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The Effects of Persuasive Communication on Knowledge and Attitudinal Outcomes of a Sexual Harassment Training Program

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The Effects of Persuasive Communication on Knowledge and Attitudinal Outcomes of a Sexual Harassment Training Program

The Effects of Persuasive Communication on Knowledge and Attitudinal Outcomes of a Sexual Harassment Training Program

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy in Psychology

by

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ABSTRACT

Sexual harassment has been recognized as a prevalent issue leading to multiple negative consequences for victims and perpetrators. Efforts to reduce its occurrence and increase awareness are important. The majority of sexual harassment prevention programs evaluated have used knowledge-enhancing techniques in order to combat sexual harassment; however, results have not yielded a decrease in sexual harassment supportive attitudes. This study examined the effects of a sexual harassment training program that incorporated aspects of the elaboration likelihood model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) via manipulation of argument strength and source expertise. A pretest established participants' sexual harassment policy knowledge and attitudes. One hundred and fifty four participants were randomly assigned to view one of four training videos where the strength of the arguments (weak/strong) and source expertise (non-expert/expert) were manipulated. Participants then completed a posttest of sexual harassment policy knowledge and attitudes. Participants also listed arguments against sexual harassment recalled from the training video and indicated their level of motivation to attend to the video, ability to understand the information presented in the video, and their favorable thoughts regarding the video's content. Results suggest that all participants evidenced an increase in knowledge of university sexual harassment policies from pretest to posttest but changes in attitude were not significant. Participants who viewed weak arguments from a non-expert source evidenced greater recall of arguments presented in training videos compared to all other training videos. Women evidenced less supportive attitudes towards sexual harassment and more motivation to attend to and process the information presented in the videos compared to men. This study provided data on the applicability

of the elaboration likelihood model to sexual harassment training programs, supporting previous research findings that training can enhance sexual harassment knowledge and immediate recall of information learned. The sexual harassment training program implemented in this study successfully enhanced sexual harassment policy knowledge in men and women, using experts and non-expert sources, conveying general and detailed information on the policies. However, the training program was not successful at changing participants' attitudes towards sexual harassment. Interpretations and implications of the results, as well as future directions and limitations, are discussed.

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I.   INTRODUCTION

Sexual harassment is a persistent and prevalent issue. According to the United States Equal

Employment Opportunities Commission (EEOC, 2011), 11,364 sexual harassment grievances

were filed in 2011. There are significant gender differences in victimization rates of sexual

harassment, with women filing 83.7% of total grievances.

Sexual harassment has been studied in various contexts. Traditionally many studies have

focused on sexual harassment within the workplace environment (Chiodo, Wolfe, Crooks,

Hughes, & Jafee, 2009; EEOC, 2011; Rederstorff, Buchanan, & Settles, 2007).   However,

research has revealed an increase in the incidence of sexual victimization and harassment in

academic settings (Koss, Gidycz, & Wisniewski, 1987). Sexual harassment and assault remain

pervasive on college campuses, negatively impacting students' lives and school performance

(Cortina, Swan, Fitzgerald, & Waldo, 1998; Hippensteele, Chesney-Lind, & Veniegas, 1996).

According to Cortina et al. (1998), approximately 50% of women experience some form

of sexual harassment from university faculty. Further, approximately 40% of undergraduate and

graduate women experience sexual harassment their first year on campus, with 60% of

undergraduate women and over 70% of graduate women beyond their first year experiencing

some form of sexual harassment. Unfortunately, only 20-25% of victims label the behaviors

experienced as sexually harassing, which may suggest that college students do not accurately

identify sexually harassing behavior (Cortina et al., 1998).   Further, over 50% of sexual

harassment victims identify more than one harasser, suggesting that multiple incidents are more

common than isolated incidents (Cortina et al., 1998).

An assessment of sexual harassment prevalence and experiences at a mid-southern state

university conducted by the author revealed approximately 9% of men and 18% of women

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reported experiencing "sexual harassment". However, when questions specifying certain behaviors that could be considered sexual harassment were asked, approximately 92% of men and women endorsed experiencing some form of gender harassment (i.e., they had experienced inappropriate jokes or comments directed at their gender), 83% of men and 87% of women endorsed experiencing unwanted sexual attention (i.e., inappropriate staring, discussion of personal or sexual information), and 13% of men and 37% of women endorsed experiencing sexual coercion (i.e., bribery or special treatment for sexual behavior, treated poorly for refusal to engage in sex). Thus, although only 9% of men and 18% of women reported they had personally experienced sexual harassment, results of the behavior-specific questions that did not label these behaviors as sexual harassment suggested that a majority of undergraduate students experience a variety of sexually harassing behavior, from subtle to more severe forms.

There are numerous negative consequences to sexual harassment, both for victims and academic institutions. Victims of sexual harassment in academic institutions report experiencing more depression, fear, anxiety, crying, reduced productivity, missed classes, weight loss, and insomnia as compared to non-victims (Fitzgerald, Weitzman, Gold, & Ormerod, 1988; Hippensteele et al., 1996). Experiences with sexual harassment are also associated with negative perceptions of the universities' abilities to protect victims, with fewer than 5% of harassed students reporting their experiences to university officials (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Hippensteele et al., 1996).

A negative relation between experiences of sexual harassment in academic institutions and psychological well-being has been consistently replicated and supported in the literature. Sexual harassment victims are more likely to endorse concentration difficulties, decreased self-confidence, and withdrawal from school (Benson & Thompson, 1982; Reilly, Lott, & Gallogly,

1986), as well as feeling less respect, less acceptance, unfair treatment on campus, and isolation (Cortina et al., 1998). In a study of women's experiences of sexual harassment, victims reported symptoms such as anxiety, depression, paranoid ideation, loneliness, fear, and posttraumatic stress (Rederstorff et al., 2007).

Sexual harassment victims who file complaints may experience backlash and continuous harassment from the perpetrator, despite an institution's policies against retaliation. Victims may continue to experience barriers to reporting incidents of sexual harassment, such as lack of confidentiality and protection for the victim, continuous propositions, threats, or consequences for trying to stop the harassment or filing a complaint, or even difficulty distinguishing what behaviors are considered sexually harassing and worth pursuing action against (Vijayasiri, 2008).

Sexual harassment impairs both individual and environmental functioning, becoming an important problem in various settings (Begany & Milburn, 2002; Glomb, Munson, Hulin, Bergman, & Drasgow, 1999; Krings & Facchin, 2009). The environments in which sexually harassing behaviors occur are often characterized by an increased tolerance of these behaviors. An environment that tolerates sexual harassment, perhaps by not having sexual harassment policies in place or not enforcing such policies, may send the unintended message that sexual harassment is permissible or acceptable. Research has suggested that in environments that do not enforce sexual harassment policies, and therefore may implicitly tolerate such behaviors, people are more likely to experience sexual harassment offenses than people in environments with clearly stated and consistently enforced anti-harassment policies (Begany & Milburn, 2002; Glomb et al., 1999; Krings & Facchin, 2009). Individuals' recognition of organizational tolerance of sexual harassment is likely to reduce the effectiveness of, and perhaps motivation to complete, sexual harassment training. Institutions that support and encourage the

implementation of training programs increase motivation to implement learned skills into their professional behavior (Tannenbaum, Cannon-Bowers, Salas, & Mathieu, 1993).

II. SEXUAL HARASSMENT DEFINITIONS AND LAW

A consistent operational definition of sexual harassment has yet to be agreed upon within the literature. The Equal Employment Opportunities Commission, or EEOC, states:

> "unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when (1) submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment, (2) submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting such individual, or (3) such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment," (1980, p. 198).

Although this definition has its limitations (e.g., it defines sexual harassment only in terms of behaviors occurring in a work environment and does not capture behaviors that may occur in other public settings), committing sexual harassment, as defined above, is viewed as a violation of federal law under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act; thus, many United States companies adopt and follow this definition of sexual harassment (Croney & Kleiner, 1995). Further, the Office of Civil Rights oversees Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972; therefore many educational institutions adopt the EEOC definition of sexual harassment and employ sexual harassment policies surrounding this definition.

Numerous events have provided a clear understanding of the need for sexual harassment prevention programs in organizational, educational, and workplace settings. The United States Department of Education and the Office of Civil Rights strive to protect students from all forms of discrimination. The Education Amendments of 1972 enacted Title IX (20 U.S.C. §§ 1681 *et seq*.), a federal law that prohibits sexual harassment in schools and educational settings that receive or benefit from federal funding. Title IX requires educational institutions to maintain

and distribute policies against sex discrimination, directly addressing the issue of sexual harassment. Further, grievance procedures must be in place and accessible to students and faculty and an individual must be appointed by the academic institution to coordinate and ensure Title IX compliance. Title IX also protects individuals from intimidation, retaliation, and coercion after a complaint has been filed. Sexual harassment prevention training in educational settings is not required or mandated by Title IX, but is strongly encouraged.

Educational institutions that are regulated by Title IX have a duty to protect students who are victimized on or off-campus either by faculty, staff, or other students. Students who experience sexual harassment in an educational institution's programs and activities, such as extracurricular activities, athletics, volunteer groups, school facilities, or even school transportation, are fully protected by Title IX. If a school becomes aware of student harassment, the school is required to take immediate action to protect the student from further harassing behavior and to maintain a safe educational environment.

If a victim requests confidentiality or decides not to pursue an investigation, the school is nevertheless required to follow through with the request, documenting the occurrence of the harassment. However, if confidentiality is requested, a school may consider pursuing an investigation further, while maintaining confidentiality, in order to provide a safe academic environment by assessing the seriousness of the harassment, the ages of parties involved, and whether additional complaints have been filed against the same harasser.

In terms of sexual harassment law, the courts have defined two forms of sexual harassment: quid pro quo and hostile environment. Quid pro quo sexual harassment is defined as "submission to or rejection of [unwelcome sexual] conduct by an individual [and] is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting such individual" (EEOC, 2009, p. 2). Hostile

environment harassment occurs in situations that "relate to the workplace environment and …

consists of such things as sexually explicit photos or telling sexual stories or making lewd

suggestions – actions that are "unwelcomed" by the person contemplating" (Mulligan & Foy,

2003, p. 26). The individual is a victim, in this instance, due to discrimination because the

unwanted sexual attention, or even gender harassment (i.e., negative comments directed at one's

gender), creates an environment that is hostile and can interfere with the individual's

functioning.

III.   EFFICACY OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT PREVENTION PROGRAMS

Although research has identified the negative consequences of sexual harassment across

multiple settings, there is little research assessing the efficacy of sexual harassment prevention

training programs. Thankfully, research on general principles, guidelines, and recommendations

in relation to training efficacy has steadily increased (Salas & Cannon-Bowers, 2001). More

specifically, researchers have gained more knowledge on factors and components found to

consistently impact training efficacy. What follows is a review of the content and efficacy of

sexual harassment prevention programs, as well as more general information about how training

programs may increase their impact.

Due to numerous federal, state, and small court decisions, as well as strict guidelines

issued by the EEOC, sexual harassment training has become an essential component of sexual

harassment prevention (Robinson, Jackson, Franklin, & Hensley, 1998). Unfortunately, minimal

research has been conducted within the domain of sexual harassment prevention program

efficacy, particularly within academic settings with students. A total of six prevention program

efficacy studies targeting undergraduate and/or graduate students are reviewed below (Blakely,

Blakely, & Moorman, 1998; Goldberg, 2007; Moyer & Nath, 1998; Robb & Doverspike, 2001;

York, Barclay, & Zajack, 1997). Moyer and Nath (1998) describe two studies conducted on undergraduate students.

Blakely et al. (1998) examined the effectiveness of sexual harassment training on perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment. The authors specifically sought to examine whether viewing a training video would influence subsequent perceptions of sexual harassment. Participants were students enrolled in two sections (A and B) of a junior-level introductory management course. Section A consisted of 120 participants and section B consisted of 56 participants. Section A viewed a commercially produced training film about sexual harassment in the workplace and then participated in a classroom discussion about the film. The film contained vignettes discussing various sexually harassing behaviors according to the legal definition (EEOC, 1980). Further, the film provided work-group discussions with an instructor on what constitutes sexually harassing behavior as well as steps for dealing with sexual harassment. Participants discussed with each other the consequences for employers if sexual harassment complaints are made and they also answered questions about the film. Section B did not view the film and was not exposed to the topic of sexual harassment in their management course. Participants in both sections A and B were administered a questionnaire that assessed perceptions of sexual harassment six weeks after receiving the training. The questionnaire assessed a range of sexually harassing behaviors that ranged from severe to ambiguous and mild behavior, with responses ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). A *yes* or *no* question asked participants if they had ever been the target of sexual harassment.

Results suggested that training had an effect on the extent to which severe forms of sexualized work behavior were considered sexual harassment (Blakely et al., 1998), such that individuals who received training rated severe forms of behavior as sexual harassment

significantly more than participants who did not receive training. The effect of training on both ambiguous and mild sexualized work behavior was not significant. There were no significant interaction effects for training and participant gender on the severe or mild dimensions; however, there was an interaction effect of training on the ambiguous dimension. Men who did not receive training rated the ambiguous sexualized behaviors as less sexually harassing compared to men who did receive training. Women, regardless of training, viewed ambiguous sexualized behavior as more sexually harassing than men and rated both the severe and mild dimensions as more harassing than did men. The results provide partial support for the effects of sexual harassment training on perceptions of sexualized behavior, specifically for the severe dimension. This study demonstrates that there are clear differences in perceptions of behaviors that constitute sexual harassment, but also that these perceptions may be influenced by training. However, an important limitation of the study is the inability to determine which technique or combinations of techniques produce the most learning in participants and further change behavior regarding sexual harassment.

Other researchers have explored the extent to which video demonstrations impact participants' subsequent recognition of sexual harassment (York et al., 1997). An initial pretest was conducted. Participants in the pretest group were 23 male and 23 female undergraduate students, majoring in business, completing an organizational behavior course at a Midwestern university. During the pretest, participants viewed five video episodes that depicted a range of sexually harassing behaviors (i.e., from more subtle to more overt forms) and were asked to rate whether sexually harassing behaviors occurred. Results suggested a significant range of agreement and disagreement among video cases. The pretest group was later used as the control condition compared to the experimental conditions.

