

What is a Reasonable Response to Sexual Harassment?

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Abstract

Sexual harassment is widespread and has multiple consequences on its targets. The issue of sexual harassment has gained a lot of attention in recent years, and it is often discussed as a negative behaviour that should be unacceptable, with consequences for those who perpetrate it. However, responses to those who come forward to report their experiences remain unsupportive; their credibility and character are often questioned, while the actions and decisions they made after the incident are judged and sometimes used against them.

These reactions to people who report sexual harassment presume that we know how people who have been sexually harassed should (or do) react to these situations, what decisions they make and why. The common expectation is that victims will immediately recognise what happened as a crime, decide to seek justice, and make a formal report.

But do we really know how victims of sexual harassment or assault behave? There is evidence from government and third sector surveys that the majority of people who experience sexual harassment do not report it formally. Often they take no action at all. This discrepancy between what victims do, and how they are expected to behave, raises questions about what victims really feel, and what needs are served by the actions that they take, irrespective of what others might expect. This thesis aims to address these questions.

Chapter 1 provides an overview of the thesis and Chapters 2 and 3 are dedicated to reviewing the relevant literature. Chapters 4 and 5 then summarise four studies we conducted to explore these issues. These studies focus on four different perspectives on what victims of harassment need and do in the response to their experiences. Namely, we consider the perspectives of informal service providers, formal service providers, survivors of sexual harassment, and those who have never been sexually harassed but

imagine how they would respond if they had. Finally, we conclude with a discussion in Chapter 6, which integrates the findings from Studies 1-4 and underlines the potential practical implications of our findings.

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Chapter 1: Overview

Sexual harassment is widespread and takes place in numerous contexts, including workplaces, schools, and in the streets (RAINN, n.d.). In recent years, sexual harassment has received growing attention, for example through the Everyday Sexism project, an online platform launched in 2012 through which people could share their experiences with sexism and sexual harassment (The everyday sexism project, n.d.).

However, the issue of sexual harassment really topped the news agenda after the ‘me too’ movement. On October 15 2017 the actress Alyssa Milano encouraged people who had experienced sexual harassment or sexual assault to respond ‘me too’ to her post on Twitter (Alyssa Milano, 2017). The phrase, originally coined in 2006 by civil rights activist Tarana Burke, became viral. The hashtag #metoo was used 200000 times on its first day on Twitter, and 4.7 million times on Facebook within 24 hours of its existence (Khomami, 2017). These actions, shared on social media, revealed the widespread, but previously invisible, experiences of many women and some men too. Soon a number of prominent and powerful figures in entertainment and industry around the world were fired (Carlsen et. al, October 29, 2018) and companies all around the world were called to account for their sexual harassment policies (House of Commons, Women and Equalities committee, 2018).

Even though this maybe the most widespread and recent example of concern with the prevalence of sexual harassment, academic research had directed attention to this issue for a long time. As a result, the consequences of sexual harassment are well documented, and have been shown to be multi-layered, affecting its targets and at times their wider environment in a number of ways. For example, Schneider, Tomaka, and Palacios (2001) examined the impact of sexual harassment on women’s cognitive, affective, and physiological reactions. They found that there was greater cardiovascular reactivity during a word association task and greater affective, cognitive, and cardiovascular reactions during a speech task among women who had been sexually

harassed, compared to those who had not. In addition, Harned and Fitzgerald (2002) found a link between experiences of sexual harassment and eating disorder symptoms, while a meta-analysis by Chan, Chow, Lam, and Cheung (2008) pooling data from 49 independent studies found that experiencing sexual harassment had a negative relationship with a number of physical, psychological, and job-related outcomes. Importantly, research also shows that sexual harassment does not need to be severe or recognised by its targets in order to have these negative impacts. For example, Woodzicka and LaFrance (2005) found that in a simulated job interview, mild sexual harassment (e.g. questions such as ‘Do people find you desirable?’) led women to give lower quality answers and speak less fluently compared to women who had not experienced this mild harassment. These effects were observed even though the majority of the sample in the harassment condition did not identify the interview as sexually harassing.

Finally, there is evidence that the effects of sexual harassment can extend beyond the immediate targets. For example, Raver and Gelfand (2005) showed a diminished level of cohesion and lower financial performance in work teams where harassment had taken place; teams that also exhibited increased relationship and task conflict compared to teams where sexual harassment was not present. Furthermore, Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, and Magley (1997) found that experiencing sexual harassment in the workplace can lead women to spend more time thinking about leaving their jobs, to report greater intentions to actually do so, and to display higher levels of absenteeism, compared to women who have not been subjected to harassment. In these ways, sexual harassment can be costly not just for individuals, but also for organisations as whole.

Taken together these findings highlight the multiple consequences sexual harassment can have on its targets and the environments where it takes place. Despite these consequences, and the existence of organisational and societal policies to protect victims from harassment, people rarely come forward to report sexual harassment. Instead, surveys consistently show that the majority of people who experience sexual

harassment do not report it formally, and sometimes do not even discuss it informally with their friends and family (e.g., see Flatley, 2018). Although it may not be what most victims of sexual harassment do, there is nonetheless a widespread expectation that people who have been sexually harassed *should* immediately challenge the harasser and take formal actions in order to obtain justice. These expectations of how victims should respond to sexual harassment hinge on the presumption that such experiences should be accompanied by intense emotions that propel people towards immediate formal action.

These ideas about appropriate responses to sexual harassment have remained relatively unchanged over the past 2000 years. In Seneca the Elder's *Controversiae*, written in the beginning of the first century, Cestius Pius argues that an alleged rape victim is lying: 'To my mind, you were not even raped. You ask for proof? You show no anger. How is that?' (*Controversiae* 1, p. 123). The victim's reaction, which does not exhibit sufficient anger according to Cestius Pius' expectations, is proof enough that she was not raped. No less than 20 centuries later, the President of the United States similarly questioned the credibility of a victim of historic sexual abuse: 'Why didn't someone call the FBI 36 years ago?' (Trump, 2018). Apparently for centuries men like these have known exactly how victims should respond to sexual harassment: by being angry, fearless, heroic, and immediately seeking justice. Importantly, when a victim does not respond in the expected way, the discrepancy between the expectation of others and their (in)actions is sufficient to raise questions about the credibility of their claims.

Though it might seem farfetched that this would also be sufficient to 'prove' that an alleged victim was lying, exactly this reasoning was invoked in a Spanish court in response to a woman's accusation of rape by a group of men. The defense hired private detectives to follow her physical and online movements. After observing her behaviour in the aftermath of the incident, the detectives came back with a damning report: the victim spent time with her friends and two months after the incident posted a photo with a sexually suggestive message on it on Instagram. After receiving international coverage

and facing widespread backlash (see for example Beatley, 2019 and Rosell, 2018), the report was withdrawn by the defense. However, the information was already out there and available to the jury and all the public spectators. And the message was clear: she is not telling the truth, because she is not behaving like a real rape victim would. In April 2018 the five men were cleared of rape and sexual assault. Instead they were charged with the lesser crime of sexual abuse (Jones, 2018).

How do real victims of sexual harassment or assault behave? As noted above, the answer to this question – right or wrong – is that they more often than not do nothing. The discrepancy between what victims do, and how they are expected to behave, raises questions about what victims really feel, and what needs are served by the actions that they do take, irrespective of what others might expect. This thesis aims to address these questions. Chapters 2 and 3 are dedicated to reviewing the relevant literature. Chapters 4 and 5 then summarise four studies I conducted to explore these issues. These studies focus on four different perspectives on what victims of harassment need and do in response to their experiences. Namely, I consider the perspectives of informal service providers, formal service providers, survivors of sexual harassment, and those who have never been sexually harassed but imagine how they would respond if they had. By triangulating these perspectives, I consider the landscape within which victims make decisions about what to do, who to talk to, and how these actions might – or might not – lead to satisfaction of their own needs. Throughout, I make the assumption that in the wake of sexual harassment, victims might have multiple needs (rather than simply needs for justice) and that whatever actions they do take might be functional for servicing their needs, even when these contrast to the expectations others have about the ‘right thing to do’.

In more detail, Chapter 4 comprises two qualitative studies exploring the perspective of those who handle sexual harassment complaints. The studies took place across two different contexts, namely the informal context of a workplace support service and the formal setting of the police. In Studies 1 and 2 we focused on service

providers' perceptions about sexual harassment and their views around service users' needs, the ways in which they try to meet those needs, as well as their ideas around the barriers that hinder people from coming forward to seek support and justice. We found very few differences between the perceptions of formal and informal service providers; however, both discussed the limitations their role poses for providing the support they believe service users are looking for.

Chapter 5 is dedicated to the perspective of people who have experienced sexual harassment. In two quantitative studies I explored the perceptions of survivors of sexual harassment and examined their psychological needs, the actions they took after the incident(s), and the extent to which their actions satisfied their needs. In these two studies we also examined the perceived needs and anticipated actions by people who had never been sexually harassed, but imagined such experiences for the purpose of our study. This allowed us to investigate the discrepancies between real and imagined experiences with sexual harassment. These two studies highlighted the multiplicity of psychological needs survivors experience after they are sexually harassed and that their need for justice is low, relative to their other psychological needs. These studies also showed that those who only imagine being sexually harassed systematically overestimated the intensity of their psychological needs, as well as the number of actions they would take after being sexually harassed. Possible reasons behind this phenomenon and potential implications are discussed. Finally, we conclude with a discussion in Chapter 6, which integrates the findings from Studies 1-4 and underlines the potential practical implications of our findings.

Chapter 2: Perceiving Sexual Harassment and Responding to it: Definitions and Statistics

This Chapter provides a broad overview of the relevant literatures informing this research. Specifically, here I summarise the legal definitions of sexual harassment, as well as the more psychological (or lay) definitions that people might hold and act upon when making judgments about what they or others should do in response to these experiences. Though it may in some sense seem obvious for a thesis on this topic, the most central – and slippery – question is what sexual harassment actually is, and whether we know it when we see it. In addition to definitions, actual statistics on what people experience, and what they report, tells us something about the definitions and other contingencies that are guiding their actions. This chapter also summarises what we know about the prevalence of sexual harassment and the actions people take in response to it.

What is Sexual Harassment?

As already noted, the #metoo movement has raised the profile of sexual harassment as an important, if every day, experience for many people around the globe. This movement also sparked discussions about the nature of sexual harassment, the intentions of the accused, and the culpability of others in their environment who were in a position to say or do something to intervene. But despite all the discussions, there is often little consensus around what exactly sexual harassment means and where the line is between joking, banter, flirting, and consensual sex on the one hand, and sexual harassment, sexual assault, and rape on the other hand. This reflects the fact that what counts as harassment is, to a certain extent, subjective: ultimately harassment is behaviour that is unwelcomed by the victim, and what is unwelcome to one person may be welcomed by, or at least un concerning to, another. That said, there are certain parameters that draw a boundary around what sexual harassment is. Below I consider the legal definition, as well as a more psychological definition and everyday definitions

of harassing behaviour.

Legal Definition

This section focuses on the legal framework in the UK, because UK law is most relevant to this thesis. The term ‘sexual harassment’ is not used in UK law. Instead, behaviours that constitute what might typically be seen as sexual harassment are outlawed through three Acts, namely the Sexual offences Act 2013, the Protection from harassment Act 1997, and the Equality Act 2010. The Sexual Offences Act covers a wide range of offences, including rape and sexual assault. For an incident to be deemed rape or sexual assault, it is necessary that two conditions are met: the alleged victim did not consent, and the alleged perpetrator did not reasonably believe that the alleged victim consented. In other words, if the person whose conduct is in question is thought to have ‘reasonably’ believed that the other person consented, then the incident is not deemed rape, even if it is believed that the other person did not consent. In practical terms, this means that a jury does not need to be convinced that the sex was consensual – they merely need to believe that the defendant *thought* it was.

Other forms of sexual harassment, such as repeated non-physical unwanted sexual advances, are covered by the Protection from Harassment Act 1997 and the Equality Act 2010. According to the former, the offence of Harassment is committed when a person engages in conduct which harasses another person. Crucially, for the behaviour to be deemed harassment, the perpetrator ‘ought to know’ that their behaviour constitutes harassment, and a reasonable person in possession of the same information would consider the conduct harassing. Finally, according to the Equality Act 2010, a person commits the offence of harassment if they engage in conduct related to another person’s protected characteristics (e.g. sex, gender, age etc.), or unwanted conduct of a sexual nature, and the conduct has the purpose or effect of ‘violating the other person’s dignity’, or ‘creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating or offensive environment’ for them (copied from the Equality Act). The Act states that in

order to decide whether harassment took place, the alleged victim's perception, the other circumstances of the case, and whether it was reasonable for the conduct to have that effect must be taken into consideration.

Therefore, all the behaviours and actions that would be intuitively considered sexual harassment are outlawed by these three Acts. However, and unlike lay intuitions, or more psychological definitions of sexual harassment (see below), in the eyes of the law it is not enough to establish whether the victim *felt* harassed, or *believed* that they were raped; instead, the perpetrator's awareness that they engaged in unwanted, non-consensual behaviour as well as the perception of a reasonable person that the behaviour was unwanted and caused harassment are necessary for a conviction.

Furthermore, it is noteworthy that these are the official legal definitions that are outlined by the Acts; however, there is variation in the way laws are interpreted and implemented. Indeed, the people who exercise the law interpret it based on their own opinions and beliefs. For example, in April 2019, Mr Justice Hayden, a senior UK judge, argued that he "cannot think of any more obviously fundamental human right than the right of a man to have sex with his wife", rendering the issue of marital rape an issue of the husband's human right to have sex with his wife (a 'right' that is not actually covered by the Human Rights Act), rather than a violation of the wife's human rights to liberty, security, a life without torture and inhuman treatment (Human Rights Act 1998), or a violation of the Sexual Offences Act 2003 (Bowcott, 2019). Therefore, legal definitions might appear to be very precise and clear-cut, but in reality they are interpreted differently even by those who possess extensive legal knowledge, exercise the law as their profession, and have large decision making power and an influence over the lives of the people who enter the Criminal Justice System.

Social Psychological Definition

The above discussion of legal definitions again highlights the subjectivity involved in perceiving harassment – even when perceived through the 'neutral' eyes of

the law. Given this, theorising in this project follows a more psychological definition of sexual harassment. Specifically, we draw on the definition by Fitzgerald and colleagues (1997), which has been used as the basis for considerable social psychological research in the area of sexual harassment (e.g. Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow, & Waldo, 1999; Berdahl, Magley, & Waldo, 1996). According to this definition, sexual harassment encompasses a wide range of behaviours. Specifically, it can consist of: 1) sexual coercion, that is, efforts to elicit sexual cooperation in order to gain job related rewards; 2) unwanted sexual attention, and; 3) gender harassment, that is, offensive behaviour towards women (Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997). In addition, gender harassment encompasses two subcategories: a) sexist hostility, or offensive verbal and nonverbal behaviours based on gender, and; b) sexual hostility, or offensive, explicitly sexual verbal and nonverbal behaviours (Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow, & Waldo, 1999). Therefore, according to this definition, the term sexual harassment includes any sexualised or non-sexualised demeaning gender-based treatment, as well as unwanted sexual attention and physical contact. This definition therefore allows us to explore a wider range of behaviours that people might consider sexual harassment, even if those behaviours do not meet formal legal definitions (e.g., because issues of consent might be contested by alleged perpetrators).

Public definitions of Sexual Harassment

It is also important to explore how the public understand, interpret, and define sexual harassment. The availability of legal and psychological definitions does not mean that people's views are aligned with these definitions, or even that people are aware of the existence of formal definitions and understand what they mean in practice. On the contrary, surveys find that these definitions are not reflected in people's understanding of what constitutes sexual harassment. For example, a survey of 2003 people in the UK by the sexual health charity FPA found that only a third of 14-17 year olds thought it was okay for someone to withdraw consent after they had taken their

clothes off (FPA, 2018). In addition, a 2018 survey of 3922 adults in the UK by YouGov found that 97% of respondents were sure that if a stranger forced himself on a woman in a park at night, it would count as rape (End Violence Against Women Coalition, 2018). However, 24% of respondents believed that non-consensual sex in a long-term relationship or marriage does not count as rape, while 33% thought that if sex is non-consensual but does not involve physical violence (apart from the non-consensual nature of the sex), it does not count as rape. Furthermore, a third of male and 21% of female respondents believed that if a woman flirts during a date, subsequent sexual activities do not count as rape, even if she does not consent to these activities. The same percentages thought that a woman cannot change her mind after sex has started and thereby withdraw consent.

It is important to note here that according to the Crime Survey England and Wales, only 13% of rapes are perpetrated by strangers, while 88% are perpetrated by partners, ex-partners, acquaintances, or family members (Flatley, 2018). Therefore, according to the findings by YouGov, people are likely to recognise the most unusual form of sexual violence as rape, namely rape by a stranger, in a dark outdoors environment. However, they are less likely to acknowledge other – more routine – forms of rape, such as acquaintance and marital rape. Therefore, people's perceptions about sexual violence are neither aligned with the law, nor reflect the reality of sexual violence. Even after the 'metoo' movement, people might still fail to recognise the most widespread forms of sexual harassment as sexual harassment. And these widespread forms of sexual harassment are experienced by millions of people worldwide. In the next section we review the evidence on the prevalence of sexual harassment.

Sexual Harassment Prevalence Statistics

As noted in the Overview, the huge participation of ordinary (as well as famous) people from all walks of life in the 'me too' movement highlighted the extent of the

problem of sexual harassment, and led to greater acknowledgement that it is a widespread problem. Despite this, it is still difficult to know the exact number of people perpetrating and experiencing sexual harassment, as people use a wide range of definitions and mean different things when they refer to sexual harassment.

Furthermore, many forms of sexual harassment are so widespread that they are seen as acceptable and are often not recognised as sexual harassment (e.g., sexual assault and rape within intimate relationships, as discussed above). Finally, even when people recognise something as sexual harassment, they very rarely come forward to report it formally. The #metoo movement may have motivated a large number of people to discuss their experiences in informal settings, and even to report them formally, but the majority of survivors are still not likely to report to the police. Thus, it's really hard to say with certainty what 'typically' happens after someone experiences sexual harassment – we don't always know that they did experience this, and those that come forward and recount their experiences might represent only a fraction of the total pool of experiences. This caveat aside, there are some statistics that speak to these questions. Below we report a brief summary of some of the available information on the prevalence of sexual harassment in the UK. Although these summaries focus on what we actually know about sexual harassment, and where this occurs, the statistics also raise many questions about what we do not know, what we presume, and also gives some context within which to understand victims' tendencies not to come forward and lodge formal complaints.

Sexual Harassment in the UK

Crime Survey England and Wales. The Crime Survey England and Wales (CSEW) defines sexual assault as 'rape or assault by penetration (including attempts), and indecent exposure or unwanted touching'. For the year ending March 2017, the survey found that 20% of female and 4% of male respondents had experienced some type of sexual assault since the age of 16 (Flatley, 2018). This corresponds to 3.4

million female and 631,000 male victims. The survey also found that 5 in 6 – that is a clear majority – of people did not report the assault to the police.

However, there has been an increase in police recorded sexual offences in the past year. According to the CSEW, there was a 14% increase of police recorded sexual offences in the year ending September 2018, and a 24% increase in the year ending March 2018. Even though this is positive, and is sometimes attributed in part to the greater visibility of sexual harassment since the #metoo campaign, looking at police recorded crime trends over the past 4 years reveals that these recent increases are actually lower than the increases observed in previous years. Similar to the year ending September 2018, there was a 14% increase in recorded sexual assaults in the year ending March 2017, which was 6 months before the #metoo movement started. Importantly, these increases follow a trend of increased recorded sexual offences, as there was a 38% increase in the year ending March 2016, and a 20% increase in the year ending March 2015. Therefore, within England and Wales there should be caution around attributing recent increases in recorded sexual offences exclusively or primarily to the increased visibility and public discourse around sexual violence caused by the #metoo movement.

It is also important to note here some caveats added by the Office of National Statistics (ONS) to the number of sexual assaults picked up by the CSEW, as well as the number of sexual assaults captured by police recorded crime. Concerning the CSEW, the ONS has commented that there is a high level of non-response to the question about sexual assault; therefore the number of sexual assaults that are identified by the survey is unreliable (Elkin, 2019). In addition, they have provided the caveat that it is hard to interpret trends in sexual offences over the past few years based on police recorded crime, because trends are affected by a number of factors, such as police recording practices and people's willingness to come forward. Therefore, police recorded sexual offences are not currently providing us with a reliable indication of trends in sexual

offences; rather they are likely to be indicative of changes in practices and people's attitudes towards reporting (Elkin, 2018). Considering the aforementioned limitations, it is likely that the numbers captured by the CSEW and police recorded crime are substantially lower than the actual number of sexual offences committed in the UK.

Furthermore, the UK government currently collects data via CSEW only on certain types of sexual harassment, namely the sexual offences covered by the Sexual Offences Act 2003, such as rape and assault by penetration. This means that even though there are some data about these crimes, there are still widespread forms of sexual harassment that are not measured directly and for which we do not have any official data, such as workplace sexual harassment. Additional sources of information, such as data from third sector organisations and surveys commissioned by the media, can provide some useful insight into this issue. For example, Rape Crisis England and Wales report that in the year 2017-2018 they received 179000 helpline calls, while 78461 people accessed their specialist services, which was a 17% increase compared to the previous year. They also report a 43% increase in unique visitors to the Rape Crisis England and Wales website in this period.

It is noteworthy here that in order to get a well-informed understanding of the scale of sexual harassment in the UK, it is important to consider evidence provided by different surveys and sectors. However, it is difficult to collate and compare the information provided by the crime survey and Rape Crisis England and Wales, because they capture different things. For example, people receive support from Rape Crisis England and Wales for all forms of sexual violence, and sometimes the type(s) of sexual violence someone has experienced is unknown, as people are not obliged to explicitly describe their experiences in order to access the service. On the other hand, the Crime Survey England and Wales captures only the forms of sexual violence that are covered by the Sexual Offences Act 2003. In addition, there are particular difficulties in estimating the percentage of people who do not report to the police; the Crime Survey

England and Wales statistics are provided with the caveat that there is a large percentage of non-response to the question about sexual assault. Furthermore, the numbers captured by Rape Crisis are valuable, but are sourced from people who are already asking for support, even if they have not made a formal report. As a result, it is entirely conceivable that there is a large number of people who do not respond to the survey, do not seek support from charity organisations, do not seek medical support, and do not report to the police – and yet have experienced sexual harassment. Ultimately there is no currently reliable way of establishing the true prevalence of sexual assault experience in the UK.

Workplace sexual harassment. Written evidence submitted to the Women and Equalities Committee in February 2018 from a variety of sectors, including academia, charity organisations and professional unions showed that some minority groups are disproportionately targeted by perpetrators of workplace sexual harassment. For example, employees with a disability or long-term illness, staff who have irregular contracts, and freelancers are more likely to be targeted compared to their non-disabled, healthy counterparts with a full-time contract. Furthermore, the outcomes of reporting sexual harassment to an employer appear to be worse for BME women than they are for white women. Research by the Trades Union Congress (TUC) found that no BME women reported that their formal complaint had been dealt with satisfactorily, compared to a seven percent of white women who reported feeling satisfied with the way their complaint was dealt with (House of Commons, Women and Equalities committee, 2018).

The same survey by the Trades Unions Congress (TUC, 2016) revealed that 52% of surveyed women had experienced some form of workplace sexual harassment. The most common form was hearing comments of a sexual nature about other women, with 35% of respondents reporting that they had experienced such an incident. Nearly 25% of respondents had experienced unwanted touching, and 10% had experienced

unwanted sexual touching or attempts to kiss them. In most cases the perpetrator was a male colleague; almost one in five reported that the perpetrator was their manager or someone with direct authority over them.

Sexual harassment was often a recurring experience for women, with over a third of its targets reporting that they had received unwanted sexual advances more than six times in their lives. This number increased to nearly 40% among women over the age of sixty. Therefore it appears that sexual harassment is often a recurring experience, not a one-off incident. The report by TUC also indicates that sexual harassment is largely underreported, with only one in five women stating that they reported the unwanted behaviour to their employer. Women avoided reporting such incidents for a number of different reasons. Nearly 30% of surveyed women feared that making a complaint would have negative consequences on their working relationships, and nearly 25% said they thought that they would not be believed, or taken seriously. Other reasons included embarrassment, a fear of negative impact on their career, not knowing how to make an official complaint, or a lack of awareness that it is possible to report sexual harassment.

These fears are unfortunately not entirely unfounded, as indicated by the outcomes of making a formal complaint. Of the women who experienced sexual harassment and reported it to their employer, 70% reported that they saw no changes in the way they were treated after reporting the incident(s); 16% reported that their employer treated them worse than before, and only 10% of the women who made a formal complaint reported that they were treated better by their employer after that.

Even though most women did not disclose their experiences with sexual harassment in a formal report, many of them did confide in other people. According to the survey by TUC, one in five women confided in a friend or colleague in the workplace. Another survey conducted in 2016 by law firm Slater Gordon found that nearly half of the women surveyed had been warned by their colleagues to expect

inappropriate behaviour from particular colleagues (Slater Gordon, 2016). On the one hand this highlights the importance and benefits of having a supportive social network in the workplace. On the other hand, it raises the question of whether this support is indeed useful short term and on an individual basis, but might potentially be harmful for the workplace environment as a whole. If over half of female employees have experienced sexual harassment at work, and one in five of those confided in someone in their workplace, then it can be expected that the majority of employees are aware of the unwanted behaviours that are taking place, either through their own experiences, or because someone else has confided in them. This shared knowledge of the sexual harassment in a workplace could further contribute to an atmosphere of reluctance to come forward formally, as employees can see that everyone already knows that sexual harassment is taking place, and nothing is being done about it. The effects of this awareness can be illustrated in this quote by an employee who was assaulted by her colleague (TUC, 2016):

I hope that anyone reading this can finally understand why I hate it when people ask: 'Did you report it?' rather than first asking if I'm okay. At each point the harassment was visible and was witnessed by numerous people, colleagues, staff members, and nothing was ever done. I felt isolated as if I was somehow in the wrong.

Sexual harassment in schools. Sexual harassment is widespread in professional settings; however, it does not begin there. On the contrary, it starts taking place at a much younger age. A Freedom of Information (FoI) request by the BBC in 2015 revealed that more than 5500 alleged sex crimes in UK schools had been reported to the police in the three years prior to the request (Savage, 2015). In addition to data from police recorded crime, a worrying report by the Women and Equalities Office revealed

that the majority of girls and young women have experienced sexual harassment whilst at school or college (House of Commons, Women and Equalities committee, 2016). In more detail, 59% of girls and young women aged 13–21 said that they had faced some form of sexual harassment at school or college in the past year. In addition, 22% of 7–12 year old girls have experienced jokes of a sexual nature from boys, and almost a third of 16–18 year old girls said they have experienced unwanted sexual touching at school. Among girls aged 14 to 17 who reported an intimate relationship, 41% experienced some form of sexual violence from their partner. Almost a third of 16–18 year olds (boys and girls) reported that they had viewed pictures of a sexual nature on mobile phones at school a few times a month or more. Lastly, 71% of all 16–18 year olds reported that they hear terms such as ‘slut’ or ‘slag’ used towards girls at schools on a daily basis or multiple times a week.

Finally, in 2016 the National Association of Schoolmasters Union of Women Teachers (NASUWT) conducted a survey, which included a section on sexualised incidents and bullying between pupils (NASUWT, 2016). Teachers reported that students had been filming themselves masturbating and sharing images; female students were sending nude images of themselves to older boys; and there were many incidents when female students sent nude images to their boyfriends, who then forwarded the images onto their friends. These findings, in particular, highlight the role of digital media as a means to perpetrate sexual harassment and spread indecent materials.

Sexual harassment in universities. Sexual harassment is also prevalent in universities across the UK. The Guardian recently sent FoI requests to 120 universities and found that students had made 169 sexual harassment allegations against staff from 2011-12 to 2016-17 (Batty, Weale, & Bannock, 2017). Furthermore, staff made 127 such allegations against their colleagues. The Guardian however reports that the true scale of the problem is likely to be much higher than what the FoI request revealed, because they were told by ‘scores of alleged victims’ that they were dissuaded from

making an official complaint; many others said that they did not report the sexual harassment because they feared it would have a negative impact on their future.

Street harassment. The first national poll on street harassment was conducted by YouGov in 2016 and revealed that 64% of women of all ages have experienced sexual harassment in public places (End Violence Against Women, 2016). In addition, 34% of surveyed women reported experiences with unwanted sexual touching in public places. These figures rise among women in the age group 18-24, with 85% of women in that age bracket reporting that they have faced sexual harassment in public places, and 45% having experienced unwanted sexual touching.

Summary

The above statistics are not exhaustive, and do not cover all of the settings within which sexual harassment takes place (e.g., public transport, private homes). It also provides a picture of only one country, albeit the country in which the present research was conducted. Although statistics from further countries would provide more unique insights, they would ultimately paint a similar picture. And that picture includes several elements: 1) sexual harassment is prevalent; 2) it is likely to be under reported, and 3) the prevalence of harassment (and widespread awareness of this) might be one reason why victims have little faith in coming forward with formal complaints. Especially in workplace settings, though not exclusively, victim's lack of faith in satisfactory outcomes might be accompanied by concerns about how they will be judged if they were to speak out about their experiences – and whether their actions would be considered 'reasonable' in light of these. I turn to this issue next.

What is the reasonable woman standard?

As outlined above, sexual harassment is widespread and people rarely come forward to report it. When they do come forward to make a formal report, their claims are evaluated based on whether they are 'reasonable'. The 'reasonable person' standard

is commonly used in Law to represent ‘a fictional person with an ordinary degree of reason, prudence, care, foresight, or intelligence’ (Merriam-Webster’s Law dictionary, n.d.). It serves as a standard by which to determine the legitimacy of claims, and the defendant’s liability in response to these. The ‘reasonable person’ standard is used extensively in UK legislation, and also in relation to claims about sexual harassment or assault. For example, a person’s ‘reasonable’ interpretation of whether another person consented to sex with them is one of the deciding factors in establishing whether a sexual offence was committed: person A commits a sexual assault if they touch person B in a sexual way, and person B does not consent and person A does not ‘reasonably’ think that person B consented (Sexual Offences Act, 2003).

In the case of sexual harassment, the ‘reasonable *woman*’ standard is often used, which applies to the claimant, rather than the defendant, and is based on the belief that a woman’s perspective should be considered when assessing whether a particular behaviour constitutes harassment (Westman, 1992). This standard is used to determine the credibility of the claimant, by assessing whether the behaviours described would cause a ‘reasonable woman’ to feel harassed, and comparing the claimant’s behaviour and actions with those expected from a ‘reasonable woman.’

The perspective of a ‘reasonable’ person is used in courts as the ‘objective’ perception, the standard against which to compare the claimant’s feelings and actions (Wiener & Vardsveen, 2018). The US Supreme Court has indeed specified that the viability of a hostile work environment claim is based on two prongs, namely the subjective prong, which is the claimant’s perception that they experienced sexual harassment, and the objective prong, that is the perception of a ‘reasonable person’ that the circumstances described by the claimant amount to harassment. Therefore, the perspective of a ‘reasonable’ person (who is not the claimant) is considered to be the ‘objective’ element of this analysis. In the UK, even though the two-prong test is not explicitly stated, the ‘reasonable woman’ standard is also used in some sexual

harassment cases. The Protection from Harassment Act 1997 states that the person whose course of conduct is in question 'ought to know that it amounts to harassment of another if a 'reasonable person' in possession of the same information would think the course of conduct amounted to harassment of the other.'

But what does 'reasonable' mean in these contexts? This is not very clear. The relevant legislation (e.g. the Protection from Harassment Act 1997) does not provide an explanation of what constitutes reasonableness and how it is assessed. In addition, courts that implement the 'reasonable woman' standard have not given an explanation of what this standard entails or what constitutes a reasonable response; they merely announced that they will implement this standard for sexual harassment cases (Kenealy, 1992).

Further to the profound lack of clarity of what is deemed reasonable, applying the 'reasonable woman' standard requires that the 'reasonable' people involved in the decision making are able to put themselves in the position of the claimant, and predict how they would have reacted themselves, as a 'reasonable person'. This assumes that people are able to accurately predict their own and others' feelings, behaviours, and actions. This raises the obvious question of whether people are that accurate in their abilities to predict their own, let alone others', feelings. Indeed, there is a large psychological literature highlighting that people perform poorly when asked to predict their own and others' actions across many contexts, including sexual harassment. This literature will be discussed in the next Chapter.

Chapter 3: Perceiving Sexual Harassment and Responding to it: Psychological aspects

The previous chapter establishes the legal terrain within which claims about sexual harassment are heard. In addition to suggesting that claims about sexual harassment are typically *not* heard, simply because people do not come forward with these despite relevant experiences, interrogating the legal position also highlights the role of subjectivities in judging those claims that are voiced. In particular, legal actors are asked to consider what a ‘reasonable person’ would have felt and done given the circumstances described. In this chapter, I provide a brief overview of the engagement of social psychologists with sexual harassment court cases in the US. Next, I focus on the psychology of the ‘reasonable person’ standard, and ask what reasonable people might think about harassment, and whether this is likely to be accurate. I also consider the psychology of the other side of that judgment – that is, what victims presume about those to whom they might make claims, and how this might guide their own actions.

There is a long history of social psychologists engaging with sexual harassment court cases. This engagement has primarily focused on substantiating claims of sexual harassment based on social psychological evidence. In more detail, over the past years, expert psychological testimony has played a role in sexual harassment litigation in the US (Borgida, Rudman, & Manteufel, 1985). The first case to use social psychological research in a sex discrimination lawsuit was *Hopkins v. Price Waterhouse* in 1989 (Fiske, Bersoff, Borgida, Deaux, & Heilman, 1991; Fiske & Borgida, 2011). Hopkins was denied the position of partner at Price Waterhouse, which she alleged was due to her gender. Price Waterhouse on the other hand argued that Hopkins was not given the position because she had interpersonal skills problems. Some of Hopkins’ evaluators commented that she was ‘macho’, she ‘overcompensated for being a woman’, and that she could take a ‘course at charm school’. Hopkins took her employer to court for

discrimination and Susan Fiske provided expert testimony on this case, supporting that Price Waterhouse's decision not to promote Hopkins to partner was strongly influenced by stereotyping (Fiske et al., 1991).

Fiske's testimony was informed by a body of social psychological research on the behaviours through which stereotyping can be expressed, as well as the role that structural organisational features play in allowing or even fostering stereotyping (Deaux, 1995). She pointed both to how gender stereotypes were relevant to the decision not to promote Hopkins - the only female candidate for partnership - to partner, and to the lack of practices in place by Price Waterhouse that could have reduced stereotypical attitudes (Chamallas, 1990). The evidence brought forward by Fiske helped substantiate that Hopkins had received negative judgements based on stereotypes and was consequently not offered a partnership. Though Hopkins won the original action, Price Waterhouse appealed (*Price Waterhouse v. Hopkins*, 1989). The case reached the Supreme Court, which ruled that there was sufficient evidence that sex stereotyping had played a role in the decision not to promote Hopkins to partner (Antczak, 2010).

Since then, expert psychological testimony has been provided in a number of cases. For example, Fiske also testified in the hostile workplace environment case *Robinson v. Jacksonville Shipyards, Inc.* (1991). Robinson was one of few female welders at Jacksonville Shipyards (Carson, 2008), a workplace that was described as a 'boys' club', with prominent displays of pornographic materials depicting women in degrading positions, where demeaning and sexually explicit comments towards female employees were commonplace (Fiske, 1993). She filed a sex discrimination lawsuit against her employer due to ambient sexual harassment. The defence argued that much of the alleged discriminatory abuse (e.g. the pornographic materials) was not sex based, because it was not specifically targeted at Robinson. In her testimony, Fiske identified several preconditions for stereotyping, namely rarity, priming, workplace structure, and

workplace ambience and showed the link between environmental characteristics and harm on individual women. Her testimony helped evidence that denigrating women in general harmed Robinson specifically, even if it wasn't directly aimed at her individually. The court ruled that the harassment Robinson received was based on her sex and noted that Fiske's testimony provided 'solid evidence' that the presence of pornographic materials was to the detriment of all female employees, even if it wasn't specifically directed at them (Robinson v. Jacksonville, 1991).

In addition, Eugene Borgida provided expert testimony in the Jenson v. Eveleth Taconite Co. case (Shestowsky, 1999). The plaintiffs consisted of all female employees at Eveleth Mines and women who had applied or had been deterred from applying for a job there. The plaintiffs sued their employer for sex discrimination, alleging that sex discrimination permeated all aspects of working at Eveleth, namely recruitment, job allocation, promotion opportunities, salary, discipline, and training. The plaintiffs also alleged that there was hostile workplace environment sexual harassment, with pornographic materials displayed around the workplace and sexual, demeaning comments regularly directed at female employees (O'Brien, 1994).

Borgida based his testimony on a review of the evidence provided by both parties, as well as depositions of male and female employees. He concluded that sex stereotyping was evident at Eveleth Mines, which had caused 'sexual spill-over' (Wiener, 1995). In other words, elements of the relationships between men and women outside the workplace spilled over into the workplace and became a part of the workplace culture, creating a sexualised environment, which was evident by the sexually explicit materials displayed in the workplace and the sexual language directed towards female employees (Burns, 1995).

The court stated that they would have come to the same conclusions even without Borgida's testimony, but his testimony provided "a sound, credible theoretical framework that confirm[ed] the Court's conclusion that the presence of the visual

materials as well as verbal and physical behaviours previously described constitute acts of sexual harassment” (Jenson v. Eveleth Taconite, 1993).

These are just some examples of expert social psychological testimony being used in court cases. Cases like these highlight the importance of experts and the role they can play in sex discrimination litigation. Jurors and judges are likely to enter courtrooms with a host of biases and prejudices; their assessments may be impacted by mechanisms such as affective forecasting errors, or focalism. Expert testimonies can provide the evidence based information needed to achieve fairer, less biased criminal justice outcomes. Next, we focus on the mechanisms that may cause people to mis-predict how they and others would feel after experiencing sexual harassment.

Perspective Taking and Affective Forecasting Error

People often expect that those who have been sexually harassed will immediately make a formal report and seek justice. These expectations likely stem from their erroneous predictions about how people feel under the circumstances of harassment. This pattern of mis-perceived feelings is not limited to the domain of sexual harassment. Instead, a large literature on affective forecasting demonstrates that people make inaccurate predictions about how they might feel, or how they might act, in the future or in hypothetical scenarios (Wilson & Gilbert, 2003). Applying this concept to sexual harassment, Wiener, Gervais, Allen, and Marquez (2013) examined judgments about sexual harassment, and the effects of this on performance and emotions, among three groups of women: those who experienced the sexual harassment (experiencers), those who observed it (observers), and those who read about the harassment but did not witness it directly (predictors). In a simulated job interview that would determine which of two lab jobs the participants would be given (an interesting or a boring one), male confederates objectified the participants by staring at their chest several times during the interview and making a comment about their appearance (sexual objectification condition), or maintained eye contact and made a comment about one of their interview

answers (control condition). After the interview, participants completed a set of work performance tasks and filled in questionnaires measuring their emotions and judgments of sexual harassment. Observers watched a video of the interview and predictors read a script describing the interview and then completed questionnaires about their expectations of the experiencers' task performance and emotions; they also filled in the sexual harassment questionnaire from an objective and a self-referenced perspective, that is as if they had been the interviewee. The results showed that observer's expectations matched the judgments reported by experiencers. However, predictors' judgments demonstrated affective forecasting error. In more detail, predictors estimated that the consequences of objectification would be significantly worse overall (i.e. worse task performance, more perceived sexual harassment, and more negative emotion in response to the objectification) compared to experiencers and observers (see also Gervais, Wiener, Allen, Farnum, & Kimble, 2016, for a replication of these results with community members; Kimble, Farnum, Wiener, Allen, Nuss, & Gervais, 2016, for an examination of pervasive and non-pervasive objectification from these three perspectives; and Bosson, Pinel, and Vandello, 2010, for differences in affective forecasting based on benevolent versus hostile sexism).

The divergence between real and anticipated experiences might be more pronounced when people are predicting others' emotions, compared to when they predict their own emotions in a given scenario. In a series of experiments, Igou (2008) had participants read scenarios (e.g. a scenario about receiving an unexpected tax bill) and asked them to imagine the situation from their own perspective (self-focus condition) or the perspective of another person (other-focus condition). The results showed that people anticipated that the duration of negative emotions would be longer for other people than themselves (termed 'durability bias'), an effect that was more pronounced for predictions about people they did not know well versus people they were more familiar with (Igou, 2008). Igou attributes these forecasting errors to

asymmetric immune knowledge (AIK). According to the AIK hypothesis, people are aware of their own coping mechanisms and can use that knowledge to inform their predictions about their own emotions. For example, they might consider past events they dealt with and recall their coping strategies, or they might focus on the positive events that took place after the negative incident, that helped them recover. On the other hand, they do not have the same knowledge available about other people's history of coping mechanisms and the strategies they have used to deal with negative events, leading them to predict longer durations of negative affect for others.

Wilson, Wheatley, Meyers, Gilbert, and Axsom (2000) further argue that focalism is one mechanism behind the durability bias. Focalism is the tendency people have when predicting future affect to focus solely on the future event in question and ignore the effect of other events that are likely to co-occur. In a demonstration of this, Wilson and colleagues asked participants to indicate how happy they would feel on the succeeding few days after their university football team won or lost a game against another university. They found that participants who filled in a prospective diary of activities they were likely to undertake after the game were less likely to overestimate how long the outcome of the game would affect their feelings compared to participants who only indicated their prospective feelings, without focusing their attention on other events and activities that were likely to take place after the football game.

Together, asymmetric immune knowledge and focalism are likely to affect the perceptions of people who judge the experiences and responses of those who claim sexual harassment. Asymmetric immune knowledge might be particularly pertinent in court cases, and specifically for guiding the perspective of jurors. Jurors are asked to assess the reasonableness of the behaviour of someone who they have never met before, and about whom they have minimal (if any) information about their psychological history. By comparison, if a target of sexual harassment were to discuss the incident with their friends, their friends are likely to have some information about their ability to

cope and their history of recovering after adverse events, and accordingly might be more accurate in their predictions about what their friend would feel and do. Jurors are essentially ‘predictors’ in the Wiener et al (2013) experiment described above. If the target of sexual harassment were instead to make a formal report, the authorities to which they report their experiences (e.g. police officers, HR staff) are more akin to ‘observers’ than they are to ‘predictors’, as the target might have the opportunity to share their perspective and the impact of the incident with them. However, juries are called to make an assessment without access to this knowledge and are therefore likely to overestimate the duration of negative affect for people who have experienced sexual harassment.

It is important to note that to the extent that people’s real responses to sexual harassment are more muted than others might anticipate, this does not mean that the experience of harassment is not negative – muted responses are instead indicative of people’s ability to cope with adverse incidents. When people encounter a negative experience, they automatically and unconsciously regulate their emotional reactions and return to emotional equilibrium (Wiener et al, 2013). Predictors fail to take this emotional adjustment into consideration, which feeds into their affective forecasting errors and predictions of longer, more intense negative affect (Igou, 2008; see also Hoerger, Quirk, Lucas, & Carr, 2009).

The above discussion highlights the link between emotional experiences (and displays of emotion) and process of coping that regulate those emotions and guide people’s subsequent actions. Indeed, although sexual harassment is, by definition, an unwanted and negative experience, people do also find ways to cope after such experiences. And just as their emotions are likely to be misperceived, the ways in which targets of sexual harassment cope with their experiences might not conform to what is expected from them by observers. In responding to sexual harassment, people instead consider a variety of factors, such as how their experiences and actions will affect

valued others, as well as how others will judge them. Which course of action people ultimately take depends on what the individual needs, and which of those needs is prioritised given all these considerations. In the next section we discuss the role psychological needs and the fear of social costs might play in people's decisions not to report sexual harassment formally.

Why Don't People come forward to Report Sexual Harassment?

One of the most frequently asked questions about survivors of sexual harassment is why they did not come forward to report the incident(s) formally. However, as aforementioned, we know that most people who experience sexual violence never report it formally. For those who do come forward, there are a number of reasons why they may choose to do so. Research by the Rape, Abuse & Incest National Network (RAINN) in the US found that the majority (28%) of survivors who reported their victimisation to the police did so to protect themselves or their household from further violence (RAINN, n.d.). A further 25% reported because they wanted the violence to stop, while 21% believed it was their duty to do so or wanted to help improve police surveillance. Other reasons included catching and punishing the offender (17%) and getting help (3%). In the UK the 2017 Crime Survey England and Wales found similar reasons for reporting (Flatley, 2018). Here, of the minority of survivors who reported sexual violence to the police, almost half did so because they wanted to prevent it happening to others (49%) or because they thought it was the right thing to do (46%). Some people told the police in order to prevent the violence from happening again (44%), while some wanted the perpetrator(s) to be punished (42%), and others wanted protection (33%).

Even though all the above reasons might encourage people to come forward, the majority of people who experience any form of sexual harassment will never make a formal report. Low reporting rates for sexual offences are well established through a number of surveys, which suggest many reasons why people choose not to make a

formal report. For example, the Crime Survey England and Wales 2017 found that 5 out of 6 of respondents who had experienced a sexual offence did not report it to the police (Flatley, 2018). The most frequently cited reason for not telling the police, reported in 47% of cases, was embarrassment. Other common reasons included believing that the police would not be able to help them (40%), feeling that it would be humiliating to report it to the police (35%), and expecting that the police would not believe them (28%).

Another common reason why people do not report is the fact that they do not always realise that what they experienced constitutes sexual harassment and therefore could be reported to the police (Engel, 2017). In addition, people might choose not to report to the police, because they blame themselves for the incident and feel responsible for what happened; some may have already been blamed by the perpetrator or their family and made to believe it was their fault (Willingham & Maxouris, 2018). Other reasons for not reporting include fear of consequences or repercussions, minimising what happened (Engel, 2017), believing it is a personal matter (RAINN, n.d.) fear that others will find out, wanting to forget about the incident and move on, and a (reasonable) fear that they will have to recount humiliating and potentially re-traumatising details during an investigation and in court (Willingham and Maxouris, 2018).

Psychological Needs

Further to all these reasons we propose that people do not report their victimisation to the police because they have a number of psychological needs that would not be met through the process and outcome of making a formal report. There is a large body of literature which shows that people have a number of fundamental psychological needs that are required for achieving wellbeing. In social psychology, fundamental psychological needs and motives are often discussed under the framework of Self Determination Theory (SDT), which comprises a number of sub- theories

including Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT). According to BPNT, people's wellbeing and optimal functioning is predicated upon fulfilling three basic psychological needs: autonomy, relatedness, and competence. Autonomy refers to experiences of volition and self-initiation, as opposed to experiences of being controlled or coerced by someone else. Relatedness is achieved when someone feels that they have strong, meaningful relationships with others, as opposed to feeling isolated and alone (LaGuardia & Patrick, 2008). Finally, competence refers to experiences of mastery as opposed to feelings of ineffectiveness (Niemic & Ryan, 2009). When these needs are threatened or depleted, this has a negative impact on people's wellbeing; therefore under these circumstance it is likely that people will be motivated to engage in behaviours and actions that will satisfy these needs and restore compromised wellbeing.

Ryan and Deci (2008) argue that the basic psychological needs are universal and apply to all cultures. Some researchers have questioned the universality of these needs (see for example Iyengar & Lepper, 1999; Markus, Kitayama, & Heiman, 1996; Heine & Lehman, 1997; Kitayama, Markus, & Lieberman, 1995). Much of this inquiry has focused on determining whether autonomy is a fundamental need in collectivistic cultures. For example, Iyengar and Lepper (1999) found that Anglo-American children were more intrinsically motivated when they felt autonomous (i.e. made their own choices) while completing a task compared to when the decisions were being made by others. Conversely, Asian-American children were more intrinsically motivated when their choices were being made by an in-group member. In addition, Heine, Lehman, Markus, and Kitayama, (1999) argue that some of the notions that are used to understand needs are rooted in Western culture and are too narrow to represent different cultures. Specifically, they discuss that positive self-regard is generally seen as a universal fundamental need. However, the concept of self-regard as described in the literature stems from certain aspects of North American culture; therefore, it does not

encompass Japanese culture which is more characterised by self-criticism than positive self-regard (Heine et al., 1999).

Nevertheless, there has been ample empirical support for BPNT's claim of universality. For example, in two studies by Chen et al. (2015) participants from Belgium, China, the United States, and Peru were asked to complete a series of scales assessing their need satisfaction and their psychological wellbeing, among other things. The results showed that the satisfaction of autonomy, competence, and relatedness contributed uniquely to the prediction of wellbeing, while the depletion of each of these needs contributed uniquely to predictions of ill-being. This was true across the four diverse cultural samples. On this basis, Chen et al (2015) argue that the satisfaction of the basic psychological needs is essential for optimal functioning and human thriving across cultures.

Furthermore, Sheldon et al (2001) tested the needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence against seven other theoretically derived needs, namely self-esteem, pleasure-stimulation, self-actualisation, security, popularity-influence, and money-luxury. They asked three groups of college students from the US (an individualistic culture) and South Korea (a collectivistic culture) to describe their most satisfying and most unsatisfying experiences in the week, month, or semester before their participation in the study and rate the salience of each of the aforementioned needs during that experience. They found that the top fundamental needs were the same across the two cultures, with autonomy, relatedness, competence, and self-esteem being the most important needs for participants from both countries. The results also revealed some meaningful variation in the relative ranking of each need among the top needs. Specifically, they found that the most important need among the US sample was self-esteem, whereas the most important need for the South Korean sample was relatedness. Given the respective individualistic and collectivistic nature of the two cultures, these findings make intuitive sense. Despite this variation, the same needs were salient in the

satisfying and unsatisfying experiences of both samples. Based on these data, Sheldon et al propose that all people have the same fundamental psychological needs, but different cultures may prioritise and emphasise some of those needs above others, leading to these variations.

Furthermore, Sheldon et al argue that self-esteem was empirically separable from autonomy in their studies and therefore propose that there are not three, but four fundamental needs: the three needs outlined by Self Determination Theory, as well as the need for self-esteem. Finally, they propose that safety-security is also a fundamental need, but it is only salient at times of privation. In other words, safety was not discussed by participants as a feature of their satisfying experiences, but the absence of safety was salient among descriptions of the most unsatisfying events.

Hahn and Oishi (2006) conducted a similar study to Sheldon and colleagues and tested the generalisability of the three needs proposed by Self Determination Theory beyond college students. In more detail, they examined the salience of the same ten needs in the most satisfying experiences of younger and older American and South Korean participants. They found that participants in both age groups and cultural settings generally highlighted the needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence as salient during their satisfying experiences, which is consistent with the needs outlined by Self Determination Theory. However, they found some cultural and age group variations with regards to the ranking of needs: for younger South Koreans, autonomy was the most important need, while their older counterparts indicated self-actualisation and popularity-influence as their most important need. On the other hand, self-esteem was rated as the most important need by both younger and older American participants.

Therefore, with some cultural and age group variations in the relative ranking of the top needs, there has been strong empirical support for the needs proposed by Self Determination Theory as fundamental and universal, perhaps with the addition of the need for safety when it is threatened and the separation of self-esteem from autonomy.

The inclusion of safety as a fundamental need is likely to be important for understanding people's needs after they experience sexual harassment, as these kind of experiences indeed threaten people's sense of safety and security and may affect their subsequent motivations and decision making.

Hierarchy of Needs

Self Determination Theory might be the dominant model of needs in the social psychological literature, but there are other models. And in contrast to SDT's characterisation of the basic needs as being of equal importance, alternative theories suggest that not all needs are experienced at equal intensity all the time; on the contrary, some needs might be prioritised and people might strive to achieve them before their other needs. For example, Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943) posits that psychological wellbeing is predicated on fulfilling inherent needs in order of importance. Maslow proposed that these needs are, starting from the most basic to the highest needs: physiological (e.g. food and water), safety, love and belonging, esteem (self-respect and respect from others), and right at the top of the pyramid self-actualisation (the person's need to be what they were 'born to be', Jerome, 2013). Maslow argued that only if the basic physiological needs (e.g. food and safety) are satisfied can a person move on and achieve belongingness and esteem. Finally, all these needs have to be satisfied before a person is able to achieve self-fulfilment.

Maslow's hierarchy has been the topic of extensive debate. Criticisms have focused both on the sample Maslow based the model on and on the fact that he did not provide empirical evidence for it. Regarding the sample, Maslow studied only healthy and successful people he believed had reached self-actualisation (e.g. Albert Einstein) and argued that focusing on unhealthy people would produce a 'cripple psychology' (Maslow, 1954). This calls into question whether this sample was representative of society, as well as the ethics surrounding examining only people Maslow deemed to be

healthy and successful. Furthermore, in a review of the available literature at the time, Wahba and Bridwell (1976) concluded that there was very limited empirical support for Maslow's original five step model. After reviewing 13 studies, they argued that the literature provided either little or no support for the five-step model. However, more recently Taormina and Gao (2013) provided some empirical support for Maslow's theory; they tested the five-step model and found that the satisfaction of each higher need was statistically predicted by the satisfaction of the need immediately below it in the hierarchy. They also found that the satisfaction of physiological needs significantly predicted the satisfaction of all other needs; thus, they argue that physiological needs are fundamental, and might be essential for the fulfilment of all other needs (Taormina & Gao, 2013). Therefore there is some evidence that certain needs are more prominent than others, depending on the circumstances and the extent to which each need has been satisfied.

With regards to sexual harassment it could be argued that this experience threatens multiple psychological needs. For example, it is likely that sexist comments threaten people's sense of esteem and their ability to self-actualise. Other forms of sexual harassment are also likely to threaten people's sense of safety; in lower end, non-physical harassment, such as verbal sexual harassment at the workplace, people might fear that things will get worse, or fear that their career will be negatively impacted if they confront the harasser. In cases of physical sexual harassment, people's sense of safety is likely to be directly affected. Finally, because sexual harassment is a relational experience (as well as often being an intergroup one), these experiences also inevitably affect the individual's sense of belonging and how they relate to others. It is therefore possible that people will be motivated to take actions that meet these needs and avoid actions that would further threaten them. Past research has indeed shown that people consider the potential costs and benefits of confronting prejudice and making a complaint before doing so. This literature is discussed below.

Cost benefit analysis of coming forward

Past literature has shown that people perform a cost benefit analysis before making complaints about negative treatment by others (Kowalski, 1996). When someone experiences prejudice and is faced with the decision between confronting the perpetrator and remaining silent, they estimate the likelihood that complaining will actually be beneficial for them and have a positive impact without being costly. Following the mini-max principle, people aim to maximize the profits gained by complaining while minimising the undesired costs (Kowalski, 1996). These costs might include being seen as a complainer, being disliked, and having their values dismissed by others (Shelton & Stewart, 2004).

In support of the idea of a cost-benefit analysis there is evidence that people who believe that confrontation might successfully lead prejudiced people to change their attitudes are more likely engage in direct confrontation compared to people who believe that it is unlikely that they will change anything by complaining. Rattan and Dweck (2010) examined how perceptions about others' ability to change affected whether targets of discrimination confronted prejudice and avoided future interactions with a prejudiced person. Their results (Study 1) showed that targets' perceptions about whether people's personalities are malleable predicted whether they confronted a prejudiced online interaction partner. Participants who held an incremental theory of personality (i.e. believed that people can change) were more likely than participants who held an entity theory of personality (i.e. believed that people have fixed personality traits) to confront the prejudiced individual. Their second study showed that the theory of personality held by each participant predicted the extent to which they expected that they would confront an individual who made a prejudiced statement. In more detail, participants who held an entity theory of personality were less likely to anticipate that they would confront a blatantly prejudiced statement and more likely to avoid future

interactions with a prejudiced individual compared to participants who held an incremental theory of personality. Finally, in their third study Rattan and Dweck examined whether there is a causal relationship between theories of personality and self-reported likelihood of confronting prejudice. After manipulating participants' implicit theories of personality they found that participants with an incremental theory of personality reported a higher intention to confront the prejudiced individual, and a lower intention to avoid future interactions with the prejudiced individual than participants with an entity theory of personality.

Rattan and Dweck argue that these results can be considered from the perspective of a cost-benefit analysis. When faced with the decision to confront or to remain silent, people who hold an entity theory of personality are likely to believe that a prejudiced individual will not change their attitudes even if they are confronted about their behaviour. In this case, confronting them would not provide any benefits, while it might be costly in terms of time, effort, and social consequences. On the other hand, people with an incremental theory of personality might perceive the benefits of confronting someone to be higher, as they anticipate that this will lead them to change their beliefs and have less prejudiced attitudes.

In addition to the lower likelihood of confronting a perpetrator when their perceived ability to change is low (and therefore the benefits of confronting them are low), people are also less likely to take action against sexual harassment when the costs of complaining are seen as high (Crosby, 1993). Illustrative of this, in two studies Shelton and Stewart (2004) used an interview paradigm in which female participants either imagined being interviewed (Study 1) or were actually interviewed (Study 2) by a man who asked sexist or offensive (but not sexist) questions in high or low cost conditions. Their results showed that participants were less likely to confront the interviewer who asked sexist questions in the high cost condition compared to the low cost condition. In addition –and importantly for cases of sexual harassment- the

perception of high versus low costs did not have the same effects on whether women confronted the interviewer who asked offensive but not sexist questions.

Furthermore, the costs of complaining are seen to be higher when the perpetrator is more powerful than the victim. The power discrepancy between the perpetrator and the victim is likely to further inhibit the victim from engaging in direct confrontation (Drury & Kaiser, 2014). Ashburn-Nardo and colleagues (2014) examined the effects of perpetrator power on the confrontation intentions of participants who witnessed discrimination (sexism or racism) in a lab experiment and in an imaginary scenario. In both studies participants reported lower intentions to confront perpetrators who had higher power than them, compared to perpetrators with equal or lower power. This effect was the same across both types of discrimination and was mediated by participants' perceptions about the costs versus benefits of confronting, their ability to decide how to respond, and their responsibility for intervening (Ashburn-Nardo, Blanchar, Petersson, Morris, & Goodwin, 2014). This situational barrier of perpetrator power is very important because sexual harassment is often associated with power relations and power misuse. For example, Bargh and colleagues found that for male participants who were likely to harass, priming them with power related concepts significantly increased their attraction ratings of a female confederate, compared to participants who had been received neutral priming (Bargh, Raymond, Pryor, & Strack, 1995; see also Bargh & Raymond, 1995). This is in line with the findings of a 2016 survey on workplace sexual harassment by the Trades Union Congress; their results showed that one in five of the surveyed women who had experienced sexual harassment had been harassed by their manager or someone with direct authority over them (TUC, 2016). Therefore, sexual harassment is often perpetrated by people who have power relative to their victims; however, people might be less willing to confront or report high power perpetrators, because of the perceived obstacles and potential consequences.

Taken together, the anticipated costs of confronting prejudice appear to largely

outweigh any perceived benefits. And these perceptions are, unfortunately, not entirely unfounded. Even though there is evidence that confronting perpetrators of discrimination can be beneficial (e.g. due to reductions to discriminatory expressions and compensatory efforts by the perpetrator; Carr, Dweck, & Pauker, 2012), the social psychological literature on confronting discrimination has consistently shown that doing so can incur large social costs. For example, in a series of studies Kaiser and Miller have shown that people evaluate complainers negatively, even if they have been treated with blatant prejudice (Kaiser & Miller, 2001; 2003). In their first experiment examining the way people who attribute negative events to discrimination are evaluated by others, participants read a vignette in which an African American college student took a test that assessed his future career success. The student was given a failing test grade from a White American judge (Kaiser & Miller, 2001). The vignette informed the participants that the test administrator had told the job candidate that their test would be evaluated by one of eight White judges, out of which one, four, or all judges discriminated against Black people. The results showed that people evaluated the man who attributed his failing grade to discrimination more negatively than when he attributed the failing grade to other factors, such as the difficulty of the test. This pattern was true regardless of the likelihood that the judge was actually racist.

In this study the participants only found out about the prejudiced attitudes of the test judge through second hand information (i.e. they read that the likelihood that the judge was prejudiced was mentioned by the test administrator to the test taker). Therefore, participants did not have first-hand knowledge of the judge's prejudice. In a follow-up experiment, Kaiser and Miller (2003) examined whether participants evaluated others in the same way when they received direct information about the interviewer's prejudiced beliefs. Participants read the application materials of an African American job candidate who was not offered the role he applied for. Unlike the original (2001) study, in this study participants read the employer's comments about the

candidate themselves. The comments expressed no prejudice against African Americans, moderate prejudice, or blatant racism (e.g. with statements such as “Black people are just not as smart as White people”). Even though the participants in this study had received direct evidence of the employer’s attitudes towards Black people, they still viewed the job candidate as a troublemaker if he blamed his failure to discrimination, regardless of the likelihood that the employer was actually racist. These findings show that people are prone to derogate those who attribute their treatment to discrimination even when there is direct, unambiguous evidence that they have been the targets of discrimination.

Moreover, there is evidence that this effect might be even worse when the complainer is an in-group member (Kaiser & Major, 2006). Garcia and colleagues examined how male and female participants evaluated an in-group or outgroup member who attributed their failure to discrimination by an opposite sex test evaluator, or to the quality of their answers (Garcia, Reser, Amo, Redersdorff, & Branscombe, 2005). They found that participants overall evaluated people who blamed their failure on discrimination more negatively compared to those who blamed it on their performance on the test. However, this dislike was greater when they evaluated an in-group member (i.e. someone of the same sex as them) compared to when they evaluated an out-group member. In addition, participants who evaluated an in-group member who blamed their result on discrimination reported lower gender identification compared to participants who evaluated out-group members who blamed their performance on discrimination, or in-group members who attributed their failure to the quality of their answers. Finally, in-group members who blamed their failure on discrimination were seen to be avoiding responsibility to a greater extent than out-group members who made the same attribution. This might be particularly relevant for cases of workplace sexual harassment. It is possible that women who have faced sexism in the workplace will turn to their female colleagues for support and understanding. However, in cases where the

above effect applies, it is possible that they will be disliked by other women and perceived as avoiding responsibility for their own actions.

Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of the engagement of social psychologists with the practice of sexual harassment law in the US. It also outlined the potential social and psychological barriers that might hinder people from making a formal report in response to experiences of sexual harassment. In particular, the above discussion focusses on psychological needs and social costs. We suggest that the experience of sexual harassment is likely to threaten multiple needs, and that people's actions (formal or informal) are likely to depend on which specific needs are prioritized. Along these lines, the research that follows in this thesis we will explore individual needs and the role they play in the actions people take after sexual harassment.

Furthermore, we have reviewed the literature on affective forecasting and concluded that people are likely to mis-predict how they and others would feel and react after an adverse experience. This is particularly pertinent when people come forward to discuss their experiences with sexual harassment. In informal settings people who expect a different reaction from what they are witnessing might make the person who is opening up to them feel like they are not being heard or understood. In formal settings, such as court cases, jurors and judges are asked to make judgments about the complainant's response, and to evaluate whether it was reasonable. Due to the likelihood of committing affective forecasting error, it is possible that there is a discrepancy between the reactions observers are expecting to see, and the way victims are actually reacting. Along these lines, the research that follows in this thesis will also examine the discrepancies between people's perceptions about needs and the forms of actions they lead to.

Overall, this thesis aims to understand sexual harassment from multiple perspectives. Experiences with sexual harassment can be deeply personal, but they are

rarely exclusively so. Such experiences are widespread and they come to exist in a society which allows and perpetuates them, in which many forms of sexual harassment are seen as acceptable and go unquestioned, and in which those few people who come forward are often vilified and told that they are overreacting. In this context, experiences with sexual harassment are indeed personal, but they are also public and political. It is thus important to examine these experiences from all perspectives, as they all play a role in the existence of sexual harassment, the way it is experienced, and the way perpetrators and victims are treated. In this thesis we endeavour to contribute to a well-rounded understanding of perceptions around sexual harassment by examining four perspectives: the perspective of those who experienced sexual harassment; the perspective of those who listen and provide emotional support; the perspective of those who endeavour to help survivors achieve justice, but have to investigate the truth and evaluate the defensibility of their statements in order to do so; finally, the perspective of those who have never experienced sexual harassment, but try to put themselves in that position by imagining they were harassed. The latter are akin to jurors and those who evaluate victims based on their perceptions of what constitutes a reasonable response. The next chapter aims to understand the perspective of two service providers, namely the perspective of an informal workplace support service (Study 1) and the perspective of police officers who respond to sexual harassment complaints (Study 2).

Chapter 4: Interviews with Dignity and Respect advisors and Police Officers

Although sexual harassment is widespread, people rarely come forward to report it (TUC, 2016). To try and explain this, a large body of research has focused on identifying the perceived barriers that hinder people from reporting such incidents formally. This literature suggests a range of relevant reasons, including personal, environmental, and social barriers. For example, Kelly, Lovett, and Regan (2005) conducted interviews and surveys with women who had accessed Sexual Assault Referral Centres (SARC) and identified multiple reasons that hindered women from reporting their victimisation to the police, such as concerns about not being believed, not wanting others to know about the incident, and lacking faith in the police.

In addition, through surveys with women who had accessed sexual assault clinics and emergency departments in Michigan, Jones, Alexander, Wynn, Rossman, and Dunnuck (2009) found that the three most commonly given reasons that prevented their participants from reporting to the police were: having a prior relationship with the perpetrator, not wanting the perpetrator to go to jail, and feeling that the police would blame them, or be insensitive towards them. On this basis, Jones and colleagues argued that, among their participants, environmental factors were the most important deterrent to coming forward; and that, contrary to what might be expected, internal psychological barriers, such as shame, anxiety, and fear, were not significantly associated with decisions to report to the police. Yet, other studies do provide evidence that the latter is important for understanding the decision not to come forward. For instance, Tomlinson (2000) interviewed women who had accessed a sexual assault support centre and found that one of the reasons they did not report their experiences to the police was that they felt ashamed of being sexually assaulted. On this basis, the most defensible conclusion to be drawn from previous research is that it is mixed. At best, the literature suggests that there are multiple relevant barriers that might hinder a person from coming forward

to police following an incident of sexual harassment or assault.

Further contributing to this complex picture, we propose that following experiences of sexual harassment, individuals might experience a variety of psychological needs; and depending on which specific needs are activated, this might lead them towards a variety of different avenues for taking action, action that might not involve formally reporting their experiences. Said differently, given the psychological needs that might be threatened by the experience of harassment or assault, formal complaint procedures might not be the only – or the most effective – means for addressing those needs. To fully appreciate this point, it is important to elaborate on what basic psychological needs individuals have, how these might be compromised by the experience of sexual harassment, and how compromised needs are resolved.

What do Victims of Sexual Harassment Need?

Research has shown that there are a number of psychological needs which are essential for achieving psychological health and wellbeing, namely the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Coming forward with a sexual harassment complaint would be unlikely to meet these needs; on the contrary, engaging with formal procedures is likely to lead to further loss of autonomy and diminished feelings of relatedness, as complainants do not have the opportunity to make many decisions about the process after they make a formal report, and often report feeling mistreated and let down by the police (Kelly et al. 2005; Bates, 2014). Therefore, in an attempt to meet the needs for autonomy and relatedness, it may be expected that survivors of sexual harassment will choose to take other actions, such as to speak to their friends and family, and decide against making a formal report.

Different Expectations Between Victims and Service Providers

In addition to victims having multiple needs – needs that might not be best

served by formal action alone – it is also possible that differences in perspective between victims and those who might help them could exacerbate any unwillingness to come forward, or alternatively lead those who do come forward to subsequently withdraw from help. Ambiguity over what, exactly, constitutes sexual harassment and therefore warrants action might act as a barrier to coming forward (Engel, 2017). To the extent that individuals struggle with this as individuals, ambiguity over definitions, and the appropriateness of action, is likely to amplify when service providers hold different definitions to those who might seek their support or intervention. For example, it is possible that individuals define sexual harassment in the context of their subjective experiences and emotions – something becomes sexual harassment (versus positive attention) when it doesn't feel right to the individual and makes them upset, scared, or otherwise threatened. Service providers, on the other hand, might work to more rigid policy- or law-based definitions – definitions that might prioritise specific behaviours over subjective experiences and emotions. If service users and service providers have different things in mind when they refer to sexual harassment, this is likely to affect the processes that follow when they come in contact – that is whether the claim is taken forward, what type of support is offered, and whether the different parties involved feel that their interaction is validating and beneficial.

In addition to differences in working definitions, service providers and the people they serve might also have different criteria in mind for what constitutes a successful resolution of a sexual harassment complaint. In part, divergences here might also stem from which needs are active for the individual, and whether or not the support they are provided meets those needs. For example, when complainants feel the need for safety and relatedness with others following an experience of harassment, they may seek reassurance and the opportunity to share the way they feel in a safe, confidential environment. Based on how they understand their role, however, service providers (such as the police or human resources) might instead focus on practical solutions and

justice rather than on the complainants' socio-emotional needs. It is thus possible that there are discrepancies in the aims of this interaction, with service users seeking reassurance and emotional support, and service providers striving for practical solutions. Again, discrepancies of this kind are likely to shape the experiences, persistence, and ultimate satisfaction of individuals who do come forward to make complaints about sexual harassment: where needs are not being met by a service provider, the individual might disengage and seek out alternative sources of support (such as friends or family) that are better suited to meeting the needs that they have.

Aims of the Current Research

We explored these issues in two qualitative studies (Study 1 and Study 2), conducted across two different contexts, namely an informal workplace-based support service, and the police. We examined these two contexts because they are two of the main options available to people who want to discuss or report sexual harassment – at least if they wish to take some kind of action in response to this. Sexual harassment is often embedded in the workplace, and therefore often handled by workplace-based services, although these often have little formal power. Both for incidents that occur in the workplace, and those that occur outside, the police are (or at least are considered to be) the appropriate institution for those who want to take formal action in response to their experience. Thus, these two institutions play an important role in responding to claims of sexual harassment, and supporting alleged victims, but their roles and remits also differ in important ways. In Studies 1 and 2 we therefore focussed on the factors that might create barriers for victims as they come forward by exploring how service providers understand their role and the needs of the people with whom they are engaged. The purpose of these studies was purely descriptive; our aim was to map the context people navigate when they come forward to report or discuss sexual harassment. Specifically, we focused on service providers' perceptions about sexual

harassment, their views on service users' needs, their thoughts about the barriers that might hinder people from coming forward and the factors that might facilitate them in doing so, and the decisions and actions that take place at each stage. These examinations were based on the explicit meanings of service providers' accounts and were used to contextualise the experiences of the group of people who were the main focus on this thesis, namely victims of sexual harassment; we explore their perspective in the next chapter.

Examining these two services, which differ in their degree of formality, also allowed us to consider the different ways in which the two providers interpret information provided by victims. Past research has shown that different perspectives are often associated with different interpretations of the same information. For example, Mulder and Winiel (1996) found that when observing a rape victim, the perspective of the observer had a significant effect on their perception of the credibility of the victim and their interpretation of the victim's non-verbal behaviours. Specifically, participants who adopted a victim focus (e.g., as social workers) perceived victims as more credible, and the consequences of the rape to be more serious compared to participants who adopted a truth detection focus (e.g., as police officers). Furthermore, they found that participants with a victim focus interpreted victims' tension as a sign that they were finding it difficult to talk about rape; whereas, participants with a focus on truth detection interpreted the perceived tension as a sign that the victim was concealing the truth. Therefore, it could be expected that service providers that focus on emotional recovery would interpret behaviours differently from service provider that focus on investigation and truth detection – and that police might be especially prone to adopt the latter perspective over the former. Conducting the interviews in these two contexts allowed us to explore further whether and how these services adopt different perspectives, and what this might mean for how needs are perceived and met (or not) as they engage with service users. This gave us the opportunity to provide a descriptive

account of service providers' views and approaches, and contextualise the experiences of sexual harassment victims who come forward to seek support or make a complaint.

Study 1: Interviews with Dignity and Respect advisors

Study 1, presented in this chapter, aimed to examine the first perspective, i.e. the perspective of an informal support service. To this end we interviewed professionals who provide emotional support to staff and students at a large British University. Conducting qualitative interviews allowed for an in-depth understanding of the subjective perspective of the service providers, their definition of sexual harassment, their views on service users' needs, their aims when they come forward to make a formal report, the barriers they may face that deter them from reporting, and the nature of a successful outcome. Participants' accounts were taken at face value and helped set the context for understanding the experiences of victims of sexual harassment who come forward and engage with these services.

Method

Participants and recruitment. The participants consisted of Dignity and Respect advisors, who were chosen as they are the first port of call for people who have experienced sexual harassment on the University campus or in the conduct of University business (either as staff or a student). Dignity and Respect advisors provide a 'confidential and informal service for anyone involved in cases of harassment or bullying' and they belong to two different categories. First, there are advisors who are staff members from across the University and have volunteered to undertake this role, in addition to their day-to-day duties. These advisors are from academic, professional, and campus services and support both staff and students. The second category are the Student Advisors, who work for the Students' Guild Advice Unit. Student Advisors deal with a range of issues, such as mental health and wellbeing, as well as housing, finances,

etcetera. All Student Advisors are part of the Dignity and Respect network, but they only support students. Supporting other staff members is not within their remit, and if they are contacted by a member of staff, they signpost them to the advisors that belong to the first category. It is worth noting that Student advisors work for the Students' Guild, not the University. Furthermore, they do not volunteer to be Dignity and Respect advisors; this is part of their role as Student Advisors.

We decided to conduct interviews face-to-face due to the sensitivity of the issues discussed. For this reason we focused only on Dignity and Respect advisors situated on the campus of the University. This corresponds to 17 Dignity and Respect advisors in total at the time the research was conducted, of which one was excluded due to personal acquaintance with the researcher. Therefore, invitations were issued to all 16 eligible Dignity and Respect advisors, five of which responded positively and were interviewed.

The invitation email that was sent to the advisors contained a brief description of the project and the main aims of the interviews. Attached was an informed consent form to be signed before the interviews, which outlined the study aims, explained the rights of the research participants, and included the contact details of the researchers and the Psychology Ethics Committee. Dignity and Respect advisors were contacted with the permission and support of the Equality, Diversity, Inclusivity and Wellbeing Manager, who informed the advisors that this project is taking place and that they might be invited to take part.

Of the five Dignity and Respect advisors who responded to the invitation, two were Student Advisors who work for the Students' Guild and only support students, and three were University staff, from academic and campus services. All participants were white British; two of them were male and three were female. Two participants were between the ages of 35 and 50, and three were between 50 and 65.

Procedure. The interviews took place during February and March 2016. All interviews were conducted on the University campus. This location was chosen as it is

close to the offices of all the participants, and it has centrally bookable rooms, thus offering a neutral and confidential space for the interviews, whilst also being conveniently situated.

