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“Say Something!”: Examining the Bystander in Sexual Harassment

by

Lida Ponce

A thesis submitted to the College of Psychology and Liberal Arts of
Florida Institute of Technology
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Abstract

Title: “Say Something!”: Examining the Bystander in Sexual Harassment

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This research addresses the problem of sexual harassment in the workplace. Past research on harassment has primarily investigated the victim and the perpetrator, with limited research on bystanders in these events. However, bystanders can play an important role in the occurrence and outcomes of harassment by speaking up and intervening, particularly when the victim is too intimidated to do so. Therefore, this research examined this issue, focusing on factors influencing bystander intentions to intervene in sexual harassment incidents. Specifically, drawing from the Cognitive-Affective Processing System approach (Mischel & Shoda, 1995), this study investigated the construct of give/take/match (Grant, 2013) as a potentially important predictor of intentions to intervene and the extent to which this construct interacts with key situational factors to influence these intentions. Participants completed the study online through Amazon’s Mechanical Turk. These participants (a) completed a measure of give/take/match, (b) read one of six scenarios depicting sexual harassment varying in key situational details, and (c) indicated intention to

intervene. Regression analyses indicated that relationships between give/take/match and intentions to intervene were mixed. In addition, take interacted with a situational factor related to authority and give interacted with a situational factor related to need in predicting intentions to intervene, signaling that there are certain situational conditions that can drive individuals to intervene. This study contributes to research relating to sexual harassment by revealing more about a potentially underutilized intervention tool, the bystander. This research can also inform organizational policy related to supporting bystander intervention.

Keywords: bystander, sexual harassment, gender harassment, reciprocity styles, give/take/match, cognitive-affective processing, gender, social structural environment

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Dedication

I dedicate this manuscript to the brave and courageous women and men that come forward with their stories. It is not an easy decision and the consequences are an all too heavy price to pay many times.

To all the bystanders who come forward and demonstrate bravery and integrity in situations where victims need help. The decision to do what is right in circumstances that may affect them within an organization speaks volumes to the humanity they have. It is the voices of those who are hurt that are heard because they “say something”

"Here in this suffering, all previous beliefs are called into question. They are consumed in the fire sparked and fueled by our own illusion. The pain becomes the ashes we are now entombed in. It is only when we find ourselves at this most imprisoned of junctures that we emerge again, the phoenix of our very life which is ever so much more beautiful than the last one. " - Teal Swan

Introduction

"And though she may be broken, she is not defeated. She will rise unfettered, unbeaten, unimpeded." -Sara Furlong Burr, When Time Stands Still

It has been a little over two years since the #metoo movement began with allegations of sexual assault and harassment against Hollywood's elite in the movie industry. The #metoo movement has trickled down into other industries and workplaces as more victims have come forward with their stories of sexual assault and harassment. As a result, many perpetrators have lost their positions of power, forever shifting the dynamics of the workplace today. According to a Washington Post-ABC News poll, "a solid majority of Americans now say that sexual harassment in the workplace is a 'serious problem' in the United States" (Gibson & Guskin, 2017). Sexual assault in the United States affects one in five women and one in seventy-one men at some point in their lives (Black, et al. 2010). In addition, in 2015, the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) received 7,000 charges of sexual harassment (SH), and in 2014 alone, organizations spent $106 million in legal payments and benefits over sexually based discrimination charges (EEOC, 2015). This figure does not include the cost of lost hours and turnover due to harassing work environments (Jacobson & Eaton, 2018).

According to a study by the Society for Human Resource Management, executives are concerned about SH's negative impact on employees' morale, engagement, productivity, and profit (SHRM, 2018). Data analyzed from 2006 to 2014 among 3,724 workers found that gender discrimination and SH contributed to poor mental health and poor physical health in the workplace, partially explaining the gender gap in self-reported mental health (Harnois & Bastos, 2018). These findings clearly indicate this is a pervasive and important issue, suggesting that employers need to focus on understanding the key factors that contribute to SH and strategically put in place steps to counter it.

The predominant model used to explain the dynamics of SH, abuse, and incivility in the workplace is the Victim Precipitation model (Cortina, Rabelo, & Holland, 2018). This focus appears to have resulted in a culture of victim blame that has become more evident since the #metoo movement, such that the victim is seen as partly at fault (Jensen & Raver, 2018). This model is not facilitating the anti-SH culture that practitioners and organizations are trying to develop. In addition, research demonstrates the difficulty victims have in coming forward with claims of SH due to perceptions of potential negative consequences (e.g., retaliation, not being believed, lack of support; Jacobson & Eaton, 2018). As Cortina and colleagues suggested to the I-O Psychology field, "we indeed can do better" (Cortina et al., 2018, p. 9).

A potentially more fruitful approach is to focus on the social structural environment of the workplace (Cortina et al., 2018). The social structural environment refers to individuals, workgroups, and organizations. Bystanders are individuals who are a key part of this environment and may be essential in reducing SH in the workplace (Collazo & Kmec, 2018). However, research on bystanders in SH is very limited, as the focus tends to be on victims and perpetrators (Cortina et al., 2018). Specifically, focusing on bystanders is important because these individuals can provide support to the victims by giving them strength (Collazo & Kmec, 2018) and reduce the likelihood of a "he said, she said" argument. In addition, it is important to understand the perceptions and intentions of bystanders because, by developing a clearer sense of these, we can put policies in place that will encourage intervening behaviors.

Given this, the purpose of this research was to examine bystanders in SH in more detail, focusing on intentions to intervene. More specifically, drawing from the Cognitive-Affective Processing System (CAPS) approach (Mischel & Shoda, 1995), this study investigated give/take/match (Grant, 2013) as a potential predictor of bystander intentions to intervene and the extent to which this interacted with key situational factors to influence these intentions. The goal of this research was provide additional insights regarding the individuals and circumstances associated with greater bystander involvement to help inform models and applications related

to SH. These issues will be discussed in more detail in the following sections. First, SH is discussed along with antecedents and outcomes. Second, the social structural environment is discussed specifically focusing on the bystanders. Third, the cognitive affective processing system is discussed. Fourth, give, take, and match are discussed. Finally, gender is also discussed given that it may play an important role in the context of SH intervention.

Sexual Harassment

According to the psychological, behavioral science definition, sexual harassment is any “behavior that derogates, demeans, or humiliates an individual based on that individual’s sex” (Berdahl, 2007, p. 641). Over the years, several frameworks have been outlined to help explain SH. For instance, Lengnick-Hall (1995) describes five different approaches: power, violence or aggression, roles, demographics, and gender. Power views suggest that SH stems from power distances among men and women in society and at work (Hemming, 1985). Aggression approaches state that SH stems from violent natures (Fitzgerald, 1993; O’Leary-Kelly, Paetzold, & Griffin, 2000). Role views involve beliefs of how different sex role expectations contribute to SH (Gutek & Morasch, 1982). Demographic views are those that look at SH as coming from unequal ratios of men versus women represented in the workplace (Fain & Anderton, 1987). Finally, gender conceptualizations view SH as the product of the interactions between men and women (Gutek, Cohen, & Konrad, 1990).

Weinberg and Nielsen (2017) explain the psychological, sociological, and legal frameworks of SH. The five significant ones are: (a) conduct, (b) lived experience, (c) organizational responses to harassment, (d) workplace hierarchy, and (e) gender hierarchy. The first is about how SH is viewed differently based on

the conduct. An example of more graphically sexual conduct is touching, whereas complimenting an outfit is less graphic. The second theory (lived experience) is about how a person's background and identity influence how they perceive a SH incident. In other words, individuals are more likely to perceive SH if they empathize with the victim and identify with the stigmatized social group. The third is an organizational response to SH that explains that the climate is what influences SH. For instance, according to employment discrimination law, it is sufficient to have SH policy in place to be compliant. The fourth is the workplace hierarchy, which is a result of an unequal power balance in the workplace. It is a combination of the hierarchical structural nature of workplaces and the composition within work settings that creates the conditions for SH to occur. Some examples of hierarchical structural conditions are the leadership configuration and the fact that men generally hold higher positions of authority in the workplace. Also, men and women dominate in different industries and jobs. Last is the gender hierarchy perspective that indicates SH is a product of the patriarchal society where women are considered inferior to men and thus often victimized. The belief is that SH stems from status differences and legitimate power distance, where men dominate women and keep them "in their place" (Weingberg & Nielsen, 2017).

Similarly, Quick and McFadyen (2017) explain SH from three perspectives: legal, social-psychological, and public/lay. The legal perspective includes two

critical victories for victims of SH. The first was in the 1970s when the courts ruled quid pro quo a type of sexual harassment discrimination. Quid pro quo SH involves the loss or denial of a job or benefits (e.g., job position, salary increase, or promotion) if there is no reciprocation of sexual favors (Williams v. Saxbe, 1976). The next significant rulings were in the 1980s, in which sexual behaviors that produced hostile and abusive work environments were identified as SH (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 1980; Harris v. Forklift Systems, 1993; Meritor Savings Bank v. Vinson, 1986)). The ruling was upheld based on the broader sociocultural context of sexual oppression of women by men in the form of sexual comments, constant requests for dates, persistent sexual attention, materials, and jokes that create an abusive workplace (Farley, 1978; MacKinnon, 1979; Nieva & Gutek, 1981)). Traditionally, when cases went to court based upon SH, taking the perspective of the reasonable person was adopted surrounding the case. However, since it is well documented that women and men differ in their perception of SH, the courts have ruled that the reasonable woman standard be substituted in its place for claims of SH. Given this, the U.S. EEOC (1980) definition of SH is as follows: "Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when this conduct explicitly or implicitly affects an individual's employment, unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance, or

creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment." (p. 74677). The EEOC has recently updated the legal definition of SH to include: same-sex harassment, the notion that the harasser does not have to be employed by the target organization, and the notion that the target/victim is anyone who is affected by SH conduct even if they are not the direct target (e.g., bystander; Cortina & Berdahl, 2008).

The sociopsychological view is broader compared to the legal view and its focus is on the victim's subjective interpretation of the SH experience. There are five categories to this perspective: inappropriate sexual advances, general sexist remarks and/or behavior, coerced sexual activity that includes a threat of punishment or sexual assault, solicitation of sexual activity, or rewarded sexual favors (Till, 1980). The most commonly used measure in psychological research is the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire developed by Fitzgerald, Gelfand, and Drasgow (1995) based on Till's (1980) work. A factor analysis was conducted on the five SH categories and revealed that they fall under three broad categories: gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion (Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995). Gender harassment refers to verbal and nonverbal behaviors that disparage, objectify, or humiliate women as well as convey degrading, insulting, or hostile attitudes about women. Examples of gender harassment are slurs (e.g., "slut", "c**t"), gestures (e.g., about masturbating),

sexual jokes, sexist taunts (e.g., “not man enough” or “women don’t belong”), infantilization (e.g., “baby” or “dear”), derisive remarks about working mothers, display of pornographic material, unwanted sexual discussions, crude comments about bodies, gender-based hazing, threatening, or hostile acts. Unwanted sexual attention is verbal and nonverbal behavior that is offensive (e.g., groping, relentless pressure for dates), unwanted, and unreciprocated. Sexual coercion is often considered the epitome of SH: exchanging jobs/benefits for sexual favors. Out of the three categories, gender harassment is the most prevalent SH that occurs in the workplace (Fitzgerald, Shullman, Bailey, Richards, Swecker, Gold, Ormerod, & Weitzman, 1988; Fitzgerald, Drasgrow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997; Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow, & Waldo, 1999; Franke, 1997; Leskinen, Cortina, & Kabat, 2011; Schultz, 1998; U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1981, 1988, 1995; Waldo, Berdahl, & Fitzgerald, 1998) . Some researchers have even recommended treating gender harassment separate from SH to understand it more fully (Fitzgerald & Hesson-McInnis, 1989). Concerning the law, the first two categories fall under the second court ruling, involving a hostile or abusive work environment. The last category falls under quid pro quo SH. SH can also be divided into two categories of either “come-ons” or “put-downs.” Unwanted sexual attention and sexual coercion fall under “come-ons,” whereas gender harassment falls under “put-downs.”

