thus, victim's actions appeared to guide types and timing of intended peer support. Results may inform developers of campus training programs that seek to promote peer recognition and aid to victims of sexual harassment in academia leading to positive social change.

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Dedication

With the dearest and warmest regard to the memory of my grandma Ksenia Romanovna who gave strong roots to my curiosity and character, traits that carried my life through all inspirations and trepidations. She had a remarkable ability to combine personal strengths with humility. My grandma used to say that everyone was at the mercy of others. Everlastingly, she is my gradian angel.

I am eternally grateful to my loving husband Russ who helped me to survive the depth and the pace of studies after full time workdays by sharing his heart with me and, also, to my son Rodion for his kindhearted support when times were especially tough. I also thank my stepdaughter Courtney for her delightful and cheerful favors. Inherently, my deep appreciation is spanning overseas to my parents and my beloved brother Bogdan for their encouragement. Of course, not a page could have been written without our home keeper kitten who had checked attentively every page of this dissertation.

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Introduction

Sexual harassment (SH) of female students within academic relationships and settings is an ongoing social problem (Mansell et al., 2017; Moylan & Wood 2016). Women have reported 3.5 times more instances of harassment than men throughout their academic careers (Clancy et al., 2014). Further, 64% of female and male trainees in academic field placements experienced inappropriate sexual comments (Clancy et al., 2014). Female victims of SH by male supervisors, professors, or staff often experience not only the stress, shame, self-blame, fear, and other psychoemotional sequelae of this unwanted interpersonal infraction, but also find themselves in no-win positions as victims of *institutional betrayal* (Smith & Freyd, 2014, p. 575; Rosenthal et al., 2016). If they say or do nothing, they remain open to ongoing victimization; if they resist or report, they may become targets of further harassment and retaliation, thus jeopardizing their academic and professional options (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Diekmann et al., 2013; Knapp, 2016). Peer responses are particularly important because peers may provide support for the victim or, conversely, intensify the victim's stress and conflicts through negative patterns of blaming, discrediting, and/or socially isolating her (Page & Pina, 2015; Scarduzio et al., 2018).

The focus of this exploratory study was peer reactions to SH of a female graduate student by a male supervisor in an academic setting. The specific goal was to clarify how the victim's choice of response to SH may affect peers' responses, thereby creating either greater chances of support or nonsupport among peers. The study has social significance

in that by understanding dynamics of peers' responses, better training and intervention approaches may be developed to protect the victim's right to resist and report SH, as well as to promote a supportive environment, including among her peers.

Following this introduction of Chapter 1, I present information on the Background, Problem Statement, Purpose of the Study, Research Questions and Hypotheses, Theoretical and Conceptual Framework for the Study, Nature of the Study, Definitions, Assumptions, Scope and Delimitations, Limitations, Significance, and Summary.

Background

As may be illustrated by the underrepresentation of women in the professorate, SH creates barriers to women's equal opportunity for educational, professional, and sociopolitical advancement (Clancy et al., 2014; Rosenthal et al., 2016). Workplace training regarding SH typically has included information regarding legal definitions and examples of SH, as well as institutional policies and procedures for complaints (Tinkler, 2013). While the law has communicated the authoritative justice against discrimination, procedural justice has been ineffective where men and women questioned the legitimacy of the law and resisted its implementation (Murphy et al., 2009; Tinkler et al., 2015). Further, women have been placed in the position of having to fight, often alone, paternalistic attitudes and gender stereotypes in order to demand protection and justice for themselves within the organizational climate (Tinkler, 2013; Tinkler et al., 2015). As in other institutional settings, academic codes of conduct have not translated into SH-free environments for women students and trainees (Clancy et al., 2014).

Institutional symbolic compliance precludes effective protection of victims of SH (Brown, 2018). Academic administrators are sometimes caught in conflicts of interest, trying to protect their institutions from possible lawsuits and impairment of their reputations (MacKinnon, 2015). This situation may be expressed through insufficient exercise of due diligence for prevention of SH and creation of safe environments for students and trainees (MacKinnon, 2015).

Victims also may experience further consequences such as institutional betrayal (Smith & Freyd, 2014). *Institutional betrayal* is how an institution and its organizational culture and colleagues conceptualize the victim's experiences of SH as lacking legitimacy. Institutional betrayal may be related to the misunderstanding of basic concepts and examples of SH, even those that may be changing and evolving (Page et al., 2016). For example, like those in other nonacademic workplaces, faculty of academic institutions may be misled by the inclusion of the word "sexual" in SH. Administrators and others may perceive the intentions of SH as purely related to sexual gratification. However, the intentions, in most cases, are to exert social power and to intimidate and degrade victims (Quick & McFadyen, 2017). From this perspective, the intentions of harassers are viewed as attempts to preserve male dominance in academia and the workplace (McCarty & Kelly, 2015; Mellon, 2013; Page et al., 2016).

Sexual Harassment and Gender Role Expectations

Gray et al. (2014) and Schein and Gray (2017) have proposed that harm must be considered within context, including attention to cultural factors (Gray et al., 2014; Schein, & Gray, 2017). Bullying, badgering, and manipulating women into

nonconsensual sex (Baker, 2015) is one symptom of a much wider ideological and cultural issue of gender inequality (Tinkler et al., 2015). Current ideological and cultural beliefs discount gender harassment and expressions of sexism as the main contributors to pervasiveness of hostile work environment for women (Leskinen & Cortina, 2014).

Page et al. (2016) emphasized that SH is used instrumentally to subordinate an out-group. For example, in science, women often constitute an out-group; based on traditional gender-role expectations for women regarding occupations, aptitudes, and social status; as such, women may be unwelcomed on male territory (Clancy et al., 2014). Further, these more traditional gender-role expectations create the risk of men misreading the woman's presence in the work or training situation as an implicit desire to have a sexual encounter; similarly, socialization into traditional gender-role expectations may lead women in these situations to feel that these kinds of behaviors by males as superiors must be socially desirable, accepted, or at least endured (Bendixen & Kennair, 2017; Kennair & Bendixen, 2012). Just as social status of the male perpetrator may be used to justify his behavior, at the same time it also may be used to diminish the perceived harm done to the target of harassment, or his or her right to object and complain, be it a woman or any other member of an out-group (Settles et al., 2014).

Women cannot advance their scholarship when they worry about being sexually harassed or assaulted by faculty, supervisors, or senior researchers (Nelson et al., 2017). The fact that, compared with men, women were more frequent targets of vertical SH by a male supervisor at research field placements (Clancy et al., 2014) presents other evidence of gender inequality in academia. Further, women have been rewarded at the field sites

when they consented to sexual advances, sexual assault complaints were dismissed, and the male perpetrators were promoted despite their poor behavior (Nelson et al., 2017).

Harm Perception Within Sexual Harassment of Women

Sexual harassment situations bring the conflict of two types of harm: violation of discriminatory gender norm expectations (Otterbacher et al., 2017; Settles et al., 2014) and violation of legal requirements related to equal opportunity for women's education and employment (EEOC, 2015; Rosenthal et al., 2016). A woman who directly confronts her higher status male harasser shows noncompliance with female gender role expectation of being nice and warm (Herrera et al., 2014, 2017); men who were initially against egalitarian treatment of women would triple their efforts of hostility (Bosson et al., 2015). An informed bystander recalls that sexual harassment is against the law, but the appealing nature of gender roles may misplace perception of harm toward protecting these stereotypes and blaming the victim of SH.

Gender role norm violation occurs when a woman claims her competence, for example, in academic and professional training situations, and when she takes active steps against SH. Social backlash for the violation of this norm penalizes her further success in academic and professional areas (Nelson et al., 2017) and helps to deter her and other women from agentic behavior (Otterbacher et al., 2017). Transgressors of social norms may experience guilt and shame while observers of the transgressions may feel anger toward the violators (van Kleef, et al., 2015). The conclusion that harm from SH is not recognized by men is superficial; instead, gender-role norms serve to protect these men within their social and cultural groups. Perception of harm is subjective (Gray

et al., 2014), and men and women see harm from their gendered points of view. This attributional process is a risk at play in relation to SH by male superiors of female victims within academic contexts. Rosenthal et al. (2016) spoke of the urgency for recognizing and validating of harm from sexual harassment to students. Certainly, more work is needed to understand the processes that underlie this kind of invalidation.

Bystander Perception of SH

Whitley and Page (2015) and MacKinnon (2015) described an abundance of examples of insensitive, crude, and alienating responses to victims from university officials and other students when a woman complained of SH. Women have been aware of these intimidating consequences of official complaints for a victim or a secondary informant (Rosenthal et al., 2016). In some ways, professional and social consequences to victims of workplace SH are similar to those who are victims of workplace bullying. Rather than help and support for victims of SH, witnesses or those who are otherwise informed of the SH become bystanders or, worse, complicit in the harassment (Diekmann et al., 2013; McDonald et al., 2016).

There are attributional processes that help to justify this kind of bystander apathy or even support for the perpetrator: a bystander attributes the cause of the victim's plight to her character and behavior or to the external forces beyond the perpetrator (Hellemans, et al., 2017). Hellemans et al. (2017) further found that the observer's internal/external attribution of the victim's plight was then related to her or his own behavioral intentions towards the victim. I also will use the term observer as the direct witness of SH since the evidences have been found that observers do intervene in SH situations and do want to

help victims (Heretick & Learn, 2020); that is to add this context to more traditional understanding of diffusion of responsibility in bystander behavior (Latané & Darley, 1970).

My study attempted to expand the understanding of the role of attributional processes of observers of SH by considering the work by Gray and Wegner (2009) and Gray et al. (2014). Gray and colleagues have demonstrated that perception of harm to the victim is a critical trigger for further attributions regarding moral responsibility of both the perpetrator and the victim. While Hellemans et al. (2017) concluded that observers' perceptions were more ambiguous, Gray and Wegner (2009) and Gray et al. (2014) have proposed through their theory of dyadic morality (TDM) more simple processes for perceptions of harm, control, responsibility, blameworthiness/praiseworthiness that may then predict moral evaluations of both the perpetrator and victims. In theory, the perception should then influence the observer's behavioral intentions towards both the perpetrator and the victim. The intuitive evaluations depend on attributing causation, which in turn is contingent upon ascribing human features, intentions, and feelings to a mind; active entities evoke perception of intentionality in observers (Waytz et al., 2010). TDM contextualizes the dyadic interaction within the moment, within the larger culture, and around intuitive perception of harm (Gray et al., 2014; Schein, & Gray, 2017). Following moral pluralism on what is harmful, the TDM originators (Gray et al., 2014; Schein, & Gray, 2017) suggested study of the three intertwined elements, norm violation, dyadic nature of harm, and negative affect, as the dynamics of moral cognition pertinent to a certain kind of moral violations. Gray and colleagues (Gray et al., 2014; Gray &

Keeney, 2015; Gray & Wegner, 2009) applied TDM principles to many kinds of moral violations; however, no research to date has explored the application of the TDM to sexual harassment.

Problem Statement

Sexual harassment is an ongoing problem of indirect and direct aggression against women in academic training sites (Clancy et al., 2014; Moylan & Wood 2016; Nelson et al., 2017; Scarduzio et al., 2018). The underlying causes of SH vary along with cultural gender role expectations (Knapp, 2016; Otterbacher et al., 2017) that promote gender inequality, perception of institutional betrayal (Smith & Freyd, 2014), and victims' avoidance of official complaints (Diekmann et al., 2013; Scarduzio et al., 2018; Tinkler, 2013; Tinkler et al., 2015). From 78 respondents of a survey, only 18% of trainees of academic field study sites were satisfied with the results of reported SH, and more than half of trainees who reported SH were dissatisfied with the outcomes of reporting (Clancy et al., 2014).

Unfortunately for sexually harassed women trainees, institutional leaders sometimes have cared more about their reputations and failed due diligence in preventing, investigating SH incidents, and issuing appropriate punishment for perpetrators (Brown, 2018; MacKinnon, 2015). The injustice is difficult to overcome because American university culture actively perpetuates gender inequality on student campuses (Jozkowski & Wiersma-Mosley, 2017) and in academic field placements (Clancy et al., 2014). In addition, women's active resistance to SH showed detrimental

consequences to their academic scholarship and career advancement (Clancy et al., 2014; Moylan & Wood 2016; Nelson et al., 2017; Scarduzio et al., 2018).

Among various occupational paths, women are an out-group in fields such as science that traditionally belonged to men; due to this status, women anticipate nonsupportive or negative reactions from bystanders to their responses to SH (Diekmann et al., 2013; Leskinen & Cortina, 2014; Scarduzio et al., 2018; Tinkler et al., 2015). A male senior researcher, faculty member, or administrator is in the position of power to support or dismiss SH policies (Clancy et al., 2014). Relatedly, as compared with male counterparts, women in these situations have responded with significantly more fear of male perpetrators who held higher social status, probably because they felt helpless and unsupported by peers and others and anticipated negative consequences (Page et al., 2016; Scarduzio et al., 2018; Settle et al., 2014). Social status has been found to promote different types of moral transgressions, including SH by higher status male perpetrators (Clancy et al., 2014; Lammers et al., 2015; Lammers & Stoker, 2019; Rosenthal et al., 2016; Settle et al., 2014).

While the dynamics of sexual harassment have been studied in various types of workplaces, far less was known about these dynamics in academic settings (Clancy et al., 2014; Mansell et al., 2017; Moylan & Wood, 2016; Nelson et al., 2017; Rosenthal et al., 2016). Specifically, there was limited information on how peer observers perceive and judge a female victim of sexual harassment by a supervisor in academic settings (Mansell et al., 2017; Moylan & Wood, 2016; Nelson et al., 2017). Although relationships between victim's responses and peers' responses have been studied for victims of sexual assault

on college campuses (Orchowski & Gidycz, 2015), no study to date has examined these for female victims of SH by male superiors in these kinds of settings.

Purpose of the Study

There are many gaps in current understanding of the dynamics of sexual harassment in traditional on-campus and field-training academic settings. The primary purpose of this study was to examine whether, in an academic setting, the type of response of a female victim of sexual harassment by a male superior makes a difference in bystanders' perceptions of the victim and of the harasser, as well as bystanders' behavioral intentions towards the perpetrator and the victim. Responses of the female victim that I presented in scenarios for this research mirrored those available to most victims of workplace harassment: remaining passive, seeking indirect informal support, confronting the harasser, or making a formal complaint against the harasser. My purpose was to find whether and how the victim's response affects observers' perceptions and moral attributions regarding the victim, as well as regarding the perpetrator and whether the victim's response affects peers' intended behaviors towards the victim and perpetrator.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

This cross-sectional, quantitative, experimental survey study was the first to explore application of TDM to workplace sexual harassment, and specifically to the academic setting. I tested the theoretical predictions of TDM, proposing that the response of the victim to sexual harassment, which has been manipulated within a written scenario,

would affect perception of moral patiency of the victim and moral agency of the harasser and observers' intended interventions.

Social cognitive constructs of perceived norm violations should influence an automatic interpretation of the observed moral content as the dyadic perception process of occurring or anticipated harm to the victim caused by the perpetrator. The causal link splits observers' appraisal of a moral wrongness in the two dimensions of the moral continuum: they perceive the victim, or recipient of moral action, as sensitive to pain and emotional experience and as vulnerable, and they perceive the acting person, or causal element, as capable of changing the situation, intentional, responsible, blameworthy, and relatively insensitive to pain and harm (Gray & Wegner, 2009). This dyadic social cognitive appraisal characterizes the victim as having features of moral patiency and characterizes the perpetrator as having features of moral agency (Gray & Wegner, 2009). Whether typecasting would occur in the situation of observing SH was unclear; to date, Diekmann et al. (2013) demonstrated that observers condemned the passive victim of SH on American sample, Herrera et al. (2014, 2017) found that observers perceived the confrontational victim of SH being impertinent on the population of Spain. Assignment of responsibility for SH by observers was dependent on cultural norms and consensus about norm violation (Diekmann et al., 2013; Klein et al., 2011), and also dependent on presented harasser's motivation and victim's reactions to observers (Chui & Dietz, 2014).

I measured moral patiency of the victim and moral agency of the perpetrator by using observers' ratings on a 7-point scale, from 1 (*Minimum amount/extent*) to 7 (*Maximum amount/extent*) following examples of previous studies (Gray et al., 2014;

Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2011). The study's participants rated moral patiency, the amount

of perceived harm, capacity for pain, capacity to experience emotions, and vulnerability

of the victim; they also rated moral agency, the extent of perceived intentionality, control,

responsibility and blameworthiness of the harasser.

Research Question 1: Does the response of the female victim of coercive SH

affect bystanders' perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of

blameworthiness, control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator?

$H_0 1$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does not affect bystanders'

perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness,

control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator.

$H_a 1$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does affect bystanders'

perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness,

control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator.

Research Question 2: Does the response of the female victim of coercive SH

affect bystanders' perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of

experienced harm, capacity for pain and experience of emotions, and vulnerability) of the

victim?

$H_0 2$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does not affect bystanders'

perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced

harm, capacity for pain and experiencing emotions, and vulnerability) of the

victim.

H_a2: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does affect bystanders'

perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced

harm, capacity for pain and experiencing emotions, and vulnerability) of the

victim.

These dyadic social cognitive reactions of observers of SH direct their efforts to

either helping the victim or holding the harasser responsible (Banyard, 2011; Diekmann

et al., 2013; Franklin et al., 2017; Hellemans et al., 2017; Nickerson et al., 2014; Ohse &

Stockdale, 2008). The two-directional bystander reactions were characterized by the

observers' desire to provide emotional and social support to the SH victim, to initiate

direct confrontation of the harasser, or to file an official complaint (Benavides-Espinoza

& Cunningham, 2010; Brinkman et al., 2015; Franklin et al., 2017; McDonald et al.,

2016). Researchers found that bystanders differed on what they saw as the cost and

benefit of interventions (Banyard et al., 2014; Good et al., 2012; McDonald et al., 2016;

Ryan & Wessel, 2012) and on temporal immediacy of interventions, during and after the

SH event (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly's, 2005; Hellemans et al., 2017; Heretick &

Learn, 2020).

Study participants rated their willingness to intervene immediately and after the

SH event on an 8-point response scale, from 1 (*Not at all*) to 8 (*Absolutely/Extremely*),

that have been used in Heretick and Learn (2020) and Hellemans et al. (2017). The three

immediate interventions included getting the victim out of the situation by creating an

excuse, telling the harasser to stop, and withdrawing of intervention (reverse-coded) for

fear of negative response of the harasser. The three postponed interventions were

advising the victim to attend psychological services and to make an official complaint and helping the victim with collecting evidence against the harasser.

Research Question 3: Does the response of the female victim to coercive SH affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses)?

$H_0$3: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does not affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

H_a3: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

Research Question 4: Does the response of the female victim to coercive SH affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses)?

$H_0$4: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does not affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

H_a4: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

Theoretical Framework for the Study

I analyzed observers' reactions of an interaction where a male individual with higher power status engaged in coercive sexual harassment of a female individual of lower power status using the lens of the theory of dyadic morality (TDM; Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009; Schein & Gray, 2017). This theory should have helped to explain and predict the observers' perceptions and experiences related to interactions of participants involved in SH situations. TDM focused on key dimensions of these attributional processes. First, was there the perception of *harm* to the target. According to TDM, when harm was perceived, moral perception occurred and led to moral typecasting, or division of two participants on two distinct categories (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009; Schein & Gray, 2017). The actor was evaluated as *a moral agent* according to attributions regarding his or her intent, responsibility, control, competency, and blameworthiness or praiseworthiness. The target was evaluated as a *moral patient* according to attributions regarding his or her vulnerability, rights to compassion and protection, and ability to experience emotions and pain. TDM proposed a reciprocal relationship between the degree of moral agency of the actor and the degree of moral patiency of the target. For example, if the target was seen as less vulnerable, deserving less compassion, and/or experiencing less pain, then the perceptions of moral patiency of the actor was decreased.

I also incorporated Knapp's (2016) typology of SH victim's responses to conceptualize the mechanisms victims may use in response to confrontation with SH. Finally, I employed Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly's (2005) model of a bystander's

response to SH to consider options for bystander behavioral intentions, both during and following the witnessing of coercive SH towards a female student by a male professor.

Nature of the Study

As this was the first study to apply TDM to interactions involving SH, this was exploratory experimental research. TDM (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009; Schein & Gray, 2017) is a relatively newer theory, and research is just beginning to test predictions that would derive from it. To date, other studies in application of TDM have used scenarios as the stimulus materials to set the parameters of the interaction between the victim and perpetrator (Diekmann et al., 2013; Heretick & Learn, 2020). I used a basic scenario that described coercive quid pro quo SH by a male professor of a female student. The scenario was employed in recent research by Heretick and Learn (2020). I added information about the response of the victim to create four conditions.

In this experimental design administered using an online survey, a participant, who has been assigned randomly to one of four experimental conditions, read a scenario. I systematically manipulated one element: the response of the female student victim to sexual harassment by a male professor. The four experimental conditions reflected the range of possibilities in the actual workplace: avoiding the harasser, seeking indirect informal support, confronting the harasser, or making a formal complaint against the harasser (Clancy et al., 2014; Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Diekmann et al., 2013; Knapp, 2016; Scarduzio et al., 2018).

Respondents first provided basic demographic data. They then read the randomly assigned scenario that described an encounter between the professor and the student and

ended with one of the four victim's responses. After presentation of the scenario and victim's response, they responded to items, that have been presented with Likert-type scales, that assessed perceived moral agency and moral patiency of the members of the dyad (the professor and student respectively). These items were identical to the set of questions that have been used in previous research into TDM to operationally define the constructs for moral typecasting to agency and patiency (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009; Schein & Gray, 2017). Next, they responded to other items with Likert-type scales that assess the participants' intended bystander behaviors. These final questions included items from previous research on helping behavior by observers of workplace SH and bullying (Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999; Hellemans et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn, 2020).

Sampling

The population of interest was undergraduate and graduate students in various programs at traditional on-campus universities in the United States who completed all or most of their coursework on campus. While I was not able to use random sampling, I used nonprobability, self-selecting, convenience sampling, and random assignment to the experimental conditions for victim's responses to sexual harassment. I recruited participants using Prolific Academic (prolific.co) to identify available members who met my eligibility requirements: 21 years or older, fluent in English, and a student in a U.S. college who had completed most of coursework on campus. Research indicates that older students significantly differ from younger students on appraisal what is sexual harassment and its unwelcomeness (Ohse & Stockdale, 2008). Peers sexually harassed

mostly female undergraduate students while faculty harassed female graduate students 3 times more (Cantor et al., 2015). Twelve and a half percent of freshmen students experienced sexual harassment by faculty while 24.9% seniors experienced increasing SH rates over time by faculty (Wood et al., 2018, p. 9). I used G*Power (Faul et al., 2009) to perform a power analysis for a one-way ANOVA with four groups, with power = .80, Cohen's (1988) effect size = .25, and alpha = .05. Results indicated a minimum sample size of 180 (45 per group) to meet parametric requirements. However, I continued to collect data until I had the minimum number of cases per an experimental condition with useable data.

Definitions

The following definitions of terms are related to the study topic and provide a reference for readers.

Behavioral intention: Ajzen and Fishbein (1980) defined behavioral intention as the subjective probability that an actor will perform a behavior: "how hard people are willing to try" and "how much of an effort they are planning to exert" (Ajzen, 1991, p. 181).

Dyadic morality: The term is a short derivative from the theory of dyadic morality (TDM) coined by Schein and Gray (2017). Dyadic morality refers to the three elements underlying moral typecasting (see later definition): intuitive perception of harm caused to the target by an intentional agent, negative affect, and norm violation (Schein & Gray, 2017).

Institutional betrayal: The failure of academic institution to prevent, monitor, and investigate instances of SH (Smith & Freyd, 2014; Rosenthal et al., 2016). This is also a deliberate refusal to understand victim's traumatic experiences and disappointing inactions in the face of SH by a university instructor or professor (Smith & Freyd, 2014; Rosenthal et al., 2016). Institutional betrayal allows for further victimization of women by disapproving complains or making derogatory comments about victims and withdrawing of peer support from victims (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Diekmann et al., 2013; Knapp, 2016; Otterbacher et al., 2017; Page & Pina, 2015; Scarduzio et al., 2018).

Moral agency: The capacity to act on person's own will and is either causing harm to an individual or is helping a victim (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009). Observers typically perceive responsibility and blameworthiness/praiseworthiness from the agency's characteristics of humanness, having a mind and being intentional (Waytz al., 2010). Perception of moral agency in a person diminished perception of harm to that person in observers, regardless of whether the person acted in a positive or negative manner (Gray & Wegner, 2009).

Moral patiency: The capacity to be harmed or benefited (as a human) by moral action; that is complementary to moral agency via pre-attributional perception that the person who is harmed can experience pain and emotions (Gray & Wegner, 2009; Gray et al., 2014). Moral patiency has capacity to sensations in general: hurt, pain, and pleasure (Gray & Wegner, 2011).

Moral typecasting: The perceptual complementarity of a moral agent who caused harm to a moral patient (Gray & Wegner, 2009). Moral typecasting occurs quickly and is

coincident with the intuitive perception of harm; the cause of moral typecasting resides in asymmetrical position of moral agency and patiency (Gray & Wegner, 2009). In difference with dissonance theory (Festinger, 1957), which explained that perception of more suffering evoked perception of more guilt by close in proximity observers, distant observers attributed less guilt with more suffering of a person because moral patiency deserved less blame than moral agency, proving moral typecasting phenomenon (Gray & Wegner, 2010b). Observers perceive agency to have responsibility and patiency to have moral rights; observers perceive both moral agency and patiency in those involved in moral situation and their amounts is the matter of degree (Gray & Wegner, 2011).

Observers' social cognitive reactions to SH: The intuitive appraisals of harm that result in perception of the behavior of the harasser and the response of a victim (Diekmann et al., 2013). This perception is akin to moral typecasting (Gray & Wegner, 2009).

Observers' behavioral intentions: Sequelae of intuitive perception. An observer of SH may form intentions for any of several behavioral responses, such as, keeping silent about SH incident to protect the harasser (Knoll, & van Dick, 2013), remaining silent out of fear of retaliation (Page & Pina, 2015), condemning a passive victim (Diekmann et al., 2013), blaming the organization (Madera, 2018), offering social support to the victim (Hellemans et al., 2017), filing a formal complaint (McDonald et al., 2016). McDonald et al. (2016) and Hellemans et al. (2017) conceptualized bystander involvement on two dimensions, high or low immediacy and high or low involvement; this yielded four varieties. For example, the bystander's intention to report the harasser's

behaviors according to institutional policy after the event has occurred would demonstrate low immediacy and high involvement bystander behavior.

Perception of harm: In this research, perception of harm is the intuitive and immediate understanding and interpretation of an action as morally wrong and perception that the actor caused victim's suffering (Gray et al., 2014; Schein, & Gray, 2017). A person may or may not have an awareness of this intuitive judgment of occurred harm (Gray & Wegner, 2009; Gray et al., 2014). Such perception is in accord with affect, which is experienced as negative feeling subjectively by an observer about the victim (Gray & Wegner, 2009; Gray et al., 2014). Furthermore, perception of wrongness added to the perceived severity of harm (Gray et al., 2014).

Sexual harassment (SH): SH is illegal behavior, which includes offensive comments about a person based on their sex, requests for sexual favors in exchange of workplace benefits like promotion, and unwelcomed sexual advances (EEOC). Intentions of people perpetuating SH may be sexual or nonsexual; in majority of instances, the intentions were to sustain higher social status of men compare to women (McCarty & Kelly, 2015; Mellon, 2013; Page et al., 2016; Quick & McFadyen, 2017). In relation to men, working women occupy an out-group position (Page & Pina, 2015; Page et al. 2016). SH is one of the many types of discrimination (EEOC) and one of many aggressive behaviors supported by sexists' beliefs (Page & Pina, 2015; Page et al. 2016).

Social status difference: Social status difference between men and women is reflected in the hierarchical structure of academic institution where significantly more men than women occupy higher administrative and academic positions (Harnois &

Bastos, 2018). A social status difference typically forms the expectations from women academician to subordinate to men based on female gender and to comply to stereotypical gender role expectations; the status difference also prohibits equal competition for academic advancement of women (Harnois & Bastos, 2018). Violations of female gender role expectations lead to harsh social judgments of women (Gaunt, 2013).

Victims' Reponses to SH: Victims' responses to SH are their actions after they were harassed. Several researchers (Clancy et al., 2014; Diekmann et al., 2013; Scarduzio et al., 2018) distinguished a range of responses. *Self-focus* response may occur in the mode of denial of the SH problem, its avoidance, or in seeking social support (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Knapp, 2016). *Initiator focus* response may occur in the form of formal advocacy seeking, confrontation of a harasser, or attempts to negotiate with him (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Knapp, 2016).