Participants in the experimental study were 98 undergraduate business students (44 male and 54 female) at a Midwestern university in an introductory organizational behavior course. Participants were randomly assigned to one of two experimental conditions. The experimental conditions were compared to the pretest group to test for training effects. Participants in the first condition were given a scenario depicting gender harassment, while those in the second condition read a scenario depicting unwanted sexual attention. All participants answered questions after reading the scenarios, which assessed whether they perceived sexual harassment. Next, participants in both groups were shown the pretest video depicting five episodes of various forms of sexual harassment, ranging from mild and subtle to severe and overt. Participants judged whether sexual harassment occurred in each of the five episodes.

Results of the study support the notion that the videos sensitized participants to the occurrence of sexual harassment (York et al., 1997). Participants who read a scenario before viewing the training video (i.e., conditions 1 and 2) rated the five incidents of sexual harassment as more sexually harassing compared to the pretest participants who did not view a video case prior to seeing the videos. There were significant differences between the experimental conditions on their recognition of sexual harassment. Individuals in the second condition, who viewed a video depicting unwanted sexual attention, more readily identified sexually harassing behaviors across the five episodes of sexual harassment compared to those who viewed the gender harassment video. The largest difference between pretest and posttest occurred with two episodes that depicted more subtle forms of sexual harassment (York et al., 1997). Further, in episodes where sexual harassment was severe and blatant, there were no significant gender differences. However, when sexual harassment was subtle, women were more likely than men to label the behavior as harassment. Results suggest that providing trainees with case analyses on

sexually harassing behaviors may increase their perceptions and identification of sexual

harassment (York et al., 1997). One limitation of the study is that it did not include a longer-

term follow up. It is unclear how long a one-time viewing of a sexually harassing case will

increase perceptions and identification of sexually harassing behaviors in the future.

Moyer and Nath (1998) conducted two experiments to test the effects of brief training

interventions on perceptions of sexual harassment. Participants in the first experiment were 60

college undergraduates and were randomly assigned to either a control or a brief sexual

harassment training videotape condition. The videotape training consisted of examples of sexual

harassment, definitions of sexual harassment, and sexual harassment policy information. Next,

both groups read a series of scenarios that ranged from not at all to fairly overt examples of

sexual harassment. Participants were asked to make "yes or no" judgments about whether each

scenario constituted sexual harassment. There was a main effect of gender, with women

perceiving more of the scenarios as sexually harassing than men. There was also a main effect of

experimental condition, with trained participants perceiving more sexual harassment in the

scenarios than control participants, even when the scenarios contained no harassment. The main

effect of experimental condition may be understood as a response bias that may have been a

result of demand characteristics of the sexual harassment training.

In their second experiment, Moyer and Nath (1998) randomly assigned 84 college

undergraduates to control, one-exposure, or three-exposure sexual harassment training

conditions. The control group completed a packet that included no sexual harassment training

materials. The one-exposure group completed a packet with a sexual harassment information

poster and an edited sexual harassment policy from the college. The poster provided examples

of sexual harassment and how to report it. The policy included the EEOC definition of sexual

harassment, examples of sexual harassment, and how to report it. The three-exposure packet contained three exposures to the aforementioned information materials as well as two written tests where participants received immediate feedback on their performance. Packets for all participants included the 14 scenarios used in the first experiment requiring participants to make yes or no judgments on whether each scenario constituted sexual harassment. The authors found a main effect of training. The three-exposure group evidenced better identification of sexual harassment than the one-exposure group, and the one-exposure group performed better in sexual harassment identification than the control group. The authors found a gender by condition interaction, with women in the control group correctly identifying sexual harassment more often than men in the control group and men in the trained condition correctly identified sexual harassment more often than men in the untrained conditioned. There were no significant gender differences for the trained groups. Overall, trained participants perceived sexual harassment more often than untrained participants.

Some of the limitations associated with Moyer and Nath's (1998) studies include the subjectivity involved in deciding whether the vignettes fit the legal definition of sexual harassment, not knowing the longevity of the effects reported due to testing participants immediately after training, and issues related to generalizability. It is difficult to tell whether the results would generalize to real-life situations. For instance, individuals who perceive sexual harassment more accurately may not be able to recognize their own sexually harassing behaviors as accurately or perceive sexually harassing behaviors in someone they like or find attractive.

Goldberg (2007) investigated responses to sexual harassment and conflict avoidance in relation to sexual harassment training. Participants were 234 white-collar professionals from various industries enrolled in one of 14 graduate courses at a private university. Classes were

randomly assigned to either the training condition (n = 8) or the control condition (n = 6). Each class had 16-44 students. The treatment groups received two hours of sexual harassment training that included lectures and a discussion. There were four elements in the training class. The first element provided an overview of legislation and court decisions in sexual harassment, the second identified sexual harassment terminology, the third focused on organizational implications, and the fourth focused on victim responses and ramifications. The control group did not receive any intervention. The authors assessed participants' intended responses to sexual harassment by having them read various sentences depicting sexual harassment and indicate how likely they would be to (a) confront the perpetrator, (b) formally report the situation, (c) seek legal counsel, and (d) transfer or quit their job. Conflict avoidance was also assessed. Results indicated that those who received training had *lower* intentions to confront a perpetrator than did people who had not received training, perhaps due to the potential for retaliation. Training did not affect participant's intentions to engage in other responses, such as reporting or seeking guidance or legal counsel. This suggests that an organization's concern that training may increase employee likelihood of seeking legal counsel is not supported. Further, conflict avoidance was negatively related to intentions to report sexual harassment, which is consistent with findings that suggest that victims of sexual harassment tend to react unassertively, often avoiding the perpetrator or ignoring the situation (Firestone & Harris, 2003).

Robb and Doverspike (2001) examined the interaction between male undergraduates' self-reported likelihood of engaging in sexual harassment and the effectiveness of a 1-hour sexual harassment prevention program targeting attitudes toward sexual harassment. The authors hypothesized that men with greater likelihood to harass, assessed by the Likelihood to Sexually Harass Scale (Pryor, 1998), would evidence greater resistance to the sexual harassment

prevention program than men with a lower likelihood to sexually harass. Attitudes toward

sexual harassment were measured by nine questions, but the content of these questions was not

described in the article. Participants were randomly assigned to either the treatment condition or

a control group. The treatment condition received the training program, while the control group

viewed a videotape on workplace diversity. The training program consisted of a 1-hour

videotape that covered topics ranging from identifying, responding to, and understanding the

problem of sexual harassment. Vignettes were also presented to participants in the treatment

condition and described a man and woman engaging in various workplace encounters, some of

which were sexually harassing in nature. A narrator provided participants with additional

information on sexual harassment. Both groups completed the Likelihood to Sexually Harass

Scale before watching either video. After viewing either the training or control videotape, both

groups completed the attitudes measure. Consistent with the hypothesis, men who endorsed a

higher likelihood to sexually harass evidenced greater acceptance of sexual harassment following

the training video than men with a lower likelihood, suggesting training could be iatrogenic for

some people. The authors claimed that the training might not have been effective due to simply

providing knowledge and facts about sexual harassment and not directly attempting to alter

attitudes via other methods.

Limitations of the Robb and Doverspike's (2001) study include the subjectivity involved

in developing the scenarios, as well as the lack of information provided about the measure used

to assess attitude change and the lack of information provided to participants by the narrator

during the discussion about sexual harassment. Further investigation and discussion as to why

men higher in likelihood to sexually harass evidenced stronger attitudes towards the support of

sexual harassment is warranted. Additionally, the authors only assessed men; perhaps assessing

female participants would have resulted in different outcomes.

In considering the body of research on the efficacy of sexual harassment, a few synthesizing statements can be made. While Robb and Doverspike (2001) assessed male undergraduate students because men are more often the perpetrators of sexual harassment, all of the other studies assessed both male and female participants. Four of the six studies described the length of training (Goldberg, 2007; Moyer & Nath, 1998; Robb & Doverspike, 2001), whereas the other two studies did not (Blakely et al. 1998; York et al. 1997). The training programs reviewed varied in length from 5 minutes to 2 hours. Table 1 provides an overview of each study, including training components, participants, and outcomes.

The studies varied significantly with respect to the method with which information about sexual harassment was delivered. The majority of training programs (n = 4) implemented the use of a video in at least one of their conditions (Blakely et al., 1998; Moyer & Nath, 1998; Robb & Doverspike. 2001;York et al., 1997). These videos described various examples of sexual harassment, reporting procedures and consequences for policy violation, information on and definitions of sexual harassment, and how to respond to sexual harassment. Two programs used discussions (Blakely et al., 1998; Goldberg, 2007), one provided handouts (Moyer & Nath, 1998), and one implemented the use of a live instructor to lead discussions or review materials presented (Goldberg, 2007). Other methods used, such as case studies (York et al., 1997), scenarios (Robb & Doverspike, 2001), poster presentation (Moyer & Nath, 1998), policy lists (Moyer & Nath, 1998), and tests (Moyer & Nath, 1998) were only utilized in one of the six studies. Most interventions utilized multiple methods of information delivery. Additionally, the studies varied in research design, as well. Four of the six programs implemented the use of a control group (Blakely et al., 1998; Goldberg, 2007; Moyer & Nath, 1998; Robb & Doverspike,

2001), while another used a pre-post design (York et al., 1997).

Beyond delivery method, synthesis across studies is challenging because studies used a variety of dependent variables to test program efficacy. The most common element assessed was participants' recognition or labeling of sexual harassment depicted in video or written vignettes (Blakely et al., 1998; Moyer & Nath, 1998; York et al., 1997). Other studies assessed participants' attitudes toward sexual harassment (Robb & Doverspike, 2001), responses toward sexual harassment, and conflict avoidance (Goldberg, 2007).

Although the studies varied by the type of information covered in each of the training programs reviewed, there were some common themes. All of the training programs provided possible examples of sexual harassment to participants, with many of the programs subdividing these into severe, ambiguous, and subtle forms. Two programs provided definitions of sexual harassment (Goldberg, 2007; Moyer & Nath, 1998), two programs discussed reporting procedures associated with their institution (Goldberg, 2007; Moyer & Nath, 1998), two covered sexual harassment policies associated with their institutions (Goldberg, 2007; Moyer & Nath, 1998), and two programs discussed how to handle sexual harassment (Blakely et al., 1998; Robb & Doverspike, 2001), and one provided information about consequences for policy violation (Goldberg, 2007). Other studies described the problems associated with being sexually harassed (Robb & Doverspike, 2001), how to cope with sexual harassment (Goldberg, 2007), and educated participants about legislation and court cases associated with sexual harassment (Goldberg, 2007).

When considering the efficacy of sexual harassment training programs, results were generally positive. Of the four studies that assessed participants' perceptions of sexual harassment, all four demonstrated that the majority of participants who received sexual

harassment training were able to perceive sexually harassing behaviors more accurately than individuals who did not participate in sexual harassment training (Blakely et al., 1998; Moyer & Nath, 1998; York et al., 1997). Unfortunately, none of the sexual harassment training studies investigated student knowledge of sexual harassment, such as definitions, reporting procedures, or consequences of policy violations.

One study investigated whether sexual harassment training evidenced a change in attitudes toward and acceptance of sexual harassment in undergraduate men (Robb & Doversmith, 2001). Results indicated that the training program was not effective and, indeed, possibly iatrogenic, since men who self-reported a greater likelihood to sexually harass reported greater acceptance of sexual harassment after training than men with lower sexual harassment proclivity. Thus, although there was attitudinal change, it was not in the desired direction.

The majority of studies assessing sexual harassment prevention program efficacy aimed to increase participants' accuracy at recognizing instances of sexual harassment, with one study attempting to change accepting attitudes toward sexual harassment. Although recognition of sexually harassing behaviors often increased with training, attitude change was minimal and in the undesired direction.

While more studies are needed to see if sexual harassment training impacts harassment-supportive attitudes, important to note is that the research to date utilizes training that provides facts and information about sexual harassment. However, increased knowledge of a particular subject or domain of interest does not necessarily result in attitudinal or behavioral change (Lynam et al., 1999). Thus, simply providing individuals with more information and facts about sexual harassment is not necessarily going to change attitudes and behaviors. However, altering attitudes has evidenced a stronger link in behavioral change compared to enhancing knowledge

(Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Therefore, the prevention of sexual harassment must move into the realm of attempting to change attitudes and behaviors via avenues of attitudinal change that have empirical support.

IV. PERSUASION

Given the lack of efficacy of current sexual harassment training programs to impact attitudes, an important question to ask is: how are attitudes changed? I next turn to research on persuasion and attitude change.

Attitudes are enduring conceptualizations of various people, objects, and concepts (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Because attitudes are enduring, they can be challenging to change. Understanding attitudes is important because attitudes are often the force that drives human behavior, such that humans will positively approach things they have favorable attitudes towards and will avoid or even harm things that are not liked.

Once attitudes are formed they can be difficult to change. The study of the processes involved in attitude change is one of the foundational concepts of social psychology and has resulted in a plethora of theories, studies, and models. Researchers have explored how attitudes can be changed via persuasion. One model, in particular, focuses on how information is processed as a way to understand attitude change.

The elaboration likelihood model (ELM; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), one of the most contemporary and heavily supported models of attitudinal change, theorizes two pathways towards attitude change: central and peripheral. The model suggests that when people are not motivated to attend to information, they are more likely to attend to peripheral cues. The model suggests that the characteristics of the messenger providing the persuasive information are attended to more so than the actual content of the message being conveyed when the peripheral

route is being taken by an unmotivated listener. The peripheral route does not require thoughtful consideration of information but instead involves processing external characteristics of the information provided, such as source credibility, attractiveness of the source, number of arguments discussed, and catchy phrases. Essentially, the peripheral route is a quick way to come to a conclusion without having to process and understand all of the arguments made. For instance, an individual taking the peripheral route of persuasion would likely reach a conclusion based on outside influences such as rewards, likeability, credibility, and attractiveness of the person conveying the message. These peripheral cues can result in quick attitudinal change; however, that change tends to be relatively temporary.