The public/lay view is more encompassing because it involves how employees view SH, and it is the one that influences management policy. The public/lay perspective encompasses women's subjective memory of SH incidents and the evolution of SH perceptions by the general public over time. Another important reason for focusing on the public/lay definition is that findings indicate that women have a broader range of what is considered SH compared to men (Cortina & Berdahl, 2008; Rotundo, Nguyen, & Sackett, 2001). Specifically, women experience more behaviors that fall under hostile work environment harassment (e.g., dating pressure, derogatory attitudes toward women, physical, sexual contact; Rotundo, Nguyen, & Sackett, 2001). However, it is important to note that, although women are primarily the targets of SH (with recent findings reporting over 50% of women experience SH), men are still affected (over 30% of men report experiencing SH; McLauglin, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2012). One study by Vogt, Pless, King, and King (2005) found that there was an increase in depression for women and men in connection to higher levels of SH experiences, but that men reported greater levels of depression compared to women. This difference could be in part due to the stigmatizing effect of SH being unexpected with men. The stigma that is attached to men reporting SH and seeking help may prevent them from obtaining the needed support. Men who do not seek treatment experience drug and alcohol abuse, self-harm, and have a higher likelihood of

becoming homeless, especially for military veterans (Kime, 2014; McDonald, 2012). In general, there is more support available for women than for men. These findings indicate a greater need to include a broader conceptualization and investigation of SH to include men (Vogt et al., 2005)

Many employees still do not realize that gender harassment is a form of sexual harassment (Kabat-Farr & Crumley, 2019). Recently, Berdahl (2007) suggested using the term "sex-based harassment" as opposed to sexual harassment because, although the incidents are based on sex, they may not necessarily be sexual in motivation. Hence, the newer psychological definition, "sex-based harassment," involves any "behavior that derogates, demeans, or humiliates an individual based on that individual's sex" (Berdahl, 2007, p. 641). The reason for this is that not all SH has to be deliberate, unwelcome "come-ons" fueled by sexual desire, which is how SH has been conceptualized traditionally. Based on Berdahl's (2007) definition, a group of legal scholars (Leskinen, Cortina, & Kabat, 2011) has claimed that the term "gender harassment" adds to the legal understanding of "a form of hostile environment harassment that appears to be motivated by hostility toward individuals who violate gender ideals rather than by desire for those who meet them" (Berdahl, 2007, p. 425). Evidence reveals that harassment is related to gender and not just sexuality (Quick & McFadyen, 2017). According to this view, the primary reason that SH occurs is to protect one's social status when it is

perceived to be threatened. Protecting one's social status means conserving and perpetuating the male-dominated establishment (e.g., social power, sexual male dominance). Therefore, SH is used as corrective punishment for anyone that challenges the establishment or those who violate traditional feminine ideals such as women who are considered "too dominant," displaying nontraditional agentic qualities (Cortina et al., 2018). Thus, the public/lay perspective is more encompassing and focuses on the social structure that inadvertently encourages individuals to protect their status based on sex in the context of gender hierarchy within the workplace. Clarifying the definition of SH helps to identify then what are the reasons that SH occurs in the first place. The following section focuses on the antecedents of SH.

Antecedents

The most notable work on what we understand about antecedents of SH comes from Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, and Magley, (1997) and Fitzgerald, Gelfand, and Drasgow, (1995). Fitzgerald et al. (1997) documented the antecedents and consequences of SH within organizations and found that organizational climate and gender ratio are two elements that greatly influence the prevalence of SH in the workplace. Organizational climate with regards to SH refers to norms that foster tolerance of SH (e.g., perceived risk to victims complaining of SH, perceptions that one's complaints will not be taken seriously,

unclear written guidelines for what constitutes SH behavior, policies against SH, training programs, prevention and enforcement practices, standard procedures for reporting SH and investigating complaints; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). The gender ratio is the workgroup breakdown of men to women within an organization. These two antecedents have long been established as contributing to/promoting SH within the workplace (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Gutek, 1985; Jacobson & Eaton, 2018; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). There are also individual differences related to those who engage in SH, with predictors including the Big Five personality traits (Pryor & Meyers, 2000; Lee, Gizzarone, & Ashton, 2003-found in Walker, 2014), sexist hostility, and attitudes about dominance and hierarchy (Fisk & Glick, 1995; Lopez, Hodson, & Roscigno, 2009; O'Connell & Korabik, 2000; O'Leary-Kelly, Paetzold, & Griffin, 2000; Sojo, Wood, & Genat, 2016; Stockdale, Visio, & Batra, 1999). Power discrepancies have also been identified as influencing an individual's tendency to engage in SH (Bargh, & Raymond, 1995; Pryor, 1987; Pryor, LaVite, Stoller, 1993; Walker, 2014). Evidence indicates that the likelihood of sexual harassment increases when primed to think of a positive power discrepancy as opposed to being primed to think of being powerless (Walker, 2014). Incivility has also been identified as an antecedent and contributor to SH (Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013; Leskinen, Cortina, & Kabat, 2011-found in Quick and McFadyen, 2016), in that incivility often involves trying to maintain

power differences similar to SH. For instance, women and minorities experience significantly more incivility on the job compared to men and whites. Evidence also supports perception of role incongruity as a predictor of SH, where men and women who act outside of their prescribed gender roles are more likely to experience SH. (Berdahl, 2007; Dall'Ara & Maass 1999 found in Walker, 2014). There is also evidence of interactions between the person and the situation, where an individual prone to SH to maintain status feels emboldened in certain conducive situations (e.g., climate and culture of sexism and masculinity) to act out (Pryor, Giedd, Williams, 1995; Walker, 2014).

Outcomes

The adverse effects of SH are pervasive, widespread, and well documented (Fitzgerald, et al., 1988; Glomb, Richman, Hulin, Drasgow, Schneider, & Fitzgerald, 1997; Gruber, 1998; Gutek, 1985; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Raver & Gelfand, 2005; Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997; Quick & McFadyen, 2017; US Merit Systems Protection Board, 1981, 1988, 1995). SH has negative, damaging implications to career success and satisfaction for women (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). A meta-analysis by Willness, Steel, and Lee (2007) found that the consequences of SH can be split into three categories: job-related, health-related, and psychological outcomes. Job-related outcomes include job satisfaction, job burnout, job stress, organizational withdrawal,

absenteeism, organizational commitment, turnover (McLaughlin, Uggen, and Blackstone, 2017; National Academy of Sciences, 2018), team conflict, lowered team cohesion, lowered team financial performance, reduced opportunities for career advancement (Hegewisch, Deitch, & Murphy, 2011; National Academy of Sciences, 2018; Sugerman, 2018), retirement intentions, workplace accidents, and lower workgroup performance/productivity (Sugerman, 2018). Health-related outcomes include gastrointestinal disorders, weight loss/gain, increased cardiovascular reactivity, headaches, and lack of sleep (Schneider, Tomaka, & Palacios, 2001). Psychological outcomes include anxiety, problem drinking, eating disorders, anger, disgust, fear, lowered life satisfaction, depression, and symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder (Dansky and Kilpatrick, 1997; Houle, Staff, Mortimer, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2011; Schneider, Swan, and Fitzgerald, 1997; Schneider, Tomaka, & Palacios, 2001). Willness et al. (2007) also estimated an average cost per person for those working in a team where SH occurs of $22,500 in lost productivity.

In addition, there are also numerous organizational costs including legal fees from litigation (EEOC, 2018; Fortune, 2017), unwanted bad publicity, reduced retention (Boushey & Glynn, 2012; Chan, Darius, Chow, Lam, Cheung, 2008; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997; McLaughlin, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2017; Merken & Shah, 2014; Purl, Hall, & Griffeth, 2016; Sims,

Drasgow, Fitzgerald, 2005), lower motivation and commitment, team disruption (Raver & Gelfand, 2005; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007), increased absences (Khubchandani & Price, 2015), and greater sick leave costs (US Merit Systems Protection Board, 2018). There do not appear to be recent estimates of the cost, but a study in 1988 of SH in the US Army of reported annual costs of $250 million, suggesting the financial implications for organizations may be substantial (Faley, Erdos, Knapp, Kustis, & Dubois, 1999). In the early 1990s, another estimate of the costs of SH was done estimating this for federal government workplaces over two years at $327 million (US Merit Systems Protection Board, 1995). Organizational financial payouts in settlements are kept confidential, but the EEOC reports their financial settlements (though they only litigate a small number of charges on behalf of the employees they choose to represent). Their records for 2017 indicated monetary benefits of $46.3 million (US EEOC, 2018). The ramifications of SH are costly, to say the least, especially with how prevalent and widespread it is within organizations. SH affects everyone in the world (Gruber, 2003), across cultures and countries, SES levels, education levels, age groups, and vocations (Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2003; Barak, 1997; Gelfand, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 1995).

SH outcomes can also depend on the type of harassment experienced. A meta-analysis by Sojo, Wood, and Genat (2016) found that across 88 studies the three types of SH (gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual

coercion) were equally damaging and impactful on supervisor satisfaction. However, gender harassment was more detrimental in terms of physical health, coworker satisfaction, and job satisfaction. This study demonstrates how severe and pervasive gender harassment is, although the public often considers sexual coercion and unwanted sexual attention more traumatic.

These findings help to emphasize why this is an important topic to investigate. As previously discussed, there many factors that contribute to SH. Although previous research has often focused on the victim and the perpetrator, the social structural environment may be at least as important. The next section focuses on the social structural environment with specific emphasis on the role of the individual as a bystander.

Social Structural Environment

There are three models of SH: perpetrator predation (PP), victim precipitation (VP), and the social structural model (Cortina, Rabelo, & Holland, 2018**).** The PP model puts the responsibility on the perpetrator and examines the characteristics and behavior of these individuals. It emphasizes the perpetrator and holds this individual accountable for the conduct. Perpetrators tend to be naturally more aggressive, and they strategically choose their victims based on their vulnerability (Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011). Although there are specific characteristics the victims may have that the perpetrators go after, the focus remains on the power disparity of the predator going after the prey. Looking through the PP perspective focuses interventions on the sole person responsible for the abuse inflicted on victims and the social context that allows him/her to flourish (Cortina, Rabelo, & Holland, 2018). Focusing on the potential perpetrators within organizations may be effective in reducing SH. For instance, male perpetrators reported less SH when they thought there would be negative organizational consequences (Dekker & Barling, 1998).

SH has primarily been examined using the VP model within I-O Psychology (Cortina, Rabelo, & Holland, 2017). The VP model looks at SH through the actions of the victim that provoke or tempt the perpetrator into hurting

the victim. The VP model proposes that there are specific characteristics of the victim's behavior or personality that invite victimization. The initiator of the model, criminologist Hans von Hentig, wrote, "the human victim in many instances seems to lead the evil-doer actively into temptation. If there are born criminals, there are born victims" (von Hentig, 1940, p. 303). He also stated that the victim is in part at fault for the crimes that befall him/her because the victim "shapes and molds the criminal" (von Hentig, 1948, p. 384).

The usage of the VP model is fairly prominent (Aquino, 2000; Aquino & Bradfield, 2000; Aquino & Byron, 2002; Aquino, Grover, Bradield & Allen, 1999; Aquino & Lamertz, 2004; Chan & McAllister, 2014; Henle & Gross, 2014; Milam, Spitzmueller, & Penney, 2009; Samnani, 2013; Samnani & Singh, 2016; Scott, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013; Tepper, Duffy, Henle, & Lambert, 2006; Tepper, Moss, & Duffy, 2011). However, there are problems with the structure of the model and with its inherent victim-blaming attitudes and beliefs even if it is not the intent of researchers. That is, this approach implies that victims are responsible for being victimized and that they can prevent future attacks. For instance, a sexual assault prevention poster using the victim precipitation ideology was put up around the Wright Patterson Airforce Base. It detailed eight tips that potential employee victims could do to avoid being sexually assaulted, such as "Socialize with people who share your values" and "Try to avoid areas that are secluded." Inadvertently,

the poster implies that employees have control over others, and if sexual assault occurs, it is the victim's fault for not preventing it (Wiederspahn, 2013). It would have been more sensible and responsible had the poster focused on the PP model and the perpetrator's misbehavior with tips such as "Avoid being a criminal" and "Without consent, it is not sex: it is a crime" (Cortina, Rabelo, & Holland, 2017). These negative consequences stem from focusing on the victims and their perceived weaknesses, which leads to surmising that the victims somehow invite the abuse through their personality, dress, speech, actions, or even inactions (Cortina, Rabelo, & Holland, 2017). Because of the unintended consequences and danger of using the VP model, many researchers outside of I-O psychology abandoned it years ago. However, it is still used to this day in top I-O journals, such as Academy of Management Review and Journal of Applied Psychology (see Chan & McAllister, 2014; Scott, Restubog, & Zagenczyk, 2013).

The social structural model encompasses several aspects of a SH incident, rather than focusing on one aspect (e.g., perpetrator or victim). The social structural environment includes organizational climate, norms and culture, leadership, workgroups, and bystanders within the organization. The social structural model has several advantages over the VP model. Perhaps the most important advantage is that the social structural model does not harm the victim like the VP model with the unintended consequences of focusing on the victim. In addition, there are

questionable findings, logical inadequacies, untestable hypotheses, and unwarranted generalizations associated with the VP model (Cortina, Rabelo, & Holland, 2017). By focusing on the social structural environment, the science and practice of alleviating SH can have more practical and progressive implications. To date, the most influential predictor of SH incidents within organizations is the SH climate, which can foster or prevent SH. SH occurs depending on the climate and whether employees perceive an organization as tolerating SH (Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). Although the ultimate responsibility of SH falls on the perpetrator, research into the social structural environment has shown that a perpetrator's behavior can be inflamed and encouraged by peer acceptance through norms and the situational context surrounding the incident (Scharwtz & DeKeseredy, 1997).

Four models can be outlined when focusing on the social structural environment instead of the VP model. The first model looks at SH through the lens of social status protection. This entails viewing social settings or the broader socio-cultural context in terms of gender and sex-based harassment (e.g., exclusion, sabotage, and sex-based insults) as a means to correct behavior that is considered outside of prescribed roles (Farley, 1978; Franke, 1997; MacKinnon, 1979; Schultz, 1998). The social structure can inadvertently encourage individuals to feel emboldened to engage in SH behaviors to protect their status based on sex. Just as there are social environments that cultivate SH behavior, they can also reject it by

being intolerant of any SH behavior. Although sex policies help (e.g., banning workplace romances), that is not enough because the majority of SH does not entail sexual advancement in the typical “come-on” fashion. In addition, focusing on just the policies to prevent SH has created a fear of mild expressions of sexual interest that could be misconstrued, resulting in demotions, unwarranted firing, and lawsuits (Berdhal, 2007). Policies banning sex can backfire where women and men are kept separate to prevent any incidences of SH occurring, and as a consequence, underrepresentation of women in the workplace persists (Schultz, 1998). In turn, this can hinder women in terms of obtaining positions of leadership, advancing in their careers, as well as entering specific industries that are male-dominated (Berdahl, 2007; Clerkin, 2017).