Assumptions

In designing this study, I assumed that an experimental artificial scenario could provide information about peer bystanders' moral typecasting responses and behavioral intentions in response to coercive sexual harassment. I assumed that study participants had an interest in answering a fairly short survey and that they were honest. Another assumption was that survey participants did not spend more time on answering questions, which required quick intuitive responses, than necessary; this should have reduced social desirability bias. After all, they knew upfront about the time of the survey due to anticipated nonsignificant monetary reward. Self-deception may have affected more

behavioral intentions of observers than their intuitive moral typecasting due to overestimation of personal willingness to take risk of interventions (Diekmann et al., 2013). Fear of negative consequences for responding to SH to an observer and to the victim has been found to be the main factor that could restrict actual observers' interventions (Hellemans et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn, 2020). Analysis of the extent of fear showed just how much interference it could cause if the observers were to respond in real situation. A random assignment of participants to the four experimental conditions occurred at the survey site (freeonlinesurveys.com). I assumed that other differences among participants in factors not under study that might affect outcomes were distributed evenly across conditions.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this investigation was to study responses to a written situation of coercive SH between a male professor and a female student in an academic setting. While other variations were possible (e.g., different gender of the perpetrator and/or the victim), I selected this dyadic combination to limit complexity of the study, but also to mirror a more typical situation of SH in academia (Cantalupo, 2014; Clancy et al., 2014; Moylan & Wood 2016; Nelson et al., 2017).

Participants for this study were limited to a nonprobability sample of male and female volunteers who were 21 years of age or older, currently enrolled in various degree programs in the United States and completing all or most of their training in traditional campus and/or field placement settings. Undergraduate students who were 21 years old and older in this sample may have represented nontraditional students or those who were

finishing their undergraduate degrees. As all materials were presented in English, participation was limited to those volunteers who could understand the recruiting information and complete the survey with adequate comprehension of English. Participation also was limited to those who had access to the Internet and to the website where recruitment information was posted and who had adequate technical literacy for participation in an online survey.

Limitations

There may have been some unknown personal reactions or biases among participants to the scenario with different victim's responses and questions that were posed in this study. Students may have been influenced by their own personal experiences or knowledge about SH within academia. These may have influenced their willingness to finish the survey or the responses they provided (Clancy et al., 2014). Further, I was sampling from a specific group (members of the Prolific Academic research pool) who may not have represented those in the general population of graduate students, which limited generalization of findings to a larger student population.

This study was partially exploratory in nature. This was the first study to apply principles and methods associated with TDM for exploration of dyadic interactions that involve sexual harassment. As noted by Reiter (2017), "Exploratory and inductive research thus allows for limited generalizations, not based on the outcome, but on the presence, or partial presence, or shared causal mechanisms" (p. 141).

As with other research into bystander responses to SH, the presented written scenario, victim responses, and dependent measures were adapted specifically for this

study to reflect the academic context. Although they were built upon previous methodologies used in related research, some elements (the responses of the victims) were presented to research participants for the first time in this study.

Addressing a social desirability risk was problematic in this study because participants answered questions about their immediate and intuitive moral perception. Addition of scales to measure social desirability bias (Paulhus, 1998; Stöber, 1999) could have sensitized study participants unnecessarily and prompted them to change their answers. I was studying intuitive responses using reasonable time expectation for participants' engagement. I measured fear of negative consequences, which has been shown to be the significant interrupter of observers' desirable interventions (Hellemans et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn, 2020).

Finally, the current state of research in this area relied on scenarios, videos, and role plays. Creation of live, mock emergency situations for research has been limited by ethical considerations for the participant's well-being (Kimmel, 2017), and it was difficult to study these bystander moral typecasting and behavioral intentions responses retroactively, after the end of the real-world situation and their actual responses. The prediction of actual bystander responses from stated intentions was still theoretical (e.g., Ajzen's, 1991, theory of planned behavior). It was difficult to know how other factors, such as social desirability, could have affected participants' responses in this kind of research. True ecological validity of these methods awaits further assessment.

Significance of the Study

Recent high-profile events in the workplace (Amos, 2017; Gonzalez, 2017; McCrummen & Reinhard, 2017; Merica, 2018; Stolberg et al., 2017; Vacco-Bolanos, 2017) and survey reports from academia (DeMio & Murphy, 2018; Deruy, 2018; Kelsky, 2018; The Professor Is In, 2017) have renewed and magnified national attention to sexual harassment. The attention also has highlighted the need to understand processes of social and work environments that either seem to support or work to guard against sexual harassment.

Sexual harassment occurs in educational institutions where workers appear to deny or actively support these types of anti-women and intimidating attitudes toward women (Leskinen & Cortina, 2014). There are no limitations to the type of university, program of study, or position in academia where sexual harassment may occur (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Clancy et al., 2014; Mansell, et al., 2017; Moylan & Wood, 2016; Nelson et al., 2017; Scarduzio et al., 2018). Also, there are no easy answers: while the call to support victims' voices has raised some public awareness, it has not eliminated the risk of sexual harassment (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Clancy et al., 2014; Merica, 2018; Tinkler, 2013; Tinkler et al., 2015), nor the risks of blame, ostracism, or ongoing targeting of the victims themselves within the workplace or academic setting (Clancy et al., 2014; Diekmann et al., 2013; Scarduzio et al., 2018).

I explored the effect of the victim's response, either passively avoiding the harassment and seeking social support or actively resisting or reporting it, on peer observers' intuitive moral judgement and behavioral intentions. By gaining a better

understanding of key attributional processes, my study provided much needed information to help student and faculty understand the dilemmas of female victims of sexual harassment in academic and professional training settings. Further, my findings helped to understand that moral attributional processes were more complex to show the effect of the likelihood of various types of responses towards the victim by other students who observe SH. As noted earlier, settings, situations, and reactions of peers typically place victims of SH in a no-win position once the SH occurs (Diekmann et al., 2013; Tinkler, 2013; Tinkler et al., 2015). It was timely to offer information to leaders of academic institutions, supervisors and administrators of academic and professional training sites and programs, as well as trainees themselves, on these processes so the interested parties develop and offer awareness, support, and corrective actions (Clancy et al., 2014; Mansell, et al., 2017; Nelson et al., 2017).

Summary

Sexual harassment is the social malady engrained in historical "hegemonic masculinity," the social norm that supported discrimination and violence against women for centuries (Scarduzio & Geist-Martin, 2010). The issue of SH continues in higher academic institutions due to a range of factors, amongst which are institutional betrayal (Smith & Freyd, 2014; Rosenthal et al., 2016), institutional symbolic compliance (Brown, 2018), and indifferent or hostile reactions to SH victims by their peers (Diekmann et al., 2013; Page & Pina, 2015; Scarduzio et al, 2018). The problem of SH prohibits or disrupts academic and professional opportunities for women and encouragements to file official

complaints did not change the discriminatory practices (Clancy et al., 2014; Rosenthal et al., 2016; Tinkler, 2013).

Based on the TDM, I explored theoretical predictions of relationships between actions of members of the dyad and observers' moral perception of the actors, which could have also influenced the observers' intentions for possible intervention behaviors. Thus, this study offered another way to further the understanding of how intuitive processes may affect observers' reactions and intentions, including helping behaviors, towards female peers who are victims of SH (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Diekmann et al., 2013; Knapp, 2016).

In summary, in Chapter 1, I illustrated the importance of working on SH problems in academia that include detrimental impact on academic and professional opportunities for women. The chapter included the problem statement, purpose, variables, hypotheses, conceptual definitions, theoretical framework, and significance of the study. There are also assumptions, scope, and limitations described to assure the best quality study within the limitations. In Chapter 2, I discuss major theoretical framework and conceptual boundaries that clarify each variable and relationships between theories as well as between variables.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Introduction

Sexual harassment (SH) of women in academic institutions continues to thrive and cause undue trauma (Tenbrunsel et al., 2019; Wood et al., 2018). Overall, institutions have failed to create policies in the ways that encourage victims and witnesses to report SH (Hobson et al., 2015; Smith & Freyd, 2014). Perhaps this is due to lack of structured and accessible information that could encourage reports of SH and stop negative outcomes among those who do (Tenbrunsel et al., 2019). The female victim often is not only faced with the harasser, but also with lack of supportive colleagues, who also are less willing to confront SH (Lindquist & McKay, 2018).

Several factors have been identified that influence observers' reactions and intentions toward the SH victims and perpetrators, such as worker's cynicism about possible change (Cheung et al., 2018). Observers also may not have clear understanding of the plight of SH victims and may show unwillingness to socialize or work with them after an incidence of SH (Diekmann et al., 2013). Finally, gender roles, the victim's distress, feminist activism, and expected cost-effectiveness of actions may deter bystander interventions (Brinkman et al., 2015).

Observer responses present a critical factor for remediating SH in the workplace and in academia. However, trainings regarding SH in organizations may discuss SH in such a way that stresses rules and policies, while underplaying the underlying ethical issues related to SH. Bowes-Sperry and others (Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999; Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005; Diekmann et al., 2013; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2009) are

now emphasizing the role of moral reasoning as critical to understanding and promoting bystander support for victims of SH, in the workplace and in academia, which this study intended to assess.

The primary purpose of this study was to examine how a female student victim's response to SH by a male professor affected moral appraisals and behavioral intentions of peer observers. Were there particular aspects of how the victim responded to SH that affected observers' social cognitive interpretations and intervention choices? How did peer observers perceive and evaluate the perpetrator? The victim? Did these perceptions (as primary cognitive appraisals) influence their intentions for interventions? Using an experimental design, I systematically varied the response of the female victim along dimensions suggested by Knapp's (2016) typology of SH victim's responses: passive during the SH encounter, passive during the encounter but afterwards reached out for moral support from a friend, confronted the perpetrator during the encounter, or did nothing during the encounter and then made a formal complaint. Reactions under study were immediate moral perceptions by observers of both the perpetrator and the victim of SH, as well as how peer observers intended to respond, both while the incident was occurring and after the incident.

This line of research has direct social significance. As with other helping behavior, greater understanding of both situational and personal factors that may affect SH and bystander helping behaviors may contribute to enhanced awareness by observers of SH in academia, as well as options for them as agents of prevention, intervention, and change of ethical climate.

Literature Search Strategy

My literature search began with using the general term *sexual harassment* in Google Scholar; this yielded 128, 000 results, which were limited to publications between 2008 and 2020. Results for the combination of terms *sexual aggression, sexual assault, and sexual harassment*: there was a total of 100 U. S. national and international publications addressing both sexual harassment and sexual assault on various samples and settings on the first 10 pages of Google Scholar. Eleven articles referred to SH in higher education and 59 referred to a working context; I used eight of the identified articles for the current study. I also used other search engine databases: Science Direct, Thoreau, EBSCO, ProQuest Central, SAGE Journals, psychology field specific databases such as PsycInfo, dissertations, and e-books and monographs. The following search terms yielded most comprehensive results: *sexual harassment* AND *academic* (Science Direct – 1,258; Thoreau – 3,400; ProQuest Central – 7,507; SAGE Journals - 4045), *MeToo* (Science Direct – 271; SAGE Journal – 317; Thoreau – 559; ProQuest Central - 90); *norm violation* AND *gender* (Science Direct – 7,948; Thoreau – 239; ProQuest Central – 16,012; SAGE Journals – 9,494), *women responses* to (AND) *sexual harassment* (Science Direct – 1,746; Thoreau – 143; ProQuest Central – 9,234; SAGE Journals – 5,371), *moral typecasting* AND *control* (Science Direct – 19; Thoreau – 2; ProQuest Central – 104; SAGE Journals - 132), *moral development* (Science Direct – 33,500; Thoreau – 12,519; ProQuest Central – 180,710), *morality* AND *violence* (Science Direct – 1,449; Thoreau – 2,196; ProQuest Central – 20,705; SAGE Journals – 24,206), *dehumanization* AND *women* (Science Direct – 702; Thoreau – 561; ProQuest Central –

3,303; SAGE Journals - 3088), *severity of sexual harassment* (Science Direct – 635; Thoreau – 20; ProQuest Central – 2,244; SAGE Journals - 2,772), *attribution of responsibility* (Science Direct – 7,968; Thoreau - 3,779; ProQuest Central – 75,742), *sexual harassment scenario* (Science Direct – 598; Thoreau – 0; ProQuest Central – 2,798; SAGE Journals - 1,405), *workplace mistreatment* AND *SH* (Science Direct – 90; Thoreau – 62; ProQuest Central – 580; SAGE Journals - 261), *witnessing* (AND) *SH* (Science Direct – 839; Thoreau – 104; ProQuest Central – 1,102; SAGE Journals – 2,604), *bystander effect* AND *SH* (Science Direct – 127; Thoreau – 39; ProQuest Central – 728; SAGE Journals - 509), *observers* AND *SH* (Science Direct – 0; Thoreau – 155; ProQuest Central – 2,055; SAGE Journals – 4,704), *bystander* AND *bullying* (Science Direct – 414; Thoreau – 1,997; ProQuest Central – 1,342; SAGE Journals - 604), and *bystander intervention in sexual harassment* (Science Direct – 134; Thoreau – 136; ProQuest Central – 594; SAGE Journals - 444). The search encompassed various types of sexual harassment across all previously researched characteristics of victims, perpetrators, and organizations and settings (for example, legal or high school), as well as across diverse age groups, race, gender, and social status. My attempts to restrict the search to articles related specifically to the higher education setting in combination with other parameters, mentioned above, produced results with only limited information. Therefore, I searched and relied on literature that reviewed and reported theoretical approaches and previous research related to sexual harassment in both work and academic setting, as well as literature related to bystander responses. In addition, I searched the internet for sites with information specific to legal regulations and

educational policies related to sexual harassment. Overall, I have cited approximately 224

sources in this paper and 145 articles, including legal material, university policy, and a

few media resources for the literature review in Chapter 2.

This chapter presents information derived from my literature review that informed

the key research questions for this quantitative study. Major sections include Theoretical

Foundations, Legal Definitions and College/University Policies, Patterns of SH in

Academia, the role of peer observers in deterring SH and the processes associated with

the peers' responses, and application of TDM to bystander response. Furthermore, the

chapter describes the current scholarship on factors that affect observers' responses and

the effect of a female SH victim's reactions on the responses. Finally, there is a concise

summary of previous findings concerning bystander interventions and a transition to the

Chapter 3.

Theoretical Foundations

There are three principal theoretical foundations for my study: Knapp's (2016)

typology of SH victim's responses, Gray and Wegner's (2009; Schein & Gray, 2017)

theory of dyadic morality (TDM), and Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly's (2005) model

of a bystander's response to SH. The theories provided the basis for explanation of social

cognitive and behavioral factors that may impact an observer's intentions to intervene

when presented with a SH situation. In my study, I manipulated the response of the

female student who was the victim of SH by a male professor. The responses portrayed

by the victim followed Knapp's typology of stress and coping actions. Following

principles of TDM, I examined elements of the moral typecasting process among peer

observers. Finally, I also studied peer observers' behavioral intentions regarding intervention responses that followed from the Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly model. I provided a more detailed overview of each theory and how it supported my research as I reviewed literature and discussed each of the areas specific to my research.

Defining Sexual Harassment and Bystander Intervention

Legal Definitions

The U. S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) provides the following definition of SH:

> It is unlawful to harass a person (an applicant or employee) because of that person's sex. Harassment can include "sexual harassment" or unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical harassment of a sexual nature. Harassment does not have to be of a sexual nature, however, and can include offensive remarks about a person's sex. For example, it is illegal to harass a woman by making offensive comments about women in general… Although the law doesn't prohibit simple teasing, offhand comments, or isolated incidents that are not very serious, harassment is illegal when it is so frequent or severe that it creates a hostile or offensive work environment or when it results in an adverse employment decision (such as the victim being fired or demoted). (USEEOC, n.d.a, para 1-2,3)

The U. S. EEOC (n.d.b) also clarifies that "Sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination that violates Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964," noting that in addition to the direct victim of SH, there could be other people offended by the conduct.

If one thinks of SH as sex-based discrimination, then, it becomes clear that such behavior

cannot be invited by the target for other than self-harm purposes. Cortina (EEOC, 2015)

clarified that perpetrators of gender harassment are not looking for sexual cooperation,

they are rather intending to insult and degrade a victim. However, among problems with

definitions of SH, determining whether the behavior was welcomed or unwelcomed is an

issue. Although one might wonder who would invite discrimination based on sex or

unwanted touching, ultimately the definition of SH may rely on the expectations, beliefs,

values, and attitudes of the target of the behavior, as well as those who guide the

perceptions of others who observe the behavior.

College/University Policies

The U. S. Department of Education and Office of Civil Rights (2015) enforces

Title IX, which focuses on different discrimination types, including SH. The

department's definition of SH is as follows:

> Sexual harassment is unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature, such as unwelcome
>
> sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal, nonverbal, or
>
> physical conduct of a sexual nature. Sexual violence is a form of sexual
>
> harassment and refers to physical sexual acts perpetrated against a person's will or
>
> where a person is incapable of giving consent (e.g., due to the student's age or use
>
> of drugs or alcohol, or because an intellectual or other disability prevents the
>
> student from having the capacity to give consent). A number of different acts fall
>
> into the category of sexual violence, including rape, sexual assault, sexual battery,
>
> sexual abuse, and sexual coercion. Gender-based harassment is another form of

sex-based harassment and refers to unwelcome conduct based on an individual's

actual or perceived sex, including harassment based on gender identity or

nonconformity with sex stereotypes, and not necessarily involving conduct of a

sexual nature. All of these types of sex-based harassment are forms of sex

discrimination prohibited by Title IX. (p. 15)

Title IX initially addressed gender-based violence, including SH, on college campuses;

the U. S. Department of Education and Office of Civil Rights released a "Dear

Colleague" letter with explanations of schools' obligations to report SH together with

other crimes (2011). The letter forbade schools to draw help from law-enforcement in

investigating complains. In 2017, the U. S. Office of Civil Rights revoked the letter

because universities were pressured to establish a judicial system and policing actions in

addition to encouragement of expedited solutions to complains (USDOE & USOCR,

2017). The letter omitted the due process and elements of fairness in resolving

allegations. This resulted in unfair process for the accused and denial of justice for the

victims.

The United States Department of Education (2017) developed interim guidance

for schools where student's age and severity of violating Title IX were considered. The

guide provided the discussion on the conflict between confidentiality for the victims and

school's ability to take actions, and explicitly encouraged victims to report harassment

and discrimination. There were some sentiments that victims do not trust law

enforcement (Engle, 2014); however, they do not trust university officials and peer's

reactions either (Nelson et al., 2017). Because victims are left to protect themselves, they

may benefit from knowing what of their responses to SH elicit or not the desirable by

them outcomes from other students who are the most trusted source. Majority of victims

think of resorting to social support and friendly advice after being harassed (Cortina &

Wasti, 2005; McDonald et al., 2016).

On the one hand, schools do not need to take on responsibilities of law-

enforcement; schools can prevent and resolve sex-based discrimination issues that lack

physical violence and abuse of power. After all, educational institutions have primary

focus on education and not on detective or persecution work; universities do establish

victim services offices (Engle, 2014). There is also the option of school's collaboration

with law-enforcement for investigating cases that overlap from nonphysical SH to signs

of sexual assault, threatening and stalking, and hostile educational environment (Engle,

2014). The comparative example would be the case of molesting a child; the case of the

sex offense is a criminal offense, which should not be investigated internally and must be

brought to the law-enforcement attention. Sexual harassment of a student by a faculty

member also bares difference of social power that makes fair investigation within the

educational institution unlikely due to "motivated blindness" (Tenbrunsel et al., 2019).

Practices of Sexual Harassment in Academia

The statistics on known incidents of SH in academia are staggering. In an earlier

estimate by Cantalupo and Kidder (2018), 1 in 10 female graduate students at major

research universities had been sexually harassed by a faculty member. Fifty three percent

of sexually harassing faculty engaged primarily in unwelcomed physical contact that

included behaviors similar to abuse, groping, and sexual assault behaviors that amounted

to serial SH (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018). There was the instance when a foreign student was only able to end a year of a coercive sexual relationship, with sexual and verbal abuse, with a professor by getting a civil protection order. In cases of serial harassers, the offensive and criminal behavior could have spanned over decades, unaddressed. Harassers often were relocated to different academic positions and their behaviors were justified under the protection of academic freedom (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018). Wood et al. (2018) reported that from eight universities participating in an online survey on sexual victimization, 19% of students have been sexually harassed by faculty and staff and 30% by peers. Such factors as female gender, white students, sexual minority students, and those who spent more time at academic institutions contributed to the increase in risk for sexual victimization. The women's experience of sexual harassment in academic institutions was accumulating with years of academic studies (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018; Wood et al., 2018).

Earlier, Rosenthal et al. (2016) reported that 23.4% of male and 38% of female graduate students experienced sexual harassment by university faculty and staff. Among the 38% of female victims, 17.5% of them experienced three or more incidents of SH by faculty and staff (Rosenthal et al., 2016). Among the harassers, 67.8% were faculty members, 13.5% staff, and 14% graduate level instructors. Only 6.4% of victims stated that they reported the incident. Unwanted touching was reported in 4.7% cases, unwanted sexual attention in 6.4% cases, explicit bribes in 3.5%, and sexist remarks in 59.9% cases. Regarding types of SH, 18.5% female students experienced three or more types of victimization. Female law students were 1.58 times more sexually to be harassed by

faculty and staff than other master's and doctoral students and 1.50 times more likely to be harassed by peers. Therefore, different types of SH coexist in the repertoire of perpetrators.

Trainees at academic field placements have been the most frequent targets of SH: 90% of women trainees and 70% of men trainees have described such experiences, although women have been 3.5 times more likely than men to report SH (Clancy et al., 2014). While 18% of victims have been satisfied with the outcomes of reporting SH, the majority (75%) have been dissatisfied with the outcomes of reporting. At the field placements, women were significantly more frequently than men to be targets of sexual assault. The gender difference also emerged by the perpetrator category: men have been harassed more frequently by their peers (horizontal harassment) while women have been more harassed by their professional superiors (vertical harassment). This phenomenon emphasizes the importance of the power differential context in understanding SH of women (Clancy et al., 2014).

Nelson et al. (2017) described in depth cases of serial SH of female students at academic field research sites following the large survey from the study by Clancy et al. (2014). The sample of the survey represented 74.8% of participants from the United States and the rest of them were from 30 other countries; 87.2% identified themselves as Caucasian. Women represented 77.5% of the sample (Clancy et al., 2014). Clancy et al. (2014) combined tenure, tenure-track track faculty with adjunct, which constituted 26.9% of participants in the Faculty category, 58% were postdocs and students in the Trainees category, and 6.5% were in the Employees category. Without differentiating whether the

data were collected from the U. S. or international research fields regarding different interviews, Nelson et al. (2017) found that male field site managers had different standards for male and female students, favored male students in advancing their scholarship, indicated that women's different inclinations required different assignments from those for men, prohibited women's access to water, food, and toileting. In one of the interviews, a perpetrator commented that a woman was lacking intellectual capabilities, in another, a women victim described how her harasser threw objects at her when he was angry. From 72 allegations of SH against faculty studied by Cantalupo and Kidder (2018), 57 cases included allegations by multiple victims and 48 incidents (67%) involved sexual touching such as groping and coercive sexual intercourse. Thirty five percent of cases involved physical violence; foreign students have been threatened with possibility of deportation, if they refused sexual relationship with professors (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018).

Moylan and Wood (2016) found that 55.7 % of graduate students at social work field sites have been sexually harassed at least once, mostly by staff and clients. From these students, 19.6% stated they have been treated differently based on sex, but no one reported completed sexual assault. As many as 63.4% of students who reported more than one instance of SH described their reported level of discomfort with SH as moderate. A majority (79.1%) of SH perpetrators were male; the most common harassers were field supervisors and other staff members. On average, students reported that SH "somewhat" interfered with their learning experience. Because only five students reported sexual coercion, further inquiries into the experience of the students were ceased to protect their

confidentiality. Rates of prevalence of SH were high across various groups of trainees: Hispanic/Latina (65.2%), White (52.5%), and Black (41.9%) students; between-group differences were marginal (Moylan & Wood, 2016, p. 412). Students who were in committed personal relationship (married or in domestic partnership) rather than single were more likely to report prevalence of SH in the survey but only with marginal significance (Moylan & Wood, 2016).

There are significant negative consequences for women students who endure SH by faculty members in male-dominated STEM careers (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018). A recent report from NASEM (2018) indicated significantly higher risks of SH among women seeking careers in STEM. Compared to women, men attained more than 80% of degrees in engineering, physics, and computer science in 2013; women represented only 21% of the professorate in life sciences in 2014. Female medical students experienced more than twice (220%) as much SH when compared with female students in non-STEM careers. Similarly, SH was 34% higher among female engineering students than among female students in non-STEM careers. Finally, reports from senior faculty members revealed that older male faculty engaged in SH more as a habit acquired from the time when higher education was designed for men and there was a general acceptance of such behavior in academia.

Serial harassers and other representatives of the institution who may be directly or indirectly complicit, such as presidents, provosts, department chairs, other faculty, have significant control over students' academic careers. Cantalupo and Kidder (2018) have added their arguments for the importance of creating a safe environment for reporting

SH, including by witnesses of SH, as a way to deter victimization of students. It is important to enforce protections against retribution in a system where faculty are entrusted with substantial authority over students.

Options for Victims' Responses to Sexual Harassment

The widespread custom of keeping harassers in academic positions contributed to some victims' preference to ignore or avoid harassers rather than address the problem with administrators of academic programs. However, victims of SH could opt for other ways of coping. For example, Knapp (2016) and colleagues (Knapp et al., 1997) offered a two-dimensional model of victim's responses to SH. The first dimension, mode of response, reflects the option of coping with SH by the victim acting alone or with the support of others. The second dimension, focus of response, differentiates responses where the victim focuses on her own feelings or initiates self-protective strategies, such as confronting the harasser directly or seeking formal advocacy. Knapp (Knapp, 2016; Knapp et al., 1997) also suggested that victims may progress through various coping responses, from the low- to high-intervention strategies, such as from avoidance and progressing to formal complaint.

Knapp (2016) and colleagues (Knapp et al., 1997) conceptualized victim's coping responses based on the Lazarus and Folkman transactional model of coping with a stressful encounter (Lazarus, 1993; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). Here, an environmental event leads to cognitive appraisals. According to Lazarus and Folkman (1987), the key characteristics of cognitive appraisals are assessments of (a) experience of harm, (b) anticipation of harm (feeling threatened), and (c) the challenge of implementing the

desirable coping strategy. Cognitive appraisals are accompanied by emotional reactions, such as fear and shame. The greater the perceived stressor, the more intense the possible emotional response of the person, and the greater the challenge to implement the desirable coping strategy. Following Lazarus and Folkman's transactional model of coping, Knapp (2016) also characterized victim responses along dimensions that consider coping as focused on coping with internal stimuli only or also addressing the cause of the stress: "avoidance/denial, social coping, confrontation/negotiation, and advocacy seeking" (p. 8).

According to Knapp's (2016) model and in consideration of actual options within the academic and workplace environments, victims of SH use four possible avenues for coping: coping alone by dealing with their own emotions (avoidance/denial), coping with own emotions by seeking informal social support (passive response during incident and then seeking informal social support), initiating active steps by seeking organizational relief (making a formal complaint), initiating confrontation of a harasser by acting alone (problem-solving without social support, confronting the harasser directly).

Theoretically, people primarily use emotion-focused coping when a stressor is refractory to change (Folkman, & Lazarus, 1980; Folkman et al., 1986; Lazarus, 1993; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). In fact, victims of SH prefer this strategy as well (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Scarduzio et al., 2018). Wasti and Cortina (2002) found that Knapp's et al (1997) typology of SH victim's response was generally supported in their research, except that avoidance and denial responses did not join under self-focused strategy across different cultural samples. Avoidance joined the negotiation item cluster and, also, a

higher order cluster, across four samples: working-class Anglo Americans, working-class Hispanic, professional Anglo Americans, and professional Turkish women. Wasti and Cortina (2002) suggested that the victims needed to apply specific efforts depending on the context in order to avoid their harassers. To avoid their harassers without support, victims initiate meetings in locations excluding harassers and by changing jobs. Denial, on the other hand, requires cognitive redefinition of the SH situation into a joke or something trivial (Wasti & Cortina, 2002). Furthermore, Scarduzio et al. (2018) placed avoidance strategy under the problem-solving umbrella because SH victims had to create specific actions like avoiding certain locations and unfriending harassers in online environment.