On the other hand, the central route of persuasion promotes cognitive processing and requires that an individual thoughtfully consider the information provided in a persuasive message. In order for the central route to be taken, the individual must be motivated to hear the message. Further, a high level of personal involvement and a degree of favorability must occur (i.e., favorable feelings or personal relevance toward the circumstances), resulting in thoughts about the topic. Once the information is understood, the individual's own responses to the message (agreement, congruent thoughts) will influence their attitude. For instance, if the individual agrees with the information conveyed, they are likely to accept the overall message, whereas if the information results in disagreement, the individual is likely to reject the information. The central route results in relatively enduring attitude change since the message itself, not the persuader's characteristics, is the mechanism of attitude change. Central route attitudes are not only more enduring, but they also more strongly influence behavior compared to peripheral route attitudes (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

According to Petty and Cacioppo (1986), people can only process information via one

pathway at a given time, but processing can fluctuate from central to peripheral and back again. An individual who first begins to take the peripheral route can be influenced to switch to the central route during persuasion or an individual influenced to first take the central route may lose motivation to follow the argument and fall back to the peripheral route. For instance, an individual may initially be processing through the peripheral route when perhaps an attractive informant saying a catchy phrase or providing shocking information then leads the listener to switch to central route processing. However, if the informant does not provide further substantive information that is relevant to the argument, the initial motivational factors will fail to hold the individual's attention and motivation, resulting in a return to the peripheral route of processing. Therefore, attending to the message, feeling motivated, considering the information personally relevant, and having the ability to evaluate information are critical components of the ELM and initiating the central route of persuasion.

After attention and motivation have been captured and information processed, the way in which the information is viewed ultimately impacts whether attitude change will occur. For instance, if the information is determined to be accurate, strong, and favorable, there is an increased likelihood that the view espoused by the persuasive message will be adopted and stored in memory, increasing the likelihood of attitude congruent behavior and resulting in a successful central route of persuasion. However, if the information is evaluated as inaccurate, weak, or unfavorable, it is likely that this information will be ignored and result in no cognitive change, decreasing the likelihood of behavior change. The audience then falls back into the peripheral route, evaluates the presence of peripheral cues (i.e., source, rewards), may experience a temporary attitude shift, but ultimately either retains or regains the initial attitude held before the attempted persuasion.

V. ELABORATION LIKELIHOOD MODEL AND PREVENTION PROGRAMS IN RELATED DOMAINS

Research within the domain of social influence and attitude change has not successfully demonstrated attitude change toward sexual harassment in the desired direction within academic settings. Further, studies of sexual harassment prevention programs are typically not built within the framework of a theoretical model of attitude change. There are no known studies evaluating the efficacy of sexual harassment prevention programs designed to make use of the ELM framework. However, other prevention programs have utilized the ELM, including some that focus on rape prevention and related constructs. Therefore, I briefly review some of the existing research on the effectiveness of rape and sexual assault prevention programs, conceptualized within the framework of the ELM.

Frazier, Valtinson, and Candell (1994) evaluated the efficacy of a coeducational acquaintance rape prevention program that contained elements designed to enhance central route processing. The prevention program aimed to reduce attitudes and behaviors in college men and women that promote acquaintance rape. The program encouraged equality and respect, assertive communication, and safety precautions for women. The program was personalized, consistent with the central route of the ELM, by including information that referenced the university campus. The program was aimed at both men and women and contained a modeling component where presenters modeled both negative and positive behaviors towards acquaintance rape. Attitudes toward adversarial sexual behaviors were measured one week prior to the 2-hour intervention. The effects of the intervention were measured immediately and one month after the intervention. Results suggested that men and women evaluated immediately after participating in the prevention program were less likely to endorse accepting attitudes towards acquaintance

rape as compared to the control group that did not receive the intervention. However, differences between the control group and intervention group were not apparent after one month. The attitudes and beliefs formed by the intervention may not have remained stable due to a lack of other essential central route components in the prevention program (such as motivation or processing ability).

Gilbert, Heesacker, and Gannon (1991) assessed changes in aggression-supportive attitudes of college men via a psychoeducational intervention developed within the framework of the ELM. Persuasive communication was enhanced by providing participants with arguments rejecting interpersonal violence, rape, adversarial sexual beliefs, and male dominance. The presenters role-played vignettes in order to enhance motivation. Ability to comprehend the message was enhanced by conveying information at a reading comprehension level that was appropriate for young adults, repeating important information, and summarizing the information at the end of the intervention. Presenting negative consequences and social sanctions associated with accepting interpersonal violence and rape were provided in an effort to enhance thought favorability. Results suggested the program produced a decrease in the acceptance of interpersonal violence and rape attitudes in men lasting immediately and one month after the intervention. Central route processing variables, such as personalization, motivation, ability, and thought favorability, significantly predicted attitude change and provide further support for the use of the ELM in designing prevention programs focused on attitude change.

Foubert and Newberry (2006) evaluated the efficacy of two different rape prevention programs: one focusing on defining consent to sex when alcohol is involved and the other focusing on bystander intervention in situations where alcohol has been involved. Both programs focused on enhancing empathy of rape victims by showing a video that describes a

male-on-male rape in order to teach men about the negative consequences of rape experienced by victims. The male-on-male rape information was used in order to increase motivation to learn and personal relevance to the material, consistent with the ELM. The consent and bystander intervention programs focused on providing knowledge and information to participants regarding consent and intervening when witnessing sexual violence. Specifically, the consent intervention program provided participants with a definition of consent, discussed the importance of obtaining consent, as well as the need to avoid intimate interactions with another individual who is intoxicated. The bystander intervention program led participants in a guided imagery task where they imagined a close female friend being sexually assaulted while a bystander watched and did not intervene. Next, participants in the bystander intervention group were asked to imagine what they would do if they saw another man sexually assaulting a woman too intoxicated to provide consent. Last, participants in the bystander group were asked what they would do if placed in a sexual situation where alcohol was involved. Results suggested that men in the bystander and consent group evidenced significant declines in rape myth acceptance, likelihood of rape, likelihood of committing a sexual assault, and an increase in empathy toward rape survivors compared to controls. However, men in the bystander group evidenced significantly more decrements in the dependent variables compared to the consent group. Previous research suggests that providing men with male-on-male rape information and then asking participants to imagine the rape of a female from the perspective of a bystander results in a significant decrease in rape acceptance compared to men who were not provided male-on-male rape information (Schewe, 2002). Thus, Foubert and Newberry (2006) suggest that the bystander intervention group, compared to the consent intervention group, may have resulted in significantly more declines in rape myth acceptance, likelihood to rape, likelihood to committing

a sexual assault, and increased empathy toward rape survivors because these men were provided with information about male-on-male rape. Nevertheless, increasing men's personal relevance to the issue of rape, perhaps by detailing information on male-on-male rape, resulted in significant declines in rape myth acceptance, likelihood of rape and committing a sexual assault, and an increase in empathy toward rape victims.

Heppner et al. (1995) also utilized the ELM framework in a rape prevention program. The program consisted of a one-hour rape intervention that included information on the prevalence and impact of rape on victims, a video of rape survivors describing their stories (to enhance motivation and central route processing), and a brief question and answer session. A presenter who had over 10 years' experience in working with rape prevention programming conducted the intervention. A control group was not implemented. At the end of the intervention, participants were asked to elaborate and write about their thoughts on the intervention. This was thought to help increase central route processing. Responses were notable for a significant decrease in rape myth beliefs immediately after the intervention for men and women; however, a rebound effect for both genders was observed at a two-month follow-up. Men and women returned to previous levels of rape myth beliefs and acceptance conducted during the pretest. The intervention appeared to have a greater impact on women's attitudes towards rape as compared to men's attitudes immediately after the intervention. In support of the ELM, results suggested that women rated themselves as more motivated to hear the information about rape and found it more personally relevant, perhaps due to women more often being the victims of sexual assault. Thus, these women appeared to take a central route of persuasion due to their increased motivation to attend to the information presented. Women also produced more personally relevant thoughts at the end of the intervention and often discussed

concern or fear for self or others. Both men and women reported that the videotaped personal accounts of victims were the most important aspect of the intervention in helping participants change their attitudes about rape. Perhaps a greater emphasis on male victimization within the victim accounts would have provided further attitude change in men and increased their likelihood of attending to the information. Men may have not felt as though the information pertaining to rape was personally relevant to them and therefore they did not attend to the information as carefully as women, perhaps leading them to engage in the peripheral route of persuasion. Thus, Heppner et al.'s (1995) study provides support for the use of the ELM in altering short-term attitudes about rape as well as the importance of considering how personally relevant the material will appear to the audience, despite the fact that long-term attitude change was not evident.

Rape prevention research utilizing the ELM has attempted to alter attitudes towards sexually aggressive behaviors. All of the studies reviewed evidenced significant decreases in rape supportive beliefs and attitudes immediately following an intervention (Foubert & Newberry, 2006; Frazier et al., 1994; Gilbert et al., 1991; Heppner et al., 1995). However, the results obtained by Frazier et al. (1994), Heppner et al. (1995), and Foubert and Newberry (2006) were not stable and did not remain significantly different from control groups at one and two month follow-ups. Gilbert et al. (1991) developed a prevention program that evidenced a decrease in rape supportive attitudes immediately and one month after the intervention. Gilbert et al. (1991) may have achieved longer lasting attitude change by directly targeting components addressed in the ELM's central processing route (i.e., motivation, personalization, ability, thought favorability). As Heppner et al. (1995) and Foubert and Newberry's (2006) studies have evidenced, personal relevance and motivation to attend to the information presented appear to

enhance the likelihood of taking a central route to persuasion. On the other hand, individuals who do not feel as though the information is relevant to them appear to engage in the peripheral route of persuasion (Dinoff & Kowalski, 1999; Petty, Cacioppo, & Goldman, 1981). Personal relevance to the information presented appears to serve as a moderator for whether the central or peripheral route is taken. I now turn to the literature on personal relevance and the ELM.

VI.   PERSONAL RELEVANCE, ARGUMENT STRENGTH, AND PERSUASION

An accumulation of research suggests that the central and peripheral routes of persuasion result in attitude change (Dinoff & Kowalski, 1999; Foubert & Newberry, 2006; Frazier, Valtinson, & Candell, 1994; Gilbert et al., 1991; Heppner et al., 1995; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986; Petty, Cacioppo, & Goldman, 1981). Initial research suggested that attitude change results from central processing of issue-relevant information or from attending to peripheral, external cues; however, variables such as personal relevance to and strength of the argument(s) influence whether the central or peripheral route is taken (Petty et al., 1981; Dinoff & Kowalski, 1999). Petty et al. (1981) investigated whether high personal relevance to message content resulted in increased persuasion as compared to low personal relevance. It was hypothesized that when a topic is of high personal relevance to an individual, attitude change is likely to result due to the analysis of topic-relevant arguments discussed. In other words, the central route of cognitive processing is implemented. However, when a topic is of low personal relevance, peripheral cues (i.e., source expertise) will likely influence attitude change because the peripheral route of cognitive processing is taken. Participants were 145 male and female undergraduate students completing an introductory class in psychology. The participants were evaluated on whether they demonstrated high or low involvement in a university-wide policy change. They were assigned to hear an audio recording discussing either (a) strong or (b) weak arguments for the

policy change from either (a) an expert source or (b) a non-expert source. The number of arguments heard was kept constant. Participants rated their opinions of the advocated policy change and responded to questions designed to assess the effectiveness of the experimental manipulations of personal involvement, argument quality, and source expertise.

Results suggested that perceived personal relevance to a topic might be more influential than the message content and arguments conveyed (Petty et al., 1981). Participants who felt as though the policy change was personally relevant to them were more likely to attend to the arguments presented instead of the source expertise, or peripheral cue. Further, when participants felt as though the message was not personally relevant to them, attitude change was a function of source expertise instead of message content. Additionally, participants who heard strong arguments were able to recall more information about those arguments compared to participants exposed to weak arguments. Thus, high personal relevance resulted in more attitude persuasion as a result of attending to the arguments presented, while low personal relevance resulted in more attitude change based on the expertise of the source presenting the information.

Dinoff and Kowalski (1999) investigated whether participants who perceived themselves to be at low or high risk for health-related threats, such as the contraction of AIDS, would processes information about condom use differently. Male and female participants, all either low or high in motivation to attend to the information, were exposed to persuasive communication delivered by (a) a woman or (b) a man (peripheral cue). The central cue of persuasive communication consisted of a discussion on (a) the rewards of condom use (i.e., favorable arguments; condoms aid in prevention of sexually transmitted diseases) or (b) the barriers to condom use (i.e., unfavorable arguments; condoms are not always effective every time). Participants' behavioral intentions were measured after hearing the communication by the

amount of condoms taken at the conclusion of the experiment. The authors hypothesized that participants low in personal relevance (i.e., believed to be at low risk for health related threats) would attend to peripheral cues and participants high in personal relevance would attend to central cues. Further, high personal relevance participants were hypothesized to take more condoms than participants low in personal relevance.

Results suggest that participants high in personal relevance, or believing they are more at risk for health related threats than participants low in personal relevance, engaged in central processing of the information and identified their perceptions as being impacted through the quality of the arguments presented (Dinoff & Kowalski, 1999). Interestingly, men high in personal relevance perceived the arguments in favor of condom use more favorably when the communicator was a woman as compared to when the communicator was a man. The authors note that this finding may suggest that the central and peripheral routes are not exclusive and may influence each other. Lastly, participants high in personal relevance also took more condoms than participants low in personal relevance.

O'Keefe and Jackson (1995) discuss the importance of argument strength in aiding in the process of persuasion and different approaches to developing strong and weak arguments. The *message variation* approach to manipulating argument strength has been implemented in various studies (Bohner, Chaiken, & Hunyadi, 1994; Hunt, Smith, & Kernan, 1985; Jepson & Chaiken, 1990). The message variation approach varies aspects of the argument in order to reflect what is believed to be either a strong or weak argument. For instance, varying the strength of statistics could change whether the statement is strong or weak. However, providing inaccurate information about some subjects, including sexual harassment, could be potentially harmful to participants and unethical. On the other hand, exposing participants to specific, versus

unspecific, information could be portrayed as a stronger argument. Providing detailed statements (i.e., sexual harassment effects people in negative ways, for example, victims often experience posttraumatic stress) as compared to generalized statements (i.e., sexual harassment effects people in negative ways) enhances the specificity of the argument as well as the argument strength.

Conclusively, personal relevance to the information or topic discussed, as well as argument strength, serves as an important determinant in predicting whether a message will be processed centrally or peripherally. These aforementioned studies indicate that the ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) can provide a framework for further exploration on the variables and processes involved in persuasive communication, attitude change, and behavioral change. Thus, further investigation into how central and peripheral routes and additional moderating variables can be used to change attitudes towards sexual harassment is warranted.