The second model focuses on selective incivility toward employees from marginalized groups (e.g., sexual minorities, older adults, racial/ethnic minorities). A part of this model is the power component, which perpetuates those at the top to continually act on their biases with uncivil conduct. Research supports the incivility theory, demonstrating that marginalized groups experience the highest frequencies of workplace incivility (Cortina, Kabat-Farr, Leskinen, Huerta, & Magley, 2013).

The third model focuses on organizational culture concerning the workgroup and interventions on fostering civility. Programs such as Civility, Respect, and Engagement in the Workplace (CREW) have successfully reduced

workplace incivility and increased respect. The CREW intervention works by first having employees get together to brainstorm ways in which they can promote civility. The result is a list of their strengths with advancing civility and areas of improvement. An actionable plan is put in place with all the members to improve civility with as needed updates to the plan. There are promising results in field studies, with the CREW program increasing respect and reducing workplace incivility (Laschinger, Leiter, Day, Gilin-Oore, & Mackinnon, 2012; Leiter, Laschinger, Day, & Oore, 2011; Osatuke, Moore, Ward, Dyrenforth, & Belton, 2009).

Last is the bystander intervention taxonomy, which focuses on the other social structural environmental components. Adopting the bystander approach within the social structural environment engages everyone in the social structural environment in terms of getting all members to take action - a call to arms. Bystanders are crucial to addressing SH incidents/behaviors by intervening when harassment occurs. Bystanders may be able to assist in all three levels of SH prevention. The primary level is preventing SH situations from occurring (before the SH incident); the secondary level is interrupting the SH incident by challenging the perpetrator (the actual SH incident); and the tertiary level is providing support to the victim (after the SH incident; McMahon & Banyard, 2012; McDonald, Charlesworth, & Graham, 2015).

Bystanders

A bystander is an individual who observes a SH incident or hears about an incident even when not directly involved in it (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). In a work setting, the bystander could be coworkers, line/department managers, HR managers, or customers (McDonald, Charlesworth, & Graham, 2015). The bystander approach works synergistically in that it impacts the victim, the potential perpetrator, and the entire organization by strengthening moral responsibility (Lee, Hanson, & Cheung, 2019). The bystander has immense power in a situation involving SH, and his/her behavior can be understood as reflecting an ethical decision-making process of choosing one of three actions: (a) keeping the situation as it is by doing nothing, (b) escalating the situation—making it even worse by supporting the perpetrator or ignoring the perpetrator's behavior, or (c) making the situation better by intervening and helping out the victim (Lee, Hanson, & Cheung, 2019; McMahon & Banyard, 2012). The bystander can intervene through social guidance to the victim to formally report the SH incident (Goldman, 2001), reporting the SH formally themselves, intervening during the SH incident or later confronting the perpetrator (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005), and working to change the cultural and social norms to stop any type of SH from occurring (McDonald, Charlesworth, & Graham, 2015).

Bystander Interventions

Two well-known bystander frameworks have been used to understand bystander intervention. First, Latane and Darley (1970) outlined helping behavior in general with a series of stages in which the bystander decides to intervene or not. Other researchers use their bystander framework by applying it to SH (Burn, 2009; Berkowitz, 2009). Five stages describe the decision-making process of the bystander. Stage one involves the bystander paying attention to the SH situation unfolding. Stage two requires that the SH situation becomes problematic. Stage three involves taking responsibility for getting involved. Stage four entails deciding what to do. Stage five is deciding to take action and get involved (Burn, 2009; Berkowitz, 2009). Second, the Bystander SH framework from Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly (2005) looks at bystander intervention in SH along two dimensions: (a) immediacy of intervention and (b) level of involvement. The first dimension is the immediacy of intervention: high immediacy involves the bystander intervening during the SH event (e.g., interrupts the SH incident or removes the victim from the SH incident), whereas low immediacy involves the bystander intervening at a later time to try and prevent future SH from happening (e.g., advising the victim or by reporting the SH incident themselves). The second dimension is the level of involvement of the bystander in the SH incident: low involvement constitutes not

getting involved in the SH incident, whereas high involvement is when the bystanders put themselves in harm's way (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005).

Previous research describes SH bystander intervention into three main types/factors: (a) situation/context, (b) relationship to the victim or perpetrator, and (c) the individual (Bennett, Banyard, & Edwards, 2015). For the first factor, numerous studies have investigated bystanders in group dynamic settings and other social contexts (Clark & Word, 1972; Latene & Darley, 1968). For instance, research has indicated that bystander intervention depends on severity of the situation (Chabot, Tracy, Manning, & Poisson, 2009; Fischer et al., 2011), perceived peer norms (Brown & Messman-Moore, 2010), personal history of victimization (Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1996; Frye, 2007), awareness of the problem, sense of responsibility, confidence, antiviolence attitudes, personal history of victimization, and relationship to the victim (Banyard, 2008; Burn, 2009; Frye, 2007; McMahon, 2010). In addition, bystanders are more likely to help if they feel guilty (Estrada-Hollenbeck & Heatherton, 1998), feel similar to the victim (Levine, Cassidy, Brazier, & Reicher, 2002), are altruistic (Eisenberg et al., 1999), and are agreeable (Graziano, Habashi, Sheese, & Tobin, 2007). For the second factor, research indicates bystander intervention depends on the relationship to the victim (Banyard, 2008; Bennett, Banyard,,& Garnhart, 2014; Burn, 2009; Katz, Pazienza, Olin, & Rich, 2015; Levine et al, 2005) and relationship to the

perpetrator (Bennett, Banyard, & Garnhart, 2014; Burn, 2009; Nicksa, 2014; McMahon, 2010; Schwartz & DeKeseredy, 1997). For the last factor, research has examined the individual differences or intrapersonal variables within the bystander (e.g., cognitions, sex, personality, emotions) that increase the likelihood of intervening. Studies have found that there are sex/gender differences (Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Bennett, Banyard, & Garnhard, 2014; Burn, 2009; Hoxmeier, Flay, DPhil, & Acock, 2015; McMahon, 2010; Nicksa, 2014) and attitudes and cognitions are influential (Banyard, 2011). For example, empirical studies have found that bystanders are less likely to intervene if they do not perceive SH was occurring (Banyard, 2008; Hoefnagels & Zwikker, 2001; McMahon, 2010; Shotland & Huston, 1979). Another crucial cognitive variable that is predictive of bystander intervention is personal beliefs. Bystanders who have fewer rape myth beliefs are more likely to intervene (Frese, Moya, & Megias, 2004; Frye, 2007; McMahon, 2010). On the other hand, studies have demonstrated how those that have higher beliefs of rape myth acceptance reject that SH behaviors occurred, even though they are legally deemed sexual assault. Based on this, they are less inclined to punish the perpetrator (Franiuk, Seefelt, & Vandello, 2008; Frese et al., 2004; Norris & Cubbines, 1992). Other predictors include sense of responsibility (Burn, 2009; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011), feelings of similarity to the victim (Levine, Cassidy, Brazier, & Reicher, 2002), feelings of guilt (Estrada-

Hollenbeck & Heatherton, 1998), and altruism (Eisenberg et al., 1999). Prosocial helping behaviors/tendencies have also been found to predict intervening behavior (Carlo & Randall, 2002; Hoxmeier, Flay, DPhil, & Acock, 2015).

In sum, previous research has examined bystander intervention from several perspectives. The current research is designed to extend this work by investigating individual and situational factors that contribute to intervening, with a focus on the give/take/match construct (Grant, 2013). Specifically, this study will examine give/take/match and situational factors as antecedents of intentions to intervene, exploring the four forms bystander intervention outlined in the Bystander SH framework (crossing immediacy of intervention and level of involvement; Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary, 2005). To further examine bystanders and the situational factors that contribute to them intervening in the incident, this research draws from the Cognitive-Affective Processing System (CAPS) theory.

Cognitive-Affective Processing System

How individuals perceive and process information depends on how they are wired—their unique configuration of thoughts, emotions, beliefs, and goals—such that they will respond differently when observing the same situation. Cognitive-Affective Processing System (CAPS) theory explains these distinct mental processes and how they underlie personality (Mischel & Shoda, 1995). This approach outlines how individuals encode cues, process information, and plan behaviors based on interactions among cognitive-affective units (CAUs). Specifically, CAPS contains five CAUs: encodings, competencies and self-regulatory strategies, expectancies and beliefs, goals and values, and affective responses (see Appendix A; Shoda et al., 2015). Encodings refer to categories or constructs individuals have for understanding the self, people, events, and situations. Competencies and self-regulatory strategies refer to the "potential behaviors and scripts that one can do and plans and strategies for organizing action and for affecting outcomes and one's own behavior and internal states" (Mischel & Shoda, 1995, p. 253). Expectancies and beliefs refer to expectations related to particular situations and the social world. Goals refer to desirable outcomes and affective states. Finally, affective responses refer to feelings and emotions in responding to a situation including physiological reactions. The overall idea then is

that these CAUs interact to produce an individual's behavior: situational features are encoded, activating subsets of other CAUs, resulting in a specific pattern of cognition, affect, and behavior. The theory also proposes that individuals differ in the accessibility of CAUs and the organization of relationships among these CAUs. Although individuals differ when it comes to their CAPS, the same basic behavioral pattern is evident. The main goal was to understand intraindividual behavioral patterns (Shoda et al., 2015).

For example, Mendoza-Denton, Ayduk, Shoda, and Mischel (1997) provided an example of how CAUs might function in the context of reactions to the trial of O.J. Simpson with two groups of people differing in their CAPS. Specifically, Mendoza-Denton et al. outlined the nodes within the CAPS of individuals who agreed and those who disagreed with the O.J. Simpson verdict. For example, the situational features in this case involved the evidence, including: (a) bronco chase, (b) 911 tapes, (c) crime scene, (d) Mark Fuhrman testimony, and (e) prosecution arguments presented in the trial. These features positively activated thoughts that O.J. Simpson was guilty for those who disagreed with the not guilty verdict, which led the individuals to discount the legitimacy of the evidence being questionable, such as the fact that the defense turned the trial into a debate on racism, furthering confirmation that the evidence was rock solid rather than corrupted. For these individuals who were upset by the not guilty verdict, no

amount of fame or minority status (Black) as well as the exposure of his past domestic abuse behavior could exonerate his wrongdoings. This then led these individuals to experience dismay over the "not-guilty" verdict. On the other hand, those that agreed with the "not-guilty" verdict examined the same features but these features activated thoughts and emotions that led them to believe the evidence was dubious, the verdict was just, Mark Fuhrman is a racist, and that the jury made the right choice, thereby leaving them elated over the "not-guilty" verdict. Other studies have also supported this framework, including the "if, then" contingencies suggested by this theory (e.g., Wood et al., 2019)

This theory is a useful foundation for the current research because it provides a framework to potentially explain differing bystander behavior, such that each bystander has specific CAUs activated in a given moment, which influence his/her intention to intervene (see Appendix B). These ideas can then be applied in the current context to understand how individual differences in give/take/match may interact with key situational factors to influence bystander reactions to SH.

Give/Take/Match

Researchers have identified three major styles of social interaction within relationships and work roles, also called reciprocity styles. These preferences in reciprocity style are referred to as give, take, and match. The interactions are a mixture of give and take choices we make between claiming as much value as possible or contributing value without trying to receive back. Only a few studies have examined the unique nature and implications of give, take, and match (Grant, 2013; Trane, 2018; Utz et al., 2014).

For example, Utz et al. (2014) found that give/take/match predicted above and beyond social value orientation in sharing in a public goods dilemma task and strategic information sharing task. Bolino and Grant (2016) outlined research related to prosocial motivation (a trait of givers) that demonstrates correlations with agreeableness but also some distinctions. For instance, agreeableness reflects a prosocial orientation; however, the distinction is that agreeableness is about being nice, cooperative, and mannerly which is different from being caring and helpful. Roccas, Sagiv, Schwartz, and Knafo (2002) found that agreeableness correlates higher with benevolent prosocial values, concern for protecting and promoting well-being of others who you are close with, and lower with universalistic prosocial values and concern for protecting the well-being of everyone. This means that

prosocial motivation takes into consideration others not in one's circle, and agreeableness takes into consideration an inclination to please others. The implication is that it is possible to be disagreeable and yet prosocial; for example, it may be that individuals who care to help others are willing to give the critical feedback that others are reluctant to hear but need to hear (Van Dyne, Ang, & Botero, 2003).

Trane (2018) examined givers, takers, and matchers and how these characteristics correlated with other constructs. This research found that give correlated positively with altruistic helping orientation and prosocial motivation and had a negative relationship with antisocial constructs. On the other hand, take correlated positively with self-orientation, impression management motivation, selfish helping orientation, competitive and reciprocal motivation, self-maximizing, and correlated negatively with altruistic helping orientation and prosocial motivation. Match correlated with self-prioritizing relations, prosocial motivation, and receptive giving helping orientation. Also, there were correlations found between give and outcomes (e.g., give correlated with life satisfaction and job satisfaction). In contrast, take and match did not correlate with any outcomes. The proposed research aims to add to the limited research on this construct. Specifically, this study proposes that give/take/match may be influential in bystander reactions to SH. The study specifically focuses on intentions to intervene.