A semi-structured interview protocol was used to guide the discussions. The interviews focused on five broad domains. Participants were first asked about the procedure that takes place after someone comes forward as a target of sexual harassment. In this part of the interview they were asked questions such as ‘Can you talk me through the step by step process that takes place after someone discloses to a dignity and respect advisor that they have experienced sexual harassment?’ Next participants were asked about their own role, with questions such as ‘What do you think is the most important way in which you serve people?’ The interview then focused on understanding service users’ needs (for example ‘What do you think are the most important needs of people who have experienced sexual harassment?’) and their thoughts around the event and complainant characteristics (e.g. ‘Are there particular things you look for when someone reports an incident to you, in order to decide whether sexual harassment has taken place?’). Finally, participants were asked about possible reasons why people don’t come forward to report sexual harassment, and the triggers for doing so (e.g. ‘What do you think are the reasons for people not coming forward?’). At the end of the interview participants were invited to discuss any thoughts or comments that they wished to add, or highlight any issues that had not already been covered.

During the interviews with Students Advisors we referred to students, and when talking to the other Dignity and Respect advisors we referred to people in general. Furthermore, some questions were omitted from some interviews, because they had been answered organically through the participants’ responses to other questions. Sometimes questions were reordered during the interview, as a response to what the participants were saying and in order to ensure a logical flow of the discussion.

The interviews lasted on average 35 minutes, with the shortest interview lasting

26 and the longest 47 minutes. The interviews were audio recorded and transcribed clean verbatim; thus nonverbal utterances such as ‘uhm’, and filler words such as ‘like’ were not included in the transcript. The interviews were transcribed by an independent transcriber, who was blind to the study aims.¹ Participants were offered a high street voucher of £5 as a token of appreciation for their participation in this research. All interviews were conducted by the PhD student, who is a female, bilingual native speaker with dual nationality (Greek and British), in her late twenties.

Data analysis. The aim of this study was to better understand the landscape women encounter when they come forward after sexual harassment. In particular, we wanted to understand how Dignity and Respect advisors approach their role, and how they perceive people’s needs and responses to sexual harassment, and how these might be met. Thematic analysis was deemed suitable for addressing these questions, which were primarily procedural and practical in nature. Thematic analysis was also chosen because it is suitable for identifying patterns of meaning, or themes, across a dataset. Our epistemological stance was underpinned by critical realism, which recognises ‘the existence of reality, both physical and environmental, as a legitimate field of inquiry, but at the same time recognizes that its representations are characterized and mediated by culture, language, and political interests rooted in factors such as race, gender, or social class’ (Ussher, 1999, p. 45). In this approach language is seen as constructing social reality (Braun & Clarke, 2006); therefore we took our participants’ accounts at face value and interpreted them as an accurate representation of their views, thoughts, beliefs, and experiences, without disregarding the socio-political context in which they exist.

¹ The researcher transcribed the first interview, to get an understanding and a feeling of the process. However the decision was made that it was more appropriate to recruit an external transcriber, blind to the study goals, for the rest of the interviews.

Furthermore, we took a semantic approach, whereby the themes were identified within the explicit meanings of participants' accounts, which were taken at face value. We employed a primarily descriptive type of thematic analysis, which focused on participants' experiences and narratives. We aimed to provide a rich description of the entire dataset, rather than focus on the detailed account of one particular theme or group of themes (Braun & Clarke, 2006). Finally, we utilised a combination of a top down and bottom up approach, in which some themes emerged organically from the data, while others were driven by our theoretical framework. All data were analysed on NVivo 11, following the six phase procedure outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006), namely familiarisation with the data, initial coding, searching for themes, reviewing the themes, defining and naming the themes, and finally writing the report.

Ethical considerations. Participation in this research was completely voluntary and participants were offered the option to withdraw from the interview at any time without any consequences. They were also free to omit any questions they did not wish to answer. Participants were not offered any remuneration before taking part in the interview, but were offered a high street voucher of £5 right at the very end of the interview, as mentioned above. Anonymity was ensured through direct contact between the researcher and the participants (i.e. information about participation was not shared with their manager), conducting the interviews in centrally bookable rooms on the University campus which were in a different area from the offices of all the participants, and removing the names and details of all the participants from the interview transcripts.

An informed consent form was read and signed before the interviews started, which provided some background information about the PhD project, explained the aims of the interview and outlined their rights as research participants. The study was conducted in agreement with British Psychological Society ethical guidelines, and the

interview protocol received ethical approval from the ethics committee of the psychology department at the University of Exeter.

Results

Theme 1: Perceptions of Sexual Harassment. The first theme encapsulates the way Dignity and Respect advisors discuss the definition of sexual harassment, and what they perceive to be different forms of sexual harassment, as well as how they perceive the views of people who come forward about what constitutes sexual harassment.

Dignity and Respect advisors generally avoided defining sexual harassment, stating that their role was not to provide a legal resolution, but instead to support people if they feel like they have been harassed, and to provide emotional support in a safe and neutral space. For example:

I suppose for us it's about assessing how it's making somebody feel. So if it's making somebody feel some way and that potentially is having an impact on that person, then whatever it is, whatever terminology of harassment it falls under at that stage then that's whether that person is having some sort of support that's appropriate and for somebody seeking the support that's appropriate. (DRA5)

Despite this overall resistance to concretely defining harassment, definitions were nonetheless given. Where these were presented, they remained broad, encompassed physical and nonphysical behaviours, and were based on people's experiences of discomfort and differentiated from a strictly legal definition.

As a broad definition, I would think sexual harassment would make the person feel uncomfortable, uneasy and taking away some of their personal power, so it would be something like that. But that could be anything from inappropriate rubbing of shoulders to winking and leering and looking people up and down and

stuff like that. So yeah. But in essence it would be anything that would make someone feel really uneasy and sort of sexually threatened. (DRA4)

In general Dignity and Respect advisors agreed that regardless of the exact terminology, if a particular behaviour was having a negative effect on someone, then the focus should be on making sure that this person was receiving support. In other words, when it came to the provision of support, definitions were not seen to be entirely relevant – and what was relevant was the way people felt.

Definition and the criminal justice system. Defining sexual harassment did, however, become relevant when engaging with the criminal justice system. Dignity and Respect advisors acknowledged that some experiences did not fit into the legal definition of what constitutes a crime – and that this could make engaging with formal procedures very difficult. If a behaviour did not fit the legal definition of any crime, it could not be taken forward by the criminal justice system:

Yeah and then obviously it would then be a case of whether the police and prosecuting services can actually fit it into the legal definition. Unfortunately I think a lot of the times they can't, especially with some of the more ambiguous social media stuff. [...] I think again it has to be fairly sort of explicit and cut-and-dried that's what it is. Some of the sort of stuff that we perhaps see would be much more difficult. Particularly if someone has got a false identity and they can't find the person behind it, that will make it a lot more difficult for them.

(DRA3)

Issues that are relevant to the definition of sexual harassment. Dignity and Respect advisors discussed a number of issues that were relevant to definitions of sexual harassment, which revolved around people's ability to identify and define sexual

harassment, including understanding consent, societal norms, and the role of awareness campaigns in (re-)defining for people the range of behaviours that constitute sexual harassment. Each of these specific issues is elaborated below.

The definition of consent. Ambiguity around, and a lack of understanding of, what constitutes consent can hinder people from labelling something as sexual harassment. People are not always certain about what consent is and how consent is given (e.g., at what point does flirting become “mutual”, and therefore consensual), and because of this people might not recognise sexual harassment as occurring, because they have not identified the absence of consent in that interaction. This can lead to people perceiving sexually harassing behaviours as normal or acceptable. The following extract highlights this possibility:

[...] no one is really clear, I think in the student population, maybe more men than women [know] about what consent is and that consent is not just a case of if someone says 'no' and tries to struggle then it's no, and if not, then it's okay.
(DRA2)

Norms and perceptions of sexual harassment. In a similar way to issues of consent, perceptions about what constitutes sexual harassment depend on what people view as a “normal” part of an interaction or a relationship. Thus, references to social norms were part of the discussion about what does or does not define sexual harassment. As one advisor argued, people put up with certain behaviours because they are seen to be “the norm” – and it is only when that norm changes or is challenged that they are able to see these behaviours as unacceptable.

[...] sometimes you might accept something as being almost the norm, which is very, very sad but I think it sometimes does happen. And it's when that norm

changes that they think 'Actually that's not right' or they then do start talking to other people and people say 'No that isn't right, that's not part of a normal relationship' or whatever it might be. (DRA3)

#NeverOK and how campaigns can help define sexual harassment. Although sexual harassment, and associated notions of consent, can be seen as fuzzy, it is not impossible to affect the way people perceive sexual harassment. Campaigns about what constitutes a crime can help people to re-evaluate their views, and the provision of information about support can increase visibility of the available services. This point was recognised by the Dignity and Respect advisors, especially in the wake of what was considered by them to be a successful campaign run in collaboration with the Students' Guild.

Briefly, this sexual harassment awareness campaign was run in 2014², and called #NeverOK. The campaign explained what sexual harassment is, and called viewers to take action when they see it. Interviewees discussed how the campaign managed to raise awareness of the available services, to highlight the multiplicity of events that constitute sexual harassment, and thus to help students identify sexual harassment more easily and encourage its targets to come forward.

I think last year we did see a spike in the sexual harassment issues. Because obviously the Guild was also running its #NeverOK campaign and I think that obviously brought a lot more people into contact with us. We've noticed a decline this year, although we're aware from students, rumours, gossip etcetera, that there could be a lot of things happening. The students aren't coming to us in the way they did last year. So it's a question about how to make sure they're aware of the fact that we actually exist and what we do. (DRA3)

² The #NeverOK campaign was relaunched in 2016 by the new Sabbatical officers and was ongoing at the time of writing.

DRA3 also argued that the #NeverOK campaign was useful particularly because it defined sexual harassment as a crime that encompasses a wide range of behaviours, which helped its audience recognise that their experiences could be considered sexual harassment, and make the decision to come forward.

It appears, then, that targeted campaigns can sometimes help change the way people perceive sexual harassment and how they respond to it, and that these can be useful tools through which to provide people with information on available support. It is noteworthy that there is again some ambivalence around the importance of defining sexual harassment. Even though the exact definition is not relevant to the Dignity and Respect advisors' role, defining sexual harassment is relevant for targets as it can help them identify that their experiences qualify as sexual harassment. Therefore definitions are not important when addressing people's feelings, but they are very important when they are deciding whether or not to seek help in the first place.

Theme 2: Barriers and triggers. A second theme encapsulated the plethora of reasons that prevent people from coming forward. Perceived reasons for which people might hesitate to come forward after experiencing sexual harassment included practical issues, such as not knowing where to go, social reasons, such as the fear of being seen as a troublemaker, structural reasons, such as the fact that service providers are seen as part of the system, as well as personal reasons, such as the difficulty of discussing a traumatic event. Throughout the interviews it was expressed that the fear of potential consequences could be so strong that people preferred not to engage with the formal procedures at all:

So yes, there are formal channels they can follow, there is also informal support they can follow but quite often people almost don't want to do anything because they're just worried about the repercussions (DRA3)

Despite all these barriers, doubts and difficulties, people do still sometimes come forward and engage with formal procedures of reporting sexual harassment. The reasons that bring people forward according to the interviewees are also presented in this theme.

Barriers.

Perceptions of sexual harassment. Perceptions of what sexual harassment is was already discussed extensively under Theme 1. But, as well as being problematic in themselves, definitions were also discussed in the interviews as being a barrier to coming forward. The advisors discussed that defining and recognising sexual harassment is one of the hardest steps in the process of engaging with formal procedures or asking for support. As noted in the previous section, people often fail to recognise sexual harassment, are unclear about what consent is, and are also unclear about where to draw the line between an acceptable interaction and a sexually harassing one. Furthermore, sexual harassment is seen as the 'last taboo'. One advisor argued that it is easier for people to come forward to discuss problems of a different nature, such as bullying; however sexual harassment is still very hard to disclose.

Anticipated costs. After people overcome the barrier of recognising sexual harassment, they might also anticipate some costs as a result of reporting it. For example, people may fear that they will be blamed by others for what happened to them, and they might be seen as a troublemaker. It is also possible that even if they were believed and the case was taken forward, the outcome of this process might nonetheless still be unsatisfactory.

People are very afraid to report sexual assaults to the police because they feel they're going to be made to be guilty in some way themselves as part of the process and ultimately the penalties that might be applied don't really resolve the issue for them in any way. (DRA3)

In addition to these concerns, there are also potential emotional costs of engaging with the criminal justice system. Disclosing events that took place can be embarrassing, and might trigger feelings that the victims want to put behind them, causing them to relive some of the trauma of those events.

Things like the upset first of all, they don't necessarily want to go over it, trigger their feelings of it before so obviously that is a reason. Just the embarrassment of having to come in and tell a total stranger and go into detail. A lot of the times as well you need to hear the detail to know what the situation is so they'd have to do that to someone and it's reliving it and having to talk. (DRA2)

Another difficulty with coming forward is the fact that the alleged perpetrator will be notified of the report that has been made against them. This is a necessary part of the investigation, but the possibility of direct confrontation with the perpetrator can be very threatening for victims. Furthermore, the position of the perpetrator was discussed extensively by the advisors, who argued that when the perpetrator is more senior than the victim there is the additional fear that the University will take the perpetrator's side and protect them. People also fear that reporting a senior member of staff for sexual harassment might have a negative impact on their future and their career plans.

[Reporting a senior member of staff] I think for them it's that concern that by raising it, who they're going to believe and who is going to be believed and who is going to have the greater credibility. I think there's a concern that it may jeopardise whatever they're trying to do and jeopardise the relationship and what they're trying to achieve, it may have a detrimental effect on their role and whatever it is they're doing. (DRA5)

Self-blame. People may hesitate to come forward because they blame themselves for their experiences. This reflects wider societal views and myths around sexual violence, where the victim gets blamed and is seen as responsible for the behaviours and incidents they dealt with. As one DRA expressed:

It's difficult isn't it [coming forward]? I think it's down to the individual. I mean I think unfortunately some individuals feel that they somehow brought it upon themselves and therefore people will say 'Well you put yourself in that position' or 'You must have done something to encourage that behaviour' so it's almost sort of like they feel they're going to be blamed for the situation. (DRA3)

Publicity and perceptions of services. Another issue that was discussed by the advisors was the fact that people are unaware of the available services that are in place to support them if they feel that they've been sexually harassed. The advisors found that there is not enough transparency about the procedures that take place after somebody reports sexual harassment to the University. They discussed that if people had a better understanding of what typically happens when someone comes forward, they would be more willing to engage with the procedures.

Further to the lack of clarity around current processes, the advisors talked about the fact that the university promotes a message of zero tolerance toward sexual harassment. However, this is not supplemented by additional messages about what actions the university takes to combat sexual harassment, and what would happen after someone disclosed to the university that they have been sexually harassed. The advisors argued that the university needs to be clearer about what it does, and what its stance is towards sexual harassment, not just promote the message that it is “against” sexual harassment. DRA5 commented: ‘Not just saying that zero tolerance yeah great, but what does that mean to me when I'm going through it?’ This stance was felt to lead to

misconceptions. According to one advisor (DRA5), people ‘do not understand how the university is there to support them’. In line with this, advisors felt that the University processes were not seen to be victim supportive – something that, again, was considered a misconception, and one that the university could do more work to address.

The advisors also argued that these misconceptions were negatively influenced by the media. Even though coming forward was acknowledged to indeed be difficult, the media’s portrayal of the worst-case scenario was seen to contribute to fears and hesitation among people considering coming forward. In contrast to this, advisors felt that all parties involved in this process were trying their best to make it as supportive as possible.

But as I say I think a lot of it is the perception people have of the processes is that that the processes are not victim supportive. What you hear is that the victim is made to feel worse by the process than they should be. I'm not saying it's anybody's fault at all other than perhaps media, because I think all of the associations that are involved are trying their best to make it a supportive process as possible, but I think just media perception and the stories you hear and everything else. (DRA3)

Finally, a number of barriers were acknowledged to be specific to the way the dignity and respect network is perceived. For example, advisors talked about the ambiguity of the network’s name and the fact that it was not always clear to people what the network does. Additionally, as a university network, students might think that it is not there to support them with personal issues. Similarly, staff might question how supportive a network that is part of ‘the system’ would be towards them. The #NeverOK campaign that was discussed under the previous theme helped combat this to a certain extent, because it highlighted that this service is available to students and staff, and is

there to support anyone who feels that they have been sexually harassed, as well as anyone who is experiencing an array of other problems, such as bullying.

In addition to the perception of what the processes are like and how the network works, there are also practical difficulties associated with coming forward. Some of the advisors discussed that the way systems work can sometimes be counter-productive, and the system does not always enable staff to do what they want. As such, staff members may be trying to do their best, but might be limited as to what they can do because of the way the system works.

One was a student who was being bullied in halls and she was one of my personal tutees. And at the time I felt like, you know, although I think a lot of people were trying to do their best for this student, there was a sense in which the university's machinery wasn't working well together. And we lost the student unfortunately, she transferred to another institution. (DRA 1)

In addition to that, if someone decides to go forward and engage with the criminal justice system a number of other problem problems might arise. The criminal justice system is set up to deal with specific definitions of crimes and clear-cut situations. However, and as already noted, sexual harassment can be ambiguous and some cases can be very complex. Therefore, the situations that the advisors deal with do not always fit into a specific legal definition. Under those circumstances it is often not possible for the case to be taken forward. Furthermore, there are very low conviction rates associated with sexual violence. Even if somebody decides to engage with the criminal justice system and goes through the formal procedures, the outcome may still not be satisfactory for them. One advisor commented: 'Having done this job you see how impossible it is for victims to get any kind of justice. (DRA2)

Timing. The timing of coming forward was not always identified as a barrier in

itself, but instead reflected a number of different barriers. If someone was feeling uncertain about whether their experiences fit the definition of sexual harassment, or if they are blaming themselves for what happened, they might take more time to act on their experiences, thus delaying their contact with service providers.

The advisors were reluctant to provide general estimations of the amount of time people waited before coming forward. However there does appear to be a delay between an event taking place, and people coming forward to disclose what happened. This delay may be the result of personal reasons; for example some people take time to reflect on what happened, because the situation is not straightforward and they experience self-doubt. Others come forward immediately because they want to solve things before they get any worse. The delay in coming forward was sometimes seen as a reflection of situational characteristics, such as the relationship between the perpetrator and the victim. Specifically, if the perpetrator was senior advisors reflected that there may be a delay in coming forward.

In addition to reflecting barriers, the delay in coming forward can become a barrier or a difficulty in itself. When the delay is substantial it might be harder for the advisors to deal with the situation because they do not get the chance to prevent things from escalating. For this reason, according to the advisors it is generally better if people come forward sooner rather than later.

So again this thing about when people don't want to do it initially but maybe do it further down the line, by the time they do come in, sometimes it's had a much more negative impact upon them and their general wellbeing. (DRA3)

Triggers. Despite all the difficulties and the barriers discussed above, people do still come forward and report sexual harassment. The advisors discussed a number of reasons that may trigger people to do this. For example, people's sense of injustice

might encourage them to disclose their experiences; others come forward simply because they want to offload, and because they have not been able to talk to anybody else about the problems that they have been facing. People may also be encouraged to come forward because they know what support is available for them or because they tried everything else and nothing worked. A common reason why people appear to come forward is that the situation escalated or somehow intensified, for example a perpetrator making a specific threat of harm to the target or to themselves. When discussing the decision to come forward the advisors emphasised the importance of being encouraged and supported by friends and peers: ‘It can be friends. If they come in with someone who is supporting them then that obviously makes it much easier if you've got somewhere there on your side who is encouraging you [...]’ (DRA2)

The advisors also discussed a number of ways to encourage people to come forward. These discussions revolved around the visibility of the available services as well as clarity and transparency around the procedures that take place after somebody comes forward. The advisors argued that positive promotion of the available services with clear messages about the University’s stance towards sexual harassment would help more people come forward. However, there was acknowledgement of the difficulties around promoting services without fear mongering. If there is a large drive to promote services and explain how the university works to combat sexual harassment, people might become suspicious about why this information is being shared.

I suppose it's just general positive promotion of services. I mean at the moment I do think with the Dignity and Respect network, the title isn't very helpful to people. The information is hidden away in the university website. It's not a nice easy thing to find necessarily. It's very formally laid out. And so what you might need is just to have some sort of media messages about some of the people that are involved in it, why they do the job they do, the sort of things they come

across. [...] So it's positive promotion but positive promotion without scaremongering. And I think there's a very difficult balance. If you start positively promoting something people are going 'Why are they doing that? What's going on?' (DRA3)

All-in-all, the advisors discussed a wide array of issues surrounding the reasons why people do not come forward to report sexual harassment, as well as the reasons that may encourage them to engage with service providers and official procedures. The barriers identified by the advisors reflected a number of personal, practical, structural and social issues. Suggestions around helping people to come forward centred on visibility and positive promotion of services. One of the advisors argued that it is difficult to come forward and the conviction rates are so low, that it is important to make sure that other sources of support are available (outside the formal reporting procedures) and that people are informed about them.

Theme 3: Needs. In this theme advisors discussed the variety of needs that people experience, and which might prompt them to come forward and engage with the Dignity and Respect network. A number of needs were talked about, such as the need for safety and unburdening, and a non-judgmental space to offload.

Firstly, people wanted to unburden through sharing their problems with somebody else. Often when they spoke to an advisor, it was the first time that they had talked to anybody about their experiences. In the interviews there were extensive discussions around the importance of talking and the value of offloading and sharing the problem with someone else. Talking could be cathartic and it could help people process things. It could also help people feel that it was not impossible to tackle the situation that they were dealing with. When they had a meeting with a Dignity and Respect advisor they would not be judged or blamed for what happened. This is very valuable because, as discussed above, the fear of being judged is one of the barriers that was seen

to stop people from coming forward.

I mean a lot of it is just about unburdening, you know, that the people who have got to the point where they're ready to talk, then, you know, they've got stuff to get rid of and I think just simply that sort of having that space to articulate some of those issues (DRA1)

The process of talking was seen to be helpful in itself because it could help people make a decision about what to do next, as stated by DRA1: 'if something's troubling them, at least they can share that, and perhaps through the talking it through, that will enable them to make a decision about what to do next'. The importance of unburdening and being listened to in a safe space was reiterated by the advisors and discussed extensively as one of the important benefits of coming forward.

I'd say the most important is, and it's for the Advice Unit as a whole is that it's a confidential space, and a safe space where people can talk with the knowledge that it's not going to go any further and with the knowledge that no one is judging them, we're just there to provide the options. And a lot of times the talking about it itself is enough because they've been carrying it around with them for so long, getting it off their chest and knowing that it's not an impossible situation and that there are things that they can do. So I think just being there is probably the most valuable. (DRA2)

Furthermore, people needed to feel safe. The meetings with the advisors provided people with an immediate safe space in which they could discuss what was happening to them and how they felt. It also provided them with an opportunity to see what other safety measures advisors could help them with. In cases of immediate threat, for example, they could be offered an emergency room or a personal alarm. Therefore, through the meetings they would be able to get an immediate sense of safety, as well as to

have other things put in place for them for longer term solutions.

The advisors also discussed that people met with them because they needed to find out what their options were and to explore each avenue in an environment that was not official. One of the barriers discussed in Theme 2 was that people did not know where to go and what their options were. These meetings with the Dignity and Respect advisors gave people the opportunity to find out what options were available to them and to make their own decisions about what to do next. The advisors explained the options and signposted people further, therefore meeting that need and helping lift that barrier.

The advisors also discussed that it was very important for people to make all their own decisions about what they wanted to do and where they wanted to go next. The advisors did not tell people what to, because that would not be helpful under these circumstances. It is noteworthy that the need for service users to be autonomous and make their own decisions was not talked about in response to the researcher's direct question about needs. However, it pervaded the answers to a number of other discussions all throughout the interviews, suggesting that the advisors implicitly assume that it is an important need.

And equally well that, you know it wouldn't work I think, you know if you're in a situation of vulnerability, having somebody tell you what, you know it's not, it's not helpful so... um, you can see rationally it doesn't make any sense, you've really got to sort of just be there. (DRA1)

Therefore, we see that there are a number of needs that bring people forward to the Dignity and Respect network. Some of these relate to the need to unburden, to feel safe and to not be judged. Others needs are more practical, such as finding out the available options.

Discussion Study 1

Overall, our findings reveal a much more complicated reality than our original expectations, outlined in the introduction to this chapter. We anticipated that service providers might define sexual harassment in a rigid, policy-based way. However, what we found was that service providers do not use one universal definition for sexual harassment; they discuss the existence of multiple definitions, and accept the definition chosen by each service user when they come forward. It is noteworthy that there was some ambivalence around the importance of defining sexual harassment. Even though advisors indicated that the exact definition is not relevant to their role, they felt that defining sexual harassment is relevant for targets as it can help them identify that their experiences qualify as sexual harassment; it is also necessary to define sexual harassment when deciding whether or not to make a formal report.

Furthermore, the advisors discussed a wide array of barriers to coming forward that they believe targets face, as well as reasons that may encourage them to engage with service providers and official procedures. The barriers identified by the advisors reflected personal, practical, structural, and social issues. The advisors talked about the fear of being blamed and perceived as a trouble maker, which is in agreement both with the literature on confronting prejudice (Kaiser & Miller, 2003) and with the report by TUC (2016), which highlighted the fear of social costs as a barrier to coming forward. Specific difficulties around reporting a perpetrator that is a senior member of staff were discussed spontaneously and extensively, which is in line with literature about the higher perceived costs of reporting someone with power (Ashburn-Nardo et al., 2014). Some of the advisors discussed that service users tend to be female, and this could be due to a variety of factors. For example, it could be that men are less frequently targets of sexual harassment, but it could also be because men do not feel comfortable disclosing sexual harassment to a female advisor, or it could be because coming forward

to complain about sexual harassment is, generally, even more threatening for men than it is for women.

Finally, the advisors reflected on a number of needs that bring people forward to the Dignity and Respect network. Some of these relate to the need to unburden, to feel safe and to not be judged. Other needs are more practical, such as finding out the available options. In particular there were extensive discussions pertaining to the need to talk and offload. This ties in with a large body of literature that showcases the benefits of self-expression on both mental and physical health (Esterling, L'Abate, Murray, & Pennebaker, 1999). Even though more generic psychological needs – such as the need for belonging and communion – were not discussed explicitly, the advisors did recognise that being supported and encouraged by friends can be a trigger for coming forward, and that the social costs of reporting can act as a barrier from doing so. It might be possible to infer therefore, that there is an assumption that belonging and acceptance are important needs for targets of sexual harassment. The advisors further argued that it is vital that the service users make their own decisions about their next steps. This is contrary to our expectation that service providers might focus on practical solutions and justice, disregarding service users' psychological needs. Instead the advisors emphasised the multiplicity and importance of psychological needs and argued that they do not push service users into any direction. They provide immediate support around people's psychological needs; if service users wish to seek justice and make a formal report, the advisors support them in that endeavour as well, but that decision is made by the service user.

Study 2: Interviews with Police officers

Our next set of interviews explored the same questions from the perspective of a formal service: police officers from a UK Police force. The interview protocol was very similar to the protocol used for Study 1, allowing us to explore differences and draw

comparisons between the two services. Similarly to Study 1 we chose to conduct interviews because we wanted to get an in-depth understanding of the police officers' perceptions about service users, their needs, and the role of the police in meeting those needs.

Method

Participants and Recruitment. The participants consisted of police officers from a UK police force and British Transport police. They were recruited through a combination of opportunity and snowball sampling. Our contacts at the police force helped advertise the study by sending an email to the heads of relevant departments and asking them to promote it within their department. The study was also advertised on the police force's intranet. Five police officers contacted the researcher directly and volunteered to take part in the study. All five of the police officers were interviewed. Two of the interviewees were male and three were female. All interviewees were white British, between the ages of 35 and 55. Four of them were from a UK police force, working in a range of teams, namely the Criminal Investigation Department, the Domestic Abuse Team and Patrol. The fifth interviewee was from British Transport Police. The time spent in the specific job role the interviewees had during the interview varied from two months to thirteen years. All the interviewees had occupied other roles in varied teams within the police prior to the roles they held at the time of the interviews.

Procedure. The interviews took place between June and September 2016. Four participants were interviewed on a University campus, which is located near the police station, thus providing a convenient location, while also ensuring anonymity of the participants. The fifth participant was interviewed in their workplace, as requested by them for practical reasons.

The interviews were guided by a semi-structured interview protocol, which

focused broadly on seven domains. Participants were first asked about their definition of “sexual offences”. It is important to note that when we discussed advertising this study with our contacts in the police, they advised us against using the term ‘sexual harassment.’ They argued that police officers only define crimes based on their legal definitions. As there is no law or act referring to ‘sexual harassment’ as a crime, this term is not meaningful for police officers and therefore is not used by them. We were advised, instead, to use the terms ‘sexual offences’ and ‘stalking.’ Therefore we updated our interview protocol by replacing ‘sexual harassment’ with ‘sexual offences,’ as recommended. Accordingly, questions in this section included things like ‘What types of behaviour fall under ‘sexual offences’?’

The next section was about the procedure that takes place after someone reports an incident of sexual harassment to them. For this section participants were asked questions such as ‘Can you talk me through the process that takes place after someone reports that they have been the target of a sexual offence?’ The third section explored the police officer’s perception of their role and the ways in which they believe they help people. Then they were asked about the needs they believe people have when they come forward to the police, with questions such as ‘What do you think are the most important needs of people who come forward to you to report a sexual offence?’

The next section focused on participants’ perceptions about event and complainant characteristics, such as delays in coming forward. The sixth section explored participants’ perceptions on the way the public and people who have experienced sexual harassment engage with the police, with questions such as ‘What do you think are the reasons for people not coming forward?’ The final section consisted of some short hypothetical scenarios, followed by a question about how the participants would respond if they were faced with that scenario. We created these scenarios because our contacts in the police suggested that we use them to help guide our discussions with the police officers, and to help us understand how they would respond to different types

of sexual harassment.

Data analysis. The aims and epistemological goals of Study 2 were the same as those of Study 1. The aim of this study was to better understand the landscape women encounter when they report sexual harassment to the police. We wanted to explore Police officers' descriptions of service users' responses and needs, and how those might be met, as well as understand the process they follow after someone comes forward. We chose Thematic Analysis because it is suitable for identifying patterns of meaning, or themes, across a dataset and it would allow us to answer our questions, which were primarily procedural in nature.

Similar to Study 1, our epistemological stance was underpinned by critical realism, according to which language constructs social reality (Braun & Clarke, 2006). We accepted Police Officers' accounts at face value and interpreted them as a valid representation of their views, beliefs, and experiences. We took a semantic approach, whereby themes were identified within the explicit narratives of interviewees' responses. A largely descriptive form of Thematic Analysis was employed and we provided a description of the entire dataset, rather than focusing on one particular theme or set of themes. We utilised a hybrid top-down and bottom-up approach; therefore, some themes emerged organically from the data, while others were guided by our theoretical framework. Finally, all interviews were analysed on NVivo 11, using Thematic Analysis. The six phase approach outlined by Braun and Clarke (2006) was followed, consisting of familiarisation with the data, initial coding, searching for themes, reviewing the themes, defining and naming the themes and writing the results.

Ethical considerations. Participation in the interviews was entirely voluntary and all participants were given the option to skip any questions they did not feel comfortable answering, as well as to withdraw from the interviews at any stage without any consequences. There was no incentive or remuneration offered for taking part in the interviews. Anonymity was achieved through direct contact between the participants and

the researcher, conducting the interviews in private spaces, and removing participants' names from the interview transcripts.

Results

Five themes emerged, covering a broad range of issues, namely 'Police officers' definition of sexual harassment', 'Barriers to coming forward and attrition', 'Factors that trigger and facilitate reporting', 'Targets' needs' and 'The use of time as information'.

Theme 1: Police officers' definition of sexual harassment. As aforementioned, we were advised against using the term 'sexual harassment', as it is not a term that is used by the police. Therefore, we used the term 'sexual offences', which is the legal term that would cover most (but not all) of the behaviours that could be considered sexual harassment. It is important to highlight here that the absence of a law referring to 'sexual harassment' does not mean that the behaviours that constitute sexual harassment are not illegal. Rather, each behaviour that would fit into the social psychological definition of sexual harassment is a breach of a particular act. For example, name calling and wolf whistling could be a breach of the Public Order Act.

Police officers' definition of sexual offences and criming decisions. The police officers, in agreement with our initial contacts, argued that they define sexual offences based on their legal definition as outlined by the Sexual Offences Act 2003. This is a "very big bubble" (PC5), which entails a wide range of behaviours, such as rape, sexual assault and incest.

So what we would class as sexual offence is anything covered by the Sexual Offences Act. Anything really. The top ten sections deal with all the major offences against adults. Sections 1 to 5 will include Rape, and Assault by Penetration, Sexual Assault, [...] and then Section 5 to 10 that deal with the same

offences against children. So anything that really falls into that but we will deal with everything that comes under the Sexual Offences Act. (PC2)

Therefore, police officers classified crimes based on the law, and there are criteria for deciding exactly which law an incident falls under. As a result, it should be clear what does and what does not constitute a sexual offence, and one police officer commented that “for the average person it's going to be fairly obvious that they've been a victim of a sexual offence or rape” (PC2). This implies that there is little space for ambiguity in interpreting and understanding the law, and therefore in determining whether harassment has occurred. However, at the same time as police officers claimed this was quite self-evident, they acknowledged that there is scope for interpretation within the law. For example, they stated that deciding exactly which crime an incident falls under can be complicated, and the police officers have to make that decision based on the available evidence. Moreover, even after those decisions are made, another police officer might review the same case and associated evidence, and argue that it falls under a different crime.

We do have a criming department that you phone and you give the information to and then they have their rules of actually that sits under this crime and that. But that can cause arguments between people because the law is so grey and I could think actually what's happened to you sits here and the person taking my report says 'No it doesn't, it sits here' but then it all changes again when it goes to CPS. So I could crime something as a sexual assault and by the time it gets to CPS it could be something completely different so actually there's nothing fixed because everything within the law is grey. So if I know something has happened and doesn't fit something, I will find something else where it fits, does that make sense? (PC3)

The interviewees discussed that making the decision early on about what crime has been committed is of utmost importance, as this decision affects the procedures that are put in place in response to each crime report. However, they also argued extensively that crime reports are seen as work in progress, and that the criming decision is expected to change at multiple stages during the investigation. These changes might take place because of the available evidence, or any other information that has been revealed during the investigation. The police officers argued that this is common and it does not affect the procedure that takes place after a report is made, because the basic steps are the same even for different crimes.

Yeah I mean the bottom line is, it doesn't actually matter what you crime something as because it can change at lots of different points. So say I get a report and I crime it as harassment within the investigation I find out there's actually been a sexual assault and something else and something else, we just create more. So the police might have, you could do it as whatever you want really, it's a choice. (PC3)

Therefore, despite claims that there is a fairly objective and self-evident legal framework that police officers draw on to classify an incident as a sexual offense, they indicated that the very same incident can undergo multiple criming decisions, that updates of the crime that has been recorded in a report happen frequently, and this is not seen to be disruptive or detrimental for the procedure.

What is, however, important for the procedure is the grading of each crime – that is, the decision about the urgency of a crime, which is characterised as ‘routine’, ‘prompt’, or ‘immediate.’ This grading affects the police’s decisions regarding how fast this must be responded to and how many resources will be dedicated to it. PC3 commented that “The only way it would be important, would be your categorisation of

it. So if I think it's low level but actually it's a serious offence, I need to identify that quickly to get the resources in place.”

In addition to the grading, the procedures can also be affected by the characteristics of the person making the complaint; cases might be handled differently depending on whether the target is a child, a male or female adult, etc.

The main thing on procedures of how we deal with it, is all dependent on the victim. So if the victim is a child we deal with it differently, if the victim is a male, we may use different people. If the victim is a vulnerable person, disabled, whatever it may be, that's what really changes how we deal with things and we will always video interview people who fall within certain categories and that decision needs to be made quite early on. (PC3)

All in all, then, crimes are classified based on the law. However, there are also grey areas in the law and space for interpretation when applying it. Part of the police officers' role is to constantly make decisions about which crime has taken place. Rather than understanding the exact details of the complicated decision-making process that the police officers have to perform, what is important here is to understand that police officers have to make decisions at multiple stages and about different dimensions of a crime, both the category the crime falls under and its urgency. Although we cannot assert with confidence whether or to what extent this affects their interactions with the targets, or how the targets perceive this process, the police officers did discuss the importance of choosing their words carefully when interacting with targets. This was seen to be important for managing their expectations and preventing targets from being disappointed if the alleged crime does not get charged according to their expectations. One police officer commented that they try to use general terms such as “the offence” rather than refer to the alleged crime as “rape,” to prevent the target from being

disappointed if it transpires during the investigation that there is not enough evidence to charge it as a rape (PC4).

Police officers' perceptions of the public's definition and understanding of sexual offences. There were also discussions of police officers' views about the way in which the public perceive and define sexual offences. The police officers mentioned that the current formal education system in the UK teaches students about sexual offences and consent, and that understanding consent in particular is crucial to deciding whether a crime has taken place. In addition, they maintained that work is being done to educate the public in general about consent, and to make sure that information about the relevant laws is not only available, but actively publicised through campaigns and advertisements.

Like teaching in classes in school about consent. That's probably the biggest thing that's changed. Most people know the physical aspect of what rape is but it's this whole issue of consent, that's clearly the argument we have a lot with all the court cases is it comes down to the consent aspect. And for us seeing it written out in law what's clearly consent and what isn't. But there's that move to the public side of it now. It's like educating the public on what is and isn't rape. [...] But I think that information is more widely available, [...] well it's always been publically available but it's actually publicised. (PC2)

Despite the perceived increased public awareness of what constitutes a crime, the interviewees also felt that people often do not recognise that their experiences fall under a crime, and therefore do not come forward to make a report. Similarly to the Dignity and Respect advisors, they mentioned that sexual offences are so widespread in society that people think they are a normal part of social interactions and do not always

identify them as crimes. Of the people who do come forward to the police, participants felt that some are sure that they have been the target of a particular crime, but others identify that something wrong has happened to them, but might be unsure of its definition and whether or not it is a crime. Therefore, the police officers felt that often victims seek confirmation by the police about which crime, if any, their experiences constitute.

Yeah I'd say probably more people will come and say this has happened to them and almost as if they want you to answer the question 'Have I been raped?' or is that not rape? So that does happen where there's almost like confusion with the victims and then it's a case of what we try and do is do an interview with them or at least have a long discussion to talk it through. (PC2)

We do not know whether there are discrepancies between the targets' and the police's definition of sexual harassment, or how this might affect targets if and when they come forward. But it is probably fair to say that the complications around defining and giving meaning to their experiences might put people off reporting an incident to the police.

The police officers emphasised that the final decision about the outcome of an allegation is made in court, by the jury. This means that public perception—and in particular the jury's perception—of what constitutes a crime and consent are a crucial part of whether and how justice is served. It may be true that the training police officers receive informs them that abuse does not necessarily fit the prototype of the 'strange man in a dark alley' rape, and this alerts them to the widespread nature of acquaintance and intimate partner sexual abuse. There might also be nationwide efforts to educate the public about what consent is, and that sexual contact without consent is abuse.

However, police officers interviewed for this study stressed that at the end of a court

case, the decision about whether a crime has taken place and whether consent was present is made by a jury of people who have “no real understanding of the law and let alone the psychology of how victims and suspects work” (PC2). This means that the jury have the final opportunity to define the alleged crimes according to their own perceptions, which are often a reflection of societal views about how consent is given and received, and what people consent to when they choose to interact with others.

And then how it would be portrayed in court so that you've then got the whole stuff of ‘they're drunk’ and unfortunately you do still get the ‘what they're wearing.’ It shouldn't matter and that's what it is. A crime is a crime, the definition of the crime is still the same but the factors that would be presented is the scene, the location, whether there's drunkenness, the drugs, do they know each other? And so what their previous relationships have been like. Whether they are in a relationship and all those sort of things so the background of the person, the victim as well as the offender is taken into consideration. [...] And maybe the bumping and grinding that goes on in a nightclub, so by definition of the law that could be deemed sexual and an assault because you're touching the person but is it acceptable? [...] we would report it because the person believes they've been assaulted, would it get charged? Probably not because of those inferences and that. (PC4)

Police officers' definition of sexual harassment. As aforementioned, we were advised against using the term ‘sexual harassment’ in our interactions with the police. However, this is the term we use in psychology and a term that permeates this project. Therefore, after asking police officers about their definition of sexual offences, the researcher explained that in psychology we use the term ‘sexual harassment’ to cover a wide range of behaviours, and asked what this term means to them. The interviewees

argued that the term sexual harassment is meaningful to them; however, it means something different from what it does in psychology.

In more detail, the police officers argued that they usually encounter sexual harassment in cases of domestic violence, where there is harassment by the one (ex) partner towards the other, and some of that harassment might be sexual. One interviewee explained that “usually when they've broken up, one partner obviously can't accept it so they continue and it's usually just straightforward harassment but some of it might be kind of sexual as well” (PC1). It is important to note here that for something to constitute harassment legally (and therefore in the eyes of the police), it has to constitute a course of conduct; in other words, it has to have taken place more than twice. It is easy to understand how this is relevant to the context of domestic violence, where there is the potential for repeated contact. This also means that many one-off behaviours, such as most incidents of street harassment, which are considered sexual harassment in psychology and by the public (as expressed on platforms such as Everyday Sexism) do not constitute “harassment” in the eyes of the law and the police. Nonetheless, and as mentioned above, these behaviours might involve breaches of different Acts, and therefore be seen by police to be “sexual offences”.

The interviewees also discussed that sexual harassment is relevant in the context of the workplace. Again, ‘workplace sexual harassment’ does not constitute a discrete offence, but sexually harassing behaviour in the workplace can fall under a number of different offences. PC3 explained that “[I]t's not a crime if you like, sexual harassment in the workplace. It will either be a sexual assault, harassment, whatever it may be.” Some forms of what is perceived to be sexual harassment in psychology do come under the police’s remit, namely the higher end violence, such as sexual assaults, or cases of persistent harassment. Other forms of lower end sexual harassment, such as sexist jokes or naked posters, might not be within the police remit and sometimes do not necessarily even constitute a crime; those cases are to be dealt with internally by each company.

Yeah it depends on which way you're looking at it. Because sexual harassment does mean something to us as well. We have sexual harassment in the workplace and things like that so we have course of conduct and our conduct policies in relation to the way officers and staff behave. [...] But if you're looking at it from the point of view of criminal offences and crimes that people commit in relation to sexual crimes, then it is sexual offences, that's what we would call it. Just simply so that we can associate what is someone who is bullying someone in the workplace compared with an actual crime that you could potentially serve some time for if you see what I mean. (PC5)

In sum, police officers define “sexual offences” and “sexual harassment” based on the law. This approach is, perhaps, more clear cut than defining these events based on the way their targets feel, in the way that informal support services might do. However, as outlined above, there is still scope for interpretation of the law, which is characterised as complicated and at times ambiguous. Police officers have to continuously make decisions about the exact offence they are dealing with. Making these decisions accurately is important, but the designation of offences is also expected to change, and these changes are not seen as detrimental for the procedure. The police officers assert that people often do not recognise sexual offences, but the formal education system and relevant campaigns are helping educate the public about what constitutes consent and how sexual offences can be committed. However, the final definition of an alleged crime, and the decision about whether it indeed constitutes a crime is made by a jury, who are not experts in the law or psychology, and are therefore influenced by societal attitudes towards consent and abuse. Finally, the officers provided their definition of the term sexual harassment, which centred mainly on cases of domestic violence or workplace harassment, which are contexts where repeated

interactions with the same individuals are most likely to occur and therefore where harassing incidents more easily qualify as repeated.

Theme 2: Barriers to coming forward and attrition.

Barriers to coming forward. Officers referred to the commonly reported fact that most people do not report their experiences of sexual harassment to the police. One police officer commented that they do not know how many sexual offences go unreported, but suspected that it is a “large proportion” of committed crimes (PC5). The police officers discussed a wide range of reasons that might hinder people from coming forward to report a crime formally. There were extensive discussions around the fact that people often do not recognise that something that could be considered criminal constitutes a crime, because sexual harassment is widespread and accepted in society; thus people think it is a normal part of social interactions and intimate relationships. PC1 commented “I don't think that it's not happening, I just don't think that people will report it, they don't realise that it's a [criminal] offence.”

Perceived difficulties with coming forward do not stop at the recognition stage. The interviewees argued that being the target of sexual harassment can leave people feeling guilty and embarrassed, and they might blame themselves for what happened. This may further prevent them from disclosing the incident to the police. In addition, the officers felt that people might want to put things behind them and move on, rather than embark on the process of making a formal report.

Some I think we go back to the guilt thing and they think was it because of what I was doing? Or where I've been? Who I was with? Was it because of the circumstances when they sat next to me and I talked to them? Was it my fault because I led them on? Did I say something that gave them the wrong impression? There's lots of reasons why [people don't come forward], people

sometimes they're embarrassed, they're ashamed, they're angry with themselves.

They're traumatised by it. (PC5)

Even after people realise that their experiences constitute a crime, and consider coming forward despite any feelings of shame or guilt, they might still hesitate to do so for a wide range of reasons. According to the interviewees, people are not always aware that they can report their experiences to the police, and are afraid that they might be wasting police time by coming forward. The police officers also argued that people are often afraid that they will not be believed by the police, and that they generally hold negative perceptions about the way in which the police handle cases of sexual harassment. People might also question the benefits of coming forward, because they perceive the likelihood of someone being found and brought to justice as low, especially when measured against the costs of doing so.

I think there's still that perception that the police don't take it as seriously, they don't understand what I'm going through and to them it's a clinical process and I don't want to be dealing with this. [...] So the people that don't report it, it's either because of their own personal choice or because of the fact that they don't believe that the police can do anything about it. And it may be because they think they'll never find them so 'what's the point, they'll never, I don't blame them they probably tried very hard but they won't get this person' [...]. Or they believe that we don't believe them, or we won't push to it, or the procedure doesn't support them, or even if they go to court, what are they going to get? (PC5)

As highlighted in the above extracts, the police officers describe a wide range of

reasons why people may delay coming forward or decide against doing so altogether. Some of these reasons are personal, such as trauma and feelings of shame, and others might stem from widespread views about the effectiveness and the way in which the police deal with sexual harassment. According to the interviewees there is a general perception that the police do not deal with sexual harassment well and that coming forward will not result in a positive outcome. These views might change, temporarily or long term, as a result of the media coverage of some cases of sexual violence.

Attrition and facilitators for staying in the system. The police officers also discussed that sometimes people engage with the formal procedures but then decide to withdraw from the process and end their interactions with the police. According to the police officers there are a number of reasons that might lead people to withdraw from the process. Some people report incidents to the police exclusively for intelligence purposes and have no intention to remain in the process beyond the sharing of that information. Other people might withdraw from the process because they have dealt with the issue otherwise, for example via their employer in the case of workplace sexual harassment.

There were extensive discussions around attrition in cases of sexual harassment that takes place in the context of domestic violence. In such cases people can often experience pressure from their families and friends to cease their involvement with the police and resolve the situation in other ways. There is also a lot of potential for contact with the perpetrator themselves, which is not as likely to be the case when the perpetrator is a stranger; this means that the perpetrator can put pressure on the target to withdraw from the process, and in some cases the target and the perpetrator might get back together again. Finally, the interviewees talked about the process being long and hard, and the fact that people are not always feeling strong enough to deal with it. Instead they may choose to try and put things behind them or deal with their feelings in other ways, such as through seeking medical help or other forms of support.

Yeah. It's a very long process, it's a very hard process, especially for those who have been through a traumatic incident. [...] We do get people that it's too hard. And emotionally it's too hard. [...] And you do, it goes through you have cycles of a victim saying 'I can't do this anymore' and then signposting back to the GP, medication, whatever it may be. You may be able to get them back in. It may go to a cycle of 'I've just had enough, I can't stand the police, I think you're useless' and then they withdraw. (PC3)

Despite all these factors that might lead people to drop out, people sometimes do stay within the system until the end. This can be dependent on the type of case, with attrition in domestic violence cases being more common, as mentioned above. Police officers discussed that there are key things to keeping people on board, namely setting up a support system around them and being open and honest from the beginning of the process about the length and potential difficulties they might face during their engagement with the criminal justice system.

What we do is attach a SOLO to it, a Sexual Offence Liaison Officer but what we also have now is what's called SARC [Sexual assault referral centre], [...] and they do the safeguarding and what we try to do as a team, so you have your investigating team, you have your SOLO, you have the SARC, we try to keep it all together. And that's the key to keeping people on board, keeping them informed and making sure there's safeguarding is in place. [...] And it does come down to that group of people you've put around that victim to keep them on board. (PC3)

In addition to setting up the appropriate support and being open and honest about the procedure, the police highlighted that the target's perception that the police believe

them is vital for making sure they do not drop out of the process. One police officer commented that the recognition that they are being believed by the police is the main thing that helps keep people engaged in the process. This is consistent with the interviewees' perception that the fear of not being believed can be a barrier that stops people from coming forward in the first place.

The main thing for the serious [assaults], the moment they realise they've been believed and it's a light bulb moment. [...] There will be a moment where they just go 'You believe me don't you?' and that's it. Once you have that belief they tend to 'Then we'll go' and it's not a matter of the person not believing, it's their perception of it. So they suddenly link going 'I've had all these people talking to me, they've taken my report, the CPS have reviewed it, they've taken witness statements, they've charged it, people believe me' and the fact is we get a report and we investigate it impartially. It's their recognition of belief and that's what keeps people on board. Because they're suddenly going 'Someone believes me'.
(PC3)

Theme 3: Factors that trigger and facilitate reporting. The police officers argued that there is “no rhyme and reason” (PC4) as to why and when people decide to come forward, and it is hard to generalise when talking about the reasons that might push people to do so. People respond to trauma in a number of different ways and it is not always possible to understand their decision making after a traumatic event. The interviewees discussed that judges are supposed to explain to the jury that traumatised people behave in different ways, and might decide to come forward at different times and for different reasons.

The interviewees discussed some potential reasons that they believe might encourage people to come forward. For example, some people might come forward

because the situation between them and the perpetrator escalated; messages might have escalated to physical contact. Others might come forward because the situation became overwhelming for them and their mental health deteriorated. Anger might also bring people forward, as well as the fact that they might be feeling strong enough to deal with the reporting process.

I think if it becomes too much for them, they become overwhelmed by it. And sometimes that can mean a decline in mental health or whatever so they may come to police notice for that reason or because the harassment has escalated and it may have escalated from messages to physical contact or something like that. (PC1)

Helping others can also be a reason for people to make a formal report. The police officers mentioned that some people report crimes not for their own benefit, but because they believe that the same perpetrator might be committing crimes against other people too; they come forward in the hope that their report will help support claims made by others, or protect others from further crimes.

So some people will just like 'I'm reporting this because I think they might be doing it to other people or I know they're doing it to other people but I haven't got the strength to come forward' so they're doing it not for their own personal gain or for anything but to safeguard others. (PC4)

The interviewees also felt that knowing that other people have been subject to an offence by the same perpetrator can encourage targets to make a formal report, even if they were not originally planning to do so. The police officers considered that knowing that there are other people with similar experiences can be the catalyst that changes targets' minds and convinces them to engage with the formal procedures, a perception

the officers sometimes utilise in order to encourage people to make a report.

[We] may be able to go back to victims who don't want to make complaints and say to them 'Actually you're not the only one, there's two others that have told us this has happened but they don't want to make complaints either' and quite frequently you'll find that that person says 'Well I didn't realise it had happened before, it's obviously going to happen again, I want to step up to the plate and help' And then we can do that to the others and that encourages them to say 'You're not the only person who has been subject to this, somebody has given us a statement but we want to really deal with this person'. Okay well if someone else is there, then I want to step up too. (PC5)

For historic cases, police officers felt that people might be triggered to come forward later in life because of events such as the death of the perpetrator, a news item concerning the perpetrator, or general news coverage of sexual offences. It may also be that their mental health has been affected so severely by the crime that they become motivated to make a complaint.

[People might think] what are the repercussions of me telling somebody that this is happening? And that is very, very sad and that's why you get the reports 20 years later, it might be stepdad died or they split up and suddenly that's the trigger. Or they see something in the news and there's a trigger or they have a breakdown due to other things and actually all of that comes flooding out. So there tends to be a trigger later on in life that they now go 'Yeah I need to report this.' (PC3)

Furthermore, social support can be very important in encouraging people to come forward. Some people are encouraged to make a formal complaint by people who

witnessed the incident, such as bystanders and witnesses. Encouragement to come forward can also come from people who have been informed about the incident by the target, such as friends, family members, or medical staff.

In addition to direct social support from particular individuals in their immediate social environment, people might also feel encouraged to come forward by the way sexual offences (and the people who report them) are discussed more broadly in society, for example by the media. The police officers considered that the media coverage of particular famous cases of sexual abuse led to a large increase in the sexual offences reports they were receiving.³ They discussed that seeing people coming forward and being taken seriously might have increased people's confidence in the system and helped them decide to make a formal report. PC3 commented that watching these famous cases unfold in the media could have led someone who was abused a number of years ago to think "Well if this has all come forward, maybe I can come forward."

Finally, as discussed under Theme 1: 'Police officers' definition of sexual harassment', the police officers argued that people's attitudes towards reporting are also changing because of an education system which teaches students about the meaning of consent. They perceive that this improved understanding of offences and consent is helping more people come forward and has led to "sexual offences reports [being] up" (PC3).

All in all, the police officers interviewed mentioned a range of reasons that might bring people forward to make a formal report. These reasons can be personal, such as the target's feelings. Some people might be feeling angry and strong enough to report, and others come forward because their mental health has deteriorated. Police officers also felt that complainants might also come forward because they have been triggered by external events, such as news items or encouragement by their friends or

³ Please note that the interviews took place in 2016; the cases the police officers referred to were the cases of Jimmy Saville and the Rochdale child grooming ring.

bystanders. Finally, general societal attitudes towards sexual offences and reporting to the police might be changing due to the current education system.

Theme 4: Victims' needs. There is evidence in the literature that targets of sexual harassment have a range of needs, and that justice might not be their highest priority. A dedicated question about needs aimed to explore police officers' perceptions about the needs people have specifically when they come forward to report an incident to them. Needs were also discussed organically and alluded to indirectly, as part of a number of other discussions during the interviews.

In more detail, the police officers talked about a wide range of needs that people might have when they are reporting an incident. They discussed that at the time of coming forward people might have practical needs, such as the need for a medical examination, as well as psychological needs, such as the need for recovery and reassurance. They also discussed that people might have more acute needs linked to making a report, such as getting home after making the report, as well as more long-term needs, such as support preparing for and when appearing in court. Furthermore, they argued that people's needs depend on the type of crime they have experienced, with higher end physical violence evoking needs such as medical attention, and lower end offences leading people to need primarily reassurance and communication about the next steps.

Again it depends on the type. So if it was a serious sexual offence, then medical. So it would go to preserving life, they're our main things and then the next thing within a serious one would be then to preserve the evidence so a medical would need to be done. [...] For the low level the main thing is to reassure the person of what you're going to be doing, the procedures you're going to be taking [...] So it's about sitting down, listening [to] that victim and then explaining the procedures you're going to do and then making sure that we understand one

another. (PC3)

As demonstrated in the above extract, the police officers mentioned a wide variety of needs that people might have when they come forward. Interestingly, the interviewees spontaneously argued that people might experience these needs in a hierarchical order of importance, with some needs being more important than others at particular points in time. In more detail, some officers argued that in their experience, people's most prominent needs when they come forward are needs relating to reassurance, support, and psychological recovery. It is noteworthy that the question interviewees were asked by the researcher was specifically about the needs people have when they come forward to the police – that is, not what needs people have in general, or when they engage with services other than the police. Therefore, even when considering needs in the context of a formal report to the police, the interviewees still perceived psychological needs to be more prominent than the need for justice and a formal investigation.

If I'm honest I think that one of the ones that's lower down in the least important is the suspect being brought to justice. You would think that that would be from the police officer point of view that would be the top, I want this guy to go to jail. From our perception and my experience they need reassurance, they need safeguarding so they need to be put at ease about the infrequency of it, the unusual activity of it, the likelihood of repetition, the safety of where they're going. (PC5)

Furthermore, the interviewees engaged in extensive spontaneous discussions around the importance of communication and expectation management, and being empowered and in control of the decision-making process involved in making a report.

These needs were discussed both as a response to the aforementioned question about needs, but also organically, in discussions around the process of reporting a crime, and related decisions, such as the decision about whether or not a case will go to court.

Empowerment. To be taken seriously. To be listened to. To be treated like a victim and not like a time waster. And not to kind of force them into anything. It's got to be their choice as to what happens and then to just keep them updated and make sure they are in touch with the Victim Care Unit so they're getting the relevant support etcetera. And that's the best we can do really. (PC1)

Among the interviewees there was recognition that people's psychological needs were not always met in the past by their engagement with the police. Psychological support is not within the remit of the police role, and therefore police officers may recognise, but not address these needs. However, things have changed since the Victim Care Unit (VCU) was introduced in their police force area; the VCU is a service which is separate from the police and focuses on people's emotional wellbeing and signposts people to the appropriate services for psychological support. Therefore, the VCU aims to meet people's psychological needs, which were left unaddressed in the past. The interviewees generally viewed the VCU as a success, and discussed that is a large improvement in service provision, highlighting again the importance of people's psychological needs, and the centrality of emotional support for keeping people engaged in the criminal justice system.

And as a result [of the VCU] public confidence in [this police force] has gone up dramatically. Because instead of trying to just fix it by investigating something often victims, that's not what they need or necessarily want. Actually they want to recover from what they've been through. So that fills that massive gap that

was there that we just couldn't fulfil. (PC1)

Police officers' perception about the importance of emotional needs can also be observed indirectly, through their descriptions of the way in which the service provided by the police has improved in the past few years. These discussions focused on the introduction of the VCU and the support it helps put in place. They also mentioned additional sources of support, such as the Independent Sexual Violence Advisors, who can accompany people all throughout the process of reporting, and Sexual Offences Liaison Officers, who are police officers with special training to deal with sexual offences. All these improvements relate to the police being more attentive towards what they perceive to be people's most prominent needs: support, communication, and reassurance. Even though emotional support and empathy are not part of the police's role, the interviewees' perception of improvements in their service centres on being more empathetic towards people who come forward.

In sum, the interviewees recognised that people might have multiple needs when they come forward. These needs were not seen to be equal, but were instead discussed in order of importance. Even though the role of the police is relevant to justice and criminal investigations, the police officers recognised that the need for justice might be a low priority for people who come forward to report a crime, especially if the report is made right after the crime has taken place. We do not currently know whether victims are aware that police officers understand this – that is, if they realise that the police recognise the diverse needs that bring people forward and the fact that their psychological needs might precede their need for justice.

In addition, there were extensive discussions about the importance of being treated well and maintaining a good relationship with the police throughout the process of reporting. This does not intuitively tie in with the police officers' role as the interviewees describe it, that is objective evidence collection, and investigation with

little time for empathy. However, there is a recognition that this is an important need for people, and key to keeping them engaged and satisfied with the system.

Even though police officers argue that justice is not the top priority for targets, and they do their best to take that into consideration, the service they provide is a service that aims to investigate and collect evidence in order to achieve justice. Therefore, nowadays there is increased liaison with services that might complement the service that the police provide, such as the VCU.

Theme 5: The use of time as information. This theme focusses on the way time is used as information. It explores how police officers make meaning of the delay in coming forward and the potential effects of the passage of time on people who have experienced a traumatic event. The passage of time and delayed disclosures were discussed by the police officers primarily in relation to historical cases, that is cases that are older than 12 months. The interviewees believed that there was a surge in reports about sexual offences after the media coverage of famous cases of historic and widespread sexual abuse, namely the revelations about Jimmy Saville and the Rochdale sex grooming ring.

And there's obviously a lot out in the media to support people going forward and people feel more confident now to talk about [historic cases]. We're probably better set up for it now as well. So yeah it was something that we didn't see much of it at all. Even three or four years ago we didn't see much of it at all and now I reckon we would see a job every two weeks. (PC2)

The interviewees believed that there may have been a number of reasons behind this sudden increase in reported historic cases. It is possible that the media coverage informed people that the police do deal with historic cases, and helped them understand

that it is acceptable to come forward with a historic complaint. Here, it is possible to infer that the media coverage may have helped address one of the aforementioned barriers to coming forward, namely the lack of awareness among targets that they can report certain things (such as historic cases) to the police.

Another aspect of the media coverage that police officers mentioned may have helped people come forward was the fact that these cases highlighted actions taken by the police as a result of people's reports. This may have increased people's confidence that the police will try to help them if they come forward. As such, this coverage may have partially addressed people's fear that they will not be believed if they come forward and that the police do not handle such cases well.

The way police officers discussed the meaning of delays in reporting and the decision to eventually come forward is particularly interesting. They argued that people may come forward to report a historic case because they are 'finally ready' to make a report, indicating an understanding that people are not always ready or willing to come forward immediately after an incident has taken place; instead, deciding to disclose what happened might take time. During this time, people might be processing some of the trauma, dealing with their emotions, or seeking other forms of support, such as professional psychological help, rather than engaging with the criminal justice system.

I suppose the people that have come after years from my experience they tend to be managing their emotions better because they haven't got that initial shock trauma stuff going on, floating around, so they haven't got that sort of kneejerk [reaction], they've actually thought about it whereas some people will just instantly come and report something then they'll think about it and then they'll want to withdraw it [...] Or they've been getting professional help for some time and now it's time to tell the police. [...] obviously they've got their own personal reasons and some of them will just say 'It was just time to' and you

can't quantify that at all really. (PC4)

Even though time may help people process their feelings and provide an opportunity to work on their emotional recovery, it does not heal everything. The passage of time and trying to leave things in the past does not guarantee that people have recovered, or that they no longer need help and support. The police officers mentioned that the media coverage of aforementioned historic cases may have helped people acknowledge that putting something behind them does not necessarily lead to full recovery and that it is acceptable to seek support and justice a long time after the incident took place.

I imagine Jimmy Saville and things like that, it's sort of since that message has gone out they're saying actually we will look at stuff that's old and that you may have put to one side but not recovered from it and we'll actually pick it up now. I think because that's common knowledge people have moved away from 'This is in the past and it's best left there' to 'We need to talk about it'. (PC2)

All in all, interviewees mentioned a number of reasons why people may delay coming forward, such as not being ready to do so, or prioritising other actions, such as seeking psychological help. They also stated that there may also be a number of reasons that eventually bring people forward, such as the mere recognition that they can report something to the police, and increased confidence in the way their case will be handled. Time was discussed as a factor that may help people process some of their trauma, but it was also noted that the passage of time does not mean that people have healed fully; indeed, people may need support and justice a long time after they have been the target of a crime.

Discussion Study 2

We expected that police officers would use legal based classifications for sexual harassment. This was indeed the case, but there was some oscillation regarding the rigidity and stability of classifying each crime. The interviewees argued that decisions around the classification of specific incidents are purely law-based and take place immediately after a service user comes forward. However, when prompted to describe the procedure further, they explained that even though “criming” decisions are based on the law, there is some scope to interpret the law in different ways. Furthermore, as discussed in the results section, a criming decision is made as soon as a service user reports an alleged crime. However, this criming decision is expected to change at multiple stages during the investigation, based both on objective, tangible factors, such as the available evidence, as well as differing perceptions about the interpretation of the law.

In addition, the police officers argued that deciding which crime has taken place at the beginning of the investigation is of utmost importance because this decision affects the subsequent procedure and the way the crime is charged. However, when discussing the changing nature of criming decisions they argued that the initial criming decision is not critical for the procedure, because the basic steps will be the same regardless of the specific crime (e.g., evidence collection). They argued instead that the grading is more important than the criming decision, because the former relates to the priority given and amount of resource dedicated to each case.

This ambivalence surrounding the significance of each criming decision and the changing nature of these decisions were entirely unexpected. We anticipated that police officers make an initial law-based classification decision, and that remains unchanged all throughout the service users’ engagement with the police. We do not know how service users themselves perceive these changes, but it seems unlikely that it is

something that they will expect or be prepared for when they come forward to the police. It is possible that they are already met with a classification which is different from what they anticipate when they report their experience to the police, given the existence of multiple different definitions of sexual harassment that service users might hold, and their lack of the relevant legal knowledge. Further research is needed to understand service users' perceptions of the criming decisions made by the police and the potential impact these changes have on their interactions.

Furthermore, the police officers discussed a variety of barriers that might hinder people from coming forward, such as not recognising that a particular experience constitutes a crime, feeling ashamed, blaming themselves for what happened, not feeling ready to go through the criminal justice system, wanting to put things behind them, fear of not being believed by the police, and a general lack of confidence in the police. All the barriers discussed by the police are consistent with barriers that we find in the literature. For example, shame is widely believed to be an important deterrent to reporting rape (see for example Weiss, 2010). In addition, a UK Home Office report on attrition in reported rape cases found that rape survivors had not come forward to report their rape to the police for several reasons, such as being concerned that they will not be believed, not wanting others to know, lacking faith in the police, and not being able to face the criminal justice process (Kelly, Lovett, & Regan, 2005). Additional barriers that we find in the literature include not wanting others to know, not wanting friends and family to know about what happened, and general concerns about confidentiality (Sable et al., 2006), fear of reprisal, the use of drugs or alcohol before or while the victimisation took place (Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2011), not wanting others to be involved, and the targets handling it by themselves (Zinzow & Thompson, 2011).

Despite the aforementioned barriers and potential consequences, some people do come forward and report their victimisation to the police. The interviewees discussed a number of reasons that, in their opinion, might motivate people to engage in what is

likely to be a challenging, long, and costly interaction with the Criminal Justice System, such as escalation of the situation, feeling angry, feeling ready and strong enough to report, social support, to contribute to police intelligence, and wanting to help others.

The triggers discussed by the police are also reflected in the literature; for example, Lievore (2005) found that one of the main reasons women reported rape to the police was because they were encouraged to do so by a friend or counsellor. In addition, Kelly and her colleagues (2005) found that of the women in their sample who reported rape to the police, 57% said that helping others was the reason (or one of the reasons) why they did so. Similarly, Taylor and Norma (2012) found that one of the main motivations for women who reported their victimisation to the police was a sense of responsibility towards other women and girls, and the desire to protect others from the perpetrator. This desire to protect others was irrespective of their relationship with the women they wished to protect; they could be family members, friends, strangers, or even womankind as a whole (Taylor & Norma, 2012; see also Wolitzky-Taylor et. al, 2011).

There is a variety of further reasons for reporting identified in the literature, such as a sense of civic duty and a desire for sexual violence to be recorded officially as a crime. Taylor and Norma (2012) found that further to a sense of responsibility towards other women, survivors of sexual violence reported their victimisation to the police for two other main reasons. First, some women engaged with the police because they believed that sexual violence is a crime, which should be recognised and recorded as such. Therefore, some women reported in order to contribute to an accurate statistical representation of the prevalence of sexual violence, even though they were aware of the potential personal, social, and financial costs associated with reporting. Second, many women reported to the police out of a sense of civic duty to their community; these women discussed that they wanted their community to be aware of the widespread nature and the consequences of sexual violence (Taylor & Norma, 2012). Other reasons

include the desire for the perpetrator to be caught and/or punished (Kelly et al., 2005), and for the survivor to get help or medical care (Wolitzky-Taylor et al., 2011). Further factors that have been associated with a higher likelihood to report to the police are the use of a weapon during the incident and sustaining a physical injury in addition to the rape (Bachman, 1998).

Throughout the interviews with the police officers there seems to be a more rounded understanding of the reasons that hinder people from coming forward, compared to the variety of reasons that encourage people to come forward. The triggers that were discussed by the police appear to focus on the individual (such as feeling angry, or ready) and their desire to help others; however, there is a large literature that highlights additional reasons, such as a responsibility to a greater good (i.e. that of the community, or womankind as a whole), as well as reasons that are perpetrator-centric, namely the desire for the perpetrator to be sanctioned.

The interviewees discussed a variety of needs, ranging from immediate practical needs, to long term psychological needs. They emphasised that some needs are more prominent than others and argued that psychological needs are likely to be the most important needs for service users even in the context of a formal report to the police. These ideas about needs being experienced in a hierarchical order are in line with psychological literature (see for example Maslow, 1943; Tay & Diener, 2011).

It is noteworthy that the participants argued that justice is not the most prominent need for service users. This perception is somewhat surprising, considering that the context in which these interactions take place is the Criminal Justice System, and the fact that the police officers' role is justice- and investigation-focused. However, this idea expressed by police officers echoes findings from McGlynn and Westmarland (2018), who found that survivors of sexual violence were not interested in the imprisonment or punishment of the perpetrator; rather, they valued 'meaningful consequences', such as the perpetrator taking responsibility for their actions. One of

their participants commented in relation to the imprisonment of her perpetrator ‘I wasn’t bothered about that at all.’

Furthermore, the Police officers engaged in extensive discussions about the importance of good communication and keeping service users informed about the procedure as it unfolds. They commented that it is important that service users feel like they are treated well and are being listened to. Interviewees’ thoughts around the importance of being treated well and being kept updated and in (relative) control of the decision making process tie in with the idea of procedural justice, which has been shown to affect perceptions of system and policing legitimacy (e.g., Hinds & Murphy, 2007 and Hollander-Blumoff, 2011). In addition, the idea of being treated well is consistent with what McGlynn and Westmarland call ‘justice interests,’ or experiences that give people a sense of justice, such as dignity and recognition. In more detail, McGlynn and Westmarland (2018) found that being treated with dignity by the police, like a person of worth, rather than a piece of evidence helped participants get a sense of justice.

Furthermore, the interviewees talked about the assumed importance of empowerment and decision making for victims. This idea corresponds with the literature on basic psychological needs, which highlights autonomy as an essential human need. For example, self-determination theory posits that people are motivated primarily by three basic psychological needs, namely the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2008). In addition to the literature, third sector service providers, such as Rape Crisis England and Wales, highlight the importance of autonomy for survivors of rape, and recommend that the best way to support survivors is to ensure that they stay in control and have the opportunity to make their own decisions (Supporting a survivor, n.d.).

Even though this need is recognised and discussed extensively by the police officers, their description of the investigation process raises the question about the

extent to which the need for autonomy could be met through engaging with the Criminal Justice System. After a survivor decides to engage with the police and make a formal report, there appears to be limited scope for them to make meaningful decisions about the process that follows. Not only does it appear like most (if not all) decisions are made by the police officers, but some decisions, such as the criming decision, can change throughout the process regardless of the survivor's wishes. One of McGlynn and Westmarland's participants commented that the 'forever changing' decisions about the process made the experience extremely challenging for her; she did not know what she was meant to be doing and felt that 'they took all the power away from [her]'. Even though it is understandable that decisions around criming are made by the police officers, and are likely to change, it is possible that this could lead to survivors feeling further disempowered and out of control. However, it could be possible to increase the feeling of control by explaining how and why these changes take place, and what it means for the investigation right at the beginning of the process; in this way service users will be aware that criming changes are a likely scenario, and will have the opportunity to decide whether they wish to go ahead with making a report, on the basis of this knowledge.

All in all, the police officers discuss a variety of needs. Even though there might be some additional needs in the literature (e.g. a need for meaningful consequences for the perpetrator, and the need for a shared reality), it is nevertheless remarkable that the discussions spontaneously centred around psychological, rather than legal or justice related needs, and that psychological needs were seen to be the priority for people who come forward. This recognition comes with the caveat that even though these needs are important, the police officers' role is to investigate and collect evidence; therefore providing emotional support and meeting these needs is not within their remit. For this reason, they liaise with a complementary service, namely the Victim Care Unit, in order for those needs to be addressed by the relevant service.

Finally, we do not know whether people are aware that the police recognise such a breadth of needs and acknowledge that people's psychological needs might be more prominent when they come forward than their need for justice. If citizens are not aware of this, and they expect that the police will not be able to understand their needs when they come forward, this could affect their decision to engage with the police.

The final theme we identified in the interviews with the police officers was the use of time as information. The interviewees talked about a variety of reasons that might delay people from coming forward to the police. Importantly, the police officers discussed the decision to come forward as a process; therefore a delayed report could mean that the survivor took time to focus on their recovery and only came forward when they felt ready to do so. This is noteworthy, because the delay in coming forward is sometimes interpreted by the public (which might also reflect the views of a jury) as an indication that the complainant is lying, or that the experience was minor. There is a common perception that if someone has a crime committed against them, they will report it as soon as possible; therefore the delay in coming forward can be seen as a sign that the complaint is confused, that they changed their mind (and therefore might be unreliable), or that they are simply lying. For instance, in 2017 a US Senate candidate who was accused of sexual misconduct by nine women commented: 'To think that grown women would wait 40 years... to bring charges is absolutely unbelievable' (Bostick, 2017). It is important to note that, in contrast to popular belief, the service providers who handle such cases do not consider the delay in coming forward as a sign that the complainant is being insincere and has questionable motivations for their report, but view the decision to come forward as a process that can take time.

Furthermore, when discussing historic cases they emphasised the effects of the extensive media coverage of particular sexual abuse cases on people's willingness to come forward. They argued that this coverage lead to a large increase in reported historic cases, because it highlighted that people can report incidents that took place a

long time ago, and increased people's confidence in the way the police will respond to them and handle their report. We do not know the precise reasons that led to this increase in reporting after the media coverage from the service users' perspective. However, the police argued that one of the things that encouraged people to come forward was that the news informed the public that they could report cases even if they had taken place decades prior to the report. Kelly and her colleagues (2005) found that one of the reasons their participants had not reported a rape to the police was that 'the abuse took place some time ago.' Consequently, it is possible that the media coverage of historic cases which came to light and were dealt with by the police helped alleviate this barrier through raising awareness and contributing to more positive public perceptions of the police.

Furthermore, approximately a year after these interviews took place, the #metoo movement, an online international movement against sexual harassment and assault, led to millions of people discussing their own experiences with sexual harassment online. This movement is believed to have led to an increase in sexual harassment reports in the UK, by giving British workers 'the confidence to report' sexual harassment that they witnessed or experienced in their workplace (Clarke, 2018). Reflecting on the sudden increase in discussions about sexual harassment in the media in Australia, one journalist commented that 'suddenly, we realise we're not alone. And our experiences are being believed.' (Burke, 2018).