Fitzgerald et al. (1995) also used the Lazarus and Folkman's (1987) model for coping with stress but characterized the SH victim's responses from the observer's rather than victim's subjective point of view. Fitzgerald et al. differentiated SH victim's responses into internally and externally focused. The internally focused responses included detachment, reattribution, and denial, while externally focused responses grouped avoidance, social support, and institutional support. Interestingly, they also described the avoidance strategy as an active response that often appeared in the forms of humor or appeasement.

Scarduzio et al. (2018) used qualitative methods to research how female victims coped with SH across social networking sites. From 16 in-depth interviews, they classified coping approaches into three groups, passive emotion-focused, active emotion-focused, and problem-focused. The problem-focused approach to coping included such

actions as changes of online behavior like unfriending/blocking the harasser from the Facebook or Snapchat, omitting Twitter posts, changing online status to one-in-relationship, and telling friends to avoid tagging (Scarduzio et al., 2018). The study participants preferred to confront a sexually harassing co-worker in face-to-face mode or email and report him to their supervisor. One of the victims of SH appealed to her peers and organized "a Twitter fight" (p. 334) with the harasser. Active emotion-focused strategy incorporated laughing, blaming other SH victims, being quiet online, being nice by saving the harasser's face, and sharing their negative feelings with peers. Normalization of SH, denial of wrongness of the situation, and ignoring the harasser constituted passive emotion-focused responses in Scarduzio et al. (2018).

There are other options that victims use to address SH situations: victims also blame their organizations (Madera, 2018). Targeting SH in the hospitality industry, Madera (2018) hypothesized that the intensity of SH as expressed in frequency of the incidents was affecting the victims' level of blaming the organization, and that perceived distress and fear of retaliation mediated the effect. The majority of the participants in their study were female. Participants' ratings of perceived threat and alarm were used to define their level of distress. Madera also measured fear of retaliation by coworkers. The frequency of SH was related to the fear of retaliation; the fear of retaliation was significantly related to the perceived distress and blaming organization.

Victims chose media cooperation, like in #MeToo movement, for helping them to describe their suffering, communicate responsibility for the caused harm, and appeal for social support (O'Boyle & Li, 2019). The media poses as the middle chain of

communication between the victim of SH and sexual assault, university, and a society as the whole for attribution of responsibility for SH on public level. In their mixed methods research, O'Boyle and Li (2019) analyzed 360 articles and found the following distribution of responsibility for sexual assault: 37.4% stories attributed responsibility to the victims, 34.6% to the perpetrators, and 39.6% to the institutions (p. 440). In the university-assigned blame, newspapers held fraternity, athletic programs, and sorority groups in 25.8% cases responsible (p. 442). From the blame-the-victim group of articles, 43.3% of victims have been blamed for their inappropriate behavior; 50.2% of articles belonged to the blame-the-perpetrator group. #MeToo movement may have influenced the credibility of victims complains about SH and sexual assault (Brown & Battle, 2019). Brown and Battle (2019) discussed whether #MeToo movement diminished social exclusion of SH targets and opened the opportunity for belonginess. While #MeToo project provided the extent of the problem with SH and assault of women at work and in academia, and their personal accounts, there are specific unanswered questions pertinent to social cognitive and behavioral responses of victim's peers, helping the victim or protecting the perpetrator of SH. Therefore, SH victims who were in distress were aware of possible retaliation from co-workers and placed responsibility for civil behavior of others on the organization. These findings highlight the stress experienced by victims of SH and attributional processes that may make it less likely that they would report the offenses to representatives of the organization or expect or seek support from coworkers.

The Peer Observer as a Deterrent to Sexual Harassment in Academia

As discussed previously, the "open secret" (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018, p. 725) phenomenon or failure to hold faculty accountable for SH highlights overwhelming power of university officials over students' lives at universities. SH victims, when they are alone and without support, have limited opportunities for receiving justice. Faculty members are welcomed to testify in SH cases in favor or against their coworkers; however, student witnesses and supporters often are difficult to find, even if they also have been victims of SH by the same faculty member (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018). The observers and other victims, when they come forward, could provide the needed support for the current victims, and could prevent further SH.

Kossek et al. (2017) suggested a multilevel model for women's career equality marked by gender inclusion. One of the dimensions of the model was organization of workplace support, creation of a relationship-oriented environment that fits women instead of placing demands on women to fit an environment where victims can be isolated. Nelson et al. (2017) described cases where female students felt comfortable working on their field project placements because responsibilities were shared fairly, power was used appropriately, and peers and supervisors facilitated gender-equal relationship and conscientiousness.

There is evidence from Australian sample of university students that male study participants blamed the female victim of SH by a male peer more than female study participants did (Bongiorno et al., 2020). However, there were no sex difference in evaluating the vignette's event as SH; men also reported more empathy than women to

the perpetrator; observers' empathy to the victim did not differ by sex of respondents (Bongiorno et al., 2020). Bongiorno's et al. (2020) study presented participants with a SH vignette that described encounters of a female student who filed an official complaint through the university channels for SH by a male student. In this example of peer-to-peer SH, the victim and wrongdoer gained ambiguous observers' attributions when the harasser became a possible target of university's investigation. It was unclear whether male peers were to support the victim or the perpetrator; however, less blame to the victim of SH was associated with more empathy to her from both sexes. Empathy to the harasser was coexisting with empathy to the victim in responses of male students to the SH vignette. Bongiorno's et al. (2020) suggested to research peer-factors, which discourage female victims from filing formal complaints and reduce peer support.

Observers also have the potential to influence the organizational climate by normalizing confrontation of SH and those who commit it, as well as by supporting victims and their rights to due process in reporting SH (Clarke, 2014). Peer support of the victim's decision to report SH opens the door for proper investigation of the complaint and ensures consequent justice for the victim corroborated by peers. The power of the supportive observer can become a major instrument to improve the association between victim complaints and sanctions against perpetrators of SH who otherwise do not expect or fear consequences (Clarke, 2014). Further, supportive observers can help to reduce the victim's shame and guilt, lessen condemnation of a passive victim by others, and increase others' compassion for her when she has been otherwise paralyzed by the abuse (Diekmann et al., 2013).

Processes Associated with Bystander Responses

Latané and Darley (1970) provided some of the early work on bystander

responses in times of emergency (for example, an emergent medical condition) or

victimization of another person (for example, a crime being committed against a person).

Their theory and research, which has followed, identified several types of factors that

may influence an observer's response. Some of these factors are situational, for example,

the number of other people who also are present as witnesses, while others are social-

cognitive, for example, awareness that the event is occurring, perceiving it as an

emergency.

The Latané and Darley (1970) model of bystander intervention suggested that

with increase of the number of witnesses, the chances for the victim to be helped dropped

because of diffusion of responsibility. The first two major cognitive steps included in the

model were to notice the event and interpret it as an emergency. Therefore, the less the

situation is perceived as emergent by the witness, the less the likelihood of intervention

by them. When others are present, passive confederates generally reduced a victim's

chances for bystander help. The key for increasing the odds for help was in the

bystander's ability to take personal responsibility; however, with the presence of other

bystanders, the pressure to intervene as well as the responsibility is diffused amongst all

of them. When others are present, there also is less risk of being blamed personally for

inaction or ineffective actions (Latané & Darley, 1970).

Bystanders rarely are present during dyadic quid pro quo SH. However, they may

witness a more hostile work environment or become a listening ear to SH victims

(Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). As in Latané and Darley (1970), Bowes-Sperry and Powell (1999) introduced the process of observer's response that starts with cognitive appraisal. The model is based on the Rest (1986) and Jones (1991) ethical decision-making model where cognitive appraisal includes recognition of a moral issue and interpretation of the situation as already or potentially harmful. The second step was to establish moral intent and motivation to engage in helpful actions (Jones, 1991). Bowes-Sperry and Powell (1999) also examined effect of moral intensity (social consensus on harm, magnitude of consequences, and proximity) on the observer's immediate reactions to SH and intentions to intervene.

Perception of moral intensity depends on social consensus that the SH behavior is wrong and magnitude of consequences of the wrong behavior to the victim (Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999). The hypothesis that proximity to the previous experience of SH and to SH victims would affect observer's response was not supported (Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999). Magnitude of consequences was measured by presenting victim's reactions to SH; for example, how upset the SH victim looked (Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999). Further, participants who recognized more negative consequences from SH and who had a higher social consensus that the behavior was SH were more likely to label the situation as an ethical issue. Consequently, observers with higher scores on ethical issues were more likely to establish intentions to intervene.

The typology of observer's responses considered two dimensions, time (immediacy of interventions) and intensity of engagement (from low to high; Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999); Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). An example of a low

involvement and low immediacy response would be the observer advising the victim to avoid the harasser. The low involvement and high immediacy response requires the observer to remove the victim from the situation or to interrupt the harasser, without naming the behavior as SH or confronting the harasser. The high involvement and low immediacy intervention includes the observer reporting the harasser, helping the target to report him, or confronting the harasser directly after the incident. In the high immediacy and high involvement response, the observer initiates a group-based opposition to the harasser, directly demands him to stop his behavior, or publicly encourages the victim to report SH (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005).

There also are several factors influencing observer's behaviors in response to SH: organizational climate regarding uncivil behavior, perceived harasser's and victim's motives, effects on the victim, and consequences for observers after their actions (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2009). Further, third party judgment of the SH situations depends on the type of remedial actions available to the observer, observer's gender, and the type of SH (Tata, 2000). Observers' judgments can be separated into the perceived offensiveness, need of punishment, and observers' beliefs about harassment (Tata, 2000).

Tata (2000) applied Heider's (1958) model of accountability in a study of observers' responses to different responses by perpetrators of SH to an investigation. According to Heider's conceptualization, the lowest level of self-attribution of responsibility for SH would be when the actor does not understand consequences of his actions, presents investigators with unintentional accountability for social sexual behavior, or when he attributes his actions to external causes (denial and excuses). The

second level of accountability is self-attribution of responsibility, meaning the actor

claims he performed actions intentionally while knowing the consequences but presented

his actions as not harmful and pleaded he would never do this again. The third level is

self-blameworthiness; this is when the perpetrator considers himself worthy of

punishment or makes a concession (Tata, 2000). Therefore, the last and the highest level

of accountability accumulates all previous levels into blameworthiness. Tata (2000)

presented observers with a vignette that described a SH situation where a man was

sexually harassing a female coworker. Self-attributions of accountability by the

perpetrator were systematically varied across groups. Observers were asked to evaluate

judgment of SH, the offensiveness of the perpetrator, and the need for disciplinary action.

Observers' perceptions of offensiveness (good/bad, coercive/not, acceptable/not)

covaried with the perpetrator's accounts. Justifications of the harasser had the least effect

on judgments of SH when compared with excuses and denial consequently. Excuses had

the highest negative effect and concessions had the lowest negative effect on observers'

perception of offensiveness of the perpetrator. The perpetrator's denials and excuses did

not differentiate on offensiveness variable. Harassers' use of denial and excuses may

reduce the observers' perceived need for a disciplinary action more than concessions and

justifications. The effect of denial and excuses on observers is similar to social cognitive

appraisal of a moral dyad where observers' perception intentionality and responsibility is

essential for acknowledging harm done to the victim (Gray, 2010; Gray et al., 2014; Gray

& Wegner, 2009, 2011; Gray & Wegner, 2010a).

Application of the Theory of Dyadic Morality (TDM) to Bystander Response

TDM is an approach for incorporation of moral perception into dyadic interactions where there is an actor and a potential victim**.** Gray and Wegner (2009) explained the observer's perception of the wrong-doer and the victim via the process of *moral typecasting*. Moral typecasting is the psychological phenomenon of attributing cause of harm to the active member of the dyad and attributing rights to protection to the target of harm (Gray, 2010; Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2011; Gray & Wegner, 2010a). Gray and colleagues (Gray, 2010; Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2011; Gray & Wegner, 2010a) conceptualized an observer's perception of the actor in the dyadic interaction as *a moral agent* while the target of the action as *a moral patient*. They (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2011) also noted that each person is perceived to have different degrees of moral agency and patiency in a given situation and context.

Observers evaluate moral agency of the actor with respect to causality, intentionality, and responsibility for actions, and therefore, blameworthiness or praiseworthiness (Gray, 2010; Gray & Wegner, 2010a). However, they perceive and evaluate the status of moral patiency of the victim in the dyad from an experiential perspective of vulnerability, rights to compassion from others, and ability to feel physical and emotional pain (Arluke et al., 1979; Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009; 2011). Moral agency and patiency have an inverse relationship; if an observer attributed more agency to a given person, they would attribute less patiency to the same person (Gray & Wegner, 2009). Moral typecasting is dependent on culturally based interpretations of

harm in relation to social norms, which may or may not be gender-biased (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2010a).

The initial social cognitive appraisal of the dyad is dependent on the intuitive perception of harm, without which the dyadic interaction would not be appraised as immoral or unethical and would not trigger moral typecasting (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009). Moral typecasting is the process that avoids dehumanization of either party in the dyad because both sets of characteristics, moral agency and patiency, require perception of humanness: intentionality, conscientiousness, and presence of affective experience (Bastian & Haslam, 2010). Denial of subjective experiences of the victim may exclude a person from the rights to be treated morally (Chen et al., 2013). Gray and Wegner (2009) emphasized the importance of recognizing the subjective experience of harm.

My research proposed to apply TDM to the study of bystander response to SH by examining observers' processes of moral typecasting, and their related intentions for behavioral responses. Latané and Darley's (1970) proposal that bystander responses begin with interpretation of the situation as an emergency is conceptually similar to sensing real or potential harm done to a victim. Similar to Bowes-Sperry and Powell's (1999) model for evaluation of moral intensity of the situation, TDM proposes the appraisal of harm as the intuitive perception of wrongness and harm to the victim, providing change of focus from the situation to the person (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2011). TDM suggests that the intuitive perception of immorality would combine the two first phases, noticing the event and interpreting it as an emergency, into

one intuitive social cognitive act of moral appraisal (Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2011; Gray et al., 2014). A very unique difference is that TDM describes an observer's perceptions based on the dyadic interaction between the moral agent and moral patient, and not only of one of the two members of the dyad in isolation.

<div style="text-align:center">SH Vignettes in Research</div>

Vignettes and role play are useful mechanisms for studying attitudes, judgments, perception, and cognition in organizational settings (Greenberg & Eskew, 1993). Written vignettes can be tailored to the contexts of different studies on psychological processes, specifically, in studies on interpersonal contact. Vignettes also allow research participants to feel safer when responding to a hypothetical situation rather than to their personal experience (Greenberg & Eskew, 1993). Many researchers have used vignettes to study bystander interventional intentions, for example, Benavides-Espinoza and Cunningham (2010), Bowes-Sperry and Powell (1999), Bursik and Gefter (2011), Cunningham et al. (2012), Diekmann et al. (2013), Espinoza and Cunningham (2010), Heretick and Learn (2020), Herrera et al. (2014, 2017), Tata (2000), and Weiss and Lalonde (2001).

Bowes-Sperry and Powell (1999) used the SH vignette to test bystander's intentions to intervene within ethical decision-making model. The vignette described a male harasser advancing social sexual behaviors toward a female co-worker; the researchers (Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999) performed two pilot studies to include all necessary information in the SH vignette. Tata (2000) presented research participants with 15 SH incidents that included three main types: sexual coercion, unwanted sexual attention, and gender harassment. The described situations specified the duration and

frequency of SH, work context, and the relationship between the target and perpetrator of SH (Tata, 2000). Tata's (2000) vignettes started with the fact that a female worker was reporting SH committed by a male co-worker.

Benavides-Espinoza and Cunningham (2010) also used SH vignettes to test causal relationships; for example, how organizational culture influenced people's thoughts about level of punishment the harasser deserved and whether women preferred more severe punishment for SH than men. The study participants read about the two organizational cultures: compliant with SH policies and proactive in supporting diversity. Then, the participants read one of two SH scenarios: quid pro quo or hostile work environment. After that, they rated punishment level (Benavides-Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010). Cunningham et al. (2012) further used actual role play presented to research participants; the role play contained misogynistic comments between two men about a woman who has just left a room for a minute. To compare observer's level of distress among men and women, Cunningham et al. (2012) also used a written vignette of the same situation. Misogynistic comments are part of gender harassment that create a hostile work environment. Therefore, Cunningham et al. (2012) tested causal relationship between misogynistic comments and level of distress and varied the mode of presentation of SH (lived or written) to the research participants.

Researchers used SH vignettes that described similar situations but in an academic setting. In their five scenarios, Bursik and Gefter's (2011) described SH situations that differed in salience of SH. Vignettes increased in the frequency of the SH behavior and progressed from objectification to verbal/nonverbal behaviors, to requests

for dates, and to quid pro quo sexual harassment. The victim in the scenarios also increased varied responses from denial and avoidance of the harasser, to telling him to stop, and denying her interest in the quid pro quo offer. Research participants rated both characters in the scenarios for appropriateness of their behavior. Bursik and Gefter (2011) also used the SH vignettes to demonstrate that social power of the harasser did not affect observers' judgments about SH. With time, researchers became more instrumental in the use of situational vignettes, varying setting, actors, severity, and response of SH victim.

Diekmann et al. (2013) used the SH scenario in a work context where a male supervisor asked sexually harassing questions a female candidate for a research position. They also tested causal relationships between the victim's passive and active responses on bystander's willingness to socialize and work with the victim. Although, the scenario contained only verbal harassing behaviors, most women labeled similar behavior as SH in previous research (Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). Furthermore, Herrera et al. (2014, 2017) tested how two types of SH, gender harassment and unwanted sexual attention, affected perception of SH by men and women and their predisposition to commit SH. The vignettes described SH at work by a male toward a female co-worker and ended with either active or passive victim's response to the perpetrator. Sexual harassment scenarios did not vary in the social power position between the victim and the harasser; they included similar dependent variables on the victim's active or passive response.

Heretick and Learn (2020) also presented written SH vignettes to test how severity of coercive SH by a male Professor toward a female student influenced peer's cognitive and emotional reactions and desire to help. They modified a vignette used by

Weiss and Lalonde (2001) to fit the educational context. The severity of coercive SH

varied in the description. Overall, there were three vignettes: normative professor-student

interaction, coercive quid pro quo SH with the ambiguous physical violation and

objectification, and coercive quid pro quo SH with the forceful physical violation

(groping). The study participants were asked to imagine that they could see and hear what

was going on without being seen. They found between-group differences in observers'

cognitive and emotional responses, as well as behavioral intervention intentions during

the event, in relation to the severity of the SH.

Female Victim's Responses to Perpetrators

How do women respond to SH? Cortina and Wasti (2005) surveyed women who

reported experiences with SH. They found that avoidance and denial have been the most

common responses of victims of SH, with detachment from the situation also reported

among working-class women. A support-seeking strategy took second place as a response

amongst working women. Professional women preferred to negotiate with the harasser

and also to seek social and formal support; they used avoidance, denial, and detachment

as well. Wasti and Cortina (2002), Cortina and Wasti (2005), and Scarduzio et al. (2018)

found that SH victim's avoidance behavior was one of the problem-solving strategies

because the behavior required planning and executing specific actions to stay away from

the harasser. Further, while social support helps to remediate personal stress of the SH

victims, it does not help to stop harassers (Nelson et al., 2017).

Social Cost of Confrontation

Serial harassment by faculty is a specific phenomenon of SH in academia (Tenbrunsel et al., 2019). Quid pro quo SH is often the result of continuous and "lighter" forms of gender discrimination, such as sexist attitudes, that had not been stopped (Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018). Good et al. (2012) examined several predictors of women's confrontation of sexism. Good et al. (2012) asked undergraduate female students to recall their own experiences of sexism and reported that the women confronted sexism on behalf of self and others when they believed such confrontation would have reduced further sexism and when perceived interpersonal cost was not high. Further, Good et al. (2012) reported that students reported significantly more confrontation of sexism instances for themselves than for others; the behavior was negatively correlated with perceived social costs to the self. Women who were more likely to confront perpetrators when they were the victim also were more likely to confront perpetrators on behalf of other women. They found that women's confrontational behavior increased in the role of witness with the increase of its frequency. This result may suggest that personal experience of SH may be severe enough even when it occurred only once. The perceived benefits to self positively affected confrontation of sexism targeting others, and the same effect was of perceived benefits to others on confrontation after self-experienced sexism.

Misattribution of Cause

As noted earlier, confrontation of the perpetrator by the female victim of SH is not common. However, when generally considering the situation of uncivil behavior, Diekmann et al. (2013) found that female observers forecast that they would confront the

perpetrator. Diekmann et al. (2013) described this overestimation among female

observers of likelihood that they would confront as due to a fundamental attribution error:

they attribute the cause of the harassment to the victim, whether she responds actively or

passively, rather than to situational factors. Furthermore, this error leads to social

distancing from passive victims by their peers.

Reduced Attribution Error

Among many factors influencing moral dumbfounding, such as efforts by the

perpetrator to blame the victim (Loughnan et al., 2013; Page & Pina, 2015), there is also

the bystander's initial perceptual process that contributes to the observer's attribution

error as social stereotype of harmlessness (Gray et al., 2014). The initial intuitive

appraisal of moral situations is spontaneous and subjective; this process is about the

perception of a maltreated mind (Gray et al., 2014). Diekmann et al. (2013) attempted to

reduce the gap between the victim and observer's social cognitive appraisal of SH. The

attributional error of the observers was reduced when observers were asked to place

themselves in the situation (Diekmann et al., 2013). Also, their derogation of the victim

was reduced significantly when the observers reflected on the victim's motivation to get a

job and their own past personal experience of intimidation (Diekmann et al., 2013).

Therefore, observers came to understand harm to the SH victim through subjective

experience and understanding of the motivation and background of the victim. It is worth

noticing that SH vignettes used by Diekmann et al. (2013) omitted description of the

victim's emotional reactions to the harasser's behavior. This may have concealed her

experience of harm from the observers. Various observers' social cognitive appraisals extend to their choices of interventions in the SH situations.

Social Cognitive Reactions of Observers

Research in the area of bystander response to harassment generally has followed the Latané and Darley (1970) or the Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly (2005) models. The typical factors investigated in relation to SH bystander responses were dispositional and situational emotions of bystanders, their beliefs toward gender norms, their appraisal of severity of SH, personal experience with SH and intimidation, age and cultural background, student or employee status, reactions to passive or active victim's response to SH, observers' perception of severity of SH, harm from it, their perception of punishment for the harasser, their perception of intentionality of harm, and attribution of responsibility for SH. Therefore, separately, researchers investigated bystanders' motivation deriving either from focusing on victim's suffering or harasser's wrongdoing and sometimes both. Participants in these studies have observed online videos of interactions containing SH (e.g., Galdi et al., 2017) or read written vignettes describing SH (e.g., Benavides-Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010; Bursik & Gefter, 2011; Hitlan et al., 2006; Ohse & Stockdale, 2008). In some studies, observers have been asked to recall actions they have taken in such situations and to describe interventions they have taken (Brinkman et al., 2015; Hitlan et al., 2006).

Social Norm Violations

Social norms are one of the factors affecting interventions. Social norms refer to the adherence to standards of group membership; for example, gender role expectations (Otterbacher et al., 2017; Settles et al., 2014).

Gender Norm Violation

Gender stereotypes have dictated a double standard in appraising of traditional or egalitarian behavior to both men and women. Research by Gaunt (2013) has helped to clarify these relationships. As noted by Gaunt, men who believe in traditional gender stereotypes expect a breadwinning woman to feel guilt and shame. Egalitarians attribute more warmth to the men in a caregiving role than to the woman in the same position, giving an extra-reward for the men's behavior. Further, the evaluation of norm violation depends upon what norm observers consider broken, therefore, on their ideology (Gaunt, 2013). Ohse and Stockdale (2008) also found that sexist attitudes predicted differences in appraising the situational vignette as SH: observers high on hostile sexism evaluated less unwelcomeness and appraised the situation as less sexually harassing than those low on hostile sexism. Herrera et al. (2014) found that male witnesses negatively evaluated women who responded to SH with rejection because they violated their gender norm expectation to be cooperative and tolerant when being used. On the other hand, women expected competent behavior from other women and wished to confront the harasser when such a response was the official norm from an organization (Diekmann et al., 2013).

Severity Norms

Other situational norms also affect evaluations by bystanders of SH regarding blameworthiness of the perpetrator and recommended punishment. For example, Benavides-Espinoza and Cunningham (2010) tested what punishment observers expected for SH by a male employee towards a female employee. They directed study participants to imagine one of the two types of organizations, with compliant or proactive cultures with respect to attitudes and norms related to SH. They presented one of the two vignettes to the study participants that started with the fact that the female victim (assistant coach) filed an official SH complaint against a male coach. Then, the details of either verbal SH (hostile work environment) or quid pro quo SH were described. The two types of punishment, lenient and disciplinary, also were varied. Observers of SH supported harsher punishment for quid pro quo SH when the organization was described as proactive, rather than just compliant, in addressing SH.

Organizational Norm Violation

Benavides-Espinoza and Cunningham (2010) suggested that observers in the condition of the proactive organization had assumed greater responsibility of the harasser for his actions. Observers of SH appraise organizational norm violation and form their related expectations of justice. Congruence between expected and actual punishment of the perpetrator results in perception of fairness or justice. The fact that Benavides-Espinoza and Cunningham (2010) found that study participants preferred harsher punishment for quid pro quo than for hostile work environment harassment supports

results of other studies that quid pro quo SH is perceived as one of the most harmful types of SH and that severity variable is important to consider in further research.

Objective Harm Appraisal and Subjective Harm Perception

Perception of severity by observers has been studied as an abstract concept related to justice ("seriousness of offense," Benavides-Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010, p. 330; Jacobson & Eaton, 2018; Ohse & Stackdale, 2008) and in relation to the perceived harm experienced by the SH victim (Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999; Chui & Dietz, 2014; Heretick & Learn, 2019; Ohse & Stackdale, 2008). Severity of SH is the part of legal definition that assists an organizational leader to decide which actions are required (EEOC). Observers' perception of severity of SH has been another variable of interest in examining observers' responses because both the victim and witness may trigger and official investigation (EEOC). Ohse and Stockdale (2008) presented a vignette where Ms. Rabidue filed an official complaint for SH after being fired from her job. The victim explained that she has been experiencing SH from her male coworkers in the form of crude comments and lewd images. The vignette had a description of one female victim (and other female employees) experiencing harassment by one male (central figure initiating actions) and a few other male co-workers. Therefore, the scenarios could fit the definition of hostile work environment.

Victims of SH Inform Witnesses

Ohse and Stockdale (2008) employed a stratified sample of college students and staff in order to test whether there were age, gender, and sexist attitude difference in interpretation of the behavior as SH. Mediation effect of hostile and benevolent sexism

on perception of SH was also examined. After reading the legal definition of hostile work environment SH, study participants answered several questions and rated whether the SH fit the legal definition. Specifically, they rated how severe, widespread, unwelcomed, and pervasive was the coworker's conduct. Also, the questions asked participants to rate severity of the victim's experience and whether she welcomed the SH behavior. The important value of Ohse and Stockdale's (2008) research for my study is that they framed the questions about pervasiveness and severity as the personal experience of the victim. Therefore, the observer's appraisal targeted the suffering of a person following the importance of the victim's subjective experience of harm (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2012; Gray et al., 2012). Consequently, Ohse and Stockdale (2008) suggested that victim's response to SH informs witnesses on unwelcomeness of the harasser's behavior, and the observers' appraisal of unwelcomeness is the function of victim's response. They found that all age groups and participant status (students and staff) groups appraised the vignette as fitting the definition of hostile environment SH in the form it was operationalized by Ohse and Stockdale (2008). The scale measuring hostile work environment sexual harassment definition (labeling of SH, pervasiveness, severity, and unwelcomeness) was reliable and was improved in reliability further when unwelcomeness became a separate measure. Further, women's perception of SH was higher than that of men; students and non-students did not differ in perception of hostile environment SH. Non-students and women had higher unwelcomeness ratings compared to students and men.

A Suffering Person

Benavides-Espinoza and Cunningham (2010) reported that perception of injustice could be heightened by the following factors: (a) perceived damage to the victim, (b) perceived lack of respect to the victim shown in insufficient punishment, and (c) perceived bias by hierarchical position of the perpetrator (Benavides-Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010). However, Benavides-Espinoza and Cunningham (2010) did not examine these variables in the study. They asked observers not about harm to the victim but about "seriousness of offense" (p. 330) as an abstract concept that is not *experienced* by a person. The SH vignette described the situation as breaking a formal rule of zero tolerance to SH without any signals of distress or actions on the victim's part. This could be unrealistic and incomplete for the observers' appraisals of harm that require actions. In addition, subjective appraisal of harm implies a suffering mind or humanness of the victim (Gray et al., 2012; Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2012). Thus, examination of harm in research requires testing appraisal of harm to a person rather than offense as an abstract concept (Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2012).