Givers

Givers are individuals who give selflessly of their time, knowledge, resources, skills, energy, and ideas in helping others succeed without expecting anything in return (Grant, 2013). Givers are more likely to engage in prosocial behavior, sharing, and have an orientation towards others (Utz, Muscanell, & Goritz, 2014). Givers prefer to give more than they receive, and their other-focus makes them pay more attention to the needs of others. A giver helps generously at work by sharing time, knowledge, energy, ideas, skills, and connections with others. Thus, the key underlying theme for givers is the desire to help others. Given this conceptualization of givers, they may be more likely to intervene in an incident of SH.

Hypothesis 1: There is a positive relationship between giver and intention to intervene in a SH event.

Givers should also be particularly sensitive to the needs of others, picking up on cues signaling this need. Using the CAPS framework in the case of SH, when givers encode the features of a SH situation they will be particularly likely to pick up on cues related to opportunities to help. Any such cues should then activate help-related goals given givers pro-social orientation. These goals will then motivate helping-related behavior and one such behavior is intervening. That is, givers will attempt to rectify any and all misfortunes if encountered by intervening

in term of the SH behavior due to their helping nature and desire to be altruistic (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). This means that overall givers may be more likely to intervene when they are bystanders in situations involving SH. However, given this characterization, givers may also be particularly likely to intervene in the incident when the SH victim shows a higher level of need (e.g., if the victim is visibly shaken or in distress). In this case, givers are particularly likely to perceive need, strongly activating their helping-related goals.

> *Hypothesis 2*: The relationship between giver and intention to intervene in a SH event is moderated by victim need such that this relationship is stronger when need is higher.

Takers

Takers are essentially the opposite of givers in that they desire to receive as many resources as possible from others while using limited resources themselves (Grant, 2013). They are self-focused and attempt to make sure that the cards are always in their favor. These individuals have a mindset where they view situations as win-lose dilemmas, take credit for anything they can, have self-serving attributional biases, and have less motivation to form an accurate perception of their situation (Grant, 2013; Harvey & Matinko, 2008). Takers are not necessarily cruel; their attitude stems from the notion that "I have to take care of myself first or no one will" (Grant, 2013, p. 3). However, the taking personality trait has been

linked to antisocial behaviors such as CWB, fraud, blackmailing, sabotage, narcissism, sexual harassment, lower information sharing, and fewer contributions to resources (Andersson & Pearson, 1999; Fox, Spector, & Miles, 2001; Giacalone & Greenberg, 1997; Grant, 2013; Hogan & Hogan, 2001; O'Leary-Kelly, Griffin, & Glew, 1996; Utz et al., 2014). Given this conceptualization of takers, they may be less likely to intervene in an incident of SH.

Hypothesis 3: There is a negative relationship between taker and intention to intervene in a SH event.

Takers should also be particularly sensitive to their own needs and outcomes, encoding cues relevant to these concerns. Therefore, takers would be more likely to encode features of a SH incident in terms of cues related to potential benefits for themselves. This suggests that they would be unlikely to intervene in a SH incident, unless doing so would benefit them in some way (Latane & Darley, 1970). For example, if the SH victim is someone who has control over resources (e.g., a supervisor who determines raises and promotions), then takers might activate self-focused goals and capitalize on the situation, such that they may act to assist the victim through intervening in the hope that this will benefit them later. In contrast, if the SH victim is not someone who has control over resources, takers would be less likely to assist through intervening, because the situation would not

activate these self-focused goals as intervening would seem to have little personal benefit.

Hypothesis 4: The relationship between taker and intention to intervene in a SH event is moderated by victim position of power/authority, such that this relationship is less negative when position of power/authority is higher.

Matchers

Matchers are individuals who determine their helping behavior based on the likelihood of receiving similar favors back in return. In other words, the mindset of the matcher is equality or balance between giving and taking (Grant, 2013). Thus, matchers evaluate whether their efforts will be reciprocated. They do not like to invest their effort or time unless they can see that they will get rewarded back; they pay attention to inputs versus outputs and support others if they will receive support in return (Mathner & Lanwehr, 2017). Given this conceptualization of matchers, the overall relationship with intentions to intervene an incident of SH is less clear, but they may be less likely to intervene.

Hypothesis 5: There is a negative relationship between matcher and intention to intervene in a SH event.

Matchers should also be particularly sensitive to the balance between inputs and outcomes, encoding cues related to this balance. Thus, in SH scenarios they should be more likely to assist if they have an expectation that this act may be

repaid later. For instance, if the SH victim is someone they are likely to interact with frequently in the future, then matchers may be more likely to assist, as these frequent interactions would provide substantial opportunities for reciprocal support. However, if the victim is unlikely to interact with the bystander in the future, then matchers may be less likely to assist. Specifically, it is expected that matchers will attend to these cues and encode them with their specific CAUs (e.g., expectancies, goals), such that the norm of reciprocity will be made salient if the victim has a relationship with the bystander (e.g., a friend). This will then lead to the goal of assisting given that reciprocity is salient. In contrast, this norm will not be activated if the victim has little to no relationship with the bystander.

> *Hypothesis 6*: The relationship between matcher and intention to intervene in a SH event is moderated by victim relationship to the bystander such that this relationship is less negative when the victim-bystander relationship is closer.

Gender

Finally, it is important to acknowledge that sex/gender may also play a role in this research. Evidence suggests that women and men differ when it comes to judgments about SH (Rotundo, Nguyen, & Sacket, 2001). The SH literature has identified sex/gender differences, where women perceive a broader range of behaviors as SH (Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011; Bennett, Banyard, & Garnhard, 2014; Burn, 2009; Hoxmeier, Flay, DPhil, & Acock, 2015; McMahon, 2010; Nicksa, 2014). For instance, a meta-analytic review by Blumenthal (1998) summarized 111 studies with over 34,350 participants and found that the overall standardized mean difference is 0.35 for women perceiving a greater amount of SH behaviors compared to men. In their meta-analytic review, Rotundo, Nguyen, and Sackett (2001) found a 0.30 overall standardized mean difference, with women defining a broader range of behaviors as SH compared to men. These differences can also be seen in problems in the courts with resolving claims of SH using the reasonable person perspective for a hostile work environment. When it came to resolving whose perspective was taken, it was decided to substitute the reasonable person perspective with the reasonable women standard in landmark rulings based on how men and women differ in perceptions of social-sexual behaviors (Rotundo

Nguyen, & Sackett, 2001). Given this, it appears that women may be more likely to perceive behavior as SH and thus may be more likely to intervene.

> *Hypothesis 7*: There is a relationship between gender and intention to intervene in a SH event such that women are higher in this intention.

It is also possible that gender may interact with give/take/match and/or the manipulated situational factors (e.g., victim need). Some research has looked at how the status of the harasser moderates the size of the gender differences (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1988), as well as how women versus men perceive sexual touching as SH (Gutek, 1985). Interestingly, the authors found that only 24% of the variance in the observed gender difference was accounted for by sampling error. This means that there may be other factors that moderate the differences in how women and men view SH behaviors (e.g., other features of the situation). The meta-analysis also revealed that gender differences were larger for more ambiguous and less extreme behaviors such as dating pressure and derogatory attitudes versus sexual proposition and sexual coercion. Even though past research has been informative, there is still much work needed in this area. Therefore, in this research, we will be examining potential interactions with gender in an exploratory fashion.

> *Research Question 1*: Does gender interact with give/take/match and/or situational factors in predicting intention to intervene in a SH event?

Method

Participants and Procedure

Participants were recruited using Amazon's Mechanical Turk (Mturk). A power analysis was conducted using G*Power based on a similar study (Ruchi, 2018) assuming a small effect size (f^2= .05). Based on this power analysis, this study required approximately 477 participants. The initial sample recruited was 602 Mturk participants. After removing 99 individuals for missing data, incorrect attention check responses, and unrealistic survey completion times (i.e., surveys completed in less than 4 minutes), the total was 503 participants (*Ns* differed across variables due to missing data; see Table 2). Demographic characteristics are as follows: 56.4% Female, 9.5% gender not reported; 69.3% White, 8.7% African American, 4.8% Hispanic, 7.1% Asian, 0.4% Middle Eastern, 1.9% Native American, 7.9% Bi-Racial, 1.4% Multi-racial, 7.3% ethnicity not reported; mean age 46.76 (SD = 13.65); and 40.2% liberal, 22.4% moderate, 27.1% conservative, and 10.3% other or not reported.

The study involved five major steps. First, participants completed the Give & Take personality measure (Grant, 2013). Second, participants were randomly assigned to one of six conditions involving varying scenario situational characteristics (described below). Third, after reading the scenario, participants

completed several measures, including manipulation checks and likelihood of intervening in the SH incident (the key dependent variable). Fourth, measures of SH perceptions and potential CAPS-related mediating variables were administered (these were used for exploratory analyses beyond the scope of the proposed hypotheses). Finally, demographic items were administered.

Scenarios

The SH scenarios were identical except for the manipulated information. This study involved three manipulations: (a) the target victim in the giving scenario reacted to the SH in a manner that implied more need for help versus less need for help, (b) the target victim in the taking scenario was an authority figure in a position of power (supervisor) versus an individual who was not in a position of power (coworker), and (c) the target victim in the matching scenario was a friend versus a stranger. Initial versions of the scenarios (see Appendix C) were pilot tested using I/O Psychology students and then Mturkers and revised if necessary. Participants were presented with one of these scenarios along with two other "distractor" scenarios included to conceal the main focus on SH (see Jacobson & Eaton, 2018). Although the "distractor" scenario design was based on Jacobson and Eaton (2018), the scenarios were taken from Hershcovis et al. (2017) and "Ethics and Psychology" (n.d.). Participants were asked to read all three vignettes (one SH scenario and two distractors) and were told that they would be randomly assigned

to answer questions from one of the three scenarios. In fact, all participants were assigned to answer questions for the SH scenario only. Again, the distractor scenarios were only used to conceal the study's focus on the subject of SH. Initial versions of the scenarios are in Appendix C.

Measures

Give & Take. The give and take measure developed by Grant (2013) was used. In this measure, participants read 15 scenarios and indicated which one of three alternatives they think best applies to them. Instructions for the measure were modified such that participants rate each of the three alternatives on a 1 (not at all likely) to 5 (extremely likely) scale. The reason for this rating modification was that research suggests that the rating response format is superior in the context of situational judgment tests (SJTs) designed to measure noncognitive constructs, similar to what is used in this study (Arthur, Glaze, & Taylor, 2014). Thus, each participant will have three continuous scores (one each for give, take, and match; see Appendix D). In addition, give, take, match was scored categorically as originally intended (Grant, 2013).

Manipulation checks. The participants completed manipulation checks to ensure that they perceived the manipulation-specific information (e.g., victim being a friend) and to measure manipulation-relevant reactions. Example items include: "In the scenario, did the female show/demonstrate that she was physically shaken?"

(a. yes, b. no), “In the scenario, was the female your supervisor or not?” (a. yes b. no), “In the scenario, were you friends with the female coworker?” (a. yes, b. no). In addition, manipulation checks included items focused on relevant reactions involving the constructs of need, authority, and reciprocation and included: need (“In the scenario, the female employee needed help”), authority (“In the scenario, the female had authority and power to help you get promoted”), and reciprocation (“In the scenario, the female could help you in the future”). The items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).; see Appendix E)

Bystander Intervention Measure (BIM). To measure participant likelihood of intervening in the SH incident, a twelve-item measure developed by Koon (2013) was used. The measure provided three items for each of the four combinations of immediacy and involvement (e.g., Low Immediacy/Low Involvement “Privately advise the recipient to avoid the harasser”, Low Immediacy/High Involvement “Later report the harasser”, High Immediacy/High Involvement “Tell the harasser to stop the harassing behavior”, and High Immediacy/Low Involvement “Redirect harasser away from unfolding harassing conduct”). The scale was modeled after the Bowes-Sperry and O’Leary-Kelly (2006) observer intervention behavior typology but was modified to indicate the participant’s likelihood of intervening. The Cronbach alpha reliability was reported

as .68 to .77 for the subscales. The twelve items were on a 5-point Likert scale from 1 (Very likely to perform intervention) to 5 (Very unlikely to perform intervention; see Appendix F).

Demographics. Several demographics were collected as well at the end of the survey, such as gender, age, ethnicity, and political affiliation (see Appendix G).

Measures for Exploratory Analyses

Perception of Sexual Harassment. Two items of SH were given to assess if sexual harassment occurred: "Do you think the male's conduct is sexual harassment?" and "Do you think the male's conduct would be considered sexual harassment by others?" The items will be rated on a 5-point Likert scale with 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree; See Appendix I).