All in all, we do not have direct insight into the survivors' perspective and the reasons why media coverage of cases of sexual abuse and harassment is associated with an increase in sexual harassment reports. The increase in reports may have taken place because media representation is helping alleviate some of the barriers to reporting, such as recognising an incident as sexual harassment, and raising awareness of the available options; or it could be because people realise that they are not alone, and that sexual harassment is experienced by millions of people; it could also be that it has increased

people's trust in the police. Whatever the reasons may be, it is undeniable that media representation has affected people's willingness to discuss and formally report their experiences with sexual harassment. Finally, it is worth acknowledging that the sudden increase in sexual harassment reports does not necessarily mean that news stories have one, universal, homogenous effect on all survivors of sexual harassment. For millions of people it has meant that they felt ready to discuss their experiences with others; for some, it meant that they decided to make a formal report. However, it is possible that some survivors could have been further discouraged from engaging with the Criminal Justice System, after seeing the public reactions and backlash some of the publicly known sexual harassment accusers faced (see for example Bryant, 2017).

General Discussion

We conducted interviews with service providers who engage with victims of sexual harassment, but who are also likely to perceive their roles differently, interpret harassment differently, and therefore be focussed on different needs and different markers of successful resolution. Thus the interviews conducted in Studies 1 and 2 provide an opportunity to compare these perspectives of formal and informal service providers, and to consider their implications for the experiences of service users. Our results support some of our expectations, such as the existence of differences in defining sexual harassment. However, we find more similarities than expected across all other areas, such as the service providers' perception of service users' needs and the barriers to reporting sexual harassment.

Definitions of Sexual Harassment

Dignity and Respect advisors do indeed define sexual harassment differently to police officers. These disparities relate to both the content of the definition and the process through which the decisions about the definition are made. In more detail,

Dignity and Respect advisors avoid defining sexual harassment and argue that the exact definition of an incident is not important when it comes to providing emotional support. When they do provide definitions, these are broad and rely largely on the target's feelings and the subjective consequences of the behaviour. Conversely, police officers argue that defining each incident is of utmost importance to their role; their definitions are objective, based on the Sexual Offences Act 2003 and rely on the available evidence.

Furthermore, the process of defining sexual harassment is different across the two contexts. Dignity and Respect advisors do not exactly discuss a process; as aforementioned, they see the exact definition of sexual harassment as somewhat irrelevant to their role. They are guided by the definition each service user has chosen and that definition does not change unless the service user wants it to (or unless they decide to make a formal report). However, the process of classifying an incident formally in the context of interacting with the police is more complicated and iterative than that. Even though the police officers argued that classifying a crime is a standard process which is based on the law, they added the caveat that criming decisions change at multiple stages all throughout the investigation process, depending on objective factors, such as the available evidence, but also on the way the investigators interpret the law. Finally, the police argued that the final decision about the classification of each crime is not made by them; instead, it is made by the jury. Therefore, the classification might change again even after the police have concluded their investigation. Thus, the classification of an incident in the context of a formal report to the police is expected to change; it is variable and dependent on several factors, namely the law, the available evidence, the interpretation of the law by the officer in charge of the investigation, and ultimately the jury.

These frameworks highlight important differences between the two services; in the context of informal support the definition is seen as somewhat irrelevant, it is often

chosen by the service user, and is not expected to change. On the other hand, in the context of a formal report to the police, the definition is seen as crucial, as it underlies how the incident is categorized, at first, and handled, as the process develops; it is classified by the police officers, based on several factors, and is anticipated to change multiple times. What is, however, similar across both contexts is the Dignity and Respect advisors' and police officers' perception of service users' definitions and understanding of sexual harassment. Both service providers argued that sexual harassment is so widespread that it becomes normalized with the consequence that people often fail to recognise its inappropriateness; in addition, the existence of multiple definitions means that people are not always sure if their experiences constitute sexual harassment and may seek that confirmation from the service providers.

Barriers and Triggers

The police officers and the Dignity and Respect advisors discussed very similar barriers and triggers for coming forward. Both groups of service providers recognised a variety of obstacles to engaging with the available services, including personal, structural, social, and practical reasons. It is noteworthy that the delay in coming forward was not perceived as a sign that the service user is lying – by neither Dignity and Respect advisors or by police officers – despite this inference being routine within public opinion; it is not unusual to see people who have come forward with a historic complaint being discredited in public via the argument that if their story was true, they would have filed a report immediately (e.g., Trump, 2018). There is a recognition from both services that the majority of people who experience sexual harassment do not come forward to seek support or make a formal report. The possible barriers that might hinder people from coming forward and the subsequent delay in doing so are discussed extensively, as a reality that service providers are well aware of, which is neither unusual nor unexpected. Furthermore, both service providers acknowledged personal

differences in the decision to come forward straight after an incident, or doing so at a later stage. For those who take time before coming forward, the decision to do so was discussed as a process; they argued that people need to feel ready to deal with the official procedures, which can be emotionally challenging and time consuming, before they come forward. In this way, both formal and informal service providers recognise that coming forward with a sexual harassment complaint is complicated, there are multiple reasons that might discourage people from doing so, and that people might take some time before they decide to engage with a service.

In addition, service providers in both contexts discussed similar triggers for coming forward, such as feeling ready to do so, and the escalation of the problem. Interviewees from both services highlighted their belief that targeted campaigns and high-profile cases of sexual abuse can help encourage people to come forward. According to the service providers the visibility of information about sexual harassment in the media has multifaceted benefits. It can help define sexual harassment and help people identify that their experiences qualify as such; it can also raise awareness of the available options, as well as increase confidence in support services and the police.

Needs

We also did not find substantial discrepancies between the two service providers' perceptions about service users' needs. Both groups of service providers recognise an array of needs, including psychological, practical, and the need for justice. It is somewhat surprising that both formal and informal service providers discuss similar needs. It could be expected that service providers are more tuned into the needs that they can help service users meet through their roles. In other words, it could be expected that informal service providers would recognise emotional needs and the need to find out the available options, whereas formal service providers could be expected to focus on needs pertaining to justice and the law. However, both service providers

discuss a vast array of needs, including all the needs we find in the literature (safety, communal, and agentic needs), regardless of their perspective or the specific needs they are able to assist people with. Therefore, there does not seem to be a difference in terms of the perception of needs, but a difference in the remit of each role and how this relates to the needs service users have. The Dignity and Respect advisors recognise the need for justice, but do not have any formal decision making authority. On the other hand, the police officers recognise that service users have psychological needs, and that those might be the most prominent needs when they come forward to the police; however their role is one of investigation and evidence collection, and they are not trained to provide emotional support.

Time as Information and Historic Cases

We expected that there could be differences in the way time is used as information based on the different perspectives of the formal and informal service providers. As discussed in the introduction, past research has shown that people interpret information differently, depending on their perspective (victim focus vs truth detection focus). On the basis of this literature, it could be expected that service providers with a focus on emotional recovery (the Dignity and Respect advisors) would interpret the delay in coming forward as an indication that the service user was finding it difficult to come forward and discuss the issues they were facing; whereas service providers (i.e. the police officers) with a focus on investigation and truth detection would interpret the delay in coming forward as a sign that the service user is lying. However, our results do not reveal such differences in the interpretation of the passage of time by the two groups of service providers. Both Dignity and Respect advisors and police officers discussed that coming forward is difficult and can be delayed for several reasons, such as not recognising the incident as sexual harassment, fear of not being believed, and uncertainty about the outcome and the benefits of coming forward.

Summary

All in all, Studies 1 and 2 provided us with rich insight into the subjective perspectives of the people who provide services to those who come forward with a sexual harassment complaint. Predictably, Dignity and Respect advisers and the police differed in the degree to which they adopted person-focussed versus legal definitions of sexual harassment (or sexual offences in the case of the police). However, and perhaps unexpectedly, we do not find large differences in how the two types of service providers discuss sexual harassment. Where there were differences, these were practical, and related to the remit and the purpose of their roles. Dignity and Respect advisers provide emotional support and help people understand their options, whereas police officers are there to investigate and collect evidence, with the aim for achieving justice. Therefore even though both services recognise and discuss similar needs, they try to meet different needs through their roles.

The purpose of these two studies was to gain an understanding of the context people find themselves in when they come forward to report sexual harassment. We wanted to explore service providers' narratives about their own role, their explicit interpretations of people's responses, their views on people's needs, and how these needs might be met. We also wanted to gain an understanding of the procedures and practical steps that are taken after someone comes forward to report sexual harassment. Finally, we wanted to compare the findings between these two contexts and groups of service providers (police and dignity and respect advisers). Thematic analysis allowed us to achieve these specific aims. The most surprising findings were those pertaining to service providers' definitions of sexual harassment. For Dignity and Respect advisers the definition was not relevant; what was relevant was the way service users felt about the incident, that they felt believed when they came forward, and that they could access support for the incident they had labelled as sexual harassment. For the police officers,

on the other hand, the definition was very important, but there was some ambiguity with regards to how fixed each definition was; interviewees initially stated that defining each incident was important and the definition was rigid and based on the law, but later discussed the definition as changeable and subjective. Therefore, service users who come forward seeking validation for their experiences and encounter the strictly bureaucratic and changeable definition of the police are unlikely to be provided with a definition that helps them feel certain about what happened. Those who interact with Dignity and Respect advisors may feel more validated through the advisors' approach to the definition; however, if they come forward feeling uncertain about the meaning of their experiences and seeking a fixed definition to latch onto, the fluidity of Dignity and Respect advisors' definitions might not meet that need.

Although these studies allowed us to explore the landscape people encounter when they come forward, it should be noted that there might be broader factors affecting service providers' interactions with and treatment of service users that we were not able to establish via these interviews and through thematic analysis. For example, people may have unconscious biases, which impact their interpretation of evidence and their assessment of people's credibility when they come forward. Or they might employ coping mechanisms, which serve to protect them from the challenging incidents they work on, but may inadvertently lead them to be less empathetic towards service users. Service providers' beliefs and values could also affect these interactions. For instance, if service providers subscribe to the belief in a just world, that could have an impact on the way they evaluate service users' role and culpability in the incidents they are reporting. Finally, service providers' behaviour could even be impacted by practical factors, such as a large workload, or competing priorities and tasks. Such unconscious mechanisms and circumstantial practical issues were not examined or revealed by these studies.

Therefore, the studies did not go as far as to investigate every single factor, whether it be psychological (such as bias) or practical (such as workload pressures), that

might impact the way service providers respond to service users. They did however meet our primary goal of understanding explicit meanings and interpretations, mapping the procedural steps that service users are likely to go through when they come forward, and exploring the similarities and differences between the way the two groups discuss people's needs and responses.

Of course, while there is much that can be gained through comparisons between service providers, it would also be relevant to compare these entities understanding of their roles and victim needs with the needs of victims themselves, and how they perceive services in return. Indeed, the motivating questions behind this thesis are to better understand victims' needs, their role in the decisions people make after they've been sexually harassed, and if and how those needs are met through engaging with services. As such, the missing perspective in the research we have conducted so far is the perspective of people who have experienced sexual harassment themselves. In the next chapter, we turn to survivors of sexual harassment, and provide two quantitative studies focusing on people's psychological needs, the actions they took after being sexually harassed, and the extent to which those actions satisfied their needs. We also contrast these with the perceived needs and anticipated actions among those who have not experienced sexual harassment, but imagine it. In so doing we hope to get an additional understanding on what victims need, and how this aligns with expectations of those who might observe or judge their responses to the experience of sexual harassment.

Chapter 5: Experienced versus Anticipated Responses to Sexual Harassment

One of the most frequently asked questions regarding sexual harassment is why people do not report it formally. This question has dominated both academic inquiry (e.g., Kelly, Lovett, & Regan, 2005; Fitzgerald, Swan, & Fischer, 1995) and the media (for example Engel, 2017). Valid as this question might sometimes be, it also implies that the only ‘right’ response to sexual harassment is to report it both quickly and formally. In contrast to this assumption, however, most people never report their victimisation formally. The 2017 Crime Survey England and Wales found that approximately 5 in 6 victims of sexual offences did not report their experiences to the police (Flatley, 2018; see also: TUC, 2016; Rape Crisis England & Wales headline statistics 2017-18, n.d.). Others come forward a long time after the incident took place (see for example Perraudin, 2016, and McGoogan, 2017).

This reveals a troubling discrepancy between the way people expect targets of sexual harassment to respond, and the way most people actually respond (see also Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). Popular perceptions about what constitutes a reasonable response to sexual harassment are crucial, because these affect (and reflect) how people are evaluated when they do come forward to report their experiences. For court cases, in particular, such perceptions inform the ‘reasonable woman standard’—that is, the standard that is used to determine the credibility of the complainant, and to evaluate whether they reacted appropriately under the circumstances experienced (The free dictionary, n.d.). Outside of the confines of the courtroom, assumptions about the behaviour of a ‘reasonable woman’ are also likely to affect how the public and the media assess and judge people who do come forward in high-profile cases. Hesitation or delay in coming forward can be seen as a sign that the accuser is lying, and used to discredit them, and question their motives. For example, in October 2018 Donald

Trump questioned the motives of Dr Christine Blasey Ford in testifying against Brett Kavanaugh in a Senate Judiciary Committee hearing regarding his Supreme Court nomination. Trump asked “Why didn’t someone call the FBI 36 years ago?” (Trump, 2018) Further to being difficult and potentially re-traumatising for the complainants themselves, this kind of public scrutiny can have additional consequences for other people’s willingness to come forward after they see such reactions in the news. Finally, it is also possible that ideas about what constitutes the ‘right’ response to sexual harassment (i.e. immediate recognition of an unfair incident, the decision to seek justice, and an instant report to the police) could negatively impact on the people who themselves adhere to such views. If they experience sexual harassment, statistics show that it is most likely that they will respond in a way that is different from what they expected to, and that they are unlikely to make a formal report (Flatley, 2018). This might lead them to question whether their reactions are ‘normal’, whether their experience did indeed constitute sexual harassment, and perhaps even to blame themselves for their ‘wrong’ response.

Ultimately, the question why people do not report sexual harassment formally implies that a formal report is the only (or the only ‘reasonable’) option people have after they have been sexually harassed and that every other response constitutes ‘inaction’. Taking action is often seen as a binary choice between making a formal report and not doing anything. In reality, however, targets of sexual harassment have a number of options available to them, and might choose to engage in actions that do not involve making an official report (Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001). For example, they may choose to seek informal support and discuss the incident with their friends, or seek other informal sources of support. These kinds of actions might also be very effective in satisfying their needs, especially if one takes a wider view of the needs that are relevant in such circumstances.

The expectation that people should simply report sexual harassment seems to be

based on an implicit assumption that targets of sexual harassment are primarily guided by their need for justice. Under this assumption, formal actions, such as reporting to the police, do seem to be the most straightforward pathway to need satisfaction. The need for justice is, indeed, likely to be activated by negative experiences like sexual harassment, and might lead people to engage with formal procedures accordingly. However, a large body of literature highlights that people's needs are multiple, and different needs can guide behaviour in different directions (Sheldon, Elliot, Kim, & Kasser, 2001). Moreover, the drive to satisfy some of these needs is regarded as both universal and integral for achieving wellbeing.

Within the social psychological literature, much of the discussion of fundamental needs, and their relationship with individual behaviour and wellbeing, occurs under the umbrella of Self Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Basic Psychological Needs Theory (BPNT), one of the six 'mini theories' contained within this perspective, posits that people have three 'basic psychological needs': the needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence. Deci and Ryan (2008) argue that psychological wellbeing is predicated on satisfying all these basic needs. Autonomy refers to experiences of volition as opposed to coercion; relatedness refers to feeling genuinely loved and cared for as opposed to feeling ostracised and lonely (sometimes also referred to as 'communion' within alternative theoretical frameworks), and competence involves feeling effective in interacting with one's environment, contrasted with feeling inferior and inadequate (sometimes also referred to as 'agency' within alternative frameworks; Chen et al., 2015).

Recognising all of these needs as integral for individual wellbeing can help us to understand why people's behaviour and decisions in response to critical situations might be multiple rather than singular. Past research has shown that when a basic psychological need is not being met, people are motivated to satisfy that need, and to engage in behaviours that will help them achieve that (Sheldon & Gunz, 2009).

According to Deci and Ryan (2008), awareness of whether or not a contextual factor (such as an opportunity for choice) is likely to impede or to assist the satisfaction of a basic psychological need can help us to better predict the behaviour and choices that follow. Because contextual factors can affect multiple needs, and do so in different ways, it is therefore important to consider the variety of needs that are relevant in a given situation and that might be influencing individual responses.

Although needs may be multiple, other frameworks suggest that certain needs are likely to be prioritised in the context of alternative, and potentially competing, needs. For example, Maslow's (1943) now famous hierarchy of needs suggests that psychological wellbeing is predicated on fulfilling multiple, inherent needs, but also doing so in order of importance. Only once the most basic physiological needs, such as for food, water, rest, and safety, are satisfied, can people then progress to engaging with the satisfaction of higher-order psychological needs, like needs for belongingness and esteem. In turn, once belongingness and esteem needs are satisfied, people can then turn towards satisfying the need for self-fulfilment. Despite its prominence in the psychological literature, the adequacy and accuracy of Maslow's hierarchy has been the subject of considerable debate, and some have argued, and shown, that the specific five-step hierarchy of needs is not well-supported empirically (see for example Sheldon, Elliot, Kim, & Kasser, 2001; Tay & Diener, 2011; Wahba & Bridwell, 1976). Indeed even Maslow himself conceded that the ordering of needs might not be as rigid as he originally suggested (p. 51, Maslow, 1987). Nonetheless, others have found some support for the motivational categories Maslow proposed, namely the deprivation/domination hypothesis, which states that an individual's most important need is their most deficient need (for example Wicker, Brown, Wiehe, Hagen, & Reed, 1993; Wicker & Wiehe, 1999). Therefore, while there may be limited support for Maslow's original five-step hierarchy, there is evidence that not all needs are equal, or equally salient, at all times.

Thinking about needs as multiple (versus singular), and acknowledging that certain needs might be more prominent than others for the individual and across situations, mirrors the way needs were discussed by some of the police officers we interviewed in Study 2. Specifically, as detailed in Chapter 4, some of the police officers discussed people's needs in order of importance and their perception that people's emotional needs, such as reassurance, are more prominent than their need for justice, even when they come forward to report a crime to the police. Though police officers cannot know exactly how victims feel, this is consistent with the broad tenor of psychological theories, and supports the idea that in the wake of a sexual harassment experience, people might have a number of needs, which are not all equally strong at all times. Rather, victims are likely to have multiple needs, and these needs exist in some kind of hierarchical order.

However, a range of sources – not just the interviews already conducted with police – suggest that the need for justice is *unlikely* to be the primary need that is engaged by experiences of sexual harassment, despite the assumptions by others that it should be. For example, the 2017 Crime survey England and Wales found that 53% of survivors of sexual offences reported having problems trusting people, or having difficulty in other relationships, as a result of the offence (Flatley, 2018). These difficulties speak to the degree to which experience of sexual offences threatens survivors' need for belongingness, or their capacity to satisfy these needs following an incident. One possible reason for the difficulties with trusting and relating with others might be because sexual harassment also has negative effects on people's self-esteem (Gruber & Bjorn, 1982). In addition to esteem being a need in itself, low self-esteem is connected to negative social interactions (Lakey, Tardiff, & Drew, 1994), which can further threaten people's sense of belonging. In addition, others have found that sexual harassment can lead to a loss of people's sense of control (Thacker, 1992). Control is related to agency, and to autonomy, which are also two of the aforementioned basic

needs (Schwarzer, 1992). The above would suggest that experiencing sexual harassment can threaten both needs for agency/ competence, needs for communion/ belonging, as well as needs for autonomy (via control). This encompasses the full set of basic needs alluded to in current psychological theories.

In the context of threatened needs, people will be motivated to take actions that meet these psychological needs, and to protect or restore their well-being. If targets of sexual harassment experience multiple need threats, and must endeavour to meet needs for autonomy, competence and relatedness, it is likely that they will weigh up the costs and benefits of making a formal report against each of these salient needs. Importantly, while taking direct, formal, action might satisfy one of the needs (e.g., autonomy), it might be neutral or negative with respect to other needs (e.g., belonging/ relatedness).

Indeed, research in other areas suggests that victims face tricky dilemmas when they perform such cost-benefit analyses in the context of multiple competing needs. In particular, research on discrimination shows that the personal benefits to victims of confronting the perpetrators of such behaviour are often awkwardly balanced against the social costs they might anticipate for such actions (i.e., hostility, ridicule, or disbelief from others; Czopp & Monteith, 2003; Kaiser & Miller, 2003). Reciprocally, the benefits of not confronting such behaviour can sit awkwardly with the costs this has for people's sense of self (e.g., shame, self-directed anger; Shelton & Stewart, 2004). Accordingly, when the costs of confronting perpetrators of discrimination are perceived to be high, victims might simply refrain from confrontation (Crosby, 1993). In addition, because people are more likely to take actions if they believe that they will be effective (Bandura, 1989), people might not confront discrimination if they believe that such behaviour will be ineffective because the perpetrator is unlikely to change (Rattan & Dweck, 2010).

Similarly, when targets of sexual harassment consider the costs and benefits of coming forward, they are likely to come across ample evidence suggesting that formal

reports might not be beneficial to them. For example, in November 2014 Her Majesty's Inspectorate of Constabulary (HMIC) published the results of their inspection of crime data integrity in England and Wales, a report that received wide coverage in the media (e.g., see Travis, 2014). This report detailed that the police were less likely to record sexual offences as crimes compared to other crime types. Indeed, 33% of sexual offences reported to the police were not recorded as a crime, compared to the average 19% under-recording for all crimes (HMIC, 2014). Recent figures released by the Crown Prosecution Service showed that, even when recorded as crimes, conviction rates for sexual offences are very low, especially in cases where the perpetrator is younger (31.6% conviction rate for perpetrators aged 18-24, compared to 45.6% for perpetrators aged 25-59). Ultimately, the conviction rate for sexual offences is much lower than the average conviction rate for all offences, which is 86.6% (BBC, 2018; Topping & Barr, 2018).

In February 2018, Rape Crisis Scotland reported that the conviction rates for rape and attempted rape in Scotland had fallen to the lowest level since 2008-2009, with only 39% of prosecuted cases resulting in a conviction (Rape Crisis Scotland, 2018). In addition, it is also known that very few of the rape cases that are brought to the police are taken to trial, a percentage that has been reported to be as low as 8% in the US (Daly & Bouhours, 2010) and that most rapes reported to the police do not lead to a conviction (RAINN, n.d.). Finally, the outcomes of reporting do not appear any more positive in relation to workplace sexual harassment which is reported to HR. The Trades Union Congress (TUC) 2016 report on workplace sexual harassment in the UK found that of the small percentage of women who reported sexual harassment to their employer three quarters saw no change as a result of their report, and 16% reported that they were subsequently treated worse as a result of their report (TUC, 2016). Statistics like these and accompanying reports of victims being 'let down' by the police feature frequently in the media (see for example Gray, 2018; Dearden, 2018; BBC, 2018,

Kearny, 2018). Public awareness of these statistics, communicated via the media, creates a context in which victims of sexual harassment might not be convinced of the efficacy of reporting their experiences to the authorities. That is, not only is the justice need unlikely to be primary, but also victims are likely to be doubtful about whether filling a formal complaint will meet this need, or at least mindful of the heavy costs of doing so.

For those that do persist with formal processes, in addition to the low likelihood that this will lead to a satisfactory resolution in terms of seeing justice, there is also the danger that the process itself will further erode the negative well-being of victims. Specifically, engaging with formal processes can be traumatising for those who come forward. Far from being helpful, then, engagement with the police, and the process of detailed questioning during a trial (something that is sometimes referred to as ‘second rape’), can leave the complainant feel powerless, and questioning their own credibility (Campbell, Wasco, Ahrens, Sefl, & Barnes, 2001). In sum, the potential costs of reporting sexual harassment, and engaging with formal procedures, are likely to largely outweigh the benefits of such behaviour. In addition to the low likelihood of formal complaints arriving at a positive legal outcome for the complainant, victims need to consider the costs to their self, their well-being, and their relationships with others, who might not understand or agree with the course of action they have taken. All these costs feed into people’s needs – including needs for autonomy, relatedness, and competence – all of which are likely to already be compromised by the initial experience of sexual harassment.

The Present Research: Exploring Victims’ Multiple Needs and Responses

The above discussion highlights the need to move away from the question of ‘why do people not report sexual harassment?’ and towards the questions of ‘What *do* they do?’ and ‘What needs might be met by the actions they do take?’. These alternative questions are grounded in a more sophisticated psychological understanding of

individual needs and how these might be threatened by experiences of sexual harassment, and subsequently restored (or not) through a variety of courses of action. Critically, although victims might often be assumed to be motivated by justice, people are likely to experience a variety of needs after they are sexually harassed, needs that include those for belonging/ relatedness and autonomy, as well as competence, which might subsume or override those for justice alone. While some of these needs might indeed be met through engaging with formal complaints procedures; in the context of the poor record of conviction in sexual harassment cases, when these even get recognised as crimes and brought to trial, and in the context of the traumatising personal and social consequences of coming forward with one's experiences, victims might well choose different avenues through which to meet their needs. For example, if someone's primary need is to discuss the incident and to feel supported by others, it could be expected that they might choose to discuss the incident with a close friend, and decide against engaging with the formal procedures.

As a first step towards furnishing with data this broader perspective on victim needs, and the actions these needs might motivate them to take, we conducted two studies that sought to explore and quantify the various needs people experienced after they were sexually harassed, the actions they took as a result of the sexual harassment, and the extent to which these actions were effective at satisfying their needs. Importantly, we also asked people who had *not* experienced sexual harassment to imagine that they did and respond to the same set of questions by forecasting their needs, actions, and need satisfaction. This method has been used in the past to reveal important discrepancies between the perspective of victims and the perspective of those who imagine being a victim (for example Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2001; Swim & Hyers, 1999), and provided us with insight into potential discrepancies between a real and a perceived 'reasonable' response.

The focus of Study 3 is twofold: we examined psychological needs and actions

directly from people who had experiences with sexual harassment; and we simultaneously compared 'real' responses with the responses of people who had never been sexually harassed but imagined it and reported how they anticipated that they would respond. Taking both these angles is crucial for contributing to both a more accurate image of a 'reasonable' response to sexual harassment and to informing how we treat victims, based on real experiences and true needs, not just those that are expected from them. Comparing these perspectives also allowed us to explore whether discrepancies between real and anticipated responses to sexual harassment are, at least partly, driven by the (mis)perception of salient needs. We also explored participants' affect after having responded to these questions related to sexual harassment, to examine its possible relationship with need satisfaction. Study 4 aimed to replicate and complement this study.

Study 3

Method

Participants. We conducted an online survey with 409 participants. The majority (62.6%, $n = 256$) of the sample reported that they had experienced sexual harassment (henceforth "Experiencers"). The remainder (37.4%, $n = 153$) reported that they had not (henceforth, "Imaginers"). The sample was predominantly female ($n = 248 / 60.6%$; 37.9% male; 1.4% non-binary). Of the participants who reported that they were female or non-binary, 206 had experienced sexual harassment and 48 had not; of the participants who reported that they were male, 50 had experienced sexual harassment and 105 had not. It is noteworthy that the percentage of women reporting experience of sexual harassment in our survey corresponds almost exactly to the estimate from a recent representative survey conducted in the US, whereas the percentage of men reporting experience in our survey is slightly lower than estimated in those data (Kearl, 2018). The mean age was 31 ($SD = 10.2$) and the largest age group

was 25-34 (44.8% of the sample). Almost half (49.5%) of the sample was from the UK. (See Table 1 in Appendix A for further information on the age and national distribution of our sample.)

Procedure. The survey was shared in the local newspaper (Express and Echo), online via social media (Twitter and Facebook), and other online fora (such as Netmums). Participants were also recruited through Prolific Academic. As such, the goal was to recruit as broad a sample as possible rather than one that was representative of any specific society. Upon starting the survey, participants received background information explaining that the survey was about sexual harassment, it was confidential, and participation was voluntary, and they gave their consent to participate on these terms.

Participants were first asked to define what sexual harassment means to them and to type their definition into an open text box provided. After providing their definition, participants were then asked to indicate whether or not they had experienced sexual harassment, as defined by them. Those who reported experience were asked to describe the event, indicate how long ago it took place, and whether it was a single or repeated incident. After this, all participants (both Experiencers and Imaginers) were asked to complete a common set of measures. When completing these measures, Imaginers were asked to respond based on the way they anticipated they would feel if they had been sexually harassed, whereas Experiencers answered with respect to their actual experiences. After completing the measures, participants provided demographic details, including age, gender, nationality, and ethnicity. Finally, they were debriefed and informed that we were interested in the types of support that are most useful for people who have experienced sexual harassment, and in the ways in which answers differed between people who had been sexually harassed and those who had not, but imagined that they had. Full details of all scales and response formats can be found in Appendix A, Table 2.

Measures

Incident evaluation. Participants were asked to evaluate how negative or positive the experience was for them at the time when it occurred (or how they would imagine this if they were sexually harassed), using a five-point scale (1 = very negative, 5 = very positive). Ratings like these have been used in past research to determine whether an incident constitutes sexual harassment since, from a conceptual point of view, an experience is deemed sexually harassing only if the recipient evaluates it negatively. Uninvited sexual attention that is evaluated as positive or neutral is typically not considered sexual harassment (Berdahl & Moore, 2006). From a target's point of view, however, the definition of sexual harassment might not simply reside in the negativity of the experience. This is why we first asked participants to define sexual harassment and then to indicate whether they had experienced an incident that met their own criteria of what constitutes sexual harassment. Nonetheless, we also considered participant's evaluations of their experience (or imagined experience) as a robustness check on the patterns reported in the analyses reported below. Thus, the analyses reported below proceed in two stages: first without accounting for incident evaluation, and then with incident evaluation controlled. Variation in the pattern observed across these analyses are noted in the results.

Needs. Next, we asked about participants' needs (or imagined needs) after experiencing sexual harassment. This involved two steps. First, we asked participants to list their needs in an open text format. This allowed participants to recall the variety of needs they experienced and to describe them in their own words, without being primed by a pre-existing scale. Second, after writing about their own needs, participants were asked to rate the extent to which they experienced a fixed set of needs on a scale that was created by the researchers. This scale was based on the basic psychological needs outlined by self-determination theory – that is, needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2008). The list created covered key needs, namely the need

for self-esteem, self-expression, autonomy, belonging, and meaning. Items included 'I felt the need to feel valued' and 'I felt the need to see justice in the world' (1= very untrue, 7 = very true).

Actions. Next, we asked participants what they did (or imagined they would have done) in response to experiences of sexual harassment. For this, participants were presented with a checklist of possible actions they may, or may not, have taken (or could imagine taking). The list was created by the researchers and was intended to cover a wide variety of possible responses to sexual harassment, including formal actions, such as contacting the police, informal actions such as talking to a friend, and doing nothing at all. Participants were allowed to select as many of the actions as were applicable.

Need satisfaction. After reporting their actions, participants were asked to reflect on the extent to which the actions they took (or imagined taking) successfully satisfied (or they imagine would have satisfied) their needs. For this, they rated the degree of satisfaction of each of the researcher generated list of needs as well as the needs they described themselves in the open question. The degree of need satisfaction was indicated on a scale ranging from 1 (it was not met at all) to 7 (it was met completely). Participants also had the option to indicate 'N/A: I did not have this need'.

Feelings. Anticipated and experienced feelings were assessed using an open text format, as well as the PANAS scale (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Specifically, Experiencers were asked to rate their current feelings, as they recalled the sexually harassing event they described. Imaginers were instead asked to forecast the extent to which they would feel the emotions on the PANAS scale if they had been sexually harassed in the past. Participants rated their agreement with the items using a seven-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree)

Life satisfaction. Experienced and anticipated life satisfaction were assessed using a short version of the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener et al., 1985).

Experiencers answered three questions about their current life satisfaction; whereas Imaginers answered the same three questions based on how satisfied they thought they would feel with their life if they had been sexually harassed in the past. The items were presented as statements with which participants were asked to rate their agreement on a scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree).

Personal self-esteem. Experienced and anticipated personal self-esteem were assessed via a short version of the Rosenberg self-esteem scale. Experiencers rated the extent to which they agreed (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree) with five statements like 'I feel satisfied with myself.' Imaginers were asked to respond to these statements as if they had experienced sexual harassment in the past.

Satisfaction with relationships. Experienced (and imagined) satisfaction with relationships was measured by asking participants the extent to which they agreed with the four items: I (would) feel satisfied with my social relationships, I (would) feel that I am not alone, I (would) feel that people are basically good and trustworthy, I (would) feel that I have a lot in common with other people. Responses were given on a seven-point scale (1= very untrue, 7 = very true).

Optimism. Experienced and anticipated optimism were assessed using 3 items from the revised Life Orientation Test (originally a 10 item scale: Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994). Experiencers rated their current level of optimism, whereas Imaginers estimated the level of optimism they would have felt if they had been sexually harassed. Responses were given on a seven point scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree.

Results:

Incident description. Examination of the descriptions participants provided of harassing experiences revealed that the majority of these took place on the street and in nightlife venues, such as clubs and pubs (34.7%), or at their workplace (23.1%). Only a

minority of people (6.2%) reported sexual harassment in the context of a relationship. The remaining 36% described multiple incidents across one or more of these contexts, did not disclose the context, or described an incident in a different context, such as online harassment, or harassment by a GP. Reported sexual harassment involved both physical and non-physical behaviours (57.1% and 29.2% respectively; 13.6% undisclosed) and incidents perpetrated by strangers (28.9%) as well as by people known to the target (28.9%). The remainder (42.2%) reported several incidents, or did not disclose their relationship with the perpetrator. Although the majority of descriptions consisted of isolated incidents that took place once in the past (62%), just under a third of respondents reported incidents that were repeated but over at the time of the survey (30.8%), whereas a small minority reported repeated events that were still ongoing (7.1%). These descriptions in many ways convey the breadth of sexual harassment as it is experienced – and also indicate that our participants were reflecting on a variety of different things when they answered our questions about needs, feelings, and actions taken.

Needs.

Open question on needs. Participants listed a variety of needs. There was a strong focus on both immediate and long-term safety, ending the incident and preventing it from being repeated. Additionally, people reported the need for self-expression and sharing the experience with people they trusted without being judged. People also reported a host of other needs, such as being able to confront the perpetrator, feeling confident and in control, wanting things to go back to normal, validation and acknowledgment by others, justice, physical needs, emotional relief and societal improvements such as equality and empowerment for women. Again, these open-ended responses speak to the breadth of needs people experience in response to sexual harassment.

Needs scale factor analysis. The 13 items from the researcher-defined needs scale were submitted to a factor analysis.⁴ Principal component analysis was used, because our primary goal was to summarise common variation among variables and compute composite scores. We initially used both varimax and oblimin rotations, but the oblimin rotation was subsequently deemed most suitable for interpretation because it allowed the factors to correlate.

The analysis yielded two factors explaining 59.8% of the variance across items, with Factor 1 explaining 46.79% of the variance and Factor 2 explaining 13.02% of the variance. For completeness, the factor loading matrix for these analyses are presented in Appendix A, Tables 3, 4, 5, 6 and 7. All items in this analysis had primary loadings over .5, except for the item ‘to express myself which split across both Factors (.39 on Factor 1 and .33 on Factor 2). For this reason, self-expression was removed and treated separately. A second principal component analysis of the remaining 12 items revealed 2 factors together explaining 61.9% of variance, with Factor 1 explaining 47.8% of variance and Factor 2 explaining 14% of variance.

Factor 1 was labelled ‘communal needs’ due to high loadings by the following items: To feel valued, to be understood, to feel accepted by others, to feel part of a community, to know that there were others who cared about me, to feel like my life mattered, to feel like my life had meaning, and to see justice in the world. Factor 2 was labelled ‘agentic needs’ due to high loadings by the following items: To be in control, to feel powerful, to make decisions for myself, and to show that I was capable. Cronbach’s alphas for each of these factors were high: $\alpha = .898$ for communal needs and $\alpha = .833$ for agentic needs. Accordingly, two composite measures were created representing stronger

⁴ The factor analyses reported in text were performed on the entire sample. Factor analyses among the Experiencer subsample revealed a similar pattern of results with the exception that the item ‘self-expression’ did not emerge as a separate factor and was subsumed under the communal needs factor. When the analysis reported below was repeated instead using these two factors the same pattern of results emerged.

endorsement of communal and agentic needs in response to the experience (or imagined experience) of sexual harassment.

Multivariate analysis of variance. To analyse patterns of need in response to sexual harassment, we conducted a two-way multivariate analysis of variance with Group (Experiencers, Imaginers) and Gender (Male, Female and Non-binary) as factors and the composite measures of communal needs, agentic needs, as well as the single item assessing needs for self-expression as dependent variables. Although 1.4% of the sample reported identifying as non-binary, this group was too small to be included as a separate category in the analysis. To be conservative about the retention of data, we combined the categories female and non-binary into a single group for analytic purposes.

The multivariate effect of Group was significant, $F(3, 408) = 11.63, p < .001, \eta^2 = .079, 90\% \text{ CI } [.380; .118]$, as was the multivariate effect of Gender, $F(3, 408) = 9.81, p < .001, \eta^2 = .067, 90\% \text{ CI } [.029; .105]$. There was, however, no multivariate interaction between Group and Gender, $F(3, 408) = 1.12, p = .342, \eta^2 = .008, 90\% \text{ CI } [.000; .022]$. The pattern of needs according to Group is depicted in Figure 1.

Univariate effects on each need are reported below.

Communal needs. There was a significant main effect of Group on communal needs, $F(1,410) = 30.78, p < .001, \eta^2 = .07, 90\% \text{ CI } [.035; .112]$: Experiencers ($M = 5.03, SD = 1.37$) endorsed communal needs less strongly than Imaginers ($M = 5.58, SD = 1.04$). A significant main effect of Gender, $F(1,410) = 11.26, p = .001, \eta^2 = .027, 90\% \text{ CI } [.007; .060]$, indicated that female and non-binary participants ($M = 5.28, SD = 1.21$) endorsed communal needs more strongly than male participants ($M = 5.17, SD = 1.40$). At the univariate level, there was also no interaction between the factors, $F(1, 410) = .32, p = .575, \eta^2 = .001, 90\% \text{ CI } [.000; .011]$.

Agentic needs. There was a marginally-significant main effect of Group on agentic needs, $F(1,410) = 3.50, p = .062, \eta^2 = .008, 90\% \text{ CI } [.000; .029]$: Experiencers

($M=5.42$, $SD = 1.29$) reported slightly higher agentic needs than Imaginers ($M=5.36$, $SD = 1.13$). There was a significant main effect of Gender, $F(1,410) = 24.82$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .057$, 90% CI [.026; .097], such that female and non-binary participants ($M=5.61$, $SD = 1.14$) reported stronger needs for agency than male participants ($M=5.06$, $SD = 1.29$). There was no interaction between the factors, $F(1, 410) = 1.44$, $p = .231$, $\eta^2 = .003$, 90% CI [.000; .019].

Self-expression needs. There was no effect of Group on needs for self-expression, $F(1, 410) = 1.23$, $p = .268$, $\eta^2 = .003$, 90% CI [.000; .018]. There was a significant main effect of Gender, $F(1,410) = 16.11$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .038$, 90% CI [.013; .072], such that female and non-binary respondents reported stronger needs for self-expression ($M=5.67$, $SD = 1.55$) than male respondents ($M=5.01$, $SD = 1.76$). Again, there was no interaction between the factors: $F(1, 410) = .06$, $p = .802$, $\eta^2 < .001$, 90% CI [.000; .007].

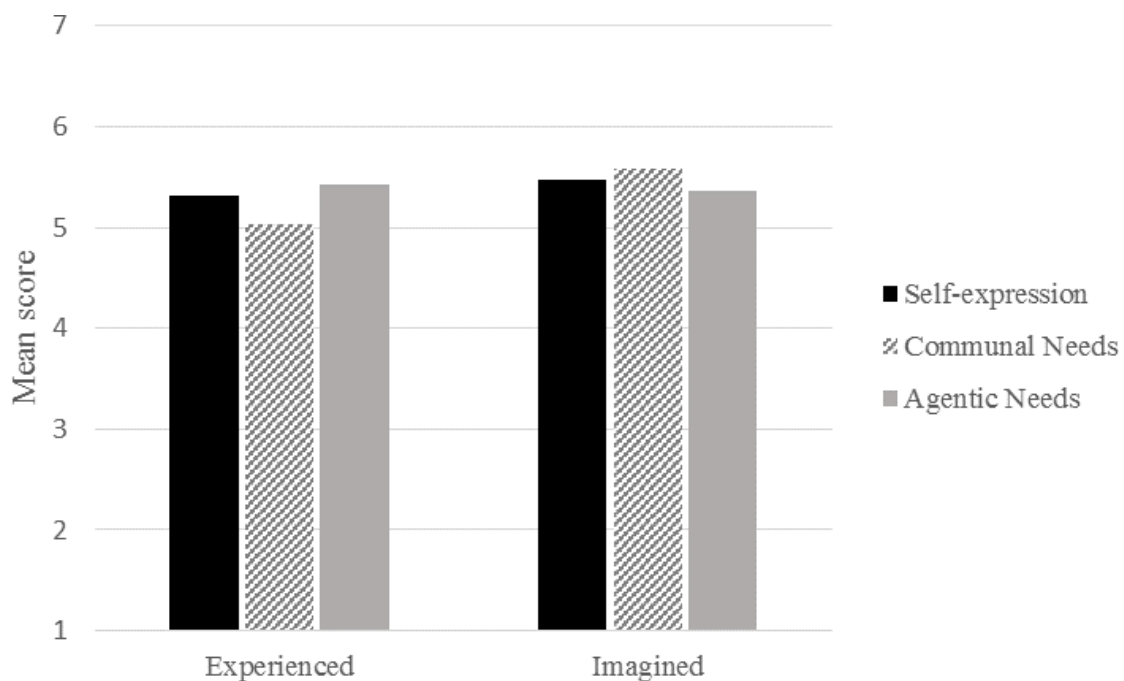


Figure 1. Mean scores of communal, agentic and self-expression needs reported by participants without experience of sexual harassment (Imagined), and participants with experience of sexual harassment (Experience).

Needs summary: Our first goal was to explore what people needed in response to sexual harassment (or what they thought they would need if they had not experienced this). A number of important points emerge from this exploration. First, as revealed by the open-ended data, there are many needs individuals have (or imagine having), some of which are not captured by our researcher-developed scale. In particular, needs for safety were strongly expressed, but are not obviously captured by the communal, agentic, or self-expression needs measured. We return to this in the next study, in which we improve our measure of needs. Another interesting insight is that to the extent that experiencers and imaginers differ, it is in the direction of experiences needing less than others might imagine were they in the same situation. This is especially evident for communal needs in this study. Finally, although there were gender differences in reported needs, experiencers and imaginers differed independently of gender. This is important since experiencer and imaginer groups were not gender balanced and therefore any apparent difference between them could be due to gender differences between the groups. Based on the analysis, this does not seem to be the case.

Actions.

Examination of the action checklist revealed substantial differences between the Experiencer and Imaginer groups. The three actions most frequently reported by Experiencers were: 'Discussed the incident with friends and/or family' (60%), 'Did not do anything about the incident' (45%) and 'Directly confronted the perpetrator(s)' (26%). The most frequently selected option by Imaginers was also 'Would discuss the incident with friends and/or family' (71%). However, their second and third most frequently reported actions were 'Would inform the police' (46.2%) and 'Would search for information and support online' (37.4%).

Also noteworthy is the finding that only 8% of Imaginers thought that they would not do anything about the incident, whereas this was the second most likely response among Experiencers. Conversely, only 7% of Experiencers reported that they

informed the police, whereas this was the second most likely response among Imaginers. The broad pattern of discrepancy between what Experiencers of sexual harassment did, and what others imagined they would do in the same situation, is evident in Figure 2a below. This figure indicates which actions differed significantly by group according to simple chi-square analyses. What is also evident from the figure is that Imaginers see themselves doing more of almost everything in comparison to Experiencers. More complete detail of the actions taken versus imagined can be found in Appendix A, Tables 9 and 10 and the results of the chi-square analyses are in Table 11.

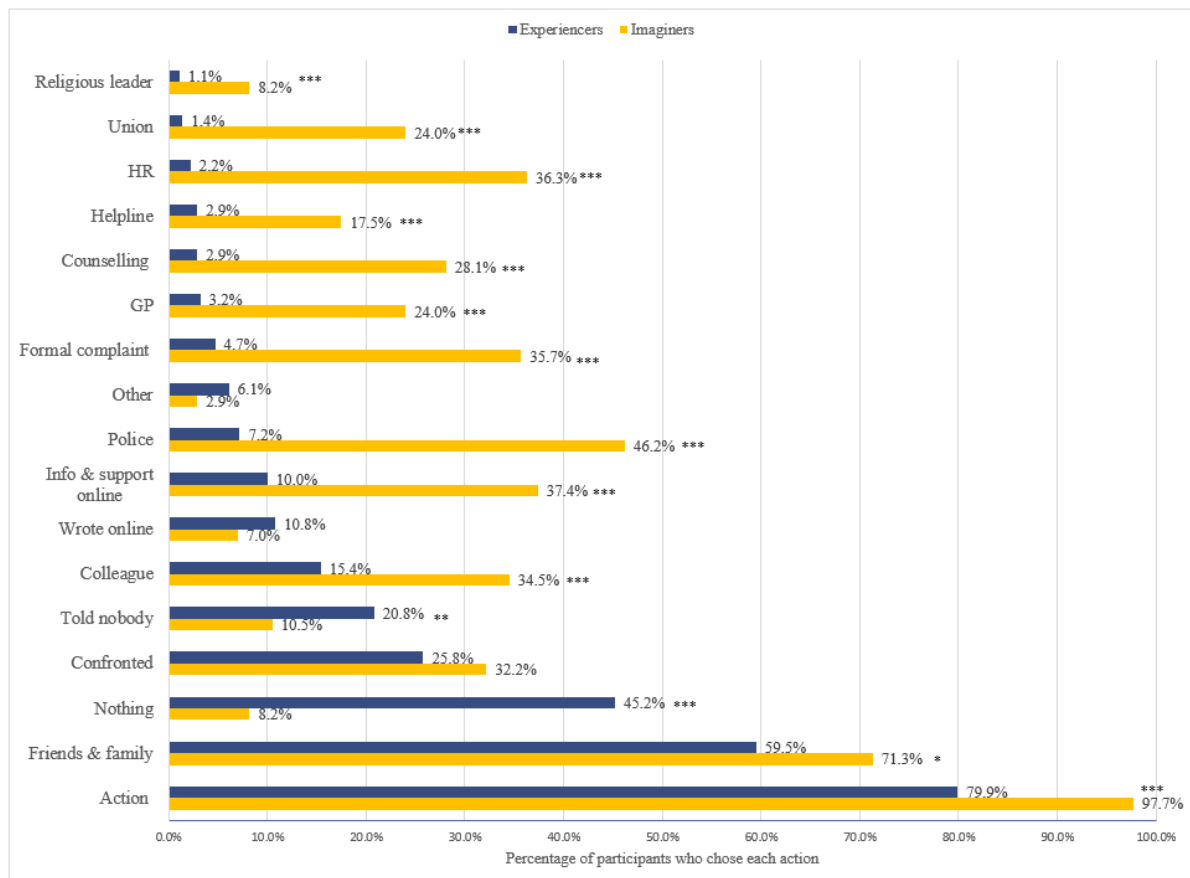


Figure 2a. Percentage of participants who took (or imagined they would take) each action after they were sexually harassed (or imagined they were sexually harassed).

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$; the variable “Action” encompasses all forms of action, that is all actions except ‘Did nothing’ and ‘Told no one’.

Statistical analyses of actions. To explore the pattern of actions taken (or not taken) more systematically, we conducted a General Linear Mixed Model (GLMM). This analysis is similar to other mixed models, which account for hierarchical data (e.g., different actions, nested within individuals, who are nested within different groups), but unlike other mixed models allows for binary outcomes (i.e., action taken or not). This analysis revealed a main effect of Group, such that Experiencers took fewer actions than Imaginers anticipated they would take, $F(1, 6560) = 191.82, p < .001$. It also revealed a main effect of Gender, such that men reported taking (or imagining that they would take) more actions than women, $F(1, 6560) = 34.04, p < .001$.

More important, we found a main effect of Action, $F(15, 6560) = 45.16, p < .001$, which was qualified by a significant interaction with Group, $F(1, 6560) = 35.13, p < .001$, and with Gender, $F(1, 650) = 4.73, p < .011$, indicating that whether or not an action was taken depended on the Group participants belonged to (i.e., Experiencers versus Imaginers) and separately on their gender. The interaction between Group, Gender, and Action was not significant, $F(15, 6560) = 1.53, p = .085$. There was also a significant interaction between Group and Gender, $F(1, 6560) = 17.38, p < .001$, but since this did not qualify the pattern of actions taken (or imagined taken) it was of no interest and not explored further.

To understand the Action x Group interaction, we inspected actions according to participant group and tested the significance of these via chi-square analyses. See Figure 2a for a summary. As can be seen, Imaginers report that they would take all actions more than Experiencers actually did, except for the actions of ‘do nothing’ and ‘tell no one’, for which the pattern was reversed (and except for ‘write online’ and ‘other’, both of which were not strongly endorsed by either group, and ‘directly confront the perpetrator’, which was not significant). To sum up simply: Imaginers were more likely to think they would do anything, and experiencers were more likely to do nothing.

To understand the Action x Gender interaction, we similarly inspected actions according to gender and tested the significance of these via Chi-square. See Figure 2b below for a summary. This figure indicates which actions differed significantly by gender according to simple Chi-square analyses. More complete detail of the Chi-square results can be found in Appendix A, Table 12. As can be seen, men report that they took (or would take) all actions more than women and non-binary participants did (or imagined doing), except for the action of ‘do nothing’, for which the pattern was reversed (and except ‘tell no one’, ‘discuss with friends and family’, ‘write online’, ‘tell a colleague’, and ‘other’, for which the relationship with Gender was not significant).

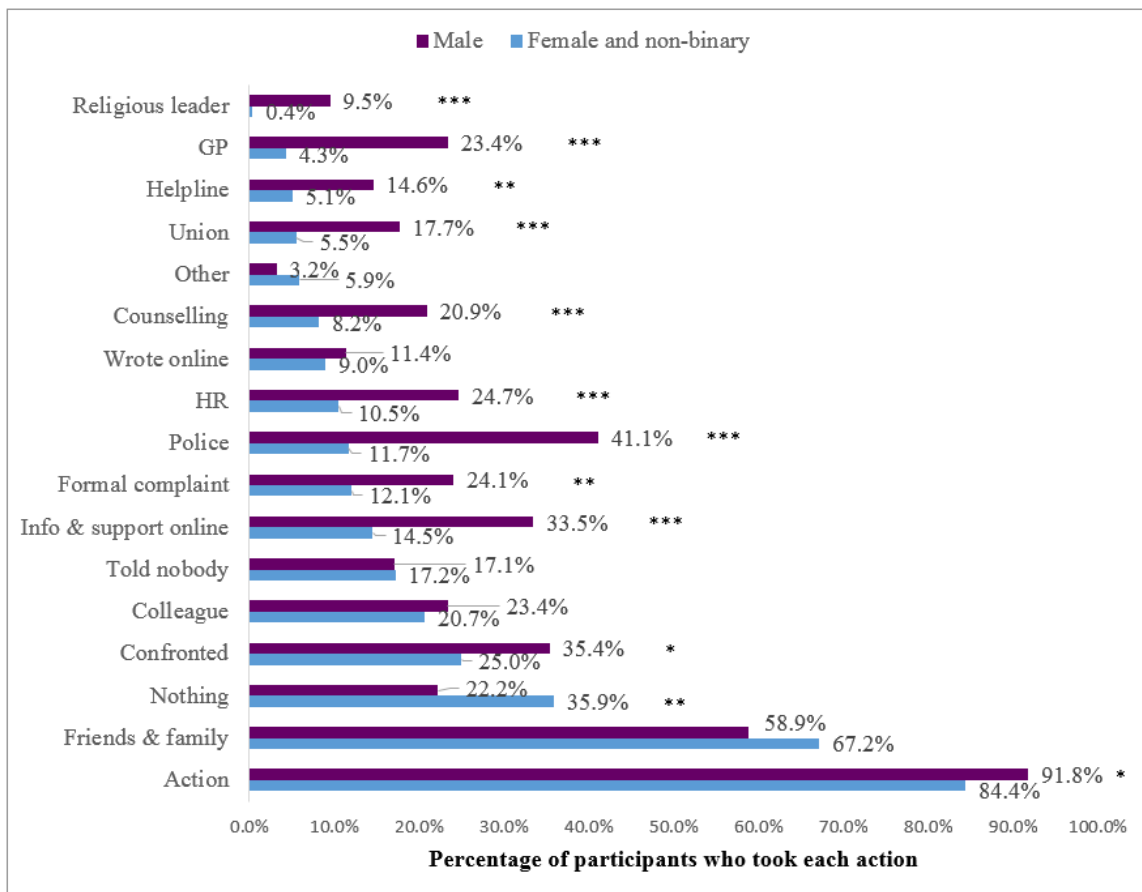


Figure 2b. Percentage of participants who took (or imagined they would take) each action after they were sexually harassed by Gender. Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < .001$; the variable “Action” encompasses all forms of action, that is all actions except ‘Did nothing’ and ‘Told no one’.

Predicting action taking from Group, Gender, and needs.

The above analyses establish that Experiencers both report taking fewer actions than those who imagine themselves in the same situation, and they also report fewer needs, especially communal needs. To explore whether these patterns were connected, we conducted a series of binary logistic regression analyses to predict each specific action taken (versus not) from Group (Experiencer, Imaginer), Gender (Female and Non-Binary, Male), communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression. For these analyses, we focus on actions that were taken by at least 10 % of participants in at least one sub-sample, which resulted in the exclusion of the following actions: ‘spoke with a religious leader’, ‘Other’. Prior to analysis, we check correlations among the independent variables, none of which were highly correlated (see ‘correlations for regression’ Table 13 in Appendix A). We then proceeded with a two-step hierarchical regression in which Group, Gender, and the interaction between Group and Gender were entered at Step 1, and the specific needs (communal, agentic and self-expression) were entered at Step 2. This analysis was performed on each need separately, and allows us to examine whether the already reported effects of Experience on actions taken (or not) are explained by individual differences in reported needs. All significant effects are reported below. For the full results of these analyses see Appendix A, Tables 14 to 28.

Did nothing. The already reported effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = .06$, $Wald(1) = 31.6$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.02; .17], but no other effects were significant.

Told Nobody. The already reported effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = .21$, $Wald(1) = 11.55$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.09; .52]. There was also a significant main effect of Gender on the likelihood of participants reporting that they did not tell (or would not tell) anybody, $Exp(B) = .48$, $Wald(1) = 4.18$, $p = .041$, 95% CI [.24; .97]. No other effects were significant.

Informed the police. The already reported effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = 5.91$, $Wald(1) = 14.62$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.38; 14.69]. Furthermore there was a main effect of communal needs on reporting to the police, $Exp(B) = 1.56$, $Wald(1) = 7.51$, $p = .006$, 95% CI [1.13; 2.14]. For a unit increase in reported communal needs participants were 1.56 times more likely to report that they would (or did) report the incident to the police. Agentic needs were also a significant predictor, $Exp(B) = .74$, $Wald(1) = 4.63$, $p = .031$, 95% CI [.56; .97] indicating that for each unit increase of reported agentic needs, participants were .74 times *less* likely to inform the police. No other effects were significant.

Other formal complaint. The already reported effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = 8.40$, $Wald(1) = 10.87$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.37; 29.79]. No other effects were significant.

Told my GP. The previously reported effect of Group was no longer significant in this analysis, whereas the effect of Gender remained, $Exp(B) = .11$, $Wald(1) = 9.14$, $p = .003$, 95% CI [.06; .46]. Male participants were 9.09 times more likely to report that they told or would tell their GP. There were also significant main effects of communal needs, $Exp(B) = 2.00$, $Wald(1) = 10.19$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [1.31; 3.06], and self-expression needs, $Exp(B) = .77$, $Wald(1) = 4.15$, $p = .042$, 95% CI [.60; .99]. For a unit increase in reported communal needs, participants were 2 times more likely to tell their GP. Conversely, for each unit increase of reported needs for self-expression participants were .77 times *less* likely to do so. No other effects were significant.

Confronted the perpetrator. There was neither an effect of Group nor was there any effect of Gender. Instead, we found significant main effects of all three sets of needs: communal needs $Exp(B) = .71$, $Wald(1) = 8.44$, $p = .004$, 95% CI [.57; .90]; agentic needs $Exp(B) = 1.44$, $Wald(1) = 9.24$, $p = .002$, 95% CI [1.14; 1.83]; self-expression needs $Exp(B) = 1.23$, $Wald(1) = 5.85$, $p = .016$, 95% CI [1.04; 1.46]. For each unit increase in reported communal needs, participants were .71 times *less* likely to

confront the perpetrator. On the other hand, for each unit increase in agentic and self-expression needs, participants were 1.44 and 1.23 times more likely to report that they would (or did) confront the perpetrator. Therefore, needs appear to be especially important for understanding confrontation behaviour.

Told friends and/or family. The already reported effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = 3.22$, $Wald(1) = 10.21$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [1.57; 6.61]. There was also a main effect of Gender, $Exp(B) = 2.68$, $Wald(1) = 8.97$, $p = .003$, 95% CI [1.41; 5.10]. Female and non-binary participants were 2.68 times more likely to report that they told or would tell their friends and/or family. Finally, participants' ratings of the need for self-expression were statistically significant predictors of whether or not they told (or would tell) their friends and/or family, $Exp(B) = 1.16$, $Wald(1) = 3.90$, $p = .048$, 95% CI [1.00; 1.35]. For each unit increase in reported self-expression needs participants were 1.16 times more likely to report that they told (or would tell) their friends and/or family.

Sought professional emotional support. The already reported effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = 4.36$, $Wald(1) = 5.14$, $p = .023$, 95% CI [1.22; 15.58]. Participants' ratings of communal needs were also significant predictors of seeking (or saying they would seek) professional emotional support, $Exp(B) = 2.17$, $Wald(1) = 11.94$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [1.40; 3.36]. For each unit increase in communal needs participants were 2.17 times more likely to seek professional emotional support.

Sought information and support online. The already reported effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = 2.33$, $Wald(1) = 3.99$, $p = .046$, 95% CI [1.02; 5.34]. There was also a significant main effect of Gender, $Exp(B) = .31$, $Wald(1) = 6.85$, $p = .009$, 95% CI [.13; .75]. Male participants were 3.23 times more likely to report that they would do so. Finally, participants' ratings of their communal needs were also significant predictors, $Exp(B) = 1.35$, $Wald(1) = 4.10$, $p = .043$, 95% CI [1.01;

1.80]. For each unit increase in communal needs participants were 1.35 times more likely to seek information and support online.

Wrote about their experience online. None of the independent variables were significantly related to writing online.

Contacted a helpline. The previous reported effect of Group was not significant in this analysis, and was instead replaced by a significant interaction between Group and Gender, $Exp(B) = 7.64$, $Wald(1) = 4.91$, $p = .027$, 95% CI [1.26; 46.20]. The main effect of Gender was also significant, $Exp(B) = .16$, $Wald(1) = 5.29$, $p = .021$, 95% CI [.03; .76]. Male participants were 6.25 times more likely to report that they would contact a helpline. Finally, participants' ratings of their communal needs were also significant predictors of contacting a helpline, $Exp(B) = 2.65$, $Wald(1) = 12.51$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.54; 4.54]. For each unit increase in communal needs participants were 2.65 times more likely to contact a helpline.

HR advice. The already reported effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = 12.91$, $Wald(1) = 11.29$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [2.90; 57.37], but there were no additional effects of the other predictors.

Contact professional union. The already reported effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = 8.93$, $Wald(1) = 7.98$, $p = .005$, 95% CI [1.95; 40.82], but there were no additional effects of the other predictors.

Told a colleague. The already reported effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = 3.78$, $Wald(1) = 6.33$, $p = .012$, 95% CI [1.34; 10.65]. In addition to this, there was a marginally significant main effect of participants' ratings of self-expression needs, $Exp(B) = 1.21$, $Wald(1) = 3.73$, $p = .053$, 95% CI [1.00; 1.48]. For each unit increase in self-expression needs participants were 1.21 times more likely to report that they told (or would tell) a colleague.

Summary: The binary logistic regressions mostly replicate the already reported effects of Group (Experiencer versus Imaginer) on actions taken (or not). Although

different needs were related to different actions taken, differences in these needs did not seem to provide possible explanations for the effects of Group, which mostly persisted when needs were controlled (with the exception of the actions of talking to a GP and calling a helpline). As such, although Experiencers do report lower needs than Imaginers, especially for communion, this does not provide a systematic explanation for why they took less action than Imaginers expected themselves to.

Needs satisfaction.

Factor analysis. Like the original needs, the 13 items assessing need satisfaction were also examined prior to analysis using principal components factor analysis, with both varimax and oblimin rotations.⁵ In this analysis, all 13 items correlated at least .3 with at least one other item, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (KMO =.935) was ‘marvellous’ (Hutcheson & Sofroniou, 1999), and Bartlett’s test of sphericity was highly significant, $\chi^2(78) = 3787.55, p < .001$, and communalities were all above .3. These indicators confirm the suitability of factor analysis.

The analysis revealed two factors explaining 78.21% of the variance across items. Factor 1 explained 70.08% of the variance and Factor 2 explained a further 8.12% of the variance. Interpretation of these factors was based on the oblimin solution, since this allows for the factor to correlate. All items showed primary loadings on their factor of over .5, and the overall pattern was very similar to the factor analysis on the needs themselves (see Appendix A, Tables 29, 30 and 31 for full details).

There were, however, two differences. Unlike the initial analysis of needs, in the analysis of need satisfaction, self-expression did not split across factors (.758 on Factor 1 and .128 on Factor 2). In addition, whereas the need for justice in the world originally loaded highly on a communal needs factor, in relation to need satisfaction this instead

⁵ This factor analysis was conducted on the entire sample. Factor analyses conducted on the Experience subsample revealed the same results as reported in the main text.

loaded on the agentic factor (factor loading = .596) rather than the communal factor (loading = .249).

Despite these differences, in order to ensure consistency across experienced needs and satisfied needs, the satisfaction of self-expression needs was examined separately. A further factor analysis without this item produced the same pattern, with satisfaction of the need to see justice in the world still loading on an agentic Factor more than a communal factor (.569, vs. .291). Full details of this analysis are found in Appendix A, Tables 32, 33, and 34.

Despite this anomaly, to ensure comparability with measured needs, we created composite measures of need satisfaction to represent satisfaction communal needs and satisfaction of agentic needs. Accordingly, the item assessing need for justice in the world was included on the communal rather than agentic needs satisfaction scale. Cronbach's alphas indicated that these composite measures were reliable: $\alpha = .949$ for satisfied communal needs and $\alpha = .935$ for satisfied agentic needs. The alpha for satisfied communal needs could have been improved by removing the satisfaction of world justice, but only slightly so ($\alpha = .951$). In addition, the alpha for satisfied agentic needs would have been slightly impaired by the inclusion of satisfied world justice, $\alpha = .929$.

Multivariate analysis of variance. The aim of this analysis was to test the extent to which participants' actions met their (real or imagined) needs. Multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to explore the effects of Group, Gender, and their interaction on the reported satisfaction of communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression. This analysis showed significant multivariate effects of Group, $F(3, 353) = 8.35, p < .001, \eta^2 = .066, 90\% \text{ CI } [.026; .106]$, Gender, $F(3, 353) = 3.51, p = .016, \eta^2 = .029, 90\% \text{ CI } [.003; .057]$, as well as a Group x Gender interaction, $F(3, 353) = 2.65, p = .048, \eta^2 = .022, 90\% \text{ CI } [.000; .047]$. Figure 3 displays mean levels of need across Experiencer and Imaginer groups. Univariate effects for each need are explored further below.

Satisfied communal needs. The main effect of Group on communal needs was significant, $F(1, 355) = 21.94, p < .001, \eta^2 = .058, 90\% \text{ CI } [.025; .102]$: Experiencers were significantly *less* satisfied ($M = 4.05, SD = 1.85$) than Imaginers ($M = 5.24, SD = 1.22$). There were also significant Gender effects, $F(1, 355) = 5.78, p = .017, \eta^2 = .016, 90\% \text{ CI } [.002; .044]$: Female and non-binary participants reported less satisfaction of communal needs ($M = 4.15, SD = 1.78$) than the male participants ($M = 5.11, SD = 1.46$). There was no univariate interaction effect for the satisfaction of communal needs, $F(1, 355) = 1.54, p = .215, \eta^2 = .004, 90\% \text{ CI } [.000; .023]$.

Satisfied agentic needs. There was a significant main effect of Group on agentic needs, $F(1, 355) = 17.39, p < .001, \eta^2 = .047, 90\% \text{ CI } [.017; .087]$: Experiencers reported *less* satisfaction of agentic needs ($M = 3.90, SD = 1.86$) than Imaginers ($M = 5.03, SD = 1.44$). There was also a significant main effect of Gender, $F(1, 355) = 4.50, p = .035, \eta^2 = .013, 90\% \text{ CI } [.001; .038]$: Female and non-binary participants reported less satisfaction of agentic needs ($M = 4.00, SD = 1.86$) than the male participants ($M = 4.91, SD = 1.52$).

A significant interaction between Group and Gender, $F(1, 355) = 6.27, p = .013, \eta^2 = .017, 90\% \text{ CI } [.002; .046]$, indicated that among Experiencers the gender difference was present, with Female and non-binary respondents reporting significantly lower satisfaction of agentic needs ($M = 3.75, SD = 1.87$) than the male participants ($M = 4.76, SD = 1.80$), $t(229) = -3.31, p = .001$, whereas this gender difference was not evident among Imaginers, $t(150) = .312, p = .756$. Looked at differently, among female and non-binary participants, there was an effect of Group, $t(230) = -4.63, p < .001$, such that Experiencers reported less need satisfaction ($M = 3.75, SD = 1.87$) than Imaginers ($M = 5.12, SD = 1.57$), whereas there was no group difference among male participants, $t(149) = -1.04, p = .300$.

Satisfied self-expression needs. There was a significant main effect of Group on the satisfaction of self-expression needs, $F(1, 355) = 21.48, p < .001, \eta^2 = .057, 90\% \text{ CI }$

[.024; .100]: Experiencers reported less satisfaction of self-expression needs ($M=4.40$, $SD = 2.05$) than Imaginers ($M=5.51$, $SD = 1.39$). There was no effect of Gender, $F(1, 355) = .246$, $p = .620$, $\eta^2 = .001$, 90% CI [.000; .012], and no interaction between the factors, $F(1, 355) = .586$, $p = .445$, $\eta^2 = .002$, 90% CI [.000; .016].

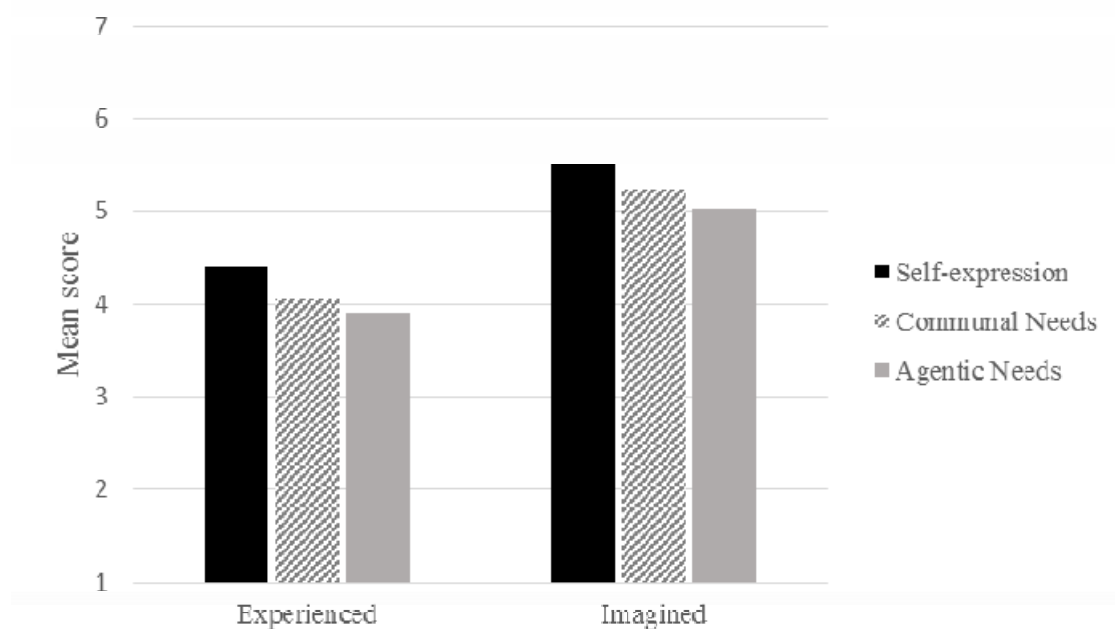


Figure 3. Mean scores of satisfied communal, agentic and self-expression needs reported by participants without experience of sexual harassment (Imaginers), and participants with experience of sexual harassment (Experiencers).

Need satisfaction summary: The pattern on need satisfaction complements and extends that observed for the needs themselves. Again, experiencers and imaginers differed in the degree to which needs were satisfied by actions taken, and again this was in the direction of experiencers feeling less satisfied by the actions they took than others might imagine being were they in the same situation. This time, the discrepancy between experienced and imagined needs satisfaction was not limited to communal needs, but extended across all needs. Again, although there were gender differences in reported (or expected) need satisfaction, experiencers and imaginers differed largely independently of gender. The exception was in relation to the satisfaction of agentic

needs. Here gender differences emerged among experiencers, with male experiencers reporting more satisfaction than female or non-binary experiencers. Despite this one finding, a general pattern is now emerging in which the difference between experiencing and imagining sexual harassment does not seem to be reducible to the difference in male and female/ non-binary perspectives on this.

Current feelings.

Factor analysis. As described in Measures, Experiencers were asked about their current feelings whereas Imaginers were asked about the feelings they think they would have right now if they had been sexually harassed. Prior to analysing these data, we explored the factor structure of reported feelings.⁶ For this we used principal component analysis, initially with both varimax and oblimin rotations. Preliminary data from this confirmed that: all 20 items correlated at least .3 with at least one other item; the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy was .892, which indicated a strong (or ‘meritorious’, Kaiser, 1974) relationship among variables; Bartlett’s test of sphericity was highly significant, $\chi^2(190) = 4828.64$, $p < .001$, and; all communalities were above .3. On this basis, factor analysis was suitable.

The analysis itself yielded four factors with eigenvalues above 1, explaining 67.03% of the variance for the entire set of variables. Factor 1 explained 29.98% of variance, Factor 2 explained 24.13%, Factor 3 explained 7.87%, and Factor 4 explained 5.06%. Because factors correlated, we inspected the oblimin rotated solution (see Appendix A, Tables 35, 36, and 37 for full details). Factor 1 was labelled ‘shame’, because the most highly loading item was ‘ashamed’, with additional loadings of ‘guilty’, ‘scared’, ‘nervous’, and ‘afraid’. Factor 2 was labelled ‘excitement’ due to the highest loading item being ‘excited’; the remaining four highly loading items were

⁶ This factor analysis was conducted on the full sample. Factor analyses conducted on the Experience subsample revealed the same results as reported in the main text.

‘enthusiastic’, ‘proud’, ‘interested’, and ‘inspired’. Factor 3 was labelled ‘attentiveness’, because the most highly loading item on this Factor was ‘attentive’; ‘determined’, ‘active’, ‘strong’, and ‘alert’ also loaded highly on Factor 3. Finally Factor 4 was labelled anxiety, due to high loadings by the following factors: ‘tense’, ‘irritable’, ‘distressed’, ‘upset’, and ‘hostile’. ‘Strong’ and ‘tense’ loaded across Factors 3 and 4, but we assigned them to factor with the highest loading.

Cronbach’s alphas indicated high reliability for all four Factors: Factor 1 $\alpha = .881$; Factor 2 $\alpha = .866$; Factor 3 $\alpha = .799$, and; Factor 4 $\alpha = .836$. Removing strong and tense from their assigned factors would only have resulted in minimal improvements to alpha. Accordingly, we averaged across items associated with each factor to create measures of shame, excitement, attentiveness, and anxiety.

Multivariate analysis of variance. A two-way multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to explore the effects of Group, Gender and their interaction across reported feelings of shame, excitement, attentiveness, and anxiety. This analysis revealed significant multivariate effects of Group, $F(4, 402) = 13.24, p < .001, \eta^2 = .116$, 90% CI [.065; .159], Gender, $F(4, 402) = 12.69, p < .001, \eta^2 = .112$, 90% CI [.062; .155], and their interaction, $F(4, 402) = 3.58, p = .007, \eta^2 = .034$, 90% CI [.006; .060]. Figure 4 summarises feelings according to Experiencer and Imaginer group. Univariate effects for each feeling are explored further below.

Shame. There was a significant main effect of Group on shame, $F(1, 405) = 21.09, p < .001, \eta^2 = .049$, 90% CI [.021; .088]: Experiencers reported less shame ($M = 3.24, SD = 1.61$) than Imaginers ($M = 4.08, SD = 1.43$). There was no main effect of Gender $F(1, 405) = .02, p = .881, \eta^2 < .001$, 90% CI [.000; .002], and no interaction between the factors on shame, $F(1, 405) = 1.03, p = .310, \eta^2 = .003$, 90% CI [.000; .017].

Excitement. There was a significant main effect of Group on excitement, $F(1, 405) = 15.62, p < .001, \eta^2 = .037$, 90% CI [.013; .072]: Experiencers reported more

excitement ($M= 2.91, SD = 1.43$) than Imaginers ($M= 2.82, SD = 1.37$). There was also a significant main effect of Gender, $F(1, 405) = 38.94, p <.001, \eta^2 = .088, 90\% CI [.049; .134]$, with the female and non-binary participants reporting lower excitement ($M=2.60, SD = 1.24$) than male participants ($M=3.33, SD =1.55$). Finally, there was also an interaction between these factors, $F(1, 405) = 6.14, p = .014, \eta^2 = .015, 90\% CI [.002; .040]$.

Analyses of simple effects showed that among Experiencers, female and non-binary participants reported lower excitement ($M=2.65, SD = 1.23$) than male participants ($M=4.01, SD = 1.67$), $t(62) = -5.43, p <.001$. This pattern was also evident, but weaker, among Imaginers: Female and non-binary participants again reported lower excitement ($M= 2.42, SD = 1.28$) than male participants ($M=3.01, SD = 1.38$), $t(151) = -2.51, p = .013$. Looked at differently, There was no group difference among female and non-binary participants, $t(153) = 1.17, p = .245$, whereas among male participants Experiencers reported higher excitement ($M= 4.01, SD = 1.67$) than Imaginers ($M=3.01, SD =1.38$), $t(153) = 3.97, p <.001$.