VII. IDEAL SEXUAL HARASSMENT TRAINING PROGRAM

Programs implementing the ELM have made assumptions that all participants need to take the ELM central route in order for attitude change to occur. However, Dinoff & Kowalski (1999) and Petty et al. (1981) have indicated attitude change is at least in part a function of whether the individual feels as though the information conveyed is personally relevant to them or not. Prevention programs should not be developed with the assumption that everyone involved will take the central route of persuasion, but instead should provide avenues for both routes to be taken, making them effective for those who experience personal relevance to the topic and those who do not. In other words, for effective attitude change to occur, sexual harassment training programs need to increase the likelihood that information viewed as personally relevant to some can be processed via central cues and information viewed as personally irrelevant to others can

be processed via peripheral cues.

Further, motivational factors need to be present and focus on the personal relevance of the message being conveyed to the audience. Since women are more commonly the victims of sexual harassment and men the perpetrators (Cortina et al., 1998), a solid argument may be that women would be more likely than men to perceive personal relevance to a sexual harassment training program, and therefore attend to more central cues involved in the training. In contrast, men may be less likely to perceive personal relevance to sexual harassment and would therefore be more inclined to attend to peripheral cues in sexual harassment training.

Efforts to gain and hold the attention of the audience are important for effective sexual harassment prevention programs because these increase the likelihood that people will attend to the messages of the program. Information should be conveyed with an eye towards the audience's abilities to process and understand the message being conveyed. For instance, information should be conveyed in a comprehensible manner, with language and phrases that are easily understood by the audience. Distractions need to be limited. Attention, motivation, and ability work together to increase the likelihood that the information conveyed is processed via the central route.

Additionally, an ideal sexual harassment prevention program is likely to be one that has clear, concise, and identifiable goals and strong arguments. A suitable setting must be identified that will enhance learning and motivation in the intended audience. Although the time length of the program must be based on the prevention program's goals and audience, an ideal time length may be as little as 10-15 minutes (Moyer & Nath, 1998). Information may be delivered most efficiently and effectively via video (Blakely et al., 1998; Moyer & Nath, 1998, Robb & Doverspike, 2001; York et al., 1997). Peripheral cues, such as an attractive and credible source,

should also be present. Evoking a positive or negative affect, one that is congruent with the arguments being communicated, may serve as additional peripheral cues. Lastly, assessment of post-training factors must be conducted in order to determine if the intervention implemented was effective and directly impacted the program's training goals.

VIII.   PURPOSE

The purpose of this study was to compare the efficacy of four sexual harassment training videos on changing attitudes toward sexual harassment. Specifically, this study addressed to what extent a sexual harassment training program that incorporated components of the ELM's central (i.e., argument strength) and peripheral (i.e., expert source) processing routes decreased sexual harassment supportive attitudes. The majority of sexual harassment prevention programs have used knowledge-enhancing techniques in order to combat sexual harassment; however, results have not yielded a decrease in sexual harassment supportive attitudes. This study sought to enhance current sexual harassment prevention efforts by attempting to alter attitudes, not just knowledge, via persuasive techniques described in the ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

According to Petty and Cacioppo (1986), for initiation of the central route of processing, participants must be motivated to attend to and process the information presented (i.e., personal relevance), be capable of processing the information, and favorably evaluate the information processed. Personal relevance to the issue of sexual harassment is influenced by strong arguments (Dinoff & Kowalski, 1999; Petty et al., 1981). Individuals who do not exhibit high personal relevance to sexual harassment may be more likely to engage aspects of the peripheral route (i.e., source expertise) in order for motivation to increase. Thus, peripheral cues, such as source expertise, become more important as personal relevance to the topic decreases. This study assessed the effects of manipulating source expertise (expert versus non expert) and

argument strength (strong versus weak arguments) via sexual harassment training videos on both men's (low motivation) and women's (high motivation) attitudes toward sexual harassment.

IX.   HYPOTHESES

The following hypotheses were proposed:

1. A main effect of gender will be observed. Women, regardless of video condition, will show significantly less acceptance of sexual harassment compared to men at posttest.

2. A main effect of argument strength will be observed. Participants who are exposed to stronger arguments against sexual harassment will demonstrate less acceptance of sexual harassment than participants exposed to weaker arguments against sexual harassment.

3. A main effect of source expertise will be observed. Participants who view arguments from an expert in sexual harassment will demonstrate less acceptance of sexual harassment compared to participants who view arguments from a non-expert.

4. An interaction between gender and argument strength will be observed. Specifically, argument strength will impact attitudes in women more so than in men, with women who are exposed to strong arguments demonstrating less supportive attitudes toward sexual harassment.

5. An interaction between gender and source expertise will be observed. Specifically, source expertise will impact attitudes in men more so than in women, with men exposed to the arguments from a sexual harassment expert demonstrating less supportive attitudes toward sexual harassment.

X.   METHOD

A.   PARTICIPANTS

All students enrolled in introductory psychology courses ($N = 2007$) were prescreened at

the beginning of the 2013 spring ($n = 1037$) and fall ($n = 970$) semesters and completed a questionnaire designed to assess student knowledge of their university's sexual harassment policies and procedures (described below). A total of 333 participants ($n = 138$ male, $n = 195$ female) enrolled in introductory psychology courses at a mid-southern state university were recruited for further participation in an online survey (study 1). Of these participants, 154 ($n = 75$ male, $n = 79$ female) completed an additional laboratory portion (study 2). The laboratory portion took place an average of 17.96 days ($SD = 4.25$) following completion of the online portion of the study. Demographics for participants in this study (those who completed the prescreener, study 1, and study 2) are presented in Table 2.

B.   MATERIALS AND MEASURES

Training Videos

In order to assess the effects of sexual harassment training implementing (a) strong versus weak arguments and (b) expert versus non-expert speakers on attitudes toward sexual harassment; four training videos were developed. Gender of the speakers, expert and non-expert, was held constant across conditions, with two female and two male speakers in each video. Videos containing expert/non-expert weak arguments were 4 minutes and 41 seconds in length. Videos containing expert/non-expert strong arguments were 9 minutes and 6 seconds in length. Following is a brief description of how these variables were manipulated.

Argument Strength

The message variation approach was used to manipulate argument strength (O'Keefe & Jackson, 1995). Strong arguments included specific, detailed information pertaining to sexual harassment, such as accurate statistics and information on the University of Arkansas' sexual harassment policy (e.g., Over 75% of men and 85% of women have witnessed sexual harassment

at the University of Arkansas). Weak arguments included generalized statements about sexual harassment without specific data (e.g., Many people have witnessed sexual harassment). The number of arguments portrayed in each condition was held constant.

Source Expertise

Source expertise was manipulated via labels. Participants exposed to expert speakers were shown pictures of men and women labeled as sexual harassment experts (e.g., expert in sexual harassment law, sexual harassment lawyer, human resources/sexual harassment investigator). Participants exposed to speakers with low expertise were shown the same pictures of men and women; however, they did not receive a label of expertise.

Sexual Harassment Attitudes

The Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale (SHAS) developed by Mazer and Percival (1989) was used to assess participants' beliefs about and acceptance of sexual harassment in academia (Appendix A). The SHAS is a 19-item measure that uses a 5-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*). Higher scores indicate greater acceptance of sexual harassment. The SHAS is an extension of the Tolerance of Sexual Harassment Inventory (TSHI; Lott et al., 1988). Mazar and Percival (1989) selected 9 additional items that increased reliability of the scale and provided additional information on sexual harassment attitudes. Mazer and Percival (1989) developed six of the additional 9 items. The SHAS and TSHI are significantly correlated ($r = 0.614$, $p < 0.001$). According to Mazer and Percival (1989), the SHAS yields an alpha coefficient of 0.84 and has similar psychometric properties to the TSHI. Cronbach alpha for the SHAS at baseline was 0.84. Cronbach alpha for the SHAS at time 2 was 0.84.

Sexual Harassment Experiences

The Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ; Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995) was used to assess participants' experiences with sexual harassment. Participants completed the SEQ during study 1. The SEQ is a 20-item self-report measure that assesses experiences with various types of gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion (Appendix B). Items are rated as either 1 (yes) or 0 (no), with higher scores indicating greater exposure to and more experience with various types of sexual harassment. The SEQ evidences good internal consistency with a Cronbach alpha of 0.89. Cronbach alpha for the SEQ during this administration was 0.87.

Knowledge of Sexual Harassment Policies

In order to assess participants' knowledge of and experiences with sexual harassment policies at the university, a 14-item questionnaire was developed (the Knowledge and Experiences of Sexual Harassment, or KESH, scale). Items included 12 true/false and 2 multiple-choice questions assessing individuals' knowledge of sexual harassment policies at the university students attended (Appendix C). Participants were also provided with the option of indicating "don't know" for each item to help reduce score inflation by guessing. A total knowledge score was calculated by summing the number of correctly answered questions. Total scores could range from 0 to 14, with higher scores indicating greater knowledge.

Motivation

Following viewing of the experimental videos, participants answered five Likert-type questions assessing their motivation: (1) I was motivated to listen to the information presented in the video; (2) The information in the video was relevant to me personally; (3) I feel like I have learned information that will be useful to me; (4) I would be interested in learning more about

sexual harassment at the University of Arkansas; and (5) I was interested in this video (Appendix D). Participants rated each item on a 7-point scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Responses to these five items were averaged to create one motivation score for each participant, with higher scores indicating greater motivation. Cronbach alpha for the Motivation scale was 0.83.

Ability

Three Likert-type questions assessed participants' perceived ability to think about the information provided in the training videos: (1) The information in the video was easy for me to understand; (2) I learned a lot watching this video; and (3) This video is appropriate for teaching college students about sexual harassment (Appendix E). Participants rated each item on a 7-point scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Responses to these three items were averaged, with higher scores indicating greater levels of processing ability. Cronbach alpha for the Ability scale was 0.60. Examination of alpha if item deleted coefficients revealed deletion of the first item would increase alpha to 0.73. Therefore, only responses to items 2 and 3 were average for a total ability score.

Thought Favorability

Three Likert-type questions assessed participants' favorable thoughts regarding the content in the training videos: (1) This video taught me about what a problem sexual harassment can be; (2) I think people who are victims of sexual harassment are harmed by that experience; and (3) I think people who perpetrate sexual harassment deserve to be punished (Appendix F). Participants rated each item on a 7-point scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). Responses to these three items were averaged to create one thought favorability score for each participant, with higher scores indicating greater thought favorability to the content of the videos.

Cronbach alpha for thought favorability was 0.46. Examination of alpha if item deleted coefficients revealed removal of any one item would not have improved the scale's reliability; therefore, all items were retained.

XI.   PROCEDURES

All students enrolled in introductory psychology courses during Spring and Fall 2013 semesters completed the KESH as part of a universal departmental screening procedure. Later in the semester, an advertisement through the Psychology Department's experiment recruiting website was posted inviting students to participate in a study examining the effects of a harassment prevention program. No targeted recruitment was employed, with the exception that efforts were made include to more men in the study (to create more equal sample sizes by gender) by extending data collection for a few weeks and limiting participants to only men.

Study 1 was completed online. Participants first viewed an informed consent form describing the study and asked to indicate their consent prior to beginning study participation. Following consent, participants answered some basic demographic questions and completed the SHAS and SEQ. Information obtained in the pre-screener (KESH) and study 1 (SHAS & SEQ) served as pre-test data. After completing study 1, participants were partially debriefed, assigned course credit for participation, and asked to sign up for study 2, the laboratory portion of the study.

Approximately half (47%) of study 1 participants returned for the laboratory portion of the experiment. In study 2, participants were brought into the lab in small groups and randomly assigned to view one of four training videos, described above. Following the completion and signing of an informed consent form, participants viewed the training video and completed the SHAS, KESH, and motivation, ability, and thought favorability questionnaires. Participants also

listed as many arguments and details as they could recall from the videos. All participants were then fully debriefed and assigned course credit for their participation.

XII. RESULTS

A. OVERALL EFFECTIVENESS OF TRAINING

Impact on Knowledge

A paired-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the impact of sexual harassment training on participants' scores on the KESH at time 1 and 2. Upon examination of KESH total items correct means at time 1 and 2, all participants evidenced an increase in knowledge from pre-training ($M = 4.59$, $SD = 3.77$) to post-training ($M = 11.58$, $SD = 3.03$), $t (154) = -20.14$, $p < 0.001$. Results suggest that all participants improved in total number of items correct on the KESH (Figure 1).

Impact on Attitudes

A paired-samples t-test was conducted to evaluate the impact of sexual harassment training on participants' scores on the SHAS at time 1 and 2. There was not a statistically significant difference in sexual harassment attitudes from pre-training ($M = 2.87$, $SD = 0.44$) to post-training ($M = 2.86$, $SD = 0.54$), $t (154) = 0.25$, $p = 0.81$. Results suggest that the training videos did not alter participants' attitudes toward sexual harassment (Figure 1).

B. MODERATORS OF EFFECTIVENESS: HYPOTHESES TESTS

Moderators of Knowledge

To explore the impact of training group and gender on changes in knowledge of sexual harassment as measured by the KESH, a 2 (gender) x 2 (argument strength) x 2 (source expertise) 3-way between groups analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted. Change scores (pre minus post) were used to calculate change in knowledge. Mean and standard deviations are

presented in Table 4. There was not a statistically significant main effect for gender, F (1, 146) = 2.63, p = 0.11. Further, the main effects for source expertise, F (1, 146) = 0.01, p = 0.95, and argument strength, F (1, 146) = 0.05, p = 0.83, were not statistically significant. The interactions between gender and source expertise, F (1, 146) = 0.12, p = 0.73, gender and argument strength, F (1, 146) = 0.35, p = 0.56, and source expertise and argument strength, F (1, 146) = 0.09, p = 0.77 were not statistically significant. Lastly, the interaction effect between gender, source expertise, and argument strength on knowledge of university sexual harassment policies was not statistically significant, F (1, 146) = 0.80, p = 0.37. ANOVA test results are presented in Table 5

Moderators of Attitudes

A 2 (gender) x 2 (argument strength) x 2 (source expertise) between groups ANOVA was conducted to explore the impact of training group and gender on changes in attitudes toward sexual harassment as measured by SHAS change scores (pre minus post). Hypothesis 1 was supported: There was a statistically significant main effect for gender, F (1, 146) = 15.42, p < 0.001, with men (M = 0.20, SD = 0.77) evidencing more supportive sexual harassment attitudes following training, compared to women (M = - 0.18, SD = 0.30), whose attitudes shifted in the desired direction. Hypotheses 2 and 3 were not supported: The main effects for source expertise, F (1, 146) = 1.51, p = 0.22, and argument strength, F (1, 146) = 0.10, p = 0.76, did not reach statistical significance. Hypothesis 4 and 5 were also not supported: The interactions between gender and source expertise, F (1, 146) = 0.80, p = 0.37, and gender and argument strength, F (1, 146) = 0.07, p = 0.79, were not statistically significant. Finally, the interaction of source expertise and argument strength, F (1, 146) = 1.14, p = 0.29, and the three-way interaction between gender, source expertise, and argument strength, F (1, 146) = 1.19, p = 0.28, were not

statistically significant. Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 4 and ANOVA results in Table 6.