Emotional Reactions to Observing Harm

Reactions of observers to harm to another human have an emotional component (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009). While researchers considered positive and negative feelings toward SH situations, there is a confusion about sources of the emotional responses and what kind of emotions contribute to observers' social cognitive response to SH and what kind contribute to motivation of their action. Research of emotional responses to observing SH have focused either on emotions related to the harm

of the SH victim or to SH perpetrator's behavior. Benavides-Espinoza and Cunningham (2010) hypothesized that people would react with negative feeling to injustice when anticipated punishment for SH did not match with the one offered in the SH vignettes. Study participants reacted with stronger negative emotions to the incongruence between their preferred punishment and the one offered in the SH vignette (Benavides-Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010). Indirectly, without considering the cause of injustice, or the harasser, Benavides-Espinoza and Cunningham (2010) evaluated observer's perception of harm to the SH victim. However, Gray and Wegner (2009) described that subjective, not objective, and intuitive perception of harm signals to people that immoral action occurred.

Banyard (2011) argued that cognitive variables such as reduction of ambiguity of the harmful situations, awareness of what is the problem, personal beliefs and stereotypes, and emotions affect bystander interventions. Author supported the argument made by Greitemeyer et al. (2006) that emotional arousal upheld interpretation of a situation as requiring emergency response. Specifically, anger was observed as the emotion that drives bystanders' actions when facing serious moral violations (Halmburger et al., 2015). While anger is directed toward the perpetrator (Halmburger et al., 2015), sympathetic responses are usually directed toward the recipient of harmful actions and to the SH victim (Bongiorno et al., 2020; Cameron et al., 2015; Cunningham et al., 2012; Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2012; Heretick & Learn, 2020).

Intent to Harm

Observers' appraisal of harm to the victim does not exist in a vacuum; they attribute the cause of harm to the observed or implied actor (Gray & Wegner, 2010a). Intentionality of harm to a victim is one of the variables contributing to attribution of causality and responsibility (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009; Gray & Wegner, 2010a). Ryan and Wessel (2012) examined bystanders' willingness to intervene depending on their recognition of perceived intent to harm, directedness of SH, knowledge of sexual orientation, relationship of a bystander to the victim, and belief in re-occurrence of the incident. The bystander intervention choices followed the Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly (2005) model with two dimensions, immediacy and involvement levels (Ryan & Wessel, 2012). Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly (2005) suggested that avoiding feeling guilty for nonintervention and expectation of positive feelings toward self would increase bystander willingness for prosocial actions. Ryan and Wessel (2012) coded interventions on the level of immediacy and involvement from study participants' descriptions of their own bystander experiences; they also coded types, directedness, and frequency of observed harassment. Significant effects were found between intent to harm, closer relationship to the target, and presence of others on intentions to intervene (Ryan & Wessel, 2012). Ryan and Wessel's (2012) results were consistent with Latané and Darley (1970) early findings that the number of others who also are present as witnesses could affect an observer's intentions to intervene: more observers contribute to the diffusion of responsibility of observers. Belief in re-occurrence of harassment positively affected immediacy where male observers had more

immediate responses than female observers (Ryan & Wessel, 2012). Other research has found that anticipation of re-occurrence and frequency of SH is related to beliefs in increased harm to the victim (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995). Further, following TDM, observers' evaluations of the harasser's actions as intentional are integral to perceptions of causality or responsibility for harm (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009; Gray & Wegner, 2010a).

Blaming the Victim

As in many studies discussed here, recognition of a problem in the framework of harm to the victim (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Keeney, 2015; Gray & Wegner, 2009; Latané & Darley, 1970; Ohse & Stockdale, 2008) and violation of ethics (Benavides-Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010; Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005) is one of the most important and first steps in bystander's social cognitive appraisal prior to taking or withdrawing any actions. Recognition of a problem is related to the knowledge of harm that SH is causing women, harm that has not been acknowledged yet on a social level (Harnois & Bastos, 2018; Jordan et al., 2014; Kossek et al., 2017; Okechukwu et al., 2014). Compared with other moral violations, sexual objectification of women creates a serious obstacle for recognition of harm in SH (Galdi et al., 2014; Loughnan et al., 2013). Research results showed that observers dismissed sexualized women from their moral concerns, therefore, deeming them not worthy of protection but worthy of blame (Loughnan et al., 2013). That is, in situations of SH, harassers sexualize their victims in front of observers and blame the victims.

The Dyadic Nature of Moral Perceptions in Sexual Harassment

Research is extremely limited on the effect of the victim's response to the perpetrator of SH on bystander's willingness to intervene. However, such studies are important to understand factors that may increase the role of peer bystanders as agents of change to address the problem of SH in academia.

Following TDM, investigation at the dyadic level is particularly relevant to interpretation of interactions in moral contexts by observers. The first and intuitive stage of moral perception is mainly susceptible to dyadic perception of caused or anticipated harm (Gray & Wegner, 2010a). Observers capture moral content instantly when they perceive wrongness, regardless of the moral domain (Schein & Gray, 2015). Their emotional response is domain-general, arises without much awareness, and is in agreement with the existing social cognitive constructs on a given situation (Cameron et al., 2015; Wilson-Mendenhall et al., 2014; Schein & Gray, 2015). Gray and colleagues (Gray et al., 2014; Gray and Wegner, 2009, 2010a, 2011) found that observers of immoral situations attribute certain characteristics to the perpetrator/moral agent and to the victim/moral patient, and that these attributions to the two roles are reciprocal. In relation to observer interventions, the emotional component in observers' social cognitive responses to SH are related to two motivations, assisting the victim and keeping the harasser accountable (Banyard, 2011; Diekmann et al., 2013; Franklin et al., 2017; Hellemans et al., 2017; Nickerson et al., 2014). Recently, Heretick and Learn (2020) used written scenarios to vary severity of coercive quid pro quo SH by a male professor towards a female student. They found evidence that relative anger and disgust towards

the perpetrator, as well as worry and concern for the victim, varied in relation to

perceived harm to the victim and perceived severity of the quid pro quo SH, which

predicted intervention responses that favored helping the victim or confronting the

perpetrator. Further, they found that likelihood of different intentions for intervention

responses during the event of the student observers also was affected by perceived risks

of consequences, which varied with severity of the SH behavior. Fears of negative

outcomes were higher for the more ambiguous, less severe condition with coercive quid

pro quo SH.

Reactions to the Victim

Most research into bystander responses has varied the behavior of the perpetrator

of SH. Less is known about the reciprocal role of the response of the victim. The

following are a few studies that used victim's response to SH as a variable to study

observer's reactions and behavioral plans.

Social Condemnation of Passive Victims

Diekmann et al. (2013) examined interpersonal condemnation by female

observers in response to the passive or active response by a female victim in a SH

context. Author used the SH scenario where a male employer was interviewing a female

candidate for a research position. The female candidate either answered the interviewer's

sexually harassing questions (passive response) or refused to respond to them stating that

it was not the interviewer's business (active response). The more confrontation observers

predicted for themselves, the more they condemned a passive female SH victim. The

observers also indicated that they would shy away from the passive victim in terms of

working or socializing with her. This difference suggests negatively biased attitudes of student observers toward the female SH victim who responded passively (Diekmann et al., 2013).

However, there are limitations to this study. Situational ambiguity increased when harm to SH victim was not explicitly shown to observers. There was no expression of suffering portrayed by the victim, other than that inferred from the actions of the confrontational victim. Absence of distress by the passive victim may have precluded the study participants from recognizing harm. The scenarios presented sexualization and objectification of the victim and without further information, this type of presentation also offers substantial ambiguity of the situation for observers (Heflick et al., 2011; Page & Pina, 2015).

Escape of Punishment

Situational ambiguity was reduced in Diekmann et al.'s (2013) study when observers were directed to recall their own personal experiences with intimidation. Once the observers understood experiences of SH victim via recollection of instances of own intimidation, their condemnation of her was reduced. This is consistent with Gray and Wegner's (2011) argument that if a person is in a victim's role, they escape punishment.

A dyadic comparison between observers' appraisal of the SH victim and perpetrator may bring more precise results to understanding observers' intended responses. For example, does the social status of a professor (masculinity + social power) and/or passive or active response of the SH victim render the professor more or less blameworthy of his actions in the eyes of observers? Would observers offer emotional

support to the SH victim when making a dyadic comparison? The TDM suggested moral

cognition does not escape wrongness of actions (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Keeney,

2015). That is similar to Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly's (2005) model of bystander

intervention consideration of the presence of moral intensity.

Difficult Women

Consistent with the idea that perception of harm is supported by cultural

consensus, men and women may find a confrontational response of the SH victim less

acceptable than did observers in Diekmann et al.'s (2013) study. Herrera et al. (2014,

2017) examined male and female bystanders' reactions to passive and active female

victim's response to SH by a male coworker on the population of Spain. They presented

two types of SH to study participants, gender harassment and unwanted sexual attention.

Male observers answered two questions about the victim: They rated how much the

victim matched their ideal partner and how impertinent they perceived the victim to be

(Herrera et al., 2014). They also measured gender stereotypes (masculine versus feminine

traits), perception of SH, SH myths acceptance, and sexist attitudes. Significantly more

male study participants defined SH in the unwanted sexual attention than in the gender

harassment condition. Male observers attributed more masculine (instrumental) traits to

the female SH victim in the confrontation condition of unwanted sexual attention and

rated her more in line with their ideal partner. On the other hand, the male observers saw

the SH victim with the passive response to gender harassment as fitting better the image

of their ideal partner, that is, less impertinent.

Herrera et al. (2017) further examined what women thought of men's reactions to SH and unwanted sexual attention to the female victim. Regardless of SH type, women believed that men would evaluate confrontative women negatively and label them as impertinent. If women observers thought the victim was provocative, they appraised SH as not important. This study sampled individuals from Spain. Men of Spain indirectly showed the norm that a woman should resist unwanted sexual attention (purity) but behave nicely and compliant in gender harassment situation. Herrera et al. (2014) suggested that perception of a woman's competency also brings perception of the difficulty of her character in the eyes of male observers. These findings are consistent with predictions based on TDM (Gray & Wegner, 2009; Schein & Gray, 2017). Attribution of instrumental traits to confrontational female victims may contribute to viewing more moral agency characteristics and, consequently, reduce observer's sympathetic reaction toward her. In TDM, instrumentality is the characteristic of a moral agent who is capable of action and vulnerability is the characteristic of a moral patient entitled to compassion from others.

Choice Without a Choice

In Herrera et al.'s (2017) study, women observers believed if they were the victim of unwanted sexual attention, it meant that men perceived them sexually provocative and that they matched men's image of an ideal partner. Women's reactions to the victim did not differ between the gender harassment and unwanted sexual attention conditions nor whether the victim was confrontational or passive. Therefore, the women did not think that one response, passive or active, was better or worse than the other for changing the

situation. Herrera et al. (2017) suggested that trivialization of gender harassment may lead to the sense of helplessness when facing all types of SH. In addition, women who confronted both types of SH lost their femininity in the eyes of female and male bystanders. Women in the sample from Spain reported they would take no notice of SH, which would justify further situations of SH. These research results demonstrated that a confrontational response to SH by a female victim brings two ethical norms into opposition, organizational prohibition of SH and cultural norm of female warmth and subservience to males. If a woman is passive in a SH situation, the harassment continues; if she is confrontational, she loses her femininity, which is the part of her identity in the eyes of observers. The reason may be that observers did not have the opportunity to evaluate both in a dyadic interaction, the victim and harasser, and attribute harm to the victim and intentions of harm to the harasser. As in real SH situations and in research vignettes, the SH includes a harasser, a victim, and the potential beneficiary of help (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). The harasser, even when he disguises his actions as beneficial, is the bystander's target of rightful anger and accountability. However, how the bystander interprets and responds to rightful anger and insistence of accountability by the female victim depends on many factors, including situational and gender norms.

Social Cognitive Appraisal of Dyad

Klein et al. (2011) offered a different framework for examination of effects that student's response to SH produce on observers. They examined observers' blame and responsibility judgments when observing a female sophomore being sexually harassed by a male senior honor student-tutor in a university setting. The authors followed Kelley's

(1967) attribution theory and hypothesized that the way observers use consistency, consensus, and distinctiveness to interpret information would affect their blame and responsibility judgments toward the target and harasser. Klein et al.'s (2011) presented a hostile environment SH scenario from the perspective of the SH target under the assumption that study participants would see the target as the actor who responds to the harasser (stimulus). Consensus, distinctiveness, and consistency were manipulated through different target's responses. Study participants, college students, of whom the majority were women, assigned responsibility and blame for the situation to the target and harasser. At the beginning of the study, participants read the definition of sexual harassment. Klein et al. (2011) measured blameworthiness of the target and harasser using different questions for each. The most important findings were a high correlation between blame and responsibility, significant main effect of consistency and consensus of information, but not of distinctiveness on blameworthiness and responsibility. Participants high on consensus information, attributed more responsibility and blame to the harasser than to the victim; that is different from participants low on consensus. Similar results were obtained on consistency of information affecting responsibility and blame judgments; student observers saw the harasser more responsible than the victim in high information consistency condition. Also, participants who reported experience of harassment since age 16, attributed more responsibility to the harasser than those who have not reported such experience. However, Klein et al. (2011) did not interpret the findings from the harm point of view.

Affect-Free Dyad

The conceptualization of the target as the actor in the Klein et al. (2011) study may have misguided research participants and obliterated perception of harm to the victim, therefore placing observers into the position of objective judges rather than peers in the position of assistance to the victim. The exploratory part of the study, where observer's previous experience of SH has been considered, may have introduced perception of harm and the related increase in attribution of responsibility to the harasser. Harm perception is not relevant to the application of Kelly's theory on attribution of causality that depends on distinctiveness, consensus, and consistency of information or rational approach. Therefore, the application of the Kelly's theory to SH situation, which contains the unethical and immoral element, conflicted with the Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly (2005) ethical stage in bystander's response and Schein and Gray (2017) perception of wrongness in observer's intuitive sense of harm.

Problems to Assign Responsibility

Furthermore, SH includes verbal and physical advances of a sexual nature (EEOC), but the vignette presented in the Klein et al. (2011) study included comments that could be interpreted as aesthetical admiration of the outfit or eyes of the victim. The elements of sexualization, hostility, or pressure have been absent, except the benevolent sexist's comments as "beautiful" and "attractive." A slight interference with educational status was noted in one of the target's comment that she wanted to focus on her studies (Klein et al., 2011). In addition, blame and responsibility scores have been close to the neutral point and had limited variability, which suggested that study participants may not

have seen the situation as sexual harassment. Also, they did not want to assign blame and responsibility or use extreme wording and endpoints in questions. Klein et al. (2011) did not use the variable of observer's moral perception or their emotional response. It is possible that study participants accepted some wrongness of behavior in the vignette because they have read the definition of SH. Recognition of harm by observers is among the necessary features of dyadic interactions in moral/ethical context that creates reciprocity between attribution of the characteristics of moral agency or patiency between the target of wrongness and wrongdoer (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009; Schein & Gray, 2017).

Observer's Intentions to Intervene Given the Victim's Response

Role of the Harasser's Motive

The reciprocity in perception of who is the target and who is the harasser was often overlooked (Gray & Keeney, 2015). For example, in their first study of a series of experiments, Chui and Dietz (2014) studied interactions between the perpetrator's motive and the victim's response on bystander intervention intentions and they evaluated the target and perpetrator. Authors used a homogeneous sample of graduate students, equally representing male and female genders. They used written scenarios to vary the male colleague's motive (chronic sexist or a recent victim of reversed discrimination) and the female colleague's response to SH: she either laughed or walked out crying. The victim's response significantly affected the evaluation of harm to the victim by the study participants; however, indication of harm did not affect the necessity of intervention by observers. By contrast, the perpetrator's motive did not have a significant effect on

evaluation of harm to the victim; however, the motive affected the necessity to intervene. The malicious motive, chronic sexism, prompted observers toward interventions more than the description of the perpetrator as a recent victim of reverse discrimination. Presentation of information on the harasser's victimization may have reversed observers' perceptions of his responsibility for wrongdoing; evaluation of peer observer's perception of suffering by the harasser could have shed the light on this proposition. Chui and Dietz (2014) noted that study participants evaluated the target and perpetrator separately and that could be the reason that maliciousness of actor's intent did not affect perception of harm to the victim. However, in TDM, intentionality, regardless of its valence, contributes to the perception of actor's responsibility (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009). Maliciousness of intent is the characteristic of moral agency while experience of harm is the characteristic of moral patiency (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009). Also, Chui and Dietz (2014) thought that the presence of a third person in the vignette, to whom the victim was speaking prior to being interrupted by the harasser, may have caused a diffusion of responsibility effect on the study's participants.

Actor-Target Relationship

In the second study by Chui and Dietz (2014), participants viewed one of the video segments depicting different relationships between the target and perpetrator (colleague, or colleague and personal relationship) and the target's reactions (neutral, crying, laughing). Participants were assigned randomly to study condition. Participants' gender and age were not associated with participants' responses to perceived harm or to intervention intentions. The female victim's reaction significantly affected perception of

harm to the victim, and it was marginally significant for intervention intentions. There

was no main effect for actor-target relationship for either perception of harm or necessity

to intervene. However, there was a significant interaction between actor-target

relationship and victim's reaction for evaluations of harm to the victim. Perception of a

strong friendship between the target and perpetrator weakened perception of harm in

target's reactions by observers. Chui and Dietz (2014) discussed that it was unclear

whether perceived harm or perpetrator's actions alone warrant observer's interventions.

They also noted that observing maliciousness of harasser's intent also raised questions

regarding its influence on willingness to intervene. Therefore, other factors also

contribute to observer's intention to help the victim or confront the perpetrator. The

additional factors refer to the type of harm and its severity that are also common features

of multiple moral domains (Gray & Keeney, 2015).

Negative Social Cost of Interventions

Observer interventions do not necessarily stop SH and actually could increase

social derogation of the victim and active observer (Diekmann et al., 2013). Anticipation

of negative social costs of intervening, as well as objectification and blaming of female

SH victims, suppress active interventions by bystanders (Galdi et al., 2017). Ryan and

Wessel (2012) measured costs and benefits of interventions using their own questionnaire

with nine items for costs and four items for benefits that were based on work by Skarlicki

and Kulik (2004). For example, one item for measuring cost was "my getting involved

would have done more harm than good," and an example of possible benefit was "If I got

involved, others would have been grateful" (Ryan & Wessel, 2012, p. 495). Costs, not

benefits, negatively affected bystander level of involvement; neither costs nor benefits affected immediacy of their response (Ryan & Wessel, 2012).

Banyard et al. (2014) found that greater intent to help also was related to the bystanders' perceptions of their own self-efficacy, awareness of the problem of sexual and relationship abuse and its harm to victims, and sense of responsibility for intervening. Further, observers' perception of helping among their peers was related to own intentions to help as bystanders (Banyard et al., 2014). Therefore, the norms of the reference group (other bystanders) played a role in the bystander's decision to intervene as well.

Observations in the Workplace

McDonald et al. (2016) used Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly's (2005) model of bystander intervention to examine bystander interventions to SH reported by Australian workers. They also analyzed contextual circumstances of SH. The researchers coded each of 130 instances of reported bystander interventions and 68 examples of inaction by bystanders. They also noted the relationship between the victim and perpetrator of SH (family, co-worker, senior versus junior harasser, manager). They found the following distribution of bystander responses among the total of 198 instances: (a) inaction, 68 (34%), (b) low immediacy with low involvement, 64 (32%), (c) low immediacy with high involvement, 41 (21%), (d) high immediacy with low involvement, 16 (8%), (e) and high immediacy with high involvement, 9 (5%) (McDonald et al., 2016, p. 559). As shown in the results, inaction and low immediacy and low involvement responses (sympathizing and offering advice) by bystanders were the most prevalent responses. The next in frequency of bystander responses were reports through organization channels, directly

confronting the harasser, and supporting the victim in making official complaint or offering a witness testimony in investigation.

Peer Support

McDonald et al. (2016) also found that bystander interventions differed in relation to employee status: Employees in senior positions in the organization contributed only 12% of bystander actions; peer actions accounted for 35%, and junior-level employees accounted for 30% of interventions. The researchers hypothesized that similarity and identification with the victim as a member of their group may have influenced stronger involvement of women than men in bystander actions. Bystanders intervened in a variety of ways: they provided advice and support to the victim, interrupted the incident, confronted the harasser directly, and filed a formal complaint. The effectiveness of actions probably could be measured by cessation of SH and potential victims' feeling of safety. However, anticipation of public derogation and humiliation stopped bystanders' interventions (McDonald et al., 2016). This is unfortunate as emotional support, characteristics of low-immediacy and involvement, is important to SH victims (Scarduzio et al., 2018).

Situational and Social-Cognitive-Emotional Factors and Bystander Responses

Severity, Self-Efficacy, and Types of Response Options

Hellemans et al. (2017) studied bystander helping behavior in the context of bullying in the workplace and referred to Latané and Darley (1970) and Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly's (2005) situational moral intensity factor as one of the driving forces in bystander interventions. Hellemans et al.'s (2017) Belgian sample was diverse and

represented various age groups and employee tenure. The bullying scenario depicted a male boss harassing his female subordinate, who described how her superior overloaded her with work, made offensive comments, with fussiness and sarcasm toward her. Independent variables were belief in a just world, self-efficacy, perception of severity of the situation, and internal (due to the harasser's personality and behavior) and external (due to management's mistakes) causal attributions of responsibility for harassment. Dependent measures were three types of bystander helping behaviors, fear of intervention, emotional and public support; that is, likelihood of various behavioral response options.

Emotional Support

Emotional support responses were defined as attracting union attention, providing information about psychological support, and assisting with a formal complaint (Hellemans et al., 2017). Hellemans et al. (2017) found that bystanders who used this type of intervention were focused on the victim's experience. Further, witnesses of the vignette situation with a male supervisor bullying a female worker were more likely to provide emotional support if they were female and had longer employee tenure. Observers opted for emotional support of the victim in cases where they also blamed management for the bully's behaviors. Therefore, they may also have perceived victim's sensitivity to harm and vulnerability, and lack of responsibility for the incident, the characteristics pertained to moral patiency (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2010a, 2011; Gray &Keeney, 2015; Shein & Gray, 2014).

Public Involvement

In addition, respondents also had the choice of public or private interventions. Options for private emotional support of the SH victim could include bystander responses towards the victim such as friendliness, understanding, and encouragement. Public support was operationalized as public disclosure of the misconduct, drawing wider social support against the perpetrator's uncivil behavior, and assistance to the victim in physical avoidance of the perpetrator (Hellemans et al., 2017). Hellemans et al. (2017) found that bystanders offered moderate levels of public involvement, but higher levels of emotional support towards the female victim. Observers opted for more public involvement when there was an increase in severity of the bullying situation. The increase in severity may have reduced possible perceived ambiguity of public appraisal of an observers' actions. Authors (Hellemans et al., 2017) used observers' judgments of responsibility for bullying (attributed to the bully or to management) as an independent variable. Bystanders who used public support were focused on the cause of harm, the bully. To interpret these results from the lens of TDM, bystanders who considered public support may have perceived moral agency in the harasser: responsibility for actions, relative insensitivity to pain or pleasure, and ability to change situation (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2010a, 2011; Gray & Keeney, 2015; Schein & Gray, 2014).

Fear of Interventions

Finally, Hellemans et al. (2017) evaluated the bystander response of fear of intervention**.** Bystanders also may fear possible costs of interventions to themselves and the victim that could stop them from involvement. There is the specific threat to

witnesses of quid pro quo SH in academia; the harassers tend to be serial and males in high academic standing (Rosenthal et al., 2016; Tenbrunsel et al., 2018). Types of possible outcomes of bystander interventions in a workplace situation that were evaluated by Hellemans et al. (2017) included fear of losing one's job, worsening the situation, a chance of getting the same treatment from the harasser, and being persecuted by him. They found that bystander self-efficacy and attributions concerning the actor's behaviors predicted fear of intervention: those who indicated lower general self-efficacy and internal attributions of responsibility for the actor's behavior had greater fear of intervention. Attribution of the cause of the bully's behaviors as due to poor management reduced fear of bystander interventions.

Taken together, Hellemans et al.'s (2017) outcomes demonstrated three major factors involved in prediction of observer's intentions to intervene: situational variables (severity), cognitive (internal and external attribution of causality), and observer's personal characteristics (self-efficacy, fear of intervention). When observers blamed the victim, they were not willing to offer emotional or public support to her (Hellemans et al., 2017). Does that mean that observers perceived the victim as a moral agent, responsible for the situation and unaffected by harm? Hellemans et al. (2017) concluded that reduction of the situational ambiguity, increase in perceived severity of harassment, and self-efficacy are more likely to predict support of the victim. Characteristics of the perpetrator, situation, and of the victim were important to consider jointly in prediction of bystander responses.

Directedness of Harassment

Ryan and Wessel (2012) found that directedness of harassment also influenced bystander willingness to intervene. Perception of ambiguity may be reduced if the questions about severity of the situation are attributed to the victim's subjective experience, for example, through questions such as how much harm or pain the victim experienced (Gray & Wegner, 2009; Gray et al., 2014). Human suffering is felt subjectively and is interpreted by referent culture (Gray & Keeney, 2015; Gray & Wegner, 2012; Schein & Gray, 2015; Schein & Gray, 2017). Analysis of the effect of the victim's response on observer's appraisal of the victim and harasser could assist better understanding of social cognitive dynamics when witnessing sexual harassment.

Situational and Group Norms

The idea that perceived harm is supported by explicit and implicit cultural/group norms and attitudes is pronounced in the difference that bystanders showed when appraising sexual assault and SH situations. Heretick and Learn (2020) found that direct confrontations of perpetrators in more ambiguous situations of SH appeared more difficult for witnesses than when in situations where a forceful physical SH occurred. These differences were related to observers' fear of social reprisals if they were wrong or made the situation worse. In Franklin et al.'s (2017) research, students' affiliation with Greek organizations negatively affected direct bystander interventions; this was possibly due to the students' acute awareness of the social retaliation.

Clarke (2014) suggested that reporting SH may deter harassers because of investigation and sanctions; reporting may help to repair relationships between valued

employees. Appropriate actions that offer support to the victims of SH also may serve as reinforcement for reporting behavior so that it becomes normative. Situational norms and coworkers' support are some of the important factors that SH victims consider when thinking of reporting.

Knowledge and Intervention

Witnesses of SH have the same concerns as the SH victims, fear of social ostracism (Clarke, 2014). Female witnesses of SH may have more first-hand knowledge of experiencing harm from SH and they may prefer different interventions than would males. Franklin et al. (2017) observed gender differences in bystander intervention choices in relation to the behavior described in vignettes. Males were more likely to intervene than females in situations that described sexual assault and interpersonal violence, but not where SH was described. Franklin et al. (2017) suggested that bystander interventions may be affected by expanding onlookers' knowledge about microaggression, as well as offering them a wider range of intervention options, beyond direct intervention. Encouraging awareness about SH increases understanding of wrongness or harm caused to the SH victims. Further, general attitudes toward sexual assault are subject to modification depending on the context of a situation and evoked emotions (Galdi et al., 2017; Halmburger et al., 2015).

Awareness of Wrongness

Attitudes and beliefs about the consequences of SH may be conceptualized as beliefs about what is harmful to the SH target. This step toward recognizing a violation of ethics or a moral norm is important in both Latané and Darley (1970) and Bowes-Sperry

and O'Leary-Kelly's (2005) models of bystander intervention. O'Boyle and Li (2019) explored how media framed causality for published cases of sexual assault in universities, attributing responsibility for harm to the perpetrator or to a university. Nickerson et al. (2014) evaluated awareness of and attitudes toward bullying and SH among a sample of high school students. Nickerson et al. (2014) developed a bystander intervention measure based on previous work by Anker and Feeley (2011) and Greitemeyer et al. (2006). Their questionnaire included inquiries about harm, knowledge of interventions, empathy, and feeling of personal responsibility. Recognizing an emergency significantly predicted taking responsibility, which in turn predicted knowledge of how to help. Knowledge of helping strategies subsequently influenced willingness to act.

Emotional Reactions to Both the Victim and the Perpetrator

While evaluating observers' empathy, Nickerson et al. (2014) omitted evaluations of negative emotional responses that have been proposed by Greitemeyer et al. (2006) and Fischer et al., (2011). Considering only empathy toward the victim limits our understanding of the processes by which a witness of SH who is intuitively aware of the harmful situation collaterally reacts to both members of the exchange, and how this may affect behavioral intentions regarding intervention. While empathy for the victim ensued and less blame was attributed to her, it did not interact with the empathy toward the perpetrator of SH whom she reported to the university's office (Bongiorno et al., 2020). In addition to empathy toward the victim, Greitemeyer et al. (2006) suggested that anger in reaction to the situation and fear of consequence of interventions have significant influence on bystander's willingness to intervene. Heretick and Learn's (2020) study also

showed similar results: anger towards the perpetrator, rather than empathy toward the victim, was a significant predictor of bystander intervention in the more severe SH situation. Thus, the emotional reactions of observers to both the victim and the perpetrator are essential elements for predicting bystander intervention intentions.