Attentiveness. On attentiveness there were no effects, neither of Group, $F(1, 405) = .19, p = .667, \eta^2 = .001, 90\% CI [.000; .010]$, Gender, $F(1, 405) = 3.34, p = .067, \eta^2 = .008, 90\% CI [.000; .023]$, nor their interaction, $F(1, 405) = .09, p = .762, \eta^2 < .001, 90\% CI [.000; .008]$.

Anxiety. There was a significant main effect of Group on anxiety, $F(1, 405) = 9.43, p = .002, \eta^2 = .023, 90\% CI [.005; .052]$: Experiencers reported significantly lower anxiety ($M= 4.19, SD = 1.43$) than Imaginers ($M=4.55, SD = 1.15$). There was no further effect of Gender, $F(1, 405) = 3.24, p = .072, \eta^2 = .005, 90\% CI [.000; .022]$, and no interaction between the factors, ($F(1, 405) = 1.62, p = .204, \eta^2 = .004, 90\% CI [.000; .021]$).

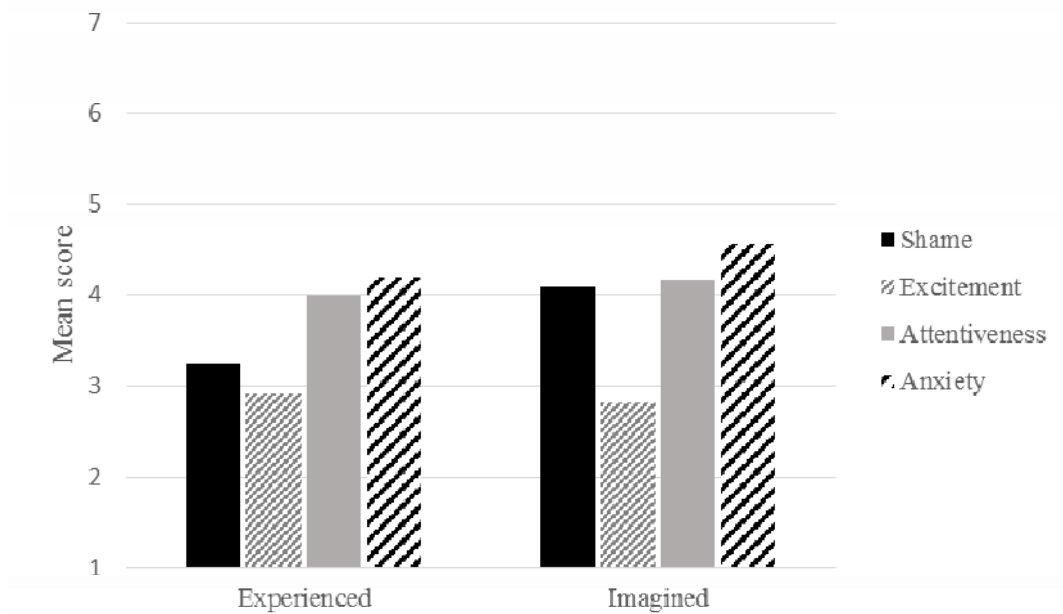


Figure 4. Mean scores of shame, excitement, attentiveness, and anxiety reported by Imaginers and Experiencers.

Feelings summary: Again, we see that Experiencers and Imaginers diverge, and the divergence is mostly in the direction of Experiencers feeling less emotional than Imaginers would anticipate themselves being had they encountered the same events. Although feelings also differed according to gender, mostly gender differences did not account for the divergence between Experiencers and Imaginers. The only exception to this was excitement, for which Experiences reported feeling slightly more than Imaginers anticipated, an effect that was mostly due to male Experiencers reporting more excitement.

Life satisfaction, Personal self-esteem, Satisfaction with relationships, and Optimism.

Multivariate analysis of variance. The purpose of this analysis was to explore whether experiencing sexual harassment was associated with lower life and relationship satisfaction, self-esteem and optimism. A Multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to compare the effects of Group, Gender and their interaction across the outcomes of life satisfaction, personal self-esteem, relationship satisfaction, and

optimism. This revealed a significant multivariate effect of Experience, $F(4, 403) = 7.88$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .073$, 90% CI [.031; .109]. There was no significant multivariate effect of Gender, $F(4, 403) = 1.79$, $p = .130$, $\eta^2 = .017$, 90% CI [.000; .035], or a significant multivariate interaction effect, $F(4, 403) = .04$, $p = .997$, $\eta^2 < .001$, 90% CI [.000; .000]. Figure 5 summarises these outcomes according to Experiencer and Imaginer groups. Univariate effects on each outcome are detailed below.

Life satisfaction. There was a significant effect of Group on life satisfaction, $F(1, 406) = 26.21$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .061$, 90% CI [.028; .102]: Experiencers reported higher life satisfaction ($M = 4.77$, $SD = 1.57$) than Imaginers ($M = 3.83$, $SD = 1.40$). There was no further effect of Gender, $F(1, 406) = 5.58$, $p = .019$, $\eta^2 = .014$, 90% CI [.001; .038], and no interaction between the factors, $F(1, 406) = .01$, $p = .917$, $\eta^2 < .001$, 90% CI [.000; .001].

Personal self-esteem. There was a significant effect of Group on personal self-esteem, $F(1, 406) = 20.89$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .049$, 90% CI [.020; .087]: Experiencers reported higher personal self-esteem ($M = 5.30$, $SD = 1.16$) than Imaginers ($M = 4.53$, $SD = 1.11$). Here there was also a significant effect of Gender, $F(1, 406) = 5.578$, $p = .019$, $\eta^2 = .014$, 90% CI [.001; .038], such that female and non-binary participants reported significantly higher levels of personal self-esteem ($M = 5.24$, $SD = 1.17$) than male participants ($M = 4.63$, $SD = 1.14$). There was no interaction between Gender and Group, $F(1, 406) = .001$, $p = .971$, $\eta^2 < .001$, 90% CI [.000; .000].

Relationship satisfaction. There was a significant effect of Group on anticipated relationship satisfaction, $F(1, 406) = 9.55$, $p = .002$, $\eta^2 = .023$, 90% CI [.005; .052]: Experiencers reported higher relationship satisfaction ($M = 4.78$, $SD = 1.35$) than Imaginers anticipated for themselves ($M = 4.26$, $SD = 1.26$). There was no further effect of Gender, $F(1, 406) = .205$, $p = .651$, $\eta^2 = .001$, 90% CI [.000; .010], and no interaction between factors, $F(1, 406) = .11$, $p = .739$, $\eta^2 < .001$, 90% CI [.000; .008].

Optimism. There was a significant effect of Group on optimism, $F(1, 406) = 9.45, p = .002, \eta^2 = .023, 90\% \text{ CI } [.005; .052]$: Experiencers reported higher levels of optimism about the future ($M = 4.90, SD = 1.32$) than Imaginers ($M = 4.34, SD = 1.17$). There was no further effect of Gender, $F(1, 406) = 2.09, p = .149, \eta^2 = .005, 90\% \text{ CI } [.000; .023]$, and no interaction between the factors, $F(1, 406) = .07, p = .794, \eta^2 < .001, 90\% \text{ CI } [.000; .007]$.

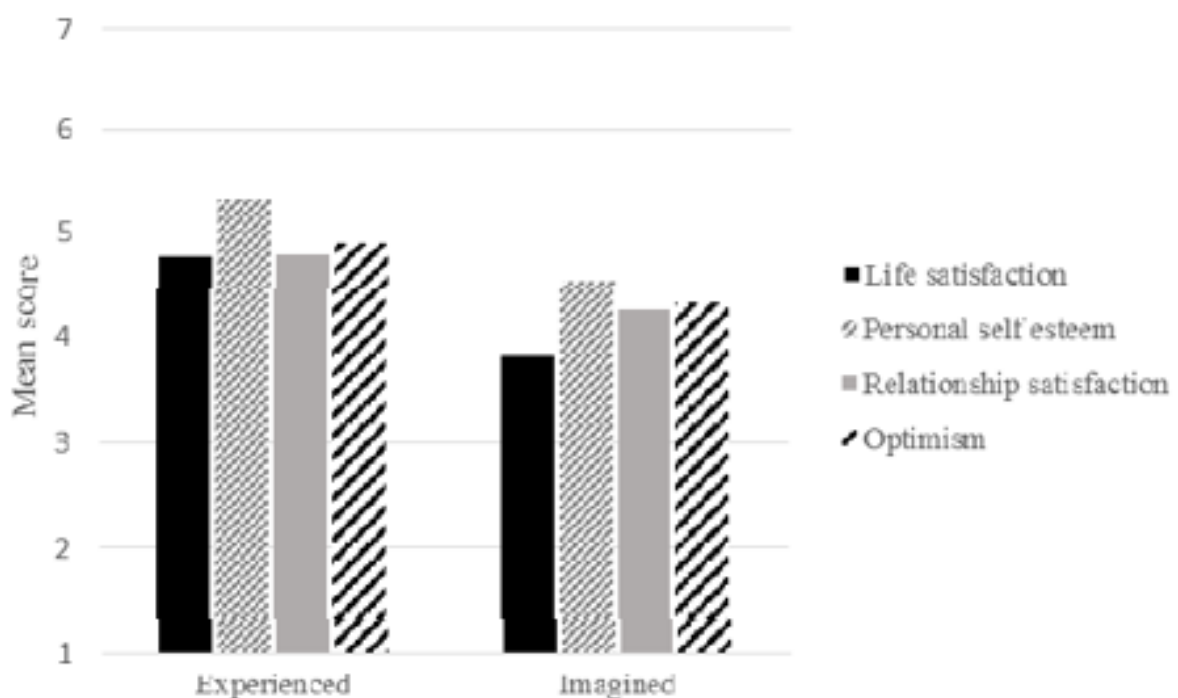


Figure 5. Mean scores of life satisfaction, personal self-esteem, relationship satisfaction, and optimism reported by Imaginers and Experiencers.

Life outcomes summary: Yet again we observe divergence between Experiencers and Imaginers, a divergence that is not reducible to gender differences. In contrast to the other dependent variables considered, which mostly showed that Experiencers reported less needs, actions, and satisfaction, than Imaginers, here we see Experiencers reporting more: Experiencers were more satisfied with their lives, their relationships, themselves, and more optimistic than Imaginers anticipated being if they had encountered sexual

harassment. We return to this apparent evidence of positive outcomes among Experiencers in the discussion.

Accounting for incident evaluations.

For the analyses reported above, we ignored variation in the evaluation of the events participants were reporting on (or imagining) because we wanted to remain true to their own definition of sexual harassment. The survey asked them to define sexual harassment, and then to report or imagine experiences that were consistent with their own definitions. However, in the literature more broadly, it is typical to define sexual harassment in relation to the valence of the experience: Even unwanted sexual attention would not typically be considered harassment if the individual perceived it positively. When we assessed the evaluation of the harassing incident, it was clear that some participants were reporting or imagining events that were to them positive. More important, incident evaluation differed between Experiencer and Imaginer groups: 52% of Imaginers were reflecting on events that were rated as ‘very negative’, compared to 45% of Experiencers, who reported on ‘very negative’ incidents. This opens up an alternative explanation for the pattern of divergence we observe throughout the results: Perhaps Experiencers report more needs, more action, and more satisfaction with those actions, because they are imagining events that are worse than those reported by the Experiencers.

There are two ways to deal with this potential confound. One is to simply control for incident evaluation in the analyses reported above. The other would be to restrict the analysis to the subsample of people who were reporting or imagining *negative* events, that is events that meet some common external definition of harassment. We did both. For the sake of brevity, in the space below we summarise the effects of simply controlling for incident evaluation in the above analyses. For a more complete analysis – and one that fully harmonises participants around the consideration of negative events – we repeated all analyses on the restricted subsample of participants

who reported or imagined events that were evaluated by them as being negative or very negative. This more focussed analysis is reported in Appendix C.

Controlling for incident evaluation in the above analyses produced very few differences to what has already been reported. The main effect of Group on agentic needs, which was marginally significant before controlling for the covariate, became significant after controlling for the covariate. With the exception of two actions (seeking professional emotional support and seeking information and support online), all other main effects of Group remained. A few of the main effects of Gender were eliminated after controlling for the covariate, namely the main effects of Gender on the satisfaction of communal and agentic needs, and the actions not telling anyone and contacting a helpline. Conversely, the main effect of Gender became significant for the action telling the police and feeling optimistic after controlling for the covariate. Finally, the previously reported interaction effects on the feeling of excitement and the multivariate interaction effect on need satisfaction were eliminated. In summary, controlling for the incident evaluation did not lead to any substantial differences from the main analysis. Most main effects of Group remain, Gender effects remain significant for needs, some actions, excitement, personal self-esteem, and optimism, while interaction effects only remain significant for satisfied agentic needs and marginally significant for the action of contacting a helpline. All analyses can be found in Appendix B.

Discussion Study 3

In this study we explored the effects of gender and perspective on participants' (real versus imagined) needs, actions, needs satisfaction, feelings, life satisfaction, personal self-esteem, optimism, and satisfaction with social relationships after the (real or imagined) experience of sexual harassment. As reported in the results section, we found significant main effects of Group and Gender, as well as significant interactions between these variables across a number of the outcome variables. Importantly, the

effects of Group typically remained significant after controlling for incident evaluation. However, after controlling for the covariate, some of the main effects of Gender, and the interactions involving this variable, did not always survive. This suggests that any apparent differences between men and women might arise from them experiencing or imagining events that are different (or of different valence)—and that when the events themselves (real or imagined) are more comparable, men and women do not differ in their needs, actions, or outcomes in meaningful ways. For this reason we will not discuss the effects of gender further, since we believe these to be mostly artefactual.

Although the primary goal of this study was exploratory, we did have some specific expectations. Primary among these was the expectation that people would have multiple psychological needs after they have been sexually harassed. Our results support this idea: Participants in the Experience subsample indicated that they had communal, agentic, and self-expression needs, which (albeit lower than the needs anticipated by Imaginers) all scored above the midpoint.⁷

We also expected that people might not report sexual harassment formally because a formal report would not meet their psychological needs. Due to the low percentage of Experiencers who took any form of formal action, we are not able to conclude whether that is the case. However, in relation to the actions people did choose to take after experiencing sexual harassment, we also expected that they would take a range of actions some of which are informal and do not involve making a report. Our results support this idea, and highlight both the multiplicity of actions taken by the Experience subsample, as well as the low number of formal actions taken by this subsample.

We had also proposed that each need people have might have a unique contribution to the actions they choose to take. There was some support in our results

⁷ All needs were significantly above the scale midpoint for the Experience subsample: self-expression $t(279) = 13.61, p < .001$; communal $t(279) = 12.41, p < .001$; agentic $t(279) = 18.45, p < .001$.

for this suggestion, with communal needs being positively associated with a higher number of actions (namely informing the police, telling their GP, seeking counselling, seeking support and information online, and contacting a helpline) compared to agentic and self-expression needs. Some actions were positively associated with some needs and negatively associated with others. For example, we found that communal needs were positively associated with reporting the incident to the police; conversely, agentic needs were negatively associated with doing so. In addition, communal needs were negatively associated with directly confronting the perpetrator, whereas agentic and self-expression needs were positively associated with doing so.

Moreover, we anticipated that there would be discrepancies between real and imagined experiences of sexual harassment. We had suggested that people might assume that victims of sexual harassment will take formal action immediately after the incident because they expect them to act as a response to their need for justice, while underestimating their other psychological needs that might be present. Our results support our expectation that people anticipate that they would take formal actions if they were sexually harassed. There were substantial differences between the actions taken by the Experience subsample, and the actions that were anticipated by the Imagination subsample; these differences were large both for the number of actions taken (or anticipated) and for the types of actions, with the Imagination sample anticipating a higher number of formal actions than those taken by the Experience subsample. This is a discrepancy particularly worth highlighting because it is a widespread expectation that people who have experienced sexual harassment will report their experiences formally; in cases where survivors do not report, or make a delayed report, this information is often used to question and undermine their credibility and even argue that no harassment took place (see for example Blumenthal, 2004). Our findings highlight, among other things, that even though there is an expectation that people will report their victimisation immediately, for the majority of survivors that is

not the case. On the contrary, the majority of our sample who had experienced sexual harassment chose to take no action, or to engage in informal actions, such as discussing the incident with their friends.

Our results did not support our suggestion that one of the reasons behind this discrepancy might be the fact that people who have not experienced sexual harassment underestimate the variety of psychological needs victims might have. On the contrary, Imaginers expected that all their needs (communal, agentic, and self-expression) would be high if they had been sexually harassed; in particular they overestimated the presence of communal needs, scoring significantly more highly than Experiencers. Even though this appears surprising and was not in line with our expectations, it is however in line with a body of literature on affective forecasting, which has shown that people tend to overestimate the intensity and duration of their negative emotions (e.g. Blumenthal, 2004). We discuss this literature more extensively in the general discussion of this chapter.

Taken together these findings highlight two important points: First, people have multiple psychological needs after they have been sexually harassed, which guide their actions; second, there are large discrepancies between real and anticipated responses to sexual harassment, which are likely to have consequences in contexts where victims' credibility is evaluated.

These findings also lead to new interesting research questions, which we endeavoured to answer in the following study. As already mentioned, Experiencers had lower needs than expected by the Imaginers; they also had low negative feelings (shame and anxiety) and they reported moderately high to high life satisfaction, optimism, personal self-esteem, and satisfaction with social relationships. This is somewhat surprising, given the psychological, physical, and job related consequences that sexual harassment is known to have (see for example Chan, Chow, Lam, & Cheung, 2008). Therefore in Study 4 we explored the mechanisms through which

people might achieve life satisfaction after experiencing sexual harassment. Is it possible that people experience emotional numbing as a result of the incident, and therefore do not feel severely affected by it? Could it be that the incident leads them to adopt a new outlook on life and appreciate their life and relationships more? Or could it be something more banal: In asking questions about these outcomes, Imaginers were reminded to answer with respect to their imagined experience, whereas Experiencers were not constrained in this way and answered more globally. It could be that the prompt given to the Imaginers created the apparent difference between groups with respect to questions of broader well-being. Study 4 thus sought to replicate the findings from Study 3, to examine the mechanisms through which people might achieve life satisfaction, optimism, personal self-esteem, and satisfaction with social relationships after sexual harassment, and to remove alternative methodological explanations for this specific finding.

Study 4

As mentioned above, Study 3 revealed some surprising findings regarding the feelings and life satisfaction of people who had experienced sexual harassment. Participants reported that they were experiencing low anxiety and shame as they recalled the events; in general they reported moderately high to high life satisfaction, personal self-esteem, relationship satisfaction, and optimism. Even though this is a positive finding, it is nevertheless unexpected and does not correspond with a large body of literature showcasing the variety of adverse effects that sexual harassment has on people. Therefore our results raise the question about the mechanisms which might allow people to achieve low negative feelings, and high life satisfaction and self-esteem after experiencing sexual harassment.

One possibility is that people report more positive feelings and life satisfaction than anticipated because they experienced emotional numbing after the sexually harassing incident. Past research has shown that exposure to traumatic events can lead

to a variety of symptoms, including a general numbing of responsiveness (Farley & Barkan, 1998). Farley and Barkan (1998) interviewed one hundred and thirty sex workers with a history of pervasive physical and sexual violence about the extent of violence in their lives and symptoms of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). The vast majority of their participants reported symptoms of numbing and avoidance. Furthermore, many researchers consider emotional numbing as a cardinal symptom of PTSD (Feeny, Zoellner, Fitzgibbons, & Foa, 2000). Feeny et al (2000) found that for women who had recently experienced an assault (sexual or nonsexual), early emotional numbing contributed to the prediction of later PTSD and was negatively related to recovery. Finally, a study by Cohen and Roth (1987) found that for 72 women who had been victims of rape, avoidant coping strategies - which often lead to emotional numbing- were negatively associated to recovery. Therefore, it is important to investigate whether emotional numbing plays a role in people's subsequent self-reported feelings and wellbeing, not solely for the purpose of understanding people's experiences, but also because of its negative association with recovery.

On the other hand, some researchers argue that there has been too much focus on the negative consequences of coping mechanisms and propose that coping mechanisms may also have positive outcomes, such as positive affect (Folkman & Moskowitz, 2000). Tedeschi and Calhoun (2004) proposed the term 'post traumatic growth', or the experience of positive change after severe and traumatic life events. They argue that even though the trauma itself might remain distressing, valuing the aftermath of the traumatic event can lead people to experience growth. This growth can be observed in many ways, such as an increased sense of personal strength, more positive interpersonal relationships, and a greater appreciation for life. Post traumatic growth has been described by many other terms, such as Park, Cohen, and Murch's (1996) stress related growth model. Park, Cohen, and Murch (1996) argue that severe life events (such as bereavement, illness, and divorce) can have positive outcomes on those who experience

them, including improved social relationships and self-concept. In agreement with Tedeschi and Calhoun's (2004) position that it is the aftermath of the event (and not the event itself) that may lead to growth, they found that there are a number of aspects of people's experience after the traumatic event that positively predict stress related growth, such as positive reinterpretation and acceptance coping, satisfaction with social support, and number of positive life events after the trauma.

All in all there is evidence that distressing and traumatic life events can lead to unhelpful coping mechanisms, as well as evidence that they can be sources of positive change and growth. Therefore it is worth examining the possibility that our findings of relatively high life satisfaction, personal self-esteem, relationship satisfaction, and optimism were the result of either of these mechanisms. For this reason, scales measuring emotional reactivity and post traumatic growth were added to Study 4. In addition, decisions about the scales and items included in Study 4 were also based on Study 3 participants' answers to the open questions about needs and feelings. For example, these answers highlighted the need for immediate safety and to get an apology from the perpetrator, and revealed feelings such as anger and fear; therefore we included some items in the needs and feelings scales to reflect these findings. In sum, we employed a hybrid top down and bottom up approach for the design of Study 4, which included both theoretically and literature driven questions, such as published scales, as well as items sourced from participants' responses. Finally, the gender differences we found in Study 3 appeared to be an artefact, stemming from female and non-binary participants reporting on incidents of higher severity than male participants. Therefore we decided to only recruit female participants for Study 4.

Method

Participants. Study 4 comprised of an online survey with 600 female participants. Just over half the sample reported that they had experienced sexual

harassment (51.3%, $n = 311$), henceforth referred to as “Experiencers”. The remainder (48.7%, $n = 295$) reported that they had not experienced sexual harassment, henceforth referred to as “Imaginers”. The largest age group within our sample was 25-34 (42% of the sample, $n = 243$) and over half of our sample was from the UK (55.1%, $n = 319$). Please see Appendix D, Table 1 for further information on the age and national distribution of the sample.

Procedure. The survey was programmed on Qualtrics and participants were recruited via Prolific Academic. We requested 600 adult female participants from Prolific Academic.⁸ Potential participants could see the title of the survey (“Responses to sexual harassment”) and the survey link. Upon clicking on the survey link, participants received background information, explaining that the survey focused on sexual harassment, outlining the main aims of the survey, highlighting the fact that participation was voluntary, and that all collected data would be treated confidentially, and they gave their consent to participate based on those terms.

Participants who consented to taking part could access the survey. The first question enquired whether or not participants had experienced sexual harassment. Based on their response to this question participants were placed in either the Experience or the Imagination Group. Next, participants in the Experience Group (Experiencers) were asked some multiple choice questions about the sexually harassing incident they experienced, such as a question about the type of sexual harassment (e.g., “What did the incident involve? Physical harassment, non-physical harassment, or both?”; see next section for more detail on the measures). Participants in the Imagination Group (Imaginers) were asked a very similar set of questions, exploring their perceptions about what constitutes sexual harassment (for example: “When you think of sexual harassment, what type of harassment comes to your mind? Physical,

⁸ Participants received the minimum hourly payment set by Prolific Academic, which is \$6/per hour. This equated to £1.17 based on the average completion time for this study.

non-physical, or both?”). The multiple choice options provided for these questions were based on the responses we received to the open questions about experiences with or perceptions of sexual harassment in Study 3.

After the questions about the incident (Experiencers), or their perceptions about what constitutes sexual harassment (Imaginers), participants filled in a common set of measures, irrespective of Group. However, Imaginers were asked to imagine that they had experienced sexual harassment, and respond to the questions based on the way they anticipated that they would feel, if they *had* been sexually harassed. The two final scales explored the way participants felt at present, that is at the time of taking part in the survey. As such, and different from the previous study, Imaginers were asked to respond based how they actually felt at the time of the survey, not how they anticipated they would feel if they had been sexually harassed. After completing the measures, participants provided demographic details including age group and nationality. Finally, participants were debriefed. The debrief page included information about sources of support in the event that they felt distressed as a result of taking part in the survey.

Measures

Incident Description. Experiencers were asked to describe the characteristics of the incident they experienced by responding to a set of multiple choice questions. These questions recorded the type of harassment (e.g. physical), the context in which the harassment took place (e.g. workplace), the number of perpetrators involved, their relationship with the perpetrator (e.g. strangers, family, etc.), whether the incident was repeated or a single occurrence, and how long ago the incident had taken place. Imaginers were asked a similar set of multiple choice questions in relation to what they imagined sexual harassment to involve. Imaginers were allowed to select all the options they agreed with, as we were interested in getting an understanding of the kind of incidents they had in mind when they thought about sexual harassment.

Incident Evaluation. Experiencers were asked to evaluate how negative or positive the experience was for them using a five point scale (1 = very negative, 5 = very positive). Imaginers were asked to estimate how negative or positive the experience would have been for them, if they had been sexually harassed. As mentioned in Study 3, this method has been used in past research to decide whether an incident constitutes sexual harassment. In the same way as Study 3, the analyses reported below have two stages: first we report the results of all analyses without accounting for the incident evaluation, and then we report the results accounting for the incident evaluation. Any variation in the patterns of these two analyses are noted in the results.

Needs. Next we asked about participants' real or anticipated needs right after the sexual harassment took place. Participants were asked to rate the extent to which they experienced each need from a scale that was created by the researchers. The scale was based on psychological literature on needs, and our findings about the needs reported and openly stated by participants in Study 3. In more detail, the scale was based on the basic psychological needs outlined by Self Determination Theory, namely the need for autonomy, competence, and relatedness (Deci & Ryan, 2008). Some needs were added to the scale we used for Study 3, based on participants' responses to the open question about needs in Study 3, which highlighted needs such as safety, getting away from the perpetrator, and getting an apology from the perpetrator, which had not been clearly covered by the scale that was used previously. Therefore the resulting scale covered key areas of interest, such as the need for safety, self-esteem, self-expression, justice, and belonging. Items included "I felt the need to feel safe" and "I felt the need to make decisions for myself" (for the full set of items see Table 2).

Experiencers were asked to evaluate the extent to which they had experienced each of a set of twenty-two needs, whereas Imaginers were asked to estimate the extent to which they would have felt the same needs if they had experienced sexual

harassment. Participants indicated their actual or anticipated experience of each need on a seven-point Likert-type scale (1= very untrue, 7 = very true).

Actions. Next, participants were asked to indicate how they responded to the sexually harassing incident (Experiencers), or how they anticipated that they would have responded (Imaginers). Specifically, they were asked to indicate on a checklist what actions they took (or would have taken) after they were sexually harassed. This list was created by the researchers for Study 3 and it included formal actions (such as informing the police), informal actions (such as discussing the incident with friends or family), as well as the opportunity to indicate that they did not take any form of action. One item was removed from the list that was used in Study 3 because it was only selected by 3.8% of the overall sample in Study 3 (namely the item “spoke with a religious leader”). Participants were allowed to select as many actions as were applicable. Please see Table 2 for the full list of actions included in this study.

Needs Satisfaction. After reporting the actions they took after sexual harassment, participants were asked to reflect on the extent to which the actions they took satisfied (or would have satisfied) their needs. Participants were asked to rate the satisfaction of the needs from the aforementioned needs scale on a seven point Likert-type scale (ranging from 1 = it was not met at all to 7 = it was met completely). Participants also had the option to select “N/A: I did (/would) not have this need” for needs that they were not relevant to them.

Feelings. Real and anticipated feelings were assessed using the PANAS scale (Watson, Clark, & Tellegen, 1988). Six items were added to the PANAS, based on our findings from Study 3, namely “fine,” “worried about the future,” “angry,” “numb,” “confident,” and “regretful.” Experiencers were asked to rate their current feelings, as they recalled the sexually harassing incident they experienced. Imaginers were instead asked to estimate the extent to which they would experience these feelings if they had been sexually harassed in the past. Participants rated their agreement with the items

using a seven point Likert-type scale (from 1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

Post-Traumatic Growth Inventory. Next we assessed post traumatic growth via the Post-Traumatic Growth Inventory (PTGI, Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1996). Experiencers rated the extent to which they experienced a set of 21 changes as a result of the sexually harassing incident they experienced. Imaginers were asked to forecast the extent to which they would experience these changes if they had been sexually harassed. The PTGI covers five areas, namely “relating to others”, “new possibilities”, “personal strength”, “spiritual change”, and “appreciation of life”, assessed through items such as “I developed new interests”, “I know better that I can handle difficulties”, and “I have a stronger religious faith”. For the full set of items, see Appendix D, Table 2.

Emotional Reactivity and Numbing Scale. We used a short version of the Emotional Reactivity and Numbing Scale (ERNS; Orsillo, Theodore-Oklata, Luterek, & Plumb, 2007) to assess participants’ current experiences of emotional numbness and reactivity to events and experiences. The scale includes five subscales, namely “positive”, “sad”, “general”, “anger”, and “fear”. We used the subscales “sad”, “general”, “anger” and “fear”, which include items such as “Even after a significant loss, I don’t have feelings of sadness”, “I get angry if someone threatens me”, “I feel afraid when I am in dangerous situations”, and “I feel cut off from my emotions”. For this question, participants in both Groups were asked to focus on how they felt at present in general (i.e., while completing the survey) and not how they felt (or would feel) specifically in relation to the sexually harassing incident they experienced (or imagined).

Life Satisfaction, Personal Self-Esteem, Satisfaction with Relationships, and Optimism. Life satisfaction, personal self-esteem, satisfaction with relationships, and optimism were measured with the same scales that were used in Study 3. However, in contrast to Study 3 and similarly to the ERNS, participants were asked to respond based

on how they felt in general, not specifically in relation to a real or imagined sexually harassing experience.

Life satisfaction was measured using three items from the Satisfaction with Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985). Personal self-esteem was measured using five items from the Rosenberg self-esteem scale (Rosenberg, 1965), such as “I feel that I have a number of good qualities”. To assess satisfaction with relationships, participants rated the extent to which they agreed with the following four items: “I feel satisfied with my social relationships”, “I feel that people are basically good and trustworthy” (from the General Trust Scale, Yamagishi & Yamagishi, 1994), “I feel that I am not alone”, and “I feel that I have a lot in common with other people” (from the UCLA Loneliness scale, Russell, Peplau, & Ferguson, 1978). To assess optimism, participants rated three items of the revised Life Orientation Test (Scheier, Carver, & Bridges, 1994). All items were presented as statements with which participants were asked to rate their agreement on a Likert-type scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). For the full list of items please see Table 2, Appendix D.

Results:

We asked Experiencers to provide some information about the sexually harassing incident. The types of incident described by participants were almost evenly split between physical harassment (35.2%), non-physical harassment (29.4%), and harassment that was both physical and non-physical (35.5%). Therefore over two thirds (70.7%) of the Experience sample reported on incidents that involved physical sexual harassment. Participants reported on harassment that had taken place in a range of contexts, including street harassment (29.4%), workplace harassment (26.5%), and harassment in nightlife venues (21.9%). Fewer participants reported on harassment that took place at school (5.2%) or online (1.9%), while some participants (15.2%) selected “Other” and referred to incidents that took place at home, in a taxi, etc. The vast

majority of participants referred to incidents that involved only one perpetrator (86.5%), while only a minority of participants (13.2%) reported on incidents that involved multiple perpetrators. The vast majority of sexual harassment reported by our sample was perpetrated by strangers (45.8%), while others reported harassment perpetrated by a colleague or boss (23.9%), an acquaintance (13.9%), a friend (5.5%), a family member (2.3%), or “other” (8.7%). Approximately two thirds of the sample reported on incidents that took place only once (62.6%); just over a third of participants referred to harassment that was repeated but over at the time of the survey (36.5%), while a small minority of participants referred to sexual harassment that was repeated and ongoing at the time of the survey (1%). Most incidents had taken place over a year before the participants completed the survey (84.1%), while others had taken place one month to a year prior to survey completion (13.6%), and 2.3% of reported incidents had taken place within a month prior to responding to the survey. Finally, just over half (52.3%) of Experiencers rated the incident as “very negative” for them; 43.2% rated the incident as “moderately negative”, 4.2% rated as “neutral”, and 0.3% (which corresponds to one participant) rated it as “very positive”.

In order to get a sense of the types of things Imaginers had in mind when they completed the survey, we asked them to indicate what they imagined when they thought of sexual harassment. We used the same set of questions as those used for the Experience Group, excluding the question about the time when the incident took place. However, Imaginers were allowed to select as many options as they agreed with; therefore the percentages reported for the Imagination sample do not add up to 100. Here we report the most frequently selected answers by the Imagination sample. For the full set of descriptive statistics please see Appendix D, Table 3. Within the Imagination sample, most participants reported that they thought of harassment that was both physical and non-physical (83.3%). Most of the sample thought of harassment that takes place in the workplace (87.1%), in nightlife (86.7%), and/or on the street (81%).

Most participants thought of harassment perpetrated by one person (97.3%), and perpetrated by a stranger (85.4%), and/or by the target's colleagues or boss (81.6%). Most participants (80.6%) thought of harassment that is repeated. Finally, we asked Imaginers to imagine that they had been sexually harassed, and rate how positive or negative that experience would have been for them. The vast majority of the Imagination sample (80.3%) reported that the experience would have been "very negative" for them, while 18.7% reported that it would be "moderately negative". "Neutral", "moderately positive", and "very positive" were selected by 0.3% of the sample (one participant) each.

Needs.

Factor analysis. We performed a factor analysis on the needs scale including the full sample, and then limited the sample to the Experience and Imagination subsamples and conducted a separate factor analysis on each subsample. As we are interested in understanding victims' needs and comparing real and anticipated needs, we used the Experience subsample as the benchmark against which to compare the expectations of the Imagination sample. Therefore the decisions about how to cluster items together were based on the factors resulting from the analysis performed on the Experience sample. Below we report the results of the factor analysis based on the Experience sample. For completeness, the full set of matrices (varimax, oblimin pattern, and oblimin structure) for all analyses (full sample, Experience subsample only, and Imagination subsample only) please see Tables 4 to 18 in Appendix D.

All items correlated at least .3 with at least one other item, except for the item "for things to go back to normal". The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.857), was "meritorious" and above the commonly recommended value of .6 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Finally, Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant, $\chi^2(231) = 3600.14, p < .001$, and all communalities were above .3 indicating that each item shared some common variance with other items. These indicators confirmed the

suitability of factor analysis. We performed a principal component analysis, because our primary goal was to summarise common variation among variables and compute composite scores. We used varimax and oblimin rotations, but the oblimin rotation was chosen for interpretation as it assumes that the factors correlate. The factor loading matrix for this solution is presented in Tables 5 (pattern matrix) and Table 6 (structure matrix) in Appendix D.

The analysis generated five factors, explaining 64.95% of the variance across items. Factor 1 explained 33.59% of variance, Factor 2 explained 11.04%, Factor 3 explained 8.21%, Factor 4 explained 7.16%, and Factor 5 explained 4.96%. All items had primary loadings above .4, except for the item “for things to go back to normal”, which loaded .363 on Factor 5, but also loaded .290, .280, .268 on Factors 3, 1, and 2 respectively. In addition, the alpha for Factor 5 increased slightly (from .807 to .835) by removing “for things to go back to normal”. Therefore this item was removed and analysed separately.

A second principal component analysis of the remaining 21 items was conducted using varimax and oblimin rotations. This analysis yielded five factors, explaining 67.32% across items. Factor 1 explained 34.78% of variance, Factor 2 explained 11.46%, Factor 3 explained 8.60%, Factor 4 explained 7.49%, and Factor 5 explained 5.00%. The factor loading matrix for the varimax solution and the matrices for the oblimin solution are presented in Table 9 (pattern matrix) and Table 10 (structure matrix). Factor 1 was labelled “relational needs” due to high loadings by the following items: To feel like my life had meaning, to feel like my life mattered, to feel accepted by others, to feel part of a community, and to feel that there were others who cared about me. Factor 2 was labelled “justice needs” due to high loadings by the following items: To get justice, to make a formal report, to confront the perpetrator, and to get an apology from the perpetrator. Factor 3 was labelled “safety needs” due to high loadings from the items “to get away” and “to feel safe”. Factor 4 was labelled “control needs” because of

high loadings by the following items: To make decisions for myself, to show that I was capable, to be in control, and to feel less powerless. Finally, Factor 5 was labelled “respect needs” due to high loadings of the following items: To talk, to be supported, to express myself, to be believed, to be respected, and to be understood.

Cronbach’s alphas were high for all five factors: Relational needs: $\alpha = .906$ for the Experience sample (and $\alpha = .899$ for the full sample); justice needs: $\alpha = .781$ for the Experience sample (and $\alpha = .793$ for the full sample); safety needs: $\alpha = .646$ and $r(307) = .491, p < .001$ for the Experience sample (and $\alpha = .593$ for the full sample); Control needs: $\alpha = .756$ for the Experience sample (and $\alpha = .713$ for the full sample); Respect needs: $\alpha = .835$ for the Experience sample (and $\alpha = .841$ for the full sample). Cronbach’s alpha reliability for Factor 4 would only increase slightly by removing the item “less powerless” (from $\alpha = .756$ to $\alpha = .803$) and the item fit well conceptually with the other items in Factor 4, so it was not removed. No other alphas would have been increased by eliminating any items from any of the other factors. Composite scores were created for all five Factors, based on the mean of the items which had their primary loading on each Factor. Higher scores indicated higher agreement with experiencing each need.

Multivariate analysis of variance. To examine patterns of needs after experiencing sexual harassment (or imagining it), a one-way multivariate analysis of variance was conducted with Group (Experiencers, Imaginers) as factors and the composite measures of relational needs, justice, safety, control, respect, and the single item “for things to go back to normal” as dependent variables. There was a significant multivariate effect of Group, $F(6,593) = 41.01, p < .001, \eta^2 = .29, 90\% \text{ CI } [.238; .334]$. Overall, all needs were reportedly lower for participants who Experienced sexual harassment than for participants who only Imagined it and this was particularly strong for the need for justice. Figure 6 summarises needs by Group. Univariate effects for each need are explored further below.

Relational needs. There was a significant main effect of Group on Relational needs, $F(1,598) = 83.95, p < .001, \eta^2 = .12, 90\% \text{ CI } [.085; .164]$: Experiencers endorsed Relational needs less strongly ($M = 4.89, SD = 1.46$) than Imaginers ($M = 5.84, SD = 1.01$).

Justice needs. There was a significant main effect of Group on Justice needs, $F(1,598) = 194.66, p < .001, \eta^2 = .25, 90\% \text{ CI } [.198; .292]$, indicating that Experiencers expressed lower Justice needs ($M = 3.30, SD = 1.53$) than Imaginers ($M = 4.88, SD = 1.23$).

Safety needs. The main effect of Group on Safety needs was significant, $F(1,598) = 39.37, p < .001, \eta^2 = .06, 90\% \text{ CI } [.034; .095]$, indicating that participants who had experienced sexual harassment expressed lower Safety needs ($M = 6.16, SD = 1.06$) than those who only imagined it ($M = 6.65, SD = .86$).

Control needs. There was a significant main effect of Group on Control needs, $F(1,598) = 23.37, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04, 90\% \text{ CI } [.017; .066]$: Experiencers endorsed Control needs less strongly ($M = 5.57, SD = 1.15$) than Imaginers ($M = 5.99, SD = .95$).

Respect needs. There was a significant main effect of Group on Respect needs, $F(1,598) = 82.53, p < .001, \eta^2 = .12, 90\% \text{ CI } [.083; .162]$, indicating that Experiencers endorsed Respect needs less strongly ($M = 5.26, SD = 1.20$) than Imaginers ($M = 6.03, SD = .86$).

The need for things to go back to normal. There was a significant main effect of Group on the need “for things to go back to normal”, $F(1,598) = 12.72, p < .001, \eta^2 = .02, 90\% \text{ CI } [.006; .043]$: Experiencers expressed lower agreement with this need ($M = 5.96, SD = 1.33$) than Imaginers ($M = 6.31, SD = 1.08$).

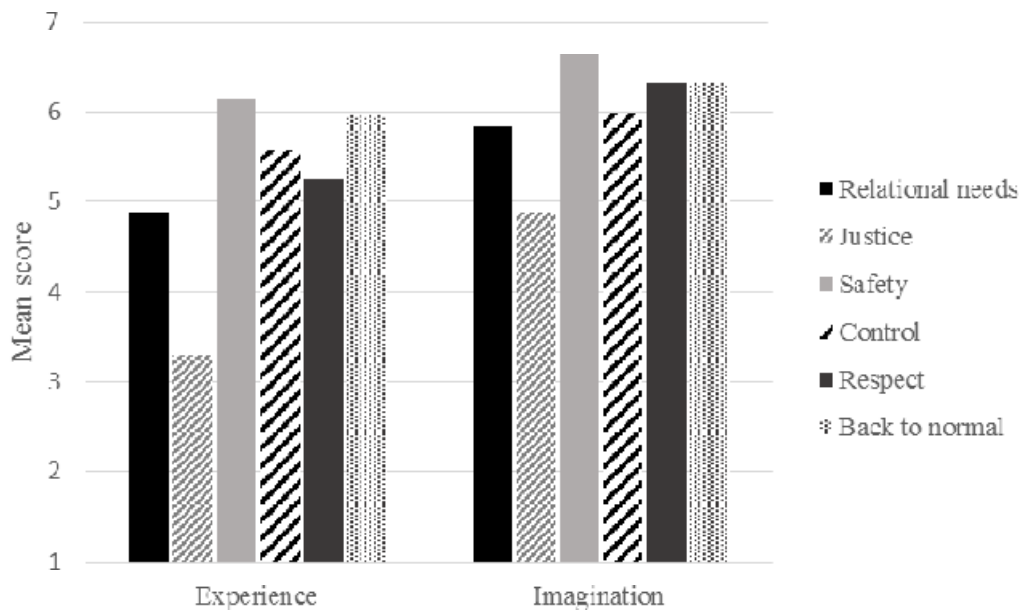


Figure 6: Mean scores of relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs and the need for things to go back to normal, reported by participants without experience of sexual harassment (Imaginators), and participants with experience of sexual harassment (Experiencers).

Needs summary. The goal of this analysis was to explore the needs people have (or think they would have) after sexual harassment and examine the differences between Experiencers and Imaginators. We also aimed to establish whether the direction of the results was similar to that of Study 3, where responses to an open question indicated a strong need for safety, and Imaginators generally anticipated stronger needs than those reported by Experiencers.

In accordance with the findings of Study 3, the results of this analysis revealed that safety was the highest need among Experiencers. The need for justice, on the other hand, was the lowest need reported by Experiencers. Even though Imaginators anticipated a similar pattern of needs to that reported by Experiencers, with the need for safety at the top and the need for justice at the bottom, they anticipated that they would experience each need significantly more strongly compared to Experiencers; this was especially true for the need for justice. Therefore these findings confirm the importance of the need for safety in response to sexual

harassment, highlight large differences between Experiencers and Imaginers with regards to the intensity of each need, and show a consistent pattern with Study 3, with Experiencers overestimating the needs people experience after sexual harassment.

Actions.

Similarly to our findings in Study 3, examining the action checklist revealed large differences between Experiencers and Imaginers. Only four of the 15 actions were selected by more than 10% of the Experiencers. For the full list of actions taken by Experiencers and Imaginers, in order of frequency, see Appendix D, Tables 20 and 21. Participants were allowed to select as many actions as they felt reflected their (real or anticipated) response to sexual harassment; therefore the percentages reported below do not add up to 100.

Just over half (50.2%) of the subsample in the Experience Group reported that they “did not do anything about the incident”, while just under half (48.9%) of this subsample reported that they “discussed the incident with friends and/or family”. Approximately a third (29%) of participants who had experienced sexual harassment reported that they did not tell anyone about the incident, and 16% reported that they confronted the perpetrator directly. All other forms of action were selected by less than 10% of Experiencers. It is noteworthy that formal forms of action were only selected by a small minority of Experiencers; only 5.5% of this subsample indicated that they “made a formal complaint that did not directly involve the police”, while only 3.3% indicated that they reported the incident to the police.

The actions anticipated by Imaginers look very different to those actually taken by Experiencers. The most frequently anticipated action by Imaginers was “would discuss the incident with friends and/or family”, selected by almost two thirds (63.8%) of this subsample. This was indeed among the four actions most frequently taken by Experiencers. However, the other most frequently selected actions by Imaginers do not mirror the top four choices of the Experiencers, with 39.2% of Imaginers anticipating that they “would search for information and support online”, 29.4% anticipating that they “would discuss the

incident with a colleague”, and 28.7% anticipating that they “would contact HR for advice”. In contrast with the Experiencers, among which the most frequently selected action was “did not do anything about the incident”, only a small minority (11.3%) of the Imaginers anticipated that they would not do anything about the incident. Furthermore, it is important to note that a large portion (28.3%) of the Imaginers anticipated that they would inform the police about the incident, compared to only 3.3% of the Experiencers who actually did so.

All in all, Imaginers anticipated that they would take more actions overall; that is true both for formal actions, such as informing the police (28.3% of Imaginers, compared to 3.3% of Experiencers), as well as informal actions such as discussing the incident with friends (63.8% of Imaginers, compared to 48.9% of Experiencers). The pattern of discrepancy between the actions taken by Experiencers of sexual harassment compared to those anticipated by Imaginers is evident in Figure 7. This figure indicates which actions differed significantly by group according to chi-square analyses. More complete detail of the actions taken by Experiencers and imagined by Imaginers can be found in Appendix D Table 22.

Statistical analyses of actions. To explore the pattern of actions taken (or not taken) more systematically, we conducted a General Linear Mixed Model (GLMM). This analysis revealed a main effect of Group, $F(1, 8372) = 156.30, p < .001$, such that Experiencers took fewer actions than Imaginers anticipated they would take. We also found a main effect of Action, $F(13, 8372) = 52.53, p < .001$, which was qualified by an interaction between Group and Action, $F(13, 8371) = 32.72, p < .001$, indicating that whether or not an action was taken depended on whether respondents were Experiencers or Imaginers.

As aforementioned, to understand the Action x Group interaction, we inspected actions according to participant group and tested the significance of these via chi-square analyses. See Figure 7 below for a summary. As can be seen, Imaginers report that they

would take all actions more than Experiencers actually did, except for the actions of ‘do nothing’ and ‘tell no one’, for which the pattern was reversed, as in Study 3. In this study Experiencers were also slightly more likely to report confronting the perpetrator than Imaginers. Summed up simply: Imaginers were more likely to think they would do almost anything, whereas experiencers were more likely to do nothing (except confront the perpetrator).

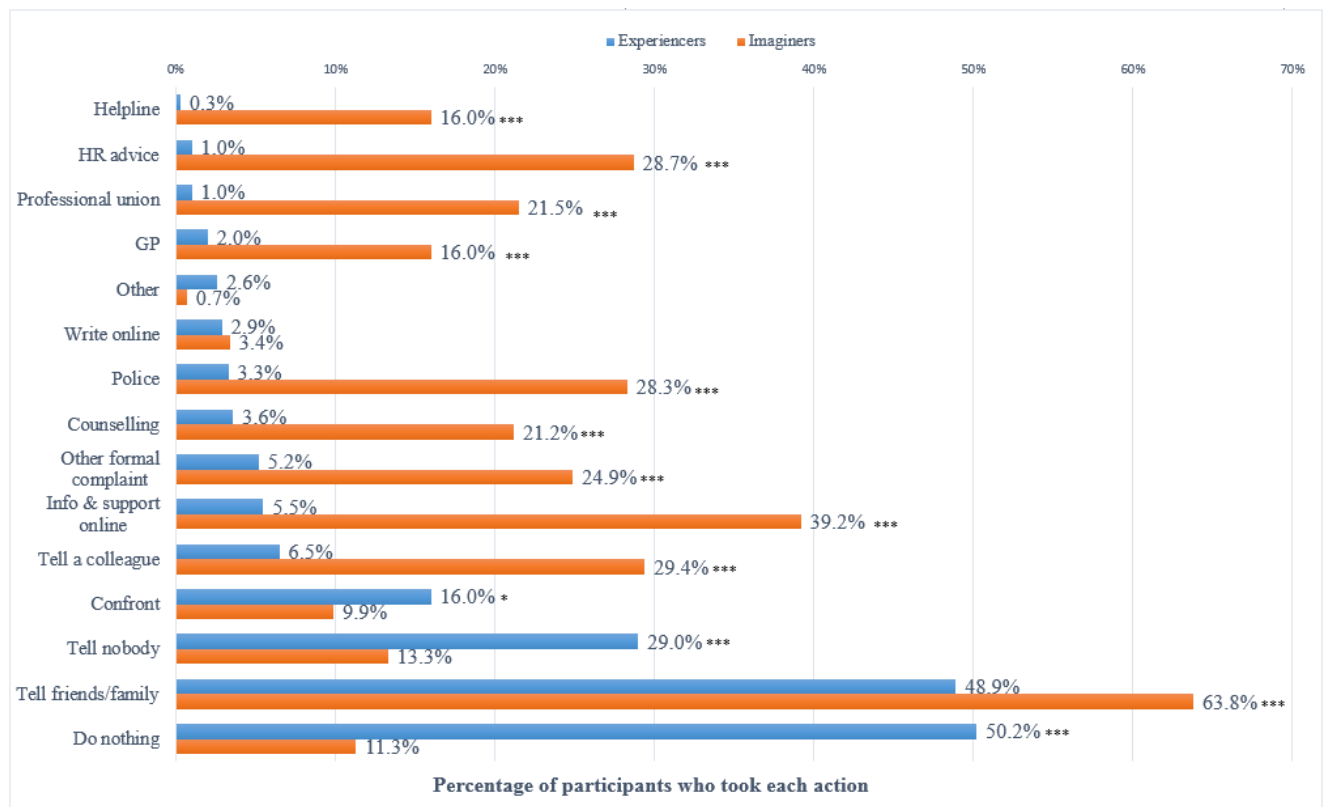


Figure 7. Percentage of participants who took (or imagined they would take) each action after they were sexually harassed (or imagined they were sexually harassed).

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < .001$

Summary. The analyses on actions revealed the same pattern as that found for Study 3. Namely, Experiencers reported taking very few formal actions and frequently reported that they took no action at all. In contrast, Imaginers expected that they would take almost all actions significantly more frequently than Experiencers reporting doing, with only a small minority anticipating that they would do nothing. These results replicate those of Study 3,

further supporting that Imaginers are likely to overestimate the number of actions they would take, as well as expect that they would take more formal actions than Experiencers took.

Predicting action taking from Group and needs. The above analyses have shown that Experiencers reported fewer needs than expected by Imaginers; they also showed that Experiencers reported taking fewer actions as a response to sexual harassment, compared to the expectations of Imaginers. To examine whether these findings were connected, we conducted a series of binary logistic regression analyses to predict taking (versus not taking) specific actions from Group (Experiencers, Imaginers), Relational, Justice, Safety, Control, Respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal.

The independent variables were not highly correlated (see Appendix D, Table 23 for the bivariate correlations). We conducted a two-step hierarchical regression with the individual actions as dependent variables. Group was added at Step one of the regression. At Step two of the regression we entered the needs (i.e. Relational, Justice, Safety, Control, Respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal). This analysis was performed on each need, and it allowed us to establish whether the already reported effects of Experience on actions could be explained by individual differences in reported needs. All significant main effects of the seven independent variables are reported below. For the full set of results please see Appendix D, Tables 24 to 39.

Did not do anything about the incident. Consistent with the chi-square analyses, there was a main effect of Group on not doing anything, $Exp(B) = 5.27$, $Wald(1) = 43.91$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [3.22; 8.61]. Beyond this, there were also effects of reported justice and respect needs. For each unit increase in reported Justice needs, participants were .76 times more likely not to do anything, $Exp(B) = .76$, $Wald(1) = 11.92$, $p = .001$, 95% CI [.64; .89]. For each unit increase in Respect needs, participants were .6 times more likely to not do anything, $Exp(B) = .60$, $Wald(1) = 13.58$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.46; .79].

Did not tell anybody about the incident. The effect of Group was again

significant, $Exp(B) = 2.08$, $Wald(1) = 7.73$, $p = .005$, 95% CI [1.24; 3.48]. We also found a significant main effect of Relational needs, $Exp(B) = 1.57$, $Wald(1) = 15.43$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.25; 1.96]. There was a significant main effect of Justice needs, $Exp(B) = .84$, $Wald(1) = 3.86$, $p = .049$, 95% CI [.70; 1.00]. For a unit increase in Justice needs, participants were .84 times more likely not to tell anyone. There was a significant main effect of Safety needs, $Exp(B) = 1.49$, $Wald(1) = 8.94$, $p = .003$, 95% CI [1.15; 1.94]. For each unit increase in Safety needs, participants were 1.49 times more likely not to tell anybody. We found a significant main effect of Respect needs, $Exp(B) = .43$, $Wald(1) = 31.40$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.32; .58]. For each unit increase in reported Respect needs participants were .43 times as likely not to tell anyone. No other effects were significant.

Informed the police. The effect of Group was again significant, $Exp(B) = .14$, $Wald(1) = 26.43$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.07; .30]. There was also a significant main effect of Justice needs, $Exp(B) = 1.46$, $Wald(1) = 9.45$, $p = .002$, 95% CI [1.15; 1.85]. For a unit increase in reported Justice needs, participants were 1.46 times more likely to inform (or expect that they would inform) the police. We found a significant main effect of Control needs, $Exp(B) = .69$, $Wald(1) = 6.20$, $p = .013$, 95% CI [.51; .92]. For a unit increase in Control needs, participants were .69 times as likely to inform (or expect that they would inform) the police. Finally, there was a significant main effect of Respect needs, $Exp(B) = 1.85$, $Wald(1) = 6.62$, $p = .010$, 95% CI [1.16; 2.97]. For a unit increase in Respect needs participants were 1.85 times more likely to inform (or anticipate that they would inform) the police. No other effects were significant.

Made a formal complaint that did not directly involve the police. The previously reported effect of Group was also significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = .31$, $Wald(1) = 13.12$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.17; .59]. We found a significant main effect of Justice needs, $Exp(B) = 1.57$, $Wald(1) = 14.14$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.24; 1.98]. For a unit increase in Justice needs participants were 1.57 times more likely to make (or

anticipate that they would make) a formal complaint. No other effects were significant.

Spoke to my doctor. The already reported effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = .18$, $Wald(1) = 13.20$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.07; .45], but no other effects were significant.

Directly confronted the perpetrator. The effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = 2.56$, $Wald(1) = 9.44$, $p = .002$, 95% CI [1.41; 4.67]. We also found a significant main effect of Relational needs, $Exp(B) = .53$, $Wald(1) = 21.98$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.40; .69]. For each unit increase in Relational needs participants were .53 times as likely to directly confront (or expect that they would confront) the perpetrator. We found a significant main effect of Justice needs, $Exp(B) = 1.93$, $Wald(1) = 29.68$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.52; 2.44]. For a unit increase in Justice needs participants were 1.93 times more likely to directly confront the perpetrator. No other effects were significant.

Discussed with friends and/or family. In contrast to the chi square analyses (Figure 7), the effect of Group was no longer significant in this analysis. Instead, we found a significant main effect of Relational needs on discussing the incident with friends and/or family $Exp(B) = .82$, $Wald(1) = 4.70$, $p = .030$, 95% CI [.68; .98]. For a unit increase in Relational needs participants were .82 as likely to discuss the incident with friends and/or family. We found a significant main effect of Respect needs, $Exp(B) = 2.36$, $Wald(1) = 38.32$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.80; 3.10]. For a unit increase in Respect needs participants were 2.36 times more likely to discuss the incident with friends and/or family. We found a significant main effect of the need for things to back to normal, $Exp(B) = .83$, $Wald(1) = 5.64$, $p = 0.18$, 95% CI [.71; .97]. For a unit increase of the need for things to go back to normal participants were .83 times as likely to discuss the incident with friends and family. No other effects were significant. Therefore, needs appear to be particularly important for understanding the behaviour of discussing the incidents with friends and/or family.

Sought professional emotional support. The effect of Group was again

significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = .20$, $Wald(1) = 17.92$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.01; .42].

We found a significant main effect of Relational needs on seeking professional emotional support, $Exp(B) = 1.53$, $Wald(1) = 5.40$, $p = .020$, 95% CI [1.07; 2.18]. For a unit increase in Relational needs, participants were 1.53 times more likely to seek professional emotional support. There was a marginally significant main effect of Safety needs, $Exp(B) = .75$, $Wald(1) = 3.64$, $p = .056$, 95% CI [.56; 1.01]. For a unit increase in Safety needs participants were .75 times as likely to select this action. There was a significant main effect of Control needs, $Exp(B) = .70$, $Wald(1) = 5.46$, $p = .019$, 95% CI [.51; .94]. For a unit increase in Control needs participants were .7 times more likely to seek professional emotional support. No other effects were significant.

Searched for information and support online. The effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = .09$, $Wald(1) = 53.65$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.05; .17]. We found a significant main effect of Justice needs on searching for information and support online, $Exp(B) = .76$, $Wald(1) = 6.75$, $p = .009$, 95% CI [.62; .94]. For a unit increase in Justice needs participants were .76 times as likely to search for information and support online, or anticipate that they would do so. We found a main effect of Safety needs, $Exp(B) = 1.96$, $Wald(1) = 9.48$, $p = .002$, 95% CI [1.28; 3.00]. For each unit increase in reported safety needs, participants were 1.96 times more likely to search for information and support online. We found a significant main effect of Respect needs on searching for information and support online, $Exp(B) = 1.45$, $Wald(1) = 4.03$, $p = .045$, 95% CI [1.01; 2.08]. For each unit increase in reported Respect needs participants were 1.45 times more likely to search for information and support online. No other effects were significant.

Wrote about my experience online. Consistent with the chi-square analyses, there was no main effect of Group on the action of writing about the experience online. However, we found a significant main effect of Respect needs on writing about one's experience online, $Exp(B) = 4.39$, $Wald(1) = 9.04$, $p = .003$, 95% CI [1.67; 11.50]. For a

unit increase in reported Respect needs, participants were 4.39 times more likely to write (or expect to write) about their experiences online. No other effects were significant.

Called a support helpline. The effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = .02$, $Wald(1) = 12.84$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.003; .19]. There was also a significant main effect of the need for things to back to normal on contacting a helpline, $Exp(B) = .71$, $Wald(1) = 5.54$, $p = .019$, 95% CI [.53; .94]. For a unit increase of the need for things to go back to normal participants were .71 times as likely to call a support helpline. No other effects were significant.

Contacted HR for advice. The effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = .04$, $Wald(1) = 26.75$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.01; .14]. We found a significant main effect of Justice needs on contacting HR for advice, $Exp(B) = 1.35$, $Wald(1) = 5.22$, $p = .022$, 95% CI [1.04; 1.74]. For each unit increase in reported Justice needs participants were 1.35 times more likely to have contacted (or expected that they would contact) HR for advice. No other effects were significant.

Spoke to my professional union. The effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = .06$, $Wald(1) = 19.98$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.02; .21]. We found a significant main effect of Justice needs on speaking to one's professional union, $Exp(B) = 1.38$, $Wald(1) = 4.97$, $p = .026$, 95% CI [1.04; 1.83]. For each unit increase in reported Justice needs, participants were 1.38 times more likely to speak (or imagine that they would speak) to their professional union. No other effects were significant.

Discussed the incident with a colleague. The effect of Group was again significant in this analysis, $Exp(B) = .27$, $Wald(1) = 20.13$, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.15; .47]. We found a significant main effect of Justice needs on discussing the incident with a colleague, $Exp(B) = 1.27$, $Wald(1) = 5.23$, $p = .022$, 95% CI [1.03; 1.55]. For each unit increase in reported Justice needs participants were 1.27 times more likely to discuss the incident with a colleague, or imagine that they would do so. No other effects were significant.

Other (open text answer). There was only a significant main effect of the need for things to go back to normal on selecting a form of action that was not part of the provided list, $Exp(B) = .58$ Wald (1) = 6.51, $p = .011$, 95% CI [.38; .88]. For each unit increase in the need for things to go back to normal participants were .58 times more likely to select “other”. No other effects were significant.

Binary logistic regressions summary. To test whether Group (Experiencers and Imaginers) and each need predicted the taking of specific actions, we ran a set of binary logistic regressions. These showed that different needs were associated with different types of actions. However, even after controlling for needs, the effect of Group remained significant across almost all actions. The only exception was the action of discussing the incident with friends and/or family, for which the discrepancy between Experiencers and Imaginers was eliminated after controlling for needs. Therefore, even though Experiencers reported significantly lower needs than those anticipated by Imaginers, that does not explain the discrepancy between the number of actions taken (or expected to be taken) by Experiencers and Imaginers.

Needs satisfaction.

Factor analysis. Similarly to the needs scale, we performed three factor analyses on the needs satisfaction scale: Once including the full sample, once limited only to the Experience subsample, and once on the Imagination subsample. These analyses yielded three Factors. The results of these analyses are presented in Appendix D, Tables 40 to 51. However, since we were interested in exploring whether participants’ (real or imagined) actions satisfied their (real or imagined) needs, we clustered the needs satisfaction items together based on the factors we created for the needs scale, namely Relational, Justice, Safety, Control, Respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal. We used Cronbach’s alpha to examine the internal consistency for each of the need satisfaction factors including the full sample and the Experience subsample.

Cronbach's alpha reliabilities were high for all five factors (as indicated below).

Therefore we created five composite needs satisfaction variables that mirrored the variables we constructed for the analyses on needs. These were "satisfied relational needs", encompassing the satisfaction of the items "to feel like my life had meaning", "to feel like my life mattered", "to feel accepted by others", "to feel part of a community", and "to feel that there were others who cared about me". The Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for this factor were $\alpha = .953$ for the Experience subsample ($\alpha = .947$ for the full sample). The variable "satisfied justice needs" comprised of the satisfaction of the items "to make a formal report", "to get justice", "to confront the perpetrator", and "to get an apology from the perpetrator". The Cronbach's alpha reliabilities for this factor were $\alpha = .903$ for the Experience subsample ($\alpha = .889$ for the full sample). The variable "satisfied safety needs" comprised of two items, namely "to get away" and "to feel safe" (Experience sample $\alpha = .752$ and Full sample $\alpha = .760$). The variable "satisfied control needs" included the items "to make my own decisions", "to show that I was capable", "to be in control", and "to feel less powerless" (Experience sample $\alpha = .925$ and Full sample $\alpha = .910$). The variable "satisfied respect needs" comprised of the items "to talk", "to be supported by friends and family", "to express myself", "to be believed", "to be respected", and "to be understood" (Experience $\alpha = .944$ and Full sample $\alpha = .944$). Finally, mirroring the analyses of the needs scale, we did not include the satisfaction of the need "for things to go back to normal" in a variable, and instead analysed it separately.

Multivariate analysis of variance. The aim of this analysis was to test the extent to which participants' actions after (real or imagined) sexual harassment met their (real or expected) needs. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was conducted, with Group (Experiencers, Imaginers) as the predictor and the satisfaction of relational needs, justice, safety, control, respect, and "for things to go back to

normal” as dependent variables. There was a significant multivariate effect of Group, $F(6,489) = 21.45, p < .001, \eta^2 = .21, 90\% \text{ CI } [.150; .251]$. Across all needs, participants who experienced sexual harassment reported less satisfaction than was expected by those who imagined experiencing sexual harassment. Figure 8 summarises need satisfaction by Group. Univariate effects for each need are explored further below.

Relational needs. There was a main effect of Group on the satisfaction of Relational needs was significant, $F(1,494) = 76.31, p < .001, \eta^2 = .13, 90\% \text{ CI } [.091; .180]$: Experiencers reported lower relational needs satisfaction ($M = 4.44, SD = 1.71$) than Imaginers ($M = 5.60, SD = 1.22$).

Justice needs. There was a significant main effect of Group on the satisfaction of Justice needs, $F(1,494) = 82.54, p < .001, \eta^2 = .14, 90\% \text{ CI } [.098; .190]$, indicating that Experiencers reported lower satisfaction of their justice needs ($M = 3.17, SD = 1.75$) than Imaginers ($M = 4.53, SD = 1.57$).

Safety needs. There was a significant main effect of Group on Safety needs, $F(1,494) = 72.61, p < .001, \eta^2 = .13, 90\% \text{ CI } [.086; .174]$, indicating that Experiencers reported lower satisfaction of their safety needs ($M = 4.70, SD = 1.74$) than Imaginers anticipated ($M = 5.85, SD = 1.26$).

Control needs. There was a significant main effect of Group on Control needs, $F(1,494) = 81.27, p < .001, \eta^2 = .14, 90\% \text{ CI } [.097; .188]$: Experiencers reported lower satisfaction of their control needs ($M = 4.50, SD = 1.67$) compared to the satisfaction anticipated by Imaginers ($M = 5.68, SD = 1.24$).

Respect needs. There was a significant main effect of Group on Respect needs, $F(1,494) = 88.66, p < .001, \eta^2 = .15, 90\% \text{ CI } [.107; .200]$: Experiencers reported lower satisfaction of their respect needs ($M = 4.68, SD = 1.69$) than Imaginers ($M = 5.91, SD = 1.20$).

The need for things to go back to normal. There was a significant main effect of Group on the satisfaction of the need “for things to go back to normal”, $F(1,494) =$

23.39, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .05$, 90% CI [.020; .078]: Experiencers reported lower satisfaction of their need for things to go back to normal ($M = 4.75$, $SD = 1.96$) compared to Imaginers ($M = 5.52$, $SD = 1.57$).

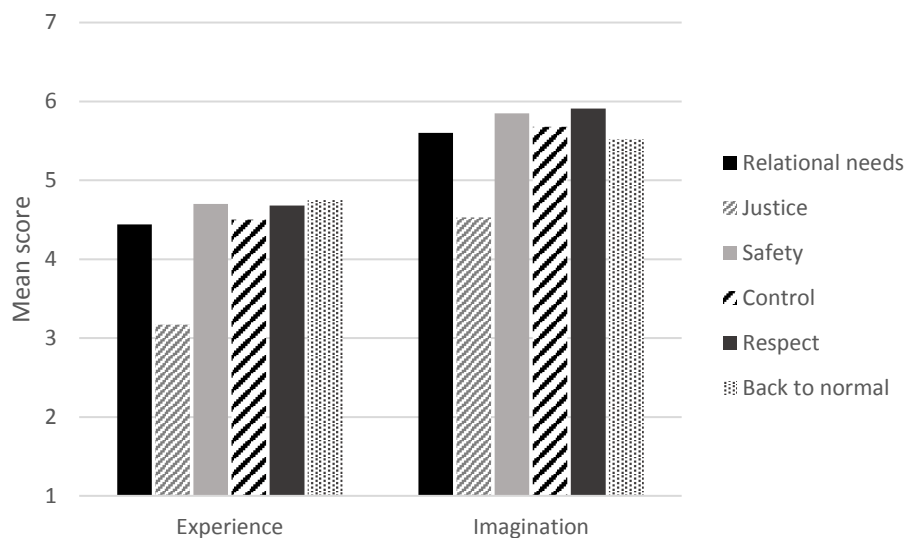


Figure 8. Mean scores of satisfied relational, justice, safety, control, respect and normality needs reported by Experiencers and Imaginers.

Need satisfaction summary. The aim of this analysis was to explore the degree to which participant's needs were (or were expected to be) satisfied after the actions they took (or imagined taking) and to examine the differences between Experiencers and Imaginers. It also allowed us to compare against the results of a similar analysis in Study 3. The two most highly satisfied needs reported by Experiencers were the need for things to go back to normal and the need for safety. The needs that were anticipated to be the most satisfied by Imaginers were respect and safety. For both groups the least satisfied need was reported (or expected) to be the need for justice.

Therefore, the pattern of needs by Experiencers and Imaginers is very similar; where the difference lies, is with the degree of satisfaction experienced or imagined. Complementing the pattern of needs in Study 4, and needs and need satisfaction in Study 3, Imaginers significantly overestimated the extent to which every single one of their needs would be satisfied, compared to the satisfaction reported by

Experiencers. This is in line with the broad pattern emerging from these studies, whereby Imaginers overestimate everything: the degree to which they would experience needs, the number of actions they would take, and the degree to which their needs would be satisfied.

Feelings.

Factor analysis. Similarly to the factor analyses reported above, we conducted three factor analyses on the feelings scale: One including the full sample, one based exclusively on the Experience subsample, and one based on the Imagination subsample, and items were grouped together based on the solutions of the analysis performed on the Experience subsample. The full set of results, including the varimax and oblimin matrices for all three analyses can be found in Appendix D, Tables 52 to 67.

The suitability of factor analysis for the 27 items was confirmed using four criteria; all items correlated at least .3 with at least one other item, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.902) was “marvelous” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant, $\chi^2(351) = 4386.36, p < .001$, and the communalities were all above .3. We conducted a principal component analysis, with both varimax and oblimin rotations, but chose the oblimin rotation for interpretation because it allows factors to correlate. Please see Tables 53 (pattern matrix) and 54 (structure matrix) in Appendix D for the factor loading matrices for these solutions.

The analysis produced five factors, which explained 62.48% of the variance across items. Factor 1 explained 33.11% of variance, Factor 2 explained 14.78%, Factor 3 explained 6.92%, Factor 4 explained 3.93%, and Factor 5 explained 3.74%. All items had primary loadings above .4. Cronbach’s alpha reliability for Factor 5 increased from .637 to .848 by removing the item “angry”; furthermore, “angry” did not fit well theoretically with the other items in Factor 5. Therefore it was removed and treated it

separately.

A second principal component analysis of the remaining 26 items was performed using varimax and oblimin rotations. This analysis generated five factors, explaining 63.9% of the variance across items. Factor 1 explained 31.75% of variance, Factor 2 explained 16.27%, Factor 3 explained 7.14%, Factor 4 explained 4.59%, and Factor 5 explained 4.15%. The factor loading matrix for the varimax solution and the matrices for the oblimin solution (pattern and structure matrix) are presented in Tables 57 (pattern matrix) and 58 (structure matrix).

Factor 1 was labelled “Fear” due to high loadings of the following items: Afraid, tense, nervous, scared, worried about the future, upset, distressed, concerned about others, and fine (reverse scored). Factor 2 was labelled “Attentiveness” due to high loadings by the items interested, determined, alert, attentive, active, strong and confident. Factor 3 was labelled “Regret”, due to high loadings by the items regretful, guilty, ashamed, and numb. Factor 4 was labelled “Irritability”, due to high loadings by the items “irritability” and “hostile”. Finally, Factor 5 was labelled “Enthusiasm” due to high loadings by the items enthusiastic, excited, proud, and inspired.

Cronbach’s alphas were high for all five factors. Fear: $\alpha = .893$ for the Experience sample (and $\alpha = .909$ for the full sample); Attentiveness: $\alpha = .849$ for the Experience sample (and $\alpha = .821$ for the full sample); Regret: $\alpha = .759$ for the Experience sample (and $\alpha = .743$ for the full sample); Irritability: $\alpha = .574$ and $r(303) = .403$, $p < .001$ for the Experience sample (and $\alpha = .650$ for the full sample); Enthusiasm: $\alpha = .848$ for the Experience sample (and $\alpha = .844$ for the full sample).

Cronbach’s alpha reliability for Factor 1 would increase slightly (from .893 to .907) by removing the item “concerned about others” and the alpha reliability for Factor 2 would increase from .849 to .859 if the item “alert” was removed. However, both these increases are minimal, and the items fitted in well conceptually with the factors in which they had their primary loadings, so these items were not removed.

We created composite scores for all factors, based on the mean of the items which had their primary loading on each Factor. Higher scores indicated higher agreement with experiencing each feeling.

Multivariate analysis of variance. The aim of this analysis was to explore how people feel (or think they would feel) after experiencing sexual harassment and whether there are differences between the two Groups. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to examine the main effect of Group (Experiencers, Imaginers) on the variables Fear, Attentiveness, Regret, Irritability, Enthusiasm, and Anger. There was a significant multivariate effect of Group, $F(6,589) = 20.22$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .17$, 90% CI [.120; .208]. Overall, participants who experienced sexual harassment expressed more positive and less negative feelings than participants who only imagined experiencing sexual harassment, with the difference being particularly sharp for fear. Figure 9 summarises feelings by Group and univariate effect for each feeling are explored below.

Fear. There was a significant main effect of Group on Fear, $F(1,594) = 112.60$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .16$, 90% CI [.116; .201], indicating that Experiencers expressed less fear ($M = 3.95$, $SD = 1.30$) than Imaginers ($M = 4.98$, $SD = 1.08$).

Attentiveness. There was no significant main effect of Group on Attentiveness, $F(1,594) = .08$, $p = .781$, $\eta^2 = .000$, 90% CI [.000; .005].

Regret. There was a significant main effect of Group on Regret, $F(1,594) = 15.11$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .03$, 90% CI [.008; .049], indicating that Experiencers expressed less regret ($M = 3.49$, $SD = 1.40$) than Imaginers ($M = 3.91$, $SD = 1.23$).

Irritability. There was a significant main effect of Group on Irritability, $F(1,594) = 44.24$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .07$, 90% CI [.040; .104], indicating that Experiencers reported lower irritability ($M = 3.74$, $SD = 1.47$) than Imaginers ($M = 4.50$, $SD = 1.31$).

Enthusiasm. There was a marginally significant main effect of Group on

Enthusiasm, $F(1,594) = 3.99, p = .046, \eta^2 = .01, 90\% \text{ CI } [.000; .002]$, indicating that Experiencers reported more enthusiasm ($M = 2.50, SD = 1.26$) than Imaginers ($M = 2.30, SD = 1.18$).

Anger. There was a significant main effect of Group on Anger, $F(1,594) = 23.42, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04, 90\% \text{ CI } [.017; .066]$, indicating that Experiencers reported less anger ($M = 5.30, SD = 1.47$) than Imaginers ($M = 5.82, SD = 1.14$).