Operationalization of Accessibility and Activation Pathways. To measure relevant CAPS concepts related to thoughts, affects, and goals, a scale was adapted from Mendoza, Ayduk, Shoda, and Mischel (1997; see Appendix J). The items were rated on a 5-point Likert scale 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Emotional Reaction Questionnaire. To measure relevant CAPS concepts related to affects, a scale from Habashi, Graziano, and Hoover (2016) was used (see Appendix K). The scales were split in two dimensions: empathic concern and

personal distress. Empathic concern was measured using five items: warm, tender, compassionate, soft-hearted, and sympathetic. The Cronbach alpha reliability for empathic concern is .80. Personal distress was also measured using five items: alarmed, upset, disturbed, distressed, and anxious. The Cronbach alpha reliability for personal distress is .80. The 5 items from each scale are intermixed to create one 10 item scale. The items were measured on 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Results

Descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliabilities were calculated using R and can be found in Table 2. The manipulation checks were first examined. In the need condition, 96.05% said that the target individual in the scenario was shaken, and in the no need condition 40.51% said she was not shaken. In the authority condition, 80.26% said that the female was their supervisor, and in the no authority condition 96.00% said she was not the supervisor. In the friend condition, 48.10% said they were friends with the female coworker, and in the no friend condition 91.25% said they were not friends with the female coworker.

For the need conditions, there was a significant difference in ratings of the female employee needing help, t(153= 7.83, $p < .001$, with participants in the need condition (M = 4.30, SD = 0.82) reporting greater perceived need than those in the no need condition (M = 2.89, SD = 1.36). For the authority conditions, there was a significant difference in ratings of the female employee having authority, $t(149)$ = 9.21, $p < .001$, with participants in the authority condition(M = 3.64, SD = 1.15) reporting greater perceived authority than those in the no authority condition (M = 1.95, SD = 1.11). For the friend conditions, there was not a significant difference in ratings of the female employee being able to help in the future, $t(157)$ = -0.12, p =

.90, with participants in the friend condition (*M* = 2.77, *SD* = 1.13) reporting similar levels as those in the no friend (*M* = 2.75, *SD* = 1.11) condition.

Overall, these results suggest that the manipulations were somewhat but not universally effective. For the need conditions, almost all participants indicated the target individual in the need condition was shaken; however, only about 40% in the no need condition indicated she was not shaken. However, it is perhaps not surprising that many in the "no need" condition might perceive some level of distress, even if this is less than that in the "need" condition. And consistent with this idea, there was a significant difference between these conditions in perception of need. For the authority conditions, most participants in both conditions perceived the supervisor status of the target individual correctly, and there was a significant difference in perceived authority. For the friend conditions, results were less positive: only about half of participants in the "friend" condition said they were friends with the target individual (although almost all of those in the "no friend" condition answered correctly), and there was no significant difference in perceptions of ability to help in the future. In light of this, the hypothesis analyses were also conducted after excluding all those participants who answered the first three manipulation check questions incorrectly (*N* = 389). Results were essentially the same as those reported below (from the larger sample; *N* = 505) with one exception: Hypotheses 7 was supported with women reporting higher levels of

intentions to intervene, $b = .16$, $t(377) = 2.15$, $p < .05$. Thus, the overall findings do not seem to have been substantially affected by the mixed manipulation check results. Nonetheless, these manipulation check findings should be kept in mind when interpreting the current results.

Analysis - Continuous Give/Take/Match

Regression was used to test Hypotheses 1, 3, and 5. First, continuous scores for give, take, or match were used as separate predictors and scores for intention to intervene were used as the outcome. Give was positively related to intention to intervene scores, supporting Hypothesis 1, $b = .37$, $t(458) = 6.80$, $p < .001$. Nine percent of the variance ($R^2 = .09$) in the overall intention to intervene score was accounted for by give (see Table 3). Take was positively related to intention to intervene scores, failing to support Hypothesis 3, $b = .16$, $t(458) = 2.73$, $p < .01$. Two percent of the variance ($R^2 = .02$) in the overall intention to intervene score was accounted for by take (see Table 4). Match was positively related to intention to intervene scores, failing to support Hypothesis 5, $b = .38$, $t(458) = 6.33$, $p < .001$. Eight percent of the variance ($R^2 = .08$) in the overall intention to intervene score was accounted for by match (see Table 5).

Second, continuous scores for give, take, and match were used as simultaneous predictors and scores for intention to intervene were used as the outcome. Thirteen percent of the variance ($R^2 = .13$) in the overall intention to

intervene score was accounted for by give, take, and match. Give (b = .28, p < .001; t(456) = 4.69, p <.001) and match (b = .28, p < .001; t(456) = 3.49, p < .001) were statistically significant, whereas take (b = -.02, p =.78; t(456) = -.28, p = .78) was not significant.

Finally, analyses were also conducted separately for the need/no need conditions, the authority/no authority conditions, and the friend/no friend conditions. Condition (need = 1 vs. no need = 0), give, take, and match were simultaneously entered into a model to predict bystander intervention. Twenty-three percent of the variance (R^2 = .23) in the overall intention to intervene score was accounted for by need, give, take, and match. Give (b = .31, p < .001; t(147) = 3.01, p <.01) and need (b = .54, p < .001; t(147) = 4.90, p < .01) were statistically significant, whereas take (b = .00, p =.99; t(147) = 0.00, p = .99) and match (b = .24, p = .10; t(147) = 1.67, p = .10) were not significant. Condition (authority = 1 vs. no authority = 0), give, take, and match were also simultaneously entered into a model to predict bystander intervention. Fifteen percent of the variance (R^2 = .15) in the overall intention to intervene score was accounted for by authority, give, take, and match. Give (b = .22, p < .001; t(144) = 2.34, p <.05), authority (b = -.21, p <.05; t(144) = -2.12, p < .05), and match were statistically significant (b = .32, p <.05; t(144) = 2.29, p < .05), whereas take (b = -.05, p =.63; t(144) = -0.48, p = .63) was not significant. Finally, condition (friend = 1 vs. no friend = 0), give, take, and

match were also simultaneously entered into a model to predict bystander intervention. Sixteen percent of the variance ($R^2 = .16$) in the overall intention to intervene score was accounted for by friend, give, take, and match. Give ($b = .28$, $p < .001$; $t(152) = 2.49$, $p < .05$) and match were statistically significant ($b = .31$, $p < .05$; $t(152) = 2.40$, $p < .05$), whereas take ($b = .04$, $p = .75$; $t(152) = .31$, $p = .75$) and friend ($b = .03$, $p < .05$; $t(152) = 0.32$, $p = .75$) were not significant.

Moderated multiple regression was conducted to test Hypotheses 2, 4, and 6. For Hypothesis 2, need, give, and the interaction between need and give were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. Twenty percent of the variance ($R^2 = .20$) in overall intentions to intervene score was accounted for by need, give, and the interaction between need and give. However, the interaction between give and need was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, $b = -.14$, $p = .46$ (see Table 6). Thus, Hypothesis 2 was not supported.

For Hypothesis 4, authority, take, and the interaction between authority and take were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. Eleven percent of the variance ($R^2 = .11$) in overall intentions to intervene was accounted for by authority, take, and the interaction between authority and take. The interaction between take and authority was a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, $b = .65$, $p < .001$ (see Figure 2). For no

authority, the slope between take and intention to intervene was non-significant (*b* = -.23, *p* = .08; *t*(145) = -1.76, *p* = .08). For authority, the slope between take and intention to intervene was significant and positive (*b* = .42, *p* = .001; *t*(145) = 3.35, *p* = .001). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was not supported but results indicated authority influenced the effect of take in an interpretable way.

For Hypothesis 6, friend, match, and the interaction between friend and match were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation Thirteen percent of the variance ($R^2 = .13$) in overall intentions to intervene was accounted for by friend, match, and the interaction between friend and match. However, the interaction between match and friend was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, *b* = -.03, *p* = .87 (see Table 8). Thus, Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

A simple linear regression was used to test Hypothesis 7. Gender was used as the predictor and scores for intention to intervene were used as the outcome. Gender was not positively related to intention to intervene scores, failing to support Hypothesis 7, *b* = .13, *t*(452) = 1.32, *p* = .05 (see Table 9). Although, Hypothesis 7 was not supported, it approached significance.

Moderated multiple regression was conducted to test Research Question 1 for give/take/match and gender. For Research Question 1a, give, gender, and the interaction between give and gender were entered into the model to predict the

bystander intention to intervene in the situation. Nine percent of the variance (R^2 = .09) in overall intentions to intervene was accounted for by give, gender, and the interaction between give and gender. The interaction between give and gender was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, b = -.06, p = .64 (see Table 10). Research Question 1a analyses indicated there was not a significant interaction.

For Research Question 1b, take, gender, and the interaction between take and gender were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. Three percent of the variance (R^2 = .03) in overall intentions to intervene was accounted for by take, gender, and the interaction between take and gender. The interaction between take and gender was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, b = .08, p = .50 (see Table 11). Research Question 1b analyses indicated there was not a significant interaction.

For Research Question 1c, match, gender, and the interaction between match and gender were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. Ten percent of the variance (R^2 = .10) in overall intentions to intervene was accounted for by match, gender, and the interaction between match and gender. The interaction between match and gender was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, b = -.05, p = .66 (see Table 12). Research Question 1c analyses indicated there was not a significant interaction.

Moderated multiple regression was conducted to test Research Question 1 for condition (need, authority, and friend) and gender. For Research Question 1d, need, gender, and the interaction between need and gender were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. Twelve percent of the variance ($R^2 = .12$) in overall intentions to intervene was accounted for by need, gender, and the interaction between need and gender. The interaction between need and gender was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, $b = .22$, $p = .39$ (see Table 13). Research Question 1d analyses indicated there was not a significant interaction.

For Research Question 1e, authority, gender, and the interaction between authority and gender were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. Four percent of the variance ($R^2 = .04$) in overall intentions to intervene was accounted for by authority, gender, and the interaction between authority and gender. The interaction between authority and gender was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, $b = -.19$, $p = .43$ (see Table 14). Research Question 1e analyses indicated there was not a significant interaction.

For Research Question 1f, friend, gender, and the interaction between friend and gender were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. Two percent of the variance ($R^2 = .02$) in overall

intentions to intervene was accounted for by friend, gender, and the interaction between friend and gender. The interaction between friend and gender was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, $b = .13$, $p = .58$ (see Table 15). Research Question 1f analyses indicated there was not a significant interaction.

Supplemental Analysis – Categorical Give/Take/Match

In a supplementary manner, give/take/match was examined as a categorical variable instead of continuous against the same hypotheses. The give/take/match variables were coded as 1 when used as a predictor for the specific hypothesis test (e.g., for Hypothesis 1, give = 1) with all else being 0. Again, regression was used to test Hypotheses 1, 3, and 5. Scores for give, take, or match were used as predictors and scores for intention to intervene were used as the outcome. Give category was not significantly related to intention to intervene scores, failing to support Hypothesis 1, $b = .13$, $t(458) = 1.85$, $p = .07$ (see Table 16). Take category was not significantly related to intention to intervene scores, failing to support Hypothesis 3, $b = -.07$, $t(458) = -0.82$, $p = .42$ (see Table 17). Match category was not significantly related to intention to intervene scores, failing to support Hypothesis 5, $b = -.17$, $t(458) = -1.85$, $p = .07$ (see Table 18).

Moderated multiple regression was conducted to test Hypotheses 2, 4, and 6. For Hypothesis 2, need, give, and the interaction between need and give were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the

situation. Fifteen percent of the variance ($R^2 = .15$) in overall intentions to intervene was accounted for by need, give, and the interaction between need and give. The interaction between need and give was a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, $b = -.60$, $p < .05$ (see Table 19; see Figure 3). For no need, the slope between give and intention to intervene was significant ($b = .32$, $p < .05$; $t(148) = 1.99$, $p <.05$). For need, the slope between give and intention to intervene was non-significant ($b = -.29$, $p = .14$; t $(148) = -1.48$, $p = .14$). Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not supported but results indicated need influenced the effect of give in an interpretable way.

For Hypothesis 4, authority, take, and the interaction between authority and take were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. The interaction between authority and take was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, $b = .24$, $p = .44$ (see Table 20). Therefore, Hypothesis 4 was not supported.

For Hypothesis 6, friend, match, and the interaction between friend and match were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. The interaction between match and friend was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, $b = .14$, $p = .65$ (see Table 21). Taken together, Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

Moderated multiple regression was conducted to test Research Question 1 for give/take/match category and gender. For Research Question 1a, give, gender, and the interaction between give and gender were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. The interaction between give and gender was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, $b = .06$, $p = .66$ (see Table 22). Research Question 1a analyses indicated there was not a significant interaction.

For Research Question 1b, take, gender, and the interaction between take and gender were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. One percent of the variance ($R^2 = .01$) in overall intentions to intervene was accounted for by take, gender, and the interaction between take category and gender. The interaction between take and gender was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, $b = -.23$, $p = .19$ (see Table 23). Research Question 1b analyses indicated there was not a significant interaction.

For Research Question 1c, match category, gender, and the interaction between match category and gender were entered into the model to predict the bystander intention to intervene in the situation. One percent of the variance ($R^2 = .01$) in overall intentions to intervene was accounted for by match, gender, and the interaction between match category and gender. The interaction between match

category and gender was not a significant predictor of intentions to intervene, b = .05, p = .76 (see Table 24). Research Question 1c analyses indicated there was not a significant interaction.

Discussion

SH is important to investigate because this form of harassment is widespread and has well-documented detrimental impact on employees within organizations (Fitzgerald, et al., 1988; Glomb, Richman, Hulin, Drasgow, Schneider, & Fitzgerald, 1997; Gruber, 1998; Gutek, 1985; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Raver & Gelfand, 2005; Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997; Quick & McFadyen, 2017; US Merit Systems Protection Board, 1981, 1988, 1995). Indeed, one in five women and one in seventy-one men are sexually assaulted at some point in their lives (Black et al., 2010). SH contributes to poor mental health (e.g., anxiety, depression, PTSD), physical health (e.g., increased cardiovascular reactivity, headaches, eating disorders, and lack of sleep; Harnois & Bastos, 2018), engagement, morale, productivity, and overall profit in the workplace (SHRM, 2018). The average cost per person in lost productivity for those working in a team when SH occurs is estimated to be $22,500 (Willness et al., 2007). Not included in this estimate are the unwanted bad publicity and legal fees from litigation given they are kept confidential (US EEOC, 2018). Further, career satisfaction and success are also damaged for women who experience SH (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007).