Dearth of Research into Effects of Victim's Responses on Bystander Reactions

Female victims have a limited number of options for responses to SH: active avoidance of the harasser, apparent denial of offensiveness, direct negotiation with or confrontation of the harasser, peer social support, and advocacy seeking through institutional support (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Scarduzio et al., 2018; Wasti & Cortina, 2002). Cortina and Wasti (2005) distinguished three clusters of coping profiles among working class and professional women: (a) avoidant-negotiating (denial of offensiveness, avoidance of the harasser, and attempts to negotiate with him to stop); (b) support-seeking (in addition to avoidant-negotiating, they attracted social and organizational support); (c) detached group (denied severity of SH and did not show any coping). Professional women attempted more negotiation strategy than denying severity of SH. Direct confrontation of the harasser was very rarely used by SH victims (Scarduzio et al., 2018), even though, it would be the clearest expression of unwelcomeness of harasser's behavior.

There are limited findings regarding the relationship of the victim's response to SH and social cognitive appraisal of her by observers. For example, an American sample of women research participants negatively appraised the female victim of vertical SH who denied the offensiveness of SH (Diekmann et al., 2013). However, the samples of

men and women of Spain appraised a denying victim of a male peer's SH as more

likeable, although, by men (Herrera et al., 2014, 2017). Therefore, for bystanders,

confrontation and denial mean different things in SH context depending on cultural

interpretation of harm. Where American women saw wrongness in the victim's failure to

confront the harasser (Diekmann et al., 2013), Spanish women and men saw wrongness

in loss of feminine features and subsequent rejection by men (Herrera et al., 2014, 2017).

Avoidance as an active response was conceptualized from long ago (Fitzgerald et al.,

1995) as an outward behavior; however, in difference with the victims, observers may

overlook situational factors such as the victim's active efforts to avoid the harasser's

location. Peer observers reduced condemnation of female victim of vertical SH after

considering own suffering and relating to the harm experienced by the victim (Diekmann

et al., 2013). The factors affecting observer's reactions to the victim's responses are

scarce; however, there was research on observer's social cognitive reactions to various

SH types (Benavides-Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010; Bursik, & Gefter, 2011; Diekmann

et al., 2013; Good et al., 2012; Heretick & Learn, 2020). Subjective versus objective

perception of harm, attitudes toward gender norms, appraisals of SH severity, emotional

reactions of empathy toward the victims, anger toward the perpetrator (Heretick & Learn,

2020), and focus on victim's suffering or harasser's accountability (Ohse & Stockdale,

2008). Several authors pointed to methodological issues and items of measurement for

studying reactions of bystanders to morally charged situations. The issues were denial of

victim's subjective experience of harm that would, consequently, deny her rights to be

protected (Chen et al., 2013). This depends on the questions to study participants. For

example, asking to appraise a situation is different from asking about the experience of

the victim. Moral intensity of a situation does not have a personality while moral

intensity of wrongdoing has two parts, suffering of the target and accountability of the

harasser.

Summary and Transition

Nickerson et al. (2014) discussed that much of the variance in observers'

responses to SH remains unaccounted for. One of the possibilities is Ryan and Wessel's

(2012) suggestion that bystander willingness to intervene does not comply with rational

decision models as an exact fit for predicting bystander responses. Immoral and unethical

situations evoke bystanders' intuitive perception of harm to the victim (Gray et al., 2014;

Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2011) and focus interventions in two directions, on assisting the

victim (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005; Brinkman et al., 2015; Hellemans et al.,

2017) and keeping the perpetrator accountable (Banyard, 2011; Brinkman et al., 2015;

Benavides-Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010; Greitemeyer et al., 2006; Hellemans et al.,

2017; Ryan & Wessel, 2012). Willingness to intervene, as the second part in addressing

SH incidents, is subjected to another element of the same process, which is about

observers themselves, that depends on fears of social reprisals and anticipated

effectiveness of the interventions (Banyard et al., 2014; Brinkman et al., 2015; Good et

al., 2012; Hellemans et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn, 2020). Therefore, the observer of SH

becomes the third element of the harmful context; this additional element is included in

social cognitive appraisal and behavioral outcomes.

Much of the research into bystander responses has focused only on attention to observers' reactions to either the victim or the perpetrator while accounting for the bystander's situation. However, the quid pro quo SH situation often is dyadic and needs to be evaluated from that vantage point. Further, as Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly (2005) has argued, bystander responses include ethical decision-making. Thus, there is a need for new research that applies a moral model with dyadic analysis, such as that offered by TDM (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009; Schein & Gray, 2017).

The purpose of this research was to offer the initial application of TDM principles to study relationships between victims' responses to SH and bystander responses. The idea was to focus on intuitive social cognitive factors, moral typecasting, that may affect observers' behavioral intentions. This study expands appreciation of the ethical approach to studying observers' responses to SH situations (Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly, 2005; Hellemans et al., 2017; Franklin et al., 2017).

This study offered a research design that described a situation that most closely resembled realistic coercive quid pro quo SH of a female student by a male professor. Further, the scene was paired with examples of real-world options for response by the female student victim. The procedures allowed study participants who read about the SH situation and the victim's specific response (which varied) to consider *both members* of the dyad. Results were expected to help clarification of how the moral typecasting of both the victim and perpetrator is affected by the victim's response, and how the victim's response affects observers' behavioral intentions.

Chapter 3 presents details of the methodology proposed for this study. I describe plans for sampling, materials and instrumentation, procedures, and analyses to test research hypotheses. I also discuss delimitations, scope, and limitations of the design, as well as ethical considerations.

Chapter 3: Research Method

Introduction

The primary purpose of this study was to examine whether, in an academic setting, the type of response of a female victim of sexual harassment by a male superior makes a difference in bystanders' perceptions of the victim and of the harasser, as well as bystanders' behavioral intentions towards the perpetrator and the victim. In this study, the key situational variable was the response of a female student victim to coercive *quid pro quo* SH by a male professor. An experimental scenario with one of four victim responses was presented. These response options mirrored reactions available to most victims of actual workplace SH: remaining passive, seeking indirect informal support, confronting the harasser, or making a formal complaint against the harasser (Clancy et al., 2014; Diekmann et al., 2013; Scarduzio et al., 2018).

Initial and intuitive moral bystanders' evaluations is the first multifaceted stage in the decisional process on interventions in SH situations (Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999; Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2009). Following TDM (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009), I examined observers' moral typecasting responses and the initial social cognitive reactions towards both the victim and the perpetrator of SH as members of an interactive dyad. Next, I examined how the victim's response affected peer observers' behavioral intentions to intervene during and after the event. Details of this study's design follow.

Research Design and Rationale

I conducted a cross-sectional, quantitative, experimental study using online survey to collect data. This research design allowed for systematic observation of the influence of a manipulated independent variable and responses by members of independent groups of observers (Creswell, 2014; Frankfort et al., 2008; Shadish et al., 2002).

The study utilized an experimental design, although I was not able to use random sampling for selection of participants nor to control all possible confounding factors (Van Belle & Kerr, 2012). Following previous work in this area, I employed indirect simulations of real-world SH situations. Although such simulations may have reduced external validity of the design, they still were useful in situations where ethical considerations would preclude imposition of actual negative experiences, such as real sexual harassment (Myers et al., 2010). To ensure proper experimentation, my design included recommended control by design, random assignment to conditions, and a strong theoretical base as ways to eliminate alternative explanation of causal relationships between variables (Frankfort et al., 2008; Shadish et al., 2002). Pure experimental studies often lack generalizability to real life contexts; on the other hand, experimental studies allow examination of causal relationships between variables in contextually relevant social situations (Aussems et al., 2011; Frankfort et al., 2008). The experimental methodology of this study included all necessary characteristics delineated by Aussems et al. (2011). The goals of describing causal relationships, a few experimental groups that are designed prior to testing the relationships, random assignment of participants to the

conditions, comparison of the groups, and assumption that the groups undergo the same external treatment during the experimental period.

I also elected to use online collection of survey data. First, it is not necessary to have participants travel to a location to complete the study. Participants of this type of study delivery may answer survey questions online in any convenient, comfortable setting (Clifford & Jerit, 2014) and do so without revealing their identity (Zwarun & Hall, 2014). Another form of convenience is that the online format may make it easier, and more likely, that people would participate in a study that is on a topic of interest to them (Gummer & Roßmann, 2015). Participants preserve their anonymity by avoiding direct contact with a researcher or research site. In addition, there are benefits to the researcher: Time constraints and financial burdens on the researcher that may be associated with laboratory studies or field experiments are also mitigated through an online delivery (Shadish et al., 2002). Moreover, online anonymity of participants safeguards both the researcher and the participant against conscious or unconscious bias or discrimination by the researcher that is based on sex, gender, race, or some other characteristics of the volunteer (Nelson et al., 2017).

Additionally, Clifford and Jerit (2014) concluded that online experiments with random assignment to condition and survey items are a viable alternative to laboratory experiments because of lack of differences in attention and social desirability of responding. Using online presentation of materials, the experimental design introduced written information that manipulated the observer's knowledge of the victim's response to SH. Each participant only was presented with a different victim's response to the same

scenario. These kinds of scenarios have been employed in previous research into bystander responses to various forms of harassment, such as SH and bullying (Banyard et al., 2005; Benavides-Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010; Bursik & Gefter, 2011; Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Cunningham et al., 2012; Diekmann et al., 2013; DeSouza et al., 2017; Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010; Franklin et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn, 2020; Hellemans et al., 2017; Herrera at al., 2014, 2017; Hershcovis & Barling, 2010; Klein et al., 2011; Tata, 2000; Weiss & Lalonde, 2001). The participant, a simulated bystander, responded to quantitative survey questions derived from previous research to evaluate their perceptions related to moral typecasting of the perpetrator and victim (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2011), as well as their intentions for possible bystander intervention behaviors to the contrived scenario (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005).

Between-group experimental designs also allow for quantitative measurement of dependent variables on nominal, ordinal, interval, or ratio scales (Goos & Meintrup, 2016; Rutherford, 2011). Thus, survey items, such as those in this study, could be employed and produce data that did or did not meet the assumptions of parametric analyses to evaluate between-group differences. Survey items, which I used, derived from those developed and employed in research on the TDM to measure moral typecasting processes (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2011). Further, questions and options to investigate behavioral intentions of observers of harassment also followed from previous research designs (Benavides-Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010; Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999; Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005; Bursik & Gefter, 2011;

Chui & Dietz, 2014; Cunningham et al., 2012; Diekmann et al., 2013; Espinoza &

Cunningham, 2010; Hellemans et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn, 2020; Klein et al., 2011).

The research hypotheses stemmed from sound theoretical bases, in particular, the

TDM (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2011) and Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-

Kelly's (2005) model of bystander behaviors, and previous research using the same

dependent variables, including Heretick and Learn (2020) and Hellemans et al.'s (2017)

empirical validation of bystander responses.

Specific research questions and hypotheses were:

Research Question 1: Does the response of the female victim of coercive SH

affect bystanders' perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of

blameworthiness, control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator?

$H_0 1$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does not affect bystanders'

perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness,

control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator.

$H_a 1$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does affect bystanders'

perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness,

control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator.

Research Question 2: Does the response of the female victim of coercive SH

affect bystanders' perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of

experienced harm, capacity for pain and experience of emotions, and vulnerability) of the

victim?

$H_0$2: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does not affect bystanders'

perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced

harm, capacity for pain and experiencing emotions, and vulnerability) of the

victim.

H_a2: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does affect bystanders'

perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced

harm, capacity for pain and experiencing emotions, and vulnerability) of the

victim.

Research Question 3: Does the response of the female victim to coercive SH

affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as

measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses)?

$H_0$3: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does not affect bystanders'

intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured

by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

H_a3: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does affect bystanders'

intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured

by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

Research Question 4: Does the response of the female victim to coercive SH

affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items

describing three types of possible observer responses)?

$H_0 4$: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does not affect bystanders'

intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing

three types of possible observer responses).

$H_a 4$: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does affect bystanders'

intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing

three types of possible observer responses.

Methodology

This cross-sectional, quantitative, experimental study used data collection via an

online survey. I explored effects of four different types of response of a female student

victim of SH by a male professor on observers' social cognitive evaluations and

behavioral intentions. More specifically, the social cognitive evaluations were

operationally defined via survey items to evaluate peer observers' moral typecasting, the

moral agency of the perpetrator and moral patiency of the victim. I also examined student

observers' behavioral intentions regarding possible intervention and helping behaviors,

both during and after the actual SH event that was described in the scenario with a

victim's response.

Population

The population for this study was undergraduate and graduate degree students at

colleges or universities in the United States. The National Center for Education Statistics

(n. d.) reported that three million students attended graduate degree studies in 2019.

Universities anticipate awarding the following degrees in 2019-2020 academic year:

1,975,000 bachelor's, 820,000 master's, and 184,000 doctor's degrees (NCES). USA

Census Bureau reported the following degrees completed in 2018: 48,235 bachelor's

degrees (21.8% males, 22% females, 22% White, 24% Non-Hispanic White, 16% Black,

31% Asian, 13% Hispanic); 21,048 master's degrees (8.7% males, 10% females, 9.5%

White, 10.7% Non-Hispanic White, 7% Black, 17.5% Asian, 4% Hispanic); 3,172

professional and 4,468 doctoral degrees (2.5% males, 1,6% females, 2% White, 2.3%

Non-Hispanic White, 1.2% Black, 5% Asian, .6% Hispanic). Amongst the bachelor's

degree graduates, 27.6% were between the ages of 25 and 34, 23% between 35 and 54,

and 18% were older than 55. Amongst the master's degree graduates, 8.5% were between

the ages of 25 and 34, 11% between 35 and 54, and 8.8% were older than 55; the 25 – 34

group of doctorate graduates was slightly less in numbers that the rest of age groups.

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

I used an online recruitment service, Prolific Academic (2020; MIT Behavior

Research Lab, n.d.; Palan & Schitter, 2018; prolific.ac) to identify the pool of volunteers

and draw my sample. Prolific has gained approval as an acceptable recruitment strategy

and has been used by several researchers, for example, Benjamins, Dalmaijer, Ten Brink,

Bijboer, and Van der Stigchel (2019), Wilding, Conner, Prestwish, Lawton, and Sheeran

(2019), Heretick and Learn (2020), and Lammers and Stoker (2019).

The plan for this study was to collect data from students who were enrolled in

undergraduate, master's, and doctoral degree programs in the United States and self-

reported attending at least some on-campus or field placement activities as part of their

program of studies, rather being limited to all-online activities. The inclusionary criteria

are important to ensure the necessary sample size while recruiting students who are also

facing professors face-to-face as in the experimental SH scenario. In addition, students had to be 21 years and older and fluent in English language to ensure homogeneity of the sample and proper comprehension of testing material. Older students tended to perceive unwelcomeness of SH at a higher rate than younger students (Ohse & Stockdale, 2008); employees with longer work experience also were more likely to provide emotional support to bullied victim (Hellemans et al., 2017), although, the recent statistics on age difference were limited.

Sample Size

I planned to use two one-way ANOVAs to test for between-group differences for the first two research hypotheses and Kruskal-Wallis tests for the next two hypotheses. I performed a power analysis using G*Power (Faul et al., 2009) to estimate minimum sample size with the following parameters: four groups, effect size of $f = .25$, alpha $= .05$, and power $= .80$. The estimated minimum sample size of useable cases was 180 (45 per group). However, the resulted sample was 207 student participants. Moreover, I tested hypotheses using nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis h-test because the data for the first two research hypotheses did not meet the assumptions for normality and Kruskal-Wallis h-test as planned for the next two hypotheses.

Recruitment

I recruited my participants through an online research-focused platform, Prolific Academic (MIT Behavior Research Lab, n.d.; Palan & Schitter, 2018; prolific.ac) that has been used successfully in other research (e.g., Benjamins et al., 2019; Heretick & Learn, 2020; Wilding et al., 2019). At the time, there were 1,825 active Prolific members

who met my eligibility criteria. Once the study was submitted to Prolific, the recruitment

information (see Appendix A) about the study were forwarded by Prolific to eligible

members. Individuals interested in the study proceeded to the URL that was provided in

the recruitment information. I paid each eligible participant who completed the full, 20-

minute survey $2.17. The ethical reimbursement for an hour time of each participants

was $6.50 via PayPal account plus additional 30% of Prolific fees. Current Prolific study

cost calculator showed $600.93 for rewarding 180 participants who would spend 20

minutes of their time.

Data Collection

Those Prolific members who were interested in the study went to the online web

survey that I had for data collection. The survey was presented on freeonlinesurveys.com.

Freeonlinesurveys.com provides a location to create surveys and a URL for accessing the

survey. I upgraded my account with Freeonlinesurveys.com so that I would have

capacities (e.g., number of survey respondents) and options (e.g., retaining survey

responses and data summaries) needed for this study. When participants entered the

survey site, they were presented with the complete informed consent form. After reading

the consent information, they were presented with two options: agree to participate or do

not agree to participate. If they did not agree, they were forwarded to a page that thanks

them for their interest and exited from the survey. If they agreed, their response triggered

an automatic link to one of four randomly assigned versions of the survey materials) The

first page of survey presented the demographic questionnaire that was common to all (see

Appendix B). After completing the demographic questionnaire, they were presented with

the basic experimental scenario that was paired with one of the four descriptions of the victim's response. After reading the full experimental scenario, they were presented with the four questions to evaluate agency of the perpetrator, then the four questions to evaluate patiency of the victim, and then the immediate and delayed types (six questions) for behavioral intentions and two questions on fear of intervention. When participants completed the survey, they were thanked for their participation and forwarded to the Prolific site to verify completion for payment. All participants remained anonymous to me, identified only by their Prolific ID number. Participants were able to contact me with questions via the Prolific site if they had questions or follow-up comments. All completed survey responses were stored on the survey site (freeonlinesurveys.com), not Prolific, and I downloaded the data for analysis.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic questionnaire requested information on age, gender, degree program, year of study, race/ethnicity, and enrollment status (part- or full time), and proportion of classes or required field work that was completed face-to-face. The demographic questionnaire may be found in Appendix B.

Manipulation Materials

Response of a female student victim to coercive quid pro quo SH by a male professor varied across conditions by the use of four different victim's responses in a written scenario. The basic scenario (which did not vary victim's response) was employed in a study by Heretick and Learn (2020) to evaluate effect of severity of quid

pro quo SH on peer bystander interventions. Heretick and Learn's (2020) study evaluated only the effect of severity of the type of SH on bystander reactions, but not the bystanders' reactions to the victim's responses. The current study examined the effect of the victims' responses as the independent variable. The basic scenario that has been used in the current study was designed to describe coercive quid pro quo SH (without physical violation via groping) in an academic setting.

In the vignette, the Professor complimented the student's appearance, as well as complimented her academic work, touched her on the shoulder, and promised academic rewards to her for consenting to his harassing behavior. The manipulation for my study added information to the basic scenario about the victim's response. The scenario ended with description of one of the four types of responses by the female student to the male professor:

- Karen did not say anything to the Professor Brooks about his behavior. After the meeting, she just tried to forget about it.

- Karen did not say anything to Professor Brooks about his behavior. After the meeting she complained to her best friend about what had happened with Professor Brooks, seeking understanding and support.

- Karen stood up during the meeting and told the professor his behavior was entirely unacceptable, and he should ensure it would never happen again.

- Karen did not say anything to Professor Brooks about his behavior. After the meeting, she made a formal complaint against Professor Brooks through the university's office that handles sexual harassment reports.

Validity of the Basic SH Vignette

Heretick and Learn (2020) used the same basic scenario to assess student participants' social cognitive and emotional reactions, as well as behavioral intentions. The scenario that I used was the second of three, moderate severity, scenarios employed by Heretick and Learn (2020) to vary severity of coercive SH. One scenario in Heretick and Learn's study depicted an interaction between the female student and male professor that presented an appropriate, professional exchange with no SH. A third scenario presented coercive quid pro quo SH with sexually forceful physical violation (groping; higher severity condition). I used the second scenario, which presented coercive quid pro quo SH but without forceful physical violation, the lower severity condition, from Heretick and Learn's study.

The scenario I have selected was relevant to the current study for several reasons. First, the perceived severity of the coercive SH and of the coercive sexual assault of a female student by a male professor has been found to be significantly higher than that of the nonharassment vignette and lower than the example of coercive quid pro quo SH with forceful physical violation (Heretick & Learn, 2020). Responses on other items related to social-cognitive, emotional, and behavioral intentions clearly indicated that the two SH scenarios were presenting relevant information on SH that affected bystander reactions. In addition, when compared with the higher severity SH condition, bystander responses to the lower severity SH condition were more readily affected by situational uncertainty. For example, fears of negative consequences for intervening were statistically higher, while likelihood of directly confronting the perpetrator were significantly lower, for those

in this condition relative to those in the higher SH severity condition. This degree of situational uncertainty allowed for more saliency of the victim's response, relative to the higher severity SH condition, as an element of the dyadic interaction to affect bystander intervention responses.

Second, the experimental scenario was based on previous research and was designed to include some of the informational components that were considered basic to evaluations regarding sexual harassment and dyadic morality: the victim's motivation (Diekmann et al. 2013), intensity/severity of the perpetrator's behavior (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Madera, 2018), and power/status differences between the perpetrator and the victim (Nelson et al., 2017). Third, the vignette that was used in this study resulted in consistent and significant differences in observers' emotional reactions toward the victim and perpetrator of SH ($p < .001$): worry and sadness toward the victim, and anger and disgust toward professor (Heretick & Learn, 2020).

Manipulation of Victim's Response

This component of the scenario described responses that mirrored options that were available to women in similar situations of coercive quid pro quo SH where there was a power differential: remaining passive, seeking indirect informal support, confronting the harasser, or making a formal complaint against the harasser (Clancy et al., 2014; Diekmann et al., 2013; Scarduzio et al., 2018).

Dependent Measures

There were two questionnaires to test hypotheses of interest and answer the research questions: Moral Typecasting Questionnaire and Behavioral Intervention

Intentions Questionnaire. The measure to evaluate moral typecasting was used to test the first two null hypotheses, which inquired about the effect of the victim's response on observers' social cognitive evaluations. The behavioral intervention intentions items were used to test the next two null hypotheses regarding the effect of the victim's response on observers' behavioral intentions during and after the event.

Moral Typecasting Questionnaire

To reiterate, moral typecasting is the observer's tendency to classify others into two mutually exclusive roles of having more of moral agency (a person doing wrong) or moral patiency (a suffering from the wrongdoing person; Gray & Wegner, 2011). I employed the questions created and used by Gray and Wegner (2009, 2011) and Gray et al. (2014) in development of the TDM (Schein & Gray, 2017) in previous research on moral dyads. Permission for the use of the questions was obtained.

There were two important constructs measured in this questionnaire. The first subscale assessed moral patiency (MP) of the victim, conceptualized as the experience of a morally wrong action (Gray & Wegner, 2009). This subscale presented four questions to evaluate experience of harm, capacity for pain, vulnerability, and capacity to experience emotions. The following questions were to evaluate observer's perception of MP: How much wrongdoing did Karen experience? How much harm did Karen Experience? How easy it would be to take advantage of Karen? How much capacity for pain does Karen have? Validity and reliability of the mentioned measurements have been established in various studies. Gray and Wegner (2009, 2011) used both 5-point and 7-point scales for their response options. I used a 7-point scale, from 1 (*Minimum*

amount/extent) to 7 (*Maximum amount/extent*). The score for MP was the mean rating of the four items.

The second subscale assessed moral agency (MA) of the harasser, conceptualized as the causal responsibility for actions (Gray & Wegner, 2009). I used the same 7-point Likert scale when presenting participants with four MA questions. The questions to evaluate observer's perception of the amount of MA in the harasser were: How intentional was Professor Brooks' behavior? To what extent was Professor Brooks in full control of his actions? How much blame does Professor Brooks deserve for his actions? How responsible is Professor Brooks for his behavior? The moral agency measures of blameworthiness, praiseworthiness, control, and intentionality correlated across subjects $r(12) = .80$, $p < .001$ (Gray & Wegner, 2009, p. 511). The score for MP was the mean rating of these four items.

Reliability

In the Gray and Wegner's (2009) Study 1b, participants read scenarios about the positive or negative actions of either Chris (a relative moral agent) or Matthew (a relative moral patient). Two items from their previous study, "How responsible is Sam for his behavior?" (*not at all* to *fully*), "How intentional was Sam's behavior?" (*completely unintentional* to *completely intentional*), measured the amount of moral responsibility and intentionality of a relative moral agent Chris and a relative patient Matthew (Gray & Wegner, 2009, p. 508). Two items, "Chris/Mathew can experience pain" and Chris/Mathew can experience pleasure" (7-point scale that ranged from *strongly agree* to *strongly agree*; p. 509) that have been taken from the Mind Perception Questionnaire

(Kozak et al., 2006) measured the amount of experience of the relative agent and patient.

The sensitivity to pain and pleasure were correlated significantly $r(58) = .88$, $p < .001$ (p.

510). Within each scenario ratings of intentionality and responsibility were correlated

significantly $r(58) = .69$, $p < .001$ (p. 509). The order and gender effects were absent.

There was a high correlation between a good and bad moral agency $r(58) = .75$, $p < .01$

(p. 510). A relative moral patient was attributed less intentionality and responsibility than

a relative moral agent. A relative moral agent was attributed less sensitivity to pain and

pleasure. In the Study 2, the items measuring the amount of patiency, capacity to feel

pain (how much pain a relative patient experienced, FACES Pain Scale; Wong & Baker,

1988), and vulnerability (how easy it would be to take advantage of him on a 7-point

scale from *extremely hard* to *extremely easy*) correlated across subjects $r(12) = .69$, $p <$

.01 showing test-retest reliability (Gray & Wegner, 2009, p. 510).

Other research also has demonstrated psychometric reliability among items

designed to assess moral agency. Pizarro et al. (2003) conducted four experiments and

demonstrated that cause, intention, and outcome have to be linked in a usual manner to

evoke blame and praise in observers. Pizarro et al. (2003) asked study participants to

ascribe moral sanctions to the moral agent in various situations that were presented in two

vignettes (positive and negative actions). Each vignette also had two dimensions, the first

condition described a normal causal chain where the action was intended and caused by

the agent, and the second condition described a "deviant" causal chain where the intended

result occurred but had another cause. The dependent measure of moral responsibility

included judgments of blame/praise, moral/immoral, and positive/negative judgment of

the agent and was administered on a 9-point semantic differential scale (for example, -4 = *extreme blame*, 0 = *neither blame nor praise*, and +4 = *extreme praise*, p. 654). There was high internal reliability among the three items (Cronbach's α = .98). Observers assigned moral responsibility for acts that followed a normal causal chain but not for the act with a deviant causality ($p < .05$); the valence of action (positive or negative) did not produce the main effect on moral responsibility judgment.

In a second experiment, Pizarro et al. (2003) made the role of the intention central to the outcome, whether the outcome occurred due to the agent or another source. Observers assigned responsibility to actors in the scenarios with a normal and with a deviant causal chain ($p < .001$, p. 656), which confirmed that causality and not intention was central for keeping the agent responsible. The same three measures of moral responsibility were highly correlated (Cronbach's α = .88) in this study and the next, third, study (α = .87). In the fourth study, observers compared agents from the pair of vignettes, deviant and normal causality, on a 5-point scale: who was more morally blameworthy and who was a worse individual; the judgments of act and a global character (who is worse) were correlated in conditions of the instructions to think intuitively and rationally ($p < .01$, p. 657). However, there was no main effect between the type of instructions, think intuitively or rationally. Convergent validity was reported α < .98, showing strong correlations between items measuring moral agency (Pizarro et al., 2003, p. 655).