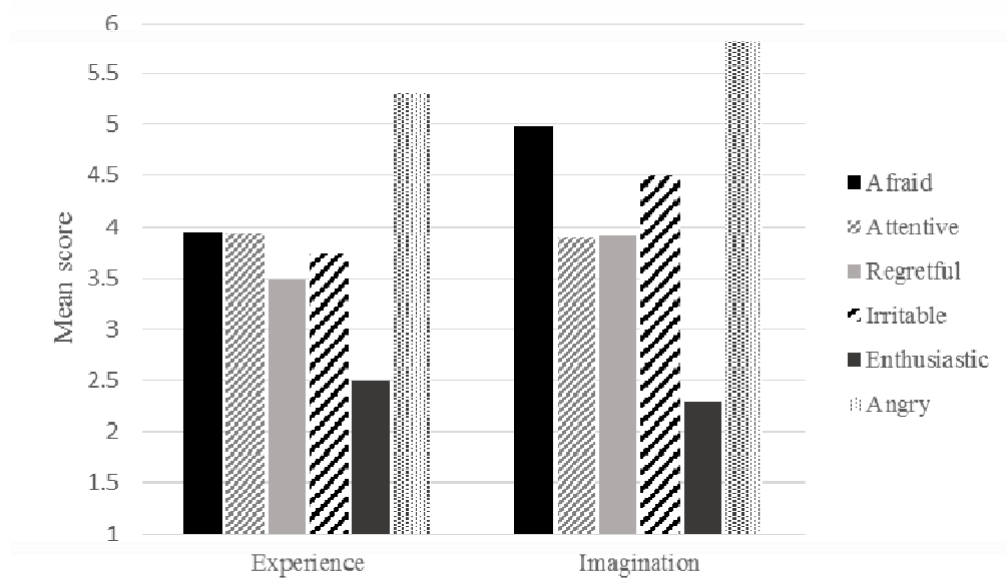


Figure 9: Mean scores of fear, attentiveness, regret, irritability, enthusiasm and anger reported by Imaginers and Experiencers.

Feelings summary. The goal of this analysis was to explore participants' real and anticipated feelings, namely fear, attentiveness, regret, enthusiasm, irritability, and anger. We also aimed to examine the differences between the two Groups. Once again, Imaginers tended to anticipate that they would experience each feeling more strongly than reported by Experiencers. The effect of Group was significant for most feelings (anger, irritability, regret, and fear), with Imaginers anticipating experiencing these more strongly than Experiencers. This discrepancy was particularly evident for experienced and anticipated fear. The only exception to this pattern was enthusiasm, which was marginally significant but went in the opposite direction: Experiencers reported higher levels of enthusiasm than anticipated by Imaginers. Overall, this is in

line with the pattern of Imaginers anticipating experiences that are more intense than those reported by Experiences (e.g. the strength of each need) and is in agreement with the results of Study 3.

Post-Traumatic Growth.

Factor analysis. We conducted factor analyses on all 21 items of the post traumatic growth inventory (PTGI). The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.960) was “marvellous” (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001), all items correlated at least .3 with at least one other item, and all communalities were above .3, which shows that all items share some common variance with other items. Finally, Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant $\chi^2(210) = 9680.75, p < .001$. These indicators confirmed the suitability of factor analysis.

We performed a principal component analysis, with varimax and oblimin rotations. These analyses yielded two factors. Factor 1 encompassed the items “I know better that I can handle difficulties”, “I discovered that I’m stronger than I thought I was”, “I better accept needing others”, “I am more willing to express my emotions”, “I more clearly see that I can count on people in times of trouble”, “I learned a great deal about how wonderful people are”, “I am more likely to try to change things which need changing”, “I am better able to accept the way things work out”, “I have more compassion for others”, “I have a greater feeling of self-reliance”, “I am able to do better things with my life”, “I have a greater sense of closeness with others”, “I can better appreciate each day”, and “I put more effort into my relationships” ($\alpha = .952$). Factor 2 encompassed the items “New opportunities are available which wouldn’t have been otherwise”, “I developed new interests”, “I established a new path for my life”, “I have a stronger religious faith”, “I have a better understanding of spiritual matters”, “I changed my priorities about what is important in life”, and “I have a greater appreciation for the value of my own life” ($\alpha = .900$). The solutions for these analyses

are reported in Appendix D, Tables 68 to 71.

However, the decisions about the way items were clustered together were based on the factors used in the original PTGI (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1996), namely “relating to others”, “new possibilities”, “personal strength”, “spiritual change”, and “appreciation of life”. The factor “relating to others” comprises of the items “I learned a great deal about how wonderful people are”, “I better accept needing others”, “I more clearly see that I can count on people in times of trouble”, “I have a greater sense of closeness with others”, “I am more willing to express my emotions”, “I have more compassion for others”, and “I put more effort into my relationships”. The factor “new possibilities includes the following items: “I developed new interests”, “I established a new path for my life”, “I am able to do better things with my life”, “New opportunities are available which wouldn’t have been otherwise”, and “I am more likely to try to change things which need changing”. “Personal strength” comprises of the items “I have a greater feeling of self-reliance”, “I know better that I can handle difficulties”, “I am better able to accept the way things work out”, and “I discovered that I’m stronger than I thought I was”. “Spiritual change” includes two items, namely “I have a better understanding of spiritual matters” and “I have a stronger religious faith”. Finally, “appreciation of life” includes the items “I changed my priorities about what is important in life”, “I have a greater appreciation for the value of my own life”, and “I can better appreciate each day”.

We used Cronbach’s alpha to examine the internal consistency for each of these factors for the full sample. The alphas were high for all five factors: Relating to others $\alpha = .914$; New possibilities $\alpha = .883$; Personal strength $\alpha = .865$; Spiritual change $\alpha = .783$; Appreciation of life $\alpha = .859$.

Multivariate analysis of variance. The aim of this analysis was to explore whether people experience post traumatic growth after sexual harassment and whether there are differences between real and imagined experiences. A one-way multivariate

analysis of variance was conducted to examine the main effect of Group (Experiencers, Imaginers) on Relating to others, New possibilities, Personal strength, Spiritual change, and Appreciation of life. There was a significant multivariate effect of Group, $F(5,585) = 34.99, p < .001, \eta^2 = .23, 90\% \text{ CI } [.178; .272]$. Overall, there was less post-traumatic growth for participants who actually experienced sexual harassment than for those who only imagined it, with particularly strong effects on Relating to others and Appreciation of life. Figure 10 summarises these outcomes by Group; univariate effects are explored further below.

Relating to others. There was a significant main effect of Group on Relating to others, $F(1, 589) = 99.01, p < .001, \eta^2 = .144, 90\% \text{ CI } [.103; .187]$, indicating that Experiencers reported that they were less able to relate to others ($M = 2.30, SD = 1.21$) compared to Imaginers ($M = 3.31, SD = 1.26$).

New possibilities. There was a significant main effect of Group on New possibilities, $F(1, 589) = 45.40, p < .001, \eta^2 = .072, 90\% \text{ CI } [.042; .107]$: Experiencers scored lower ($M = 2.06, SD = 1.20$) than Imaginers ($M = 2.75, SD = 1.29$).

Personal strength. There was a significant main effect of Group on Personal strength, $F(1, 589) = 33.55, p < .001, \eta^2 = .054, 90\% \text{ CI } [.028; .086]$, indicating that Experiencers reported lower personal strength ($M = 2.75, SD = 1.43$) than Imaginers ($M = 3.39, SD = 1.24$).

Spiritual change. There was a significant main effect of Group on Spiritual change, $F(1, 589) = 16.84, p < .001, \eta^2 = .028, 90\% \text{ CI } [.010; .053]$: Experiencers reported lower spiritual change ($M = 1.63, SD = 1.15$) than Imaginers ($M = 2.05, SD = 1.33$).

Appreciation of life. There was a significant main effect of Group on Appreciation of life, $F(1, 589) = 122.89, p < .001, \eta^2 = .173, 90\% \text{ CI } [.129; .217]$, with Experiencers scoring lower ($M = 2.20, SD = 1.33$) than Imaginers ($M = 3.45, SD = 1.41$).

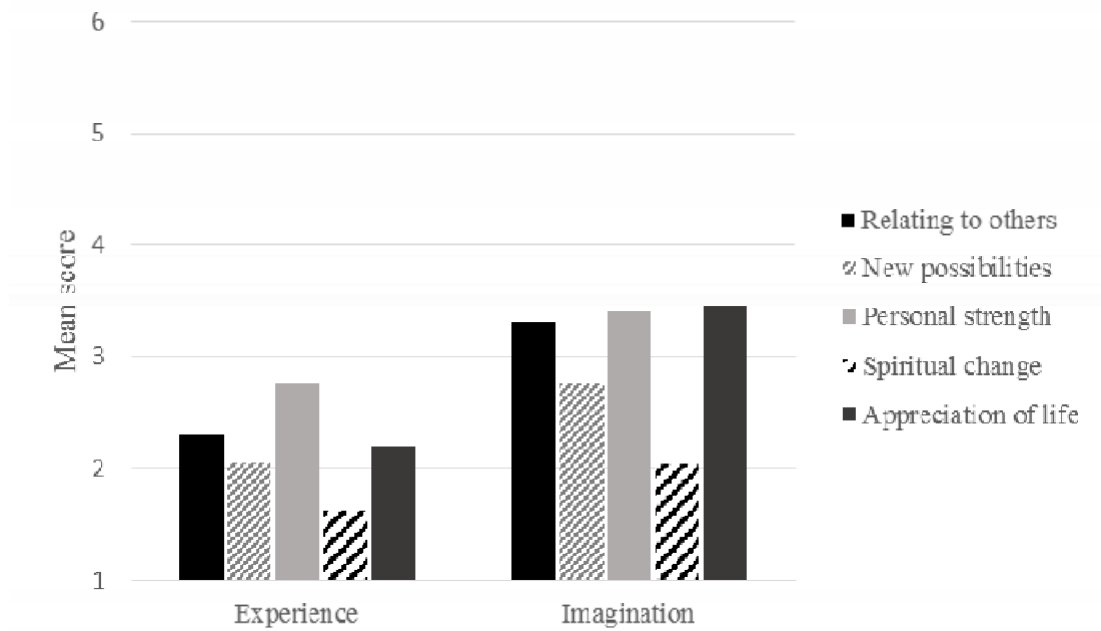


Figure 10: Mean scores of relating to others, new possibilities, personal strength, spiritual change, and appreciation of life reported by Imaginers and Experiencers.

PTGI Summary. The aim of this analysis was to examine the extent to which people experience or anticipate experiencing post traumatic growth after sexual harassment and whether real and imagined experiences differ. We examined post traumatic growth as a possible explanation for the results in Study 3, which showed that Experiencers had less negative feelings and higher life satisfaction than anticipated by Imaginers. However, Experiencers reported low post traumatic growth, which is therefore an unlikely explanation for the unexpected results on feelings and life satisfaction. Much like the results of the previous analyses, Imaginers expected that they would experience significantly higher post traumatic growth across all indicators; this was most evident for ‘life appreciation’.

Emotional Reactivity and Numbing. We performed factor analyses on all 37 items that comprise the fear, sadness, general, and anger subscales of the Emotional Reactivity and Numbing Scale (ERNS). The factorability of the items was confirmed by four indicators: Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant, $\chi^2(630) = 10747, p$

<.001; all communalities were above .3; all items correlated .3 with at least one other item; and the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.920) was above the commonly recommended value of .6 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001).

We conducted a principal component analysis with varimax and oblimin rotations. This analysis yielded six factors, explaining 60.02% of the variance across the entire set of variables. The solutions for these analyses can be found in Appendix D, Tables 72 to 75. Similarly to the PTGI analyses, the decisions about how to cluster items together were based on the factors used in the original scale (ERNS; Orsillo, Theodore-Oklata, Luterek, & Plumb, 2007). Therefore, we created the variables Fear, Sadness, General, and Anger. Fear encompassed the items “If a loved one was in danger, I would be scared”, “I feel afraid when I am in dangerous situations”, “I would be afraid if I was being threatened”, “I feel somewhat nervous in new, unfamiliar situations”, “I feel tense when I watch suspenseful movies”, and “I feel scared when I think I may be hurt or harmed in some way” (full sample $\alpha = .807$). Sadness comprised the items “I would feel sad if someone special to me died”, “The death of a loved one would deeply affect me”, “Certain movies can make me feel sad”, “I cannot feel sadness”, “Losing an important relationship would make me feel sad”, “I feel sad when I am separated from someone I care about”, “Hearing stories of other people losing a loved one makes me feel sad”, “I feel sad when things turn out badly”, “When someone insults me, I feel hurt”, “I feel sad when I don’t get something I really want and deserve”, “I feel sad when someone does something to hurt me”, and “Even after a significant loss, I don’t have feelings of sadness” (full sample $\alpha = .858$). General encompassed the items “I am able to feel a wide range of emotions (e.g., happiness, sadness, anger, and fear)”, “I feel cut off from my emotions”, “In situations when other people have strong emotional responses, I don’t feel anything at all”, “There are certain emotions that I cannot feel”, “I think of myself as a very emotional person”, “I have a hard time feeling close to people, even my friends or family”, “I feel like I am

emotionally numb”, and ““There are some negative emotions that I rarely feel even when there is reason to feel them”(full sample $\alpha = .826$). Finally, Anger included the items “I get angry when someone treats me badly”, “I become angry when someone has done something to hurt me”, “I get angry if someone threatens me”, “I get really annoyed when someone hassles me”, “I get angry if I don’t get something I really want and deserve”, “I don’t get angry”, “I get annoyed when I am insulted”, “It is very hard to push my buttons”, “I have a hard time feeling angry, even when there are reasons for me to feel that way”, and “I get angry if someone criticizes me” (full sample $\alpha = .845$).

Multivariate analysis of variance. The aim of this analysis was to explore the extent to which experiencing sexual harassment is linked with lower emotional reactivity and emotional numbing. A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to compare the main effect of Group on the Fear, Sadness, General, and Anger subscales of the ERNS. There was no significant multivariate effect of Group, $F(4,584) = 1.42, p = .228, \eta^2 = .01, 90\% \text{ CI } [.000; .020]$. However, at the univariate level there were some differences between the two subsamples, suggesting more fear and sadness among participants who experienced sexual harassment than among participants who only imagined it.

Fear. There was a marginally significant main effect of Group on Fear, $F(1, 587) = 3.65, p = .057, \eta^2 = .01, 90\% \text{ CI } [.000; .021]$, indicating that Experiencers reported that they experience more fear ($M = 4.01, SD = .04$) than Imaginers ($M = 3.89, SD = .04$).

Sadness. There was a significant main effect of Group on Sadness, $F(1, 587) = 5.36, p = .021, \eta^2 = .01, 90\% \text{ CI } [.001; .026]$: Experiencers reported more sadness ($M = 4.18, SD = .04$) than Imaginers ($M = 4.06, SD = .04$).

General. There was no significant main effect of Group on general emotional reactivity, $F(1, 587) = 1.67, p = .197, \eta^2 = .003, 90\% \text{ CI } [.000; .014]$, indicating that

Experiencers reported similar general emotional reactivity ($M = 4.04$, $SD = .77$) to Imaginers ($M = 3.96$, $SD = .78$).

Anger. The main effect of Group on Anger was not significant, $F(1, 587) = .47$, $p = .495$, $\eta^2 = .001$, 90% CI [.000; .009], indicating that Experiencers reported similar levels of anger ($M = 3.80$, $SD = .72$) to Imaginers ($M = 3.76$, $SD = .71$).

ERNS summary. We performed this analysis to explore whether sexual harassment is linked with diminished emotional reactivity and emotional numbing and to examine whether Experiencers and Imaginers differ with regards to these. Along with the analysis on post traumatic growth, emotional reactivity and numbing were explored as a possible explanation for the relatively positive feelings and high life satisfaction reported by Experiencers in Study 3. In this part of the study, Imaginers also reported on real (not anticipated) experiences. We found very few differences between the two groups. Experiencers reported moderate to high emotional reactivity. Experiencers and Imaginers differed only on fear and sadness; the effect of Group on fear was marginally significant, with Experiencers reporting higher scores than Imaginers; sadness was reported to be significantly higher by Experiencers compared to Imaginers. Therefore we cannot attribute the findings on feelings and life satisfaction to emotional numbing; the results of this analysis suggest that Experiencers' wellbeing may have been disrupted by sexual harassment.

Life satisfaction, Personal self-esteem, Relationship satisfaction, and Optimism.

Factor analyses. We conducted factor analyses on all 15 items used to assess Life satisfaction, Personal self-esteem, Relationship satisfaction, and Optimism. We confirmed the factorability of the items using four criteria: the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sampling adequacy (.938) was "marvellous" (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001); all items correlated at least .3 with at least one other item; all communalities were above

.3; and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant $\chi^2(105) = 7104.87, p < .001$.

We performed a principal component analysis, with varimax and oblimin rotations. These analyses generated two factors. Factor 1 encompassed the items "I feel that the conditions in my life are excellent", "I feel that in most ways my life is close to ideal", "I feel satisfied with my life", "I feel optimistic about my future", "I feel satisfied with myself", "I feel that I have a lot in common with other people", "I feel satisfied with my social relationships", "I feel that people are basically good and trustworthy", "I feel that I am not alone", and "Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad" (full sample $\alpha = .939$). Factor 2 encompassed the items "I feel that I am no good at all", "I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others", "I feel that I do not have much to be proud of", "I feel that I have a number of good qualities", and "I do not expect things to go my way" (full sample $\alpha = .299$). The solutions for these analyses can be found in Appendix D, Tables 76 to 79.

However, the decisions about the way items were clustered together were based on the original scales from which we chose each item. Therefore we clustered the items together into four factors, namely Life satisfaction, Personal self-esteem, Relationships satisfaction, and Optimism. Life satisfaction included the items "I feel satisfied with my life", "I feel that in most ways my life is close to ideal", and "I feel that the conditions in my life are excellent" (full sample $\alpha = .932$). Personal self-esteem included the items: "I feel satisfied with myself", "I feel that I have a number of good qualities", "I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others", "I feel that I do not have much to be proud of", and "I feel that I am no good at all" (full sample $\alpha = .890$). Relationship satisfaction encompassed the items "I feel satisfied with my social relationships", "I feel that I am not alone", "I feel that people are basically good and trustworthy", and "I feel that I have a lot in common with other people" (full sample $\alpha = .832$). Finally, Optimism included the items "I feel optimistic about my future",

“Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad”, and “I do not expect things to go my way” (full sample $\alpha = .836$).

Multivariate analysis of variance. The aim of this analysis was to explore the extent to which people who have experienced sexual harassment feel satisfied with their lives, relationships, selves, and are optimistic about the future (Experiencers), and to examine whether that differs from people who have not had such experiences (Imaginers). A one-way multivariate analysis of variance was conducted to examine the main effect of Group (Experiencers, Imaginers) across the outcomes of life satisfaction, personal self-esteem, relationship satisfaction, and optimism. There was no significant multivariate effect of Group on life satisfaction, personal self-esteem, relationship satisfaction, and optimism, $F(4,583) = 1.76$, $p = .136$, $\eta^2 = .01$, 90% CI [.000; .024]. This was also generally the case for each of the individual measures.

Life satisfaction. There was no significant main effect of Group on life satisfaction, $F(1, 586) = 2.79$, $p = .095$, $\eta^2 = .01$, 90% CI [.000; .018], (Experiencers: $M = 4.10$, $SD = 1.70$ and Imaginers: $M = 4.33$, $SD = 1.50$).

Personal self-esteem. There was a marginally significant main effect of Group on personal self-esteem, $F(1,586) = 3.71$, $p = .055$, $\eta^2 = .01$, 90% CI [.000; .021]: Experiencers reported lower personal self-esteem ($M = 4.80$, $SD = 1.49$) than Imaginers ($M = 5.01$, $SD = 1.21$).

Relationship satisfaction. There was no significant main effect of Group on relationship satisfaction, $F(1, 586) = .88$, $p = .349$, $\eta^2 = .001$, 90% CI [.000; .011], indicating that there were no significant differences in the relationship satisfaction reported by Experiencers ($M = 4.32$, $SD = 1.42$) and that reported by Imaginers ($M = 4.43$, $SD = 1.23$).

Optimism. There was no significant main effect of Group on optimism, $F(1, 586) = .32$, $p = .574$, $\eta^2 = .001$, 90% CI [.000; .008], indicating that the levels of optimism reported by Experiencers ($M = 4.54$, $SD = 1.56$) was similar to those reported

by Imaginers ($M = 4.60$, $SD = 1.32$).

Life outcomes summary. The aim of this analysis was to examine the extent to which participants felt satisfied with their lives, relationships, themselves (personal self-esteem), and how optimistic they were about the future. We also wanted to establish whether there were differences between the two groups across these indicators. In this part of the study, Imaginers reported on real (not anticipated) experiences. We found no significant differences between the two groups across life outcomes. There was only a marginally significant effect of Group on personal self-esteem, such that Experiencers reported lower self-esteem than Imaginers. These results are in line with those of Study 3, with Experiencers reporting relatively high optimism and satisfaction with their lives, relationships, and selves. This also fits in with the general pattern of results throughout this thesis, whereby Experiencers report relatively positive feelings and life satisfaction.

Accounting for incident evaluations.

Similar to Study 3, for the main analyses we ignored the variation in the evaluation of the incidents participants were reporting on (or imagining), because we wanted to remain true to participants' own definitions of sexual harassment. However, we recognise that the variation in evaluation between the two groups of participants could constitute a confound, as Imaginers were more likely (80.3%) than Experiencers (52.3%) to report on 'very negative' incidents. We addressed this potential confound in two ways: We controlled for the incident evaluation in the analyses. We also restricted the analysis to the subsample of participants who were reporting (or imagining) negative events. Below we summarise the effects of controlling for the incident evaluation in the analyses. For a more complete analysis we repeated all analyses on the restricted subsample of participants who reported or imagined events that they evaluated as negative or very negative. This more focussed analysis is reported in Appendix F.

Controlling for incident evaluation in the above analyses resulted in very few differences to what is already reported. The main effects of Group remain significant for all needs, with the exception of the need for things to go back to normal. Group had a significant main effect on the need for things to go back to normal before controlling for the covariate, which becomes marginally significant after controlling for it. All previously reported effects of Group and needs on action remain the same after controlling for the covariate. The only exception is the previously marginally significant effect of the need for safety on the action of seeking counselling becomes significant after controlling for the covariate. All previously reported main effects of Group remain significant for need satisfaction and feelings. The only exception is the feeling of enthusiasm, for which the main effect of Group was marginally significant before controlling for the covariate, and now becomes non-significant. All previously reported effects of Group remain significant for post traumatic growth. Controlling for the covariate only strengthens the main effects of Group on emotional numbing and reactivity: all previously reported main effects of Group remain significant, and there is now a significant multivariate effect of Group on needs, as well as a significant main effect of Group on fear after controlling for the covariate, which were not significant before. Finally, all previously reported effects of Group on life outcomes remain unchanged, with the exception of self-esteem, on which Group previously had a marginally significant effect, which now becomes significant. In summary, controlling for the incident evaluation did not lead to any substantial differences from the main analysis and only served to strengthen the previously reported effects of Group. All results controlling for the covariate can be found in Appendix E.

Discussion Study 4

Overall Study 4 replicates most of the results of Study 3, and further provides some insight into two coping mechanisms people might use after sexual harassment.

Yet, while some of our expectations were supported by the results, others were not. We suggested that following an incident of sexual harassment, people are likely to experience a variety of needs, and that among those needs the need for justice is unlikely to be a singular priority. Our results support this idea, with participants who had experienced sexual harassment reporting moderate to high relational, safety, control, and respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal, but also to report a low need for justice. In line with the open question responses to Study 3, which highlighted the need for safety, safety was reported to be the highest need among Experiencers.

However, our suggestion that people who have not experienced sexual harassment are likely to overestimate the need for justice and ignore the other psychological needs people might have after they have been sexually harassed was not supported. On the contrary, participants who had not experienced sexual harassment expected that all their needs would be significantly higher than those reported by participants who had experienced sexual harassment. Of course, this finding also means that the need for justice was expected to be significantly higher among those who imagined, rather than experienced, sexual harassment however, this pattern was true for all needs, not just those for justice. It is also noteworthy that the pattern of imagined and real needs was very similar. Both Imaginers and Experiencers reported the need for safety and the need for things to back to normal more highly than all other needs, while justice was reported as the lowest need by both subsamples. Therefore, in this study, Imaginers appear to hold fairly accurate impressions of the variety of needs people might experience in response to sexual harassment, and the relative importance of each of those needs. The discrepancy between real and imagined experiences instead lies in the intensity of those needs: Imaginers significantly overestimated every single need, and anticipated all of them to be high.

Reflecting their multiple needs, we further suggested that people are likely to

engage in a variety of different behaviours after they have been sexually harassed, behaviours that might not involve formal procedures. Indeed, Experiencers took very few formal actions and often reported that they did nothing at all. In comparison, Imaginers expected that they would take more actions overall, both formal and informal, and only a small minority expected that they would do nothing. This is in line with our expectations and the findings of Study 3. It is important to highlight, again, that the discrepancy between expected versus taken actions can be consequential in real world settings: Those who make claims of sexual harassment are often discredited because their behaviour did not conform to what a victim ‘should’ do in the circumstance. Future research might need to look further into the consequences of these discrepancies, and specifically the opinions and impressions juries form when they encounter a plaintiff who has not behaved the way they expect them to behave. Interestingly, the only action taken significantly more frequently by the Experience subsample was directly confronting the perpetrator.

Moreover, we proposed that people’s specific needs might direct them away from formal reporting and towards informal responses. Indeed people’s highest needs (such as for safety) were found to predict behaviours and actions that did not involve a formal report, such as not doing anything, discussing the incident with friends and family, and searching for information and support online. The need for justice on the other hand was the only need that significantly predicted all formal actions, namely reporting to the police, making a formal complaint that did not involve the police, contacting HR, and contacting their professional union. Therefore, the fact that justice was reported to be the lowest among people’s needs after sexual harassment might be one of the explanations for people’s low engagement with formal procedures – and conversely, the broader array of needs that people experience beyond simply the need for justice, explains why victims do many things other than what might be expected of them.

Imaginers also expected that all their needs would be significantly more satisfied compared to Experiencers. Even though Experiencers reported lower needs satisfaction than Imaginers, Experiencers nonetheless did report that all their needs were satisfied, with the exception of the need for justice, which was rated as moderately low in terms of satisfaction. It is noteworthy that safety and the need for things to go back to normal were Experiencers' two highest needs, and they were also the two most highly satisfied. This is worth highlighting because these findings suggest that the participants in our sample took actions that were effective for them – that is, actions that satisfied their needs. Even though from a legal and broader societal viewpoint it might be useful for people to report each instance of sexual harassment, efforts to support victims of sexual harassment should not presume that this is the only, or the best, way to resolve the incident for them. Due to the small percentage of our sample of Experiencers who took formal actions, we do not know whether formal reporting would have met their needs, or would have depleted those needs. This remains an open question for future research, which could examine if, when, and how formal reporting does meet any of the prominent psychological needs victims experience.

It should be noted here that the above is a static picture of participants' needs right after sexual harassment. It is quite possible that needs change over time, and that the importance of justice as a salient need might fluctuate with the passage of time. For example, people might be more willing to engage with formal procedures after their other needs have been met. Speaking to this point, the recent surge in historic reports to the police in the UK (“Historic abuse blamed for rise in child rape cases”, 2015) highlights how increased public trust in the police can facilitate reporting, but also how people can be willing to engage with the police even years after their victimisation. This willingness to engage with the police might not be simply the result of persisting needs for justice; we know, for example, that some people report because they want to help others (see for example Kelly, Lovett, & Regan, 2005). However, it is important to

explore the development of needs over time, understand if and how they change, and what behaviours and actions they lead to. Finally, there is an urgent need to examine formal contexts and processes in the UK in relation to people's needs, in order to ensure that people's increased trust in the police is not met with an unchanged, system, an outdated police culture, and a threat of secondary victimisation.

Finally, Study 4 revealed similar findings to Study 3 with respect to feelings and life satisfaction: Experiencers reported significantly lower negative feelings than expected by Imaginers, and there were no significant differences between the two groups on life satisfaction, optimism, self-esteem, and satisfaction with social relationships. We had suggested that people might achieve higher well-being, as indexed by these variables, through mechanisms such as emotional numbing, or post traumatic growth. However, our results do not support this expectation. Participants who had experienced sexual harassment reported low post traumatic growth and moderate to high emotional reactivity; sadness, in particular, was significantly higher compared to Imaginers. Therefore we cannot attribute the unexpected findings around feelings and life satisfaction to either of these mechanisms. Indeed, the patterns on these mechanisms would suggest that well-being is disrupted among victims of sexual harassment.

All in all, Study 4 replicates the results of Study 3 and indicates that responding to sexual harassment is a complex process. Accordingly, it would be very difficult – and unrealistic – to argue for just one 'reasonable response'. Rather, it appears that the behaviours people engage in after they are sexually harassed depend, among other things, on their specific psychological needs, which can be multiple, and the ways in which they strive to meet them. These decisions are generally not well predicted by people who have not experienced sexual harassment. People without experience tend to overestimate the severity of their needs and feelings, and the number of actions they would take.

Following on from these insights, more work needs to be done to explore two areas in particular; first the relationship between formal reporting and psychological needs; second the relationship between time and the development of needs, feelings, and life satisfaction. Most of our sample reported on incidents that took place over a year before they completed the survey, and most of them did not engage with the police. It would be useful to capture people's feelings and views closer to the incident and see if and how those change over time. It is possible that after meeting their immediate needs, people's secondary needs such as the need for justice become more salient; it is also possible that if people meet their immediate needs, achieve wellbeing, and are overall satisfied with their lives, they might not feel the need for legal justice. Finally, it would also be interesting to understand whether and how engagement with the police affects people's needs, life satisfaction, and feelings. It is possible that they will be negatively affected due to the occurrence of secondary victimisation and the low likelihood that a case will lead to a conviction; it is also possible that people have positive interactions with the police, achieve procedural justice, and have their needs met. Therefore, more research is needed in formal contexts to understand these processes and map people's needs and life satisfaction overtime.

General Discussion

In this chapter we have provided evidence that people have a variety of psychological needs after they have been sexually harassed, and that these needs might be associated with different types of action taking. In both studies we find similar results, with people who experienced sexual harassment reporting a variety of needs, very few formal actions, and relatively high life satisfaction and low negative emotions. The combined insight from these patterns is that victims of sexual harassment might not always need what others expect them to, and consequently might not behave in the way that they are expected. However, the actions that they do take

are effective for them, because they satisfy the needs that they have.

Although initially we considered the overestimation of needs and negative feelings surprising, these findings tie in with a large body of literature on affective forecasting. According to this literature, there are four aspects of affective forecasting, namely predicting the valence of one's future feelings, the specific emotions they might experience, the intensity of those feelings, and the duration of the emotional state (Blumenthal, 2004). In his review of the literature on affective forecasting error Blumenthal argued that people usually perform accurate predictions for the first two aspects (the valence of emotions and the specific emotions they will experience); in other words people are skilled at predicting whether a hypothetical or future experience will cause them to have positive or negative emotions, and what those exact emotions will be. However, people perform errors with regards to the intensity and duration of those emotions and tend to overestimate both; when predicting their future or hypothetical feelings people anticipate that they will be more intense than they actually are, and that they will last longer than they actually do. Our results are consistent with this idea. Imaginers correctly predicted the multiplicity of needs they might experience and their relative importance, with a pattern of anticipated needs which was very similar to the needs reported by the Experiencers. However, they failed to accurately predict the intensity of each need and significantly overestimated every single one of them.

Furthermore, there is literature on affective forecasting error that examines issues relating to different forms of sexual harassment, such as sexism and objectification. For example, Bosson and colleagues (2010) conducted research on the effects of benevolent and hostile sexism; they found that not only did people significantly mis-predict women's emotional responses to sexism, but those mis-predictions differed depending on whether participants were imagining hostile versus subtle sexism. In more detail, they asked participants without experiences of sexism to

imagine how they would feel if they were a woman who was treated in a benevolent sexist or a hostile sexist way; they compared their responses to those of participants who had experienced benevolent or hostile sexism and had been asked to recall their feelings immediately after the event. Their results showed that people significantly overestimated the intensity and duration of feelings after experiencing hostile sexism relative to the feelings reported by women who had actually experienced hostile sexism. However, they also significantly underestimated the intensity and duration of negative feelings after experiencing subtle sexism. Therefore the direction of people's mispredictions differed depending on the perceived severity of the sexist experience. Similar patterns of misperception by those who predicted reactions to sexual objectification, versus those who experienced this directly or observed others having this experience, was found by Wiener, Gervais, Allen, and Marquez (2013). In this study, 'predictors' estimated the consequences of objectification to be worse overall than it was experienced to be. This does not deny the negativity of such events, instead it speaks to the individual's capacity to cope effectively in the face of negative experiences – and to do so more effectively than others might expect.

In both our studies most of the Imaginers imagined incidents that were negative or very negative; therefore it appears that they performed an error similar to that described by Bosson and colleagues (2010), namely by overestimating the intensity of the negative feelings and needs after an event that is perceived to be negative. In addition, most of our overall sample reported on negative or very negative experiences. Therefore it is possible that if people reported on less negative, or lower end sexual harassment (such as sexualised comments about one's appearance) we might find a different pattern of results, whereby people underestimate the impact of that type of sexual harassment. Our data do not allow us to test this directly, due to the small percentage of participants who reported on experiences that were not 'negative' or 'very negative'. However, this might help explain common public reactions to mild forms of

sexual harassment, and the tendency to underestimate the emotional impact of these experiences and to minimise their effects. For example, it is not uncommon for people who have been made to feel uncomfortable due to a comment about their appearance to be told that they should accept the comment as a compliment, rather than complain about it (see for example Gill, 2015). Such forms of sexual harassment are widespread and it is therefore crucial that future research examines affective forecasting for ‘mild’ forms of sexual harassment.

All in all, then, our findings align with a large body of literature on affective forecasting errors, and provide insight into previously unexamined aspects of these, such as people’s expectations about needs and psychological growth after sexual harassment. They also highlight the multiplicity of needs people experience after sexual harassment and the role those needs play in the actions people choose to take as a response to a sexually harassing event. Taken together these two studies show that responding to sexual harassment is not a straightforward journey, and that one universal ‘reasonable response’ probably does not exist. Instead, what is reasonable and useful for each person depends on a number of factors, including their own psychological needs. Furthermore, given the discrepancies between real and imagined experiences, it would seem precarious – or perhaps even irresponsible – to allow the reasonability of a response to be judged by a jury prone to affective forecasting errors. Given that the use of the ‘reasonable response/woman standard’ continues, it would be useful if the reasonability of each response was judged on a case by case basis, and expectations were informed by research conducted directly with people who have experienced sexual harassment – not just people’s naïve impressions of what they would do under the same circumstances.

Limitations

There are two main limitations to both these studies. First, we accepted Experiencers’ retrospective recollections of their needs after sexual harassment as

'reality' and the standard against which we compared Imaginers' expectations. It is, of course, possible that people's reports of their responses were affected by recall bias. Previous research has had mixed findings with regards to people's ability to accurately remember their past affective states. For example, in a review of the literature on recalling emotional events Christianson and Safer (1996) discussed that there are a number of factors that might affect people's memory, such as the frequency of the affective state they are recalling and the valence of the emotions. They further argued there is not one simple, linear relationship between memory and emotions, whereby intense emotions impair or improve memory; rather, emotion and memory interact in a complex way (Christianson & Safer, 1996). They end their review by concluding that (at the time of publication) there were no published studies that supported people's ability to accurately remember the frequency or intensity of their past emotional states. Furthermore, studies on psychiatric populations have found that people misremember their depressive symptoms; for example when Schrader, Davis, Stefanovic, and Christie (1990) asked their participants, who were patients in an acute psychiatric unit, to recall the intensity of their depressive symptoms in the previous week, they remembered a higher intensity of depressive symptoms than those they had originally reported the week before; the accuracy of recall was affected by the level of depression, with participants who experienced higher levels of depression exhibiting more accurate recall.

On the other hand, some studies speak to people's ability to accurately remember their experiences and emotions and find that emotionally intense experiences are generally well remembered. For example, Talarico, LaBar, and Rubin, (2004) found that emotionally intense experiences were better remembered than neutral experiences and that the intensity of emotions (both positive and negative) was a stronger predictor of autobiographical memories than the valence of the emotions or the age of the memory. Also, McGaugh (2004) found that people have strong, long lasting memories

of emotionally arousing experiences, because these activate the amygdala, which helps consolidate these memories. All in all, the findings around people's ability to accurately remember their emotions are mixed, with some researchers arguing that people are fairly good at recalling their experiences accurately and others claiming that people misremember their experiences and overestimate the intensity and frequency of their past emotions.

However, our findings are in line with lab based research, in which the nature of reporting emotional states was not retrospective, and the reports were provided right after having a sexually harassing experience (such as Gervais, Wiener, Allen, Farnum, & Kimble, 2016). Furthermore, people's self-reported needs tie in intuitively with the actions they reported taking; for example, it makes sense that people who experienced a low need for justice did not take any actions that aimed to achieve justice. Finally, studies that show that people misremember their emotions have often found that people tend to overestimate the intensity and frequency of their negative emotions (see for example Schrader, Davis, Stefanovic, & 1990). Therefore, even if our Experiencers overestimated the intensity of their negative feelings right after the sexual harassment, which could affect their perceptions of what their needs were at that time, the significant differences between real and anticipated experiences should not only withstand this, but in theory could be even larger than estimated in these studies. Nevertheless, this is purely speculative, and the retrospective nature of our data on needs, action, and needs satisfaction constitutes a limitation that should be rectified by future research.

Future research

An interesting avenue for future investigation would be to explore people's responses right after sexual harassment and to capture needs, feelings, and life satisfaction longitudinally. It is possible that people's feelings and needs change over time, and that may affect their actions and how they feel about the actions they took

right after the sexual harassment. For example, some of our participants commented that even though they believed that not reporting was the right thing for them at the time of the incident, years later they felt regretful about that decision and wished they had made a formal report. Therefore it is possible that a longitudinal study would capture the developments and changes in people's feelings and understand how those were affected by their actions and their experiences after the incident. Longitudinal research on this topic is, however, a practical challenge. If we know that most people do not take formal action immediately after the experience of sexual harassment, it is difficult to imagine how researchers could access participants swiftly after the point of experience, and how they can do so in a way that draws in the diversity of experiences and responses people might take. The alternative is to recruit participants for longitudinal studies, on the assumption that many will eventually experience harassment. But this would require significant resources, and might yield little or no data if experiences are not forthcoming.

Of course, future research should also endeavour to engage with people who do report their experiences formally; and to properly compare the impact of formal and informal actions on people's feelings and needs satisfaction, something that we could not do with the current data. It is crucial to understand how engagement with formal procedures impacts people's feelings and how it interacts with their wellbeing. The critical question here is: Does formal action facilitate or hinder recovery? As noted in the Introduction, based on a broader view of victim needs, and the sometimes precarious balance between needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness, and between the costs and benefits for the self and for social acceptance, one might not assume that speaking out, and formally complaining, is the 'best' course of action to the individual.

Finally, another useful direction for future investigation would be to examine ways to reduce affective forecasting error with a specific focus on the context of sexual harassment. There is literature showing that affective forecasting error can be reduced in

various ways; for example Gilbert, Killingsworth, Eyre, & Wilson, 2009) found that people performed more accurate predictions about their own reactions to an event when they had information about how other people in their social network reacted to it, compared to when they had information about the event itself. Therefore, it is possible that knowing how people who have experienced sexual harassment usually react might help reduce people's forecasting error. However, we also know that people's attitudes and expectations towards people who have experienced sexual harassment and sexual violence are affected by a large number of beliefs and ideas. For example, there is evidence that people's level of belief in a just world affects their judgment of rape victims (e.g. Kleinke & Meyer, 1990). Therefore, attempts to understand and reduce affective forecasting error in this context should take into account the factors that might affect people's judgments and feelings towards the person whose response they are evaluating (such as belief in rape myths, belief in a just world etc.).

Chapter 6: General Discussion and Conclusion

This thesis aimed to explore responses to sexual harassment as they are experienced and understood by four different perspectives: The perspective of people who respond to sexual harassment complaints in an informal setting; the perspective of people who respond to it in a formal setting; the perspective of people who have experienced it; and finally, the perspective of those who have not experienced it, but imagine it. In this final chapter we will briefly discuss our findings, integrate them into the literature, and consider potential future directions. In more detail, we will begin with a summary of the previous five chapters, followed by a discussion of the theoretical contributions this research has made. Next, we will highlight the practical implications stemming from our findings. Finally, we will outline the limitations of our studies and suggest some of the possible future research that could be undertaken to address them, and further our understanding of the ways in which people are affected by, respond to, and perceive sexual harassment.

Summary of the Previous Chapters

In Chapter 1 we provided a summary of some of the consequences sexual harassment is known to have. We also discussed some common beliefs about reasonable responses to sexual harassment and provided an overview of the contents of this thesis. Chapter 2 included an overview of the ways in which people define sexual harassment. Even though most definitions contain some similar characteristics, such as the recognition that sexual harassment is unwanted, there is not one universally accepted definition of this term. For our theorising in this thesis we used the social psychological definition of sexual harassment. However, to explore the plethora of definitions our participants might use and to understand what they imagine when they think of sexual harassment, we asked all participants across our four studies to provide their own definitions of sexual harassment. Indeed, our participants shared a large number of varied definitions, which included physical, verbal, single, and ongoing incidents

perpetrated both by strangers, as well as by people known to the victim; the police officers in Study 2 acknowledged the variety of definitions people might use, but stated that in their role they used the legal definition, which is based primarily on the Sexual Offences Act 2003. This means that each behaviour or incident needed to fulfil a certain set of criteria in order to be considered a crime, and each incident fell under a specific crime type (for example, rape and sexual assault by penetration are two separate crimes). This differs from the definitions provided by those who had experienced sexual harassment, who were less likely to break incidents down into such detail for the purpose of defining them and described a variety of experiences under the umbrella term 'sexual harassment'.

In Chapter 3 we argued that the expectation that people will report sexual harassment immediately after it happens might stem partly from the belief that a fundamental need experienced by sexual harassment victims from the point at which they encounter harassment is the need for justice. We discussed that even though victims might indeed experience the need for justice, this is not the only need they experience, and perhaps not even a priority in the early stages. According to the literature on psychological needs, there is evidence that some basic psychological needs that go beyond the need for justice (such as the need for belonging and autonomy) are universal and fundamental for people's wellbeing (Deci & Ryan, 2008; Chen et al. 2015). We further discussed that needs are not all equally intense or important all the time and people might strive to meet some needs before others. Especially in situations where a particular set of needs is threatened, it is possible that people will strive to meet those needs before other co-occurring needs. Therefore, we argued that it is possible that sexual harassment threatens a number of needs, such as the need for autonomy and safety, which are essential for victims' wellbeing. As a result, people might be motivated to meet those needs first, such as by taking informal actions and getting support from people they trust, while other needs, including the need for justice, are

secondary at that point, thus pushing a formal report later in time.

In addition to the variety of needs that might direct people to avoid formal actions, we argued that people who do wish to make a formal report might face a number of barriers to doing so, such as fears relating to the process and the way they might be treated, as well as concerns about how their social circle might perceive their behaviour. Based on prior research in other areas (e.g. Kowalski, 1996; Rattan & Dweck, 2010), we proposed that people perform a cost benefit analysis and consider the costs of coming forward, such as the possibility that they might be evaluated negatively by their peers and seen as a trouble maker; such costs are often likely to outweigh the benefits, which usually only comprise of a low likelihood of a favourable formal outcome.

Finally, in Chapter 3 we provided an overview of the literature on affective forecasting, which has shown that people perform forecasting errors, most commonly with regard to the intensity and duration of the feelings they anticipate having in response to particular incidents. We therefore suggested that people are likely to make inaccurate predictions about their own and others' feelings after sexual harassment and questioned whether juries (and other third parties) are capable of evaluating complainants' credibility.

In Chapter 4 we presented and discussed the findings from two qualitative studies with professionals who provide an informal (Study 1) and a formal (Study 2) service to those who wish to discuss their experiences with sexual harassment or make a complaint. Study 1 comprised of interviews with HR staff and volunteers who provide an informal support service to those who wish to discuss their experiences with sexual harassment without the expectation that they will take any formal actions. Study 2 consisted of interviews with police officers who deal with sexual harassment cases. We examined these two contexts because we expected that the different roles and aims of these two groups of service providers might affect the way they perceive complainants

and their needs and wishes. However, we found few differences between the informal and the formal service providers' perceptions around sexual harassment and the way people respond to it.

With regard to the needs people might have when they come forward with a sexual harassment complaint, both types of service providers highlighted a similar set of needs, such as the need to be believed and respected, to be treated well, to feel empowered and to not be judged; they argued that people's most prominent needs after experiencing sexual harassment are likely to be psychological, rather than justice oriented. There was also general agreement around the various barriers people might face to coming forward, such as self-blame, fear of social and other consequences, and feeling ashamed. These barriers are consistent with the barriers we find in the literature, but the literature offers some additional reasons, such as concerns around confidentiality (Sable et al., 2006).

The few differences we found between the ways the two types of service providers discussed sexual harassment centred around the importance of defining sexual harassment, the way in which that definition is decided, and the role of the service providers. For the informal service providers, the definition of sexual harassment was fluid, decided by the service user, and not always relevant to the context of emotional support. For the police officers on the other hand, defining each behaviour as a particular crime was of utmost importance as soon as a complaint had been made. The definition did not depend on the way the service user felt about the behaviour; rather, it depended on a number of factors, such as the law and the available evidence, and was likely to change throughout the investigation.

Furthermore, the service providers discussed discrepancies between what service users need and what the service can actually support them with. Though a multiplicity of needs was acknowledged, both types of providers discussed that the remit of their roles does not cover all of those needs. For informal service providers it is possible to

support people with their psychological needs and to give them an opportunity to offload; however, they hold no formal authority and are not in a position to assist with legal and justice related needs, or take forward any formal actions for the service users. On the other hand, the police officers acknowledged people's psychological needs, but argued that emotional support is not within their remit; however, they do investigate and take cases forward formally, and are therefore able to assist with people's endeavour to obtain justice. Therefore, we found similarities across contexts in the perceptions of service users' needs, and the differences lay in the remit of each role. All in all, Studies 1 and 2 provided us with a depth of knowledge about service providers' definitions of sexual harassment, their perception of the factors that hinder and encourage people to come forward, as well as their perspective on people's needs after they have been sexually harassed. In the next chapter we focused on the perspective of people who had experienced sexual harassment, as well as the perspective of those who had never experienced sexual harassment but imagined it.

Chapter 5 encompassed two quantitative studies examining the perspective of people who had experienced or imagined sexual harassment. In Study 3 we asked participants who had experienced sexual harassment to share their definition of sexual harassment; we then asked them to focus on one incident (if they had experienced sexual harassment more than once), to provide some information about the incident they had experienced and then respond to a set of questionnaires exploring their needs, the actions they took after they were sexually harassed, and their current wellbeing. We also asked people who had not experienced sexual harassment to imagine that they had and respond to the same set of questions in a hypothetical manner. This study allowed us to establish, as we expected, that people do experience a variety of needs after sexual harassment and that they take a variety of actions to cope with this, with formal actions or seeking legal justice being relatively rare. We also found large discrepancies between real and imagined experiences. Those who

only imagined experiencing sexual harassment expected that most their needs would be significantly stronger compared to those who had actually experienced sexual harassment. They also anticipated that they would take more actions, both formal and informal, and that they would have lower life satisfaction than people with experiences of sexual harassment actually reported.

Study 4 sought to replicate these findings and explored the journey people go through after sexual harassment in terms of their emotional reactions, and the reasons behind the discrepancies between real and imagined experiences. Therefore Study 4 was very similar to Study 3 but included two additional measures exploring the potential role of two coping mechanisms, namely post traumatic growth and emotional numbing, in people's reported wellbeing after sexual harassment; it also sought to establish whether perceptions around coping mechanisms play a role in the discrepancies between real and imagined experiences. The results revealed very similar findings to those of Study 3, with Experiencers reporting a variety of needs, few formal actions, and relatively high wellbeing. Similarly to Study 3, Imaginers anticipated that all their needs would be higher than those reported by Experiencers, that they would take more actions, and have lower life satisfaction than Experiencers. The results also showed that participants who had experienced sexual harassment reported low post-traumatic growth and moderate to high emotional reactivity, with sadness being significantly higher compared to people who had not had such experiences. Therefore, it was not possible to attribute our findings around people's life satisfaction to emotional numbing or post traumatic growth. Taken together Studies 3 and 4 highlight the multiplicity of needs people have after sexual harassment and the fact that they take primarily informal actions as a response to such experiences. The relatively low need for justice is particularly noteworthy, due to common expectations about people's behaviour after sexual harassment. These findings also highlight that not seeking justice doesn't mean victims are passive, or

doing nothing, since they are instead seeking a range of actions that might address their more immediate needs. In this way, we demonstrate that responding to sexual harassment can be a complex, individual journey, affected by a variety of factors; thus, it appears misguided to try to prescribe one single reasonable response. The examination of coping mechanisms and emotional responses allowed us to explore people's journeys further and better understand the discrepancies between real and imagined experiences. Finally, this research allowed us to delve into the affective forecasting errors performed by Imaginers and understand exactly where the discrepancy lies: In the intensity of the imagined needs, not the pattern or multiplicity of needs.

Theoretical Contributions

This thesis makes contributions to the literature on generalised psychological needs by examining the variety of needs people have in particular after experiencing sexual harassment. One of our main propositions was that the majority of people do not report sexual harassment because they need to attend to a range of other psychological needs they experience after sexual harassment. In more detail we argued that people might have a variety of psychological needs after they experience sexual harassment, besides the need for justice, such as the need for belonging and autonomy. We also argued that these psychological needs might guide them towards taking actions that would meet those specific needs and that those actions might not involve making a formal report. Our results lend support to the idea that people have multiple needs after such experiences; we were not able to show that needs *guide* people to take specific actions, but we found that some needs might be associated with different types of action taking.

In addition, in Studies 3 and 4 we found that needs similar to those outlined by Self Determination Theory (Deci & Ryan, 2008) were salient after sexual harassment. For example, in Study 3 we found that communal and agentic needs were high, and in

Study 4 relational, control, and respect needs were reported to be high, which are closely aligned to the three fundamental psychological needs outlined by Self Determination Theory, namely relatedness, autonomy, and competence. Furthermore, in Study 4 we included the need for safety, which was reported to be the highest need among those who had experienced sexual harassment. This appears to be in line with Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943), according to which safety is a basic physiological need which at times of privation might be prioritised over needs that are higher in the pyramid, such as the need to belong. Though our results do not reveal whether participants prioritised some needs over others and tried to satisfy them in order of importance, as might be suggested by Maslow's theory, it is however noteworthy that needs were not all equally salient and safety was the highest need reported by those who had experienced sexual harassment.

We further speculated that even though most people do not make a formal report after sexual harassment that does not mean that they are passive, or do not take any actions at all. We argued that action should not be seen as a binary choice between making a formal report and not doing anything. Instead people might take a variety of actions that help them meet their needs. Indeed, our results showed that many people chose to respond to the incident by discussing it with their friends or family, or by directly confronting the perpetrator. As aforementioned throughout the thesis, it is common to question why people do not report sexual harassment. Therefore, the answer to the question 'why do people not report sexual harassment?' might be partly because they are doing other things to meet their needs.

Moreover, people often question why people did not report sexual harassment formally without first questioning how much is known about the 'right' response to sexual harassment, or if there even is one. The questions asked are often biased by people's assumptions about victims' needs, rather than being informed by a close examination of people's needs by working with those directly affected by these

experiences. Therefore, the discussions around why people do not report sexual harassment formally almost always assume that there is one right way of responding to sexual harassment and that it by making a formal report. This thesis contributes to an understanding of people's responses to sexual harassment, by asking questions about people's responses in a different way. We examined what actually happens after sexual harassment, by asking participants about their definitions of sexual harassment, their needs, and their responses in an open way, without assuming that we know what is best for people or proposing that victims should always make a formal report. In this way, people who have been directly affected by sexual harassment guided our understanding of what constitutes sexual harassment, what people need after sexual harassment, how they respond to it, and what might constitute a 'reasonable' response; namely all responses that help people feel better and safer, and might help them meet their needs.

Finally, we questioned people's ability to predict their own and others' needs and actions after sexual harassment, and the suitability of the 'reasonable woman standard' for sexual harassment cases. Our results showed that people do not perform accurate predictions about their feelings, needs and actions after a sexually harassing experience. Even though people are able to predict the variety of needs they might have, they tend to overestimate the intensity of those needs, as well as expect that they will take more actions (both formal and informal) than people actually do. Based on these findings it could be argued that applying the 'reasonable woman standard' to sexual harassment cases is unsuitable and likely to lead to inaccurate evaluations of the complainants' behaviour, because it relies on the jury (and other third parties) being able to imagine how a reasonable person would have responded to the same incident and evaluate the complainant's behaviour based on that prediction.

Practical Implications

This thesis has explored the impact of sexual harassment in terms of the needs victims experience after sexual harassment, the actions they take to meet those needs,

and the extent to which their needs are met via their actions. Our findings have a number of practical implications, centred broadly around three areas: The options that are available to survivors, formal reporting procedures, and the current laws.

Nuanced options and support services

The most common action taken by people who had experienced sexual harassment in our sample was speaking with friends and family. This has important implications for service provision. It is vital to ensure that relevant services are available for people who seek informal support, such as helplines and avenues for disclosing experiences without making a formal report. Such services exist in the UK but often have limited capacity, do not cover all regions, and are vulnerable to funding cuts. For example, charities like Rape Crisis England and Wales rely on short term grants; in the areas that do not receive grants the services often have to shut down completely (Rape Crisis England and Wales, 2019). The services that do get funded rely on volunteers to staff them and provide support to service users. Workplace based services such as Dignity and Respect advisors are likely to only be available in larger organisations that are able to fund and run them. This type of informal service that is complementary to HR is unlikely to be available in small companies and family businesses. Therefore, there are areas in the UK where people do not have access to support from specialist charities, and companies where informal support is not available, but such services could meet people's most prominent needs after sexual harassment.

More generally, services and available options for those who have experienced sexual harassment should be informed by people's needs and wishes and reflect their variety and development over time. Current procedures and outcomes can feel quite binary: A victim either does nothing or makes a formal report; the outcome is either nothing or something very bad, such as the perpetrator being fired or jailed if they are found guilty. These kinds of outcomes can put a lot of pressure on victims who might just want the behaviour to stop and for things to go back to normal; indeed, it has been

identified that some people do not report rape because they do not want the perpetrator to face consequences (RAINN, n.d.). This could also be true of people who experience sexual harassment in the workplace; they might not want to feel responsible for someone losing their job; however, they might still want the behaviour to stop. To this end, more nuanced options should be available to people who come forward. For example, it could be possible for some (but not all) cases to support victims through mediation meetings with the perpetrator where the victim has the opportunity to explain their point of view and the perpetrator makes a commitment to change their behaviour.

Increasing the number and type of options available to those seeking support would be in line with recommendations from the literature on Trauma Informed Care. One of the key principles of Trauma Informed Care is that services should maximise service users' choices and control over their recovery (Elliott, Bjelajac, Fallo, Markoff, and Reed, 2005). Providing survivors with nuanced, realistic, and appealing options would allow them to choose the avenue that they felt was appropriate and not disruptive for their recovery, as opposed to having to choose between not seeking any form of structured support or following a formal procedure that is unlikely to take their needs and recovery into account and might even lead to retraumatisation. In addition to offering victims the opportunity for more control over their recovery, there is some evidence that Trauma Informed Care might have better outcomes compared to standard treatment. For example, Hopper, Bassuk, and Oliver (2010) noted that services that followed a trauma informed model reported a decrease in psychiatric symptoms, trauma symptoms, mental health symptoms, and substance use. They further suggested that trauma informed services are cost-effective, due to having improved outcomes without costing more than standard treatment.

Though we recognise the importance of nuanced options and restorative approaches, the above does not constitute an argument against legal, punitive and

justice-oriented solutions. On the contrary, it is of paramount importance that the Criminal Justice System strives to ensure that a higher proportion of offenders are identified as such and face punitive outcomes; it is also crucial for the current system to become less traumatising, threatening and unhelpful towards those who come forward. However, it is also important that nuanced responses are available alongside a system that supports and believes complainants; these options should be able to support people with their needs, which may or may not be justice oriented.

Formal reporting and the Criminal Justice System

The way the Criminal Justice System is currently set up does not prioritise the needs and wishes of people who have experienced sexual harassment. Furthermore, for sentencing decisions it assumes that juries have natural abilities and skills that most people without expertise in psychology, crime detection, or the law do not possess. Asking juries to evaluate whether someone responded in a reasonable way requires that they are able to imagine what a reasonable response should look like. There is now ample evidence that people perform inadequate predictions about how they and others would feel and behave after adverse events. Therefore, there should be consideration of the suitability of jury-led decision making for cases of sexual harassment. It might be possible to use alternative methods; for example, decisions could be made by expert panels who understand the reality of dealing with sexual harassment. It would be relevant for people evaluating sexual harassment allegations to understand the dilemmas people might face after such an experience, the way their memories might be affected, the way people behave during such incidents, and the way their needs might lead them to deal with the aftermath of the incident. Experts could include mental health professionals who specialise in sexual violence and police officers and judges who have received specific training relating to the biological and psychological sequelae of sexual violence, as well as training on rape myths.

When people engage with the Criminal Justice System, it is important that they feel believed, respected, and validated, and are given a clear understanding of what the process will entail, with regular updates during the process itself. It would be useful to explain early on when someone enters the process some of the things that are expected and might have an impact on them; for example, it is known that the criming decision might change during a police investigation, and that there are multiple factors that may cause this. It would be useful for police officers to explain this to the complainant right at the beginning, so that they can better understand the process and prepare themselves for this possibility. Furthermore, even though it is not within the scope of the role of police officers to provide extensive emotional support, training could be undertaken to ensure that police officers use language that helps people feel valued and avoid harmful language that might lead to secondary victimisation. If services were provided with the above recommendations in mind, they would be more likely to meet some of the key principles of Trauma Informed Care (Elliott et al., 2005), namely that services should aim to minimise the potential of retraumatisation, that they should be based on relational collaboration which is characterised by respect, information, connection, and hope, and that they should offer service users opportunities to rebuild control (Hopper, Bassuk, & Oliver, 2010).

In addition to improving the way people are treated when they enter the Criminal Justice System and ensuring that they are not retraumatised by seeking legal justice, work should be done to address the first point of attrition in cases of sexual violence: The fact that people rarely come forward. Many people do not come forward because they take other actions or deal with the incident in informal ways; however, some people do not come forward because they are afraid that they will not be believed and that the system will not be able to help them. This expectation is unfortunately not unreasonable; the Criminal Justice System has over time gained a reputation for mistreatment of victims, with some saying that going through the criminal justice

system was worse than the rape itself (see for example McVeigh, 2006) while some people have given up on the Criminal Justice System and do not expect any justice to be served (see for example Doughty, 2019). Therefore, it is important to improve the reputation of the system and reassure people about how they will be treated if they come forward, in order to enable them to feel confident to make a report.

Much like the Criminal Justice System, people also face challenges when they engage in other formal reporting procedures, such as making complaints in organisational environments. In theory, sexual harassment complaints can be investigated within any organisation. However, people seldom report sexual harassment in the workplace, and when they do, they rarely report feeling supported; sometimes they even report negative outcomes, such as being treated in a worse way than before as a result of their complaint (TUC, 2016). Similar improvements to those we propose for the Criminal Justice System would help ensure that people have a better experience when they make a formal report in an organisational context. It is important that organisations take a number of steps to help people feel confident to report sexual harassment in the first place, and then ensure that they feel supported and not worse off as a result of their report. For example, it is important that all staff who deal with sexual harassment complaints are trained to understand the pervasiveness of violence (Elliot et al., 2005) and follow the trauma informed principle of doing no further harm to those seeking support (Muskett, 2014).

In addition, it would be beneficial if services validated people's resilience, focusing on their recovery and strengths, as opposed to focusing solely on pathology (Elliot et al., 2005). In Studies 3 and 4 we found that while Imaginers overestimated the consequences of sexual harassment, Experiencers actually showed remarkable resilience and strength after experiencing sexual harassment. Therefore, it is important to design services that respond to the experiences of survivors, rather than being based on the assumptions of those who have not experienced sexual harassment and who might focus

only on pathology and underestimate people's ability to adapt. Services that expect people to respond differently from what they do, emphasising only pathology and treating them accordingly, might make survivors feel misunderstood, which can be invalidating and potentially detrimental for building a trusting relationship with the service providers. On the other hand, services that emphasise resilience and focus on recovery might be experienced as more understanding and supportive by people who, like many of our participants, show an ability to recover and adapt after experiencing sexual harassment.

Legislative possibilities

Though legal reform is beyond the scope of this thesis, it is worth noting that legislative changes could improve the process and outcome of reporting sexual violence. For example, the Sexual Offences Act 2003 states that in order for a sexual interaction to be considered rape, a number of conditions need apply; one of these conditions is that the alleged perpetrator knew that the alleged victim did not consent, and nevertheless proceeded to have sex with them. This makes it extremely hard to prove that a rape or an assault have actually taken place, as the victim's wishes and opinions do not suffice to label something a crime; rather, the verdict comes down to the prosecutor and the defence lawyer convincing the jury about their version of the alleged perpetrator's thought process and intentions.

It is very unlikely that there is a quick, easy, and perfect solution for this issue. It would perhaps be useful to agree on a stricter consensus around what can be accepted as proof of consent. Currently expressions of consent can be anything from drinking, flirting, and dancing with someone to wearing underwear that the jury consider provocative (see for example Cramb, 2018). But besides the plethora of behaviours that might be seen as indirect consent that took place right before the alleged rape, prior behaviours of the alleged victim are also used in court, in order to discredit them. Using someone's sexual history, i.e. sexual interactions that they chose to take part in with

other people in the past should generally be seen as irrelevant to someone's right to consent to or reject a future sexual interaction. Though legislation has already been passed in the UK to limit the use of complainants' sexual history as evidence in court, these practices continue (see for example Baxter, 2016). Therefore, there should be stricter monitoring of the information that is used as evidence, including information about the victim that does not relate to whether or not they consented to that specific sexual interaction. Finally, in particular for cases of workplace sexual harassment, it would be beneficial to enforce stricter regulation of non-disclosure agreements in order to ensure that they are not used to protect criminals and conceal crimes.

Limitations and Future Research

As aforementioned, our research provides a static picture of people's needs after sexual harassment, as recalled retrospectively by those who had such experiences. These studies were not experimental and cannot lead to causal inferences between needs and actions. There are several other factors that could potentially affect people's needs, actions, and their recollection of these, which cannot be definitively excluded. As such, the results, which are based on people's recollections, might be affected by people applying new meanings to their experiences, or reinterpreting what happened as they are processing things and recovering. It is, for example, conceivable that people who did not seek formal action retrospectively downplayed their need for justice, to better fit with the actions they took. Other factors, such as a lack of awareness, or a fear of repercussions could also impact the actions people take. A potential causal relationship between people's needs and actions should be explored by future studies employing an experimental design. Future research could also endeavour to explore people's needs as they are being experienced right after sexual harassment, and examine their development over time via longitudinal studies.

It would also be useful for some of this work to be qualitative in order to get a depth of information on survivors' feelings and experiences, as well as to allow them to

express themselves and be in control of how they discuss their experiences. As this subject area can be emotionally challenging and participants who have had such experiences are likely to be vulnerable, such research could be undertaken by collaborating closely with service providers who have a relationship of trust with their service users and can ensure they are consenting freely and communicating their experiences in a safe environment. For example, it could be possible to work with charities that specialise in sexual violence, develop interview protocols that meet the research questions and are also approved by services that have extensive face to face experience with supporting and interacting with survivors of sexual violence. The research could be advertised to service users by the services in a way that they feel is sensitive and appropriate. This could ensure that service users are approached in a caring, gentle and considerate way, that they have the opportunity to discuss the study and its purpose with someone they already trust, and are able to make a decision about taking part without feeling any pressure to do so.

Furthermore, the number of people in our sample who made a formal report was too small to allow us to draw conclusions about the impact of a formal report on people's needs. Future research could address this by conducting studies specifically with people who have reported their experiences formally and examining how that affected their needs. Does engaging with formal procedures meet people's needs? Does it satisfy different needs compared to the needs met by informal support? Does it further intensify people's needs by taking away their autonomy and questioning their response to the incident?

In addition, Studies 1 and 2 focused on the perspective of service providers and their perceptions of people's needs and feelings. Therefore, future research could explore service users' experiences with engaging with HR and the police, the impact of those interactions on their needs, wellbeing and recovery. It would be particularly useful to examine how service users feel about some of the issues discussed by the police

officers, such as the changes of the criming decisions that are made during an investigation. Even though this might be a necessary, unavoidable part of an investigation, it is nevertheless likely that it has an impact on people who have come forward with a complaint and who might already have a definition in their mind about what happened to them. What happens when the 'reality' of their experiences keeps being re-interpreted? Research could explore the impact of a changeable definition and perhaps offer suggestions for communicating these changes to service users without making them feel misunderstood, disbelieved, and out of control.

With regard to formal reporting procedures, it would be useful to analyse official administrative data over time to see if and how the scale of reporting fluctuates, what affects the likelihood of people maintaining their relationship with the criminal justice system, how satisfied people are with their interactions with the criminal justice system, and if the proportion of cases that lead to alleged perpetrators being found guilty and receiving a sentence changes over time or as a result of notable events (e.g. the #metoo movement). It would also be interesting to examine the differences between police force areas that provide a separate, complementary emotional support service to those who come forward (e.g. this police force put victims in contact with the Victim Care Unit) and forces where such resources are not available. It would be interesting to see whether signposting people to emotional support services is correlated with a larger number of people maintaining their involvement with the Criminal Justice System and if it has an effect on their recovery.

Regarding the potential effect of notable events like the #metoo movement, it would also be useful to examine the relationship between the Zeitgeist and how people interpret and respond to their experiences of sexual harassment. As sexual harassment can be a very emotive and personal experience, people might struggle to spontaneously discuss it openly and seek advice, as they might with other issues. Therefore, it is possible that to a certain extent when searching for the meaning of their experiences

they might be influenced by the opinions of those around them the news, in social media, by the tabloids, or even by discussions their peers are having about things they have seen on the news. This might have an impact on how they label their own experiences and how they decide to deal with them. For example, if the most prominent reaction towards victims of sexual harassment is engaging in victim-blaming and accusing victims of allowing or even ‘asking for’ the harassment, this might lead people who have had such experiences to question their own responsibility. Even if they do not go as far as to blame themselves, viewing these reactions might act as a deterrent from discussing their experiences with others, for fear of being blamed for their experiences and their actions.

Finally, as immediate legal reform is unlikely, it would be pertinent to examine the ways in which affective forecasting error can be reduced in the case of sexual harassment. There is existing research on reducing affective forecasting error in juries; for example, Blumenthal (2009) found that jury education by expert witnesses can reduce forecasting error in cases where the jury is called to decide on capital punishment. However, it is important to examine these processes specifically for sexual harassment; even though some processes might work in the same way across crimes and imagined circumstances, people’s opinions about sexual harassment are also unique in that sexual violence is still a taboo issue and can have multiple connotations attached to it about the character of the complainant that other crimes may not carry.

Concluding Comment

In this thesis we have endeavoured to understand people’s needs after sexual harassment and explore some of the ways in which people respond to such incidents. It is important to highlight that there is a variety of ways in which people might respond to sexual harassment and our findings do not constitute a comprehensive list of all ‘reasonable’ responses. All responses are valid, warrant respect, and might meet different needs. Some responses can be explained by psychological theories and are

understood by those who have experience in supporting targets of sexual harassment. Other responses might be less common and harder to understand. However, the key thing is to accept that people might respond to such incidents in a host of different ways; their reactions are likely to be guided by a number of factors, including their needs, and might not always make immediate sense to others, whether they are people who have never had such experiences themselves, or even people who have, but responded differently. The Experiencers in our studies took different and fewer actions from those anticipated by Imaginers. They also reported higher life satisfaction and more positive feelings than anticipated by Imaginers. It could be argued that people take the actions that they feel are right for them, and those actions might be effective for their recovery, regardless of how different they are to the actions anticipated by people who have not had such experiences. All responses are valid for their own reasons and people should not have to justify the choices they make (beyond the explanations required for a police investigation); some people seek justice, some people seek support, some people deal with it by themselves, some try to put it behind them, and some might do something entirely different.

Furthermore, it could be argued that some of our findings are not very surprising; arguing for the importance of treating well those who are vulnerable and have been subjected to violence, ensuring that they feel believed, and making the process less traumatising for them is neither ground-breaking nor radical. As a society we have historically treated people who disclose sexual harassment formally or informally with less than respect and support, and victim blaming is still rife (see for example Stubbs-Richardson, Rader, and Cosby, 2018). Nevertheless, we can strive to make the aftermath of sexual harassment less horrifying and traumatising than it currently is. Though it is unlikely that it will ever be possible to charge all abusers, rapists, and harassers, it is however conceivable that we can be more compassionate towards people who have had such experiences, both in formal and informal settings.

Finally, it is perhaps useful to question what happens with all this knowledge on a practical level. Prejudice in court might be subconscious, and affective forecasting errors may be an involuntary process; nevertheless, they are widespread and legal professionals in formal contexts are aware of how to use these unconscious processes to their benefit. They are aware that jury members enter courts carrying their own prejudice, perhaps alongside the rape myths that are widespread in our culture, and possibly a belief in a just world. For those who want to prove that a plaintiff is lying, it is all too easy to play on these unconscious processes. Where does this leave us? Academics have a wealth of knowledge which is often unique in its depth. Perhaps it is time to consider whether there is scope for larger academic engagement with policy makers and government more broadly and envisage how that might be realised; there might also be scope to use this understanding to advise on how legal standards that require psychological knowledge are used (the reasonable woman standard is one example, but psychological knowledge is relevant elsewhere too) and how victims are evaluated for their responses. Though improvements in societal attitudes and the criminal justice system have been made, there is still a long way to go, and understanding deep rooted prejudice, myths, and the impact of affective forecasting error on juries' decision making should be central to this endeavour, together with an endeavour to help apply this knowledge in the contexts where crucial decisions are made.

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Appendix A: Study 3 results tables

Table 1

Full sample descriptive statistics

<u>Age group</u>	<u>Percent</u>
18-24	28
25-34	44.8
35-44	14.9
45-54	8.2
55-64	3.6
65-74	.5
UK	49.5
Europe non-UK	21.6
Asia	12.6
North America	8.5
Oceania	2.4
South America	2.4
Dual/Mixed/Other	1.7
Africa	1.2

Table 2

Measures used in Study 3

<u>Measure</u>	<u>Items</u>
Needs	To feel valued
	To express myself
	To be understood
	To be in control
	To feel powerful
	To make decisions for myself
	To show that I was capable

	To feel accepted by others
	To feel part of a community
	To know that there were others who cared about me
	To feel like my life mattered
	To feel like my life had meaning
	To see justice in the world
Actions	Did not do anything about the incident
	Did not tell anyone about the incident
	Informed the police
	Made a formal complaint that did not directly involve the police (e.g., to the perpetrator's manager)
	Spoke to my doctor
	Directly confronted the perpetrator(s)
	Discussed the incident with friends and/or family
	Discussed the incident with a religious leader
	Sought professional emotional support (e.g. counselling)
	Searched for information and support online
	Wrote about my experience online (e.g. in fora, on twitter, etc.)
	Called a support helpline
	Contacted HR for advice (if it happened in the workplace)
	Spoke to my professional union (if it happened in the workplace)
	Discussed the incident with a colleague (if it happened in the workplace)
	Other (open format)
PANAS	Interested
	Irritable
	Distressed
	Alert
	Excited
	Ashamed
	Upset

	Inspired
	Strong
	Nervous
	Guilty
	Determined
	Scared
	Attentive
	Hostile
	Tense
	Enthusiastic
	Active
	Proud
	Afraid
Life satisfaction	I feel satisfied with my life.
	I feel that in most ways my life is close to ideal.
	I feel that the conditions in my life are excellent.
Personal self-esteem	I feel satisfied with myself.
	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
	I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
	I feel that I do not have much to be proud of.
	I feel that I am no good at all.
Satisfaction with relationships	I feel satisfied with my social relationships.
	I feel that I am not alone, I feel that people are basically good and trustworthy.
	I feel that I have a lot in common with other people.
Optimism	I feel optimistic about my future.
	Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.
	I do not expect things to go my way.

Table 3.

Factor Loadings with Varimax Rotation of imagined or real needs after sexual harassment – Rotated matrix

Prompt: For each of these, please indicate how strong you think that need would be for you immediately after experiencing sexual harassment. I would feel the need:/For each of these, please indicate how strong that need was to you immediately after your experience. I felt the need:

Scale: 1 = Very untrue, 4= Neither true nor untrue, 7 = Very true

Item	Factor Loading	
	1	2
Factor 1: Communal needs ($\alpha = .898$)		
To feel valued	.68	.30
To express myself	.46	.43
To be understood	.66	.33
To feel accepted by others	.75	.18
To feel part of a community	.71	.17
To know that there were others who cared about me	.80	.13
To feel like my life mattered	.85	.16
To feel like my life had meaning	.83	.14
To see justice in the world	.58	.29
Factor 2: Agentic needs ($\alpha = .833$)		
To be in control	.14	.83
To feel powerful	.13	.79
To make decisions for myself	.20	.80
To show that I was capable	.36	.71

Table 4.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern Matrix

Item	Factor Loading	
	1	2
Factor 1: Communal needs ($\alpha = .898$)		
To feel valued	.67	.12
To express myself	.39	.34
To be understood	.64	.17
To feel accepted by others	.78	-.02
To feel part of a community	.75	-.03
To know that there were others who cared about me	.85	-.09
To feel like my life mattered	.89	-.07
To feel like my life had meaning	.88	-.09
To see justice in the world	.56	.14
Factor 2: Agentic needs ($\alpha = .833$)		
To be in control	-.06	.86
To feel powerful	-.06	.82
To make decisions for myself	.02	.82
To show that I was capable	.21	.67

Note. Double-loaded items are denoted in bold font.

Table 5.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment – Structure Matrix

Item	Factor Loading	
	1	2
Factor 1: Communal needs ($\alpha = .898$)		
To feel valued	.73	.44
To express myself	.55	.53
To be understood	.72	.47
To feel accepted by others	.77	.35
To feel part of a community	.74	.32
To know that there were others who cared about me	.80	.31
To feel like my life mattered	.86	.35
To feel like my life had meaning	.83	.32
To see justice in the world	.63	.41
Factor 2: Agentic needs ($\alpha = .833$)		
To be in control	.35	.84
To feel powerful	.33	.80
To make decisions for myself	.40	.83
To show that I was capable	.53	.77

Table 6.