This study attempted to contribute to the research on SH in several ways, focusing on bystander intentions to intervene in these events. First, this study extended work investigating individual and situational factors that are related to intervening in a situation of SH in the workplace. Second, this study focused on a personality characteristic (give/take/match) to further understand the relationship between an individual's personality and intervention in situations of SH by using a modified version of the established Bystander SH framework. Third, Cognitive-Affective Processing System (CAPS) theory was used to understand the situational factors that might relate to intervening behaviors in incidents of SH. Finally, the role that gender plays in SH intervention was examined. The current results may help further inform models and applications with regard to SH.

Findings & Implications

Findings

Hypothesis 1 was supported such that give (continuously scored) was positively related to intentions to intervene. This is likely because those higher on give are prone to help in a time of need. Hypotheses 3 and 5 were not supported because, unexpectedly, take and match (continuously scored) were positively related to intentions to intervene. When give/take/match were entered into the model simultaneously, give and match remained significant whereas take was not significant. However, the results slightly varied when analyzing within condition

(i.e., match was not significant within the need condition). In contrast, when the give/take/match measure was scored categorically, as originally intended by Grant (2013), Hypotheses 1, 3, and 5 were not supported. Given this, it is possible that individuals have discrepancies between their continuous scores and categorical scores, which may explain the differences in findings for the two scoring methods. For example, some participants may have scored high on all three of these traits when continuous (e.g., including high on give), but when sorted on the best option (i.e., categorical), they can only fall into one category (e.g., take). These findings may have implications for scoring this measure. For instance, the categorical scoring method can force negative correlations between give, take, and match, when in fact there may be positive relationships between give, take, and match, such as shown with the correlations between the continuous scoring in this study (see Table 2). In fact, the correlations between the traits when scored continuously and the traits when scored categorically are modest; therefore, this suggests that the scoring of this measure might be a useful direction for future research.

Although, Hypothesis 4 was not supported for take in continuous form or categorical form, in the continuous form there was an interpretable pattern. Hypothesis 4 suggested that the relationship between take and in intention to intervene would be less negative, when position of power/authority is higher, but the interaction pattern indicated that the relationship between take and the intention

to intervene was actually significantly positive for the authority condition. It could be that takers responded to conditions of authority and power because they can see an opportunity to obtain something without having to expend much of their own resources. Future research might explore this possibility. Similar to Hypothesis 4, Hypothesis 2 was not supported for give in either continuous or categorical form. However, in the categorical form there was an interesting pattern. Hypothesis 2 suggested that the relationship between give and the intention to intervene would be more positive in the need condition, but the interaction indicted that non-givers were more sensitive to the need manipulation. Hypothesis 6 was not supported but given that the manipulation may have not been successful (i.e., due to failed manipulation checks), it could explain why the relationship was not found. Hypothesis 7 (related to gender) was not supported but there was a trend in the expected direction; therefore, this may be worth pursuing in future research.

Practical Implications

This research may have practical implications related to SH in organizations in the U.S. and reducing the inequities that women face within the workforce as a result of these incidents. For example, support for some of the hypotheses suggests that social interaction styles may predict bystander reactions to SH and identifying these factors that may anticipate bystander actions is key. Given the potentially important role bystanders may play in the occurrence and outcomes of SH, this

may represent insights organizations can use in addressing SH. For instance, results from this study indicated that the interaction between take and authority was related to intentions to intervene. The pattern suggests that organizations might consider outlining the benefits to takers of intervening (e.g., value and promotion in supporting individuals who help and intervene). In other words, when takers see a benefit for themselves (as they might have in the authority condition), they may be willing to help. In addition, the interaction between give (categorical) and need was significant such that non-givers (i.e., takers and matchers) appeared to be more willing to help when they perceived a need. Given this, if organizations are interested in promoting intervention, they could consider addressing this in part through a bystander intervention training that emphasizes the need experienced by targets of SH. In fact, a majority of participants (52.0%) in this study stated that they would like to attend an intervention training.

Theoretical Implications

Findings from this research may also inform models of SH. Specifically, this study revealed more about bystander reactions by highlighting the role of social interaction styles. Previous research on bystander individual differences has focused on sex, cognitions, emotions, and rape myth beliefs (e.g., Banyard, 2008; Banyard & Moynihan, 2011). This study adds to the literature by focusing on individual differences (i.e., personality) in the form of broad dispositions.

In addition, this research examined the conditions under which these styles may have different relationships, with evidence supporting an interaction between take and authority and between give and need. These associations may provide initial hints as to the underling mechanisms responsible for the relationship between take and give and intervening in SH. For example, the authority manipulation influenced the take-intervention relationship such that takers might intervene but largely when there may be some benefit to them (in this case, when the target individual is a supervisor). This is broadly consistent with the CAPS model in suggesting that personality influences the way the situation is encoded and understood by an individual. For instance, with takers, they may encode a situation (e.g., related to authority/power) which then may activate subsets of other CAUs (e.g., related to potential benefits to the self of intervening in the SH situation) that result in a specific pattern of cognition, affect, and subsequent behavior (e.g., intervening in the situation).

Limitations & Future Research

There are several limitations to this study that could be examined in future research. For instance, this study involved self-reports instead of actual bystander behavior. These self-reports may have been subject to social desirability bias. Further, priming effects could have played a role in this study in that the give/take/match measure was completed first, prior to the manipulation. For

instance, the answer choices from give/take/match could have influenced participant responses to the subsequent scenarios. In future research, give/take/match could be administered at a different time (e.g., one week before the scenarios).

In addition, the study involved Mturk participants. Although there is research supporting the use of an Mturk sample (Cheung et al., 2017), future research should gather a sample from an organization. Further, employment information on the participants was not gathered which could further inform research in this area, such as whether specific industries, jobs, or previous experiences with intervening as a bystander might be relevant to intervention intentions. In addition, there was some attrition that may be due to the length of the survey. Future research can address this by increasing pay, which may motivate participants to complete the full survey. Future research should also examine other personality scales developed to be scored continuously, such as pro-social motivation (De Dreu & Nauta, 2009; Elliot, Kao, & Grant, 2004; Grant, Dutton, & Rosso, 2008), instead of give, take, match which was originally created to be categorical. In addition, using a pro-social motivation measure in future research could shorten the length of time that it would take to fill out the survey.

Finally, the scenarios used in this study were developed by the author, and they could be improved upon. Based on the results of the manipulation checks, it

was evident that the friend manipulation was not as strong given that many participants did not correctly identify the SH victim as being a friend. Future research could use the current scenarios as a starting point but develop them further to examine the personal and situational factors relevant to bystander intervention. For example, different contexts could be examined (e.g., work vs. volunteer), as they may have different implications.

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Appendix A

Table 1. Cognitive Affective Units (CAUs) within the Cognitive-Affective Processing System Approach

CAU	Definition
Encodings	Categories or constructs individuals have for understanding the self, people, events, and situations.
Competencies and Self-regulatory Strategies	Potential behaviors, scripts, and strategies for organizing actions
Expectancies and Beliefs	Expectancies of a particular situations and about the social world
Goals	Desirable outcomes and affective states
Affective	Feelings and emotions in responding to the situation

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations, and Reliabilities

Variable	*N*	*M*	*SD*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. givecat	503	0.61	0.49	--						
2. takecat	503	0.15	0.36	-.54**	--					
3. matchcat	503	0.15	0.36	-.54***	-.18***	--				
4. givecont	503	3.25	0.57	.33***	-.11*	-.28***	(0.78)			
5. takecont	503	2.77	0.57	-.40***	.17***	.32***	.10*	(.74)		
6. matchcont	503	3.06	0.53	-.29***	.28***	.06	.39***	.59***	(.72)	
7. BIM	460	3.47	0.71	.09	-.04	-.09	.30***	.13**	.28***	(.84)

Note . givecat = give categorical; takecat = take categorical; matchcat = match categorical; givecont = give scores; takecont = take scores; matchcont = match scores; BIM = Bystander Intervention Measure Cronbach's alpha reliabilities are reported in the diagonal in parentheses. *** p <.001, ** p <.01, * p <.05

Table 3. Summary of Regression Analysis between Give and Intention to Intervene

	R^2	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Model 1	.09			
Give		.37***	.06	6.80

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 4. Summary of Regression Analysis between Take and Intention to Intervene

Summary of Regression Analysis between Take and Intention to Intervene

	R^2	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Model 1	.02			
Take		.16**	.06	2.73

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 5. Summary of Regression Analysis between Match and Intention to Intervene

Summary of Regression Analysis between Match and Intention to Intervene

	R^2	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Model 1	.08			
Match		.38***	.06	6.33

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 6. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Give and Need

Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Give and Need

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Give	.43(.13)***
Need	.51(.11)***
Give x Need	-.14(.19)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 7. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Take and Authority

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Take	-.23(.13)
Authority	-.24(.10)*
Take x Authority	.65(.18)***

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 8. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Match and Friend

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Match	.49(.14)***
Friend	.05(.11)
Match x Friend	-.03(.20)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 9. Summary of Regression Analysis between Gender and Intention to Intervene

	R^2	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Model 1	.01			
Gender		.13	.07	1.95

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 10. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Gender and Give

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Gender	.11(.07)
Give	.45(.21)*
Gender x Give	-.06(.12)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 11. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Gender and Take

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Gender	.15(.07)*
Take	.06(.20)
Gender x Take	.08(.12)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 12. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Gender and Match

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Gender	.15(.07)*
Match	.46(.21)*
Gender x Match	-.05(.12)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 13. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Gender and Need

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Gender	-.02(.19)
Need	.16(.44)
Gender x Need	.22(.25)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 14. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Gender and Authority

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Gender	.25(.18)
Authority	-.15(.41)
Gender x Authority	-.19(.23)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 15. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Gender and Friend

Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Gender and Friend

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Gender	.15(.16)
Friend	-.54(.38)
Gender x Friend	.13(.23)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. *$p<.05$, **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$

Table 16. Summary of Regression Analysis between Give and Intention to Intervene

	R^2	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Model 1	.01			
Give		.13	.07	1.85

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$

Table 17. Summary of Regression Analysis between Take and Intention to Intervene

	R^2	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Model 1	.00			
Take		-.07	.09	-0.82

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **$p<.01$, ***$p<.001$

Table 18. Summary of Regression Analysis between Match and Intention to Intervene

	R^2	*b*	*SE*	*t*
Model 1	.01			
Match		-.17	.09	-1.85

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 19. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Give and Need

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Give	.32(.16)*
Need	.91(.21)***
Give x Need	-.60(.25)*

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 20. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Take and Need

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Take	-.25(.22)
Authority	-.24(.11)*
Take x Authority	.23(.31)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Table 21. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Match and Need

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Match	-.26(.22)
Friend	-.04(.13)
Match x Friend	.14(.32)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 22. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Gender and Give

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Gender	.08(.11)
Give	.00(.24)
Gender x Give	.06(.44)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 23. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Gender and Take

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Gender	.16(.08)*
Take	.31(.30)
Gender x Take	-.24(.18)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Table 24. Hierarchical Regression Results to Predict Intentions to Intervene via Gender and Match

Predictor	Model 1 (DV = Intentions to Intervene)
Gender	.12(.07)
Match	-.25(.31)
Gender x Match	.06(.19)

Note. Unstandardized coefficients and standard errors are reported. **p*<.05, ***p*<.01, ****p*<.001