Moral agents are also seen as people who are in control of their actions (Gray & Wegner, 2009), another words, they are perceived aware of their actions' harmful

consequences (Alicke, 2000). Lagnado and Channon (2008) varied the nature of the events (intentional/unintentional, or physical, meaning external to the actor cause), each scenario was compared in early and late time positions. Participants rated cause and blame judgments on the scale from 0 to 100 and then, they rated the probability of each event (A, B, C, D) influencing outcome. The cause and blame judgements were about intentional and unintentional events depicted as caused by a person, and the events caused by an object (like a machine); for example, "the extent to which each event was to blame for the outcome" (p. 760). There was a main effect between the event type (intentional/unintentional) and location in chain (early/late, within subjects; $p < 0.001$). Intentional events received the highest ratings and physical (external cause) received the lowest ratings ($p < 0.001$, p. 761). The cause rated higher in the late than in the early position ($p < 0.01$). The blame judgment ratings followed similar pattern. Therefore, voluntary actions attracted blame attribution where exaggeration of personal control was influenced by spontaneous moral judgments (Lagnado & Channon, 2008). To conclude, evaluations of moral agency unitedly included four dimensions: blameworthiness, control, intentionality, and responsibility.

Evaluations of moral patiency (victim's experience) in a moral dyad have been rare; harm vulnerability, and capacity to experience emotions and pain/pleasure have been used consistently for evaluating moral patiency of victims (Gray & Wegner, 2009). Earlier, Kozak et al. (2006) applied capacity for emotion scale from the Mind Attribution Scale in observers' evaluations of a person in a written nonmoral vignette. The four items from the capacity for emotion scale (having complex feelings, capacity to experience

pain, pleasure, and emotion) showed a separate factor in mind perception in a principal

factor extraction with varimax rotation. The component of capacity to experience

emotions in mind perception had an internal consistency of Cronbach's $\alpha < .79$, which is

an adequate score, in response to nonmoral vignettes (Kozak et al., 2006). Presentation of

moral situations to observers yielded results contingent upon experience of harm; in

minds of observers, wrong actions have victims (Gray et al., 2014). Gray et al. (2014)

asked research participants of the presence of the victim in the three types of written

vignettes: harm, impure, and neutral. Harmful scenarios produced significantly more

victims than neutral ($p < .001$, p. 4). In dyadic morality, the questions "To what extent an

agent has a victim?" evaluates the actor's blameworthiness when focusing on evaluation

of agency, and the question "How much wrongdoing did Karen experience?" evaluates

the experience of the target when focusing on evaluation of patiency. A regression

analysis showed that sadness and wrongness activated perception of harm independently

($p < .001$); however, sadness did not account for the link between harm and wrongness

(Gray et al., 2014).

Validity

Gray et al. (2007) reported a series of studies that demonstrated that the moral

typecasting phenomenon was pronounced across numerous positive and negative actions:

injuring another, stealing, and rescuing, and socially responsible and irresponsible

actions. They discovered two factors that coexisted in perception of the mind, agency and

experience. For example, they evaluated observers' perceptions of 13 characters that

were either living or nonliving entities: these included seven living human forms (fetus,

infant, a 5-year-old girl, adult women, etc.), a dead woman, three animals, God, and a

robot. Each entity was evaluated on 18 mental capacities (for example, likeability of the

character or capacity to feel pain). Each of the mental capacities was presented in direct

comparison between two characters. Results indicated differences in ratings on mental

capacities in relation to various characters. For example, the study's participants rated a

chimpanzee as less likely than a girl to feel pain (p. 619). Ratings on various capacities

were subjected to a principal component factor analysis (varimax rotation). The 18

capacities accounted for 97% of rating variance and produced two factors with

eigenvalues greater than 1.0 (p. 619). Gray et al. (2007) named the factors Experience,

which included 11 capacities and accounted for 88% of variance, and Agency, which

included seven capacities and accounted for 8% of the variance. Judgments of

punishment for the characters implicated in wrongdoing correlated with Agency ($r =$

0.82) more than with Experience dimension ($r = 0.22$, $z = 2.86$, $p < 0.05$). On the other

hand, avoidance of harm correlated more with Experience ($r = 0.85$) than with Agency (r

$= 0.26$, $z = 2.10$, $p < 0.05$, p. 619).

Discriminant validity is evident in the significant difference between attributions

of agency or patiency for members of dyads in various situations. Gray and Wegner

(2009) presented two vignettes, one that involved or did not involve a moral interaction.

Participants responded to one question to measure moral agency: which one of the

individuals, Jeffrey/Agent or Michael/Patient, acted more intentionally. Another question

was employed to measure moral patiency: "whether Michael or Jeffrey felt more pain"

(p. 513). A five-point response scale was provided with each question. A 2

(Moral/Nonmoral vignette, a between-subject factor) x 2 (Agency/Patiency, a within-subject factor) mixed ANOVA was used to test the research hypothesis. There was no simple effect between moral and nonmoral condition on perception of general agency. However, significant differences surfaced in perception of moral patiency; the agent was perceived to have significantly less moral patiency than the victim in both the moral and nonmoral conditions.

Gray and Wegner (2009) compared evaluations of behaviors of actors who acted as agents in situations that involved a moral versus general action. They found that observers perceived significantly eviler in the behavior of the immoral agent than in the behavior of the actor who demonstrated general agency. Also, the actor with general agentic characteristics was rated as more likely to become a victim than the one with moral agentic descriptors (a secret psychopath). Further, Gray and Wegner (2009) examined how much pain and pleasure people would assign to widely known good and bad agents (Dalai Lama, Ted Bundy, etc., and variety of moral patients): results confirmed that moral agents, good or bad, were ascribed more pain and less pleasure than neutral targets and moral patients.

Gray and Wegner (2011) presented study participants with the situation that described a *hero*, *victim*, or *neutral* condition. Then, the participants evaluated the actor's mind, rated his capacity for pain and fear, intentional thought, and self-control on 5-point scale. After that, they read about a misdeed by the actor (stealing) and assigned blame and punishment on a 5-point scale. Blame and punishment ratings correlated significantly ($p < .001$). Between-group comparisons found more blame assigned to the actor who had

been portrayed as a *hero* than as a *victim* or in the *neutral* condition ($p < .05$); ratings in the victim and neutral conditions did not differ on the blame variable. There was a significant correlation between increased *Agency* (self-control and intentional thought) and blame, and between decrease of blame with increased *Experience* (fear and pain) dimensions. A blame index was not correlated with sympathy. A covariance (ANCOVA) analysis included a moral "typecasting index" as a covariate; the index was calculated by subtracting the Experience from Agency measure. Past victimhood but not heroism accounted for reduction of blame for misdeeds.

In their next study, Gray and Wegner (2011) asked study participants to directly compare two male targets, who have been previously described as being in the *hero*, *victim*, or a *neutral* condition, on ratings of responsibility and punishment (fired from the restaurant). After reading one of the conditions, study participants then read of their targets' misdeed, which resulted in severe allergic reaction of a customer, who threatened to sue, unless one of the targets is fired. An average blame index resulted from a significant correlation between attributions of responsibility and punishment ($p < .001$). The past victim was blamed the least and the past hero was blamed the most and more than a neutral target. Accessibility of misdeed in memory increased blame of perpetrator. Three pairwise chi-square tests showed that the misdeed of a past *victim* is recalled much less than the misdeeds of a *neutral* or *hero* targets ($p < .05$); the easiest recall of misdeed occurred after the past hero condition ($p < .05$). No clemency was afforded to previous heroes in case of misdeeds.

Therefore, the variables of moral agency and moral patiency have been well discriminated even though they are both parts of mind perception (Gray et al., 2007). Moral agency is the causally responsible part of mind perception as has been consistently and reliably shown in research (Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2011; Lagnado & Channon, 2008; Pizarro et al., 2003). Moral agency has been also distinguished from general agency (Gray & Wegner, 2009). Moral patiency is the experiential part of mind perception that is understood as the victim's or beneficiary's experience in eyes of observers (Gray & Wegner, 2009). Observers categorize people in moral situations in a dyadic manner depending on cultural interpretation of harm (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2010a; Schein & Gray, 2015). The event of categorization is called moral typecasting (Gray & Wegner, 2009) and is part of social cognition in moral contexts. Bystander's social cognitive reactions affect their behavioral intentions (Diekmann et al., 2013; Hellemans et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn, 2020).

Behavioral Intervention Intentions Questions

I planned to use single items to describe possible behavioral responses while the incident was occurring and after the incident. These items were derived from the Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly (2005) model of bystander responses that classified responses in terms of levels immediacy and involvement. I used items related to high immediacy (while the event was occurring) that were employed by Heretick and Learn (2020): "interrupt the interaction and make up an excuse to get Karen out of there;" high immediacy with high public involvement, "go in and tell Professor Brooks to his face to stop what he is doing with Karen." The score on each item was measured on an ordinal,

8-point response scale: 1 (*Not at all*) to 9 (*Absolutely/Extremely;* Heretick & Learn,

2020). Spearman *rho* correlations of the three items that measured immediate personal

and public involvement ranged from .650 to 1.00 (Heretick & Learn, 2020, Table 3).

When a research design included appraisal of each member of the dyad, victim's

motivation and observers' consensus of harm to the victim, observers showed more

willingness to intervene (Diekmann et al., 2013; Franklin et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn,

2020; Klein et al., 2011).

Franklin et al. (2017) researched to what extent individual level characteristics

(attitudes toward sexual violence against women and toward violence prevention,

exposure to gender victimization, and extraversion) affected observers' willingness to

directly intervene. The immediate interventions offered to observers in Franklin et al.

(2017) were: (a) "Knock on the door myself and ask if everything is okay" in sexual

assault scenario; (b) "Tell my friend to be quiet and mind his own business, and then go

over to the woman to apologize" in SH scenario; (c) "Confront the man myself and get

him to stop" in intimate partner violence scenario (p. 195). Participants answered a 6-

point scale (from 1 - *extremely unlikely* to 6 - *extremely likely*). The Model R^2 value was

explained by 33% of variation in willingness to directly intervene, $p < .00$ (p. 200) when

observers have been presented with the SH situation.

Following the Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly (2005) model, the items

inquiring about possible behavior responses after the incident is over have been used by

Hellemans et al. (2017) although in the study on bystander helping in response to

workplace bullying, emotional and public support. Permission to use the items was

obtained. Both categories of responses are delayed in immediacy and differ in the level of

bystander involvement, similarly to the immediate responses. The emotional responses,

for example, the item "I would inform Mrs. Young of the existence of a psychologist in

the organization and advise her to go to complain" (Hellemans et al., 2017, p. 138), is the

bystander's help to the victim on personal level. The public response, for example, the

item "I would help Mrs. Young gather evidence against Mr. Smith" (p. 138) engages

bystanders into disclosure of their actions to protect the victim. I modified the items to fit

educational setting; the following pertains to personal support of the victim: "I would

advise Karen to go to the Student Affairs Office and make a formal complaint; I would

inform Karen she can speak confidentially about this with a professional at the

Psychological Services Center." The item, "I would help Karen gather evidence against

Professor" pertains to a public support. In Hellemans et al. (2017), the Emotional and

Public support variables have been measured on a 4-point Likert scale (ranging from 1-

definitely not to 4–*yes, definitely*).

Hellemans et al. (2017) tested how attribution of action's cause (either to the

perpetrator personally or to management) and self-efficacy would affect observers'

willingness to intervene) The highest intention was for personal support ($m = 3.06$) and

medium intention ($m = 2.32$) was for public support of the victim; the correlation

between variables of personal and public support (with addition of Fear of intervention)

was from .04 to .42 (Hellemans et al., 2017, p. 139) ruling out multicollinearity. The

personal support variable had Cronbach's $\alpha < .80$ with the range 1 to 4 and the public

support had Cronbach's $\alpha < .70$ with the range 1 to 4 (Hellemans et al., 2017, Table 1, p.

139), which is the range from good to fair. Employees with longer work experience and

women were willing to provide more emotional support ($p < .008$ and $p < .014$

respectively, p. 139).

Extent of Observers' Fear of Interventions

Observers of SH tended to have good intentions to help victims; however, their

willingness to intervene was dependent on their personal resources, and their intentions

were restricted by fear of losing a job, or dealing with the same perpetrator's treatment,

or by possible personal consequences (Hellemans et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn, 2020).

Possible negative consequences for the female victim of bullying and SH, such as making

the situation worse for the victim, also significantly affected observers' behavioral

intentions (Hellemans et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn, 2020). The Hellemans et al. (2017)

Fear of Intervention scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .83 (p. 138); internal and external

attributions of responsibility for bullying significantly affected fear of intervention, and

bystanders' emotional and public support of the female victim. Fear of intervention had a

weak correlation with observers' willingness to offer emotional support and behavioral

involvement, which ranged from .04 to .42 with the range from 1 to 4 (p. 139) and ruled

out multicollinearity. Heretick and Learn (2020) found that observers responded with

more fear of intervention to the vignette of coercive SH without forceful contact than

they had when responding to the vignette with forceful body contact of the female victim,

although, the relationships were not linear $p < .001$. The ranks for fear of making the

situation worse for the female victim of SH were statistically significantly lower than the

ranks for fear of personal negative consequences, $Z = - 3.17$, $N = 56$, $p = .002$, in

response to the higher severity than lower coercive SH situation. While results on fear of intervention demonstrated the extent of interference with observers' behavioral intentions, the factorial analysis with inclusion of fear of intervention would be impossible due to the use of Kruskal-Wallis test when analyzing observers' intentions to intervene.

Planned Analyses

I downloaded numerical data from the survey website in spreadsheet form. I then created an SPSS data file (v. 25), to which I transferred the data and completed set up of the data file (variables).

Cleaning and Screening Data

My initial step involved checking the accuracy of all data entry into the SPSS data file. In addition, I checked for missing values and decided what steps to take, depending on the percent and pattern of missing values, for example, whether imputation would be a viable option for dealing with missing values (Liao et al., 2016). If needed, I performed multiple imputation within the SPSS datafile, substituting missing values with means derived by calculating several different options, I would then combine them to make the most representative and least biased estimated values. Imputation is the calculation of different options when a researcher creates several versions of data set and combines them; this results in the most optimal values (Statistics How To, 2020). Imputations reduce bias, improve validity and precision, and resist to outliers when missing values need corrections.

Internal Reliability of Scale Items

Prior to computing scale scores, I evaluated internal reliability and consistency of scale items by computing Cronbach's alpha for each subscale. Following conventions in the social sciences, I interpreted alpha values as .70 or higher as reflecting acceptable internal reliability (Croasmun & Ostrom, 2011; Gliem & Gliem, 2003; Vaske et al., 2017). If these criteria are met, I would proceed to computing actual scale scores.

Outliers

I computed scores for the two typecasting subscales. At the next step, I evaluated the distributions of these scores, which were assumed to be continuous. First, I used SPSS Explore to examine for outliers, specifically using box plots. Unless there was reason to believe that the outlier was due to a data entry error, or random responding by the participant, I used the Winsor method to correct the outlier value (Liao et al., 2016).

Test of Assumptions

An assumption for use of the one-way ANOVA is that the distribution of scores approximates a normal distribution (Field, 2013; Suhr, n. d.; StatisticsSolutions, n.d.). In order to check this assumption, I used SPSS Explore to compute the following output so that I could evaluate normality: mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis descriptive statistics for each set of dependent measure scores (after correction for outliers, if needed), histogram of the distribution of each set of scale scores, and Shapiro-Wilk test for normality. Based on assessments of these various sources of data, I decided whether there was extreme enough deviation from normality to require further action, such as transformation of the data to increase approximation of normality. I used results

of the Levene's test to evaluate for homogeneity of error variances among the four

groups. The data did not meet the assumptions for use of the ANOVA, and I employed

the Kruskal-Wallis H test to evaluate between-group differences in the mean ranks of the

various groups. This is a nonparametric alternative to a one-way ANOVA (McDonald, n.

d).

Hypothesis Testing

The specific analyses that have used to test each of the null hypotheses are as

follows:

Research Question 1: Does the response of the female victim of coercive SH

affect bystanders' perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of

blameworthiness, control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator?

$H_0 1$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does not affect bystanders'

perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness,

control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator.

$H_a 1$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does affect bystanders'

perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness,

control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator.

Because the MA scale items have not met normality assumptions and have not

had acceptable reliability, I performed a separate between-group comparison for each of

the four items. I employed a Kruskal-Wallis test to examine between-group differences

on the group mean ranks for MA. If the overall H-value was statistically significant, I

performed post hoc pairwise comparisons (Dunn's test with Bonferroni correction) to identify which group ranks differed significantly from each other.

Research Question 2: Does the response of the female victim of coercive SH affect bystanders' perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced harm, capacity for pain and experience of emotions, and vulnerability) of the victim?

$H_0 2$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does not affect bystanders' perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced harm, capacity for pain and experiencing emotions, and vulnerability) of the victim.

$H_a 2$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does affect bystanders' perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced harm, capacity for pain and experiencing emotions, and vulnerability) of the victim.

Because the MP scale items have not met normality assumptions and have not had acceptable reliability, I performed a separate between-group comparison for each of the four items. I employed a Kruskal-Wallis test to examine between-group differences on the group mean ranks for MP. If the overall H-value was statistically significant, I performed post hoc pairwise comparisons (Dunn's test with Bonferroni correction) to identify which group ranks differed significantly from each other.

Research Question 3: Does the response of the female victim to coercive SH affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses)?

$H_0 3$: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does not affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

$H_a 3$: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

Because there was a single item to assess behavioral intention for each of three types of observer responses during the SH event, I performed a separate between-group comparison for each of the three items. The Likert-type scale of measurement resulted in ordinal scale of measurement. Thus, I used a nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis H test to compare the groups' mean ranks. If an overall statistical significance was observed, post hoc pairwise comparisons followed using the Dunn's test with Bonferroni correction.

Research Question 4: Does the response of the female victim to coercive SH affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses)?

$H_0 4$: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does not affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

H_a4: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does affect bystanders'

intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing

three types of possible observer responses).

Again, because there was a single item to assess behavioral intention for each of

three types of observer responses after the SH event, I performed a separate between-

group comparison for each of the three items. The Likert-type scale of measurement

resulted in ordinal scale of measurement. Thus, I used a nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis H

test to compare the groups' mean ranks. If an overall statistical significance was

observed, post hoc pairwise comparisons followed using the Dunn's test with Bonferroni

correction.

Threats to Validity

An experimental design has four main components: control, manipulation,

comparison, and generalization (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). The first threat

to external validity is nonrandom sampling. Participants were limited to those who

volunteered for the study, thus introducing self-selection to the study. Further, the sample

has been drawn from those individuals who also were members of the Prolific academic

pool, who may have or have not been representative of U.S. college/university students.

There also may have been some limitation on ecological validity, that was, the degree to

which the study environment matched the real world (Holland et al., 2017; Pellegrini,

2001). The setting where they completed the online survey may not have been consistent

with those where they thought about or encountered SH in academia (Frankfort-

Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). In addition, behavioral intentions on a survey may or may

not translate to behavioral intentions in real world situations (Groves et al., 2009). The extent of observers' fears of negative consequences for themselves and for the victim's situation allowed a better understanding of just how realistic the intentions could have been in real coercive SH situation. However, the independent variable in this study represented the four constructs of possible SH victim's responses, which had been examined in research on SH (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Diekmann et al., 2013; Knapp, 2016; Nelson et al., 2017) supporting external validity.

Threats to Internal Validity

This study does not notably involve threats based on maturation, carryover effects, nor nonrandomization of assignment to condition. Further the relatively short time to complete the survey and compensation may have reduced attention problems and experimental mortality risks for internal validity (Berinsky et al., 2014; Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). The resemblance of the experimental vignette, victim's responses, and possible behavioral choices to the academic context should have sustained participants' interest and reduce their perception of difficulty in answering (Berinsky et al., 2014). Unipolar items in the questionnaires were simple and could have been read quickly and understood easily. In addition, when the target of a questions changed from the actor to the target and from cognition to possible action, it may have helped to sustain participants' attention as well.

On the other hand, research in the area of SH in academia regarding peer bystanders is still new and evolving so that using vignettes to create stimulus materials and measures for dependent variables still requires a researcher to design materials that

are relevant to the factors under study. Although some replication of materials from previous research is possible, there is some need for newer additions. Many of published reports in this area include use of materials designed by the researchers for that study and are employed for the first time (for example, Bowes-Sperry &O'Leary-Kelly, 2005; Hellemans et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn, 2020; Franklin et al., 2017). This is not the case for this study in entirety. The basic SH scenario in the vignette replicated the one used by Heretick and Learn (2020). This scenario reliably discriminated observers' evaluations of the harm-to-victim component of moral typecasting and emotional responses to both the perpetrator and the victim in relation to severity of coercive quid pro quo SH. The dependent measures I employed have been used in previous research on SH and bullying (Franklin et al., 2017; Hellemans et al., 2017; Heretick & Learn, 2020). Attention has been given to replicating previous methodology wherever possible. For example, the moral typecasting questionnaire had not been used in application to SH but had been used for a variety of norm violations and across moral domains, including purity, weirdness, and severity of moral situations (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Keeney, 2015; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2010a, 2011).

Construct or Statistical Conclusion Validity

The constructs tested in this study were relevant to quid pro quo and vertical SH of women students in academic settings. The assessment of bystanders' social-cognitive responses and willingness to intervene was based on the research tradition in the field; the constructs match the established general and specific relationships between social-cognitive responses and behavioral choices (Bowes-Sperry &O'Leary-Kelly, 2005;

Diekmann et al., 2013). The four comparison groups of the independent variable

represented four constructs of possible SH victim's responses that had been researched in

the literature on sexual harassment (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Diekmann et al., 2013;

Knapp, 2016; Nelson et al., 2017). It was evident that this study could not include all

constructs related to the observers' willingness to intervene when witnessing vertical SH

of a female student. Therefore, I was only focusing on a few that showed significant

influence on the observers' behavior in previous research on ethical decision making

using the Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly's (2005) model.

Ethical Procedures

I obtained permission from the Walden IRB prior to any initiation of the study

procedures (Walden IRB approval no. 06-23-20-0172465). I followed the APA Code of

Conduct (2020) guidance for researchers and Walden University Institutional Review

Board (IRB, 2019). There were minimal risks for participants of this study because they

were adults and not known members of vulnerable populations. Section 8 of the Research

and Publications of the APA code of ethics (APA, 2020) suggested that researchers make

reasonable efforts to avoid offering excessive financial rewards for participation and to

assure proper explanation of risks and obligations regarding participation in studies. I

believe that the amount that have been offered to participants for the time required did

not constitute undue incentive.

Furthermore, because the vignette described a situation of coercive SH of a

female student by a male professor, there may have been some participants who became

uncomfortable or emotionally upset. The informed consent form provided

acknowledgement of this and information about resources that were available to those who experience a negative reaction. In addition, the study participants were informed that they were free to leave the survey at any time in the informed consent.

The confidentiality of personal data is paramount (APA, 2020). First, I did not collect any identifiable characteristics like addresses and names of participants. Students participated in the study anonymously and one time. The data was saved on the password-protected hard drive of my computer. Information on participants' demographic information (age, gender, degree, university) was kept in a data file that was separate from the data file with responses to the experimental materials. All reports of data and analyses were at the group level.

Summary and Transition

I have conducted an experimental design to explore cause-effect relationships between the response of a female student victim to coercive quid pro quo SH by a male college professor. Chapter 3 presented the rationale for this design, as well as details for sampling and recruiting, administering the survey and random assignment to treatment, research materials and instrumentation, and planned analyses to test research hypotheses. Threats to validity also were discussed. I addressed possible ethical concerns and protections for study participants. The results of the study are described in Chapter 4 after data collection and analysis.

Chapter 4: Research Method

Introduction

Despite the presence of laws and institutional regulations targeting removal of SH

from academic environments (USDOE & OCR, 2015; USEEOC, n. d.a), women avoid

filing official complaints (Diekmann et al., 2013; Scarduzio et al., 2018; Tinkler, 2013;

Tinkler et al., 2015) due to the pressure of cultural gender role expectations (Knapp,

2016; Otterbacher et al., 2017) and expectations related to institutional betrayal (Smith &

Freyd, 2014). Women often respond with significant fear of reporting SH committed by

men with higher social and academic status (Collinsworth et al., 2009; Dillon et al., 2015;

Settles et al., 2014) but at the same time, expect their peers' emotional support

(Diekmann et al., 2013; Scarduzio et al., 2018). However, peer observers experience

ambiguity about what has occurred and anticipate harm from reprisals or fear they might

make the situation worse if they try to help (Diekmann et al., 2013; Page et al., 2016;

Scarduzio et al., 2018; Settle et al., 2014). There are limited studies on how peer

observers perceived the female victims of SH who have been harassed by their superiors

in academic setting (Mansell et al., 2017; Moylan & Wood, 2016; Nelson et al., 2017).

There is less research on whether a female victim's type of response to coercive SH

makes a difference for observers' perception of her and the harasser and potential

consequent helping behavior (Diekmann et al., 2013; Herrera et al., 2014, 2017; Klein et

al., 2011).

Observation of harm by a bystander triggers initial and intuitive moral evaluation

of the situation (Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999; Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005;

O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2009); the bystanders perceive both the victim and the perpetrator within the interaction in relation to responsibility for cause and suffering from harm (Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009). The purpose of my study was to examine whether the type of a victim's response to coercive SH affects bystanders' attributional moral evaluations and intentions regarding possible behavioral reactions. Attributional processes of moral responsibility include responsibility for the harasser's behavior and harm done to the victim. Behavioral options include both direct and indirect helping actions taken while the incident is occurring, as well as after it has occurred.

The specific research questions and hypotheses for this study are:

Research Question 1: Does the response of the female victim of coercive SH affect bystanders' perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness, control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator?

$H_0 1$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does not affect bystanders' perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness, control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator.

$H_a 1$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does affect bystanders' perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness, control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator.

Research Question 2: Does the response of the female victim of coercive SH affect bystanders' perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced harm, capacity for pain and experience of emotions, and vulnerability) of the victim?

$H_0 2$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does not affect bystanders' perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced harm, capacity for pain and experiencing emotions, and vulnerability) of the victim.

$H_a 2$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does affect bystanders' perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced harm, capacity for pain and experiencing emotions, and vulnerability) of the victim.

Research Question 3: Does the response of the female victim to coercive SH affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses)?

$H_0 3$: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does not affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

$H_a 3$: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

Research Question 4: Does the response of the female victim to coercive SH affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses)?

$H_0$4: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does not affect bystanders'

intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing

three types of possible observer responses).

H_a4: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does affect bystanders'

intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing

three types of possible observer responses).

Chapter 4 presents a synopsis of the data collection process such as recruitment

and response rates, and a discussion of discrepancies in data collection from the plan

presented in Chapter 3. The chapter continues with descriptive statistics and demographic

characteristics of the sample. There is a report of a systematic data analysis and testing of

hypotheses. The chapter concludes with the discussion of the results of tested hypotheses.

Data Collection

Recruitment Time and Response Rates

Student participants responded to survey questions that have been published in

freeonlinesurveys.com. Participants were drawn from members at the Prolific.ac

recruitment site; they volunteered to participate in research. Recruitment was between the

end of June and beginning of July 2020. During this timeframe, there were three rounds

of data collection. The first round of data collection resulted in 205 survey entries from

the expected 180; 153 valid surveys passed validity criteria (age of participants,

secondary and tertiary participation, completed surveys) and attention check. The

experimental condition of victim's direct confrontation of the harasser had 48 responses,

which was enough; the rest of experimental conditions were lacking responses. The

second round of the survey was published on Prolific to recruit 47 participants,

accounting for the possible 30% of invalid data, for the remaining three conditions,

victim's passive response, search for peer emotional support, and her filing an official

complaint. Data included 50 responses where some participants failed the attention check

or had a younger age than posted in invitation; the condition of seeking peer emotional

support was lacking two surveys to fulfill the requirement of 45 surveys per an

experimental condition. The second round added 33 surveys to the data. The third round

of the survey with the two conditions, victim is filing an official complaint and seeking a

peer emotional support, was lunched to recruit 20 participants with useable data. To be

fair, seven participants, identified only by their Prolific ID number, who had failed the

attention check in their first completion, were invited to retake the survey and to get paid;

three of them completed the surveys, which added the necessary two surveys to the

condition of victim's seeking peer's emotional support and resulted in 21 new data cases

total. The total sample had 207 survey cases.

The basic scenario for moderate coercive sexual harassment (Clancy et al., 2014;

Diekman et al., 2013; Scarduzio et al., 2018) was borrowed from the previous study by

Heretick and Learn (2020). Participants were randomly assigned to one experimental

condition that varied the victim's response to the professor's behavior. Approval to use

the moral typecasting questionnaire was given by Dr. Gray via email. Permission to use

Emotion and Public Support questions and modify them to fit an academic setting was

granted also via email by Dr. Hellemans. These questions represented dependent

variables of observers' behavioral intentions and emotional reactions. Study participants

answered one attention check question and selected one victim's response that they thought they have read after the SH vignette.