Factor Loadings with Varimax Rotation of imagined or real needs after sexual harassment – Rotated matrix

Item	Factor Loading	
	1	2
Factor 1: Communal needs ($\alpha = .898$)		
To feel valued	.680	.282
To be understood	.652	.300
To feel accepted by others	.750	.175
To feel part of a community	.719	.158
To know that there were others who cared about me	.798	.129
To feel like my life mattered	.852	.168
To feel like my life had meaning	.831	.145
To see justice in the world	.584	.292
Factor 2: Agentic needs ($\alpha = .833$)		
To be in control	.148	.825
To feel powerful	.143	.793
To make decisions for myself	.211	.811
To show that I was capable	.364	.710

Table 7.

Factor Loadings with Oblimin Rotation of imagined or real needs after sexual harassment – Pattern matrix

Item	Factor Loading	
	1	2
Factor 1: Communal needs ($\alpha = .898$)		
To feel valued	.674	.118
To be understood	.639	.144
To feel accepted by others	.779	-.019
To feel part of a community	.750	-.029
To know that there were others who cared about me	.843	-.083
To feel like my life mattered	.893	-.056
To feel like my life had meaning	.875	-.074
To see justice in the world	.566	.156
Factor 2: Agentic needs ($\alpha = .833$)		
To be in control	-.049	.859
To feel powerful	-.046	.827
To make decisions for myself	.023	.827
To show that I was capable	.218	.673

Table 8.

Factor Loadings with Oblimin Rotation of imagined or real needs after sexual harassment – Structure matrix

Item	Factor Loading	
	1	2
Factor 1: Communal needs ($\alpha = .898$)		
To feel valued	.729	.430
To be understood	.706	.440
To feel accepted by others	.770	.341
To feel part of a community	.736	.317
To know that there were others who cared about me	.805	.307
To feel like my life mattered	.867	.358
To feel like my life had meaning	.841	.331
To see justice in the world	.638	.418
Factor 2: Agentic needs ($\alpha = .833$)		
To be in control	.348	.837
To feel powerful	.336	.805
To make decisions for myself	.405	.837
To show that I was capable	.529	.774

Table 9.

Actions taken by sample who experienced sexual harassment in order of frequency

Action	% of sample
Discussed the incident with friends and/or family	59.5
Did not do anything about the incident	45.2
Directly confronted the perpetrator(s)	25.8
Did not tell anyone about the incident	20.8
Discussed the incident with a colleague	15.4
Wrote about my experience online	10.8
Searched for information and support online	10
Informed the police	7.2
Other	6.1
Made a formal complaint that did not directly involve the police	4.7
Spoke to my doctor	3.2
Sought professional emotional support	2.9
Called a support helpline	2.9
Contacted HR for advice	2.2
Spoke to my professional union	1.4
Discussed the incident with a religious leader	1.1

Table 10.

Actions anticipated by the sample that had not experienced sexual harassment in order of frequency

Action	% of sample
Discussed the incident with friends and/or family	71.3
Informed the police	46.2
Searched for information and support online	37.4
Contacted HR for advice	36.3
Made a formal complaint that did not directly involve the police	35.7
Discussed the incident with a colleague	34.5
Directly confronted the perpetrator(s)	32.2
Sought professional emotional support	28.1
Spoke to my doctor	24
Spoke to my professional union	24
Called a support helpline	17.5
Did not tell anyone about the incident	10.5
Did not do anything about the incident	8.2
Discussed the incident with a religious leader	8.2
Wrote about my experience online	7
Other	2.9

Table 11.

Chi-square tests of independence on Experience and Action taking

Actions	Experience*Actions			% Experience condition (N=279)	% Imagined condition (N=171)
	<i>df</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>		
Did not do anything about the incident	1	67.63	<.001	45.2	8.2
Did not tell anyone about the incident	1	7.95	.005	20.8	10.5
Informed the police	1	94.12	<.001	7.2	46.2
Made a formal complaint that did not involve the police	1	74.21	<.001	4.7	35.7
Spoke to my doctor	1	46.22	<.001	3.2	24
Directly confronted the perpetrator(s)	1	2.12	.146	25.8	32.2
Discussed with friends and/or family	1	6.46	.011	59.5	71.3
Discussed with a religious leader	1	14.75	<.001	1.1	8.2
Sought professional emotional support	1	61.81	<.001	2.9	28.1
Searched for information and support online	1	48.91	<.001	10	37.4
Wrote about my experience online	1	1.75	.186	10.8	7
Called a support helpline	1	29.54	<.001	2.9	17.5
Contacted HR for advice	1	96.14	<.001	2.2	36.3
Spoke to my professional union	1	59.86	<.001	1.4	24
Discussed with a colleague	1	22.04	<.001	15.4	34.5
Other	1	2.29	.130	6.1	2.9

Table 12.

Chi-square tests of independence on Gender and Action taking

Actions	Gender*Actions			% F&NB (N=256)	% Male (N=158)
	df	χ^2	p		
Did not do anything about the incident	1	8.73	.003	35.9	22.2
Did not tell anyone about the incident	1	.001	.979	17.2	17.1
Informed the police	1	47.83	<.001	11.7	41.1
Made a formal complaint that did not involve the police	1	10.03	.002	12.1	24.1
Spoke to my doctor	1	34.85	<.001	4.3	23.4
Directly confronted the perpetrator(s)	1	5.18	.023	25	35.4
Discussed with friends and/or family	1	2.94	.086	67.2	58.9
Discussed with a religious leader	1	21.79	<.001	.4	9.5
Sought professional emotional support	1	13.86	<.001	8.2	20.9
Searched for information and support online	1	20.93	<.001	14.5	33.5
Wrote about my experience online	1	.635	.426	9	11.4
Called a support helpline	1	11.06	.001	5.1	14.6
Contacted HR for advice	1	14.57	<.001	10.5	24.7
Spoke to my professional union	1	16.09	<.001	5.5	17.7
Discussed with a colleague	1	.423	.515	20.7	23.4
Other	1	1.54	.214	5.9	3.2

Table 13.

Correlations for regression: Experience, Gender, need for self-expression, communal needs and agentic needs (N = 414)

Variables	Experience	Gender	Self - expression need	Communal needs	Agentic needs
Experience	-				
Gender	-.487**	-			
Self - expression need	.036	-.192**	-		
Communal needs	-.199**	-.040	.511**	-	
Agentic needs	.039	-.216**	.439**	.511**	-

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

Table 14.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Did nothing.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	1.08			2.94		.60	3.19
Experience	-	-2.77	** *	.02	.06	.17	.49	31.60
Gender	-	-.38		.36	.68	1.29	.32	1.39
Experience*Gender	-	.73		.49	2.07	8.64	.73	.99
Communal needs	-	-.14		.69	.87	1.09	.12	1.51
Agentic needs	-	.09		.87	1.10	1.38	.12	.61
Self-expression need	-	-.14		.74	.87	1.03	.08	2.70
Nagelkerke's R ²	24.4%			26.4%				
χ^2	78.52, <i>df</i> = 3, <i>p</i> <.001			85.65, <i>df</i> = 6, <i>p</i> <.001				
-2LL	431.93			424.80				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	<i>p</i> =1.00			<i>p</i> =.379				
Classification accuracy	70.5%			70.8%				

Note: **p* <0.05; ***p* <0.01, ****p* <.001

Table 15.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Told nobody.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				
	-			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-.57		-	.57	-	.66	.74
Experience	-	-1.56	***	.09	.21	.52	.46	11.55
Gender	-	-.73	*	.24	.48	.97	.36	4.18
Experience*Gender	-	.84		.61	2.31	8.73	.68	1.53
Communal needs	-	-.01		.76	.99	1.28	.13	.01
Agentic needs	-	.12		.88	1.13	1.46	.13	.90
Self-expression need	-	-.14		.73	.87	1.04	.09	2.44
Nagelkerke's R ²	6.1%			7.3%				
χ^2	$\chi^2(3) = 15.44, p = .001$			$\chi^2(6) = 18.55, p = .005$				
-2LL	364.00			360.88				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	$p = 1.00$			$p = .35$				
Classification accuracy	82.9%			82.9%				

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Table 16.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Reported to the Police.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				
	-			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-1.88	*	-	.15	-	.80	5.48
Experience	-	1.78	***	2.377	5.91	14.69	.47	14.62
Gender	-	-.85		.158	.43	1.16	.51	2.77
Experience*Gender	-	.20		.359	1.22	4.13	.62	.10
Communal needs	-	.44	**	1.134	1.56	2.14	.16	7.51
Agentic needs	-	-.30	*	.562	.74	.97	.14	4.63
Self-expression need	-	-.12		.724	.89	1.09	.10	1.31
Nagelkerke's R ²	31.7%			34.7%				
χ^2	$\chi^2(3)=97.23, p <.001$			$\chi^2(6)=107.42, p <.001$				
-2LL	348.76			338.57				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	$p = 1.00$			$p = .739$				
Classification accuracy	79.2%			78.5%				

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 17.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Other formal complaint.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				
				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-3.49	***	-	.03	-	1.01	11.85
Experience	-	2.13	***	2.37	8.40	29.79	.65	10.87
Gender	-	-.37		.18	.69	2.69	.69	.28
Experience*Gender	-	.74		.46	2.10	9.63	.78	.92
Communal needs	-	-.08		.68	.92	1.26	.16	.25
Agentic needs	-	.24		.94	1.27	1.73	.16	2.35
Self-expression need	-	-.03		.78	.97	1.20	.11	.09
Nagelkerke's R ²	27.4%			28.2%				
χ^2	$\chi^2 (3)=73.51, p<.001$			$\chi^2 (6)=75.95, p<.001$				
-2LL	299.55			297.11				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	$p = 1.00$			$p = .880$				
Classification accuracy	83.3%			82.6%				

Note: *p <0.05; **p <0.01, ***p <.001

Table 18.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Told a GP.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-2.91	**	-	.05	-	1.05	7.63
Experience	-	.74		.77	2.09	5.63	.51	2.10
Gender	-	-2.24	**	.06	.11	.46	.74	9.14
Experience*Gen der	-	1.62		.93	5.05	27.59	.87	3.50
Communal needs	-	.69	**	1.31	2.00	3.06	.22	10.19
Agentic needs	-	-.25		.56	.78	1.09	.17	2.13
Self-expression need	-	-.26	*	.60	.77	.99	.13	4.15
Nagelkerke's R ²	24.8%			30.2%				
χ^2	χ^2 (3) = 56.33, p < .001			χ^2 (6) = 69.43, p < .001				
-2LL	240.73			227.62				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	p = 1.00			p = .527				
Classification accuracy	88.4%			87.9%				

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Table 19.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Confronted the perpetrator.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-2.16	**	-	.12	-	.66	10.66
Experience	-	.52		.79	1.69	3.60	.39	1.84
Gender	-	-.46		.31	.63	1.27	.36	1.66
Experience*Gen der	-	-.50		.21	.61	1.72	.53	.88
Communal needs	-	-.34	**	.57	.71	.90	.12	8.44
Agentic needs	-	.37	**	1.14	1.44	1.83	.12	9.24
Self-expression need	-	.21	*	1.04	1.23	1.46	.09	5.85
Nagelkerke's R ²	1.9%			8.6%				
χ^2	$\chi^2 (3)=5.672, p = .129$			$\chi^2 (6)=25.688, p <.001$				
-2LL	492.80			472.79				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	$p = 1.00$			$p = .885$				
Classification accuracy	71.0%			70.3%				

Note: *p <0.05; **p <0.01, ***p <.001

Table 20.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Told friends and/or family.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				
	-			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-.68		-	.51	-	.57	1.44
Experience	-	1.17	**	1.57	3.22	6.61	.37	10.21
Gender	-	.98	**	1.41	2.68	5.10	.33	8.97
Experience*Gender	-	-.40		.24	.67	1.89	.53	.57
Communal needs	-	.05		.85	1.05	1.29	.11	.20
Agentic needs	-	-.14		.70	.87	1.07	.11	1.86
Self-expression need	-	.15	*	1.00	1.16	1.35	.08	3.90
Nagelkerke's R ²	6.3%			8.1%				
χ^2	$\chi^2 (3) = 19.39, p < .001$			$\chi^2 (6) = 25.09, p < .001$				
-2LL	521.60			515.89				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	$p = 1.00$			$p = .215$				
Classification accuracy	66.7%			67.1%				

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 21.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Sought professional emotional support.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)	
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio		Odds ratio			
				Lower	Upper				
Constant	-	-4.72	***	-		.01	-	1.26	14.10
Experience	-	1.47	*	1.22	4.36	15.58	.65	5.14	
Gender	-	-.97		.09	.38	1.69	.76	1.63	
Experience*Gen der	-	1.24		.65	3.46	18.49	.86	2.11	
Communal needs	-	.77	**	1.40	2.17	3.36	.22	11.94	
Agentic needs	-	-.18		.59	.83	1.17	.17	1.12	
Self-expression need	-	-.21		.63	.81	1.03	.12	2.97	
Nagelkerke's R ²	25.7%			31.3%					
χ^2	χ^2 (3)= 61.81, p < .001			χ^2 (6)= 76.51, p < .001					
-2LL	258.80			244.10					
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	p = 1.00			p = .456					
Classification accuracy	87.0%			87.7%					

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Table 22.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Sought information and support online.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio		Odds ratio		
				Lower	Upper			
Constant	-	-3.81	***	-		.02	.88	18.72
Experience	-	.85	*	1.02	5.34	2.33	.42	3.99
Gender	-	-1.16	**	.13	.75	.31	.45	6.85
Experience*Gender	-	.85		.76	7.13	2.34	.57	2.21
Communal needs	-	.30	*	1.01	1.80	1.35	.15	4.10
Agentic needs	-	.17		.90	1.56	1.18	.14	1.42
Self-expression need	-	.01		.83	1.23	1.01	.10	.01
Nagelkerke's R ²	17.9%			21.8%				
χ^2	$\chi^2(3) = 51.11, p < .001$			$\chi^2(6) = 63.04, p < .001$				
-2LL	382.42			370.49				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	$p = 1.00$			$p = .715$				
Classification accuracy	78.3%			79.7%				

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 23.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Wrote online.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				
	-			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-3.52	**	-	.03	-	1.02	11.86
Experience	-	-.84		.16	.43	1.21	.52	2.57
Gender	-	-.86		.18	.42	1.02	.45	3.70
Experience*Gender	-	-.19		.14	.83	4.99	.92	.04
Communal needs	-	-.07		.68	.94	1.29	.16	.16
Agentic needs	-	.19		.85	1.21	1.72	.18	1.07
Self-expression need	-	.25		.98	1.29	1.70	.14	3.21
Nagelkerke's R ²	2.8%			6.4%				
χ^2	$\chi^2(3) = 5.48, p = .140$			$\chi^2(6) = 12.79, p = .047$				
-2LL	261.92			254.62				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	$p = 1.00$			$p = .768$				
Classification accuracy	90.1%			90.1%				

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Table 24.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Contacted a helpline.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-5.39	***	-	.01	-	1.50	12.95
Experience	-	.48		.49	1.61	5.29	.61	.63
Gender	-	-1.84	*	.03	.16	.76	.80	5.29
Experience*Gen der	-	2.03	*	1.26	7.64	46.20	.92	4.91
Communal needs	-	.97	***	1.54	2.65	4.54	.28	12.51
Agentic needs	-	-.24		.54	.79	1.16	.20	1.47
Self-expression need	-	-.19		.63	.83	1.09	.14	1.77
Nagelkerke's R ²	18.4%			26.4%				
χ^2	$\chi^2(3) = 35.55, p < .001$			$\chi^2(6) = 51.93, p < .001$				
-2LL	209.08			192.70				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	$p = 1.00$			$p = .676$				
Classification accuracy	91.3%			91.5%				

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 25.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on HR advice.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio		Odds ratio		
				Lower	Upper			
Constant	-	-4.70	***	-		.01	1.21	14.97
Experience	-	2.56	**	2.90	57.37	12.91	.76	11.29
Gender	-	-.88		.07	2.35	.41	.89	.99
Experience*Gen der	-	1.20		.51	21.52	3.32	.95	1.59
Communal needs	-	.04		.74	1.48	1.05	.18	.06
Agentic needs	-	.04		.75	1.45	1.04	.17	.06
Self-expression need	-	.20		.96	1.57	1.23	.13	2.63
Nagelkerke's R ²	37.1%			38.7%				
χ^2	$\chi^2(3) = 101.15,$ p < .001			$\chi^2(6) = 105.95,$ p < .001				
-2LL	262.10			257.30				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	p = 1.00			p = .665				
Classification accuracy	84.1%			84.5%				

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Table 26.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Professional Union.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				
	-			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-4.29	**	-	.014	-	1.28	11.31
Experience	-	2.19	**	1.95	8.93	40.82	.78	7.98
Gender	-	-1.52		.03	.22	1.62	1.02	2.21
Experience*Gender	-	1.31		.44	3.71	31.70	1.09	1.44
Communal needs	-	-.14		.60	.87	1.26	.19	.56
Agentic needs	-	.32		.94	1.38	2.02	.20	2.66
Self-expression need	-	.02		.79	1.02	1.32	.13	.02
Nagelkerke's R ²	27.7%			29%				
χ^2	$\chi^2 (3) = 59.17, p < .001$			$\chi^2 (6) = 62.25, p < .001$				
-2LL	212.63			209.55				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	$p = 1.00$			$p = .660$				
Classification accuracy	89.9%			89.9%				

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 27.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Told a colleague.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio		Odds ratio		
				Lower	Upper			
Constant	-	-2.70	**	-		.08		10.63
Experience	-	1.33	*	1.34	10.65	3.78	.53	6.33
Gender	-	.48		.59	4.42	1.61	.52	.85
Experience*Gender	-	.08		.32	3.73	1.09	.63	.02
Communal needs	-	.08		.83	1.41	1.08	.13	.35
Agentic needs	-	-.20		.64	1.05	.82	.13	2.46
Self-expression need	-	.19		1.00	1.48	1.21	.10	3.73
Nagelkerke's R ²	9.1%			11.2%				
χ^2	$\chi^2 (3) = 25.07, p < .001$			$\chi^2 (6) = 31.23, p < .001$				
-2LL	408.46			402.30				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	$p = 1.00$			$p = .031$				
Classification accuracy	78.3%			78.7%				

Note: * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 28.

Logistic regression of Experience, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Action vs Inaction.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				
	-			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	.38		-	1.46	-	.70	.30
Experience	-	2.61	***	2.82	13.65	66.00	.80	10.57
Gender	-	-.01		.45	.99	2.15	.40	.00
Experience*Gen der	-	17.09		.00	264034 48.99	.	5717.34	.00
Communal needs	-	.04		.78	1.04	1.39	.15	.07
Agentic needs	-	-.02		.74	.98	1.30	.14	.01
Self-expression need	-	.17		.98	1.19	1.45	.10	2.93
Nagelkerke's R ²	17.4%			19.4%				
χ^2	40.51, <i>df</i> = 3, <i>p</i> <.001			45.29, <i>df</i> = 6, <i>p</i> <.001				
-2LL	276.29			271.51				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	<i>p</i> =1.00			<i>p</i> =.108				
Classification accuracy	87.2%			87.2%				

Note: **p* <0.05; ***p* <0.01, ****p* <.001

Table 29.
Factor Loadings with Varimax Rotation of imagined or real need satisfaction after (not) taking action, Rotated Matrix

	Component	
	1	2
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .955$)		
Cared by Others	.892	.203
Acceptance	.823	.373
Life Mattered	.800	.439
Life Meaning	.772	.439
Valued	.761	.417
Self-Expression	.742	.425
Community	.721	.438
Understanding	.731	.472
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .929$)		
Control	.331	.855
Powerful	.343	.846
Own Decisions	.340	.837
Show Capability	.466	.774
World Justice	.453	.653

Table 30.
Factor Loadings with Oblimin Rotation of imagined or real need satisfaction after (not) taking action, Pattern Matrix

	Component	
	1	2
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .955$)		
Cared by Others	1.079	-.252
Acceptance	.894	.012
Life Mattered	.829	.112
Life Meaning	.791	.129
Valued	.789	.106
Self-Expression	.758	.128
Community	.724	.157
Understanding	.718	.196
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .929$)		
Control	-.024	.934
Powerful	-.002	.914
Own Decisions	-.001	.904
Show Capability	.200	.748
World Justice	.249	.596

Note: split loading items are denoted in bold

Table 31.

Factor Loadings with Oblimin Rotation of imagined or real need satisfaction after (not) taking action, Structure Matrix

Thinking about the needs that you previously described having after the incident took place, and about the more immediate response(s) you indicated in your answer to the previous question, to what extent do you feel that your response(s) met your needs? I felt that my response(s) met my need:

Scale: 1 = It was not met at all, 7 = It was completely met, 8 = N/A, n=278

Item	Factor Loading	
	1	2
Factor 1: Communal needs ($\alpha = .955$)		
To feel valued	.87	.67
To express myself	.85	.67
To be understood	.86	.71
To feel accepted by others	.90	.66
To feel part of a community	.84	.68
To know that there were others who cared about me	.90	.52
To feel like my life mattered	.91	.71
To feel like my life had meaning	.88	.70
Factor 2: Agentic needs ($\alpha = .929$)		
To be in control	.65	.92
To feel powerful	.66	.91
To make decisions for myself	.65	.90
To show that I was capable	.74	.89
To see justice in the world	.68	.78

Table 32.
Factor Loadings with Varimax Rotation on needs satisfaction

	Factor loadings	
	1	2
Factor 1 ($\alpha=.951$)		
Valued	.749	.424
Understood	.708	.486
Acceptance	.823	.375
Community	.747	.425
Cared by Others	.892	.206
Life Mattered	.812	.432
Life Meaning	.788	.430
Factor 2 ($\alpha=.929$)		
Control	.313	.865
Powerful	.352	.840
Own decisions	.332	.842
Show Capability	.457	.776
World Justice	.478	.636

Table 33.
Factor Loadings with Oblimin Rotation on needs satisfaction, pattern matrix

	Factor loadings	
	1	2
Factor 1 ($\alpha=.951$)		
Valued	.761	.133
Understood	.674	.237
Acceptance	.884	.029
Community	.758	.135
Cared by Others	1.064	-.230
Life Mattered	.839	.109
Life Meaning	.761	.133
Factor 2 ($\alpha=.929$)		
Control	-.047	.953
Powerful	.017	.898
Own decisions	-.010	.912
Show Capability	.190	.756
World Justice	.291	.562

Note: split loading items are denoted in bold

Table 34.
Factor Loadings with Oblimin Rotation on needs satisfaction, structure matrix

	Factor loadings	
	1	2
<hr/>		
Factor 1 ($\alpha=.951$)		
<hr/>		
Valued	.855	.673
Understood	.842	.716
Acceptance	.904	.656
Community	.854	.673
Cared by Others	.901	.525
Life Mattered	.917	.704
Life Meaning	.894	.693
<hr/>		
Factor 2 ($\alpha=.929$)		
<hr/>		
Control	.629	.919
Powerful	.655	.910
Own decisions	.637	.905
Show Capability	.726	.891
World Justice	.690	.768
<hr/>		

Table 35.

Factor Loadings with Varimax Rotation on current feelings

Now please describe your current feelings by indicating the extent to which each of the following statements apply to how you feel right now. As you recall these events, how do you feel? Scale: 1 = Strongly disagree, 7 = Strongly agree

N=419

Item	Factor Loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 ($\alpha=.887$)				
Interested	.737	-.041	-.010	-.043
Excited	.814	.134	.107	.029
Strong	.547	-.172	-.243	.458
Enthusiastic	.839	.096	-.010	.170
Proud	.772	-.079	-.010	.233
Inspired	.736	.068	-.099	.395
Active	.612	.024	.073	.570
Factor 2 ($\alpha=.881$)				
Guilty	.258	.753	.073	-.151
Scared	-.104	.804	.322	.127
Ashamed	.072	.819	.137	-.066
Nervous	-.004	.713	.358	.220
Afraid	-.090	.802	.319	.152
Factor 3 ($\alpha=.836$)				
Distressed	.061	.369	.646	.054
Upset	-.166	.410	.658	.123
Hostile	.057	.153	.758	.015
Irritable	.015	.145	.798	.120
Tense	-.099	.542	.582	.255
Factor 4 ($\alpha=.715$)				

Alert	-014	.200	.352	.689
Determined	.399	-.091	.037	.690
Attentive	.291	.169	.152	.741

Note. Double-loaded items are denoted in bold font.

Table 36.

Factor Loadings with Oblimin Rotation of current feelings – Pattern matrix

Item	Factor Loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 ($\alpha=.881$)				
Guilty	.812	.282	.186	-.076
Scared	.783	-.150	-.123	.120
Ashamed	.863	.069	.085	-.050
Nervous	.669	-.067	-.212	.177
Afraid	.782	-.144	-.149	.114
Factor 2 ($\alpha=.866$)				
Enthusiastic	.105	.809	-.116	-.005
Proud	-.090	.729	-.189	.027
Interested	-.041	.773	.107	.061
Excited	.114	.834	.045	.141
Inspired	.094	.628	-.377	-.143
Factor 3 ($\alpha=.799$)				
Determined	-.131	.215	-.712	-.020
Attentive	.118	.088	-.768	.024
Active	-.013	.469	-.561	.026
Strong	-.128	.412	-.473	-.266
Alert	.092	-.192	-.718	.230
Factor 4 ($\alpha=.836$)				
Tense	.410	-.144	-.235	.465
Irritable	-.090	.054	-.056	.850
Distressed	.206	.094	.003	.631
Upset	.245	-.160	-.089	.604
Hostile	-.066	.124	.058	.823

Note. Double-loaded items are denoted in bold font.

Table 37.

Factor Loadings with Oblimin Rotation of current feelings – Structure matrix

Item	Factor loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 ($\alpha=.881$)				
Scared	.855	-.124	-.190	.541
Afraid	.854	-.109	-.217	.540
Ashamed	.829	.047	-.027	.343
Nervous	.780	-.019	-.304	.553
Guilty	.753	.231	.018	.247
Factor 2 ($\alpha=.870$)				
Enthusiastic	.115	.847	-.387	-.021
Excited	.177	.804	-.265	.093
Proud	-.056	.787	-.418	-.060
Inspired	.068	.765	-.560	-.091
Interested	-.024	.732	-.149	-.068
Strong	-.203	.594	-.535	-.277
Factor 3 ($\alpha=.790$)				
Attentive	.218	.331	-.815	.229
Determined	-.059	.446	-.762	.039
Active	.064	.646	-.715	.082
Alert	.286	.012	-.715	.444
Factor 4 ($\alpha=.836$)				
Irritable	.328	-.024	-.239	.812
Hostile	.326	.013	-.144	.765
Upset	.549	-.200	-.191	.760
Tense	.663	-.121	-.332	.729
Distressed	.511	.022	-.181	.720

Note. Double-loaded items are denoted in bold font.

Appendix B: Study 3 results tables controlling for the covariate

Table 1.
MANCOVA results for needs after sexual harassment by Covariate, Group, and Gender

	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Error df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	90% CI
Multivariate needs						
Covariate	1.26	3	407	.287	.01	.000; .024
Group	11.54	3	407	<.001	.08	.037; .118
Gender	11.12	3	407	<.001	.08	.035; .115
Interaction	.94	3	407	.422	.01	.000; .019
Covariate						
Communal needs	1.03	1	409	.312	.003	.000; .017
Agentic needs	3.30	1	409	.070	.01	.000; .028
Self-expression	1.86	1	409	.173	.01	.000; .022
Group						
Communal needs	31.78	1	409	<.001	.07	.037; .115
Agentic needs	4.89	1	409	.028	.01	.001; .035
Self-expression	1.87	1	409	.172	.01	.000; .022
Gender						
Communal needs	12.27	1	409	.001	.03	.008; .061
Agentic needs	28.25	1	409	<.001	.07	.031; .106
Self-expression	18.01	1	409	<.001	.04	.016; .078
Interaction						
Communal needs	.47	1	409	.496	.001	.000; .013
Agentic needs	.94	1	409	.333	.002	.000; .016
Self-expression	.01	1	409	.936	.000	.000; .001

Table 2.
Estimated marginal means of real and imagined needs after sexual harassment by Group and Gender

		<i>M(estimated)</i>	<i>SE(estimated)</i>
Group			
Communal needs	No	5.67	.11
	Yes	4.84	.10
Agentic needs	No	5.54	.10
	Yes	5.23	.10
Self-expression	No	5.49	.14
	Yes	5.22	.13
Gender			
Communal needs	FNB	5.52	.10
	Male	4.99	.11
Agentic needs	FNB	5.77	.10
	Male	4.99	.11
Self-expression	FNB	5.78	.13
	Male	4.93	.15

Table 3.
 Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Did nothing.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	-1.02	<.001		.36		.24	18.53	.123	.790		1.130		.461	.071					2.675	.681	2.09
Incident evaluation	.12	.338	.89	1.12	1.43	.12	.92	.03	.839	.768	1.031	1.38	.15	.04	.05	.768	.775	1.046	1.411	.153	.09
Condition								-2.84	.000	.022	.059	.15	.49	33.47	-2.74	.000	.024	.065	.173	.502	29.80
Gender								-.47	.167	.320	.624	1.22	.34	1.91	-.34	.333	.356	.710	1.420	.353	.94
Condition* Gender								.72	.320	.496	2.061	8.57	.73	.99	.71	.336	.481	2.024	8.516	.733	.93
Communal needs															-.14	.220	.692	.868	1.088	.115	1.51
Agentic needs															.09	.453	.868	1.091	1.372	.117	.56
Self- expression															-.14	.100	.740	.871	1.026	.084	2.71
Nagelkerke's R ²				3%							24.4%							26.4%			
χ^2																					
-2LL				509.54							431.89							424.72			
Hosmer & Lemeshow				<i>p</i> = .432							<i>p</i> = .947							<i>p</i> = .192			
Classification accuracy				69.3%							70.5%							70.5%			

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001

Table 6.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Other formal complaint.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	-1.59	<.001		.20		.29	29.28	-2.95	<.001		.05		.73	16.21	-3.62	.001		.027		1.084	11.156
Incident evaluation	-.01	.939	.73	.99	1.34	.16	.01	.07	.68	.77	1.07	1.50	.17	.17	.06	.73	.76	1.06	1.49	.17	.12
Condition								2.10	.001	2.32	8.15	28.63	.64	10.72	2.17	.001	2.42	8.78	31.88	.66	10.90
Gender								-.26	.72	.20	.78	3.08	.70	.13	-.31	.67	.18	.74	2.99	.72	.18
Condition* Gender								.80	.30	.49	2.23	10.20	.78	1.06	.71	.36	.44	2.04	9.43	.78	.83
Communal needs															-.08	.62	.68	.92	1.26	.16	.25
Agentic needs															.24	.13	.93	1.27	1.73	.15	2.31
Self- expression															-.04	.74	.78	.97	1.19	.11	.11
Nagelkerke's R ²			0%								27.5%							28.3%			
χ^2			.01, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .939								73.69, <i>df</i> = 4, <i>p</i> <.001							76.08, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> <.001			
-2LL			373.06								299.38							296.99			
Hosmer & Lemeshow			<i>p</i> = .395								<i>p</i> = .679							<i>p</i> = .791			
Classification accuracy			83.3%								83.6%							83.3%			

Note: **p* <0.05; ***p* <0.01, ****p* <.001

Table 7.
 Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Told my GP.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3								
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio								
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>		
Constant	-2.50	<.001		.08		.33	56.23	-2.4	<.001		.09		.62	14.87	-3.25	.004		.04		1.12	8.47		
Incident evaluation	.26	.101	.95	1.30	1.770	.16	2.70	.16	.367	.83	1.17	1.64	.17	.81	.17	.327	.843	1.19	1.67	.17	.96		
Condition								1.23	.015	1.27	3.40	9.10	.50	5.97	.87	.100	.846	2.39	6.74	.53	2.70		
Gender								-2.06	.006	.03	.13	.55	.75	7.63	-2.04	.008	.029	.13	.58	.77	7.10		
Condition* Gender								1.39	.105	.75	4.00	21.42	.86	2.62	1.52	.083	.819	4.56	25.34	.88	3.00		
Communal needs															.69	.001	1.305	2.002	3.07	.22	10.09		
Agentic needs															-.26	.129	.548	.77	1.08	.17	2.31		
Self- expression															-.27	.036	.595	.77	.98	.13	4.38		
Nagelkerke's R ²				1.2%																	25.2%	30.5%	
χ^2																							
-2LL																							
Hosmer & Lemeshow																							
Classification accuracy																							

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Table 8.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Confronted the perpetrator.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	-1.07	<.001		.34		.24	20.10	-.91	.039		.40		.44	4.25	-2.19	.002		.11		.72	9.18
Incident evaluation	.10	.402	.87	1.11	1.41	.12	.70	.05	.686	.81	1.06	1.37	.13	.16	.01	.923	.78	1.01	1.33	.14	.01
Condition								.30	.418	.65	1.35	2.80	.37	.66	.53	.180	.78	1.70	3.70	.40	1.80
Gender								-.26	.469	.38	.77	1.56	.36	.53	-.45	.239	.30	.64	1.35	.38	1.39
Condition* Gender								-.33	.531	.26	.72	2.00	.52	.39	-.51	.345	.21	.60	1.72	.54	.89
Communal needs															-.34	.004	.57	.71	.90	.12	8.44
Agentic needs															.37	.002	1.14	1.44	1.83	.12	9.18
Self- expression															.21	.016	1.04	1.23	1.46	.09	5.84
Nagelkerke's R ²	.2%							2%							8.6%						
χ^2	.69, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .405							5.83, <i>df</i> = 4, <i>p</i> = .212							25.70, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> = .001						
-2LL	497.78							492.64							472.78						
Hosmer & Lemeshow	<i>p</i> = .270							<i>p</i> = .805							<i>p</i> = .883						
Classification accuracy	71%							71%							70.3%						

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001

Table 9.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Told friends and family.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	1.16	<.001		3.19		.23	24.91	.08	.847		1.08		.42	.04	-.22	.721		.80		.63	.13
Incident evaluation	-.34	.005	.56	.71	.90	.12	8.04	-.22	.093	.63	.81	1.04	.13	2.82	-.22	.084	.62	.80	1.03	.13	2.99
Condition								1.08	.003	1.45	2.94	5.98	.36	8.87	1.04	.006	1.35	2.82	5.90	.38	7.64
Gender								.84	.013	1.20	2.33	4.52	.34	6.20	.79	.024	1.11	2.19	4.35	.35	5.07
Condition* Gender								-.34	.524	.26	.72	2.01	.53	.41	-.31	.566	.26	.74	2.09	.53	.33
Communal needs															.05	.662	.85	1.05	1.29	.11	.19
Agentic needs															-.13	.217	.71	.88	1.08	.11	1.52
Self- expression															.15	.042	1.01	1.17	1.35	.08	4.12
Nagelkerke's R ²			2.7%								7.2%							9%			
χ^2			8.21, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .004								22.21, <i>df</i> = 4, <i>p</i> <.001							28.07, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> <.001			
-2LL			532.77								518.78							512.91			
Hosmer & Lemeshow			<i>p</i> = .021								<i>p</i> = .266							<i>p</i> = .821			
Classification accuracy			65.2%								66.9%							66.9%			

Note: **p* <.05; ***p* <.01, ****p* <.001

Table 10.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Told a religious leader.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	-4.27	<.001		.01		.55	61.47	-3.74	<.001		.02		.91	16.96	-5.96	.002		.003		1.91	9.721
Incident evaluation	.55	.012	1.13	1.73	2.65	.22	6.25	.37	.124	.91	1.44	2.28	.24	2.37	.31	.197	.85	1.36	2.16	.24	1.66
Condition								.97	.168	.67	2.63	10.40	.70	1.90	.77	.301	.50	2.16	9.30	.75	1.07
Gender								-18.05	.995	.00	.00	.	278 3.39	.00	-18.15	.995	.00	.00	.	274 7.03	.00
Condition* Gender								16.41	.995	.00	13338 568.8	.	278 3.39	.00	16.28	.995	.00	11799 901.9	.	274 7.03	.00
Communal needs														.44	.178	.82	1.55	2.94	.33	1.81	
Agentic needs														.15	.612	.66	1.16	2.04	.29	.26	
Self-expression														-.14	.501	.59	.87	1.29	.20	.45	
Nagelkerke's R ²	4.5%							25%							27.5%						
χ^2	5.28, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .022							29.98, <i>df</i> = 4, <i>p</i> < .001							33.08, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001						
-2LL	130.20							105.50							102.40						
Hosmer & Lemeshow	<i>p</i> = .002							<i>p</i> = .120							<i>p</i> = .705						
Classification accuracy	96.1%							96.1%							96.1%						

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001

Table 11.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Professional emotional support.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3							
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	
Constant	-1.40	<.001		.25		.35	16.58	-2.09	.005		.12		.74	7.97	-4.14	.001		.02		1.30	10.09	
Incident evaluation	-.30	.130	.50	.74	1.09	.20	2.30	-.30	.145	.49	.74	1.11	.21	2.13	-.28	.164	.51	.76	1.12	.20	1.94	
Condition								1.67	.009	1.51	5.30	18.65	.64	6.76	1.28	.053	.98	3.58	13.11	.66	3.74	
Gender								-1.16	.128	.07	.31	1.397	.76	2.31	-1.26	.109	.06	.28	1.32	.79	2.57	
Condition* Gender								1.27	.132	.68	3.54	18.39	.84	2.27	1.41	.102	.76	4.08	22.04	.86	2.68	
Communal needs															.77	.001	1.39	2.16	3.35	.22	11.74	
Agentic needs															-.17	.319	.60	.84	1.18	.17	.99	
Self-expression															-.20	.110	.64	.82	1.05	.13	2.55	
Nagelkerke's R ²				1.1%								26.6%									32.1%	
χ^2																						
-2LL																						
Hosmer & Lemeshow																						
Classification accuracy																						

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001

Table 12.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Sought information and support online.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3									
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio									
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>			
Constant	-1.07	<.001		.34		.27	15.62	-.94	.063		.39		.50	3.46	-3.31	<.001		.04		.92	12.97			
Incident evaluation	-.13	.385	.66	.88	1.174	.15	.75	-.20	.197	.60	.82	1.11	.16	1.67	-.26	.104	.57	.78	1.05	.16	2.65			
Condition								.90	.030	1.09	2.45	5.51	.41	4.69	.67	.124	.83	1.95	4.58	.44	2.36			
Gender								-1.11	.013	.14	.33	.80	.45	6.11	-1.43	.002	.09	.24	.60	.47	9.15			
Condition* Gender								.97	.085	.88	2.64	7.93	.56	2.98	1.00	.084	.87	2.71	8.38	.58	2.98			
Communal needs															.30	.042	1.01	1.35	1.81	.15	4.14			
Agentic needs															.18	.195	.91	1.20	1.58	.14	1.68			
Self- expression															.02	.845	.84	1.02	1.24	.10	.04			
Nagelkerke's R ²				.3%																		18.5%	22.6%	
χ^2																								65.82, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001
-2LL																								367.71
Hosmer & Lemeshow																								<i>p</i> = .678
Classification accuracy																								79.5%

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001

Table 13.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Wrote online.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	-2.78	<.001		.06		.36	61.27	-2.15	<.001		.117		.61	12.50	-3.90	<.001		.02		1.09	12.79
Incident evaluation	.32	.054	.99	1.37	1.90	.17	3.71	.24	.191	.89	1.27	1.82	.18	1.71	.19	.301	.84	1.21	1.74	.19	1.07
Condition								-.69	.184	.18	.50	1.39	.52	1.76	-.70	.197	.17	.50	1.44	.54	1.67
Gender								-.42	.380	.26	.66	1.67	.47	.77	-.66	.182	.20	.52	1.36	.49	1.78
Condition* Gender								-.25	.786	.13	.78	4.72	.92	.07	-.30	.748	.12	.74	4.56	.93	.10
Communal needs															-.07	.654	.67	.93	1.28	.16	.20
Agentic needs															.17	.343	.83	1.19	1.70	.18	.90
Self- expression															.25	.075	.98	1.29	1.70	.14	3.16
Nagelkerke's R ²	1.7%							3.6%							6.9%						
χ^2	3.40, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .065							7.12, <i>df</i> = 4, <i>p</i> = .130							13.82, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> = .054						
-2LL	264.01							260.29							253.59						
Hosmer & Lemeshow	<i>p</i> = .521							<i>p</i> = .663							<i>p</i> = .422						
Classification accuracy	90.1%							90.1%							90.1%						

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001

Table 14.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Contacted a helpline.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	-2.90	<.001		.06		.38	59.61	-3.22	<.001		.04		.74	19.08	-5.94	<.001		.003		1.57	14.28
Incident evaluation	.30	.081	.96	1.36	1.91	.17	3.05	.29	.121	.93	1.34	1.93	.19	2.40	.27	.154	.90	1.31	1.89	.19	2.03
Condition								1.14	.058	.96	3.13	10.16	.60	3.59	.74	.253	.59	2.09	7.38	.64	1.31
Gender								-1.47	.069	.05	.23	1.12	.81	3.30	-1.48	.080	.04	.23	1.19	.85	3.08
Condition* Gender								1.77	.050	1.00	5.88	34.58	.90	3.85	1.82	.052	.98	6.19	39.05	.94	3.76
Communal needs														.98	.000	1.54	2.65	4.57	.28	12.44	
Agentic needs														-.26	.194	.52	.77	1.14	.20	1.69	
Self- expression														-.21	.148	.62	.82	1.08	.14	2.09	
Nagelkerke's R ²	1.5%							19.6%							27.4%						
χ^2	2.78, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .095							37.83, <i>df</i> = 4, <i>p</i> < .001							53.92, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001						
-2LL	241.84							206.79							190.71						
Hosmer & Lemeshow	<i>p</i> = .001							<i>p</i> = .120							<i>p</i> = .829						
Classification accuracy	91.3%							91.3%							91.5%						

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001

Table 15.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Sought HR advice.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3							
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	
Constant	-1.73	<.001		.18		.30	33.90	-3.56	<.001		.028		.85	17.37	-4.92	<.001		.007		1.29	14.60	
Incident evaluation	.04	.801	.77	1.04	1.41	.15	.06	.14	.412	.82	1.15	1.63	.18	.67	.11	.553	.79	1.11	1.57	.18	.35	
Condition								2.66	.000	3.22	14.34	63.88	.76	12.20	2.64	.001	3.06	14.00	64.03	.78	11.57	
Gender								-.59	.509	.10	.55	3.21	.90	.44	-.77	.397	.08	.46	2.75	.91	.72	
Condition* Gender								1.17	.220	.50	3.22	20.86	.95	1.50	1.14	.236	.47	3.12	20.52	.96	1.40	
Communal needs														.04	.807	.74	1.04	1.48	.18	.06		
Agentic needs														.04	.823	.75	1.04	1.44	.17	.05		
Self-expression														.20	.115	.95	1.22	1.56	.13	2.48		
Nagelkerke's R ²			.00%								37.3%								38.8%			
χ^2			.063, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .802								101.75, <i>df</i> = 4, <i>p</i> < .001								106.30, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001			
-2LL			363.19								261.43								256.95			
Hosmer & Lemeshow			<i>p</i> = .381								<i>p</i> = .350								<i>p</i> = .870			
Classification accuracy			84.1%								83.8%								84.5%			

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001

Table 16.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Contacting a professional union.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	-1.88	<.001		.15		.38	25.28	-2.77	.001		.06		.87	10.25	-3.87	.004		.02		1.33	8.40
Incident evaluation	-.18	.392	.55	.834	1.26	.21	.73	-.18	.397	.55	.83	1.27	.22	.72	-.22	.331	.52	.81	1.25	.22	.95
Condition								1.96	.010	1.58	7.08	31.69	.77	6.56	2.06	.009	1.67	7.81	36.55	.79	6.81
Gender								-1.58	.124	.03	.21	1.54	1.03	2.37	-1.72	.099	.02	.18	1.38	1.04	2.73
Condition* Gender								1.52	.165	.54	4.57	38.88	1.09	1.93	1.41	.198	.48	4.11	35.42	1.10	1.66
Communal needs															-.15	.441	.60	.86	1.25	.19	.59
Agentic needs															.33	.094	.95	1.39	2.04	.20	2.81
Self-expression															.03	.824	.79	1.03	1.34	.13	.05
Nagelkerke's R ²	.4%							2.8%							29.4%						
χ^2	.786, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .375							59.92, <i>df</i> = 4, <i>p</i> < .001							63.26, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001						
-2LL	271.01							211.87							208.84						
Hosmer & Lemeshow	<i>p</i> = .284							<i>p</i> = .649							<i>p</i> = .396						
Classification accuracy	89.9%							89.9%							89.9%						

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001

Table 17.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, Gender, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Telling a colleague.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	-1.40	<.001		.25		.26	28.39	-2.72	<.001		.07		.614	19.58	-3.01	.001		.05		.87	11.89
Incident evaluation	.07	.604	.82	1.07	1.40	.14	.27	.20	.186	.91	1.22	1.63	.15	1.75	.19	.206	.90	1.21	1.62	.15	1.60
Condition								1.51	.005	1.60	4.51	12.77	.53	8.07	1.46	.007	1.49	4.29	12.38	.54	7.27
Gender								.71	.183	.72	2.03	5.77	.53	1.77	.66	.222	.67	1.93	5.56	.54	1.49
Condition* Gender								-.06	.925	.28	.94	3.24	.63	.01	-.01	.992	.29	.99	3.45	.64	.00
Communal needs															.08	.544	.83	1.09	1.41	.13	.37
Agentic needs															-.21	.104	.63	.81	1.04	.13	2.65
Self-expression															.19	.061	.99	1.21	1.47	.10	3.51
Nagelkerke's R ²	.1%							9.7%							11.7%						
χ^2	.265, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .607							26.79, <i>df</i> = 4, <i>p</i> < .001							32.81, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001						
-2LL	433.26							406.74							400.72						
Hosmer & Lemeshow	<i>p</i> = .019							<i>p</i> = .284							<i>p</i> = .387						
Classification accuracy	78.3%							78%							79%						

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001

Table 20.
MANCOVA results for need satisfaction by Covariate, Group, and Gender

	<i>F</i> (df)	<i>df</i>	<i>Error df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	90% CI
Multivariate satisfied needs						
Covariate	2.65	3	352	.049	.02	.0001; .047
Group	10.17	3	352	<.001	.08	.035; .122
Gender	2.67	3	352	.047	.02	.0001; .047
Interaction	2.44	3	352	.064	.02	.0000; .044
Covariate						
Satisfied Communal needs	6.37	1	354	.012	.02	.002; .047
Satisfied Agentic needs	3.99	1	354	.047	.01	.0001; .036
Satisfied Self-expression	7.39	1	354	.007	.02	.003; .051
Group						
Satisfied Communal needs	26.49	1	354	<.001	.07	.033; .116
Satisfied Agentic needs	20.39	1	354	<.001	.06	.022; .097
Satisfied Self-expression	26.47	1	354	<.001	.07	.033; .116
Gender						
Satisfied Communal needs	2.05	1	354	.154	.01	.000; .026
Satisfied Agentic needs	1.78	1	354	.183	.01	.000; .024
Satisfied Self-expression	.20	1	354	.656	.001	.000; .011
Interaction						
Satisfied Communal needs	.83	1	354	.363	.002	.000; .018
Satisfied Agentic needs	4.98	1	354	.026	.01	.001; .041
Satisfied Self-expression	.17	1	354	.681	.001	.000; .011

Table 21.
*Estimated marginal means of real and imagined need satisfaction by
 Group and Gender*

		<i>M (estimated)</i>	<i>SE (estimated)</i>
Group			
Satisfied Communal needs	No	5.22	.14
	Yes	4.19	.14
Satisfied Agentic needs	No	5.08	.15
	Yes	4.12	.15
Satisfied Self-expression	No	5.56	.16
	Yes	4.39	.16
Gender			
Satisfied Communal needs	FNB	4.55	.14
	Male	4.85	.15
Satisfied Agentic needs	FNB	4.45	.14
	Male	4.74	.16
Satisfied Self-expression	FNB	5.03	.15
	Male	4.92	.17

Table 22.
MANCOVA results for feelings by Covariate, Group, and Gender

	<i>F</i> (df)	<i>df</i>	<i>Error df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	90% CI
Multivariate feelings						
Covariate	11.96	4	401	<.001	.11	.057; .148
Group	11.12	4	401	<.001	.10	.052; .141
Gender	6.61	4	401	<.001	.06	.023; .096
Interaction	2.69	4	401	.031	.03	.001; .048
Covariate						
Shame	3.16	1	404	.076	.01	.000; .028
Excitement	44.38	1	404	.000	.10	.057; .147
Attentiveness	12.80	1	404	.000	.03	.009; .063
Anxiety	.06	1	404	.815	.00	.000; .006
Group						
Shame	23.72	1	404	.000	.06	.025; .095
Excitement	7.34	1	404	.007	.02	.003; .045
Attentiveness	1.34	1	404	.247	.003	.000; .019
Anxiety	9.30	1	404	.002	.02	.005; .052
Gender						
Shame	.51	1	404	.477	.001	.000; .013
Excitement	16.73	1	404	.000	.04	.014; .075
Attentiveness	.05	1	404	.818	.00	.000; .006
Anxiety	1.84	1	404	.175	.01	.000; .022
Interaction						
Shame	.65	1	404	.420	.002	.000; .015
Excitement	3.33	1	404	.069	.01	.000; .029
Attentiveness	.01	1	404	.917	.00	.000; .001
Anxiety	1.66	1	404	.199	.004	.000; .021

Table 23.
Estimated marginal means of feelings by Group and Gender

		<i>M(estimated)</i>	<i>SE(estimated)</i>
Group			
Shame	No	4.14	.14
	Yes	3.24	.12
Excitement	No	2.77	.11
	Yes	3.18	.10
Attentiveness	No	4.17	.11
	Yes	3.99	.10
Anxiety	No	4.55	.12
	Yes	4.06	.11
Gender			
Shame	FNB	3.76	.13
	Male	3.62	.14
Excitement	FNB	2.66	.10
	Male	3.30	.11
Attentiveness	FNB	4.06	.10
	Male	4.10	.11
Anxiety	FNB	4.42	.11
	Male	4.20	.12

Table 24.

MANCOVA results for life outcomes by Covariate, Group, and Gender

	<i>F</i> (df)	<i>df</i>	<i>Error df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	90% CI
Multivariate life sat						
Covariate	8.41	4	402	<.001	.08	.034; .114
Group	6.22	4	402	<.001	.06	.021; .091
Gender	1.64	4	402	.163	.02	.000; .033
Interaction	.24	4	402	.919	.002	.000; .003
Covariate						
Life satisfaction	20.58	1	405	<.001	.05	.020; .086
Personal self esteem	.42	1	405	.519	.001	.000; .013
Relationship satisfaction	20.07	1	405	<.001	.05	.019; .085
Optimism	3.86	1	405	.050	.01	.000; .031
Group						
Life satisfaction	17.71	1	405	<.001	.04	.016; .078
Personal self esteem	18.84	1	405	<.001	.04	.017; .081
Relationship satisfaction	4.77	1	405	.030	.01	.001; .035
Optimism	6.87	1	405	.009	.02	.002; .043
Gender						
Life satisfaction	3.12	1	405	.078	.01	.000; .028
Personal self esteem	5.96	1	405	.015	.02	.002; .040
Relationship satisfaction	3.51	1	405	.062	.01	.000; .030
Optimism	4.02	1	405	.046	.01	.0001; .032
Interaction						
Life satisfaction	.40	1	405	.530	.001	.000; .012
Personal self esteem	.01	1	405	.912	.000	.000; .001
Relationship satisfaction	.73	1	405	.393	.002	.000; .015
Optimism	.24	1	405	.627	.001	.000; .011

Table 24.

Estimated marginal means of life outcomes by Group and Gender

		<i>M(estimated)</i>	<i>SE(estimated)</i>
Group			
Life satisfaction	No	3.89	.13
	Yes	4.63	.12
Personal self esteem	No	4.60	.10
	Yes	5.19	.09
Relationship satisfaction	No	4.30	.11
	Yes	4.64	.10
Optimism	No	4.39	.11
	Yes	4.78	.10
Gender			
Life satisfaction	FNB	4.42	.12
	Male	4.10	.13
Personal self esteem	FNB	5.06	.09
	Male	4.72	.10
Relationship satisfaction	FNB	4.62	.11
	Male	4.32	.12
Optimism	FNB	4.74	.10
	Male	4.43	.11

Appendix C: Study 3 results with the restricted sample

Results with the restricted sample:

The restricted sample consisted of $N = 366$ participants who indicated that the sexual harassing incident was negative or very negative. The distributions across Group, gender, age, and nationality were very similar to those of the full sample. Almost two thirds of the participants reported that they had experienced sexual harassment (Experiencers, 62.3% of the sample, $n = 228$); the rest of the participants reported that they had not (Imaginers, 37.7% of the sample, $n = 138$). The majority of the participants were female or non-binary (67.5%, $n = 247$), and the remaining 32.5% were male ($n = 119$). Of the participants who reported that they were female or non-binary, 199 had experienced sexual harassment and 28 had not; of the participants who reported that they were male, 29 had experienced sexual harassment and 90 had not. The mean age was $M = 31.2$ ($SD = 10.2$) and the largest age group was 25-34 (45.1% of the sample). Just over half (52.7%) of the sample was from the UK. (See Table 1 below for further information on the age and national distribution of our sample.)

As aforementioned, we re-analysed the data including only responses that evaluated sexual harassment as negative or very negative. Here we provide a summary of the differences. The main effects of Group remain the same even after restricting the data solely to experiences that were evaluated negatively. Specifically, the main effect of Group remained significant for needs, actions, need satisfaction, feelings, life satisfaction, personal self-esteem, relationship satisfaction, and optimism. The pattern was the same as before; Imaginers anticipated that they would have significantly higher needs, take more actions, and have their needs more satisfied by their actions, compared to Experiencers. Imaginers also imagined that they would experience significantly higher anxiety and shame, lower excitement, life satisfaction, personal self-esteem, satisfaction with relationships, and optimism compared to those reported

by Experiencers.

However, with regard to Gender and interactions involving Gender we found that some effects were entirely eliminated. Specifically, the effect of Gender remained significant and in the same direction as before for needs, actions, and current feelings: female and non-binary participants reported higher communal, agentic and self-expression needs, and lower excitement. Male participants were more likely than female and non-binary participants to report that they took or would take action after being sexually harassed. Conversely, previously reported main effects of Gender on satisfied communal and agentic needs and self-esteem became non-significant ($p = .352$, $p = .713$, and $p = .109$, respectively).

Finally, after restricting the sample to negatively evaluated experiences, there were no interaction effects on any of the variables. The previously reported interaction effects of Group and Gender on satisfied agentic needs and excitement become non-significant, $p = .725$ and $p = .122$ respectively.

In summary, when we apply a decision rule on the data and restrict the analysis to responses that evaluated sexual harassment negatively, the main effects of Group that we found in the full sample remain significant, Gender effects remain significant only for needs, actions and excitement, and all Gender by Group interaction effects are no longer significant.

Table 1.

Restricted sample descriptive statistics

Age group	Percent
18-24	27.3
25-34	45.1
35-44	14.8
45-54	9.0
55-64	3.3
65-74	.5
Nationality	Percent
UK	52.7
Europe non-UK	21.2
Asia	9.3
North America	8.8
Oceania	2.7
South America	2.5
Dual/Mixed/Other	1.9
Africa	.8

Appendix D: Study 4 results tables

Table 1.

Full sample descriptive statistics

Group	Percent, $n = 606$
Experience	51.3%, $n = 311$
Imagination	48.7%, $n = 295$
Age group	Percent, $n = 579$
18-24	22.6%, $n = 131$
25-34	42%, $n = 243$
35-44	21.4%, $n = 124$
45-54	9.3%, $n = 54$
55-64	3.8%, $n = 22$
65-74	.9%, $n = 5$
Nationality	Percent, $n = 579$
UK	55.1%, $n = 319$
Europe non-UK	28.7%, $n = 166$
North America	9.5%, $n = 55$
Asia	2.8%, $n = 16$
Dual/Mixed/Other	1.7%, $n = 10$
Oceania	1%, $n = 6$
South America	.7, $n = 4$
Africa	.5%, $n = 3$

Table 2.

Measures used in Study 4

Measure	Items
Needs	To feel like my life mattered
	To feel like my life had meaning

	To know that there were others who cared about me
	To feel accepted by others
	To feel part of a community
	To talk to someone
	To be supported by friends and family
	To be believed
	To be respected
	To be understood
	To confront the perpetrator
	To get an apology from the perpetrator
	To get justice
	To make a formal report
	To express myself
	To be in control
	To make decisions for myself
	To show that I was capable
	To feel less powerless
	To get away from the perpetrator
	To feel safe
	For things to go back to normal
Actions	Did not do anything about the incident
	Did not tell anyone about the incident
	Informed the police
	Made a formal complaint that did not directly involve the police (e.g., to the perpetrator's manager)
	Spoke to my doctor
	Directly confronted the perpetrator(s)
	Discussed the incident with friends and/or family
	Sought professional emotional support (e.g. counselling)

	Searched for information and support online
	Wrote about my experience online (e.g. in fora, on twitter, etc.)
	Called a support helpline
	Contacted HR for advice (if it happened in the workplace)
	Spoke to my professional union (if it happened in the workplace)
	Discussed the incident with a colleague (if it happened in the workplace)
	Other (open format)
Feelings	Afraid
	Nervous
	Tense
	Scared
	Worried about the future
	Upset
	Irritable
	Hostile
	Fine
	Distressed
	Angry
	Numb
	Excited
	Enthusiastic
	Proud
	Inspired
	Interested
	Attentive
	Alert
	Determined
	Active

	Strong
	Confident
	Regretful
	Guilty
	Ashamed
	Concerned about others
PTGI	
Relating to Others	<p>I learned a great deal about how wonderful people are.</p> <p>I better accept needing others.</p> <p>I more clearly see that I can count on people in times of trouble.</p> <p>I have a greater sense of closeness with others.</p> <p>I am more willing to express my emotions.</p> <p>I have more compassion for others.</p> <p>I put more effort into my relationships.</p>
New possibilities	<p>I developed new interests.</p> <p>I established a new path for my life.</p> <p>I am able to do better things with my life.</p> <p>New opportunities are available which wouldn't have been otherwise.</p> <p>I am more likely to try to change things which need changing.</p>
Personal strength	<p>I have a greater feeling of self-reliance.</p> <p>I know better that I can handle difficulties.</p> <p>I am better able to accept the way things work out.</p> <p>I discovered that I'm stronger than I thought I was.</p>
Spiritual change	<p>I have a better understanding of spiritual matters.</p> <p>I have a stronger religious faith.</p>
Appreciation of Life	<p>I changed my priorities about what is important in life.</p> <p>I have a greater appreciation for the value of my own life.</p> <p>I can better appreciate each day.</p>
Life satisfaction	I feel satisfied with my life.

	I feel that in most ways my life is close to ideal.
	I feel that the conditions in my life are excellent.
Personal self-esteem	I feel satisfied with myself.
	I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
	I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
	I feel that I do not have much to be proud of.
	I feel that I am no good at all.
Satisfaction with relationships	I feel satisfied with my social relationships.
	I feel that I am not alone, I feel that people are basically good and trustworthy.
	I feel that I have a lot in common with other people.
Optimism	I feel optimistic about my future.
	Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.
	I do not expect things to go my way.

Table 3.

Sexual harassment descriptive statistics

	<i>Experiencers</i>		<i>Imaginers</i>	
	%	n=310	%	n=294
Type				
Physical	35.2	109	16.7	49
Non Physical	29.4	91	5.8	17
Both	35.5	110	83.3	245
Context				
Workplace	26.5	82	87.1	256
Street/Public	29.4	91	81	238
Nightlife	21.9	68	86.7	255
School	5.2	16	59.2	174
Online	1.9	6	59.5	175
Other	15.2	47	4.1	12
Perpetrator number				
One perp	86.8	269	97.3	286
Multiple Perps	13.2	41	44.6	131
Relationship with perp				
Friends	5.5	17	40.5	119
Acquaintances	13.9	43	69	203
Family	2.3	7	41.2	121
Colleagues/Boss	23.9	74	81.6	240
Strangers	45.8	142	85.4	251
Other	8.7	27	1.7	5
Repetition				
Single occurrence	62.6	194	60.2	177
Repeated over now	36.5	113	80.6	237
Repeated ongoing	1.0	3	-	-
Time				

In the last month	2.3	7	-	-
1 month to 1 year ago	13.6	42	-	-
Over a year ago	84.1	260	-	-
<hr/>				
Evaluation				
<hr/>				
Very negative	52.3	162	80.3	236
Moderately Negative	43.2	134	18.7	55
Neutral	4.2	13	.3	1
Moderately Positive	0	0	.3	1
Very positive	.3	1	.3	1
<hr/>				

Table 4.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation, Experience subsample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment - Rotated Component Matrix

Prompt: Below you will find a list of needs that people often talk about. For each of these, please indicate how strong you think that need would be for you immediately after experiencing sexual harassment. Scale: 1 = Very untrue, 4= Neither true nor untrue, 7 = Very true

	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .906$)					
Life Mattered	.842	.202	.173	-.047	.141
Life Meaning	.835	.124	.190	-.019	.181
Acceptance	.778	.288	.159	.081	.027
Cared By Others	.760	.368	.118	.014	.050
Community	.746	.113	.108	.211	.073
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .805$)					
Talk	.107	.781	-.011	.210	.018
Be Supported	.294	.729	-.001	.127	.213
Be Believed	.380	.681	.193	-.020	.116
Be Respected	.217	.587	.303	.111	.036
Be Understood	.452	.528	.274	.142	.043
Getaway	-.128	.387	.377	-.350	.376
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .749$)					
Decision Making	.383	-.003	.768	.087	.010
Control	.163	.191	.722	.154	.006
Capability	.434	-.019	.664	.233	-.088
Less Powerless	.024	.206	.599	-.026	.173
Safety	.036	.432	.444	-.351	.345
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .798$)					
Confrontation	-.061	.123	.071	.848	.106
Apology	.095	.062	.103	.747	.109
Self-Expression	.162	.473	.203	.564	-.002
Justice	.145	.257	.023	.470	.694
Formal Report	.154	.229	-.077	.461	.687
Factor 5					
Back To Normal	.290	-.103	.235	-.103	.439

Table 5.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Experience subsample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern Matrix

	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .906$)					
Life Mattered	.875	-.006	.028	.044	.004
Life Meaning	.859	.047	.013	.071	.090
Cared By Others	.789	-.039	-.006	.006	-.219
Acceptance	.787	-.022	-.083	.084	-.157
Community	.740	.113	-.211	.086	-.005
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .781$)					
Formal Report	.099	.870	.111	-.179	.000
Justice	.067	.869	.150	-.082	-.014
Confrontation	-.229	.605	-.431	.259	-.217
Apology	-.051	.531	-.410	.264	-.117
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .646$), $r(307) = .491$, $p < .001$.					
Getaway	-.151	.064	.729	.127	-.120
Safety	.012	.012	.706	.187	-.147
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .756$)					
Decision Making	.238	-.067	.078	.771	.134
Capability	.289	-.053	-.126	.733	.078
Control	.002	-.010	.137	.725	-.096
Less Powerless	-.091	.051	.358	.514	-.043
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .807$)					
Talk	.083	.113	.106	-.091	-.756
Be Supported	.295	.216	.216	-.157	-.586
Be Believed	.374	.012	.277	.025	-.521
Self-Expression	.034	.292	-.200	.273	-.500
Be Respected	.153	.025	.182	.218	-.495
Be Understood	.405	.035	.080	.192	-.416
Back To Normal	.280	.268	.290	.092	.363

Table 6.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Experience subsample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment – Structure Matrix

	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .881$)					
To feel like my life mattered	.894	.214	.218	.340	-.196
To feel like my life had meaning	.877	.245	.197	.355	-.125
To know that there were others who cared	.828	.214	.177	.306	-.381
To feel accepted by others	.827	.231	.107	.364	-.333
To feel part of a community	.753	.311	-.042	.335	-.199
To be understood	.585	.297	.225	.431	-.558
For things to go back to normal	.357	.257	.336	.218	.186
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .781$)					
To get justice	.283	.871	.162	.174	-.270
To make a formal report	.271	.852	.116	.080	-.241
To confront the perpetrator	-.040	.670	-.421	.312	-.356
To get an apology from the perpetrator	.104	.611	-.370	.342	-.276
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .646$)					
To feel safe	.258	.109	.746	.320	-.245
To get away from the perpetrator	.087	.099	.725	.216	-.188
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .756$)					
To make decisions for myself	.469	.139	.223	.819	-.059
To show that I was capable	.479	.170	.029	.784	-.107
To be in control	.293	.194	.244	.761	-.250
To feel less powerless	.179	.169	.414	.553	-.168
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .810$)					
To talk to someone	.266	.326	.171	.130	-.796
To be supported by friends and family	.467	.417	.304	.142	-.697
To be believed	.558	.258	.400	.297	-.633
To express myself	.263	.505	-.113	.427	-.629
To be respected	.379	.256	.283	.400	-.593

Table 7.
Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.000	.240	.211	.337	-.218
2	.240	1.000	.010	.242	-.283
3	.211	.010	1.000	.137	-.078
4	.337	.242	.137	1.000	-.200
5	-.218	-.283	-.078	-.200	1.000

Table 8.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Experience subsample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment - Rotated Component Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .906$)					
Life Mattered	.862	.134	.047	.167	.123
Life Meaning	.850	.064	.088	.190	.105
Acceptance	.777	.272	.064	.196	.014
Cared By Others	.767	.347	.022	.127	.066
Community	.738	.109	.203	.187	-.094
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .835$)					
Talk	.110	.830	.134	-.020	.096
Be Supported	.335	.679	.229	-.054	.246
Self-expression	.104	.631	.354	.313	-.170
Be Believed	.432	.573	.076	.113	.346
Be Respected	.247	.507	.128	.258	.267
Be Understood	.462	.500	.123	.267	.160
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .781$)					
Justice	.205	.148	.834	-.005	.237
Formal Report	.217	.118	.831	-.096	.198
Confrontation	-.123	.280	.683	.253	-.357
Apology	.033	.208	.602	.273	-.335
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .756$)					
Decision-making	.354	-.001	.019	.770	.160
Capability	.387	.025	.074	.735	-.020
Control	.134	.217	.061	.711	.188
Less Powerless	.053	.108	.083	.502	.407
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .646$); $r(307) = .491, p < .001$					
Getaway	-.022	.140	.019	.136	.741
Safety	.134	.197	-.015	.214	.731

Table 9.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Experience subsample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .906$)					
Life Mattered	.867	.035	.050	.047	.002
Life Meaning	.860	.088	.034	.080	.085
Acceptance	.759	-.009	-.070	.077	-.171
Cared By Others	.745	-.050	-.015	-.001	-.265
Community	.740	.154	-.174	.087	.020
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .781$)					
Formal Report	.139	.903	.128	-.160	.037
Justice	.105	.894	.159	-.064	.010
Confrontation	-.239	.535	-.445	.252	-.239
Apology	-.058	.473	-.421	.261	-.144
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .646$); $r(307) = .491, p < .001$					
Getaway	-.126	.122	.734	.127	-.088
Safety	.027	.062	.707	.185	-.130
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .756$)					
Decision Making	.260	-.052	.089	.773	.124
Capability	.306	-.033	-.099	.730	.089
Control	-.006	-.050	.113	.718	-.150
Less Powerless	-.068	.074	.363	.513	-.033
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .835$)					
Talk	-.024	-.032	.015	-.118	-.895
Be Supported	.224	.144	.163	-.174	-.667
Self-expression	-.043	.142	-.277	.255	-.634
Be Believed	.326	.007	.267	.003	-.537
Be Respected	.121	.037	.189	.189	-.477
Be Understood	.360	.013	.068	.172	-.447

Note: double loading items are denoted in bold font.

Table 10.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Experience subsample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment – Structure Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .906$)					
Life Mattered	.895	.184	.183	.327	-.317
Life Meaning	.876	.212	.154	.344	-.259
Acceptance	.827	.204	.076	.349	-.429
Cared By Others	.821	.176	.137	.289	-.488
Community	.759	.300	-.067	.326	-.283
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .781$)					
Justice	.254	.881	.103	.180	-.374
Formal Report	.246	.868	.063	.086	-.332
Confrontation	-.061	.676	-.461	.317	-.376
Apology	.085	.606	-.418	.344	-.322
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .646$); $r(307) = .491, p < .001$					
Safety	.244	.108	.743	.314	-.310
Getaway	.073	.111	.731	.213	-.228
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .756$)					
Decision Making	.463	.109	.194	.817	-.166
Capability	.482	.152	.011	.783	-.186
Control	.274	.159	.209	.758	-.341
Less Powerless	.168	.163	.404	.554	-.229
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .835$)					
Talk	.231	.282	.124	.114	-.844
Be Supported	.438	.389	.260	.127	-.771
Self-expression	.227	.456	-.181	.419	-.707
Be Believed	.546	.250	.389	.279	-.685
Be Understood	.573	.278	.200	.416	-.627
Be Respected	.371	.269	.289	.384	-.609

Table 11.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.000	.165	.151	.309	-.330
2	.165	1.000	-.071	.222	-.386
3	.151	-.071	1.000	.101	-.136
4	.309	.222	.101	1.000	-.274
5	-.330	-.386	-.136	-.274	1.000

Table 12.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Imagination subsample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment - Rotated Component Matrix

	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .846$)						
To make a formal report	.772	.036	.009	.182	.299	-.093
To get justice	.685	.104	.030	.270	.266	-.100
To be believed	.638	.221	.100	.002	-.140	.343
To be supported by friends and	.622	-.050	.350	.041	-.036	.222
To be understood	.618	.363	.335	.038	-.002	.148
To talk to someone	.614	.017	.201	.113	.261	.035
To be respected	.572	.282	.215	.047	-.100	.388
To express myself	.491	.340	.140	.172	.400	-.043
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .760$)						
To be in control	.127	.802	.034	.000	.061	.132
To make decisions for myself	.142	.777	.002	.226	.146	-.025
To show that I was capable	.187	.643	.271	.324	.147	-.004
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .631$)						
To feel part of a community	.284	.034	.722	.313	.213	-.037
To feel accepted by others	.310	.264	.677	.236	-.012	.028
To know that there were others who cared	.454	-.008	.593	.331	-.102	.154
To feel less powerless	-.042	.422	.455	-.377	.057	.061
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .902$)						
To feel like my life mattered	.183	.204	.220	.837	.029	.125
To feel like my life had meaning	.199	.205	.231	.835	.021	.044
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .679$)						
To get an apology from the	.098	.095	.186	-.073	.790	.092
To confront the perpetrator	.197	.134	-.151	.060	.760	-.002
Factor 6 ($\alpha = .473$)						
To get away from the perpetrator	.068	-.040	.011	.067	.215	.787
To feel safe	.140	.067	.001	.009	-.122	.719
For things to go back to normal	-.091	.360	.187	.136	.348	.421

Table 13.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Imagination subsample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern Matrix

	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .846$)						
To make a formal report	.792	-.010	-.125	-.088	.231	-.098
To get justice	.676	.063	-.133	-.190	.193	-.082
To be believed	.625	.179	.294	.069	-.205	.004
To talk to someone	.594	-.068	.003	-.043	.214	.128
To be supported by friends and family	.589	-.154	.178	.012	-.075	.287
To be understood	.560	.283	.077	.036	-.075	.260
To be respected	.517	.214	.335	.013	-.165	.123
To express myself	.438	.277	-.084	-.098	.333	.058
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .760$)						
To be in control	.053	.811	.074	.048	-.012	-.021
To make decisions for myself	.049	.792	-.078	-.184	.061	-.078
To show that I was capable	.045	.595	-.063	-.296	.067	.194
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .473$)						
To get away from the perpetrator	-.012	-.130	.816	-.065	.223	-.058
To feel safe	.084	.019	.724	-.004	-.133	-.067
For things to go back to normal	-.228	.274	.416	-.136	.332	.146
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .902$)						
To feel like my life mattered	-.012	.140	.109	-.862	-.047	.074
To feel like my life had meaning	.011	.146	.023	-.859	-.057	.089
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .679$)						
To get an apology from the	.047	-.021	.097	.119	.799	.188
To confront the perpetrator	.192	.092	.014	.001	.744	-.199
Factor 6 ($\alpha = .631$)						
To feel part of a community	.126	-.136	-.085	-.309	.183	.696
To feel accepted by others	.157	.129	-.042	-.223	-.063	.643
To know that there were others who cared	.323	-.146	.103	-.321	-.148	.526
To feel less powerless	-.096	.347	.004	.400	.057	.526

Table 14.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Imagination subsample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment – Structure Matrix

	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .846$)						
To make a formal report	.799	.141	-.010	-.344	.344	.143
To get justice	.727	.202	-.017	-.417	.318	.161
To be understood	.681	.451	.268	-.223	.062	.509
To be supported by friends and family	.663	.048	.303	-.205	-.011	.449
To talk to someone	.663	.121	.114	-.274	.294	.307
To be believed	.659	.299	.430	-.138	-.098	.271
To be respected	.622	.369	.482	-.194	-.053	.387
To express myself	.569	.433	.051	-.327	.460	.286
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .760$)						
To be in control	.191	.819	.221	-.077	.137	.220
To make decisions for myself	.224	.802	.062	-.298	.234	.177
To show that I was capable	.305	.698	.097	-.435	.233	.419
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .473$)						
To get away from the	.134	.047	.782	-.095	.197	.078
To feel safe	.172	.121	.730	-.031	-.126	.091
For things to go back to	.023	.425	.45	-.190	.374	.272
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .902$)						
To feel like my life had	.332	.283	.102	-.893	.090	.299
To feel like my life mattered	.320	.287	.180	-.890	.095	.292
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .679$)						
To get an apology from the	.187	.187	.126	-.040	.795	.233
To confront the perpetrator	.252	.212	.021	-.133	.776	-.075
Factor 6 ($\alpha = .631$)						
To feel accepted by others	.429	.345	.135	-.404	.046	.758
To feel part of a community	.418	.138	.052	-.484	.253	.750
To know that there were others who cared	.553	.092	.242	-.488	-.062	.656
To feel less powerless	.008	.430	.130	.274	.082	.519

Table 15.