C.   PREDICTING CHANGES IN SEXUAL HARASSMENT POLICY KNOWLEDGE

A multiple regression was conducted in order to assess whether changes in knowledge of university sexual harassment policies were significantly predicted by the three components of the central processing route of the ELM (i.e., motivation, ability, and thought favorability). Preliminary analyses were conducted to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity, multicollinearity, and homoscedasticity. The three components of the central processing route of the ELM only explained 1% of the variance in participant knowledge, F (3, 151) = 0.54, p = 0.65. Results suggest that participant motivation and ability to attend to the training videos, as well as participant thought favorability, was not predictive of increased knowledge in sexual harassment policies. Results are presented in Table 7.

D.   PREDICTING CHANGES IN SEXUAL HARASSMENT SUPPORTIVE ATTITUDES

A hierarchical multiple regression was conducted in order to explore whether changes in sexual harassment attitudes were significantly predicted by the three components of the central processing route of the ELM (i.e., motivation, ability, and thought favorability), controlling for gender. Gender was entered at step 1, explaining 10% of the variance in sexual harassment attitude change. Motivation, ability, and thought favorability, entered at step 2, did not explain any additional variance in sexual harassment attitudes, ΔF (3, 150) = 0.25, p = 0.86. Results are presented in Table 8.

E.   ARGUMENT RECALL

Prior Knowledge of University Sexual Harassment Policies and Argument Recall

The relation between knowledge of university sexual harassment policies at time 1 (as measured by the KESH) and total number of arguments recalled after sexual harassment training was investigated using Pearson correlation coefficient. There was a positive correlation between the two variables, $r = .324$, $n = 85$, $p < .01$, with greater pre-training knowledge of university sexual harassment policies associated with greater number of arguments recalled after sexual harassment training.

A 2 (source expertise) x 2 (argument strength) x 2 (gender) between-groups analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was conducted to explore the impact of source expertise, argument strength, and gender on the number of arguments recalled post-training. Pre-training KESH scores were used as a covariate to control for knowledge of sexual harassment policies prior to training. After controlling for KESH scores at pre-training, the main effects of gender, $F (1, 75) = 0.15$, $p = 0.70$, source expertise, $F (1, 75) = 3.00$, $p = 0.09$, and argument strength, $F (1, 75) = 2.22$, $p = 0.14$, were not statistically significant. The interaction between source expertise and argument strength, $F (1, 75) = 6.79$, $p = 0.01$, was significant. Participants who viewed the non-expert and weak argument training video ($M = 6.37$, $SD = 2.98$) recalled more arguments than participants who viewed non-expert and strong arguments ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 2.55$), expert and weak arguments ($M = 3.79$, $SD = 2.53$), and expert and strong arguments ($M = 4.31$, $SD = 2.77$) training videos (Figure 2). The interactions between gender and argument strength, $F (1, 75) = 0.35$, $p = 0.56$, and gender and source expertise, $F (1, 75) = 0.22$, $p = 0.64$, were non-significant. There was not a statistically significant interaction effect between gender, argument strength, and source expertise, $F (1, 75) = 1.29$, $p = 0.26$. Descriptive statistics are presented in Tables 4

(unadjusted for the covariate) and 9 (adjusted for the covariate) and ANCOVA results are presented in Table 10.

F.   ELABORATION COMPONENTS

Three 2 (gender) x 2 (argument strength) x 2 (source expertise) between groups ANOVAs were conducted to explore the impact of training group and gender on the components of the central processing route of the ELM (i.e., motivation, ability, and thought favorability). Descriptive statistics are presented in Table 4. Results are presented in Table 11 and described in detail below.

<u>Motivation</u>

There was a statistically significant main effect for gender, F (1, 146) = 13.19, $p < .001$, with women ($M = 4.68$, $SD = 1.04$) evidencing more motivation to attend to the training videos compared to men ($M = 4.05$, $SD = 1.08$) (Figure 3). The main effects for source expertise, F (1, 146) = 0.28, $p = 0.60$, and argument strength, F (1, 146) = 1.43, $p = 0.23$, did not reach statistical significance. The interactions between gender and source expertise, F (1, 146) = 0.12, $p = 0.73$, gender and argument strength, F (1, 146) = 2.73, $p = 0.10$, and source expertise and argument strength, F (1, 146) = 0.01, $p = 0.91$ were not statistically significant. Further, the interaction effect between gender, source expertise, and argument strength was not statistically significant, F (1, 146) = 0.59, $p = 0.45$.

<u>Processing Ability</u>

There was a statistically significant main effect for gender, F (1, 146) = 7.91, $p < 0.001$, with women ($M = 5.62$, $SD = 1.05$) evidencing more ability to process the information presented in the training videos compared to men ($M = 5.07$, $SD = 1.32$) (Figure 4). The main effects for

source expertise, $F(1, 146) = 1.48$, $p = 0.23$, and argument strength, $F(1, 146) = 0.04$, $p = 0.84$, did not reach statistical significance.

The interactions between gender and source expertise, $F(1, 146) = 0.95$, $p = 0.33$, gender and argument strength, $F(1, 146) = 0.08$, $p = 0.78$, and source expertise and argument strength, $F(1, 146) = 0.13$, $p = 0.72$ were not statistically significant. Further, the interaction effect between gender, source expertise, and argument strength was not statistically significant, $F(1, 146) = 2.59$, $p = 0.11$.

Thought Favorability

The main effects for gender, $F(1, 146) = 2.94$, $p = 0.08$, source expertise, $F(1, 146) = 0.08$, $p = 0.78$, and argument strength, $F(1, 146) = 0.13$, $p = 0.72$, did not reach statistical significance. Further, the interactions between gender and source expertise, $F(1, 146) = 0.70$, $p = 0.40$, and gender and argument strength, $F(1, 146) = 3.48$, $p = 0.06$, were not statistically significant. The interaction between source expertise and argument strength, $F(1, 146) = 0.05$, $p = 0.83$, was not significant. The interaction effect between gender, source expertise, and argument strength on thought favorability was not statistically significant, $F(1, 146) = 2.94$, $p = 0.09$.

XIII. DISCUSSION

Although research has identified the negative consequences of sexual harassment across multiple settings (Cortina, Swan, Fitzgerald, & Waldo, 1998; Hippensteele, Chesney-Lind, & Veniegas, 1996), there is little research assessing the efficacy of sexual harassment prevention training programs. The majority of sexual harassment prevention programs have used knowledge-enhancing techniques in order to decrease the prevalence of sexual harassment (Blakely et al., 1998; Moyer & Nath, 1998; Robb & Doverspike. 2001;York et al., 1997); yet,

results have not yielded a decrease in sexual harassment supportive attitudes. However, other

gender violence prevention programs, specifically those that focus on rape prevention, have

implemented attitude persuasion techniques, such as the elaboration likelihood model (ELM;

Petty & Cacioppo, 1986), and evidenced significant decreases in rape supportive beliefs and

attitudes immediately following an intervention (Frazier et al., 1994; Gilbert et al., 1991;

Heppner et al., 1995). This study sought to enhance current sexual harassment prevention efforts

by attempting to alter attitudes, not just knowledge, via persuasive techniques described in the

ELM. In particular, training videos were manipulated to include either expert or non-expert

sources and to make strong (i.e., detailed, data-driven) or weak (general) statements. Overall,

results suggest that the training videos were effective at increasing knowledge of university

sexual harassment policies for both men and women, but were not effective at decreasing sexual

harassment supportive attitudes.

The ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986) supports two pathways toward attitude change:

central and peripheral. The model suggests that when people are not motivated to attend to

information, they are more likely to attend to peripheral cues such as source credibility,

attractiveness of the source, number of arguments discussed, and catchy phrases. The central

route, on the other hand, promotes cognitive processing and requires that an individual

thoughtfully consider the information provided in a persuasive message. In order for the central

route to be taken, the individual must be motivated to hear the message, have a high level of

personal involvement, and have favorable feelings toward the material. Attitudes formed via the

central route are not only more enduring, but they also more strongly influence behavior

compared to attitudes formed via the peripheral route (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).

This study developed four sexual harassment training videos manipulating source

expertise (expert versus non expert) and argument strength (strong versus weak) to assess college men's (presumed to have low motivation) and women's (presumed to have high motivation) attitudes toward sexual harassment and knowledge of university sexual harassment policies. In relation to the impact of training videos on sexual harassment attitudes, none of the four training videos resulted in a significant change in sexual harassment attitudes from pre- to post-training. The lack of an effect of video condition may be understandable when one considers that only two aspects of the ELM were manipulated: argument strength (central route) and source expertise (peripheral route). Perhaps additional central and/or peripheral cues are needed to impact attitude change. There are other critical components that impact successful navigation of the ELM central route, such as sustained motivation to attend to information throughout the entire video, high favorability toward the topic, and ability to store information into memory (Petty et al., 1981; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986).   Similarly, there are various components that impact the likelihood of a participant taking the peripheral route, many of which focus on the processing of external characteristics of the information provided, such as attractiveness of the source, number of arguments discussed, and catchy phrases (Petty et al., 1981; Petty & Cacioppo, 1986). Although the number of arguments detailed in the training videos was held constant, it is unknown whether manipulating the attractiveness of the sources in the videos or providing "catchy phrases" could have impacted attitude change. Unfortunately, not all of the possible central and peripheral route components were manipulated or assessed.

Further, the videos may not have resulted in attitude change due to the implicit nature of the arguments presented. The training videos did not explicitly state to participants that sexual harassment is bad and should not be committed. Instead, participants were provided with details about sexual harassment, such as the prevalence of sexual harassment, behaviors that constitute

sexual harassment, the negative effects of sexual harassment, and information regarding the sexual harassment policies at the University. Perhaps if the overall persuasive message (i.e., sexual harassment is bad and should not be committed) was explicitly stated, attitude change may have been evident.

On a similar note, the attitude that the training was attempting to change may not have been the same as the attitudes that were measured by the SHAS. For instance, the SHAS assesses whether participants are supportive or unsupportive of *male* harassment against *female* victims, whereas training was aimed at decreasing attitudes supportive of male and female perpetration of sexual harassment against male and female victims. Many of the questions on the SHAS orient participants to sexual harassment against women, implying that men are perpetrators (e.g., Most women who are sexually insulted by a man provoke his behavior by the way they talk, act, or dress). Further, the training videos provided information on various sexually harassing behaviors. However, the SHAS does not assess attitudes towards various sexually harassing behaviors. It is possible that the null results observed in the current study were a result of the incongruence between the information provided in the training videos and the attitudes measured by the SHAS.

Another reason attitude changes were not evident may be in the manipulation of source expertise. In particular, while experts were labeled as such in the videos, non-experts did not include any labels at all. It is possible that the lack of labels attributed to sources in the non-expert video conditions led participants to assume or makeup their own labels. It is therefore possible participants considered the individuals pictured throughout the non-expert videos to be experts in the field of sexual harassment. Perhaps the context (a training video) meant participants assumed the speakers were experts.

In considering a lack of argument strength effects, it is important to consider the length of the videos used. The videos with strong arguments were significantly greater in length (9 minutes and 6 seconds) compared to videos with weaker arguments (4 minutes and 41 seconds). Video length may have contributed to boredom in the strong argument training videos, perhaps leading participants who may have initially taken the central route of processing to become redirected to the peripheral route of processing and/or lose motivation to attend to either peripheral or central cues. It is also possible that the level of detail provided in the strong argument videos led to difficulties with remembering the key points conveyed; participants may have lost the take home message in the sea of data provided to support the claim.

The process by which attitudes are changed and persist over time is complex. However, attitudes can change fairly quickly (Rydell & McConnell, 2006) and remain stable over time (Pierro et al., 2012), particularly explicit attitudes (i.e., attitudes that are consciously reported by individuals). Implicit attitudes (i.e., attitudes that are not consciously reported by individuals), on the other hand, are more difficult to alter with conventional attitude change manipulations, such as the dissemination of information, logic, and reasoning (Rydell & McConnell, 2006). Explicit attitude change is directly related to logical and higher order processing of counter-attitudinal information. Thus, when individuals who hold supportive sexual harassment attitudes are provided with information about the negative impacts of sexual harassment (i.e., counter-attitudinal information), a decrease in their supportive sexual harassment attitudes is likely to result (Rydell & McConnell, 2006). However, participants in this study all held relatively similar and negative attitudes towards sexual harassment at the start of the experiment (indeed, mean scores indicated on the whole people disagreed with statements regarding the acceptability of harassment), such that an effect of sexual harassment attitude change was unlikely to result.

Additionally, it is important to note that attitudes were only assessed at pre and post-testing. A follow-up on attitude change was not conducted. Therefore, it is unknown whether attitude change occurred following the post-test.

Measurement of explicit attitudes can be difficult, as the measures used are often susceptible to socially desirable responding due to high face validity of the questions asked. It is possible that participants in this study responded in a socially desirable fashion when completing that SHAS at pre and post-testing, perhaps leading to overall negative attitudes towards sexual harassment. Future research may turn to the use of attitude measures that subtly assess explicit attitudes and beliefs. For instance, the Tolerance of Subtle Sexual Harassment scale (TOSSH) was constructed to assess men's support of sexual harassment utilizing more subtle aspects of harassment portrayed via a written scenario of a job interview between a female applicant and a male interviewer (Anton & Bridges, 2011). The TOSSH assesses the degree to which male respondents express support and liking of the male character depicted in the scenario, eliminating the imagination and self-report component used in other measures. The TOSSH is a scale that can facilitate empirical investigations of men's attitudes towards women, sexual harassment, and tolerance of sexual harassment, while also avoiding limitations associated with assessing attitudes, beliefs, and sexual harassment proclivities more overtly.