Descriptive Statistics and Demographics

In 14 days of data collection, there were 101 (48.8%) female, 100 (48.3%) male, and 6 (2.9%) of participants who self-identified as Other gender, and one added Other gender for the missing value. This gender statistic does not differ much from the US census Bureau's gender statistics on completion of bachelor's and master's degrees in 2019 (US Census Bureau, n.d.). From the total of 48.4% (121,301) male students, 20.8% of them earned bachelor's degrees, 8% master's, and 2% doctoral degrees (US Census Bureau, n.d.). Female students constituted 51.6% of the total graduates where 21.7% earned bachelor's, 9.9% master's, and 1.5%. Most students in this survey (153) 73.9% were attending a four-year undergraduate degree. That is different from 21.3% of the US student population who completed bachelor's degree in 2019 of 18 years and older (US Census Bureau, n.d.). In this study, the mean age of student population was 23.58 years, with the minimum age of participation of 21 and the maximum of 47.

As may be seen in Table 1, racial/ethnic distributions among the sample indicated that the majority (58%) self-described as European American. This is higher number than the national average of European American college students (35%; NCES, 2017). Other comparisons with national averages are included in Table 1. Asian/Pacific Islanders (18.8%) were the second highest proportion of participants in my sample. African Americans comprised 7.7% and Non-White Hispanic/Latino/a were 6.8% of the respondents. Other groups were less than 5% of the total.

Table 1

Race/Ethnicity Self-Descriptions of Sample

Race/Ethnicity	Current Sample		NCES
	n	%	%
European American	120	58	35
African American	16	7.7	21
Native American	6	2.9	15
Non-White Hispanic/Latino/a	14	6.8	15*
Asian/Pacific Islander American	38	18.8	54/18**
Middle Eastern American	2	1.0	-
Multi-Racial American	11	5.3	34
Not American	10	4.8	
American	197	95.2	

Note. $N = 207$ (*n* = number of students in each category, age 21 & older). NCES stands for the National Center for Education Statistics (2017, Bachelor's or Higher Degree Students, age 25 & older). * includes Hispanics only; ** shows 54% Asian and 18% Pacific Islander American students; - not available data.

Regarding enrollment status, 34.3% of students were enrolled part-time and 65.7% were enrolled full-time in their educational programs. In the last three months, prior to the survey and during COVID-19 pandemic, 15.5% of students had on-campus and field activities altogether; participation in different educational activities prior to the pandemic showed results as listed in Table 2.

Table 2

Enrollment Status and Types of Educational Activities

Types of Educational Activities	Proportion and Number of Students Participating in Activity							
	Not at All		Less Than 25%		15% - 50%		More Than 75%	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
On Campus	20	9.7	20	9.7	32	15.5	135	65.2
Online	32	15.5	93	44.9	44	21.3	38	18.4
Off-Campus Field Activities	100	48.3	72	34.8	31	15.0	4	1.9

Note. $N = 207$ (*n* = number of students in each category).

Crosstabulation showed that 86.7% of art degrees, including music and sculpture, and 60.7% were attended by mostly female students while their attendance of degrees in cyber security, web development, and computer science was 22.2% and their participation in engineering, technology, and architecture studies was 21.4%. On the other hand, 78.6% of male students were in engineering, technology, and architecture, and 77.8% of male students were in computer science, web development, and cyber security. The smallest percentage of male survey sample was attending cinematography (20%), medical/pharmacology, and nursing degrees (22.2%), and psychology, humanity, and liberal arts (25%). The results are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Major/Degree Program/Enrollment Status and Gender Crosstabulation

Major/Degree Program	Female		Male		Other Gender	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Art/Music	13	86.7	2	13.3	0	0.0
Mathematics/Statistics	5	55.6	4	44.4	0	0.0
Computer Science	8	22.2	28	77.8	0	0.0
Medical/Nursing	7	77.8	2	22.2	0	0.0
Education/Languages	12	75.0	3	18.8	1	6.3
Engineering/Technology	6	21.4	22	78.6	0	0.0
Public Administration	10	58.8	7	41.2	0	0.0
Economics/Finance	5	29.4	12	70.6	0	0.0
Biology/Wildlife	14	53.8	12	46.2	0	0.0
Psychology/Humanity	15	60.7	7	25.0	0	0.0
Part Time	36	35.6	32	32.0	3	50.0
Full Time	65	64.4	68	68.0	3	50.0

Note. $N = 207$ (*n* = number of students in each category).

Within each gender group, enrollment status and gender crosstabulation indicated that 64.4% of females, 68% of males, and 50% of students who indicated Other for gender reported attending colleges full time (see Table 3). As may be seen in Table 4, regarding stage of study, about equal numbers of female and male students in the survey sample were at each stage of study, except that there was a higher representation of male students in master's and doctoral programs and absence of Other gender students in these programs.

Table 4

Stage of Study by Gender

Stage of Study	Female		Male		Other Gender	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
2-year undergraduate degree program	19	18.8	15	15.0	1	16.7
4-year undergraduate	75	74.3	73	73.0	5	83.3
Graduate master's degree programs	5	5.0	6	6.0	0	0.0
Doctoral degree program	2	2.0	6	6.0	0	0.0

Note. N = 207 (n = number of students in each category).

Random Assignment of the Sample to Experimental Conditions

The sample size of 207 is larger than the planned 180 participants anticipated in Chapter 3, due to the three data collection attempts while preserving experimental

conditions' choices for the participants. Each of four experimental groups had to have a minimum of 45 valid survey cases to ensure enough statistical power for performing the planned ANOVA. The sample size for this research was estimated using G*Power (Faul et al., 2009) for four independent groups by selecting ANOVA, fixed effects, omnibus, one-way, with a Cohen's f value of .25, alpha level at $\alpha = .05$, including power = .80; this yielded 180 sample size. The final four experimental conditions had different numbers of participants in them because of the random assignment protocol in freeonlinesurveys.com; for example, the same group may be assigned in a row as a new participant joined. The final numbers in each of the four conditions were: Karen did nothing, 57 participants (27.5%), Karen confronted Professor directly, 55 (26.6%), Karen sought emotional support, 50 (24.2%), Karen filed an official complaint, 45 (21.7%). Comparing experimental conditions, the least number of female students, 17 (16.8% within gender) of the 101 female participants were in the condition where the victim filed an official complaint; also, three of the six individuals who self-identified as Other gender have been randomly assigned to this condition.

There were several reasons for the challenges of collecting surveys from participants. Not counting data of those who were declined by Prolific automatically (too quick completion, unfinished surveys, and survey participation acceptance criteria), 15.5% of data were not acceptable because there were multiple completions of the survey by the same individuals and the respondent did not pass the attention check.

Results

Data Cleaning and Screening

The initial step for prechecking the final set of data was to examine the data for missing values. The one missing value on gender was replaced with the code for the Other option. There were no missing data from the responses to the experimental survey materials.

Assumptions of Normality

Ordinal data can be treated as interval or ratio when the assumptions of normality are met through normal distribution of scores (Allen & Seaman, 2007). Normal distributions have 99% of all scores within three standard deviations of the mean; z-values that are greater than + 3.00 and less than – 3.00 are outliers. When skewness and kurtosis are equal zero, the distribution is normal. Table 5 shows how scores were distributed on each item of independent variables, mean, skewness, and kurtosis with corresponding standard errors of distributions.

Table 5

Assumptions of Normality Statistics of Independent Variables and Fear of Consequences

Scale/Items	Mean (*SE*)	Skewness (*SE*)	Kurtosis (*SE*)
Moral Agency of the Professor Items			
The extent Professor Brooks was in Control	6.71 (.054)	-3.932 (.169)	19.778 (.337)
The amount of intentionality in Professor Brook's behavior	6.67 (.057)	-4.118 (.169)	22.452 (.337)
The amount of responsibility of professor Brook's behavior	6.45 (.107)	-2.999 (.169)	7.644 (.337)
The amount of blame Professor Brooks deserves	6.78 (.051)	-5.582 (.169)	38.655 (.337)
Moral Patiency of Karen Items			
The amount of harm Karen experienced	5.28 (.090)	-.574 (.169)	.061 (.337)
The easiness of taking advantage of Karen	6.00 (.109)	-.521 (.169)	-.329 (.084)
The amount of wrongdoing Karen experienced	6.00 (.169)	-1.572 (.169)	3.027 (.337)
Karen's capacity to feel pain	5.30 (.094)	-.547 (.169)	-.068 (.337)
Fear of Consequences for Action			
Afraid of negative consequences for me as a student	3.81 (.140)	.006 (.169)	-1.248 (.337)
Afraid of making the situation worse.	4.25 (.134)	-.218 (.169)	-1.112 (.337)

Note. N = 207.

Apart from ratings for the two items assessing fear of consequences, the means of the items were clustered toward positive values of histograms, indicating negatively skewed distributions. Highly skewed items were perception of the professor's control ($S = -3.932$), the perceived amount of his intentionality ($S = -4.118$), his responsibility ($S = -2.999$), and ascribed to him blame ($S = -5.582$). In addition, these distributions also had high kurtosis values. Regarding Moral Patiency variables, only the perceived amount of

wrongdoing done to Karen had skewness (-1.57) and significant kurtosis (3.02). Using

Kim's (2013) formula,

$$Z = \frac{\text{Skew value}}{SE_{skewness}} \, , \, Z = \frac{\text{Excess kurtosis}}{SE_{excess\,kurtosis}}$$

I calculated the Z-score for skewness and kurtosis to determine Z-score values and to

estimate the relative normality of the distributions (see Table 6):

Table 6

Normality Testing Using Skewness and Kurtosis

Scale/Items	Skewness (SE)	Kurtosis (SE)	Z-Skew Value (Z-Kurtosis Value)
Moral Agency of the Professor Items			
The extent Professor Brooks was in control	-3.932 (.169)	19.778 (.337)	-23.27 (58.69)
The amount of intentionality in Professor Brook's behavior	-4.118 (.169)	22.452 (.337)	-24.37 (66.62)
The amount of responsibility of professor Brook's behavior	-2.999 (.169)	7.644 (.337)	-17.75 (22.68)
The amount of blame Professor Brooks deserves	-5.582 (.169)	38.655 (.337)	-33.03 (114.70)
Moral Patiency of Karen Items			
The amount of harm Karen experienced	-.574 (.169)	.061 (.337)	-3.40 (.18)
The easiness of taking advantage of Karen	-.521 (.169)	-.329 (.084)	-3.08 (-.03)
The amount of wrongdoing Karen experienced	-1.572 (.169)	3.027 (.337)	-9.30 (8.98)
Karen's capacity to feel pain	-.547 (.169)	-.068 (.337)	-3.24 (-20)
Fear of Consequences for Action			
Afraid of negative consequences for me as a student	.006 (.169)	-1.248 (.337)	.04 (-3.70)
Afraid of making the situation worse.	-.218 (.169)	-1.112 (.337)	-1.29 (-3.30)

Note. N = 207.

According to Kim (2013), distributions of less than 50 participants that have absolute Z-scores larger than 1.96 for skewness or kurtosis violate assumption of normality; for samples between 50 and 300 participants, the distributions that have absolute Z-scores larger than 3.29 for skewness or kurtosis violate assumption of normality ($p < .05$). Resulting Z-skew values are shown in Table 6. Following Kim's suggestion for samples larger than 50, except for the Fear of Consequences items, none of distributions of items' mean ratings adhered to normal distribution requirements. The exploratory analyses' boxplots also demonstrated that majority of scores on the items measuring moral agency of the Professor Brooks were not normally distributed; each item had a straight line of the median values of 7 for each of four items of Moral Agency measures of the Professor Brooks. For the items on Karen's Moral Patiency, the following medians were in boxplots: The amount of harm Karen experienced – 5 (lower whisker – 4 and higher whisker – 7); the easiness of taking advantage of Karen – 5 (lower whisker – 1 and higher whisker – 7); the amount of wrongdoing Karen experienced – 6 (lower whisker – 2 and higher whisker – 7); Karen's capacity to feel pain – 5 (lower whisker – 2 and higher whisker – 7). Therefore, the center and the spread of the data showed that the item regarding Karen's experience of harm had 50% of scores between the values of 6 and 7, short interquartile range. The top 25% of scores were 6 and 7 and the bottom 25% were between 4 and 5. There were 19 extreme outliers and 6 regular outliers. The item assessing easiness of taking advantage of Karen had 50% of scores between 4 and 6, the same scores on the top 25% and the bottom 25% scores from 1 to 4; 38 scores had value of 7 and 45 scores were at 6 value. The amount of wrongdoing Karen

experienced item had 50% of scores between 5 and 7 and the bottom 25% of scores

between 2 and 5, and 2 lower outliers; 91 scores had value of 7. Finally, Karen's capacity

to feel pain item had 50% of scores between 4 and 6, the top 25% were between 6 and 7

and the bottom 25% were between 1 and 4; 48 scores were 7.

The Shapiro-Wilk test was significant for each item of the perceived Moral

Agency of the Professor ($p < .001$) and for each item of Karen's Moral Patiency ($p < .001$). Behavioral intention dependent variables had significance on a Shapiro-Wilk test

($p < .001$) and fear of intervention during ($p < .001$) and after the event ($p < .001$); items

were not normally distributed. Means of scores on ordinal scale items that do not meet

the assumptions of normality cannot be treated as continuous data (Allen & Seaman,

2007; Cain et al., 2017).

Internal Reliability of Scale Items

The internal reliability of items within a research scale is a basic assumption

before computing the overall scale score. Internal reliability does not demonstrate the

validity that the scale measures a given concept but does demonstrate the degree to which

the items in the scale are reliably measuring the same concept (Taber, 2018). Because the

items for assessing moral agency and moral patiency were assembled for this study based

on items that were analyzed separately in previous research (e.g., Grey & Wegner, 2009),

I examined the internal reliability to see if scale scores could be used for each construct. I

used the convention of interpreting alpha values of .70 or higher as acceptable for

evaluating acceptability of scale scores for further analyses (Croasmun & Ostrom, 2011;

Gliem & Gliem, 2003; Vaske et al., 2017).

Table 7

Internal Reliabilities of Items in Proposed Research Scales

Proposed Research Scale	Number of Items in Scale	Cronbach's Alpha
Moral Agency of Professor Brooks	4	.60
Moral Patiency of Karen	4	.67
Fear of Consequences for Intervention	2	.69

Note. N = 207.

The resulting Cronbach's alphas for the items of proposed subscales are shown in Table 7. As all three scales have internal reliabilities below the accepted cut-off of alpha = .70 (Croasmun & Ostrom, 2011; Gliem & Gliem, 2003; Vaske et al., 2017), and because use of these items for a composite scale is infrequent, I decided to treat each item separately in further analyses. Doing so also supports the study's purpose of examining the effect of SH victim's response on bystander moral appraisal and behavioral intentions.

Although some (e.g., Mircioiu & Atkinson, 2017) argued for treatment of ordinal data as interval data, and use of parametric analyses, my data were skewed and often limited to only a few values on the possible response scale. I could not justify the assumption that results from parametric evaluations (one-way ANOVAs) would be more reliable than results from a nonparametric alternative. As each item separately was measured on a Likert-scale, which is ordinal scale of measurement, I chose the nonparametric equivalent of the one-way ANOVA, the Kruskal-Wallis test, to evaluate for possible between-group differences. The Kruskal-Wallis test is used to measure the
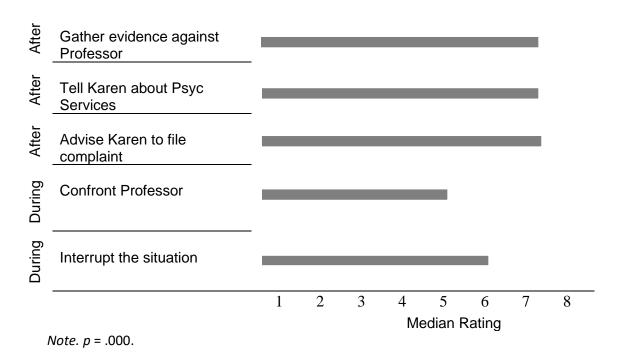
experimental effect of independent variables with dependent variables that are ordinal

(StatisticsSolutions, n.d.).

Overall Likelihood of Various Behavioral Options for Participant Bystanders

Prior to testing the actual research hypotheses for between-group differences, I

examined the general likelihood of each of the bystander helping behaviors, regardless of

which condition they were in. As may be seen in Figure 1, without consideration of the

condition for victim's response, in general, student observers were more likely to intend

to do something to help Karen after the event was over, rather than during the event.

Figure 1

Median Ratings for Each Bystander Behavioral Option During and After Coercive SH
Incident (All Conditions Combined)

Note. *p* = .000.

The relative likelihood of each bystander option, both during and after the

incident, was evaluated further (See Figure 1). A Kruskal-Wallis test was used to

compare the median ranks of ratings across the five behavioral intention choices. There was a statistically significant overall difference in ratings among the five bystander behavioral response options, $H(4) = 149.55$, $p < .001$. Pairwise post hoc comparisons indicated that the least likely behavioral intention of stopping the Professor directly during the incident ($M = 5.00$) was statistically significantly less likely to happen than each of the other behavioral options ($p < .001$). Interrupting to remove Karen ($\eta^2 = .038$, $M = 6.00$) while the incident was occurring was statistically significantly less likely to occur than telling Karen about the Psychological Services Center ($\eta^2 = .064$, $p = .015$) or advising Karen to file a complaint ($\eta^2 = .086$, $p < .001$), but not significantly less likely to happen than gathering evidence again the professor ($\eta^2 = .066$, $p = .127$). Among the options after the incident was over, only gathering evidence against the professor was statistically significantly less likely to occur ($\eta^2 = .066$) than to advise Karen to file a complaint ($\eta^2 = .086$, $p = .015$).

Testing the Research Hypotheses

Research Questions 1 and 2: Moral Perceptions

The first two research questions related to observers' perceptions of the moral agency of the Professor and the moral patiency of the student. There were four items to evaluate moral agency and four items to evaluate moral patiency. Table 8 presents the median and mode values for the four items for each of the four experimental groups. As may be noted, there often was little variation for the median and mode scores on the four moral agency items, but a bit more within the moral patiency items.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics for Scores on Survey Items on Moral Perceptions

Scale/Items	Median (Mode)	Range of Ratings (1-7 possible)
Moral Agency of Professor		
Extent Professor Brooks was in control	7.00 (7.00)	2 to 7
Amount of intentionality in Professor Brook's behavior	7.00 (7.00)	2 to 7
Amount of responsibility for Professor Brook's behavior	7.00 (7.00)	1 to 7
Amount of blame Professor Brooks Deserves	7.00 (7.00)	2 to 7
Moral Patiency of Karen		
Amount of harm Karen experienced	5.00 (5.00)	1 to 7
Easiness of taking advantage of Karen	5.00 (5.00)	1 to 7
Amount of wrongdoing Karen Experienced	6.00 (7.00)	1 to 7
Karen's capacity to feel pain	5.00 (5.00)	1 to 7

Note. N = 207.

Research Questions 1

Does the response of the female victim of coercive SH affect bystanders' perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness, control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator?

$H_0$1: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does not affect bystanders' perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness, control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator.

H_a1: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does affect bystanders' perceptions of moral agency (as measured by items for extent of blameworthiness, control, intentionality, and responsibility) of the perpetrator.

Separate Kruskal-Wallis *h test*s were used to evaluate degree of between-group differences for the each of four items related to bystanders' perceptions of moral agency (see Table 9). None of the between-group analyses were statistically significant. Thus, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Table 9

Perception of Moral Agency of the Professor Group Mean

Experimental Condition	Number of Participants	Group Mean
Karen confronted Professor	55	6.727
Karen sought emotional support	50	6.640
Karen Filed a complaint	45	6.622
Karen did nothing	57	6.627

Note. N = 207.

Research Question 2

Does the response of the female victim of coercive SH affect bystanders' perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced harm, capacity for pain and experience of emotions, and vulnerability) of the victim?

$H_0 2$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does not affect bystanders' perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced harm, capacity for pain and experiencing emotions, and vulnerability) of the victim.

$H_a 2$: The response of the female victim of coercive SH does affect bystanders' perceptions of moral patiency (as measured by items for extent of experienced

harm, capacity for pain and experiencing emotions, and vulnerability) of the

victim.

Again, separate Kruskal-Wallis *h test*s were used to evaluate degree of between-

group differences for each of the four items related to bystanders' perceptions of moral

patiency (see Table 10). Once again, none of the between-group analyses were

statistically significant. Thus, the null hypothesis was not rejected for RQ2.

Table 10

Perception of Moral Patiency of the Victim Group Mean

Experimental Condition	Number of Participants	Group Mean
Karen confronted Professor	55	5.304
Karen sought emotional support	50	5.380
Karen Filed a complaint	45	5.338
Karen did nothing	57	5.469

Note. N = 207.

Research Question 3: Bystanders' Behavioral Intentions During the Incident

Does the response of the female victim to coercive SH affect bystanders'

intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured by items

describing three types of possible observer responses)?

$H_0$3: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does not affect bystanders'

intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured

by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

H_a3: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does affect bystanders'

intentions to help the victim from the perpetrator during the event (as measured

by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

Participants were asked to evaluate the likelihood of their engaging in three

different bystander responses while witnessing the coercive SH incident and one of the

four victim's responses. The bystander response options were presented with an 8-point

rating scale, with choices between 1 and 8. Table 11 summarizes descriptive statistics for

ratings on these three items. In addition, the descriptive statistics for the two items that

inquired about their fear of consequences for intervening also are presented.

Table 11

*Descriptive Statistics for Scores on Survey Items on Behavioral Intentions During
Incident and Fear of Consequences*

Scale/Items	Median (Mode)	Range of Ratings (1-8 possible)
Likelihood of Bystander Response During Incident		
Interrupt the interaction and make excuse to get Karen out of there	6.00 (8.00)	1 to 8
Tell Professor to stop what he is doing with Karen	5.00 (6.00[a])	1 to 8
I would be afraid to interrupt for fear of being frowned upon by Professor (reversed-coded)	5.00 (8.00)	1 to 8
Fear of Consequences for Action		
Afraid of negative consequences for me as a student	4.00 (1.00)	1 to 7
Afraid of making the situation worse.	5.00 (5.00)	1 to 7

Note. $N = 207$.

There only was one response choice while the incident was occurring that showed

statistically significant between-group differences based on the victim's response. This

was the choice to interrupt the Professor and make up an excuse to remove Karen ($H(3) =$ 7.841, $p = .048$; $N = 207$). *Post hoc* pairwise comparisons with Bonferroni correction showed a small effect size ($\eta^2 = .038$, Table 12), and there was a significant pairwise comparison difference between the conditions of Karen filing an official complaint and her confronting the Professor directly ($p = .043$). Pairwise comparisons of the items regarding fears of consequences of actions did not reach statistical significance. Thus, only the null hypothesis for the item to interrupt the Professor and get Karen out of there while the incident was going on was rejected.

Table 12

Results of Between-Group Comparisons for Each Bystander Response During Incident

Behavioral Response/ Victim Response Condition	Mean Rank	H-value	Sig.	eta^2
Interrupt the interaction and get Karen out		7.84	.043	.038
Karen confronted Professor	115.06			
Karen sought emotional support	107.17			
Karen filed a complaint	83.27			
Karen did nothing	106.91			

Note. N = 207.

Research Question 4: Bystanders' Behavioral Intentions After the Incident

Does the response of the female victim to coercive SH affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses)?

$H_0 4$: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does not affect bystanders' intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing three types of possible observer responses).

H_a4: The response of the female victim to coercive SH does affect bystanders'

intentions to help the victim after the event (as measured by items describing

three types of possible observer responses).

Using an 8-point rating scale (1 to 8), participants were asked to evaluate the

likelihood of their engaging in three different bystander responses after they have read

about the coercive SH incident and one of the four victim's responses. Table 13 presents

descriptive statistics for ratings on these three items. In addition, the descriptive statistics

for the two items, which inquired about their fear of consequences for intervening after

the incident was over, also are presented. All three behavioral intentions after the

incident-was-over showed significant between-group difference: Advise Karen to make a

formal complaint ($p < .001$), Inform Karen of Psychological Service Center ($p = .004$),

and Help Karen gather evidence against Professor ($p = .003$).

Table 13

Descriptive Statistics for Scores on Survey Items on Behavioral Intentions After Incident and Fear of Consequences

Scale/Items	Median (Mode)	Range of Ratings (1-8 possible)
Likelihood of Bystander Response After the Incident		
Advise Karen to make a formal complaint	7.00 (8.00)	1 to 8
Inform Karen of Psychological Services Center	7.00 (8.00)	1 to 8
Help Karen gather evidence against Professor	7.00 (8.00)	1 to 8
Fear of Consequences for Action		
Afraid of negative consequences for me as a student	3.00 (1.00)	1 to 7
Afraid of making the situation worse	3.00 (1.00)	1 to 7

Note. $N = 207$.

Results of the between-group comparisons for each of the behavioral intentions

are presented in Table 14. Both statistical significance level and effect size (Levine &

Hullett, 2002) are included.

Table 14

Results of Between-Group Comparisons for Each Bystander Response After Incident

Behavioral Response/ Victim Response Condition	Mean Rank	*H*-value	Sig.	eta^2
Advise Karen to make a formal complaint		17.74	< .001	.086
Karen confronted Professor	76.79			
Karen sought emotional support	111.31			
Karen filed a complaint	113.28			
Karen did nothing	116.52			
Inform Karen of Psychological Services Ctr.		13.16	.004	.064
Karen confronted Professor	80.41			
Karen sought emotional support	110.18			
Karen filed a complaint	109.11			
Karen did nothing	117.31			
Help Karen gather evidence against Professor		13.55	.003	.066
Karen confronted Professor	80.50			
Karen sought emotional support	106.36			
Karen filed a complaint	119.75			
Karen did nothing	112.17			

Note. N = 207.

Advise Karen to Make a Formal Complaint. There was a statistically

significant between-group difference as a function of Karen's response for likelihood of

advising Karen to make a formal complaint (*H*(3) = 17.741, *p* < .000; N=207). This item

produced the largest effect size (η^2 = .086) amongst other items (see Table 14) as the

difference among the four experimental conditions. As may be seen in Table 14, those in

the group where Karen confronted the Professor had a significantly lower mean rank (*M*

= 76.79) for this behavioral intent than each of the other three groups: Karen sought

emotional support, $M = 111.31$, $p = .010$; filed a complaint, $M = 113.28$, $p = .008$; did

nothing, $M = 116.52$, $p = .001$. Pairwise comparisons indicated that the other three groups

did not differ from each other on advising Karen to make a formal complaint.

 Inform Karen of Psychological Service Center. Again, there was a statistically

significant between-group difference in likelihood of this helping response with the

medium effect size ($H(3) = 13.161$, $p = .004$; N=207; $\eta^2 = .064$). The lowest mean rank

for this behavioral response was among those who learned that Karen confronted the

Professor ($M = 80.41$). This group generally was less likely to choose this kind of

bystander response than those in any of the other three groups. Pairwise comparison

showed that groups who read that Karen filed a complaint ($M = 109.11$) significantly

differed from the group who read that Karen sought emotional support ($M = 110.18$, $p =$

.05) and Karen did nothing ($M = 117.31$, $p = .004$). There were no other between-group

differences on the bystander willingness to inform Karen of Psychological Service

Center.

 Help Karen Gather Evidence Against Professor. Once again, there was a

statistically significant between-group difference with the medium effect size based on

Karen's response ($H(3) = 7.551$, $p = .003$; N=207; $\eta^2 = .066$). Those in the group where

Karen confronted the Professor were least likely to intend providing this kind of aid for

Karen after the event ($M = 80.50$), especially when compared with those who read that

Karen did nothing ($M = 112.17$, $p = .023$) or filed a complaint ($M = 119.76$, $p = .005$).

The group, which read that Karen sought emotional support ($M = 106.36$), did not differ

from any other group ($p = .135$ and $p = 1.00$) on observer's willingness to help Karen

gather evidence against the Professor.

Summary

There were no statistically significant results regarding observers' perception of

moral agency in the Professor and moral patiency in Karen between the four conditions

of SH victim's response. Regarding observers' behavioral intentions, there were less

differences in types of bystander responses while the incident was occurring than after

the incident was over across the four victim response conditions. While the incident was

occurring, there was one statistically significant outcome, interrupt the Professor and

remove Karen from the situation ($p = .048$). The small effect size was accounted by the

difference of observers' willingness to interrupt the Professor between the group where

they read that Karen filed an official complaint and the group where she openly

confronted him ($p = .043$). The example of open confrontation by the SH victim

increased the chance of bystander's interruption. By contrast, observers of coercive SH

showed considerable desire to assist Karen after the incident was over; the results were

trending toward higher effects, from the lowest eta^2 of .064 to the highest of .086 (see

Table 12). Again, victim's open confrontation reduced her chances on receiving help

after the coercive SH was over: The advice of formal complaint, getting information

about psychological support, and attracting peer support via formal witness statement

such as helping her to gather evidence. The between-group differences were statistically

significant but had low effect sizes. Chapter 5 offers discussion of these results and

considerations for implications and further research.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

Introduction

This study focused on the questions whether SH victim's responses affect social cognitive reactions and behavioral intentions of observers of coercive SH by a male professor of a female student. This area of research has social implications because it extends the understanding of factors that may or may not increase the likelihood of peer bystander helping behaviors. The more educators know about this, the more they inform those who develop and teach future antiharassment trainings for higher education institutions. The experiments were designed to extend the understanding of peer bystander cognitive and behavioral responses.