Component Transformation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	.652	.414	.420	.364	.233	.203
2	-.351	.625	-.239	-.149	.629	-.110
3	-.290	.428	.145	-.211	-.465	.671
4	.417	-.268	-.246	-.621	.336	.442
5	-.265	-.314	-.247	.612	.311	.546
6	-.352	-.291	.790	-.202	.353	.044

Table 16.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the full sample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment - Rotated Component Matrix

Prompt: Below you will find a list of needs that people often talk about. For each of these, please indicate how strong you think that need would be for you immediately after experiencing sexual harassment. Scale: 1 = Very untrue, 4= Neither true nor untrue, 7 = Very true

Item	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .899$)					
To feel like my life mattered	.844	.167	.107	.118	.209
To feel like my life had meaning	.844	.117	.124	.127	.170
To know that there were others who cared about me	.714	.430	.037	.099	.105
To feel accepted by others	.712	.369	.055	.246	-.024
To feel part of a community	.705	.252	.194	.143	-.100
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .828$)					
To talk to someone	.105	.729	.247	.077	-.007
To be supported by friends and family	.322	.694	.214	-.004	.212
To be believed	.347	.656	.082	.165	.280
To be respected	.227	.573	.100	.273	.240
To be understood	.416	.555	.180	.302	.140
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .812$)					
To confront the perpetrator	-.028	.083	.837	.123	-.063
To get an apology from the perpetrator	.074	.063	.749	.170	-.028
To get justice	.344	.332	.635	-.061	.267
To make a formal report	.318	.374	.629	-.105	.214
To express myself	.194	.429	.527	.291	-.065
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .714$)					
To be in control	.155	.137	.167	.724	.190
To make decisions for myself	.394	.011	.161	.702	.142
To show that I was capable	.466	.057	.189	.649	-.014
To feel less powerless	-.072	.224	-.059	.609	.115
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .522$)					
To get away from the perpetrator	.008	.193	.033	.092	.785
To feel safe	.086	.288	-.093	.176	.698
For things to go back to normal	.304	-.183	.201	.245	.443

Table 17.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the full sample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern Matrix

Item	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .899$)					
To feel like my life had meaning	.886	.007	.122	-.019	.085
To feel like my life mattered	.884	-.014	.078	-.030	.130
To know that there were others who cared about me	.761	-.078	-.243	-.008	.050
To feel accepted by others	.758	-.058	-.194	.156	-.101
To feel part of a community	.751	.099	-.087	.040	-.182
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .812$)					
To confront the perpetrator	-.183	.896	.012	.055	-.088
To get an apology from the perpetrator	-.063	.788	.054	.094	-.064
To get justice	.238	.621	-.133	-.200	.255
To make a formal report	.221	.618	-.196	-.236	.208
To express myself	.094	.517	-.310	.236	-.102
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .828$)					
To talk to someone	.053	.223	-.669	.054	.008
To be supported by friends and family	.281	.159	-.556	-.082	.223
To be believed	.304	.010	-.500	.098	.281
To be respected	.161	.046	-.439	.230	.237
To be understood	.371	.107	-.389	.233	.106
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .714$)					
To be in control	.033	.132	.019	.703	.132
To feel less powerless	-.160	-.078	-.169	.648	.094
To make decisions for myself	.315	.098	.184	.647	.051
To show that I was capable	.418	.120	.120	.594	-.117
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .522$)					
To get away from the perpetrator	-.124	.016	-.020	.019	.834
To feel safe	-.012	-.134	-.123	.119	.735
For things to go back to normal	.219	.168	.382	.145	.404

Note. Double-loaded items are denoted in bold font.

Table 18.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the full sample: Needs after imagined or real sexual harassment – Structure Matrix

Item	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .901$)					
To feel like my life mattered	.889	.296	-.171	.258	.376
To feel like my life had meaning	.877	.304	-.124	.258	.329
To know that there were others who cared about me	.810	.246	-.434	.248	.317
To feel accepted by others	.805	.265	-.378	.375	.196
To feel part of a community	.765	.362	-.272	.257	.089
To be understood	.614	.380	-.555	.438	.365
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .812$)					
To confront the perpetrator	.119	.827	-.111	.161	.002
To get an apology from the perpetrator	.209	.764	-.087	.214	.047
To get justice	.509	.729	-.346	.075	.401
To make a formal report	.482	.719	-.391	.029	.352
To express myself	.398	.646	-.447	.383	.120
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .794$)					
To talk to someone	.324	.389	-.736	.196	.200
To be supported by friends and family	.525	.387	-.695	.153	.421
To be believed	.553	.280	-.646	.316	.494
To be respected	.434	.274	-.562	.394	.431
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .714$)					
To be in control	.329	.303	-.124	.768	.322
To make decisions for myself	.515	.312	-.004	.754	.277
To show that I was capable	.575	.347	-.060	.705	.144
To feel less powerless	.083	.046	-.205	.625	.217
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .522$)					
To get away from the perpetrator	.148	.107	-.154	.180	.807
To feel safe	.233	.022	-.249	.272	.762
For things to go back to normal	.347	.259	.196	.295	.457

Table 19.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.000	.353	-.260	.305	.306
2	.353	1.000	-.202	.205	.151
3	-.260	-.202	1.000	-.117	-.193
4	.305	.205	-.117	1.000	.232
5	.306	.151	-.193	.232	1.000

Table 20.

Actions taken by Experiencers

Action	% of sample
Did not do anything about the incident	50.2
Discussed the incident with friends and/or family	48.9
Did not tell anyone about the incident	29
Directly confronted the perpetrator(s)	16
Discussed the incident with a colleague	6.5
Searched for information and support online	5.5
Made a formal complaint that did not directly involve the police	5.2
Sought professional emotional support	3.6
Informed the police	3.3
Wrote about my experience online	2.9
Other	2.6
Spoke to my doctor	2
Contacted HR for advice	1
Spoke to my professional union	1
Called a support helpline	.3

Note: participants were allowed to select all the options that applied to their actions and thus the percentages do not add up to 100.

Table 21.
Actions taken by Imagination condition (hypothetical)

Action	% of sample
Would discuss the incident with friends and/or family	63.8
Would search for information and support online	39.2
Would discuss the incident with a colleague	29.4
Would contact HR for advice	28.7
Would inform the police	28.3
Would make a formal complaint that did not directly involve the police	24.9
Would speak to my professional union	21.5
Would seek professional emotional support	21.2
Would speak to my doctor	16
Would call a support helpline	16
Would not tell anyone about the incident	13.3
Would not do anything about the incident	11.3
Would directly confront the perpetrator(s)	9.9
Would write about my experience online	3.4
Other	.7

Note: participants were allowed to select all the options that applied to their actions and thus the percentages do not add up to 100.

Table 22.
Chi-square tests of independence on Action taking

Actions	Condition*Actions			% Experience (N =307)	% Imagination (N =293)
	<i>df</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>		
Did not do anything about the incident	1	105.75	<.001	50.2	11.3
Did not tell anyone about the incident	1	21.96	<.001	29	13.3
Informed the police	1	71.94	<.001	3.3	28.3
Made a formal complaint that did not involve the police	1	46.07	<.001	5.2	24.9
Spoke to my doctor	1	36.94	<.001	2	16
Directly confronted the perpetrator(s)	1	4.87	.027	16	9.9
Discussed with friends and/or family	1	13.63	<.001	48.9	63.8
Sought professional emotional support	1	43.34	<.001	3.6	21.2
Searched for information and support online	1	99.29	<.001	5.5	39.2
Wrote about my experience online	1	.113	.736	2.9	3.4
Called a support helpline	1	50.31	<.001	.3	16
Contacted HR for advice	1	92.73	<.001	1	28.7
Spoke to my professional union	1	64.51	<.001	1	21.5
Discussed with a colleague	1	53.75	<.001	6.5	29.4
Other	1	3.384	.066	2.6	.7

Table 23.

Group, Relational needs, Justice needs, Safety needs, Control needs, Respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal: Bivariate correlations and Descriptive statistics (N = 600)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Relational needs	.351***	-					
Justice needs	.495***	.423***	-				
Safety needs	.246***	.271***	.166***	-			
Control needs	.194***	.486***	.310***	.304***	-		
Respect needs	.346***	.645***	.573***	.395***	.468***	-	
Back To Normal	.141**	.293***	.182***	.228***	.309***	.244***	-
<i>M</i>	.49	5.35	4.07	6.40	5.78	5.63	6.13
<i>SD</i>	.50	1.34	1.60	1.00	1.08	1.12	1.23

Note: ^a Group: 0 = Experience, 1 = Imagination; * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$

Table 24.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Did nothing.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio		<i>SE</i>		
				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-.29			.749		.88	.11
Condition	-	1.66	<.001	3.22	5.27	8.61	.25	43.91
Relational needs	-	.17	.096	.97	1.18	1.44	.10	2.77
Justice	-	-.28	.001	.64	.76	.89	.08	11.92
Safety	-	.07	.519	.86	1.08	1.35	.11	.42
Control	-	.06	.626	.85	1.06	1.32	.11	.24
Respect	-	-.51	<.001	.46	.60	.79	.14	13.58
Back to normal		.11	.193	.95	1.12	1.33	.09	1.70
Nagelkerke's R ²	24.5%			33.6%				
χ^2	114.73, <i>df</i> =1, <i>p</i> <.001			163.36, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> <.001				
-2LL	627.45			578.82				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .409				
Classification accuracy	69.1%			76.1%				

Table 25.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Told nobody.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			SE	Wald (1)
	-	B	p	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-2.12	.035	-	.12	-	1.01	4.43
Condition	-	.73	.005	1.24	2.08	3.48	.26	7.73
Relational needs	-	.45	.000	1.25	1.57	1.96	.11	15.43
Justice	-	-.18	.049	.70	.84	1.00	.09	3.86
Safety	-	.40	.003	1.15	1.49	1.94	.13	8.94
Control	-	.01	.939	.80	1.01	1.28	.12	.01
Respect	-	-.84	<.001	.32	.43	.58	.15	31.40
Back to normal		.11	.260	.92	1.12	1.34	.10	1.27
Nagelkerke's R ²	5.7%			21.4%				
χ^2	22.29, df = 1, p < .001			88.89, df = 7, p < .001				
-2LL	599.24			532.64				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			p = .884				
Classification accuracy	78.6%			81%				

Table 26.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Told the police.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio			SE	
				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-3.44	.008	-	.03	-	1.29	7.11
Condition	-	-1.94	<.001	.07	.14	.30	.38	26.43
Relational needs	-	-.02	.905	.72	.98	1.34	.16	.01
Justice	-	.38	.002	1.15	1.46	1.85	.12	9.45
Safety	-	-.17	.271	.63	.85	1.14	.15	1.21
Control	-	-.37	.013	.51	.69	.92	.15	6.20
Respect	-	.62	.010	1.16	1.85	2.97	.24	6.62
Back to normal		.05	.733	.81	1.05	1.36	.13	.12
Nagelkerke's R ²	21.7%			30%				
χ^2	80.45, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001			114.02, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001				
-2LL	436.76			403.18				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .868				
Classification accuracy	84.5%			84.8%				

Table 27.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Other formal complaint.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				
				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE	
Constant	-	-4.34	.001	-	.01	-	1.30	11.13
Condition	-	-1.16	<.001	.17	.31	.59	.32	13.12
Relational needs	-	-.02	.889	.74	.98	1.32	.15	.02
Justice	-	.45	<.001	1.24	1.57	1.98	.12	14.14
Safety	-	.14	.407	.83	1.15	1.62	.17	.69
Control	-	.01	.938	.75	1.01	1.36	.15	.01
Respect	-	.06	.794	.69	1.06	1.62	.22	.07
Back to normal		-.04	.732	.75	.96	1.22	.12	.12
Nagelkerke's R ²	13.9%			20.4%				
χ^2	49.36, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> <.001			73.87, <i>df</i> =7, <i>p</i> < .001				
-2LL	454.09			429.60				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = 249				
Classification accuracy	85.1%			85.1%				

Table 28.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Told my GP.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio			<i>SE</i>	
				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-3.29	.034	-	.04	-	1.55	4.47
Condition	-	-1.74	<.001	.07	.18	.45	.48	13.20
Relational needs	-	.11	.576	.76	1.12	1.65	.20	.31
Justice	-	.26	.085	.97	1.30	1.74	.15	2.97
Safety	-	-.12	.511	.62	.89	1.27	.19	.43
Control	-	-.28	.121	.53	.76	1.08	.18	2.40
Respect	-	.56	.063	.97	1.74	3.13	.30	3.47
Back to normal		-.21	.153	.61	.81	1.08	.14	2.05
Nagelkerke's R ²	14.5%			20.1%				
χ^2	40.06, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001			56.21, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001				
-2LL	313.47			297.32				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .112				
Classification accuracy	91.3%			91.5%				

Table 29.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Confronted the perpetrator.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	
Constant	-	-2.81	.012	-	.06	-	1.12	6.29
Condition	-	.94	.002	1.41	2.56	4.67	.31	9.44
Relational needs	-	-.64	<.001	.40	.53	.69	.14	21.98
Justice	-	.66	<.001	1.52	1.93	2.44	.12	29.68
Safety	-	-.09	.522	.68	.91	1.21	.15	.41
Control	-	.14	.369	.85	1.14	1.54	.15	.81
Respect	-	.10	.606	.76	1.11	1.61	.19	.27
Back to normal		.02	.889	.82	1.02	1.26	.11	.02
Nagelkerke's R ²	1.5%			19%				
χ^2	4.86, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .028			64.50, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001				
-2LL	458.53			398.89				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .514				
Classification accuracy	87%			87.3%				

Table 30.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Discussed with friends and family.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio			SE	
				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-2.32	.004	-	.10	-	.81	8.18
Condition	-	-.29	.157	.50	.75	1.12	.21	2.01
Relational needs	-	-.21	.030	.68	.82	.98	.10	4.70
Justice	-	-.02	.805	.85	.982	1.13	.07	.06
Safety	-	.17	.090	.97	1.19	1.45	.10	2.87
Control	-	-.16	.130	.70	.86	1.05	.10	2.29
Respect	-	.86	<.001	1.80	2.36	3.10	.14	38.32
Back to normal		-.19	.018	.71	.83	.97	.08	5.64
Nagelkerke's R ²	3.1%			17.7%				
χ^2	14.08, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001			85.00, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001				
-2LL	806.89			735.98				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .240				
Classification accuracy	57.4%			66.1%				

Table 31.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Counselling.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio		<i>SE</i>		
				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-4.36	.002	-	.01	-	1.42	9.41
Condition	-	-1.61	<.001	.010	.20	.42	.38	17.92
Relational needs	-	.42	.020	1.07	1.53	2.18	.18	5.40
Justice	-	.05	.700	.83	1.05	1.33	.12	.15
Safety	-	-.29	.056	.56	.75	1.01	.15	3.64
Control	-	-.36	.019	.51	.70	.94	.16	5.46
Respect	-	.45	.062	.98	1.57	2.52	.24	3.47
Back to normal		.25	.106	.95	1.29	1.74	.16	2.62
Nagelkerke's R ²	14.5%			22.1%				
χ^2	47.24, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001			73.66, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001				
-2LL	396.78			370.36				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .202				
Classification accuracy	%			87.5%				

Table 32.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Searched for information and support online.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio				
	-			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	
Constant	-	-5.96	<.001	-	.003	-	1.59	14.07
Condition	-	-2.41	<.001	.05	.09	.17	.33	53.65
Relational needs	-	.12	.368	.87	1.13	1.45	.13	.81
Justice	-	-.27	.009	.62	.76	.94	.10	6.75
Safety	-	.67	.002	1.28	1.96	3.00	.22	9.48
Control	-	-.10	.462	.70	.91	1.18	.13	.54
Respect	-	.37	.045	1.01	1.45	2.08	.18	4.03
Back to normal		-.003	.981	.80	1.00	1.25	.12	.001
Nagelkerke's R ²	25.5%			32%				
χ^2	108.84, <i>df</i> =1, <i>p</i> <.001			140.00, <i>df</i> =7, <i>p</i> <.001				
-2LL	522.96			491.79				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .891				
Classification accuracy	78%			78.6%				

Table 33.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Wrote online.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	
Constant	-	-13.70	<.001	-	.000	-	3.87	12.54
Condition	-	.04	.94	.34	1.04	3.20	.57	.01
Relational needs	-	-.28	.30	.45	.76	1.28	.27	1.10
Justice	-	-.24	.20	.54	.79	1.14	.19	1.62
Safety	-	.34	.48	.55	1.41	3.58	.48	.51
Control	-	.02	.95	.58	1.02	1.78	.28	.004
Respect	-	1.48	.003	1.67	4.39	11.50	.49	9.04
Back to normal		.23	.46	.68	1.26	2.30	.31	.54
Nagelkerke's R ²	0.1%			13.2%				
χ^2	.12, <i>df</i> =1, <i>p</i> = .731			19.67, <i>df</i> =7, <i>p</i> = .006				
-2LL	168.40			148.86				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .746				
Classification accuracy	96.8%			96.8%				

Table 34.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Contacted a helpline.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	
Constant	-	-4.34	.046	-	.01	-	2.17	3.99
Condition	-	-3.73	<.001	.003	.02	.19	1.04	12.84
Relational needs	-	.26	.230	.85	1.29	1.96	.21	1.44
Justice	-	.08	.613	.79	1.09	1.50	.17	.26
Safety	-	.53	.086	.93	1.69	3.09	.31	2.95
Control	-	-.11	.579	.61	.90	1.32	.20	.31
Respect	-	.002	.995	.55	1.00	1.82	.31	.000
Back to normal		-.35	.019	.53	.71	.94	.15	5.54
Nagelkerke's R ²	23.1%			26.9%				
χ^2	61.64, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001			72.32, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001				
-2LL	267.82			257.14				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .884				
Classification accuracy	92.2%			92%				

Table 36.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Contacted HR for advice.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio		<i>SE</i>		
				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		
Constant	-	-6.15	<.001	-	.002	-	1.54	15.95
Condition	-	-3.16	<.001	.01	.04	.14	.61	26.75
Relational needs	-	-.08	.652	.66	.92	1.30	.17	.20
Justice	-	.30	.022	1.04	1.35	1.74	.13	5.22
Safety	-	-.04	.811	.69	.96	1.34	.17	.06
Control	-	.33	.068	.98	1.39	1.98	.18	3.34
Respect	-	.41	.115	.91	1.50	2.50	.26	2.49
Back to normal		-.01	.965	.75	.99	1.32	.15	.002
Nagelkerke's R ²	30.3%			37.3%				
χ^2	112.24, <i>df</i> =1, <i>p</i> < .001			141.47, <i>df</i> =7, <i>p</i> < .001				
-2LL	384.17			354.94				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .756				
Classification accuracy	85.5%			85%				

Table 37.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Professional Union.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	
Constant	-	-4.50	.007	-	.02	-	1.51	7.38
Condition	-	-2.76	<.001	.02	.06	.21	.62	19.98
Relational needs	-	.09	.632	.75	1.20	1.60	.19	.23
Justice	-	.32	.026	1.04	1.38	1.83	.14	4.97
Safety	-	-.15	.392	.61	.86	1.21	.17	.73
Control	-	.03	.881	.72	1.03	1.48	.19	.02
Respect	-	.44	.126	.88	1.55	2.71	.29	2.34
Back to normal	-	-.20	.164	.62	.82	1.08	.14	1.94
Nagelkerke's R ²	24.2%			30%				
χ^2	77.30, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001			97.33, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001				
-2LL	338.29			318.26				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .304				
Classification accuracy	89%			89.1%				

Table 38.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Discussed with colleagues.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	
Constant	-	-4.34	<.001	-	.01	-	1.18	13.48
Condition	-	-1.32	<.001	.15	.27	.47	.30	20.13
Relational needs	-	-.09	.508	.70	.91	1.20	.14	.44
Justice	-	.24	.022	1.03	1.27	1.55	.10	5.23
Safety	-	-.19	.354	.67	.88	1.15	.14	.86
Control	-	.22	.130	.94	1.25	1.67	.15	2.29
Respect	-	.35	.085	.95	1.41	2.10	.20	2.96
Back to normal		.03	.795	.82	1.03	1.30	.12	.07
Nagelkerke's R ²	15%			21.3%				
χ^2	57.27, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001			82.87, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001				
-2LL	501.90			476.30				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .748				
Classification accuracy	82.3%			82%				

Table 39.

Logistic regression of Condition, relational, justice, safety, control, respect needs, and the need for things to go back to normal on Other.

Variable	Model 1			Model 2				Wald (1)
	-	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	
Constant	-	-11.84	.036	-	.00	-	5.64	4.41
Condition	-	1.45	.118	.69	4.24	26.00	.93	2.44
Relational needs	-	-.08	.780	.53	.92	1.61	.28	.08
Justice	-	-.15	.578	.50	.86	1.47	.26	.31
Safety	-	1.29	.105	.77	3.62	17.09	.79	2.63
Control	-	-.34	.268	.39	.71	1.30	.31	1.23
Respect	-	.74	.133	.80	2.09	5.48	.49	2.26
Back to normal		-.54	.011	.38	.58	.88	.21	6.51
Nagelkerke's R ²	3.9%			19.9%				
χ^2	3.62, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .057			18.88, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> = .009				
-2LL	98.07			82.81				
Hosmer & Lemeshow test	-			<i>p</i> = .873				
Classification accuracy	98.3%			98.3%				

Table 40.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Experience subsample: Needs satisfaction after imagined or real sexual harassment - Rotated Component Matrix

Prompt: Thinking about the needs that you previously described having after the incident took place, and about the immediate response(s) you indicated in your answer to the previous question, to what extent do you feel that your response(s) met your needs? I felt that my response(s) met my need:

	Factor loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .955$)				
Life Meaning	.821	.317	.217	.212
Acceptance	.812	.277	.213	.181
Life Mattered	.812	.326	.257	.210
Community	.757	.274	.191	.282
Cared By Others	.711	.278	.458	.148
Be Understood	.594	.443	.394	.262
Self-Expression	.524	.407	.442	.325
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .899$)				
Decision Making	.278	.830	.108	.191
Control	.317	.802	.234	.224
Capability	.377	.761	.175	.273
Less Powerless	.217	.709	.230	.199
Back To Normal	.330	.681	.128	.113
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .909$)				
Talk	.456	.132	.755	.191
Be Supported	.527	.140	.698	.145
Be Believed	.557	.163	.684	.128
Get Away	-.069	.539	.582	.154
Be Respected	.458	.362	.581	.236
Safe	.213	.489	.577	.244
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .903$)				
Confrontation	.112	.275	.124	.854
Apology	.189	.240	.037	.831
Formal Report	.214	.050	.263	.784
Justice	.250	.233	.183	.783

Table 41.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Experience subsample: needs satisfaction after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern Matrix

	Factor loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .964$)				
Talk	.951	.070	.104	.111
Be Supported	.934	.014	.070	.019
Be Believed	.928	-.011	.034	-.011
Cared By Others	.714	.002	-.159	-.253
Be Respected	.664	.099	-.218	.043
Life Mattered	.514	.079	-.255	-.445
Self-Expression	.509	.204	-.287	-.083
Be Understood	.494	.123	-.358	-.166
Acceptance	.494	.059	-.213	-.480
Safe	.483	.110	-.382	.259
Life Meaning	.479	.087	-.254	-.478
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .903$)				
Confrontation	-.114	.918	-.095	.064
Apology	-.150	.900	-.079	-.057
Formal Report	.192	.852	.207	.027
Justice	.053	.824	-.040	-.022
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .899$)				
Decision Making	-.110	.032	-.942	-.025
Control	.049	.058	-.864	.016
Capability	.020	.123	-.816	-.072
Back To Normal	.013	-.038	-.770	-.082
Less Powerless	.035	.056	-.759	.080
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .921$)				
Get Away	.346	.022	-.474	.494
Community	.420	.184	-.194	-.444

Table 42.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Experience subsample: needs satisfaction after imagined or real sexual harassment – Structure Matrix

	Factor loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .965$)				
Be Believed	.905	.402	-.500	-.185
Talk	.901	.443	-.464	-.068
Be Supported	.896	.408	-.475	-.155
Cared By Others	.857	.442	-.611	-.416
Be Respected	.827	.507	-.644	-.131
Be Understood	.790	.548	-.729	-.331
Self-Expression	.786	.590	-.695	-.250
Life Mattered	.785	.498	-.658	-.593
Life Meaning	.760	.493	-.645	-.620
Acceptance	.738	.452	-.599	-.615
Safe	.705	.488	-.678	.094
Community	.703	.528	-.593	-.578
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .903$)				
Confrontation	.352	.904	-.471	-.043
Apology	.323	.877	-.444	-.152
Justice	.460	.870	-.479	-.141
Formal Report	.460	.835	-.319	-.086
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .910$)				
Control	.573	.503	-.918	-.128
Capability	.564	.543	-.899	-.211
Decision Making	.455	.448	-.898	-.146
Less Powerless	.485	.436	-.796	-.046
Back To Normal	.458	.357	-.771	-.193
Get Away	.534	.353	-.612	.354

Table 44.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4
1	1.000	.461	-.579	-.195
2	.461	1.000	-.492	-.125
3	-.579	-.492	1.000	.147
4	-.195	-.125	.147	1.000

Table 43.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Imagination subsample: Needs satisfaction after imagined or real sexual harassment - Rotated Component Matrix

	Factor loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .944$)				
Be Supported	.835	.051	.125	.288
Cared By Others	.826	.321	.143	.090
Talk	.800	.007	.158	.195
Be Believed	.743	.352	.063	.308
Be Respected	.695	.378	.080	.281
Be Understood	.688	.420	.168	.239
Life Mattered	.660	.553	.153	.015
Acceptance	.630	.444	.247	-.143
Life Meaning	.606	.584	.147	.017
Self-Expression	.599	.425	.245	.081
Community	.573	.326	.429	-.303
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .857$)				
Decision Making	.189	.784	.207	.091
Control	.302	.760	.176	.246
Capability	.332	.747	.322	.060
Less Powerless	.186	.623	.054	.279
Back To Normal	.176	.579	.327	.233
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .848$)				
Confrontation	.063	.118	.829	.040
Apology	.120	.207	.820	.052
Justice	.235	.312	.679	.392
Formal Report	.313	.185	.649	.316
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .721$)				
Get Away	.167	.330	.232	.671
Safe	.444	.209	.212	.618

Table 45.
Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Imagination subsample: needs satisfaction after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern Matrix

	Factor loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .938$)				
Be Supported	.958	.034	.177	.098
Talk	.911	.081	.232	.017
Cared By Others	.815	.004	-.135	-.126
Be Believed	.762	-.076	-.222	.104
Be Respected	.691	-.056	-.261	.083
Be Understood	.645	.035	-.292	.032
Life Mattered	.531	-.006	-.450	-.195
Self-Expression	.502	.127	-.296	-.111
Safe	.500	.158	-.115	.469
Acceptance	.491	.118	-.300	-.337
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .848$)				
Confrontation	-.108	.897	.056	-.059
Apology	-.071	.865	-.037	-.069
Justice	.107	.682	-.180	.238
Formal Report	.231	.659	-.010	.166
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .879$)				
Decision Making	-.080	.074	-.844	-.060
Control	.089	.032	-.799	.073
Capability	.069	.190	-.735	-.124
Less Powerless	.032	-.065	-.696	.155
Back To Normal	-.020	.248	-.584	.094
Life Meaning	.461	-.012	-.503	-.186
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .407$)				
Get Away	.149	.194	-.331	.559
Community	.408	.346	-.126	-.483

Table 46.
Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Imagination subsample: needs satisfaction after imagined or real sexual harassment – Structure Matrix

	Factor loadings			
	1	2	3	4
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .938$)				
Cared By Others	.886	.372	-.572	-.102
Be Supported	.878	.330	-.359	.115
Be Believed	.855	.320	-.604	.127
Talk	.818	.332	-.297	.034
Be Understood	.817	.414	-.657	.059
Be Respected	.812	.329	-.612	.107
Life Mattered	.767	.388	-.727	-.167
Self-Expression	.709	.447	-.619	-.083
Acceptance	.691	.425	-.605	-.310
Safe	.634	.421	-.471	.491
Community	.599	.538	-.481	-.454
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .848$)				
Apology	.282	.851	-.376	-.033
Confrontation	.206	.828	-.276	-.026
Justice	.473	.812	-.545	.276
Formal Report	.495	.760	-.430	.200
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .879$)				
Control	.535	.421	-.864	.105
Capability	.536	.534	-.851	-.088
Decision Making	.403	.410	-.831	-.029
Life Meaning	.724	.379	-.740	-.157
Less Powerless	.386	.259	-.690	.178
Back To Normal	.393	.500	-.685	.125
Factor 4				
Get Away	.416	.420	-.517	.582

Table 47.
Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4
1	1.000	.386	-.540	.023
2	.386	1.000	-.439	.042
3	-.540	-.439	1.000	-.036
4	.023	.042	-.036	1.000

Table 48.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the full sample: Needs satisfaction after imagined or real sexual harassment - Rotated Component Matrix

Prompt: Thinking about the needs that you previously described having after the incident took place, and about the immediate response(s) you indicated in your answer to the previous question, to what extent do you feel that your response(s) met your needs? I felt that my response(s) met my

	Factor loadings		
	1	2	3
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .965$)			
Be Supported	.847	.183	.167
Cared By Others	.829	.329	.166
Be Believed	.823	.298	.137
Talk	.817	.150	.209
Life Mattered	.750	.429	.213
Life Meaning	.725	.438	.208
Acceptance	.718	.355	.223
Be Respected	.714	.413	.198
Be Understood	.702	.479	.256
Self-Expression	.650	.439	.308
Community	.648	.289	.340
Safe	.523	.465	.294
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .901$)			
Decision Making	.271	.807	.228
Control	.378	.796	.237
Capability	.386	.745	.309
Less Powerless	.284	.702	.168
Back To Normal	.258	.693	.197
Get Away	.271	.544	.226
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .889$)			
Confrontation	.120	.218	.847
Apology	.161	.247	.828
Justice	.360	.350	.722
Formal Report	.426	.212	.705

Table 49.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the full sample: needs satisfaction after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern Matrix

	Factor loadings		
	1	2	3
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .965$)			
Be Supported	.973	-.010	.140
Talk	.940	.054	.183
Be Believed	.900	-.068	-.029
Cared By Others	.888	-.042	-.060
Life Mattered	.734	.004	-.211
Acceptance	.722	.040	-.124
Life Meaning	.699	.001	-.234
Be Respected	.698	-.003	-.208
Be Understood	.642	.052	-.285
Community	.637	.208	-.033
Self-Expression	.582	.133	-.239
Safe	.410	.135	-.328
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .889$)			
Confrontation	-.116	.927	-.017
Apology	-.072	.890	-.043
Formal Report	.309	.702	.077
Justice	.162	.701	-.128
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .901$)			
Decision Making	-.045	.024	-.897
Control	.095	.016	-.838
Less Powerless	.030	-.024	-.769
Back To Normal	-.006	.017	-.759
Capability	.112	.113	-.748
Get Away	.068	.085	-.551

Note: Split loading items are denoted in bold

Table 50.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the full sample: Needs satisfaction after imagined or real sexual harassment – Structure Matrix

	Factor loadings		
	1	2	3
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .965$)			
Cared By Others	.906	.439	-.622
Be Believed	.885	.402	-.585
Be Supported	.876	.406	-.496
Life Mattered	.875	.489	-.697
Be Understood	.857	.531	-.737
Life Meaning	.854	.481	-.695
Talk	.846	.429	-.466
Be Respected	.834	.462	-.667
Acceptance	.824	.472	-.621
Self-Expression	.807	.557	-.695
Community	.764	.548	-.566
Safe	.695	.520	-.672
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .889$)			
Confrontation	.364	.878	-.442
Apology	.406	.877	-.478
Justice	.601	.852	-.614
Formal Report	.613	.816	-.507
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .901$)			
Control	.656	.518	-.909
Capability	.662	.574	-.883
Decision Making	.559	.487	-.881
Less Powerless	.524	.407	-.775
Back To Normal	.503	.425	-.765
Get Away	.474	.417	-.641

Table 51.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3
1	1.000	.505	-.659
2	.505	1.000	-.541
3	-.659	-.541	1.000

Table 52.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Experience subsample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment - Rotated Component Matrix

Prompt: Now please describe your current feelings about the incident by indicating the extent to which each of the following statements apply to how you feel right now. As you recall the events involved, how do you feel?

	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .794$)					
Afraid	.835	-.089	-.005	.173	.106
Scared	.808	-.133	.014	.162	.009
Worried about Future	.764	-.074	-.045	-.061	-.070
Tense	.741	-.068	-.116	.119	.383
Nervous	.729	-.226	.003	.163	.272
Upset	.675	.029	-.269	.189	.082
Distressed	.647	-.051	-.144	.276	.004
Fine	-.625	.305	.218	-.168	-.170
Hostile	.487	.092	-.086	.101	.465
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .849$)					
Attentive	.077	.766	.060	-.127	.055
Determined	-.070	.763	.229	-.075	.109
Active	-.117	.708	.391	-.021	.010
Strong	-.308	.642	.184	-.107	-.172
Confident	-.324	.629	.240	-.151	-.167
Alert	.387	.623	-.117	-.136	.072
Interested	-.248	.601	.286	.121	-.234
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .637$)					
Excited	-.009	.271	.753	.124	-.026
Enthusiastic	-.083	.373	.739	.018	.064
Inspired	-.152	.540	.601	-.078	.000
Proud	-.146	.496	.596	-.281	-.084
Angry	.451	.104	-.484	.077	.136
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .759$)					
Regretful	.051	-.005	-.224	.795	.022
Guilty	.230	-.107	.190	.757	.082
Ashamed	.389	-.206	.042	.662	.261
Numb	.375	-.292	.013	.478	-.047
Factor 5 ($\alpha = -.012$), $r(303) = -.006$, $p = .915$					
Irritable	.363	.034	-.018	.187	.717
Concerned about	.510	.334	-.046	.071	-.524

Table 53.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Experience subsample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern matrix

	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .774$)					
Worried about Future	.801	-.061	-.141	-.011	-.002
Scared	.780	-.115	.079	-.088	-.076
Afraid	.754	-.054	.090	-.193	-.059
Concerned about Others	.702	.320	.072	.509	.031
Nervous	.585	-.184	.073	-.360	-.065
Distressed	.560	.025	.233	-.050	.106
Upset	.538	.150	.151	-.139	.243
Tense	.519	.023	.043	-.480	.066
Fine	-.485	.201	-.099	.227	-.183
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .849$)					
Attentive	.037	.757	-.081	-.089	-.053
Determined	-.109	.704	-.024	-.134	-.229
Alert	.311	.675	-.123	-.133	.116
Active	-.083	.590	.026	-.025	-.403
Strong	-.212	.565	-.034	.196	-.161
Confident	-.209	.529	-.084	.187	-.221
Interested	-.145	.501	.193	.268	-.281
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .759$)					
Regretful	-.167	.131	.851	.035	.224
Guilty	.086	-.104	.755	-.068	-.243
Ashamed	.157	-.144	.634	-.277	-.095
Numb	.322	-.265	.445	.045	-.055
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .574$); $r(303) = .403, p < .001$					
Irritable	-.012	.125	.146	-.798	-.021
Hostile	.227	.179	.059	-.544	.052
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .637$)					
Excited	.119	.034	.108	.002	-.817
Enthusiastic	.016	.142	.011	-.094	-.795
Inspired	-.046	.343	-.059	-.021	-.632
Proud	.042	.278	-.276	.055	-.623
Angry	.262	.290	.073	-.172	.496

Note. Double-loaded items are denoted in bold font.

Table 54.
 Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Experience subsample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment – Structure matrix

	Factor loading				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .774$)					
Afraid	.834	-.071	.362	-.474	.185
Scared	.816	-.112	.344	-.379	.175
Worried about Future	.762	-.038	.112	-.270	.205
Tense	.717	-.058	.302	-.680	.272
Nervous	.717	-.215	.349	-.591	.204
Upset	.693	.035	.340	-.385	.366
Distressed	.675	-.049	.418	-.312	.265
Fine	-.640	.299	-.341	.473	-.413
Concerned about Others	.553	.358	.130	.278	.023
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .849$)					
Attentive	.032	.776	-.175	.010	-.273
Determined	-.124	.764	-.159	.029	-.456
Active	-.165	.709	-.122	.135	-.602
Alert	.351	.643	-.097	-.160	-.006
Strong	-.330	.642	-.242	.370	-.427
Confident	-.353	.633	-.289	.376	-.478
Interested	-.250	.590	-.010	.383	-.503
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .759$)					
Regretful	.133	-.069	.792	-.108	.210
Guilty	.278	-.154	.791	-.227	-.111
Ashamed	.423	-.246	.755	-.466	.092
Numb	.426	-.312	.570	-.183	.138
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .574$); $r(303) = .403, p < .001$					
Irritable	.309	.018	.289	-.807	.086
Hostile	.449	.092	.218	-.625	.150
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .637$)					
Enthusiastic	-.144	.379	-.056	.050	-.818
Excited	-.051	.274	.067	.081	-.790
Inspired	-.212	.548	-.178	.154	-.753
Proud	-.214	.523	-.373	.236	-.733
Angry	.467	.104	.186	-.331	.505

Table 55.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.000	.002	.302	-.352	.247
2	.002	1.000	-.157	.114	-.314
3	.302	-.157	1.000	-.210	.087
4	-.352	.114	-.210	1.000	-.170
5	.247	-.314	.087	-.170	1.000

Table 56.
Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Experience subsample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment - Rotated Component Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .794$)					
Afraid	.838	-.053	-.024	.179	.064
Scared	.809	-.108	-.008	.163	-.031
Tense	.765	-.013	-.124	.124	.339
Worried Future	.758	-.045	-.060	-.058	-.108
Nervous	.745	-.177	-.049	.173	.244
Upset	.687	.047	-.205	.179	.022
Distressed	.655	-.022	-.133	.271	-.042
Fine	-.642	.244	.259	-.173	-.142
Hostile	.522	.093	-.020	.087	.413
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .849$)					
Attentive	.060	.783	.145	-.114	.028
Determined	-.080	.721	.345	-.077	.082
Alert	.374	.694	-.068	-.116	.036
Active	-.136	.663	.465	-.018	.000
Strong	-.332	.582	.290	-.113	-.181
Confident	-.349	.574	.326	-.153	-.169
Interested	-.276	.518	.395	.111	-.246
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .848$)					
Enthusiastic	-.095	.213	.830	-.002	.055
Excited	-.021	.118	.816	.102	-.035
Inspired	-.168	.427	.682	-.090	-.006
Proud	-.165	.374	.678	-.296	-.090
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .759$)					
Regretful	.060	.009	-.185	.791	.001
Guilty	.234	-.120	.172	.758	.072
Ashamed	.404	-.165	-.009	.673	.250
Numb	.372	-.266	-.045	.487	-.052
Factor 5 ($\alpha = -.012$)					
Irritable	.406	.059	.009	.189	.685
Concerned Others	.477	.290	.053	.056	-.578

Table 57.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Experience subsample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern Matrix

	Factor loading				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .893$)					
Worried Future	.812	-.039	-.144	.024	-.004
Scared	.795	-.095	.075	-.049	-.074
Afraid	.774	-.020	.094	-.152	-.050
Concerned Others	.696	.249	.044	.551	-.043
Nervous	.612	-.131	.083	-.329	-.038
Upset	.605	.129	.129	-.084	.179
Distressed	.597	.036	.222	-.009	.092
Tense	.579	.071	.048	-.435	.071
Fine	-.524	.157	-.098	.199	-.191
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .849$)					
Attentive	.035	.793	-.052	-.067	-.029
Alert	.321	.759	-.089	-.101	.164
Determined	-.101	.680	-.013	-.112	-.248
Active	-.112	.582	.046	-.018	-.385
Strong	-.232	.515	-.032	.198	-.190
Confident	-.239	.495	-.076	.184	-.231
Interested	-.175	.429	.189	.273	-.318
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .759$)					
Regretful	-.139	.122	.843	.053	.207
Guilty	.076	-.106	.760	-.058	-.223
Ashamed	.166	-.093	.652	-.263	-.047
Numb	.304	-.236	.452	.051	-.022
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .574$); $r(303) = .403, p < .001$					
Irritable	.073	.147	.153	-.762	-.035
Hostile	.319	.158	.041	-.493	-.006
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .848$)					
Excited	.089	-.087	.089	.010	-.873
Enthusiastic	-.006	.010	-.006	-.085	-.867
Proud	.012	.185	-.285	.058	-.668
Inspired	-.074	.265	-.061	-.017	-.662

Double loadings denoted in bold

Table 58.
Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Experience subsample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment – Structure Matrix

	Factor loading				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .893$)					
Afraid	.841	-.058	.367	-.408	.155
Scared	.821	-.106	.345	-.314	.147
Worried Future	.759	-.031	.113	-.207	.172
Tense	.743	-.040	.307	-.626	.238
Nervous	.736	-.191	.358	-.548	.201
Upset	.708	.011	.327	-.308	.282
Distressed	.688	-.053	.412	-.247	.224
Fine	-.663	.288	-.342	.432	-.402
Concerned Others	.522	.317	.112	.366	-.070
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .849$)					
Attentive	.012	.803	-.163	.046	-.321
Determined	-.141	.764	-.155	.054	-.515
Active	-.190	.723	-.112	.147	-.627
Alert	.340	.688	-.084	-.105	-.050
Confident	-.383	.628	-.287	.377	-.507
Strong	-.359	.627	-.244	.378	-.472
Interested	-.281	.563	-.014	.400	-.550
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .759$)					
Guilty	.288	-.157	.796	-.208	-.101
Regretful	.151	-.089	.784	-.081	.184
Ashamed	.445	-.225	.767	-.446	.113
Numb	.432	-.304	.576	-.160	.159
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .574$); $r(303) = .403, p < .001$					
Irritable	.348	.027	.296	-.789	.052
Hostile	.481	.077	.210	-.579	.081
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .848$)					
Enthusiastic	-.168	.334	-.057	.052	-.860
Excited	-.072	.234	.065	.087	-.815
Inspired	-.238	.530	-.174	.157	-.783
Proud	-.245	.499	-.373	.238	-.767

Table 59.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.000	-.013	.299	-.326	.195
2	-.013	1.000	-.172	.135	-.384
3	.299	-.172	1.000	-.205	.071
4	-.326	.135	-.205	1.000	-.153
5	.195	-.384	.071	-.153	1.000

Table 60.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the Imagination subsample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment - Rotated Component Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .905$)					
Nervous	.828	-.144	.063	.143	-.014
Tense	.777	-.189	.101	.095	.049
Afraid	.770	-.219	.274	.230	-.024
Scared	.708	-.139	.277	.283	.051
Irritable	.648	-.041	.266	.162	.070
Hostile	.640	-.049	.227	.018	.122
Worried about Future	.588	-.185	.101	.470	.127
Upset	.557	-.305	.082	.470	-.099
Distressed	.476	-.078	-.033	.475	-.314
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .890$)					
Excited	.077	.775	.230	-.195	-.090
Enthusiastic	-.127	.769	.164	-.170	-.056
Inspired	-.149	.765	-.118	-.040	.077
Proud	-.275	.754	-.024	-.078	.025
Interested	-.042	.711	-.230	-.082	-.015
Active	.002	.625	-.201	.118	.324
Confident	-.378	.602	-.001	-.092	.230
Strong	-.387	.565	-.112	.131	.267
Fine	-.479	.540	-.086	-.228	.032
Determined	-.351	.506	-.195	.327	.259
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .700$)					
Guilty	.366	.027	.682	-.038	-.149
Regretful	.143	-.015	.680	.087	.111
Ashamed	.431	-.198	.614	.061	-.141
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .528$)					
Concerned about Others	.266	.079	-.129	.644	.118
Angry	.163	-.234	.279	.619	.031
Numb	.240	-.098	.468	.518	-.125
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .495$)					
Alert	.125	.050	.054	-.025	.849
Attentive	.108	.442	-.234	.098	.544

Table 61.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Imagination subsample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern Matrix

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .906$)					
Nervous	.864	-.002	-.063	.017	.025
Tense	.807	-.069	-.013	-.056	-.024
Afraid	.733	-.081	.171	.024	.117
Scared	.663	-.034	.193	-.049	.185
Hostile	.663	.046	.145	-.140	-.074
Irritable	.633	.061	.187	-.074	.077
Worried about Future	.519	-.150	.040	-.107	.390
Upset	.473	-.219	.007	.128	.389
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .885$)					
Excited	.162	.869	.217	.093	-.140
Enthusiastic	-.059	.810	.184	.063	-.088
Inspired	-.057	.737	-.094	-.056	.048
Proud	-.207	.726	.020	-.008	.025
Interested	.086	.721	-.238	.040	-.013
Active	.083	.535	-.181	-.304	.173
Confident	-.336	.497	.076	-.230	.004
Fine	-.413	.474	-.018	-.031	-.124
Strong	-.375	.422	-.028	-.248	.234
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .700$)					
Regretful	.014	.018	.706	-.137	.066
Guilty	.288	.182	.647	.127	-.083
Ashamed	.330	-.052	.569	.122	-.009
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .495$)					
Alert	.151	-.151	.099	-.898	-.061
Attentive	.196	.304	-.218	-.543	.114
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .450$)					
Concerned about Others	.194	.037	-.143	-.066	.639
Angry	-.024	-.251	.297	-.001	.600
Numb	.059	-.035	.467	.151	.500
Distressed	.423	.051	-.116	.367	.432
Determined	-.367	.349	-.114	-.223	.427

Table 62.
Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the Imagination subsample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment – Structure Matrix

	Factor loading				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .905$)					
Nervous	.852	-.252	.231	.099	.272
Afraid	.851	-.333	.437	.142	.338
Tense	.810	-.285	.259	.051	.218
Scared	.786	-.250	.420	.046	.390
Irritable	.693	-.133	.383	-.002	.270
Worried about Future	.678	-.296	.234	-.033	.558
Upset	.666	-.416	.230	.213	.528
Hostile	.661	-.124	.338	-.055	.132
Distressed	.534	-.185	.088	.346	.519
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .890$)					
Enthusiastic	-.252	.788	.056	-.145	-.144
Proud	-.406	.785	-.153	-.241	-.071
Inspired	-.296	.780	-.224	-.294	-.005
Excited	-.050	.770	.157	-.099	-.137
Interested	-.204	.719	-.307	-.195	-.036
Confident	-.479	.652	-.141	-.400	-.098
Active	-.117	.616	-.268	-.491	.187
Fine	-.597	.613	-.233	-.206	-.266
Strong	-.467	.596	-.242	-.434	.122
Determined	-.407	.516	-.304	-.414	.317
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .717$)					
Guilty	.442	-.027	.733	.206	.004
Ashamed	.547	-.265	.705	.257	.099
Regretful	.250	-.050	.690	-.043	.105
Numb	.388	-.188	.532	.197	.524
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .495$)					
Alert	.115	.056	.037	-.818	.065
Attentive	.009	.430	-.271	-.652	.191
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .370$)					
Concerned about	.314	-.012	-.070	-.127	.694
Angry	.323	-.317	.345	.066	.616

Table 63.
Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.000	-.292	.336	.107	.290
2	-.292	1.000	-.142	-.291	-.051
3	.336	-.142	1.000	.147	.035
4	.107	-.291	.147	1.000	-.079
5	.290	-.051	.035	-.079	1.000

Table 64.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the full sample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment - Rotated Component Matrix

Prompt: Now please describe your current feelings about the incident by indicating the extent to which each of the following statements apply to how you feel right now. As you recall the events involved, how do you feel?

Items	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .853$)					
Afraid	.839	-.079	-.093	.149	.182
Nervous	.821	-.083	-.130	.092	.050
Tense	.819	-.156	.007	.103	-.042
Scared	.802	-.052	-.082	.127	.234
Worried Future	.699	-.111	-.017	-.032	.391
Upset	.682	-.256	.019	.133	.277
Irritable	.678	-.048	.107	.224	-.299
Hostile	.669	-.069	.142	.151	-.205
Fine	-.646	.363	.199	-.093	-.104
Distressed	.611	-.128	-.053	.150	.321
Angry	.449	-.343	.132	.124	.244
Numb	.412	-.058	-.237	.409	.322
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .847$)					
Excited	-.003	.830	.043	.103	-.056
Enthusiastic	-.101	.811	.145	.016	-.098
Proud	-.234	.713	.285	-.214	.021
Inspired	-.170	.708	.344	-.081	.058
Interested	-.282	.515	.390	.050	.098
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .802$)					
Attentive	.033	.197	.754	-.054	.023
Alert	.318	-.038	.664	-.093	-.007
Determined	-.105	.342	.660	-.091	.096
Active	-.062	.491	.596	-.049	.034
Strong	-.372	.365	.530	-.082	.112
Confident	-.416	.442	.455	-.088	-.011
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .726$)					
Regretful	.057	-.138	.030	.840	.069
Guilty	.335	.159	-.192	.695	-.043
Ashamed	.510	-.048	-.214	.594	-.066
Lil Factor 5					
Concerned Others	.277	.026	.227	.018	.727

Table 65.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the full sample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern matrix

Items	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .746$)					
Concerned about	.851	.204	.011	-.026	-.370
Worried about Future	.720	-.039	-.105	.024	.203
Scared	.595	-.098	.044	-.060	.391
Distressed	.578	-.049	.096	.050	.165
Afraid	.553	-.102	.064	-.037	.456
Upset	.546	.048	.081	.195	.253
Numb	.467	-.223	.376	-.034	-.031
Angry	.382	.192	.110	.340	.107
Fine	-.366	.163	-.027	-.273	-.345
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .802$)					
Attentive	.001	.766	-.005	-.065	.102
Alert	.090	.699	-.076	.135	.321
Determined	.045	.636	-.043	-.226	-.056
Active	.019	.548	-.015	-.403	.031
Strong	-.051	.501	-.016	-.244	-.285
Confident	-.179	.413	-.028	-.335	-.215
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .726$)					
Regretful	-.068	.145	.899	.160	-.129
Guilty	.031	-.164	.683	-.240	.201
Ashamed	.083	-.167	.562	-.043	.346
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .847$)					
Excited	.025	-.086	.080	-.885	.110
Enthusiastic	-.061	.022	.007	-.832	.088
Proud	.011	.163	-.208	-.687	-.078
Inspired	.051	.238	-.067	-.676	-.072
Interested	-.013	.338	.097	-.443	-.221
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .829$)					
Irritable	-.042	.140	.175	-.001	.745
Hostile	.057	.170	.102	.026	.670
Tense	.303	.024	.028	.071	.636
Nervous	.422	-.141	.002	-.036	.556

Note: split loading items are denoted in bold.

Table 66.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5
1	1.000	.011	.271	.222	.427
2	.011	1.000	-.185	-.339	-.131
3	.271	-.185	1.000	.077	.284
4	.222	-.339	.077	1.000	.236
5	.427	-.131	.284	.236	1.000

Table 67.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the full sample: Current feelings after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern matrix

Items	Factor loadings				
	1	2	3	4	5
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .867$)					
Worried about Future	.783	-.046	.156	.237	.491
Scared	.759	-.130	.330	.201	.656
Afraid	.756	-.155	.359	.233	.715
Upset	.720	-.060	.307	.365	.549
Concerned about Others	.692	.268	.097	.007	-.037
Distressed	.685	-.099	.312	.241	.458
Numb	.545	-.272	.532	.166	.296
Angry	.535	.047	.234	.394	.356
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .772$)					
Attentive	.037	.775	-.123	-.301	-.015
Determined	-.034	.729	-.182	-.448	-.186
Active	-.055	.683	-.133	-.578	-.133
Alert	.243	.626	-.080	-.012	.277
Strong	-.225	.623	-.222	-.493	-.435
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .726$)					
Regretful	.157	-.059	.830	.134	.116
Guilty	.247	-.235	.761	-.077	.373
Ashamed	.372	-.301	.711	.157	.553
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .859$)					
Enthusiastic	-.206	.290	-.052	-.832	-.135
Excited	-.104	.185	.066	-.818	-.055
Proud	-.229	.444	-.310	-.774	-.316
Inspired	-.146	.490	-.170	-.768	-.260
Interested	-.176	.499	-.066	-.605	-.348
Confident	-.348	.558	-.240	-.568	-.433
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .456$)					
Tense	.598	-.085	.291	.283	.787
Irritable	.324	.010	.349	.131	.758
Nervous	.650	-.197	.297	.236	.746
Hostile	.378	.055	.278	.148	.708
Fine	-.579	.301	-.275	-.493	-.595

Table 68.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation: Post traumatic growth after imagined or real sexual harassment, on the full sample - Rotated Component Matrix

Prompt: For each of the statements below please indicate the degree to which this change occurred in your life as a result of the sexually harassing incident you experienced, using the following scale.

Items	Component	
	1	2
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .952$)		
Handle Difficulties	.840	.135
Stronger Than I Thought	.798	.145
Accept Needing Others	.766	.321
Express Emotions	.718	.290
People Are Wonderful	.703	.394
Accept Things	.692	.420
Count On Others	.690	.288
Change Things	.682	.365
Better Things with my Life	.655	.533
Compassion For Others	.637	.363
Appreciate Each Day	.636	.566
Close With Others	.627	.488
Self-Reliance	.623	.385
Effort Into Relationships	.611	.504
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .900$)		
New Opportunities	.274	.788
New Interests	.281	.777
New Life Path	.415	.739
Religious Faith	.134	.738
Spirituality	.299	.738
Priorities Changed	.343	.648
Life Appreciation	.491	.592

Table 69.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the full sample: Post traumatic growth after imagined or real sexual harassment – Pattern matrix

	Component	
	1	2
Factor 1		
Handle Difficulties	.978	-.235
Stronger Than I Thought	.923	-.204
Accept Needing Others	.817	.022
Express Emotions	.769	.007
Count On Others	.736	.019
People Are Wonderful	.711	.139
Change Things	.697	.114
Accept Things	.687	.176
Compassion For Others	.642	.133
Self-Reliance	.616	.166
Better Things with Life	.599	.328
Close With Others	.583	.286
Appreciate Each Day	.564	.375
Effort Into Relationships	.556	.314
Factor 2		
Religious Faith	-.118	.818
New Opportunities	.035	.812
New Interests	.048	.796
Spirituality	.085	.740
New Life Path	.227	.687
Priorities Changed	.173	.613
Life Appreciation	.376	.475

Note: split loading items denoted in bold

Table 70.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the full sample: Post traumatic growth after imagined or real sexual harassment – structure matrix

Items	Component	
	1	2
Factor 1		
Handle Difficulties	.831	.379
Accept Needing Others	.831	.534
Better Things with Life	.805	.704
Appreciate Each Day	.799	.729
People Are Wonderful	.798	.585
Accept Things	.798	.607
Stronger Than I Thought	.796	.376
Express Emotions	.774	.490
Change Things	.769	.551
Close With Others	.763	.652
Effort Into Relationships	.753	.663
Count On Others	.748	.480
Compassion For Others	.726	.536
Self-Reliance	.720	.553
Factor 2		
New Opportunities	.545	.834
New Life Path	.658	.829
New Interests	.547	.826
Spirituality	.549	.793
Religious Faith	.396	.744
Priorities Changed	.557	.721
Life Appreciation	.674	.711

Table 71.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2
1	1.000	.627
2	.627	1.000

Table 72.

Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the full sample: Emotional reactivity and numbing - Rotated Component Matrix

Item	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1						
Scared Of Harm	.761	.186	-.086	.109	-.008	.102
Afraid In Danger	.690	.038	.010	.315	-.077	.073
Afraid If Threatened	.686	.124	-.139	.327	.047	-.028
Hurt When Insulted	.656	.366	-.026	.081	-.017	.178
Sad When Hurt	.638	.267	-.094	.157	-.050	.249
Sad When Badly	.613	.298	.042	.151	-.028	.341
Nervous In New Situations	.612	-.040	.327	.131	-.268	.218
Sad When not what I Deserve	.529	.492	-.069	-.048	.066	-.019
Tense With Movies	.494	.101	-.178	.037	.084	.396
Sad Separated Loved	.422	.309	-.135	.409	.084	.213
Factor 2						
Angry If Threatened	-.009	.778	.015	.218	-.108	.115
Angry When Sb Hurts Me	.051	.760	.102	.184	-.203	.225
Angry Treated Badly	.062	.752	.058	.201	-.213	.257
Annoyed When Insulted	.314	.737	.000	.045	-.054	.002
Angry If not what I Deserve	.198	.691	.048	-.071	.020	-.082
Angry When Criticised	.366	.641	.127	-.154	-.034	.035
Annoyed When Hassled	.235	.609	.095	.131	-.141	.053
Factor 3						
Emotionally Numb	-.022	.060	.798	-.185	.129	-.118
Not Close To Others	-.001	.010	.762	-.121	.022	.015
Cut Off Emotions	-.089	.095	.727	-.150	.160	-.195
Can't Feel Certain Emotions	-.078	.102	.681	-.164	.304	-.263
Weak Emotional Responses	-.061	.156	.577	-.139	.256	-.305
Factor 4						
Affected By Loved Death	.202	.116	-.156	.783	-.055	.211
Sad If Someone Died	.115	.081	-.179	.753	-.106	.178
Scared For Loved One	.387	.164	-.128	.673	-.034	.131
Sad If Lost Relationship	.274	.140	-.197	.560	.095	.155
Not Sad After Loss	-.064	.047	.428	-.547	.304	-.013
Factor 5						
Not Angry Even When Relevant	.046	-.161	.243	-.083	.737	-.012
Can't Push My Buttons	-.147	-.126	.110	.165	.717	-.017
Not Angry	.064	-.313	.032	-.150	.714	-.112
Can't Feel Some Negative Emotions	.019	-.051	.383	-.069	.592	-.026
Can't Feel Sad	-.122	.118	.399	-.397	.453	-.040
Factor 6						

Emotional	.320	.141	-.125	.086	-.093	.710
Sad From Movies	.249	.100	-.165	.242	-.045	.638
Range Of Emotions	.053	.107	-.305	.229	-.178	.539
Sad By Others Stories Of Loss	.335	.140	-.223	.348	.147	.518

Table 73.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the full sample: Emotional reactivity and numbing – Pattern matrix

Items	Factor loadings					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .865$)						
Scared Of Harm	.703	-.060	.002	.042	.116	.101
Afraid If Threatened	.653	-.103	.068	.311	.070	-.081
Afraid In Danger	.643	.098	-.063	.296	-.055	.038
Nervous In New Situations	.556	.461	-.277	.102	-.180	.232
Hurt When Insulted	.540	-.007	.002	.002	.304	.183
Sad When Hurt	.509	-.038	-.022	.071	.189	.256
Sad When Badly	.445	.111	.005	.062	.206	.365
Factor 2 ($\alpha = .846$)						
Not Close To Others	-.005	.770	-.011	-.057	-.040	.046
Emotionally Numb	.010	.749	.086	-.098	.041	-.095
Cut Off Emotions	-.045	.660	.120	-.049	.099	-.191
Can't Feel Certain Emotions	-.017	.571	.266	-.054	.131	-.262
Weak Emotional Responses	.005	.465	.219	-.034	.195	-.320
Factor 3 ($\alpha = .765$)						
Can't Push My Buttons	-.177	.018	.753	.227	-.069	-.006
Not Angry Even When Relevant	.053	.117	.744	-.045	-.119	.046
Not Angry	.145	-.111	.709	-.119	-.252	-.056
Can't Feel Some Negative Emotions	.013	.278	.593	-.018	-.023	.016
Can't Feel Sad	-.114	.244	.430	-.380	.174	.036
Factor 4 ($\alpha = .619$)						
Affected By Loved Death	.028	.009	.025	.798	.044	.112
Sad If Someone Died	-.038	-.014	-.032	.775	.017	.076
Scared For Loved One	.247	.000	.029	.682	.093	.038
Sad If Lost Relationship	.137	-.110	.160	.555	.098	.089
Not Sad After Loss	-.025	.287	.261	-.552	.082	.089
Sad Separated Loved	.256	-.074	.142	.368	.259	.175
Factor 5 ($\alpha = .874$)						
Angry If Threatened	-.212	.017	-.060	.192	.788	.056
Annoyed When Insulted	.183	-.048	-.033	.003	.745	-.038
Angry When Sb Hurts Me	-.175	.140	-.158	.138	.736	.187
Angry If not what I Deserve	.110	-.042	.028	-.096	.726	-.112
Angry Treated Badly	-.175	.104	-.163	.145	.725	.221
Angry When Criticised	.264	.062	-.033	-.210	.638	.040
Annoyed When Hassled	.101	.101	-.119	.107	.590	.008
Sad When not what I Deserve	.463	-.135	.073	-.105	.490	-.028
Factor 6 ($\alpha = .766$)						

Emotional	.064	.008	-.034	-.074	.032	.801
Sad From Movies	.003	-.025	.024	.115	.002	.695
Range Of Emotions	-.158	-.168	-.113	.113	.038	.572
Sad By Others Stories Of Loss	.102	-.125	.225	.247	.069	.547
Tense With Movies	.352	-.133	.120	-.081	.035	.457

Note: split loading items are denoted in bold

Table 74.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the full sample: Emotional reactivity and numbing – Structure matrix

Item	Component					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Factor 1						
Scared Of Harm	.790	-.100	-.073	.266	.443	-.356
Afraid If Threatened	.698	-.074	-.114	.400	.529	-.395
Afraid In Danger	.698	-.039	-.028	.237	.418	-.527
Hurt When Insulted	.667	-.058	-.071	.512	.371	-.216
Sad When Hurt	.651	-.169	-.030	.474	.394	-.297
Sad When Badly	.651	.323	-.142	.220	.267	-.106
Nervous In New Situations	.642	.031	-.040	.348	.586	-.416
Factor 2						
Emotionally Numb	-.036	.821	.281	-.355	.089	-.291
Not Close To Others	-.016	.769	.164	-.259	.055	-.144
Cut Off Emotions	-.096	.752	.297	-.329	.103	-.361
Can't Feel Certain Emotions	-.083	.715	.434	-.353	.100	-.423
Weak Emotional Responses	-.059	.612	.364	-.305	.150	-.421
Factor 3						
Not Angry Even When Relevant	.033	.270	.782	-.195	-.161	-.136
Not Angry	.037	.059	.742	-.238	-.327	-.214
Can't Push My Buttons	-.142	.113	.723	.038	-.161	-.128
Can't Feel Some Negative	.013	.408	.657	-.194	-.044	-.153
Can't Feel Sad	-.133	.459	.526	-.510	.083	-.243
Factor 4						
Affected By Loved Death	.255	-.228	-.137	.850	.189	.450
Sad If Someone Died	.164	-.253	-.187	.809	.135	.390
Scared For Loved One	.437	-.183	-.105	.760	.264	.417
Sad If Lost Relationship	.319	-.238	.015	.637	.206	.379
Not Sad After Loss	-.092	.492	.397	-.637	.026	-.230
Sad Separated Loved	.471	-.152	.007	.528	.400	.464
Factor 5						
Annoyed When Insulted	.376	.041	-.111	.152	.785	.216
Angry When Sb Hurts Me	.122	.117	-.260	.268	.783	.352
Angry Treated Badly	.133	.070	-.280	.299	.778	.395
Angry If Threatened	.068	.034	-.182	.285	.778	.250
Angry If not what I Deserve	.251	.101	-.017	-.008	.709	.060
Angry When Criticised	.408	.181	-.052	-.057	.701	.188
Annoyed When Hassled	.289	.114	-.176	.208	.660	.224
Sad When not what I Deserve	.567	-.026	.022	.080	.573	.219
Factor 6						
Emotional	.335	-.140	-.163	.274	.230	.805
Sad From Movies	.271	-.195	-.124	.401	.176	.744
Sad By Others Stories Of Loss	.368	-.249	.052	.497	.221	.684
Range Of Emotions	.076	-.336	-.276	.383	.135	.626
Tense With Movies	.505	-.175	.024	.204	.199	.561

Table 75.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	1.000	-.004	.009	.220	.277	.348
2	-.004	1.000	.220	-.281	.120	-.205
3	.009	.220	1.000	-.176	-.101	-.176
4	.220	-.281	-.176	1.000	.142	.406
5	.277	.120	-.101	.142	1.000	.233
6	.348	-.205	-.176	.406	.233	1.000

Table 76.
Factor Analysis with Varimax Rotation on the full sample: Life satisfaction - Rotated Component Matrix

Items	Factor loadings	
	1	2
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .939$)		
Life Excellent	.825	.254
Life Ideal	.799	.275
Life Satisfaction	.796	.386
Optimistic	.717	.519
Self-Satisfaction	.717	.511
Common With Others	.716	.205
Social Relationship Satisfaction	.683	.325
People Trustworthy	.672	.174
Not Alone	.651	.351
Expect Good Things	.607	.552
Factor 2($\alpha = -.299$)*		
No Good At All	-.244	-.838
Worthy	.340	.788
Proud Of Self	-.223	-.776
Good Qualities	.396	.717
Don't Expect My Way	-.251	-.635

Table 77.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the full sample: Life satisfaction - Pattern Matrix

Items	Factor loadings	
	1	2
Factor 1 ($\alpha = .939$)		
Life Excellent	.909	.074
Life Ideal	.868	.036
Life Satisfaction	.817	-.100
Common With Others	.795	.082
People Trustworthy	.754	.101
Social Relationship Satisfaction	.703	-.079
Self-Satisfaction	.666	-.290
Optimistic	.663	-.299
Not Alone	.653	-.125
Expect Good Things	.513	-.391
Factor 2($\alpha = -.299$)		
No Good At All	.057	.908
Proud Of Self	.057	.842
Worthy	.083	-.802
Good Qualities	.183	-.690
Don't Expect My Way	-.038	.658

Note. Split loading items denoted in bold

Table 78.

Factor Analysis with Oblique Rotation on the full sample: Life satisfaction - Structure Matrix

Items	Factor loadings	
	1	2
Factor 1		
Life Satisfaction	.882	-.625
Life Excellent	.862	-.510
Optimistic	.855	-.725
Self-Satisfaction	.852	-.718
Life Ideal	.845	-.522
Expect Good Things	.764	-.720
Social Relationship Satisfaction	.754	-.531
Common With Others	.742	-.428
Not Alone	.733	-.544
People Trustworthy	.690	-.384
Factor 2		
No Good At All	-.526	.871
Worthy	.598	-.855
Good Qualities	.626	-.807
Proud Of Self	-.484	.806
Don't Expect My Way	-.461	.682

Table 79.