Although changes in sexual harassment attitudes via training condition were non-significant, a significant main effect for gender in relation to attitudes towards sexual harassment was supported. The results of the study indicated that women evidenced less supportive attitudes toward sexual harassment following training compared to men. This result is consistent with previous research (Blakely et al., 1998; Moyer & Nath, 1998; York et al., 1997), where women have evidenced greater perceptions of sexual harassment (Blakely et al., 1998; Moyer & Nath,

1998) and greater success in labeling sexual harassment (York et al., 1997) compared to men. Previous research has attributed this gender difference to women's sensitivity to and experience with gender inequality (Blakely et al., 1998; Moyer & Nath, 1998; York et al., 1997).

On the other hand, this study also found men's sexual harassment supportive attitudes *increased* following training, a result that may suggest a modest iatrogenic effect of training. This is consistent with Robb and Doverspike (2001), who also found men's attitudes changed in an undesired direction. It is important to note that the current study used video training in an attempt to change attitudes toward sexual harassment, similar to Robb and Doverspike (2001). Other sexual harassment training studies implemented additional components (e.g., discussion, vignettes, handouts) and resulted in enhanced perceptions of sexual harassment (Blakley et al. 1998; Goldberg, 2007; Moyer & Nath, 1998; York et al., 1997), thus it is important to consider that these additional components may aid in attitude change. Additionally, perhaps the iatrogenic effects were a result of defensiveness, as men are more often considered to be perpetrators of sexual harassment. Further, psychological reactivity, a phenomenon where individuals alter their behavior due to their awareness that they are being observed, may have contributed to the iatrogenic effects observed with male participants. Future studies may seek to develop more covert means of assessing attitudes and behaviors, so that participants are less aware of the purpose of the study, limiting the potential impact of defensiveness and/or psychological reactivity.

In relation to knowledge of university sexual harassment policies, results suggested that participants did not differ by gender or training condition in knowledge acquisition; however, overall knowledge was improved across all conditions. In the prediction of changes in sexual harassment policy knowledge, the three components of the central processing route of the ELM

(i.e., motivation, ability, thought favorability) were not predictive of increased knowledge in sexual harassment policies following training. On the other hand, a significant correlation between prior knowledge and total arguments recalled was obtained. Essentially, participants with greater prior knowledge of university sexual harassment policies recalled more arguments post-training than participants with less knowledge. This finding suggests that sexual harassment video training may have served as a good refresher of previously learned information, such that individuals who had previously received some exposure to the university sexual harassment policies may have been able to more readily recall arguments than participants who had not received prior exposure to the policies.

Further exploration of the impact of training group and gender on the number of sexual harassment arguments recalled post-training revealed that participants who viewed non-expert sources providing weak, less detailed arguments against sexual harassment recalled more arguments compared to participants who viewed non-expert and strong arguments, expert and weak arguments, and expert and strong arguments videos. It is possible that training videos depicting experts and/or strong arguments resulted in lower recall due to the extra demand placed on participants to attend to more information such as the names and occupation of experts, which were absent in the non-expert videos, as well as additional details (i.e., statistical results) and longer statements on the negative effects of sexual harassment. Participants who viewed the non-expert and weak arguments video likely received the essential information, or the take home message about the negative effects of sexual harassment, and nothing more.

Additionally, it is possible that for this particular population, sexual harassment is viewed as a taboo in general, such that participants did not need strong arguments or experts to convince them of its negative nature. Instead, the videos may have reinforced pre-existing negative

attitudes towards sexual harassment. Essentially, sexual harassment programs targeting college aged students, where sexual harassment is generally viewed negatively (as evidenced by SHAS baseline scores), may not need to place extra cognitive demands on participants with detailed information and arguments.

In relation to gender and the three components of the ELM (i.e., motivation, ability, and thoughts favorability), women, compared to men, evidenced greater motivation to attend to the information presented in the training videos and greater perceived ability to think about and process the information presented in the training videos. These results are consistent with the notion that women are likely to experience greater motivation to attend to and process information that is personally relevant, such as information related to gender inequality and sexual harassment. On the other hand, since these ELM components did not relate to knowledge or attitude change in the current study, it is unclear if enhancing men's motivation, ability, and thought favorability is critical to successful sexual harassment training programs.

XIV. LIMITATIONS AND FUTURE DIRECTIONS

Several additional limitations of this study warrant discussion. First, this sample consisted of a majority of first year undergraduate students from one university, many identifying as 18 to 19 years of age. Additional research is necessary to extend the external validity of the study's results to people of different ages, racial and ethnic backgrounds, and to various education and employment settings. Undergraduate students may be less interested in or effected by sexual harassment training compared to individuals in work settings, possibly because they may have less exposure to sexually harassing events or less experience with sexual harassment in general. Taking this concept a step further, it is important to consider a potential generational effect, such that younger generations, or the undergraduate students in this sample,

may hold more egalitarian views of gender and may be less accepting of bullying and harassment in general (Ferber & Young, 1997).

The training videos themselves were limited in duration and content, in contrast to more comprehensive sexual harassment training programs others have implemented (Blakely et al. 1998; Golderberg, 2007; Moyer & Nath, 1998; Robb & Doverspike, 2001; York et al. 1997). Other sexual harassment training programs have implemented the use of a video in training (Blakely et al. 1998; Moyer & Nath, 1998; Robb & Doverspike. 2001;York et al., 1997), however, these studies also included vignettes (Blakely et al. 1998; Robb & Doverspike, 2001; York et al., 1997), discussions (Blakely et al., 1998; Golderberg, 2007), handouts, and written tests with feedback (Moyer & Nath, 1998). The videos used in the current study were limited, brief, and passive in training. It is possible that shorter videos may be more appealing to a younger audience, perhaps contributing to the main effect of training condition observed in total number of arguments recalled, but the relatively brief duration of the videos as a whole may have been insufficient to engender any change in attitudes.

Furthermore, this study did not include a long-term follow-up. It is unknown whether the increase in participant knowledge and recall of information learned was sustained after training concluded. As mentioned previously, attitudes were not assessed after post-testing, thus it is unknown whether attitudes shifted after training concluded. Future research would benefit from an assessment of training effects over time. Assessing long-term intervention effectiveness is an important step in training program evaluation.

Making use of other avenues of information delivery in sexual harassment training could strengthen future research and training programs. Although previous sexual harassment training programs have used various delivery methods, such as training videos with group discussions

(Blakely et al. 1997), live lectures (Goldberg, 2007), posters, policy handouts, and written tests with feedback (Moyer & Nath, 1998), as well as case studies (York et al., 1997), these researchers were not attempting to alter attitudes towards sexual harassment, but instead were focused on enhancing perceptions of and responses to sexual harassment. Robb and Doverspike (2001), on the other hand, attempted to alter attitudes toward sexual harassment through videotape and scenarios providing information on the identification of sexual harassment, how to respond to sexual harassment, and enhancing understanding of the problems associated with sexual harassment. Unfortunately, their training program was iatrogenic, with men evidencing an increase in negative attitudes towards sexual harassment following training. Since a similar methodology was used in the current study (information provided via video), with similar iatrogenic results seen in men, it is possible that a lack of interactive components or discussion is problematic for male attitude change.

It is essential that training programs incorporate additional ways to disseminate information and knowledge about sexual harassment, while continuing to research ways to effectively alter attitudes. Unfortunately, previous sexual harassment training programs, including the ones utilized in this study, have been unable to effectively alter attitudes toward sexual harassment (Robb & Doverspike, 2001). However, research within the realm of rape prevention has achieved success in altering attitudes toward rape (Frazier et al., 1994; Gilbert et al., 1991; Heppner et al., 1995). Perhaps future sexual harassment training programs can incorporate components that previous rape myth prevention programs have used. For instance, Gilbert et al. (1991) created an effective rape myth psychoeducational intervention. The intervention was developed within the framework of the ELM and resulted in a decrease in the acceptance of interpersonal violence and rape attitudes in men lasting immediately and one

month after the intervention. Participants were provided with arguments rejecting interpersonal violence, rape, adversarial sexual beliefs, and male dominance, and they role-played vignettes in order to enhance motivation. The participants' ability to comprehend the message was enhanced by detailing information at an appropriate reading comprehension level, repeating important information, and summarizing the information at the end of the intervention, important aspects of the ELM. Repeating and summarizing may have served as a refresher of the information learned, similar to participants in this study viewing the non-expert and weak arguments video. Participants were also informed of negative consequences and social sanctions associated with accepting interpersonal violence and rape in an effort to enhance thought favorability.

Despite these limitations, the current research provided data on the applicability of the ELM to sexual harassment training programs, supporting previous research findings that training can enhance sexual harassment knowledge and immediate recall of information learned. The sexual harassment training program successfully enhanced sexual harassment policy knowledge in men and women, using experts and non-expert sources, conveying general and detailed information on the policies. The findings offer several future directions for research in sexual harassment prevention and training.

XV.   REFERENCES

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XVI. APPENDIX A
The Sexual Harassment Attitude Scale

Please indicate the extent to which you agree with each of the following statements by selecting one answer choice.

1 – strongly disagree
2 – disagree
3 – neither agree nor disagree
4 – agree
5 – strongly agree

1. An attractive female has to expect sexual advances and should learn how to handle them.

2. Most males are sexually teased by many of the females with whom they interact with on the job or at school.

3. Most females who are sexually insulted by a male provoke his behavior by the way they talk, act, or dress.

4. A male must learn to understand that a female's "no" to his sexual advances really means "no".

5. It is only natural for a female to use her sexuality as a way of getting attention at work.

6. An attractive male has to expect sexual advances and should learn how to handle them.

7. I believe that sexual intimidation is a serious social problem.

8. It is only natural for a male to make sexual advances to a female he finds attractive.

9. Innocent flirtations make the workday or school day interesting.

10. Encouraging a male's sexual interest is frequently used by females to improve their situation at work or school.

11. One of the problems with sexual harassment is that some women can't take a joke.

12. The notion that what a professor does in class may be sexual harassment is taking the idea of sexual harassment too far.

13. Many charges of sexual harassment are frivolous and vindictive.

14. A lot of what people call sexual harassment is just normal flirtation between men and women.

15. Sexual assault and sexual harassment are two completely different things.

16. Sexual harassment refers to those incidents of unwanted sexual attention that aren't too serious.

17. Sexual harassment has little to do with power.

18. Sexism and sexual harassment are two completely different things.

19. All this concern about sexual harassment makes it harder for men and women to have normal relationships.

Sexual Experiences Questionnaire

Please answer *yes* or *no* to the following questions.

1. Has anyone told you suggestive stories or jokes?

2. Has anyone made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal or sexual matters?

3. Has anyone made crude/offensive remarks to you, either publicly or in private?

4. Has anyone treated you "differently" because of your sex?

5. Has anyone given you unwanted attention?

6. Has anyone displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials to you or around you?

7. Has anyone made sexist remarks about your gender?

8. Has anyone attempted to establish a romantic relationship with you, despite you efforts to discourage them?

9. Has anyone "put you down" or was condescending to you because of your sex?

10. Has anyone continued to ask you for dates, ect., even though you had said no?

11. Has anyone made you feel like you were being subtly bribed with some sort of special treatment to engage in sexual behavior?

12. Has anyone made you feel subtly threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative?

13. Has anyone touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable?

14. Has anyone made unwanted attempts to stroke or fondle you?

15. Has anyone made unwanted attempts to have sex with you that resulted in you protesting or physically struggling?

16. Has anyone implied better treatment if you were sexually cooperative?

17. Has anyone made it necessary for you to respond to sexual or social invitations in order to be well-treated?

18. Has anyone made you afraid you would be poorly treated if you did not cooperate sexually?

19. Has anyone treated you badly for refusing to have sex?

20. Has anyone sexually harassed you?

XVIII. APPENDIX C

Knowledge of and Experiences with Sexual Harassment

* Correct answers are in bold.

The following questions ask about information that may or may not be part of the University of Arkansas' sexual harassment policy. Please answer the questions to the best of your knowledge. If you are not sure of the answer, please mark the "don't know" option.

1. According to their policy, does The University of Arkansas tolerate some forms of sexual harassment?

    __ Yes   __ **No**   __ Don't know

2. Does the sexual harassment policy apply regardless of the gender of the harasser or of the person being harassed?

    __ **Yes**   __ No   __ Don't know

3. Does the sexual harassment policy provide definitions of sexual harassment?

    __ **Yes**   __ No   __ Don't know

4. Does works of art and literature, readings, and other written, auditory, or visual course materials which are used in an educational context, including classrooms, academic offices, and all other learning environments, or which are part of academic or cultural programs, constitute sexual harassment?

    __ Yes   __ **No**   __ Don't know

5. Within how many days must a sexual harassment incident be reported in order for an investigation to proceed?

    __ 50
    __ 80
    __ 100
    __ 140
    __ **180**
    __ Don't know

6. Will every allegation/complaint of sexual harassment be investigated?

    __ **Yes**   __ No   __ Don't know

7. Does The University of Arkansas sexual harassment policy describe the typical length of the investigation process?

       __ Yes   **__ No**   __ Don't know

8. Will the individual who the complaint is being filed *against* be aware of an investigation?

       __ Yes   __ No   __ Don't know

9. Could deans, directors, and department heads or chairpersons legally dismiss an individual who is found guilty of sexual harassment from the University of Arkansas, their program, or job?

       __ Yes   __ No   __ Don't know

10. If someone is found guilty of sexual harassment, are the specific consequences determined by the nature and seriousness of the offense?

       __ Yes   __ No   __ Don't know

11. Is it true that records are kept only for statistical purposes and to document that the university has responded to the complaints?

       __ Yes   __ No   __ Don't know

12. Does the University of Arkansas' sexual harassment policy provide descriptions of possible consequences one could face if found guilty of sexual harassment?

       __ Yes   **__ No**   __ Don't know

13. Does the University of Arkansas' sexual harassment policy provide outlined steps explaining a formal grievance procedure for sexual harassment complaints?

       __ Yes   **__ No**   __ Don't know

14. The University of Arkansas' prohibition of sexual harassment applies to (check all that apply):

       __ members of the University of Arkansas community (including students, faculty and staff)
       __ visitors to the campus
       __ contractors who do business with the University of Arkansas
       __ members of businesses who work with the University of Arkansas
       __ anyone who uses the University of Arkansas facilities
       __ don't know

XIX. APPENDIX D

Motivation Questions

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Somewhat disagree
4. Neutral
5. Somewhat agree
6. Agree
7. Strongly agree

Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

1. I was motivated to listen to the information presented in the video.

2. The information in the video was relevant to me personally.

3. I feel like I have learned information that will be useful to me.

4. I would be interested in learning more about sexual harassment at the University of Arkansas.

5. I was interested in this video.

XX.   APPENDIX E

Ability Questions

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Somewhat disagree
4. Neutral
5. Somewhat agree
6. Agree
7. Strongly agree

Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

1. The information in the video was easy for me to understand.

2. I learned a lot watching this video.

3. This video is appropriate for teaching college students about sexual harassment.

XXI.   APPENDIX F

Thought Favorability Questions

1. Strongly disagree
2. Disagree
3. Somewhat disagree
4. Neutral
5. Somewhat agree
6. Agree
7. Strongly agree

Please answer the following questions using the scale above.