The study was experimental in that the descriptions of the response of the female victim of coercive SH by a male professor were systematically manipulated across four groups of randomly assigned college student participants. Because coercive SH is dyadic in nature and the moral typecasting concept has not been applied to the context of SH, TDM (Schein & Gray, 2017) guided the questions for this research. Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly's (2005) models of bystander intervention were adapted for the choices presented to this study's participants on behavioral intentions. The dependent variables that I measured included moral appraisal of male harasser (Professor Brooks) and the victim (female student Karen), as well as participants' intentions for possible behavioral choices. The Kruskal-Wallis test was conducted for each of the moral typecasting and social cognitive and behavior choices' items to address the research questions. Also, the effect size was calculated for each statistically significant finding.

The key finding showed that when the victim directly confronted the harasser, participants were more likely to help during the event as compared to their less likely help after the event. In addition, participants were more likely to help after the event overall. They were mostly willing to assist when the victim did nothing, or decided to file an official complaint, or sought emotional support. Exploration of moral typecasting phenomenon did not yield significant results as explained in more details later.

<div align="center">**Interpretation of Findings**</div>

Moral Typecasting

The first two research questions were exploratory in nature. Results did not indicate any between-group differences in moral typecasting of either the professor or the student by the participant observers. This finding is not consistent with predictions derived from the TDM regarding moral perceptions of the actor and the recipient of a moral action. Theoretically, the actor is evaluated with respect to moral agency, based on whether the behavior merits blame/praise, whether it was intentional, and whether the actor was in control and responsible. The recipient of moral action is evaluated on moral patiency to the degree that the victim in this study was viewed as vulnerable to harm, as well as capable of experiencing emotions and pain (Gray et al., 2014; Gray and Wegner, 2009). The theory of dyadic morality affirms that acts are susceptible to the intuitive perception of harm, negative affect, and violation of norms (Schein & Gray, 2017). If a social norm is violated, people would find the behavior harmful (Schein & Gray, 2017). If there is harm perceived, people would locate who is suffering and make an attribution of responsibility for the event (Gray & Wegner, 2010a).

What are some possible reasons that the behavior of the victim did not influence perceptions of the victim's relative patiency and, reciprocally, the perpetrator's agency? Previous studies on moral typecasting predicted reciprocal relationships in perception of the amount/extent of moral agency and moral patiency: if a person was perceived to have a larger amount of moral patiency, they were perceived to have a smaller amount of moral agency (Gray et al., 2014; Gray and Wegner, 2009).

One possibility is that presenting a situation of moderate coercive SH was more ambiguous than when severe coercive SH was presented (Heretick & Learn, 2020). Perhaps social norms regarding moderate coercive SH are less clear in academic setting and/or were not perceived homogeneously by study participants. Also, the lower internal reliability for the scales used to evaluate moral agency of the perpetrator and moral patiency of the victim in this study might suggest that these scales were not truly representative of the processes. Further analyses of single items also did not reflect moral typecasting between-group differences.

In addition, the perpetrator's blameworthiness that supports moral typecasting is related to the perception of causality by observers of SH. The finding regarding moral typecasting could be due to misattribution of causality between the actions and interpretation of harm done to Karen. For example, Pizarro et al. (2003) found that when a causal chain of a moral action is changed, the cause for the outcome may be attributed to a different event. In this study, Karen's responses may have presented an opportunity for bystanders who read the written vignette about coercive SH to observe an unexpected outcome (Tenbrunsel et al., 2019), such as Karen confronting the harasser or filing an

official complaint against him. In some studies (Herrera et al., 2014, 2017), men evaluated female victims of SH, who rejected their harassers, negatively, and women-observers also foresaw this reaction of men. On the other hand, women evaluated a passive female victim of SH negatively until they came to better understanding of harm to the victim (Diekmann et al., 2013). However, the samples in Diekmann et al. (2013) and Herrera et al.'s (2014, 2017) studies were from different cultural backgrounds. Diekmann et al. (2013) had undergraduate female students and women from online pool of United States in their studies. Herrera et al. (2014, 2017) recruited college students of Spain in their research. Were participants of this study thinking of norms or making own moral judgments, or both? Expectation of justice is based on social norms and legal knowledge while individual perception of fairness is intuitive and personal (Murphy et al., 2009; Gray et al., 2014); there could be also an intersect or conflict between facts and personal values (Holtz & Harold, 2013).

Benavides-Espinoza and Cunningham (2010) and others (Gray et al., 2012; Gray et al., 2014; Gray & Wegner, 2009, 2012) pointed out that the instantaneous perception of harm and injustice is subjective. There is a possibility that the questions applied to the measurement of moral typecasting have not quiet reflected the way study participants may have perceived the harm done to Karen. As there was no physical harm to Karen, the questions may have been too abstract to understand her *social pain* (Chenji & Sode, 2019), such as possible social exclusion of the victim from the academic context by the Professor's sexual objectification. In addition, sexual objectification by the Professor Brooks may have lessened the perception of Karen's suffering in the mind of observers.

Objectified victims of sexual assault were not deserving of bystanders' moral concern in previous research (Loughnan et al., 2013). Professorship is still a largely male territory, and unfortunately, shortage of women in workplace showed the increased likability of gender harassment (Tenbrunselet al., 2019). The moderate severity coercive SH vignette reflected one of most likely beginnings of showing the victim her 'gender-appropriate' place (Kabat-Farr & Cortina, 2014).

It is likely that findings could be different if more severe coercive SH had been described: severity of SH influences bystanders' cognitive responses and behavioral intentions significantly (Heretick & Learn, 2020). A comparison of the impact of the severity of the SH could help to clarify relative differences in how exactly the moral typecasting phenomenon operates in the SH context. For example, were my findings based on the action of the professor, which constitutes moderate SH, related to more ambiguity concerning the recognition and/or risks of moderate coercive SH when compared with severe coercive SH? Reduction of ambiguity of cognitive variables eases bystanders' appraisal of SH situations (Banyard, 2011).

Bystander Behavioral Intentions

Bystander Willingness to Intervene During the Coercive SH Event

In the third research question, the Kruskal-Wallis *h test* showed a significant statistical between-group difference for the behavioral option to interrupt the situation and get Karen out of there while the incident was occurring ($H(3) = 7.841$, $p = .048$; $N = 207$, $\eta^2 = .038$). Observers were significantly more likely to intervene during the incident where Karen directly confronted her harasser and told him to stop than in the condition

when she later filed an official complaint (p = .043). The conditions of Karen doing nothing, seeking emotional support, and confronting the Professor directly were not differentiated on this behavioral item.

Interestingly, the confrontational response is the rarest amongst female SH victims (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Wasti & Cortina, 2002; Scarduzio et al., 2018). However, my results suggest that the victim's own modeling of direct intervention may have inspired observers towards this option during the incident. Further, the observer's active response could reduce the ambiguity of the situation: the victim's confrontational response may have helped to clarify observers' emotions toward the harasser, sense of personal responsibility, and courage to violate unethical norms, which may explain their willingness to interrupt the Professor. Indeed, if the victim was proactively dealing with the coercion, the observer may have felt less threat of negative consequences for acting on behalf of the victim (Heretick & Learn, 2020). However, in my study, overall significant between-group differences in ratings for fear of negative consequences were absent. Another possibility is that knowing that the victim would be filing an official complaint may have been an excuse not to do anything: that is, if the victim was going to take care of it later using other agents, there was no need to help her.

In general, Heretick and Learn (2020) found that fears of negative consequences were higher among bystander witnesses in the moderate, versus severe, coercive SH condition. Perhaps that remained a consistent factor here, without regard for the victim's response to that situation. Also, this study did not examine fear in relation to organizational climate regarding formal and informal norms on sexual harassment. Future

research may shed the light on whether bystanders' fear is related to the victim's response, the harasser, and/or organizational climate in moderate level coercive SH situations. Did observers place responsibility of helping on the institution because of the victim's decision? Observers' withdrawal of interventions could be related to the perceived role of organization (educational institution), particularly, the institutional message toward bystander intervention that assumes organizational responsibility and outcomes of complaint (Banyard et al., 2019; Bennett et al., 2014; Smith & Freyd, 2014). Amongst different types of policies regulating SH events in organizations, undergraduate students have chosen to report moderate severity SH when there was an organizational zero-tolerance policy, rather than in the more standard or no policy condition (Jacobson & Eaton, 2018).

Bystander Willingness to Intervene After the Coercive SH Event

In the fourth research question, for intentions regarding helping behaviors after the incident was over, the data analysis demonstrated significant between-group differences for each behavioral intention item. The results showed the following effects: advising Karen to make a formal complaint ($\eta^2 = .086$), helping Karen gather evidence against Professor ($\eta^2 = .066$), and inform Karen of Psychological Service Center ($\eta^2 = .064$).

It is interesting to note that when the victim directly confronted the perpetrator, observers were most likely to interrupt during the event, but were least likely to offer help to her after the incident was over. The most obvious reason for this may be that the bystanders felt that the victim was able to take care of herself, not really needing any

assistance. They may have perceived her as being agentic and experiencing less harm

from the incident (Pizarro et al., 2003; Tenbrunsel et al., 2019). In the cases of less direct

responses by the victim to the perpetrator, observers may have thought they could help in

a more consequential manner (Suter & Hertwig, 2011) after the incident was over by

advising Karen to make a formal complaint, informing her of psychological services,

and/or collecting evidence against the harasser, responses that then relied on the

efficiency of an organization to carry out supportive responsibilities to the victim

(Banyard et al., 2019; Bennett et al., 2014; Jacobson & Eaton, 2018). These findings

extend previous research on bystander behavior in cases of coercive SH in academia

(Cantalupo & Kidder, 2018; Clarke, 2014) and in workplace settings (Hellemans et al.,

2017). Victim's direct confrontation of the harassing Professor dramatically reduced her

chances of continuing peer support in this study; this may be one of the reasons that quid

pro quo or coercive SH in colleges tends to become serial and involve multiple victims

(Tenbrunsel et al., 2018).

On another note, social helping situations bring awareness of social norms in

bystanders and their sense of responsibility toward others (Heretick & Learn, 2020). Did

the confrontational victim violate gender role expectations, making Karen less deserving

of help after the incident than the victim who did nothing, or sought emotional support, or

filed an official complaint? Consistent with a female gender role, Karen's response of

doing nothing and trying to forget about the incident, the most frequently used victims'

responses in literature (Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Wasti & Cortina, 2002; Scarduzio et al.,

2018), evoked observers' motivation to offer all three types of help, suggesting

psychological services, gathering evidence against the harasser, and advising to file an official complaint. In research by Diekmann et al. (2013), initially, female peers socially rejected a female victim of coercive SH who was not active in self-defense but when they thought of similar personal situations, they became more sympathetic to her. Speculatively, during this study, observers exhibited sensitivity to Karen's psychological state of vulnerability as in Diekmann et al. (2013).

Limitations to the Study

As discussed in Chapter 1, students have been recruited from the research pool of Prolific Academic company to take a part in this study. The specific group may not have been representative of the general populations of graduate students. It is not known how student's personal experience of SH in academic setting resonated with the written vignette and female victim's responses to the coercive SH. Therefore, sample bias was possible to occur even when random assignment to conditions has been used like in this research. The sample size was sufficient to answer research questions; however, possible selection bias limits generalization of findings (Clifford & Jerit, 2014). In experimental research, reduction of bias in sampling occurs via checking the similarity between the study's sample and the targeted population, examination for the inclusiveness of the sample's important units, for example, graduate students in the instance of coercive SH, and inclusion of all confound variables (Clifford & Jerit, 2014). Some sampling bias may have also affected internal reliability of moral agency and moral patiency scales.

Limitations to generalization of findings also apply to the results received on the moral typecasting construct applied to the coercive SH context. This part of study was

exploratory in nature due to the relative newness of the TDM theory and absence of its previous application to SH situations. The specific issue was less than acceptable internal reliability of the moral typecasting subscales. This first attempt to use moral typecasting measuring items brought to light more complex structure of bystander perception of moral agency and moral patiency when applied to coercive SH situation. Therefore, lack of statistically significant results regarding moral intuition needs to be interpreted with caution.

Moral appraisal is the part of social cognition (Happé et al., 2017) and is imbedded in many social desirability scales. For example, Paulhus' (1998) social desirability scale measures two dimensions, Self-Deceptive Enhancement (SDE) and Impression Management (IM) in application to oneself or own appearance to others (Lambert et al., 2016). Also, Stöber's social desirability scale (SDS-17, 1999) measures similar tendency and includes self-appraisal (Tatman & Kreamer, 2014). It is possible that bystanders' willingness to intervene was susceptible to social desirability bias. However, because this study inquired participants about moral intuitions, the participants' social cognition could have been affected by social desirability scale items or the items could have been affected by moral typecasting questions. I have made the decision of conducting the research without desirability scales. In addition, current study was interested in social cognition itself, regardless of whether respondents managed their impressions or were aware of their social cognition. On the other hand, bystanders' fear of consequences has been measured to see how the fear could have counterbalanced bystanders' willingness to intervene.

Research on sensitive social topics is rightfully constrained by ethical requirements of ensuring that benefits of the studies exceed the risks (APA, 2017). A written vignette of coercive SH substituted a real occurrence of the situation in this study to avoid possible harming effects on the study participants. There could be difference between the effect on observers produced from their reading or from their watching the situation. Study participants rated written scenarios of dating aggression as more severe than video vignettes in contemporary research (Plackowski et al., 2020). For this study, victim's responses to SH have been constructed based on previous research (Clancy et al., 2014; Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Diekmann et al., 2013; Knapp, 2016; Scarduzio et al., 2018) and shortened to ease observers' participation in online survey. Real-life victims may have responded in a more differentiated manner. Therefore, this study's participants have observed a limited number of the possible victim's responses to coercive SH. The amount of their willingness to intervene was restricted to only four of victim's responses presented in this study.

The dependent measure of bystander wiliness to intervene were adapted from Hellemans et al. (2017) and Heretick & Learn (2020) studies to fit the coercive SH context. The items of bystander responding while the incident was still occurring were successfully used in application to the coercive SH in academic setting (Heretick & Learn, 2020). Research on bullying at workplace in relation to bystander self-efficacy and fear of intervention showed a relative effectiveness of participants' responding after the incident (Hellemans et al., 2017). The results on observers' willingness to intervene may be interpreted with relative accuracy. Some limitations may arise from the lack of normal

distribution of scores on each behavioral intention; however, the scope of this study was to examine the amount of the effect that victim's response produced on observers' desire to intervene. Previous research indicated that bystander fear of intervening either due to their fear for the victim or lower self-efficacy, or due to the fear of retaliation from the harasser, and ineffectiveness of institutional investigation lowered the chances for the victims to be helped (Hellemans et al., 2017).

This study used fear of intervention questions to approximate the extent of fear of intervention depending on the victim's responses. However, there were no statistically significant differences between four experimental conditions on this variable. This could be interpreted as the lack of evidence that fear was dependent on the victim's response. Previously, bystander fear for making the situation for the victim worse and fear of negative consequences for oneself was greater in the moderate than high severity of coercive SH in response to the situation alone (Heretick & Learn, 2020). Research on bullying at workplace demonstrated acceptable Cronbach's alpha of .83 of fear of intervention items; also, bystander behavioral intention variables were independent from each other (Hellemans et al., 2017, p. 138). Time constraints precluded the expansion of possible research questions for this study. This study indicates that there was fear of interventions amongst study participants even though, it was not dependent on the victim's response to the coercive SH vignette. Therefore, the received statistically significant results on the observers' willingness to intervene may be curtailed by their fear of interventions (Heretick & Learn, 2020). On the other hand, lack of normal distribution of fear variables showed that not all observers were afraid; other studies

showed that observers could overcome their fear when they will to respond courageously (Goodwin et al., 2020).

Recommendations

This study examined the effect of the female victim's response to moderate coercive SH by a male college Professor on observers' processes of moral typecasting and willingness to intervene during and after the incident as the function of victim's responses. Study participants read the same vignette that was presented with modification of one of the four victim responses to the coercive SH.

In terms of moral typecasting, a key problem for this research was the questionable internal reliability of the items developed for each of the subscales (moral agency and moral patiency) that were based on previous work by Gray and Wegner (2009) and Gray et al. (2014). To date, there is no uniformed measure to measure these constructs in SH situations. One recommendation for future research would be a focus on developing such an instrument that would have acceptable internal reliability and validity. Until that is achieved, research on moral typecasting for coercive SH dyadic interactions may be limited. On another note, further research may clarify perception of badness versus victimhood in relation to gender role stereotypes and sexist's attitudes and, therefore, differentiate social groups by their consensus on harm done to the victim of coercive SH. Also, there could be a need for enhancing experimental manipulation when conducting research online. Finally, examination of the way study participants understand causality of harm in moderate SH situations would also add to understanding of moral typecasting mechanism using experimental vignettes.

The general description of the moderate coercive SH between the professor and the student has been used successfully in previous research on cognitive, emotional, and behavioral responses, including harm done to Karen and differential emotional reactions to the professor and the victim (Heretick & Learn, 2010). However, emotional reactions have not been examined in this study. Inclusion of emotional reactions in further research would bring additional insight into observers' social cognitive perception of the perpetrator and victim of coercive SH.

Varying vignette composition may be another opportunity for future research. Experimental designs pursue high internal validity but at the account of generalizability of findings. Also, experimental vignette methods (EVM) were deemed helpful for testing causal relationships in contexts that carry otherwise difficult ethical demands (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). My vignette then introduced information about the reaction of the victim as an additional component. It is possible that some of victim's responses changed observers' perception of causality of harm and, therefore, interrupted moral appraisals of study participants (Pizarro et al., 2003). It is conceivable that in some cases victim's response modified the initial moral perception of the actors. Also, each SH victim's response may have introduced a cognitive link to either or both gender stereotypes and organizational norms regarding harassment. Future research may want to vary presentation location and/or format for introducing the information about the victim's response to the SH.

Results indicated that during the coercive SH incident, bystanders only were willing to interrupt and remove the victim using an excuse when the victim directly

confronted the harasser to stop. By contrast, behavioral intentions for the confrontational victim were lowest for this condition after the event while the victim, who was described as filing an official complaint, received the highest post-incident support. Further exploration is warranted of the processes related to these results.

Further research is recommended into individual differences in perceptions and motivations of bystanders as the result of the victims' responses, including more active victims who either confront during the incident or file an official complaint after the incident. For example, one factor would be observed self-efficacy of the bystander for various types of behavioral helping responses (e.g., Krieger et al., 2017; Levine, & Crowther, 2008; McMahon et al., 2015) in relation to this type of faculty-student coercive SH harassment. There is the need to examine social consensus of participants' subgroups, separated by their beliefs on supporting gender harassment (Karami et al., 2020; Leskinen & Cortina, 2014) and by gender stereotypical behaviors (Dresden et al., 2018; Heilman & Wallen, 2010,) on understanding of harm to capture the mechanism of moral typecasting. Other individual factors to explore could include bystander embarassability (Thornberg & Jungert, 2013; Zoccola et al., 2011), experience of previous incivility (Chui & Dietz, 2014), and current social status (Clancy et al., 2014; McLaughlin et al., 2012; Mellon, 2013) to evaluate their possible influences as mediators or moderators for typecasting and behavioral intentions to intervene in response to different victim's behavior. Further exploration may also be given to better understand these kinds of subgroup and individual factors so they can be taken into consideration to inform educators who create

institutional training for students and faculty pursuing elimination of coercive SH in higher education.

This study explored a relatively new construct of moral typecasting from the theory of dyadic morality (Schein & Gray, 2017) in the context of coercive sexual harassment. This theory presents many possibilities for conceptualizing dyadic interactions that involve coercive SH. Continued work is needed to explore specific factors involved in moral typecasting for SH situations.

Implications

Coercive SH of female students is a pervasive issue in academic setting that causes harm, impairs students' academic motivation and achievement, and generates significant court costs for academic institutions (Clancy et al., 2014; Kuchynka et al., 2018; Smith & Freyd, 2014; Rosenthal et al., 2016). Understanding of bystander perception of female victim's responses to such harassment is necessary from ethical perspective and from the perspective of the knowledge how it affects the bystanders' willingness to help. The findings of this study corroborate with previous research results on the effect of the SH victim's behavior on bystander willingness to intervene (Diekmann et al., 2013). In detail, observers of the coercive SH vignette were more interventional after than during the event. The contrasting finding that confrontational victim deserved their intervention during the coercive SH situation but not after is a valuable information. These results inform the victims of coercive SH that when bystanders are present, taking the risk of direct confrontation of the harassing professor has higher chance of getting peer support immediately but not after the event. On the

other hand, victims' knowledge that peers are more likely to support them after the harassment situation has ended could bring them stress reduction and reassurance that they do not have to fight the harassing professor alone, or for that matter, avoid social interactions with peers. Their peers are ready to assist.

Lack of statistical significance regarding moral perceptions of the harasser and the victim points to a complexity of bystander belief systems, social stereotypes, and perception of victim's social pain in relation to coercive SH. The lack of result informs a scientific community of the potential insight into social cognitive processes behind the willingness to intervene of observers. Increasing internal consistency of moral typecasting items would allow to investigate how bystander moral perception of behavior by both perpetrator and victim during coercive SH gives the information, which restricts or enhances their help. On another note, development of the new instrument that would measure moral typecasting in coercive SH situations may involve standardization by each relevant group.

Meanwhile, it is important to monitor real-world changes in how coercive SH evolves and modifies and, therefore, it would be desirable to change written vignettes to match real world and academic setting's situations. A written vignette of coercive SH was relevant for causal relationship research in this study and can be further used for examining direct and indirect witnesses' intentions to help, their social cognitive interpretations, and attribution of responsibility for the incident to organization. Nonparametric statistical tests like Kruskal-Wallis can detect statistically significant effect on dependent variables and the effect size. Observers reported their willingness to

intervene, which was depended on the victim's response, with relative accuracy. When designing studies, researchers should take possible victims' responses into consideration. Social normalization of the behavior exhibited by victims is important for generating proper understanding of their situation.

Provision of a safe educational environment is dependent on the organizational willingness to stop coercive SH. Educational organizations may benefit from this study by including knowledge of how bystanders may respond to the situations into the institutional training against SH for students and faculty. Educational employees may engage in meaningful conversations with each other about harm caused by coercive SH to the victims, student witnesses, and educational institutions and culture. It is my hope that this study contributes to reducing institutional tolerance to violence, particularly to coercive SH, that has far reaching consequences of perverting public perception of college education. Responses of student participants to the coercive SH situation in this research clearly demonstrated that they would like to have ability to help against the corrupted behavior of the Professor.

Developers of the effective programs that inform and train college students on how to respond to the coercive SH may use the results of this study; that is in addition to the peer-on-peer sexual assault programs. The interpersonal fear of consequences after possible interventions is greater in bystanders observing moderate severity coercive SH (Heretick & Learn, 2020). Therefore, program developers may consider specific training components that are relevant more to this severity than to the higher severity situations of SH. The situation of no-win position for the female victim of coercive SH must change.

This research showed that student peers are willing to support the female victim in seeking psychological services, collecting evidence against the perpetrator, and filing an official complaint. These actions need contingency of the institutional structure that is organized and equipped to carry further actions in terms of placing responsibility for the harassment, protecting the victim in the way that is signaling safety rather than cost to her, and creating preventative measures.

Finally, this research revealed that the nature of application of the theory of dyadic morality (TDM, Schein, & Gray, 2017) to the dyadic coercive SH requires more deliberation and details, particularly, perception of harm done to the victim and causality attributed to the harasser and/or the organization. Gray at al. (2014) and Gray and Keeney (2015) showed the effect of moral typecasting on many other moral transgressions; however, political affiliation influenced what was deemed moral. The goal for selecting moral typecasting concept was exploration of social cognition as the function of the victim's responses to coercive SH. Peer responses to coercive SH are important for multiple reasons: immediate separation from the harasser (Heretick & Learn, 2020), emotional and informational support (Diekmann et al., 2013; Rosenthal et al., 2016), attraction of institutional protection (Hellemans et al., 2017), and change of educational culture (Jozkowski & Wiersma-Mosley, 2017). Application of the Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly's (2005) model showed informative results when observers of coercive SH responded accounting for the victim's behavior. This was the main goal of using their model of bystander response to SH. This study adds to understanding of factors affecting

bystander willingness to help that have been brought from different fields of scientific interests, moral intuition, aggression, bullying, and sexual harassment.

Conclusion

Continuously arising cases of coercive SH in higher education, *MeToo* movement, underuse of the U. S. EEOC and the U. S. Department of Education and Office of Civil Rights guidance on preventing and investigating of coercive SH in educational setting, and lack of educational programs that address specifically the coercive SH against women, perpetuate gender inequality in American university culture. Yet, women avoided attracting institutional channels for their protection anticipating negative and/or harmful results but hoped for support from their peers. This research attempted to move forward with the positive social change by examining how victim's response to coercive SH informs peer observers in terms of their moral intuition and their willingness to intervene during and after the incident. The outcomes uncovered interesting puzzle that the observers of coercive SH were willing to interrupt the harasser and get the victim, who has directly confronted him and told him to stop, out of the situation while the incident was still occurring. However, they were not willing to offer any of post-situational help (advise of formal complaint or psychological services or gather evidence against the Professor) to the directly confrontational victim. The result that more help from peers was available to the victim after the coercive SH was over is inspiring by the fact of anticipation of peer support for the female SH victim. Gender-conforming female victim's responses like doing nothing, seeking emotional support, and filing an official complaint, also elicited willingness to help from peer observers. Exploration of moral

typecasting process fell short and did not show significant results that would demonstrate the effect of different types of victim's response. The ideas of bystander intentions to intervene and moral intuition catalyze further exploration and experimental testing in relation to individual bystander factors and cultural subgroups. This is to energize multiple future studies and to forward and nurture positive social change in educational organizations.

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Appendix A: The Screening Questionnaire

The Screening Questionnaire

Thank you for your interest in this study. Before we proceed, please answer all of the following questions to verify eligibility:

- Are you 21 years of age or older at this time? ___ No ___ Yes
- Are you fluent in English? ___ No ____ Yes
- Are you *currently* a student at a college or university in the United States?
  ___ Yes ___ No
- Do you attend most of your classes/work meetings on campus (rather than online)? ___ No ___ Yes

(If individual answers "No" to any of the above, survey will forward to a Thank you/Exit page. Otherwise, individual will be forwarded to the survey page that presents the Informed Consent Form.)

Appendix B: The Demographic Questionnaire

Section I. Demographics Questions

Tell us something about yourself:

Your age in years _____

Your Self-Identified Gender (select one): ____Female _____Male _____Other

Race/Ethnicity (select one):

___ European American ___ African American ___ Native American

___ Non-White Hispanic/Latino/a ___ Asian/Pacific Islander American

___ Middle Eastern American ____ Multi-Racial American

___ Not American (Please self-describe in space provided): _____

Enrollment Status (typical for you): ____Part-time ____ Full-time

Activities as part of your studies (check all that apply):

____Classes/courses

____ Independent research/other project with individual faculty member

____ Off-campus field placement/training as part of degree activities

Stage of Study: _____In 2-year undergraduate degree program:

Current year in 2-year program _____

_____In 4-year undergraduate degree program:

Current year in 4-year program ____

_____In graduate master's degree program:

Current year in master's program ____

____ In doctoral degree program:

Current year in doctoral program ____

Major/degree program (e.g., English, social work, MBA)

_____

What proportion of your classes do you usually complete on campus (face-to-face) and/or online?

On-campus, face-to-face interactions with instructors, staff, and other students:

___0% ___ Less than 25% ___ 25%-50% ____ 50% to 75% ____ more than 75%

Online, without face-to-face interactions with instructors, staff, and other students:

___0% ___ Less than 25% ___ 25%-50% ____ 50% to 75% ____ more than 75%

(Answers for these two items should roughly add up to 100%)

What proportion of your degree activities have involved off-campus field placements (e.g., practicum or internship placements)?

___0% ___ Less than 25% ___ 25%-50% ____ 50% to 75% ____ more than 75%