Appendix B

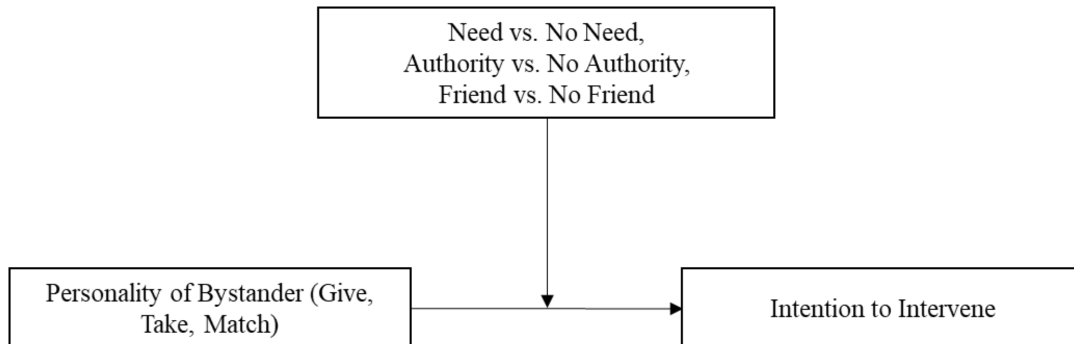

Figure 1. Theoretical Model

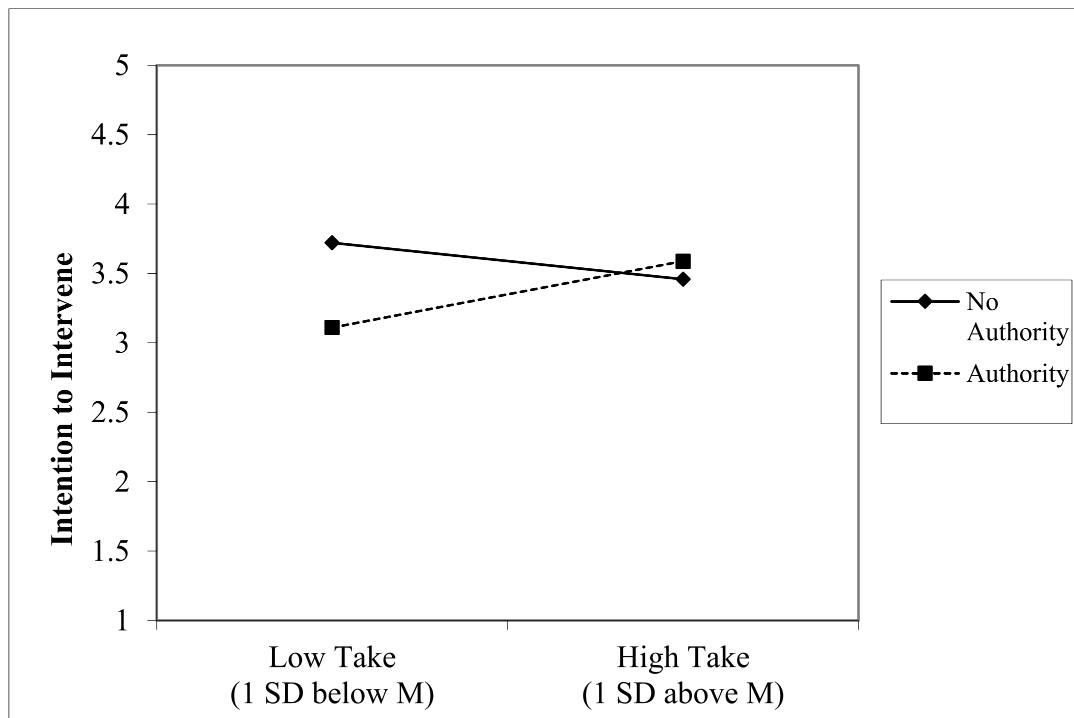

Figure 2. Take Continuous Interaction Graph

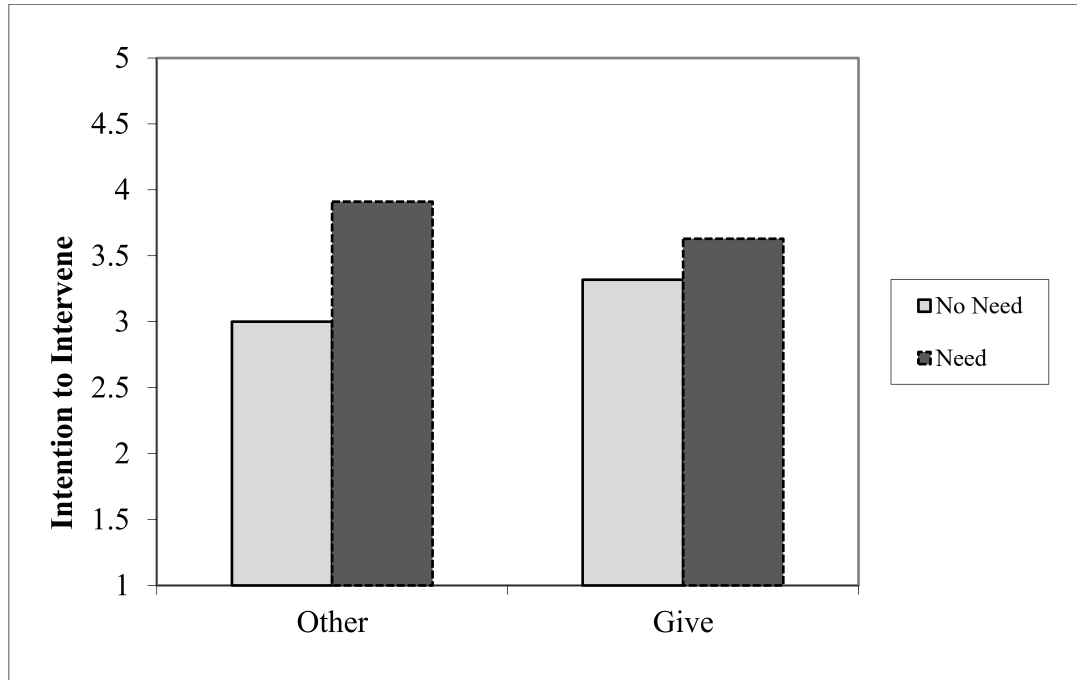

Figure 3. Give Categorical Interaction Graph

Appendix C

Give/Take/Match Vignettes

Giver

In an office setting, a female employee is sitting at her desk in her cubicle working on her computer with no one else visible in the office. A male coworker in her department who has been working with her on a project for the past two months notices that she is alone, and then approaches her with a smirk on his face and while laying his fingers on her shoulder gets up close and says, "Darling, let me give you some advice, why don't you just give up the project since we both know you don't belong. This is a man's job and you're better suited for answering calls and taking notes anyway since that's women's work."

NEED: You immediately notice that the female employee appears uncomfortable and physically shaken with this exchange. The female employee seems to become visibly nervous after the comment and distressfully replies, "Okay, I'll drop the project, I guess." The male employee says, "Wow, I was only trying to help you. There's no reason to be so dramatic" and then walks away.

NO NEED: The female employee brushes the male coworkers' fingers off her shoulder and puts distance between them, stating "Please do not touch me or approach me every again in this manner. I don't appreciate your inappropriate

behavior. I find it offensive." The male employee says, "Wow, I was only trying to help you. There's no reason to be so dramatic" and then walks away.

Assume you are an employee at the organization, and you are the only person who observed the entire interaction from your desk without either of the coworkers noticing you.

Taker

In an office setting,

NO AUTHORITY: a female employee is sitting at her desk in her cubicle with no one else visible in the office.

AUTHORITY: your manager is in her office working on her computer with no one else visible in the office.

NO AUTHORITY: A male coworker in her department who has been working with her

AUTHORITY: A male subordinate in her department who has been working for her

on a project for the past two months notices that she is alone, and then approaches her with a smirk on his face and while laying his fingers on her shoulder gets up close and says, "Darling, let me give you some advice, why don't you just give up the project since we both know you don't belong. This is a man's job and you're

better suited for answering calls and taking notes anyway since that's women's work." You immediately notice that the

NO AUTHORITY: female employee

AUTHORITY: your manager

appears uncomfortable and physically shaken with the exchange. She replies, "Okay, I'll drop the project." The male employee says, "Wow, I was only trying to help you. There's no reason to be so dramatic" and then walks away.

Assume you are an employee at the organization, and you are the only person who observed the entire interaction from your desk without either of them noticing you.

Matcher

In an office setting,

No Relationship: a female employee

Relationship: your friend Susan

is sitting at her desk in her cubicle working on her computer with no one else visible in the office.

A male coworker in her department who has been working with her on a project for the past two months notices that she is alone, and then approaches her with a smirk on his face and while laying his fingers on her shoulder gets up close and says, "Darling, let me give you some advice, why don't you just give up the

project since we both know you don't belong. This is a man's job and you're better suited for answering calls and taking notes anyway since that's women's work."

No Relationship: You immediately notice that the employee appears uncomfortable and physically shaken with the exchange.

Relationship: You immediately notice that Susan appears uncomfortable and physically shaken with the exchange.

She replies, "Okay, I'll drop the project." The male employee says, "Wow, I was only trying to help you. There's no reason to be so dramatic" and then walks away

Assume you are an employee at the organization, and you are the only person who observed the entire interaction from your desk without either of them noticing you.

Distractor Vignette 1

You are the supervisor of a project implementation team.

Your team is responsible for implementing a new product launch for a product that is expected to be a huge success for the company. The company's goal is to sell 30,000 units of the new product in the first month after its launch.

Every Monday you call a staff meeting to discuss important project-related goals with your team. During today's meeting, you witness one of your employees, Alex, dismiss an idea that your other employee, Taylor, is sharing with everyone. Taylor is eventually able to contribute ideas to the discussion, but Alex interrupts and treats Taylor dismissively throughout the meeting.

Distractor Vignette 2

Dr. Fair performs child custody evaluations. She is well known in both the legal and psychological communities. Recently, Dr. Fair received solicitations for contributions from a candidate for judge in her county, Deloris True. She has worked with Attorney True on numerous occasions and believes that she would be a real asset as a judge in her community. She clearly wants this individual to be elected as a judge.

However, if Attorney True is elected as judge, Dr. Fair will likely appear before her in court as an expert witness. Will contributing to the campaign of the judicial candidate be contraindicated because it could lead to a perception of bias in future court cases? Is the contribution warranted because Dr. Fair believes that Attorney True is highly qualified for that position?

In her state, political contributions over $50 are in the public domain and anyone could see that Dr. Fair made the contribution. Dr. Fair would like to show her financial support by contributing more than $50. (Dr. Fair has already ruled out giving 10 checks for $49.95.). Concerned about ethics and reputation, Dr. Fair contacts you for a consult.

Appendix D

Give & Take

(Grant, 2013)

Instructions: Please read the following 15 scenarios carefully and rate the likelihood for each of the three alternatives.

1. You and a stranger will both receive some money. You have three choices about what you and the stranger will receive, and you'll never see or meet the stranger. Which option would you choose?
    a. I get $5, and the stranger gets $5 (M) 1 2 3 4 5
    b. I get $8, and the stranger gets $4 (T) 1 2 3 4 5
    c. I get $5, and the stranger gets $7 (G) 1 2 3 4 5

    For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?
    a. I get $5, and the stranger gets $5 (M)
    b. I get $8, and the stranger gets $4 (T)
    c. I get $5, and the stranger gets $7 (G)
2. You're applying for a job as a manager, and a former boss writes you a glowing recommendation letter. What would you be most likely to do?

a. Look for ways to help my former boss, so I can pay it back (M) 1 2 3 4 5
b. Offer to write a recommendation letter for one of my own former employees, so I can pay it forward (G) 1 2 3 4 5
c. Go out of my way to make a good impression on my new boss, so I can line up another strong recommendation for the future (T) 1 2 3 4 5

For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

a. Look for ways to help my former boss, so I can pay it back (M)
b. Offer to write a recommendation letter for one of my own former employees, so I can pay it forward (G)
c. Go out of my way to make a good impression on my new boss, so I can line up another strong recommendation for the future (T)

3. A new colleague joins your organization in a different department. When you meet her, she mentions that her husband is searching for a job and doesn't have many contacts in the area. She asks if you happen to know anyone at Kramerica Industries, a local firm, and you say yes. The next day, you remember that you have connections at three other local companies that do very similar work to Kramerica's. What would you do?

a. Put her husband in touch with all four companies (G) 1 2 3 4 5

b. Find out if there are ways that she or her husband can do me a favor, and then decide whether to connect her only with Kramerica or with the other three as well (T) 1 2 3 4 5

c. Put her husband in touch with Kramerica, and see what type of impression he makes before deciding about the other three (M) 1 2 3 4 5

For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

a. Put her husband in touch with all four companies (G)

b. Find out if there are ways that she or her husband can do me a favor, and then decide whether to connect her only with Kramerica or with the other three as well (T)

c. Put her husband in touch with Kramerica, and see what type of impression he makes before deciding about the other three (M)

4. You've signed a deal on new office space, and you're scheduled to move in three months. You receive a call from the leasing agent stating that the previous tenant moved out early, and the space is open now. You would be happy to move now: the new office space is nicer than your current space, and it only costs $10 more per month. However, the leasing agent assumes that your preference is to wait, and you know the agent doesn't want to

leave the property vacant for three months. What would you be most likely to say?

a. I'm willing to move now if you can match the price of my current office space (M) 1 2 3 4 5
b. I really prefer to wait, but I'm willing to move now if you give me a significant discount (T) 1 2 3 4 5
c. I'd love to move now, so I'll be glad to accommodate (G) 1 2 3 4 5

For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

a. I'm willing to move now if you can match the price of my current office space (M)
b. I really prefer to wait, but I'm willing to move now if you give me a significant discount (T)
c. I'd love to move now, so I'll be glad to accommodate (G)

5. You're working on a project with two colleagues, and there are three tasks that need to get done. As you discuss how to divide the tasks, it becomes clear that all three of you are extremely interested in two of the tasks, but view the third as quite boring. What would you do?
    a. Try to convince one of my colleagues to do the boring task (T) 1 2 3 4 5

b. Volunteer for the boring task and ask my colleagues for a favor later (M) 1 2 3 4 5

c. Volunteer for the boring task without asking for anything in return (G) 1 2 3 4 5

For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

a. Try to convince one of my colleagues to do the boring task (T)

b. Volunteer for the boring task and ask my colleagues for a favor later (M)

c. Volunteer for the boring task without asking for anything in return (G)

6. It's 1pm, and you're heading to the airport at 2pm for a business trip out of the country. You receive three requests from people who are looking for your feedback on presentations, and you only have time to grant one. The first request is from your boss's boss, who is seeking your immediate input on a slide deck that he'll be presenting next week. The second request is from a coworker who gave you insightful comments on a major presentation last week. The coworker is a gifted speaker, and has asked for your assistance in fine-tuning some of the language on his slides for a presentation tomorrow. The third request is from a junior colleague, who is

nervous about giving his first presentation at the company this afternoon and is hoping for your feedback. Who would you be most likely to help?