Component Correlation Matrix

Component	1	2
1	1.000	-.643
2	-.643	1.000

Appendix E: Study 4 results tables controlling for the covariate

Table 1.
MANCOVA results for needs after sexual harassment by Covariate and Group

	<i>F</i> (df)	<i>df</i>	<i>Error</i> <i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	90% CI
Multivariate needs						
Covariate	13.19	6	592	<.001	.12	.073; .151
Group	32.75	6	592	<.001	.25	.195; .290
Covariate						
Relational Needs	7.53	1	597	.006	.01	.002; .031
Justice	6.40	1	597	.012	.01	.001; .028
Safety	54.18	1	597	<.001	.08	.051; .120
Control	13.86	1	597	<.001	.02	.007; .046
Respect	22.09	1	597	<.001	.04	.015; .063
Need Back To Normal	29.69	1	597	<.001	.05	.023; .078
Group						
Relational Needs	64.78	1	597	<.001	.10	.063; .137
Justice	161.62	1	597	<.001	.21	.167; .259
Safety	17.46	1	597	<.001	.03	.011; .054
Control	13.12	1	597	<.001	.02	.006; .044
Respect	56.57	1	597	<.001	.09	.054; .124
Need Back To Normal	3.79	1	597	.052	.01	.000; .021

Table 2.
Estimated marginal means of needs after sexual harassment by Group

		<i>M</i> (<i>estimated</i>)	<i>SE</i> (<i>estimated</i>)
Group			
Relational Needs	Yes	4.935	.073
	No	5.794	.075
Justice	Yes	3.336	.081
	No	4.840	.083
Safety	Yes	6.236	.054
	No	6.567	.056
Control	Yes	5.618	.061
	No	5.941	.062
Respect	Yes	5.313	.060
	No	5.974	.062
Need Back To Normal	Yes	6.037	.069
	No	6.234	.071

Table 3.
 Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Did nothing.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio				<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio				<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio				<i>Wald (1)</i>
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	
Constant	-1.81	<.001		.17		.24	55.25	-2.50	<.001		.08		.28	77.79	-1.21	.252		.30		1.06	1.31
Incident evaluation	.72	<.001	1.51	2.06	2.80	.16	20.69	.34	.051	1.00	1.39	1.93	.17	3.80	.31	.099	.94	1.36	1.97	.19	2.73
Condition								2.01	<.001	4.80	7.44	11.54	.22	80.16	1.61	<.001	3.05	5.01	8.24	.25	40.48
Relational needs															.16	.118	.96	1.17	1.43	.10	2.44
Justice															-.28	.001	.65	.76	.89	.08	11.41
Safety															.13	.298	.90	1.13	1.44	.12	1.09
Control															.06	.600	.85	1.06	1.32	.11	.27
Respect															-.50	<.001	.46	.61	.80	.14	13.09
Back to normal															.14	.120	.967	1.15	1.36	.09	2.41
Nagelkerke's R ²				5%							25.3%							34.1%			
χ^2			21.75, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001							118.52, <i>df</i> = 2, <i>p</i> < .001							166.04, <i>df</i> = 8, <i>p</i> < .001				
-2LL			720.43							623.66							576.14				
Hosmer & Lemeshow Classification accuracy			69.3%							70.8%							75.3%				

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < 0.001

Table 4.
 Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Told nobody.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3									
	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio					Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio					Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio					Wald (1)
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE	Lower				Odds ratio	Upper	SE	Lower	Odds ratio				Upper	SE				
Constant	-1.48	<.001		.23		.26	32.57	-1.73	<.001		.18		.28	38.41	-1.89	.118		.15		1.21	2.44			
Incident evaluation	.12	.468	.81	1.13	1.58	.17	.53	-1.11	.540	.62	.89	1.28	.19	.38	-.07	.735	.61	.93	1.42	.22	.12			
Condition								1.01	<.001	1.78	2.75	4.24	.22	20.85	.74	.005	1.25	2.10	3.54	.27	7.85			
Relational needs															.45	.000	1.25	1.57	1.96	.11	15.53			
Justice															-.18	.048	.70	.84	1.00	.09	3.91			
Safety															.39	.006	1.12	1.47	1.94	.14	7.54			
Control															.01	.940	.80	1.01	1.28	.12	.01			
Respect															-.85	.000	.32	.43	.58	.15	31.46			
Back to normal															.10	.286	.92	1.11	1.34	.10	1.14			
Nagelkerke's R ²	.1%							5.8%							21.4%									
χ^2	.52, df = 1, p = .472							22.67, df = 2, p < .001							89.01, df = 8, p < .001									
-2LL	621.01							598.86							532.52									
Hosmer & Lemeshow Classification accuracy	-							p = .839							p = .755									
	78.6%							78.6%							81%									

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < .001

Table 5.
 Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Told the police.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio				<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio				<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio				<i>Wald (1)</i>
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	
Constant	1.12	.029		3.06		.51	4.80	1.24	.018		3.47		.52	5.64	-.08	.959		.92		1.52	.003
Incident evaluation	-2.37	<.001	.04	.09	.23	.47	25.84	-1.92	<.001	.06	.15	.37	.48	16.28	-1.720	.000	.07	.18	.47	.49	12.36
Condition								-2.16	<.001	.06	.12	.23	.35	37.69	-1.766	.000	.08	.17	.36	.38	21.88
Relational needs															-.050	.749	.70	.95	1.30	.16	.10
Justice															.344	.005	1.11	1.41	1.79	.12	8.03
Safety															-.192	.201	.62	.83	1.11	.15	1.64
Control															-.345	.022	.53	.71	.95	.15	5.21
Respect															.525	.029	1.06	1.69	2.71	.24	4.76
Back to normal															-.034	.807	.74	.97	1.27	.14	.06
Nagelkerke's R ²	14.4%							28.4%							34.4%						
χ^2	51.97, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001							107.31, <i>df</i> = 2, <i>p</i> < .001							132.69, <i>df</i> = 8, <i>p</i> < .001						
-2LL	465.23							409.89							384.52						
Hosmer & Lemeshow	<i>p</i> = .849							<i>p</i> = 1							<i>p</i> = .576						
Classification accuracy	84.5%							84.5%							85.1%						

Note: **p* < .05; ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001

Table 6.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Other formal complaint.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio			Wald (1)	
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		SE
Constant	-.69	.045		.50		.35	4.02	-.65	.061		.52		.35	3.51	-3.97	.007		.02		1.46	7.35
Incident evaluation	-.82	.002	.26	.44	.75	.27	9.41	-.38	.169	.40	.69	1.17	.27	1.89	-.15	.589	.50	.86	1.48	.28	.29
Condition								-1.70	.000	.10	.18	.33	.30	32.30	-1.14	.000	.17	.32	.60	.32	12.51
Relational needs															-.02	.881	.73	.98	1.30	.15	.02
Justice															.44	.000	1.23	1.56	1.97	.12	13.78
Safety															.13	.439	.82	1.14	1.59	.17	.60
Control															.02	.923	.76	1.02	1.36	.15	.01
Respect															.05	.820	.69	1.05	1.61	.22	.05
Back to normal															-.05	.676	.74	.95	1.21	.12	.18
Nagelkerke's R ²			3.3%								14.5%						20.5%				
χ ²			11 35, df = 1, p = .001								51.42, df = 2, p = < .001						74.17, df = 8, p < .001				
-2LL			492.10								452.02						429.28				
Hosmer & Lemeshow			p = .394								p = .852						p = .170				
Classification accuracy			85.1%								85.1%						85.1%				

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < .001

Table 7.
 Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Told my GP.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE	
Constant	.68	.375		1.98		.77	.79	.71	.361		2.03		.78	.84	.42	.820		1.53		1.85	.05
Incident evaluation	-2.61	<.001	.02	.07	.30	.72	13.07	-2.16	.003	.03	.12	.48	.73	8.75	-2.10	.005	.03	.12	.53	.74	7.97
Condition								-1.89	.000	.06	.15	.36	.45	17.84	-1.48	.002	.09	.23	.58	.48	9.66
Relational needs															.08	.678	.74	1.09	1.60	.20	.17
Justice															.23	.124	.94	1.26	1.68	.15	2.37
Safety															-.15	.412	.61	.86	1.22	.18	.67
Control															-.25	.170	.55	.78	1.11	.18	1.88
Respect															.46	.117	.89	1.59	2.84	.30	2.45
Back to normal															-.29	.054	.56	.75	1.01	.15	3.71
Nagelkerke's R ²			11.4%								20.4%							25%			
χ^2			31.28, df = 1, p < .001								57.19, df = 2, p < .001							70.68, df = 8, p < .001			
-2LL			322.27								296.34							282.85			
Hosmer & Lemeshow			p < .001								p < .001							p = .029			
Classification accuracy			91.3%								91.3%							91.7%			

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < .001

Table 8.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Confronted the perpetrator.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio			Wald (1)	
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		SE
Constant	-2.79	<.001		.06		.31	79.94	-2.88	<.001		.06		.32	79.69	-5.36	<.001		.01		1.40	14.79
Incident evaluation	.61	.001	1.28	1.85	2.67	.19	10.58	.54	.006	1.17	1.71	2.51	.20	7.56	.82	.000	1.46	2.26	3.51	.22	13.32
Condition								.36	.167	.86	1.44	2.39	.26	1.91	.83	.009	1.24	2.29	4.25	.32	6.92
Relational needs															-.70	.000	.38	.50	.66	.14	24.43
Justice															.71	.000	1.59	2.03	2.6	.13	32.01
Safety															.004	.980	.73	1.00	1.38	.16	.001
Control															.15	.320	.86	1.17	1.58	.15	.99
Respect															.15	.456	.78	1.16	1.72	.20	.56
Back to normal															.09	.441	.87	1.09	1.38	.12	.60
Nagelkerke's R ²	3.1%							3.7%							22.5%						
χ^2	10.14, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .001							12.07, <i>df</i> = 2, <i>p</i> = .002							77.37, <i>df</i> = 8, <i>p</i> < .001						
-2LL	453.25							451.31							386.01						
Hosmer & Lemeshow Classification accuracy	-							<i>p</i> = .945							<i>p</i> = .619						
	87%							87.1%							87.5%						

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < .001

Table 9.
 Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Told friends and family.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE	
Constant	.75	.001		2.12		.22	11.62	.85	<.001		2.34		.22	14.58	-2.16	.020		.12		.93	5.37
Incident evaluation	-.36	.014	.52	.70	.93	.15	5.98	-2.23	.141	.59	.80	1.08	.15	2.17	-0.06	.741	.68	.95	1.32	.17	.11
Condition								-0.55	.001	.41	.58	.81	.17	10.08	-0.28	.178	.50	.75	1.14	.21	1.82
Relational needs														-0.20	.031	.68	.82	.98	.10	4.64	
Justice														-0.02	.794	.85	.98	1.13	.07	.07	
Safety														.17	.111	.96	1.18	1.45	.10	2.55	
Control														-0.16	.130	.70	.86	1.05	.10	2.30	
Respect														.86	<.001	1.80	2.36	3.10	.14	38.07	
Back to normal														-0.19	.017	.70	.82	.97	.08	5.75	
Nagelkerke's R ²	1.4%							3.6%							17.8%						
χ^2	6.12, df = 1, p = .013							16.27, df = 2, p < .001							85.11, df = 8, p < .001						
-2LL	814.86							804.71							735.87						
Hosmer & Lemeshow Classification accuracy	p = .732							p = .836							p = .2						
	56.9%							58.6%							66.1%						

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < .001

Table 10.
 Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Sought Counselling.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio				<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio				<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI for Odds Ratio				<i>Wald (1)</i>
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	
Constant	.26	.590		1.30		.49	.29	.32	.523		1.37		.50	.41	-1.83	.265		.16		1.64	1.24
Incident evaluation	-1.85	<.001	.07	.16	.37	.43	18.51	-1.43	.001	.10	.24	.57	.44	10.61	-1.20	.008	.12	.30	.74	.46	6.95
Condition								-1.70	<.001	.09	.18	.36	.35	24.17	-1.43	<.001	.11	.24	.50	.38	14.18
Relational needs															.40	.026	1.05	1.50	2.13	.18	4.97
Justice															.02	.867	.81	1.02	1.29	.12	.03
Safety															-.32	.033	.54	.72	.98	.15	4.54
Control															-.35	.026	.52	.71	.96	.16	4.95
Respect															.38	.111	.92	1.46	2.34	.24	2.54
Back to normal															.20	.211	.90	1.22	1.65	.16	1.57
Nagelkerke's R ²			9.7%							18.9%						24.8%					
χ ²			31.06, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001							62.53, <i>df</i> = 2, <i>p</i> < .001						83.13, <i>df</i> = 8, <i>p</i> < .001					
-2LL			412.96							381.49						360.89					
Hosmer & Lemeshow			<i>p</i> = .785							<i>p</i> = .999						<i>p</i> = .221					
Classification accuracy			87.8%							87.8%						87.3%					

Note: **p* < .05; ***p* < .01, ****p* < .001

Table 11.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Searched for information and support online.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	-.01	.962		.99		.30	.002	.08	.796		1.08		.31	.07	-5.36	.002		.01		1.70	9.97
Incident evaluation	-.97	<.001	.24	.38	.60	.23	17.44	-.43	.081	.40	.65	1.05	.25	3.05	-.23	.357	.49	.80	1.30	.25	.85
Condition								-2.29	.000	.06	.10	.18	.28	65.72	-2.39	.000	.05	.09	.18	.33	52.47
Relational needs															.11	.383	.87	1.12	1.45	.13	.76
Justice															-.28	.008	.62	.76	.93	.11	6.99
Safety															.64	.003	1.25	1.90	2.90	.22	8.90
Control															-.09	.480	.70	.91	1.18	.13	.50
Respect															.37	.047	1.01	1.44	2.06	.18	3.95
Back to normal															-.02	.883	.78	.98	1.23	.12	.02
Nagelkerke's R ²			5.4%								26.2%							32.2%			
χ^2			21.30, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001								112.15, <i>df</i> = 2, <i>p</i> < .001							140.89, <i>df</i> = 8, <i>p</i> < .001			
-2LL			610.49								519.64							490.91			
Hosmer & Lemeshow			<i>p</i> = .345								<i>p</i> = .738							<i>p</i> = .610			
Classification accuracy			78%								78%							79%			

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < .001

Table 12.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Wrote online.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3							
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	
Constant	-2.53	<.001		.08		.70	13.24	-2.54	<.001		.08		.70	13.17	-13.30	.001		.00		4.17	10.16	
Incident evaluation	-.69	.204	.17	.50	1.45	.54	1.62	-.69	.214	.17	.50	1.49	.56	1.55	-.13	.807	.31	.88	2.48	.53	.06	
Condition								.03	.957	.40	1.03	2.65	.48	.003	.05	.927	.34	1.05	3.25	.57	.01	
Relational needs															-.28	.298	.45	.76	1.28	.27	1.08	
Justice															-.24	.198	.54	.78	1.14	.19	1.66	
Safety															.32	.497	.54	1.38	3.51	.48	.46	
Control															.02	.953	.58	1.02	1.77	.28	.003	
Respect															1.47	.003	1.66	4.34	11.38	.49	8.92	
Back to normal															.22	.483	.68	1.24	2.29	.31	.49	
Nagelkerke's R ²				1.3%																	13.2%	
χ^2			1.94, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .164								1.94, <i>df</i> = 2, <i>p</i> = .378							19.73, <i>df</i> = 8, <i>p</i> = .011				
-2LL			166.58								166.58							148.79				
Hosmer & Lemeshow			<i>p</i> = .015								<i>p</i> = .845							<i>p</i> = .216				
Classification accuracy			96.8%								96.8%							96.8%				

Note: **p* <0.05; ***p* <0.01, ****p* <.001

Table 13.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Contacted a helpline.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio			Wald (1)	
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		SE
Constant	-.01	.987		.99		.66	.00	-.06	.934		.95		.67	.01	-1.53	.509		.22		2.31	.44
Incident evaluation	-2.07	.001	.04	.13	.41	.60	11.96	-1.44	.019	.07	.24	.79	.61	5.52	-1.46	.019	.07	.23	.79	.62	5.47
Condition								-3.76	.000	.003	.02	.17	1.02	13.69	-3.59	.001	.004	.03	.21	1.04	11.89
Relational needs															.21	.318	.82	1.24	1.87	.21	1.00
Justice															.06	.718	.77	1.06	1.47	.17	.13
Safety															.47	.105	.91	1.60	2.82	.29	2.62
Control															-.07	.713	.63	.93	1.37	.20	.14
Respect															-.04	.897	.53	.96	1.73	.30	.02
Back to normal															-.41	.008	.49	.67	.90	.15	6.95
Nagelkerke's R ²			8.7%								26.1%							29.7%			
χ^2			22.58, df = 1, p < .001								69.95, df = 2, p < .001							80.32, df = 8, p < .001			
-2LL			306.88								259.51							249.14			
Hosmer & Lemeshow			p = .864								p = .974							p = .641			
Classification accuracy			92.2%								92.2%							92.2%			

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < .001

Table 14.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Contacted HR for advice.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	-.38	.303		.68		.37	1.06	-.40	.302			.67	.39	1.06	-5.85	<.001		.003		1.67	12.24
Incident evaluation	-1.10	<.001	.19	.33	.60	.30	13.80	-.43	.171	.35	.65	1.20	.31	1.88	-.14	.650	.47	.87	1.60	.31	.21
Condition								-3.60	.000	.01	.03	.09	.60	36.08	-3.14	<.001	.01	.04	.14	.61	26.32
Relational needs															-.08	.643	.66	.92	1.30	.17	.22
Justice															.29	.024	1.04	1.34	1.73	.13	5.08
Safety															-.04	.808	.69	.96	1.34	.17	.06
Control															.34	.064	.98	1.40	1.99	.18	3.42
Respect															.40	.127	.89	1.50	2.47	.26	2.33
Back to normal															-.01	.923	.74	.99	1.31	.15	.01
Nagelkerke's R ²			5.2%								30.8%							37.4%			
χ^2			17.88, <i>df</i> = 7, <i>p</i> < .001								114.33, <i>df</i> = 2, <i>p</i> < .001							141.69, <i>df</i> = 8, <i>p</i> < .001			
-2LL			478.51								382.09							354.73			
Hosmer & Lemeshow			<i>p</i> = .003								<i>p</i> = .003							<i>p</i> = .374			
Classification accuracy			85.5%								85.5%							85%			

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < .001

Table 15.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Professional union.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE	
Constant	-.52	.235		.60		.44	1.41	-.55	.220		.58		.45	1.51	-3.23	.055		.04		1.69	3.67
Incident evaluation	-1.26	<.001	.14	.28	.58	.36	12.24	-.63	.093	.26	.53	1.11	.38	2.81	-.417	.277	.31	.66	1.40	.38	1.18
Condition								-3.17	.000	.01	.04	.14	.60	27.64	-2.68	<.001	.02	.07	.23	.62	18.81
Relational needs															.09	.660	.75	1.09	1.59	.19	.19
Justice															.31	.031	1.03	1.36	1.81	.14	4.65
Safety															-.15	.388	.62	.86	1.21	.17	.75
Control															.04	.820	.74	1.04	1.50	.19	.05
Respect															.40	.159	.85	1.50	2.62	.29	1.98
Back to normal															-.22	.126	.60	.80	1.06	.14	2.35
Nagelkerke's R ²			5.6%								25.2%						30.4%				
χ^2			16.88, df = 1, p < .001								80.62, df = 2, p < .001						98.66, df = 8, p < .001				
-2LL			398.07								334.97						316.93				
Hosmer & Lemeshow			p = .051								p < .001						p = .706				
Classification accuracy			89%								89%						89.3%				

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < 0.001

Table 16.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Discussed with colleagues.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio			Wald (1)	
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper		SE
Constant	-.49	.123		.61		.32	2.37	-.43	.181		.65		.32	1.79	-3.97	.003		.02		1.33	8.93
Incident evaluation	-.81	.001	.28	.45	.72	.24	10.89	-.37	.142	.42	.69	1.13	.25	2.16	-.15	.548	.52	.86	1.41	.26	.36
Condition								-1.69	.000	.11	.19	.32	.27	38.38	-1.30	<.001	.15	.27	.49	.30	19.07
Relational needs															-.09	.508	.70	.91	1.20	.14	.44
Justice															.23	.025	1.03	1.26	1.55	.10	5.05
Safety															-.13	.330	.67	.87	1.15	.14	.95
Control															.23	.127	.94	1.25	1.67	.15	2.33
Respect															.34	.097	.94	1.40	2.07	.20	2.76
Back to normal															.02	.864	.81	1.02	1.29	.12	.03
Nagelkerke's R ²			3.5%								15.6%						21.4%				
χ^2			13.00, df = 1, p < .001								59.61, df = 2, p < .001						83.25, df = 8, p < .001				
-2LL			546.18								499.56						475.93				
Hosmer & Lemeshow Classification accuracy			p = .337								p = .510						p = .095				
			82.3%								82.3%						81.8%				

Note: *p < 0.05; **p < 0.01, ***p < .001

Table 17.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Other.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3						
	95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio							95% CI for Odds Ratio						
	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>p</i>	Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	<i>SE</i>	<i>Wald (1)</i>
Constant	-3.73	<.001		.02		.88	17.97	-4.28	<.001		.01		1.02	17.44	-9.75	.099		.00		5.91	2.73
Incident evaluation	-.26	.677	.22	.77	2.64	.63	.17	-.60	.362	.15	.55	2.00	.66	.83	-.66	.421	.11	.52	2.56	.81	.65
Condition								1.52	.060	.94	4.58	22.42	.81	3.54	1.57	.094	.77	4.82	30.24	.94	2.81
Relational needs															-.07	.807	.54	.93	1.63	.28	.06
Justice															-.15	.579	.51	.86	1.46	.27	.31
Safety															1.11	.158	.65	3.03	14.10	.79	2.00
Control															-.34	.259	.40	.71	1.28	.30	1.28
Respect															.77	.117	.83	2.16	5.65	.49	2.46
Back to normal															-.61	.008	.35	.55	.85	.23	7.00
Nagelkerke's R ²	.2%							4.9%							20.6%						
χ^2	.19, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> = .666							4.56, <i>df</i> = 2, <i>p</i> = .102							19.60, <i>df</i> = 8, <i>p</i> = .012						
-2LL	101.50							97.13							82.08						
Hosmer & Lemeshow	<i>p</i> = .639							<i>p</i> = .911							<i>p</i> = .607						
Classification accuracy	98.3%							98.3%							98.3%						

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < .001

Table 18.

Logistic regression of Incident evaluation, Condition, communal needs, agentic needs and the need for self-expression on Action vs Inaction.

Variable	Model 1							Model 2							Model 3							
	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	B	p	95% CI for Odds Ratio				Wald (1)	
			Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE				Lower	Odds ratio	Upper	SE		
Constant	2.16	<.001		8.67		.26	67.07	2.92	<.001		18.62		.32	82.68	-.080	.945		.92		1.16	.01	
Incident evaluation	-.61	<.001	.39	.55	.754	.17	13.44	-.26	.149	.55	.78	1.10	.18	2.08	-.12	.580	.58	.89	1.35	.22	.31	
Condition								-1.93	<.001	.09	.15	.24	.27	52.90	-1.61	<.001	.11	.20	.37	.31	27.39	
Relational needs															-.36	.002	.56	.70	.87	.12	9.90	
Justice															.13	.154	.95	1.14	1.37	.09	2.03	
Safety															-.10	.442	.70	.91	1.17	.13	.59	
Control															-.11	.387	.70	.90	1.15	.13	.75	
Respect															1.03	<.001	2.04	2.80	3.85	.16	40.43	
Back to normal															-.05	.622	.79	.95	1.15	.10	.24	
Nagelkerke's R ²			3.4%								19.5%								35.5%			
χ^2			13.48, <i>df</i> = 1, <i>p</i> < .001								80.91, <i>df</i> = 2, <i>p</i> < .001								156.36, <i>df</i> = 8, <i>p</i> < .001			
-2LL			610.65								543.21								467.76			
Hosmer & Lemeshow			<i>p</i> = .774								<i>p</i> = .869								<i>p</i> = .499			
Classification accuracy			78.5%								78.3%								83%			

Note: **p* < 0.05; ***p* < 0.01, ****p* < .001

Table 19.
MANCOVA results for need satisfaction by Covariate and Group

	<i>F</i> (df)	<i>df</i>	<i>Error</i> <i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	90% CI
Multivariate satisfied needs						
Covariate	.36	6	488	.907	.004	.000; .005
Group	20.06	6	488	.000	.198	.140; .240
Covariate						
Satisfied Relational Needs	.25	1	493	.617	.001	.000; .009
Satisfied Justice	.001	1	493	.978	.000	.000; .0001
Satisfied Safety	.54	1	493	.465	.001	.000; .011
Satisfied Control	.06	1	493	.801	.000	.000; .005
Satisfied Respect	.04	1	493	.846	.000	.000; .003
Satisfied Need Back To Normal	.01	1	493	.932	.000	.000; .001
Group						
Satisfied Relational Needs	73.58	1	493	<.001	.130	.087; .176
Satisfied Justice	77.37	1	493	<.001	.136	.092; .182
Satisfied Safety	65.05	1	493	<.001	.117	.076; .161
Satisfied Control	77.17	1	493	<.001	.135	.092; .182
Satisfied Respect	82.10	1	493	<.001	.143	.098; .190
Satisfied Need Back To Normal	21.69	1	493	<.001	.042	.018; .075

Table 20.
Estimated marginal means of satisfied needs by Group

Group		<i>M</i> (<i>estimated</i>)	<i>SE</i> (<i>estimated</i>)
Satisfied Relational Needs	Yes	4.43	.10
	No	5.61	.09
Satisfied Justice	Yes	3.17	.11
	No	4.53	.10
Satisfied Safety	Yes	4.71	.10
	No	5.84	.09
Satisfied Control	Yes	4.50	.10
	No	5.69	.09
Satisfied Respect	Yes	4.68	.10
	No	5.91	.09
Need Back To Normal	Yes	4.75	.12
	No	5.51	.11

Table 21.
MANCOVA results for feelings by Covariate and Group

	<i>F</i> (df)	<i>df</i>	<i>Error df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	90% CI
Multivariate						
Covariate	12.40	6	588	.000	.112	.068; .145
Group	14.16	6	588	.000	.126	.080; .161
Covariate						
Fear	47.01	1	593	.000	.073	.043; .109
Attentiveness	.31	1	593	.575	.001	.000; .008
Regret	6.89	1	593	.009	.011	.002; .030
Enthusiasm	14.04	1	593	.000	.023	.007; .047
Irritability	14.07	1	593	.000	.023	.007; .047
Anger	43.25	1	593	.000	.068	.039; .103
Group						
Fear	76.12	1	593	.000	.114	.077; .154
Attentiveness	.01	1	593	.906	.000	.000; .001
Regret	9.41	1	593	.002	.016	.003; .036
Enthusiasm	.90	1	593	.343	.002	.000; .011
Irritability	30.08	1	593	.000	.048	.024; .079
Anger	9.48	1	593	.002	.016	.003; .036

Table 22.
Estimated marginal means of feelings by Group

Group		<i>M(estimated)</i>	<i>SE(estimated)</i>
Fear	Yes	4.036	.067
	No	4.890	.069
Attentiveness	Yes	3.921	.065
	No	3.910	.066
Regret	Yes	3.526	.077
	No	3.867	.078
Enthusiasm	Yes	2.450	.071
	No	2.352	.072
Irritability	Yes	3.795	.081
	No	4.439	.082
Anger	Yes	5.393	.074
	No	5.726	.076

Table 23.

MANCOVA results for post traumatic growth indicators by Covariate and Group

	<i>F</i> (df)	<i>df</i>	<i>Error df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	90% CI
Multivariate						
Covariate	7.472	5	584	.000	.060	.027; .087
Group	26.962	5	584	.000	.188	.137; .228
Covariate						
Relating To Others	12.688	1	588	.000	.021	.006; .044
New Possibilities	6.544	1	588	.011	.011	.001; .029
Personal Strength	4.922	1	588	.027	.008	.001; .025
Spiritual Change	9.150	1	588	.003	.015	.003; .036
Life Appreciation	27.179	1	588	.000	.044	.021; .074
Group						
Relating To Others	76.389	1	588	.000	.115	.078; .156
New Possibilities	34.173	1	588	.000	.055	.029; .087
Personal Strength	25.128	1	588	.000	.041	.019; .070
Spiritual Change	10.104	1	588	.002	.017	.004; .038
Life Appreciation	90.925	1	588	.000	.134	.094; .176

Table 24.

Estimated marginal means of post traumatic growth indicators by Group

		<i>M(estimated)</i>	<i>SE(estimated)</i>
Group			
Relating To Others	Yes	2.344	.072
	No	3.259	.073
New Possibilities	Yes	2.098	.073
	No	2.716	.074
Personal Strength	Yes	2.787	.079
	No	3.360	.080
Spiritual Change	Yes	1.668	.073
	No	2.003	.074
Life Appreciation	Yes	2.281	.079
	No	3.371	.080

Table 25.
MANCOVA results for emotional reactivity and numbing by Covariate and Group

	<i>F (df)</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>Error df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	90% CI
Multivariate						
Covariate	3.103	4	583	.015	.021	.002; .038
Group	2.501	4	583	.042	.017	.000; .032
Covariate						
Fear	8.602	1	586	.003	.014	.003; .035
Sad	9.462	1	586	.002	.016	.003; .037
General	.084	1	586	.773	.000	.000; .005
Anger	3.545	1	586	.060	.006	.000; .021
Group						
Fear	7.090	1	586	.008	.012	.002; .031
Sad	9.583	1	586	.002	.016	.004; .037
General	1.745	1	586	.187	.003	.000; .015
Anger	1.394	1	586	.238	.002	.000; .013

Table 26.
Estimated marginal means of ERNS by Group

		<i>M(estimated)</i>	<i>SE(estimated)</i>
Group			
Fear	Yes	4.033	.044
	No	3.861	.045
Sad	Yes	4.199	.035
	No	4.039	.036
General	Yes	4.046	.046
	No	3.958	.047
Anger	Yes	3.818	.042
	No	3.745	.043

Table 27.
MANCOVA results for life outcomes by Covariate and Group

	<i>F</i> (df)	<i>df</i>	<i>Error df</i>	<i>p</i>	η^2	90% CI
Multivariate						
Covariate	1.874	4.000	582.000	.113	.013	.00; .03
Group	1.892	4.000	582.000	.110	.013	.00; .03
Covariate						
Life satisfaction	.469	1	585	.494	.001	.00; .01
Personal self esteem	.667	1	585	.415	.001	.00; .01
Relationship satisfaction	1.505	1	585	.220	.003	.00; .01
Optimism	.002	1	585	.961	.000	.00; .00
Group						
Life satisfaction	1.992	1	585	.159	.003	.00; .02
Personal self esteem	4.310	1	585	.038	.007	.00; .02
Relationship satisfaction	1.547	1	585	.214	.003	.00; .01
Optimism	.276	1	585	.600	.000	.00; .01

Table 28.
Estimated marginal means of life outcomes
by Group

		<i>M(estimated)</i>	<i>SE(estimated)</i>
Group			
Life satisfaction	Yes	4.117	.095
	No	4.312	.097
Personal self esteem	Yes	4.782	.080
	No	5.025	.082
Relationship satisfaction	Yes	4.303	.078
	No	4.446	.080
Optimism	Yes	4.536	.085
	No	4.601	.087

Appendix F: Study 4 restricted sample results

Results with the Restricted Sample

We analysed the results of Study 4 on a sample restricted to only those participants who evaluated (real or imagined) sexual harassment as moderately negative or very negative. This decision rule on the data led to the removal of 17 participants. Therefore the restricted sample consisted of $N = 583$ participants. The distributions across Group, gender, age, and nationality were almost identical to those of the full sample. All participants were female, and just over half of the sample (50.4%, $n = 296$) reported that they had experienced sexual harassment and were placed in the Experience Group. The remaining 49.6% reported that they had not experienced sexual harassment and were placed in the Imagination Group. The biggest age group was 25-34, with 41.6% of the sample reporting that they fell within this age range. Over half the sample (54.7%, $n = 308$) were from the UK, while 28.8% were from other European countries, and 9.6% of the sample were from North America. For further information on the age and national distribution of this sample please see Table 1 below.

The majority of the main effects of Group remain the same. Specifically, the main effects of Group remain the same for Needs, with Imaginers anticipating that they would have significantly higher Relational, Justice, Respect, Control, and Safety needs, and the need for things to go back to normal compared to Experiencers. Overall the main effects of Group remain the same for every form of action, with one exception: When we restrict the sample to respondents who negatively evaluated their experiences, the previously significant main effect of Group on confronting the perpetrator becomes non-significant, $\chi^2(1, N = 583) = 2.94, p = .086$, with 14.7% ($n = 43$) of Experiencers reporting that they confronted the perpetrator directly, compared to 10% ($n = 29$) of Imaginers who anticipated that they would do so. This effect was significant for the full sample, where 16% of Experiencers reported that they confronted the perpetrator directly and 9.9% of Imaginers anticipated that they would do so. Therefore restricting

the sample to respondents who evaluated sexual harassment negatively reduced the percentage of Experiencers who actually confronted the perpetrator.

The main effects of Group also stay the same for Need satisfaction: Imaginers anticipated that all their needs (Relational, Justice, Respect, Control, Safety, and the need for things to go back to normal) would be significantly more satisfied by their actions, compared to Experiencers. The main effects of Group on Feelings were similar to those of the full sample, with Imaginers anticipating that they would experience significantly more Fear, Regret, Irritability, and Anger. Similarly to the results of the full sample, there was no main effect of Group on Attentiveness. For the full sample there was a marginally significant main effect of Group on Enthusiasm, with Experiencers expressing higher Enthusiasm. However, when we restrict the sample to respondents who evaluated the experience as negative, that effect is eliminated, $F(1,577) = 3.30, p = .070, \eta^2 = .01$. However, the pattern remains the same, with Experiencers reporting higher enthusiasm ($M = 2.47, SD = 1.26$) than Imaginers ($M = 2.29, SD = 1.17$).

The main effects of Group on the Post-traumatic Growth Inventory (PTGI) factors remain the same as before: Imaginers anticipated significantly more growth across all domains (Relating to others, New possibilities, Personal strength, Spiritual change, and Life appreciation) compared to that reported by Experiencers. Furthermore, we found the same main effects of Group on the Emotional reactivity and numbing scale (ERNS) factors. Therefore there was no main effect of Group on general emotional reactivity and anger, but there is a main effect on sadness, with Experiencers reporting more sadness than Imaginers. The previously only marginally significant ($F(1, 587) = 3.65, p = .057, \eta^2 = .01$ for the full sample) effect of Group on Fear becomes significant, $F(1, 571) = 4.42, p = .036, \eta^2 = .01$. The pattern is the same, with Experiencers reporting that they experience more fear ($M = 4.02, SD = .71$) compared to Imaginers ($M = 3.89, SD = .79$). Finally, the main effects of Group on

Life satisfaction, Personal self-esteem, relationship satisfaction, and optimism remain the same as before. Therefore there is no main effect on Life satisfaction, relationship satisfaction, and optimism; the marginally significant main effect of Group on Personal self-esteem remains marginally significant, $F(1, 570) = 3.93, p = .048, \eta^2 = .01$.

In sum, even when we restrict the sample to respondents who evaluated the incident as moderately or very negative, the vast majority of the main effects of Group remain the same, with only three exceptions: The main effect of Group on confronting the perpetrator directly and the marginal main effect of Group on Enthusiasm are eliminated, and the marginal main effect of Group on Fear becomes significant.

Table 1.

Restricted sample descriptive statistics

Group	Percent, <i>n</i> = 587
Experience	50.4%, <i>n</i> = 296
Imagination	49.6%, <i>n</i> = 291
Age group	Percent, <i>n</i> = 563
18-24	23.1%, <i>n</i> = 130
25-34	41.6%, <i>n</i> = 234
35-44	21.7%, <i>n</i> = 122
45-54	8.9%, <i>n</i> = 50
55-64	3.9%, <i>n</i> = 22
65-74	.9%, <i>n</i> = 5
Nationality	Percent, <i>n</i> = 563
UK	54.7%, <i>n</i> = 308
Europe non-UK	28.7%, <i>n</i> = 162
North America	9.6%, <i>n</i> = 54
Asia	2.8%, <i>n</i> = 16
Dual/Mixed/Other	1.8%, <i>n</i> = 10
Oceania	1.1%, <i>n</i> = 6
South America	.7, <i>n</i> = 4
Africa	.5%, <i>n</i> = 3

Appendix G: Dignity and Respect advisors Informed consent form

Study title: **Sexual harassment complaints' procedures**

Investigators: Elena Dimitriou, Professor Manuela Barreto and Professor Thomas Morton, School of Psychology, University of Exeter

This interview will take approximately half an hour. The aim of the interview is to better understand the role of the Dignity and Respect advisors and to explore the current complaints procedures for sexual harassment in the University. You will be asked some questions about your role as a Dignity and Respect advisor and the procedures that you follow in this role.

It is not foreseen that the study will cause you any harm. If you feel discomfort or distress during the study please let the researcher know. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may discontinue your participation at any time without prejudice. You do not have to answer any questions that you would rather not answer. However, it would be very helpful for our study if you answered all questions.

The interview will be recorded by an audio recorder. The aim of the recording is to transcribe the interview at a future date, for further analysis. You will not be identified in the transcript, and the person transcribing the interview will not have any way of knowing your name.

All the recordings will only be used for research purposes. If you change your mind, and decide that you would prefer to have these recordings destroyed, please inform the researcher and we will do so. Note also that all your answers are anonymous and will be treated confidentially, and your information will not be disclosed to other parties. To secure anonymity, we will not record your identity; we will just record the date that the interview took place, and your gender.

There will be no compensation for taking part in this study. However, your participation is very valuable to us and we hope that you will enjoy contributing to this endeavour to explore the complaints procedures for sexual harassment in the University.

Upon completion of this interview, you will be given the opportunity to ask questions. If you have further questions or concerns regarding your participation in this study, please contact Elena Dimitriou at E.Dimitriou@exeter.ac.uk, Professor Manuela Barreto at M.Barreto@exeter.ac.uk, Professor Thomas Morton at T.Morton@exeter.ac.uk, or the Psychology Ethics Committee chair, Dr Lisa Leaver L.A.Leaver@exeter.ac.uk.

I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason.

I understand that my data will be treated confidentially and any publication resulting from this work will report only data that does not identify me.

I freely agree to participate in this study.

Name

Date

Signature

Appendix H: Dignity and Respect Advisors Interview Protocol

Objectives of the interview

1. To find out what advisors do when they receive a complaint
2. To explore advisors' perception of procedure and own role
3. To examine beliefs about complainant and situation characteristics
4. To ask for suggestions for the future/ any thoughts on the project

Introduction

Thank participants for taking part

Brief explanation of the aim of the interview

Reminder that all information will be treated confidentially

Introductory questions

Why did you decide to become an advisor?

How long have you been an advisor for?

What is your official post within the University? If you feel like this will identify you, you don't have to disclose this information; could you please let me know if it's a post in professional, academic, campus services or other?

What were your expectations before you started your role? What did you imagine you would be doing as an advisor?

Were your expectations met? Is there anything different from what you imagined?

Understanding the procedure

Can you talk me through the step by step process that takes place after someone discloses to a respect and dignity advisor that they have experienced sexual harassment?

Understanding the role of advisors

What is, in your opinion, the role of the respect and dignity advisors in this process? I'm interested in your own personal perception of your role.

What is the main purpose of your role in your opinion? (For example is it mainly informational, advisory, supportive, or something else?)

What do *you* think is the most important way in which you serve people?

How do you provide this service?

Focus on Sexual harassment

In your role you receive complaints for a variety of reasons. Now I'd like to focus specifically on cases of sexual harassment. Have you ever encountered a case of sexual harassment? If not, have you heard of your colleagues receiving such cases?

Event & complainant characteristics

(If advisor has not received Sexual harassment complaints)

I realise you haven't had this experience yet, but of course this could happen. Imagine that someone comes to you to talk about their experiences of sexual harassment. How would you make the distinction between distressing and sexually harassing?

Sexual harassment can be ambiguous and subjective; as a result, it may be that sometimes people report an incident that is indeed distressing, but does not classify as sexual harassment. Is this the case? How often does this happen to you?

How do you make that distinction between genuine Sexual Harassment and an event which is distressing but not sexually harassing?

Are there particular things you look for when someone reports an incident to you, in order to decide whether sexual harassment has taken place?

What are the factors which make you inclined to advise someone to take their complaint forward formally?

Which characteristics of a situation signal to you that you should prioritise this?

Do people usually report right after an incident or after some time has passed? Why do you think that is?

Is the procedure different in any way if somebody reports an event a long time after it happened, compared to if they report it soon after it happened?

Suggestions

If you think of all the cases you've handled and heard about, I'm sure that there have been people who almost didn't come forward, or waited a long time before they came forward.

What do you think are the reasons for people not coming forward?

What do you think were the triggers that convinced them to come forward?

What do you think would help more people come forward?

Can you think of any changes in the current procedure that might encourage more people to come forward?

Are there any changes or additions to the dignity and respect advisors training procedure that would be useful? E.g. are there any skills or knowledge you feel would have been useful to have before you started your role as a dignity and respect advisor?

Closing the interview

This is all I wanted to ask from my side. Thank you very much for your time. Your participation is really important to us and I really appreciate you taking part in this study.

Is there anything else that you would like to add or comment on? Are there any important issues that you feel haven't been covered by this interview already?

If yes – follow up participant's thoughts and possibly ask further questions.

If no – “Thank you very much for your time! I am going to turn off the tape recorder.”

Appendix I: Police officers Informed consent form
Sexual Offences complaints procedures – Interviews with police officers

Information Sheet

Background

The research is being conducted by Elena Dimitriou as part of a PhD project at the University of Exeter, supervised by Professor Manuela Barreto and Professor Thomas Morton. The interviews with police officers are part of a wider 3 year project, which will look broadly at experiences with sexual offences, including stalking, sexual harassment and sexual assault. At this stage we are interested in looking into the services provided to victims of sexual offences. For this reason we will talk to a variety of different people who receive such complaints (Police officers, Dignity and Respect advisors, charity organisations etc.).

This interview

The purpose of this interview is to explore Police Officers' own experiences with dealing with sexual offences complaints made by the public, and how they believe complainants experience this service. We do NOT aim to evaluate how well individual Police Officers are doing their job. Our aim is simply to understand Police Officers' own perceptions of what they do, how they think people receive this, and what they think people need when they report such an incident to the police.

Procedure

This interview will take approximately 45 minutes. You will be asked some general questions about your role as a Police Officer, and your own experiences with dealing with sexual offences complaints. You will then receive some scenarios where a sexual offence may or may not have taken place and be asked to explain the actions you would take if you were faced with each scenario.

Data collection and confidentiality

The interview will be recorded by an audio recorder. The aim of the recording is to transcribe the interview at a future date, for further analysis. We will not record any information that might serve to identify you; we will just record the date that the interview took place, your age, and gender, and the department you work in. So you will also not be identified in the transcript, and the person transcribing the interview will not have any way of knowing your name. All the recordings will only be used for research purposes. If you change your mind after the interview, and decide that you would prefer to have these recordings destroyed, please inform the researcher immediately after the interview and we will do so. Note also that all your information will be treated confidentially, and will not be disclosed to other parties. All data will be handled in compliance with the Data Protection Act (1998).

Withdrawal

It is not foreseen that the study will cause you any harm. If you feel discomfort or distress during the study please let the researcher know. Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You may discontinue your participation at any time without prejudice. You do not have to answer any questions that you would rather not answer. However, it would be very helpful for our study if you answered all questions.

Questions or concerns

Upon completion of this interview, you will be given the opportunity to ask questions. If you have further questions or concerns regarding your participation in this interview, please contact the researcher, Elena Dimitriou at E.Dimitriou@exeter.ac.uk, Professor Manuela Barreto at M.Barreto@exeter.ac.uk, Professor Thomas Morton at T.Morton@exeter.ac.uk, or the Psychology Ethics Committee chair, Dr Lisa Leaver, L.A.Leaver@exeter.ac.uk.

Participant consent

I confirm that I have read and understood the information sheet. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason.

I understand that my data will be treated confidentially and any publication resulting from this work will report only data that does not identify me.

I freely agree to participate in this interview.

Name

Date

Signature

Appendix J: Police Officers Interview Protocol

Sexual harassment complaints procedures

Objectives of the interview

1. To find out how police officers define sexual harassment and how they handle such complaints
2. To explore police officers' perception of procedure and own role
3. To examine beliefs about complainant and situation characteristics
4. To ask for suggestions for the future

Introduction

- Thank participants for taking part
- Brief explanation of the aim of the interview and obtain informed consent
- Reiterate that interview will be recorded and explanation of why the interview will be recorded
- Reminder that all information will be treated confidentially
- Reminder that there is no obligation to answer questions they don't want to answer and that they do not need to answer any questions that might make them individually identifiable

Introductory questions

What is your post within the police?

How long have you been a police officer for?

Focus on Sexual offences

In your role you receive complaints for a variety of reasons. In this interview I'd like to focus specifically on sexual offences.

First, could you tell me what **sexual offences entail**? What types of behaviour fall under 'sexual offences'?

What, in your estimate, are the most **common types** of sexual offences complaints received by the police?

I use the term sexual offences, but I'm interested in a whole range of things, some of which may be repeated or not, some may be violent and some not. (in psychology we use SH which covers a big variety of behaviours)

Understanding the procedure

Have you ever **dealt with** a sexual offence? If not, have you heard of your colleagues receiving such cases?

(If the police officer has not received sexual offence complaints: I realise you haven't had this experience yet, but of course this could happen. I'd like you to imagine that someone comes to you to talk about their experiences of sexual harassment.)

Can you talk me through the **process** that takes place after someone reports that they have been the target of (a) sexual offence (s)? (The part of the process the police is or can be involved in.)

If multiple types of offences have already been mentioned:

You have mentioned quite a few difference examples of sexual offences. Is the procedure different for all of these, or is it more or less the same?

If the procedure is different - what is the procedure for each of them?

Is the **location** of an alleged crime relevant when you are deciding what action to take?

What does a **good outcome** look like/what is a good outcome? What would you consider a successful case?

Understanding the role of police officers

What is, in your opinion, the **role of the police** officers in this process? I'm interested in your own personal perception of your role. (Prompt: For example is it mainly informational, investigatory, supportive, or something else?)

What do you think is the most important way in which you **serve people** who have this type of complaint? How do you provide this service?

It may be that sometimes it's impossible to prove that a crime has taken place. If this happens, do you try to **help** the complainant in any other way?

Complainants' needs

What do you think are the most important **needs** of people who come forward to you to report a sexual offence? (Prompts: Justice seeking, punishment, safety, being heard, emotional support?)

Clearly your services as a Police Officer may cover some of these needs, but not others; which needs do you think you address? How do you achieve that?

Event & complainant characteristics

Sexual offences (harassment) can be **ambiguous** and subjective; it may be that people report an event that is distressing but does not fall under 'sexual offences'; or it may be that people have experienced a sexual offence but they give it a different name.

Is it relevant to your role to **decide** if something is a sexual offence or not? If yes, how do you decide if something is a sexual offence or not?

What do you think **qualifies** as a sexual offence?

Are there particular **things you look for** when someone reports an incident to you, in order to decide whether sexual harassment has taken place?

Is it important to decide exactly which act (if any) has been breached? Prompt: It seems like behaviours that qualify as a sexually offence could break a number of different laws. Is it important to decide which law has been broken as soon as, or soon after the complainant comes forward? Or is it a decision that can be made further down the line?

Do people usually **report right after** an incident or after some time has passed? Why do you think that is?

Why do you think that is? / Why do you think people might come forward only after some time? Does it make a difference to the procedure that follows?

Engagement with police

If you think of all the cases you've handled and heard about, I'm sure that there have been people who almost didn't come forward, or **waited** a long time before they came forward.

What do you think are the **reasons** for people not coming forward?

What do you think were the **triggers** that convinced them to come forward?

What do you think would **help** more people come forward?

Do people often **drop out** of the process after making an initial report? Why do you think that is? What factors do you think influence this decision?

If people do drop out of the process often: What would help more people **stay** in the process? Is there anything that Police Officer in your position could do to encourage people to stay in the process?

Are there any changes or additions to the **training** procedure for police officers that would be useful? Are there any skills or knowledge you feel would have been useful to have before you started your role as a police officer?

Scenarios

Now I'd like to discuss a few scenarios with you. Could you please tell me what you would do if you received the following complaints?

- Someone contacts you to complain about someone making sexual remarks to them in a public place (e.g., a store, the street, on her way home, in the park etc.).
- Someone complains that someone has touched them inappropriately in a public place (e.g. in a pub, on the street, in a park etc.).
- Someone contacts the police because someone they work with keeps making sexual propositions to them in their workplace.
- A woman reports that she feels uncomfortable in her workplace, as there are posters of naked women in some of the men's offices, and she often overhears her colleagues making sexist comments and jokes.

Closing the interview

This is all I wanted to ask from my side. Thank you very much for your time. Your participation is really important to us and I really appreciate you taking part in this study.

Is there anything else that you would like to add or comment on? Are there any important issues that you feel haven't been covered by this interview already?

If yes – follow up participant's thoughts and possibly ask further questions.

If no – "Thank you very much for your time! I am going to turn off the tape recorder."

Appendix K: Study 3 Informed consent form and debrief

Sexual harassment survey

Informed consent form

Welcome to the Sexual harassment survey.

This survey is part of a 3 year PhD project by Elena Dimitriou, supervised by Professor Manuela Barreto and Professor Thomas Morton, at the University of Exeter, in the United Kingdom. We are interested in finding out about people's thoughts and experiences with sexual harassment and how people respond (or estimate that they would respond) to sexual harassment. Please note that you do not need to have experienced sexual harassment in order to take part in this study.

What will the survey involve?

This survey takes about 10 minutes to complete and asks about your experiences or thoughts about sexual harassment. As such, there are no right or wrong answers to these questions—what matters to us is your opinion. After completion, there will be an option to enter a prize draw to win a £10 Amazon Voucher as a token of appreciation for your participation.

Can I withdraw?

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. It is not foreseen that the study will cause you any harm. However, some questions pertain to rather sensitive topics. You do not have to answer any questions that you would rather not answer.

Data protection

Your participation in this study is anonymous. All information you provide will be treated confidentially and will not be disclosed to other parties. We will neither collect nor publish any identifying information in any future publications that may result from this survey. All data will be handled in compliance with the Data Protection Act (1998).

Questions or concerns

This study has been reviewed and approved by the School of Psychology Ethics Committee, at the University of Exeter. If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact the researcher, Elena Dimitriou at E.Dimitriou@exeter.ac.uk, Professor Manuela Barreto at M.Barreto@exeter.ac.uk, or Professor Thomas Morton at T.Morton@exeter.ac.uk. If your concerns pertain to the ethics surrounding this study, feel free to contact the chair of the University of Exeter's Psychology Ethics Committee, Dr Lisa Leaver, L.A.Leaver@exeter.ac.uk.

Consent to participation

By clicking 'Next' below you confirm that:

- You have read the information provided and agree to participate in this study.
- You are 18 years of age or older.

Explanation of the study

Thank you for taking part in this study. Your participation is fundamental to us. This page explains a little more about the goals of this study and what we expect to find.

Our goal in this study is to understand how different types of support affect people's wellbeing after they have experienced sexual harassment. We are trying to investigate which sources of support are perceived as the most useful, and what their effects are on subsequent wellbeing.

Therefore we asked you some question about the type of support you received (if any) and how you felt at that time. We expect to find that different sources of support serve different needs and consequently affect people's recovery and wellbeing in different ways.

If you have never experienced sexual harassment, we asked you to imagine that you have, and think about what you would do and how would you feel. This will serve to compare people's expectations of what they might do and how they might feel with what people actually do and how they feel when they are sexually harassed.

We realise that for some participants answering these questions may have been somewhat distressing. We sincerely appreciate your willingness to participate despite that potential distress and assure you that your effort will not be in vain: The results of this study will help increase our knowledge of the support that is most useful for targets of sexual harassment and ultimately to improve the systems implemented to counteract these experiences.

If taking part in this study has left you feeling distressed, you may wish to speak to your GP, or any other health service provider. You can also get free support from organisations such as 'Befrienders Worldwide' (<http://www.befrienders.org/>) and those listed by 'Emotional Support Alliance' (<http://emotionalsupportalliance.org/map.html>). If you live in the UK or the Republic of Ireland you can get free support from the Samaritans (<http://www.samaritans.org/>).

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact the researcher, Elena Dimitriou at E.Dimitriou@exeter.ac.uk, Professor Manuela Barreto at M.Barreto@exeter.ac.uk, or Professor Thomas Morton at T.Morton@exeter.ac.uk. If your concerns pertain to the ethics surrounding this study, feel free to contact the chair of the University of Exeter's Psychology Ethics Committee, Dr Lisa Leaver, L.A.Leaver@exeter.ac.uk.

Again, thank you for your participation.

Prize draw

If you would like to enter a prize draw for the chance to win a £10 Amazon voucher, please provide your email address below. Please note that your email address will be stored separately from your responses, thus ensuring that your answers will remain anonymous.

Appendix L: Study 3 Questionnaire

- 1. What do you think of when you think of sexual harassment? We understand that people think of many different things and that definitions of sexual harassment vary greatly. Please think for a moment about what you consider sexual harassment to be and provide a brief description of your own perception of what constitutes sexual harassment.**

.....

- 2. Thinking about your own definition, have you ever experienced sexual harassment?
 Yes/No**

[If not, they go straight to 6 but with hypothetical framing: ‘Although you indicated that you have not experienced sexual harassment, imagine that you did, as you defined it. What do you imagine you would do, need etc.?’]

- 3. Please tell us briefly, being as open as you feel you can, what this incident involved. If there have been several incidents, please think about the one that is most at the forefront of your mind.**

.....

- 4. How long ago did this incident take place?**

.....

- 5. Was this incident repeated, or was it a single occurrence?**

One time only Repeated (but over now) Repeated (and still ongoing)

- 6. All things considered, how negative was this experience for you at the time it occurred?**

Very negative		Neutral		Very positive		
-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3

- 7. Unwanted negative events are experienced differently by different people, and after these events different people can need different things. Reflecting on your own experience, what were the most important needs you felt you had in response to the event? Clearly you may have experienced multiple needs and these may have changed over time. Here we would like to focus**

on the needs you had initially, right after the incident took place. Please note that by needs we mean both things that are concrete and material, as well as more abstract or emotional needs. Try to describe each need in a few words in each separate box.

Short open answers

- 8. In addition to the needs you already indicated in response to the previous question, we would like to know whether you experienced certain specific needs. Below you will find a list of needs that people often talk about. For each of these, please indicate how strong that need was to you immediately after your experience.**

At the time, I needed...

	Not at all true	Neutral			Very true		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To feel valued	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To express myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To be understood	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To be in control	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To feel powerful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To make decisions for myself	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To show that I was capable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To feel accepted by others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To feel part of a community	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To know that there were others who cared about me	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To feel like my life mattered	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To feel like my life had meaning	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
To see justice in the world	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- 9. People respond in many different ways to sexually harassing incidents. Some people prefer to do nothing, others will focus on one or two strategies, whereas others will take a range of actions. Also, what one does immediately after the incident can differ from what one does sometime later. Here we are interested in what you did in the first period after the incident took place. Please read the following list of responses and tick all of those that describe how you reacted in the first period after the incident:**

[Check all that apply]

1. Did not do anything about the incident
2. Did not tell anyone about the incident
3. Informed the police

4. Made a formal complaint that did not directly involve the police (e.g., to the perpetrator’s manager)
 5. Spoke to my GP
 6. Directly confronted the perpetrator(s)
 7. Discussed the incident with friends and/or family
 8. Discussed the incident with a religious leader
 9. Sought professional emotional support (e.g. counselling)
 10. Searched for information and support online
 11. Wrote about my experience online (e.g. in fora, on twitter, etc.)
 12. Called a support helpline
 13. Contacted HR for advice (if it happened in the workplace)
 14. Spoke to my professional union (if it happened in the workplace)
 15. Discussed the incident with a colleague (if it happened in the workplace)
- Other

10. Thinking about the needs that you previously described having after the incident took place, and about the more immediate responses you indicated in your answer to the previous question, to what extent do you feel that your responses met your needs?

→ The needs scale will appear first and then the list of self-reported needs will be regenerated.

It was not met at all – It was met completely
 1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. Thinking about the incident you have described and the needs you felt at the time, how do you feel now? Please provide a brief description of how you feel.

.....

12. Now please describe your current feelings by indicating the extent to which each of the following statements apply to how you feel right now:

As you recall these events, do you feel?

- | | | | | | | | | |
|--------------|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| • Interested | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| • Distressed | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| • Excited | | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| • Upset | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| • Strong | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| • Guilty | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |
| • Scared | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | |

• Hostile		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
• Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
• Irritable		1	2	3	4	5	6	7
• Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
• Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
• Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
• Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
• Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
• Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
• Tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
• Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
• Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

13. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements about how you feel, right now?

- I feel satisfied with my life
- I feel that in most ways my life is close to ideal
- I feel that the conditions in my life are excellent

- I feel satisfied with myself
- I feel that I have a number of good qualities
- I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others
- I feel that I do not have much to be proud of
- I feel that I am no good at all

- I feel satisfied with my social relationships
- I feel that I am not alone
- I feel that people are basically good and trustworthy
- I feel that I have a lot in common with other people

- I feel optimistic about my future.
- Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad.
- I do not expect things to go my way.

To finalise, please provide some demographical information about yourself.

What is your age? (open space)

What is your gender (open)

What is your nationality?

How would you define your ethnicity?

Appendix M: Study 4 Informed consent form and debrief

Participant Information Sheet

Title of Project: Sexual harassment survey

Researcher name: Elena Dimitriou

Invitation and brief summary:

Thank you for your interest in this survey. This survey is part of a 3 year PhD project by Elena Dimitriou, supervised by Professor Manuela Barreto and Professor Thomas Morton, at the University of Exeter, in the United Kingdom. We are interested in finding out about people's thoughts and experiences with sexual harassment and how people respond (or estimate that they would respond) to sexual harassment. Please note that you do not need to have experienced sexual harassment to take part in this study.

Who will participate in this survey?

We are recruiting participants over the age of 18 through Prolific Academic. We aim to recruit 225 participants who have experienced sexual harassment and 225 participants who have not experienced sexual harassment. Therefore, we aim to recruit 450 participants in total for this study.

What would taking part involve?

This survey takes about 10 minutes to complete and asks about your experiences or thoughts about sexual harassment. As such, there are no right or wrong answers to these questions—what matters to us is your opinion. At the end of the survey there will be an open text box where you will have the opportunity to share any comments, thoughts or concerns you might have.

What will happen if I don't want to carry on with the study?

Your participation in this study is completely voluntary. You do not have to answer any questions that you would rather not answer. However, it would be helpful for our study if you answered all questions. You may discontinue your participation at any time without prejudice or consequences. If you decide that you no longer wish to complete the survey, you can click on the 'End survey' option, which will be available at the bottom of each page. If you click on 'End survey' you will be taken to a page which gives you a bit more information about the study and includes a list of support services.

What if I want my data to be destroyed?

If you want your responses to be destroyed, please contact the researcher via Prolific Academic as soon as possible. It will only be possible to destroy data while the survey is running on Prolific Academic. After the data collection period is over and the survey has been removed from Prolific Academic, all Prolific IDs will be removed from the data. Therefore, there will be no way of linking individual responses with participants, and we will not be able to destroy the data. In that case, the responses that you provided will be used in the data analysis conducted for this study.

How will my information be kept confidential?

The University of Exeter processes personal data for the purposes of carrying out research in the public interest. The University will endeavour to be transparent about its processing of your personal data and this information sheet should provide a clear explanation of this. If you do have any queries about the University's processing of your personal data that cannot be resolved by the research team, further information may be obtained from the University's Data Protection Officer by emailing dataprotection@exeter.ac.uk or at www.exeter.ac.uk/dataprotection

Your participation in this study is confidential. We will not publish any identifying information in any future publications that may result from this survey. We will collect data (your prolific ID) that could, under some circumstances, be traced back to you. The reason we collect this data is that we need it in order to be able to pay you. Once the payment is complete, we will delete this information. Any responses you give in this study will be treated confidentially by the research team, and will be analysed in aggregate form, that is, as averages of the complete sample of participants who responded to this questionnaire. The online servers used to store the data associated with this project, Qualtrics, are GDPR compliant.

The research data may be looked at by members of the research team, who are individuals from the University of Exeter, where it is relevant to this research. The data may also be shared with other researchers for use in future research projects. The data will be deposited in the UK Data Service archive for 5 years, and will be deleted by the research team after the 5 year retention period is over. All data will be handled in compliance with the Data Protection Act (2018).

What will happen to the results of this study?

The results of this study will be included in the researcher's doctoral thesis. In addition, it is possible that the results will be used in academic publications, such as journal articles, and discussed at conferences through presentations and posters. The results may also be discussed at meetings with service providers and community members. As participation is confidential, we will not be able to contact participants to inform them about the results. If you wish to receive a summary of the results after the analysis has been completed, please email the researcher at e.dimitriou@exeter.ac.uk.

Who is organising and funding this study?

This study is being conducted by Elena Dimitriou, and supervised by Professor Manuela Barreto, and Professor Thomas Morton. Elena Dimitriou is a PhD student in Social Psychology at the University of Exeter. Professor Manuela Barreto is a Professor of Social and Organisational Psychology at the University of Exeter. Professor Thomas Morton is an Associate Professor of Social Psychology at the University of Exeter. This PhD project is funded by the Economic and Social Research Council through a PhD studentship.

Who has reviewed this study?

This project has been reviewed by the Psychology Research Ethics Committee at the University of Exeter, Reference Number: [TBC].

Further information and contact details

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact the researcher, Elena Dimitriou at E.Dimitriou@exeter.ac.uk, Professor Manuela Barreto at M.Barreto@exeter.ac.uk, or Professor Thomas Morton at T.Morton@exeter.ac.uk. If

your concerns pertain to the ethics surrounding this study, feel free to contact the Research Ethics and Governance Manager, Gail Seymour, at g.m.seymour@exeter.ac.uk, 01392 726621.

Consent to participate

Please read the statements below and tick the boxes if they are applicable to you. If they are, you will be able to proceed with the study. If they are not, that means that you do not provide consent to participate and you will be directed out of this page.

[Each of the sentences below will be presented to the participants with an option to click and proceed or not. In the case of a negative answer (Non consent) the participants will not be able to proceed with the study.]

1. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time without giving any reason and without my legal rights being affected.
2. I understand that taking part involves providing confidential questionnaire responses that will be used for the purposes of scientific research. This includes allowing the research team to perform data analyses and to share the results of these analyses in public presentations and scientific publications.
3. I understand that my data will be stored in the UK Data Service archive for 5 years, but I will remain anonymous.
4. I confirm that I have read the information about this project. I have had the opportunity to consider the information and freely choose to participate in this study.
5. I confirm that I am 18 years of age or older.

Explanation of the study: Sexual harassment survey

Thank you for taking part in this study. Your participation is fundamental to us. This page explains a little more about the goals of this study and what we expect to find.

Our goal in this study is to understand how people respond to sexual harassment. Specifically, we aim explore people's needs after they have been sexually harassed. We also want to understand how different types of support affect people's wellbeing after they have experienced sexual harassment. We are trying to investigate which sources of support are perceived as the most useful, and what their effects are on subsequent wellbeing.

Therefore we asked you some question about the types of support you received (if any) and how you felt at that time. We expect to find that different sources of support serve different needs and consequently affect people's recovery and wellbeing in different ways.

In addition we aim to understand if recovery and wellbeing are affected by other factors, such as changes in the way in which targets of sexual harassment relate to others, or changes in their priorities. Therefore we asked you some questions exploring the extent to which those changes took place in your life after the sexually harassing incident. This will help us understand the factors that can help or hinder recovery after such an event.

If you have never experienced sexual harassment, we asked you to imagine that you have, and think about what you would do and how would you feel. This will serve to compare people's expectations of what they might do and how they might feel with what people actually do and how they feel when they are sexually harassed. Identifying such differences is important for understanding the way in which targets of sexual harassment (and their responses) are perceived by others when they come forward.

We realise that for some participants answering these questions may have been somewhat distressing. We sincerely appreciate your willingness to participate despite that potential distress and assure you that your effort will not be in vain: The results of this study will help increase our knowledge of the support that is most useful for targets of sexual harassment and ultimately to improve the systems implemented to counteract these experiences.

If taking part in this study has left you feeling distressed, you may wish to speak to your doctor, or any other health service provider. Alternatively you may wish to contact a support helpline. Below you will find a list of links with information about available support services around the world:

- Worldwide: <http://www.hotpeachpages.net/index.html>
- UK: <https://www.itv.com/thismorning/sexual-harassment-helplines>
- US: <https://metoomvmt.org/resources>

If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact the researcher, Elena Dimitriou at E.Dimitriou@exeter.ac.uk, Professor Manuela Barreto at M.Barreto@exeter.ac.uk, or Professor Thomas Morton at T.Morton@exeter.ac.uk. If your concerns pertain to the ethics surrounding this study, feel free to contact the Research Ethics and Governance Manager, Gail Seymour, at

g.m.seymour@exeter.ac.uk, 01392 726621.

Again, thank you for your participation.

Appendix N: Study 4 Questionnaire

1. Have you ever experienced sexual harassment?

Please note that we mean an incident of sexual harassment that targeted you. If you have witnessed harassment that targeted others, but never experienced harassment that targeted yourself, please select 'No'.

Yes/No

[Participants who select 'no' will be taken to the Imagined Group.]

[End survey button]

Experience Group

2. Next we would like to ask you some questions about the incident you experienced. If there have been several incidents, please focus on one of them when answering the next questions.

- a. What did the incident involve?
 - Physical harassment
 - Non-physical harassment
 - Both

- b. In what context did the sexual harassment take place?
 - At my workplace
 - On the street or in a public place
 - In nightlife or entertainment venues (bars, clubs, festivals etc.)
 - At school
 - Online
 - Other_____ [open text box]

- c. How many harassers were there?
 - One harasser
 - Multiple harassers

- d. Did you know the harasser? The harasser was:
 - A friend
 - An acquaintance
 - A family member
 - A work colleague or boss
 - A stranger
 - Other_____ [open text box]

- e. Was this incident repeated, or was it a single occurrence?
 - It only happened once
 - It was repeated (but over now)
 - It was repeated (and still ongoing)

- f. How long ago did this incident take place? If you are thinking about a recurring incident, please indicate the most recent time it took place.
- In the last month
 - 1 month to a year ago
 - Over a year ago

[End survey button]

3. All things considered, how negative was this experience for you at the time it occurred?
- a. Very negative
 - b. Moderately negative
 - c. Neutral
 - d. Moderately positive
 - e. Very positive

[End survey button]

4. This type of event is experienced differently by different people, and after these events different people might need different things. Below you will find a list of needs that people often talk about. For each of these, please indicate how strong that need was to you immediately after you experienced sexual harassment. Clearly you may have experienced multiple needs and these may have changed over time. Here we would like to focus on the needs you had initially, **right after the incident took place**.

At the time, I needed...	Very untrue					Very true
true						
To feel safe 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To get away from the perpetrator 6 7		1	2	3	4	5
To talk to someone 6 7		1	2	3	4	5
To be believed 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To be respected 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To be supported by friends and family 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To make a formal report 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To get justice 7	1	2	3	4	5	6

To confront the perpetrator 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To get an apology from the perpetrator 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
For things to go back to normal 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To express myself 6 7		1	2	3	4	5
To be understood 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To be in control 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To feel less powerless 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To make decisions for myself 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To show that I was capable 6 7		1	2	3	4	5
To feel accepted by others 6 7		1	2	3	4	5
To feel part of a community 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To know that there were others who cared about me 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To feel like my life mattered 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To feel like my life had meaning 7	1	2	3	4	5	6

[End survey button]

5. People respond in many different ways to sexually harassing incidents. Some people prefer to do nothing, others will focus on one or two coping strategies, whereas others will take a range of actions. Also, what one does immediately after the incident can differ from what one does sometime later. Here we are interested in what you did in the first period after the incident took place. Please read the following list of responses and tick all of those that describe how you reacted **in the first period after the incident**:

[Check all that apply]

- Did not do anything about the incident
- Did not tell anyone about the incident
- Informed the police

- Made a formal complaint that did not directly involve the police (e.g., to the perpetrator's manager)
- Spoke to my doctor
- Directly confronted the perpetrator
- Discussed the incident with friends and/or family
- Sought professional emotional support (e.g. counselling)
- Searched for information and support online
- Wrote about my experience online (e.g. in fora, on twitter, etc.)
- Called a support helpline
- Contacted HR for advice (if it happened in the workplace)
- Spoke to my professional union (if it happened in the workplace)
- Discussed the incident with a colleague (if it happened in the workplace)
- Other: _____

[End survey button]

6. Thinking about the needs that you previously described having after the incident took place, and about the immediate response(s) you indicated in your answer to the previous question, to what extent do you feel that your response(s) met your needs?

I felt that my response(s) met my need:

Each item from needs scale: 1 = Disagree completely – 7= Agree completely y, 8 = N/A
I did not have this need

[End survey button]

7. Now please describe your current feelings about the incident by indicating the extent to which each of the following statements apply to how you feel right now. As you recall the events involved, how do you feel?

1= strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree

1. Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Numb		1	2	3	4	5	6

7

5. Worried about something similar

6. happening again	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Concerned about others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Fine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Excited		1	2	3	4	5	6

7

12. Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

14. Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. Hostile		1	2	3	4	5	6
	7						
17. Enthusiastic	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Irritable		1	2	3	4	5	6
	7						
20. Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
21. Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. Determined	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
26. Tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
27. Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
28. Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[End survey button]

8. Please indicate for each of the statements below the degree to which this change occurred in your life as a result of the sexually harassing incident you experienced, using the following scale.

0 = I did not experience this change as a result of the incident.

1 = I experienced this change to a very small degree as a result of the incident.

2 = I experienced this change to a small degree as a result of the incident.

3 = I experienced this change to a moderate degree as a result of the incident.

4 = I experienced this change to a great degree as a result of the incident.

5 = I experienced this change to a very great degree as a result of the incident

1. I changed my priorities about what is important in life.

2. I have a greater appreciation for the value of my own life.

3. I developed new interests.

4. I have a greater feeling of self-reliance.

5. I have a better understanding of spiritual matters.

6. I more clearly see that I can count on people in times of trouble.

7. I established a new path for my life.

8. I have a greater sense of closeness with others.

9. I am more willing to express my emotions.

10. I know better that I can handle difficulties.

11. I am able to do better things with my life.

12. I am better able to accept the way things work out.

13. I can better appreciate each day.

14. New opportunities are available which wouldn't have been otherwise.
15. I have more compassion for others.
16. I put more effort into my relationships.
17. I am more likely to try to change things which need changing.
18. I have a stronger religious faith.
19. I discovered that I'm stronger than I thought I was.
20. I learned a great deal about how wonderful people are.
21. I better accept needing others.

[End survey button]

9. The previous questions asked about how you felt specifically in relation to the sexually harassing incident. For the next questions, please focus on how you feel right now in general, not how you feel in relation to the specific incident.

Next we would like to get a sense of the kind of person you are. Everybody is different, and everybody responds to things in different ways. The first thing we would like to know about is how you experience emotions *in general* (i.e., not specifically in relation to the incident we previously asked about). Please rate how much each of the statements describes your tendencies when it comes to experiencing emotions.

- 1 = Not at all typical of me
- 2 = A little typical of me
- 3 = Somewhat typical of me
- 4 = Very typical of me
- 5 = Entirely typical of me

1. I am able to feel a wide range of emotions (e.g., happiness, sadness, anger, and fear).
2. I would feel sad if someone special to me died.
3. I get angry when someone treats me badly.
4. I become angry when someone has done something to hurt me.
5. Even after a significant loss, I don't have feelings of sadness.
6. If a loved one was in danger, I would be scared.
7. The death of a loved one would deeply affect me.
8. I get angry if someone threatens me.
9. I feel cut off from my emotions.
10. Certain movies can make me feel sad.
11. In situations when other people have strong emotional responses, I don't feel anything at all.
12. There are certain emotions that I cannot feel.
13. I think of myself as a very emotional person.
14. I have a hard time feeling close to people, even my friends or family.
15. I feel like I am emotionally numb.
16. I feel afraid when I am in dangerous situations.
17. I get really annoyed when someone hassles me.
18. I cannot feel sadness.
19. Losing an important relationship would make me feel sad.
20. I get angry if I don't get something I really want and deserve.

21. I would be afraid if I was being threatened.
22. I feel sad when I am separated from someone I care about.
23. I don't get angry.
24. There are some negative emotions that I rarely feel even when there is reason to feel them.
25. Hearing stories of other people losing a loved one makes me feel sad.
26. I feel somewhat nervous in new, unfamiliar situations.
27. I feel sad when things turn out badly.
28. I get annoyed when I am insulted.
29. It is very hard to push my buttons.
30. When someone insults me, I feel hurt.
31. I have a hard time feeling angry, even when there are reasons for me to feel that way.
32. I feel sad when I don't get something I really want and deserve.
33. I feel tense when I watch suspenseful movies.
34. I get angry if someone criticizes me.
35. I feel scared when I think I may be hurt or harmed in some way.
36. I feel sad when someone does something to hurt me.

[End survey button]

10. Now we would like to know a bit more about how you feel about your life right now, *in general*. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree

- I feel satisfied with my life
- I feel that in most ways my life is close to ideal
- I feel that the conditions in my life are excellent
- I feel satisfied with myself
- I feel that I have a number of good qualities
- I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others
- I feel that I do not have much to be proud of
- I feel that I am no good at all
- I feel satisfied with my social relationships
- I feel that I am not alone
- I feel that people are basically good and trustworthy
- I feel that I have a lot in common with other people
- I feel optimistic about my future
- Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad
- I do not expect things to go my way

[End survey button]

11. Do you have any comments, thoughts or concerns you'd like to share linked to this study? Is there anything you would like to add about these experiences that has not been covered by the survey?

[Open text box]

[End survey button]

12. Finally, please provide some demographical information about yourself:

What is your age?

- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- 65-74
- 75+

What is your nationality? _____

Your Prolific Academic ID _____

Imagined Group

2. There are many different definitions of sexual harassment. Here we are interested in understanding what you imagine when you think of sexual harassment. Please note, there is no right or wrong answer; we are trying to understand what constitutes sexual harassment in your opinion. For the questions below please tick all that apply.

Please think for a moment about what you consider sexual harassment to be. When you think of sexual harassment, what type of harassment comes to your mind?

- Physical
- Non-physical
- Both

When you think of sexual harassment, in what context do you imagine it taking place?
In the workplace

- On the street or in a public place
- In nightlife or entertainment venues (bars, clubs, festivals etc.)
- At school
- Online
- Other _____ [open text]

Do you think of harassment that is perpetrated by one person, or a group of people?

- Harassment perpetrated by one person

- Harassment perpetrated by multiple people at once

When you think of harassment, what do you imagine the relationship between the perpetrator and the target to be?

- Friends
- Acquaintances
- Family members
- Work colleagues or boss
- Strangers
- Other_____ [open text]

Do you think of harassment that is repeated, or a single occurrence?

- Harassment that only happens once
- Harassment that is repeated

[End survey button]

3. Although you indicated that you have not experienced sexual harassment, please imagine that you did. How negative do you imagine that this experience would be for you?

- Very negative
- Moderately negative
- Neutral
- Moderately positive
- Very positive

[End survey button]

4. This type of event is experienced differently by different people, and after these events different people can need different things. What needs do you imagine you would have in response to being sexually harassed? We would like to focus on the needs you imagine you would have initially, right after the incident took place.

Below you will find a list of needs that people often talk about. For each of these, please indicate how strong you think that need would be for you **immediately after experiencing sexual harassment**.

I would feel the need:

Very true

Very untrue

To feel safe 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To get away from the perpetrator 6 7		1	2	3	4	5
To talk to someone 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To be believed 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To be respected 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To be supported by friends and family 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To make a formal report 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To get justice 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To confront the perpetrator 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To get an apology from the perpetrator 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
For things to go back to normal 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To express myself 6 7		1	2	3	4	5
To be understood 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To be in control 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To feel less powerless 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To make decisions for myself 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To show that I was capable 6 7		1	2	3	4	5
To feel accepted by others 6 7		1	2	3	4	5
To feel part of a community 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To know that there were others who cared about me 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To feel like my life mattered 7	1	2	3	4	5	6
To feel like my life had meaning 7	1	2	3	4	5	6

[End survey button]

5. People respond in many different ways to sexually harassing incidents. Some people prefer to do nothing, others will focus on one or two coping strategies, whereas others will take a range of actions. Also, what one does immediately after the incident can differ from what one does sometime later. Here we are interested in what you imagine you would do in the first period after the incident took place. Please read the following list of responses and tick all of those that describe how you think you would react **in the first period after the incident**:

[Check all that apply]

- I would not do anything about the incident
- I would not tell anyone about the incident
- I would inform the police
- I would make a formal complaint that did not directly involve the police (e.g., to the perpetrator's manager)
- I would speak to my doctor
- I would directly confront the perpetrator
- I would discuss the incident with friends and/or family
- I would seek professional emotional support (e.g. counselling)
- I would search for information and support online
- I would write about my experience online (e.g. in fora, on twitter, etc.)
- I would call a support helpline
- I would contact HR for advice (if it was workplace sexual harassment)
- I would speak to my professional union (if it was workplace sexual harassment)
- I would discuss the incident with a colleague (if it was workplace sexual harassment)
- Other: _____

[End survey button]

6. Thinking about the needs that you previously described you would have after experiencing sexual harassment, and about the immediate response you indicated in your answer to the previous question, to what extent do you think that your responses would meet your needs? My response would meet my need:

Each item from needs scale; 1 = Disagree completely – 7= Agree completely, 8=N/A – I would not have this need

[End survey button]

7. If you had experienced a sexually harassing event sometime in the past, how do you think you would feel right now as you reflect back on that?

1= strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree

Angry	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Regretful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Numb	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Worried about something similar happening again	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Concerned about others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Fine	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Interested	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Distressed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Excited	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Upset	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Scared	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Hostile	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enthusiastic		1	2	3	4	5	6
7							
Proud	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Irritable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Alert	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Ashamed	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Inspired	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Nervous	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Determined		1	2	3	4	5	6
7							
Attentive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Tense	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Active	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Afraid	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

[End survey button]

8. Please indicate for each of the statements below the degree to which you think this change would have occurred in your life as a result of experiencing a sexually harassing incident, using the following scale.

0 = I would not experience this change as a result of the incident.

1 = I would experience this change to a very small degree as a result of the incident.

2 = I would experience this change to a small degree as a result of the incident.

3 = I would experience this change to a moderate degree as a result of the incident.

4 = I would experience this change to a great degree as a result of the incident.

5 = I would experience this change to a very great degree as a result of the incident

1. I would change my priorities about what is important in life.
2. I would have a greater appreciation for the value of my own life.
3. I would have developed new interests.
4. I would have a greater feeling of self-reliance.
5. I would have a better understanding of spiritual matters.
6. I would more clearly see that I can count on people in times of trouble.
7. I would have established a new path for my life.
8. I would have a greater sense of closeness with others.
9. I would be more willing to express my emotions.
10. I would know better that I can handle difficulties.
11. I would be able to do better things with my life.
12. I would be better able to accept the way things work out.
13. I would better appreciate each day.
14. New opportunities would be available which wouldn't have been otherwise.
15. I would have more compassion for others.
16. I would put more effort into my relationships.
17. I would be more likely to try to change things which need changing.
18. I would have a stronger religious faith.
19. I would have discovered that I'm stronger than I thought I was.
20. I would have learned a great deal about how wonderful people are.
21. I would better accept needing others.

[End survey button]

9. The previous questions were hypothetical and asked how you think you would feel if you had been sexually harassed. For the next questions, please focus on **how you actually feel right now** – not how you would feel if you had been sexually harassed in the past.

Next we would like to get a sense of the kind of person you are. Everybody is different, and everybody responds to things in different ways. The first thing we would like to know about is how you experience emotions *in general* (i.e., not specifically in relation to the incident we previously asked about). Please rate how much each of the statements describes your tendencies when it comes to experiencing emotions.

- 1 = Not at all typical of me
- 2 = A little typical of me
- 3 = Somewhat typical of me
- 4 = Very typical of me
- 5 = Entirely typical of me

1. I am able to feel a wide range of emotions (e.g., happiness, sadness, anger, and fear).
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4. I become angry when someone has done something to hurt me.

5. Even after a significant loss, I don't have feelings of sadness.
6. If a loved one was in danger, I would be scared.
7. The death of a loved one would deeply affect me.
8. I get angry if someone threatens me.
9. I feel cut off from my emotions.
10. Certain movies can make me feel sad.
11. In situations when other people have strong emotional responses, I don't feel anything at all.
12. There are certain emotions that I cannot feel.
13. I think of myself as a very emotional person.
14. I have a hard time feeling close to people, even my friends or family.
15. I feel like I am emotionally numb.
16. I feel afraid when I am in dangerous situations.
17. I get really annoyed when someone hassles me.
18. I cannot feel sadness.
19. Losing an important relationship would make me feel sad.
20. I get angry if I don't get something I really want and deserve.
21. I would be afraid if I was being threatened.
22. I feel sad when I am separated from someone I care about.
23. I don't get angry.
24. There are some negative emotions that I rarely feel even when there is reason to feel them.
25. Hearing stories of other people losing a loved one makes me feel sad.
26. I feel somewhat nervous in new, unfamiliar situations.
27. I feel sad when things turn out badly.
28. I get annoyed when I am insulted.
29. It is very hard to push my buttons.
30. When someone insults me, I feel hurt.
31. I have a hard time feeling angry, even when there are reasons for me to feel that way.
32. I feel sad when I don't get something I really want and deserve.
33. I feel tense when I watch suspenseful movies.
34. I get angry if someone criticizes me.
35. I feel scared when I think I may be hurt or harmed in some way.
36. I feel sad when someone does something to hurt me.

[End survey button]

10. Now we would like to know a bit more about how you feel about your life right now, *in general*. To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree

- I feel satisfied with my life
- I feel that in most ways my life is close to ideal
- I feel that the conditions in my life are excellent
- I feel satisfied with myself
- I feel that I have a number of good qualities

I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others I feel that I do not have much to be proud of

I feel that I am no good at all

I feel satisfied with my social relationships I feel that I am not alone

I feel that people are basically good and trustworthy I feel that I have a lot in common with other people I feel optimistic about my future.

Overall, I expect more good things to happen to me than bad. I do not expect things to go my way.

[End survey button]

11. Do you have any comments, thoughts or concerns you'd like to share? Is there anything you would like to add, that has not been covered by the survey?

[Open text box] [End survey button]

12. Finally, please provide some demographical information about yourself:

What is your age?

- 18-24
- 25-34
- 35-44
- 45-54
- 55-64
- 65-74
- 75+

What is your nationality? _____ Your Prolific

Academic ID _____