1. This video taught me about what a problem sexual harassment can be.

2. I think people who are victims of sexual harassment are harmed by that experience.

3. I think people who perpetrate sexual harassment deserve to be punished.

XXII. APPENDIX G

<div align="center">Informed Consent – Studies 1 & 2</div>

Title: Evaluation of a Harassment Prevention Program

Researchers:	Administrator:
Corinne Anton, M.A., Graduate Student	Ro Windwalker, Compliance
Ana J. Bridges, Ph.D., Faculty Advisor	Research & Sponsored Programs
University of Arkansas	Research Compliance
College of Arts and Sciences	University of Arkansas
Department of Psychological Science	210 Administration Building
216 Memorial Hall	Fayetteville, AR 72701
Fayetteville, AR 72701	479-575-2208
479-575-7605	irb@uark.edu

Description: The purpose of this study is to gain information about your thoughts towards sexual harassment. You will be asked to sign up for a second in-lab study at the conclusion of Part 1. **You are consenting to both parts of the study.** In Part 1, you will be asked to answers questions about your experiences and feelings towards sexual harassment. At the conclusion of Part 1 of the study, you will receive 1/2 credit of research participation. Part 2 of the study will involve coming into the lab to view a brief video and answer a few questions. You will receive an additional 1½ research credits for the second half of your participation.

Risks and benefits: If you feel uncomfortable at any time, feel free to skip over any individual questions and/or to discontinue your participation. Benefits associated with your participation in Part 1 include receiving 1/2 research credit for participation, gaining an understanding of the research process, and contributing data that may be used to develop effective prevention programs. Participation in Part 2 will earn you an additional 1 ½ credits and an opportunity to learn about the results of the study.

Voluntary Participation: Your participation in the research is completely voluntary. You are free to discontinue your participation at any time without penalty.

Confidentiality: Your responses will be kept confidential to the fullest extent allowed by university policy and the law. Your data will be assigned an ID number that will be used to match your responses across the different time periods of this study. Once all data are collected, all identifying information will be deleted from the data set, rendering your responses anonymous. Your data may contribute to publications or presentations in a conference, but such data will be reported in aggregate form. Your name and individual responses will never be disclosed.

Right to Discontinue: You have the right to discontinue participating in this experiment at any time. Choosing to discontinue your participation will not prevent you from receiving any incentives promised to you.

Informed Consent: I have read the description, including the purpose of the study, the procedures

to be used, the potential risks and benefits, as well as the option to discontinue my study participation at any time. Each of these items has been explained to me by the investigators. The investigators have answered all of my questions regarding the study, and I believe I understand what is involved. By clicking on the "consent" button below, I indicate that I freely agree to participate in this experimental study.

CONSENT

DO NOT CONSENT

XXIII. APPENDIX H

Demographic Questionnaire

Name: _____

Email address: _____

D1.   What is your gender?
      ___ (1) Male
      ___ (2) Female

D2.   What is your age?
      _____

D3.   What is your ethnicity? (Check all that apply.)
      ___ (1) American Indian/ Alaskan Native
      ___ (2) Asian American
      ___ (3) Black/ African American
      ___ (4) Hawaiian Native/ Pacific Islander
      ___ (5) Hispanic/ Latino/a
      ___ (6) White/ Caucasian
      ___ (7) Other (specify: _____)

D4.   What year are you in school?
      ___ (1) Freshman
      ___ (2) Sophomore
      ___ (3) Junior
      ___ (4) Senior
      ___ (5) 5th year or beyond

XXIV. APPENDIX I

Debriefing Forms – Part 1

Debriefing Part 1
Purpose of this study:
Thank you for participating in the first part of this experiment. The purpose of this part of the study was to gain information about your thoughts towards sexual harassment. You will receive 1/2 credit of research participation for having completed this part.

Part 2 of the study will involve coming into the lab to view a brief video and answer a few questions. You will receive an additional 1½ research credits for the second half of your participation. Please click on the link below to sign up for a time to complete the second part of the study. You will need to use the following password to sign up: <<PASSWORD PROVIDED HERE>>

<<LINK PROVIDED TO ONLINE EXPERIMETRIX SCHEDULER>>

XXV. APPENDIX J

<div align="center">Argument Recall</div>

Please list as many arguments and details that you can recall from the video.

1.

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

8.

9.

10.

XXVI. APPENDIX K

Debriefing Form

Purpose of this study:
Thank you for participating in this experiment. We are interested in testing the efficacy of various sexual harassment training videos. Specifically, we are interested in comparing the efficacy of four sexual harassment training videos on changing attitudes toward sexual harassment within an academic setting. Your willingness to contribute to this research is appreciated. Your responses will be helpful in the development and evaluation of future sexual harassment prevention program. If you would like to view the University of Arkansas' sexual harassment policy, please follow this link http://hr.uark.edu/153.aspx to the staff handbook. The sexual harassment policy is located under "3. General Employment Policies, section 3.6 – Sexual Harassment."

Questions or concerns?
Thanks again for your help. If you have any questions or concerns about the project, please contact the faculty investigator: Dr. Ana Bridges, University of Arkansas, 575-5818. If you have any concerns about the ethics of this research, please contact the University Compliance Coordinator: Ro Windwalker, 575-2208. If you would like to talk to someone about the feelings you experienced during this study or your reactions to it, please call the University counseling center at 575-5276. Please be aware that the university is not responsible for costs incurred should you elect to talk with someone outside of the university's counseling center. Finally, if you would like to receive a description of the final results of this study, please contact Corinne Anton at canton@uark.edu

XXVII. APPENDIX L

IRB Approval Letter

March 12, 2013

MEMORANDUM

TO: Corinne Anton
                               Julius Rainey
                               Ana Bridges

FROM: Ro Windwalker
                               IRB Coordinator

RE: New Protocol Approval

IRB Protocol #:   13-02-521

Protocol Title: *Evaluation of a Harassment Prevention Program*

Review Type: ☐ EXEMPT ☒ EXPEDITED ☐ FULL IRB

Approved Project Period: Start Date: 03/11/2013 Expiration Date: 03/10/2014

Your protocol has been approved by the IRB. Protocols are approved for a maximum period of one year. If you wish to continue the project past the approved project period (see above), you must submit a request, using the form *Continuing Review for IRB Approved Projects*, prior to the expiration date. This form is available from the IRB Coordinator or on the Research Compliance website (http://vpred.uark.edu/210.php). As a courtesy, you will be sent a reminder two months in advance of that date. However, failure to receive a reminder does not negate your obligation to make the request in sufficient time for review and approval.   Federal regulations prohibit retroactive approval of continuation. Failure to receive approval to continue the project prior to the expiration date will result in Termination of the protocol approval. The IRB Coordinator can give you guidance on submission times.

This protocol has been approved for 1,000 participants. If you wish to make *any* modifications in the approved protocol, including enrolling more than this number, you must seek approval *prior to* implementing those changes.   All modifications should be requested in writing (email is acceptable) and must provide sufficient detail to assess the impact of the change.

If you have questions or need any assistance from the IRB, please contact me at 210 Administration Building, 5-2208, or irb@uark.edu.

XXVIII.   TABLE 1

	Blakely et al. (1998)	Goldberg (2007)	Moyer & Nath – 1 (1998)
Target audience:	176 undergraduate students	234 graduate students Management course	60 undergraduate students
Setting:	University experiment Training setting not specified	University experiment Training setting not specified	University experiment Training setting not specified
Time length:	Time length not specified	2 hours	15 minutes Dependent on control/experimental group
Information delivery:	Training film Sexual harassment vignettes Discussion- instructor led	Live lecture Discussion	Instructional videotape

Goals:	Examine effectiveness of training
	Increase perceptions of sexual
	   harassment
	Increase sensitivity to sexual
	   harassment
		Examine impact of training
		   on responses to sexual
			Assess perceptions of sexual
			   harassment

Dependent variables:	Perceptions of sexual harassment	Responses to sexual harassment	Perceptions of sexual harassment Conflict avoidance
Control group:	Utilized control group	Utilized control group	No control group utilized

	Blakely et al. (1998)	Goldberg (2007)	Moyer & Nath – 1 (1998)
Information provided:	Examples of sexual harassment	Examples of sexual harassment Definitions of sexual harassment Consequences of policy violation Coping with sexual harassment Pertinent legislation/court cases	Examples of sexual harassment Definitions of sexual harassment Sexual harassment policies
Outcomes:	Video increased perceptions of severe sexual harassment Women had greater perceptions of harassment compared to men Individuals who viewed the training film had increased perceptions and sensitivity to sexual harassment	Training lowered intentions to confront sexual harassment Conflict avoidance decreased reporting gender harassment and sexual attention	Women perceived sexual harassment more than men Trained participants significantly perceived sexual harassment better than untrained participants Trained participants significantly more likely to perceive sexual harassment than untrained participants when sexual harassment was not present

	Robb & Doverspike (2001)	York et al. (1997)
Target audience:	90 undergraduate males	98 undergraduate students Organizational behavior course
Setting:	University experiment Setting not specified	University experiment Setting not specified
Time:	1 hour	Not specified
Information delivery:	Videotape Scenarios	Case studies Videotape
Goals:	Examine interaction between self-reported likelihood to harass Effectiveness of training on attitudes toward harassment	Assess participant sensitivity to sexually harassing behaviors
Dependent variables:	Attitudes toward sexual harassment	Perceptions of sexual harassment
Control group:	Control group utilized	No control group – Pre-Post design
Information provided:	Identifying sexually harassing behaviors Responding to sexual harassment Understanding the problem of sexual harassment	Examples of sexual harassment
Outcomes:	Training program effect was not significant Men whose scored higher on likelihood to harass reported more negative attitudes	Case analysis sensitized participants to the occurrence of sexual harassment in videos

Robb & Doverspike (2001)	York et al. (1997)
toward sexual harassment after training	High degree of disagreement on episodes of subtle sexual harassment
	No gender differences in cases of obvious sexual harassment
	Women more likely to label subtle sexual harassing cases as harassment

Demographic Characteristics of Participants in Prescreener, Study 1, and Study 2

Variable	Prescreening ($N = 2007$)	Study 1 ($N = 333$)	Study 2 ($N = 154$)	Test Statistic
	M (SD) or n (%)	M (SD) or n (%)	M (SD) or n (%)	
Gender				
Male	728 (36.3%)	138 (41.3%)	75 (48.7%)	$X^2 (2) = 11.23, p < 0.001$
Female	1270 (62.3%)	195 (58.4%)	79 (51.3%)	
Missing data	7 (0.3%)	-	-	
Age	19.30 (5.91)	19.73 (3.15)	19.60 (2.84)	$F (2, 2492) = 1.02, p = 0.36$
Ethnicity				$X^2 (12) = 31.32, p < 0.001$
African American	105 (5.2%)	11 (3.3%)	8 (5.2%)	
American Indian	35 (1.7%)	13 (3.9%)	3 (1.9%)	
Asian	51 (2.5%)	8 (2.4%)	6 (3.9%)	
White	1660 (82.2%)	287 (86.1%)	128 (83.1%)	
Hispanic	86 (4.3%)	13 (3.9%)	7 (4.5%)	
Pacific Islander	4 (0.2%)	2 (0.6%)	2 (1.3%)	
Other	61 (3.0%)	-	-	
Class				$X^2 (8) = 4.57, p = 0.80$
Freshman	1163 (57.6%)	204 (61.1%)	92 (59.7%)	
Sophomore	591 (29.3%)	80 (24.0%)	43 (27.9%)	
Junior	165 (8.2%)	30 (9.0%)	12 (7.8%)	
Senior	72 (3.6%)	15 (4.5%)	5 (3.2%)	
5th year+	26 (1.3%)	4 (1.2%)	2 (1.3%)	

Demographic Characteristics and Descriptive Statistics for Study Variables for Participants in Study 2 by Condition

Variable	Expert/Strong M (SD) or n (%)	Expert/Weak M (SD) or n (%)	Nonexpert/Strong M (SD) or n (%)	Nonexpert/Weak M (SD) or n (%)	Test Statistic
Gender					$X^2 (3) = 0.50, p = 0.92$
Male	19 (45.2%)	16 (47.1%)	19 (50%)	21 (52.5%)	
Female	23 (54.8%)	18 (52.9%)	19 (50%)	19 (47.5%)	
Age	20.05 (2.96)	18.91 (1.22)	19.24 (1.88)	20.18 (4.11)	$F (3, 150) = 1.78, p = 0.15$
Ethnicity					$X^2 (15) = 13.40, p = 0.57$
African American	1 (2.4%)	3 (8.8%)	1 (2.6%)	3 (7.5%)	
American Indian	2 (4.8%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.5%)	
Asian	2 (4.8%)	2 (5.9%)	1 (2.6%)	1 (2.5%)	
Caucasian	33 (78.6%)	27 (79.4%)	35 (92.1%)	33 (82.5%)	
Hispanic	4 (9.5%)	1 (2.9%)	0 (0%)	2 (5%)	
Pacific Islander	0 (0%)	1 (2.9%)	1 (2.6%)	0 (0%)	
Class					$X^2 (12) = 14.20, p = 0.28$
Freshman	24 (57.1%)	22 (64.7%)	25 (65.8%)	21 (52.5%)	
Sophomore	11 (26.2%)	7 (20.6%)	11 (28.9%)	14 (35%)	
Junior	4 (9.5%)	3 (8.8%)	1 (2.6%)	4 (10%)	
Senior	3 (7.1%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.6%)	1 (2.5%)	
5th year	0 (0%)	2 (5.9%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	
SEQ	1.40 (0.24)	1.41 (0.21)	1.35 (0.20)	1.42 (0.22)	$F (3, 150) = 0.72, p = 0.54$
Pre-test SHAS	2.86 (0.47)	2.87 (0.54)	2.79 (0.41)	2.85 (0.46)	$F (3, 150) = 0.26, p = 0.85$
Pre-test KESH	0.25 (0.20)	0.24 (0.21)	0.25 (0.21)	0.22 (0.22)	$F (3, 150) = 0.26, p = 0.85$

Note. SEQ = Sexual experiences questionnaire; KESH = Knowledge of sexual harassment scale; SHAS = Sexual harassment attitudes scale; ELM = Elaboration likelihood model.