a. My boss's boss (T) 1 2 3 4 5
b. My coworker (M) 1 2 3 4 5
c. My junior colleague (G) 1 2 3 4 5

For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

a. My boss's boss (T)
b. My coworker (M)
c. My junior colleague (G)

7. A colleague leaves your company and starts a software business that is doing quite well. In search of advice for expanding the business, he asks if you can introduce him to the CEO of a successful technology company, who happened to be your neighbor growing up. You haven't spoken to the CEO in five years, and you were hoping to reach out to him in a few months for advice on your own startup ideas. What would you do?

   a. Tell him I'll make the introduction (G) 1 2 3 4 5
   b. Tell him I'll make the introduction, and then ask him for help with my startup (M) 1 2 3 4 5

c. Tell him I don't feel comfortable making the introduction, since I'm no longer in touch with the CEO (T) 1 2 3 4 5

For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

a. Tell him I'll make the introduction (G)

b. Tell him I'll make the introduction, and then ask him for help with my startup (M)

c. Tell him I don't feel comfortable making the introduction, since I'm no longer in touch with the CEO (T)

8. Unexpectedly, a former boss of yours writes you a positive recommendation on LinkedIn. What would be your first response?

    a. Add my former boss to my list of references (G) 1 2 3 4 5

    b. Write a recommendation for my former boss (M) 1 2 3 4 5

    c. Write a recommendation for someone else (T) 1 2 3 4 5

    For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

    a. Add my former boss to my list of references (G)

    b. Write a recommendation for my former boss (M)

    c. Write a recommendation for someone else (T)

9. You receive a call out of the blue from an NYU senior who's interested in your field, and you spend 20 minutes on the phone providing some career advice. At the end of the call, the student asks if you have any connections who might be able to help with preparation for job interviews at Google. You tell the student that you'll think about it and get back with an answer. After the call, you look through your LinkedIn connections and see that an acquaintance from college is now working at Google. Later that night at a family dinner, your cousin, who's in high school, tells you that NYU is her dream school and she's just starting to work on her application. You sit down to write an email to the NYU student. How would you respond?
    a. Ask the NYU student to help my cousin, but don't make the introduction to my Google contact—I've already given 20 minutes of my time (T) 1 2 3 4 5
    b. Ask the NYU student to help my cousin and offer to make the introduction to my Google contact—I'll follow through if the student helps my cousin (M) 1 2 3 4 5
    c. Make the introduction to my Google contact, but don't ask the NYU student for help—I know the job search can be hectic and stressful (G) 1 2 3 4 5

For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

a. Ask the NYU student to help my cousin, but don't make the introduction to my Google contact—I've already given 20 minutes of my time (T)
b. Ask the NYU student to help my cousin and offer to make the introduction to my Google contact—I'll follow through if the student helps my cousin (M)
c. Make the introduction to my Google contact, but don't ask the NYU student for help—I know the job search can be hectic and stressful (G)

10. You work in advertising, and you're leading the development of a commercial to encourage people to drink milk. An intern suggests the tag line, "Got milk?" You decide to use it, and spend the next eight months creating the commercial. You manage to get famous people to wear milk mustaches, and it's a huge hit. One day, the intern makes a comment about not being creative enough to generate a line as creative as "Got milk?" and tells you that he has been accepted to medical school. A few months later, after the intern has left the firm and started medical school, you learn that the commercial will be receiving a major advertising award. You know the

intern doesn't remember generating the line, and you're up for a major promotion. You need to list the authorship of the commercial for the awards ceremony. What would you do?

a. List the intern as the first author and myself as the second author, since the intern was the one who generated the memorable slogan (G) 1 2 3 4 5
b. List myself as the first author and the intern as the second author, since this fairly represents our contributions (M) 1 2 3 4 5
c. List myself as the sole author of the commercial, since I did the work and the intern won't ever know or be affected by it (T) 1 2 3 4 5

For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

a. List the intern as the first author and myself as the second author, since the intern was the one who generated the memorable slogan (G)
b. List myself as the first author and the intern as the second author, since this fairly represents our contributions (M)
c. List myself as the sole author of the commercial, since I did the work and the intern won't ever know or be affected by it (T)

11. In January, you offer a job to a very impressive candidate, with a start date of June. You ask the candidate to make a decision by March, with an early signing bonus of $ 5000. In February, the candidate calls you and asks for an extension until April, expressing a desire to finish interviewing with other companies to make an informed decision. You know that is you extend the deadline, you'll run the risk of losing the candidate, and your next best candidate is not as strong. What would you do?
    a. Decline the candidate’s request for an extension, and ask for a decision by March as originally requested (T) 1 2 3 4 5
    b. Grant the candidate’s request for an extension until April, and extend the signing bonus as well (G) 1 2 3 4 5
    c. Grant the candidate’s request for an extension until April, but explain that the signing bonus will expire in March (M) 1 2 3 4 5

    For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?
    a. Decline the candidate’s request for an extension, and ask for a decision by March as originally requested (T)
    b. Grant the candidate’s request for an extension until April, and extend the signing bonus as well (G)

c. Grant the candidate's request for an extension until April, but explain that the signing bonus will expire in March (M)

12. After growing up in a poor city in El Salvador, Pat earned a scholarship to Stanford. In an essay, Pat expressed the desire to become the president of El Salvador. After graduating from Stanford, Pat returned to El Salvador and helped former teachers improve their lesson plans based on knowledge from Stanford. What is the most likely reason for Pat's decision?

    a. To give back to the teachers who made attending Stanford possible (M) 1 2 3 4 5
    b. To improve educational opportunities for students (G) 1 2 3 4 5
    c. To begin building a strong reputation for political advancement (T) 1 2 3 4 5

    For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

    a. To give back to the teachers who made attending Stanford possible (M)
    b. To improve educational opportunities for students (G)
    c. To begin building a strong reputation for political advancement (T)

13. A few years ago, you helped an acquaintance named Jamie find a job. You've been out of touch since then. All of a sudden, Jamie sends an email

introducing you to a potential business partner. What's the most likely motivation behind Jamie's email?

a. Jamie genuinely wants to help me (G) 1 2 3 4 5
b. Jamie wants to pay me back (M) 1 2 3 4 5
c. Jamie wants to ask me for help again (T) 1 2 3 4 5

For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

a. Jamie genuinely wants to help me (G)
b. Jamie wants to pay me back (M)
c. Jamie wants to ask me for help again (T)

14. In 2006, after the devastation caused by Hurricane Katrina, a U.S. bank executive led a team of employees on a trip to help rebuild New Orleans. Why do you think he did this?

    a. He felt compassion for the victims and wanted to do whatever he could to help (G) 1 2 3 4 5
    b. He wanted to make headlines for being a generous, giving organization (T) 1 2 3 4 5
    c. He wanted to show his support for bank employees who had family members in New Orleans (M) 1 2 3 4 5

For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

a. He felt compassion for the victims and wanted to do whatever he could to help (G)

b. He wanted to make headlines for being a generous, giving organization (T)

c. He wanted to show his support for bank employees who had family members in New Orleans (M)

15. A colleague is writing an article on how workplaces are changing. The colleague needs to add some information about social media, which happens to be one of your areas of expertise. You spend several hours making a list of relevant resources and readings. A few weeks later, the colleague finishes writing the article, and it appears in a major newspaper. A section of the article is based on your recommendations, but you're never mentioned, let alone thanked or acknowledged. What would your first reaction be?

    a. I should approach the colleague and ask for a correction to be printed (T) 1 2 3 4 5

    b. My colleague owes me now, so I can bring this up in the future if I need something (M) 1 2 3 4 5

c. It's not a big deal; I was glad to be helpful (G) 1 2 3 4 5

For the scenario above, if you had to choose one answer, which would you choose?

a. I should approach the colleague and ask for a correction to be printed (T)
b. My colleague owes me now, so I can bring this up in the future if I need something (M)
c. It's not a big deal; I was glad to be helpful (G)

Manipulation checks

Instructions: Please respond to the following questions with yes or no

1. "In the scenario, did the female show/demonstrate that she was physically shaken?" (a. yes, b. no)
2. "In the scenario, was the female your supervisor or not?" (a. yes b. no)
3. "In the scenario, were you friends with female coworker?" (a. yes, b. no)

Instructions: Please rate the items from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

1. Need Manipulation: "In the scenario, the female employee needed help."
2. Authority Manipulation: "In the scenario, the female had authority and power to help you get promoted."
3. Friend Manipulation: "In the scenario, the female could help you in the future."

Bystander Intervention Measure (BIM)

(Koon, 2013)

Instructions: Please read the options below and rate how likely you would be to engage in the described behavior. Please rank the following interventions on a scale from 1-5. Ranking a situation 1 means that you would be very unlikely to perform the intervention. A rank of 5 means that you would be very likely to perform the intervention. Please rank each item.

1. Privately advise the woman to avoid the man 1 2 3 4 5

2. Covertly attempt to keep the man away from the woman 1 2 3 4 5

3. Advise the woman to report the incident but not get personally involved 1 2 3 4 5

4. Redirect the man away from the behavior 1 2 3 4 5

5. Remove the woman from the situation 1 2 3 4 5

6. Interrupt the incident 1 2 3 4 5

7. Later report the man 1 2 3 4 5

8. Accompany the woman when they report the incident 1 2 3 4 5

9. Confront the man after the incident 1 2 3 4 5

10. Tell the man to stop the harassing behavior 1 2 3 4 5

11. Publicly encourage the woman to report the behavior 1 2 3 4 5

12. Attempt to get other observers to denounce the behavior 1 2 3 4 5

Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) - Exploratory Measure

(Fitgerald, Magley, Drasgrow, & Waldo, 1999)

Instructions: Please rate the degree to which you agree or disagree with these statements with 1 indicating definitely not to 5 indicating definitely yes.

1. Do you think the male's conduct is sexual harassment?

2. Do you think the male's conduct would be considered sexual harassment by others?

Operationalization of Accessibility and Activation Pathways (CAPS) – Exploratory Measure

Mendoza, Ayduk, Shoda, & Mischel, 1997)

Instructions: Please rate the degree to which you agree or disagree with these statements with 1 indicating strongly disagree to 5 indicating strongly agree.

The woman needed help	1	2	3	4	5
Helping the woman helps my career	1	2	3	4	5
I would help the woman so that in the future she can help me	1	2	3	4	5

Emotional Reaction Questionnaire – Exploratory Measure

(Habashi, Graziano, & Hoover, 2016)

Instructions: Please rate how you felt after reading the scenario with the following statements on a 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) scale.

Empathic concern:

Warm	1	2	3	4	5
Tender	1	2	3	4	5
Compassionate	1	2	3	4	5
Soft-hearted	1	2	3	4	5
Sympathetic	1	2	3	4	5

Personal Distress:

Alarmed	1	2	3	4	5
Upset	1	2	3	4	5
Disturbed	1	2	3	4	5
Distressed	1	2	3	4	5
Anxious	1	2	3	4	5

Demographics

Instructions: Please answer the following questions about yourself. You may skip any question that you do not feel comfortable answering. Please answer each question to the best of your ability.

1. What is your age? ___________

2. What is your gender?

____Male

____Female

____Transgender

____ Other

3. What is your ethnicity? (select all that apply)

___ African/African American ___ Caucasian/European American

___ Hispanic/Latino ___ Asian/Pacific Islander/ American

___ Middle Eastern ___ American Indian/Native American

___ Bi-Racial ___ Multiracial

___ Other

4. Political View:

___ Very Liberal

___ Liberal

___ Moderate

___ Conservative

___ Very Conservative

___ Other (please specify): ________________

5. I have attended a violence prevention or bystander intervention workshop or training since coming to college.

___ Yes

___ No

6. How likely would you be to voluntarily attend programming designed to teach skills about how to intervene in offensive or potentially harmful situations? Please check one.

___Very likely

___Likely

___Neither likely nor unlikely

___Unlikely

Very unlikely ___

7. Do you know a victim or survivor of violence?

___Yes

___ No

Appendix E

Informed Consent

Purpose of this survey:
The purpose of this research is to review workplace scenarios and see how personality may influence reactions to these scenarios.

Who this survey is for:
I am asking working adults to complete this survey; however, you will not have to answer a question if you do not wish to answer and you can stop the survey anytime.

Confidentiality:
Your identity will be kept confidential and your responses will not be linked to your name in any way.

Benefits and risks:
There are no known risks associated with participating in this study. You are free to discontinue your participation in the study at any time without consequence.

How to contact us:
If you have any questions about this research, please contact me at +1 (321) 806-6203 or my faculty supervisor, Dr. Converse at pconvers@fit.edu. This research has been approved by Florida Institute of Technology's Institutional Review Board and information regarding the conduct and review of research involving humans may be obtained from the Chairman of the Institutional Review Board, Dr. Jignya Patel, at (321) 674-8104.

By selecting next and completing this survey you understand your rights as a participant in this research.

Clicking on the link to begin the survey indicates that you agree to participate in this research and that:

1. You are 18 years of age or older.
2. You have read and understand the information provided above.
3. You understand that participation is voluntary.

4. You understand that you are free to discontinue participation at any time.

Thank you for your time and support. Please start with the survey now by clicking on the Continue button below.