Analyses of Variance Means and Standard Deviations for Study Variables by Training Condition and Gender

Variable	Expert/strong	Expert/weak	Nonexpert/strong	Nonexpert/weak	Total
SHAS pre-test					
Men	3.01 (0.37)	3.11 (0.54)	2.75 (0.46)	2.97 (0.45)	2.95 (0.46)
Women	2.74 (0.51)	2.65 (0.45)	2.84 (0.36)	2.78 (0.46)	2.75 (0.48)
Total					
SHAS post-test					
Men	3.00 (0.42)	3.31 (0.55)	3.14 (0.57)	3.17 (0.51)	3.15 (0.51)
Women	2.52 (0.54)	2.49 (0.54)	2.65 (0.49)	2.64 (0.47)	2.57 (0.51)
Total					
SHAS change					
Men	-0.01 (0.67)	0.20 (0.91)	0.40 (0.61)	0.20 (0.88)	0.20 (0.77)
Women	-0.22 (0.29)	-0.17 (0.27)	-0.19 (0.34)	-0.13 (0.34)	-0.18 (0.28)
Total					
KESH pre-test					
Men	0.23 (0.22)	0.29 (0.24)	0.27 (0.23)	0.36 (0.20)	0.29 (0.22)
Women	0.26 (0.19)	0.19 (0.17)	0.23 (0.21)	0.19 (0.20)	0.22 (0.19)
Total					
KESH post-test					
Men	0.59 (0.21)	0.66 (0.16)	0.67 (0.11)	0.67 (0.18)	0.65 (0.17)
Women	0.68 (0.15)	0.60 (0.20)	0.63 (0.15)	0.64 (0.16)	0.64 (0.17)
Total					
KESH change					
Men	0.36 (0.30)	0.37 (0.20)	0.39 (0.21)	0.31 (0.21)	0.36 (0.26)
Women	0.42 (0.24)	0.41 (0.25)	0.41 (0.24)	0.45 (0.23)	0.42 (0.25)
Total					
Number of arguments recalled					
Men	4.46 (3.15)	4.08 (2.43)	4.13 (2.47)	6.06 (3.08)	4.78 (2.88)
Women	4.00 (1.90)	3.17 (2.86)	2.86 (2.67)	7.33 (2.66)	4.28 (2.99)

Variable	Expert/strong	Expert/weak	Nonexpert/strong	Nonexpert/weak	Total
ELM: Motivation					
Men	3.67 (1.06)	4.28 (0.76)	3.94 (1.20)	4.31 (1.13)	4.05 (1.08)
Women	4.77 (0.97)	4.54 (1.19)	4.65 (1.08)	4.73 (0.98)	4.68 (1.04)
Total					
ELM: Ability					
Men	4.97 (1.72)	5.13 (1.31)	5.26 (1.07)	4.93 (1.19)	5.07 (1.32)
Women	5.59 (1.17)	5.22 (1.17)	5.63 (0.93)	6.03 (0.81)	5.62 (1.17)
Total					
ELM: Thought favorability					
Men	5.58 (0.52)	5.94 (0.52)	5.82 (0.87)	5.83 (0.74)	5.79 (0.83)
Women	6.31 (0.50)	5.81 (0.70)	5.95 (0.67)	5.91 (0.67)	6.01 (0.65)
Total					

Note: KESH = Knowledge of sexual harassment scale; SHAS = Sexual harassment attitudes scale; ELM = Elaboration likelihood model.

XXXII. **TABLE 5**

Three-way Between Groups Analysis of Variance Results for Main Effects and Interaction Effects of Training Group and Gender on Changes in Knowledge of Sexual Harassment

Effects	Sum of Squares	df	Means Square	F value	*p* value
Main effect of Gender (G)	0.16	1	0.16	2.63	0.11
Main effect of Source Expertise (SE)	0.00	1	0.00	0.01	0.95
Main effect of Argument Strength (AS)	0.03	1	0.03	0.05	0.83
G x SE	0.01	1	0.01	0.12	0.73
G x AS	0.02	1	0.02	0.35	0.56
SE x AS	0.01	1	0.01	0.09	0.77
G x SE x AS	0.05	1	0.05	0.80	0.37
Within cells error	4.19	146			

Note. *Significant difference at *p* < .05.

XXXIII. TABLE 6

Three-way Between Groups Analysis of Variance Results for Main Effects and Interaction Effects of Training Group and Gender on Changes in Attitudes Toward Sexual Harassment

Effects	Sum of squares	df	Means square	F value	*p* value
Main effect of Gender (G)	5.27	1	5.27	15.42	0.00*
Main effect of Source Expertise (SE)	0.52	1	0.52	1.51	0.22
Main effect of Argument Strength (AS)	0.03	1	0.03	0.10	0.76
G x SE	0.28	1	0.28	0.80	0.37
G x AS	0.24	1	0.24	0.07	0.79
SE x AS	0.39	1	0.39	1.14	0.29
G x SE x AS	0.41	1	0.41	1.19	0.28
Within cells error	49.95	146	0.34		

Note. *Significant difference at *p* < .05.

XXXIV.   TABLE 7

Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Changes in Knowledge of University Sexual Harassment Policies

Variable	β	*p* value	R^2	F
Step 1			0.01	0.54 (*ns*)
Motivation	-0.02	0.34		
Ability	0.02	0.32		
Thought Favorability	0.01	0.64		

Note. *N* = 154.

Hierarchical Multiple Regression Analyses Predicting Changes in Sexual Harassment Attitudes

Variable	β	β *p* value	R^2	F	ΔR^2	ΔF
Step 1			0.10	16.41**		
Gender	-0.38	<0.001				
Step 2			0.10	4.23*	0.00	0.25
Motivation	-0.02	0.78				
Ability	-0.02	0.67				
Thought Favorability	0.06	0.45				

Note. *N = 154*.
** = *p < .001, * = p < .01*

Adjusted Means and Standard Errors for Total Arguments Recalled based on Training Condition and Gender controlling for Pre-training KESH Scores

Variable	Expert/strong	Expert/weak	Nonexpert/strong	Nonexpert/weak
Total arguments recalled				
Men	4.46 (3.15)	4.08 (2.43)	4.13 (2.47)	6.06 (3.07)
Women	4.00 (1.90)	3.17 (2.86)	2.86 (2.67)	7.33 (2.65)
Total	4.31 (2.77)	3.79 (2.53)	3.72 (2.54)	6.37 (2.98)

XXXVII.   TABLE 10

Analysis of Covariance Results for Main Effects and Interaction Effects of Training Group and Gender on Number of Arguments Recalled Post-Training

Effects	Sum of squares	df	Means square	F value	*p* value
KESH Pre-training (Covariate)	36.60	1	36.60	5.11*	0.03
Main effect of Gender (G)	1.10	1	1.10	0.15	0.70
Main effect of Source Expertise (SE)	21.52	1	21.52	3.00	0.09
Main effect of Argument Strength (AS)	15.88	1	15.88	2.22	0.14
SE x AS	48.67	1	48.67	6.80*	0.01
SE x G	1.61	1	1.61	0.22	0.64
AS x G	2.48	1	2.48	0.35	0.56
AS x SE x G	9.23	1	9.23	1.29	0.26
Within cells error	537.26	75	7.16		

*Note*. *Significant difference at $p < .05$.

XXXVIII.   TABLE 11

Three-way Between Groups Analyses of Variance Results for Main Effects and Interaction Effects of Training Group and Gender on Central Processing Components Motivation

Dependent variable Effects	Sum of squares	df	Means square	F value	*p* value
Motivation					
Main effect of (G)	14.86	1	14.86	13.19**	< .001
Main effect of (SE)	0.31	1	0.31	0.28	0.60
Main effect of (AS)	1.61	1	1.61	1.43	0.23
G x SE	0.14	1	0.14	0.12	0.73
G x AS	3.07	1	3.07	2.73	0.10
SE x AS	0.02	1	0.02	0.01	0.91
G x SE x AS	0.66	1	0.66	0.59	0.45
Within cells error	164.47	146	1.13		
Ability					
Main effect of (G)	11.29	1	11.29	7.91*	< .01
Main effect of (SE)	2.11	1	2.11	1.48	0.23
Main effect of (AS)	0.06	1	0.06	0.04	0.84
G x SE	1.36	1	1.36	0.95	0.33
G x AS	0.11	1	0.11	0.08	0.78
SE x AS	0.18	1	0.18	0.13	0.72
G x SE x AS	3.70	1	3.70	2.59	0.11
Within cells error	208.41	146	1.43		
Thought favorability					
Main effect of (G)	1.60	1	1.60	2.94	0.08
Main effect of (SE)	0.04	1	0.04	0.08	0.78
Main effect of (AS)	0.07	1	0.07	0.13	0.72
G x SE	0.38	1	0.38	0.70	0.40
G x AS	1.89	1	1.89	3.48	0.06
SE x AS	0.03	1	0.03	0.05	0.83
G x SE x AS	1.06	1	1.60	2.94	0.09
Within cells error	79.43	146	0.54		

Note. ** Significant difference at *p* < .001, * Significant difference at *p* < .01.
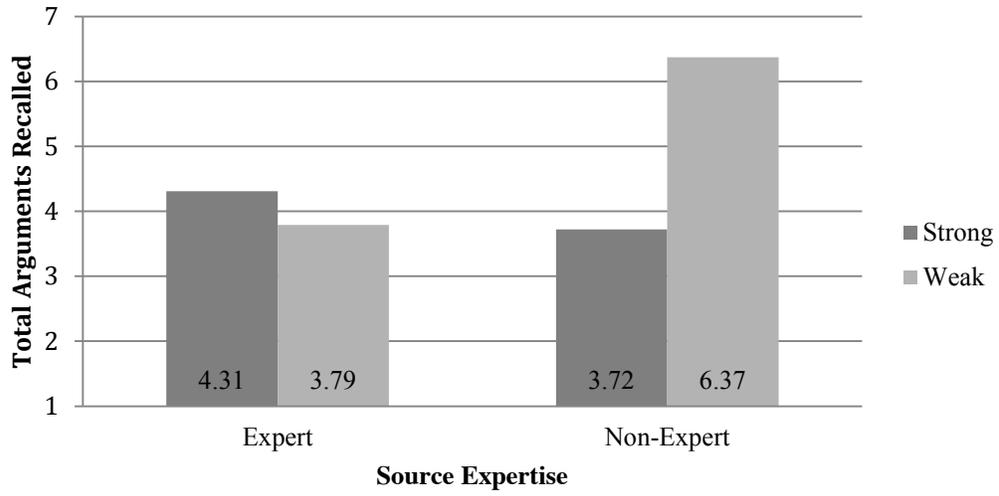(G) = Gender, (SE) = Source Expertise, (AS) = Argument Strength

XXXVIX.   FIGURE 1

Pre- and post-training scores for knowledge of university sexual harassment policies and sexual harassment supportive attitudes.
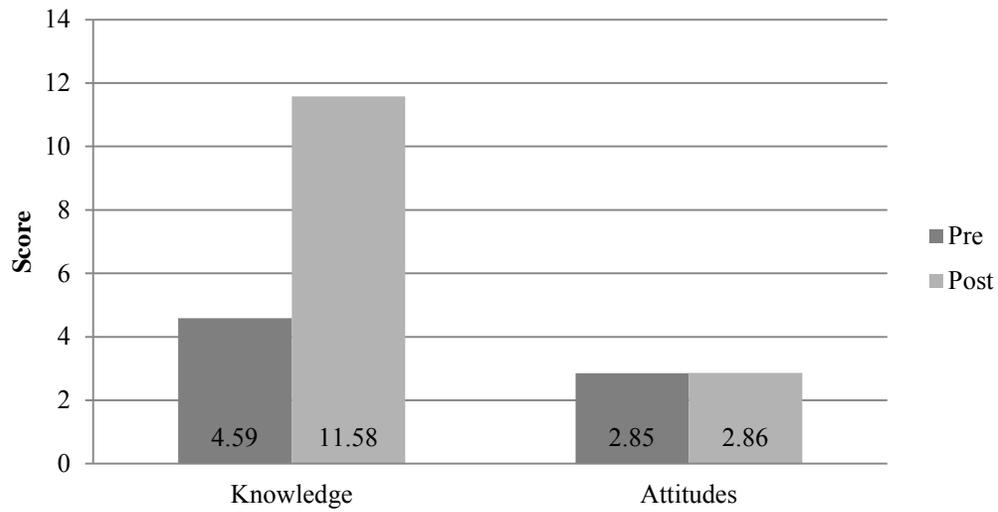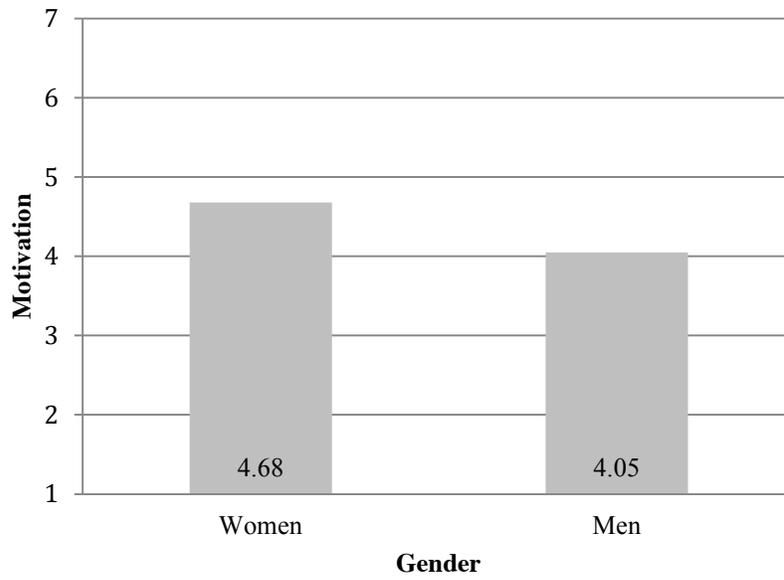
XL.   FIGURE 2

Interaction between source expertise and total arguments recalled

XLI. FIGURE 3

Main effect of gender on motivation

XLII. FIGURE 4

Main effect of gender on processing ability