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"You're Looking Good": Compliment or Harassment?

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ABSTRACT

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Whether an individual perceives an appearance compliment in the workplace as sexual harassment may depend on a number of factors such as the gender and/or status of the complimenter. Three hundred eighty-three (130 males, 253 females) participants completed an online survey in which they read and rated six different hypothetical vignettes imagining themselves as the recipient of an appearance compliment from a male superior, subordinate, and peer, as well as a female in each of those three status positions. Participants also filled out the Big Five Inventory (BFI; see John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008) in order to assess how personality may influence harassment perceptions. Females perceived opposite-sex appearance compliments as more harassing than males did ($p < .001$, $d = 1.33$), and males perceived same-sex compliments as more harassing than females did ($p < .001$, $d = 0.85$). Appearance compliments from those in the three status positions were also perceived differently ($p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .29$) with compliments from superiors perceived as more harassing than from peers ($p < .001$) and subordinates ($p < .001$), and subordinates perceived as more harassing than peers ($p < .001$). Three of the Big Five personality factors (Conscientiousness, $b = 9.93$, $p < .001$; Neuroticism, $b = 9.46$, $p < .001$; and Openness, $b = -5.04$, $p = .04$) were predictive of harassment perceptions ($R^2 = .087$, $p < .001$). Based on these findings, it is recommended that males and those in superior status positions avoid giving appearance compliments in the workplace.

Keywords*:* compliments, sexual harassment, gender, status, personality

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There is nothing uncommon about the use of compliments in American society. Compliments are used in everyday interactions in interpersonal relationships (Doohan & Manusov, 2004), in everyday language, and are highly valued (Knapp, Hopper, & Bell, 1984). In fact, according to Wolfson (1983), for native English-speakers, complimenting is intuitive and second nature. Some people, however, express embarrassment (Herbert & Straight, 1989) or feel uncomfortable when given a compliment (Herbert, 1989; Herbert & Straight, 1989) and in some cases "the complimenter's motives are suspect" (Knapp et al., 1984, p. 23; see also Herbert, 1990). Holmes (1988) states that complimenting another's appearance in cross-sex compliment interactions may "presume an intimacy which could be regarded as inappropriate" (p. 456; see also Lewandowska-Tomaszczyk, 1989), whereas compliments on ability seem justified in a wide variety of circumstances.

Recent controversy over President Barack Obama's compliment of California attorney general Kamala Harris' looks shows that the issue of whether appearance compliments are harassing is still up for debate (Italie, 2013). Parisi and Wogan (2006) state that compliments can easily slide into flirtation, sexual interest, or sexual harassment. In fact, Browne (2004) states "that even 'well-intentioned compliments' may constitute harassment" (p. 399, as cited in Pickerill, Jackson, & Newman, 2006, p. 388; see also Linenberger, 1983). If a social-sexual message is perceived as desirable, then it is flirtatious, but if it is unwanted, then it is perceived as harassment. Therefore, an assessment of whether a behavior is harassing or not depends on whether the target finds the behavior welcome (e.g., acceptable or flattering) or unwelcome (Solomon & Williams, 1997a). "One person's compliment may be another person's offensive remark" (Farr, 2000, p. 13; see also Garlick, 1994). Parisi and Wogan suggest that future

researchers study the overlap of sexual harassment and flirtatious behaviors and people's attitudes concerning flirtation and compliment behaviors, which this study addresses.

A problem can occur in compliment interaction because lines can get blurred. Some compliments are obligatory, but may serve a dual purpose (e.g., the person could be giving an obligated compliment and flirting at the same time). This complexity in compliment interaction can help the complimenter get out of an awkward situation if the compliment is rejected or taken as a flirtation because the person can say that they did not mean the compliment to be flirtatious or could say that they were merely joking (Parisi & Wogan, 2006). The situation can become even more complex because a person could generally believe compliments are positive and appropriate, but feel uncomfortable when receiving the compliment in certain relationship contexts (Garlick, 1994). Gutek, Nakamura, Gahart, Handschumacher, and Russell (1980) suggest that some behaviors, "particularly complimentary comments or remarks of a sexual nature" (p. 265), may be ego-enhancing at some times to both males and females, so it is apparent that complimenting the opposite sex can have positive (e.g., make the recipient feel good) or negative (e.g., sexual harassment) ramifications.

Part of the problem in assessing sexual harassment has to do with the confusion over what the definition of sexual harassment is, especially hostile environment sexual harassment (Paludi, 1997; see also Fitzgerald, Swan, & Magley, 1997; Golden, Johnson, & Lopez, 2001; Gutek, 1985; Terpstra & Baker, 1986). McCann and McGinn (1992) cite a portion of the EEOC (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission; 1980) guidelines as follows:

> Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when...such conduct has the

> purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment. (p. 67)

This particular guideline refers to hostile environment harassment. According to Rotundo, Nguyen, & Sackett (2001), the courts recognize two types of harassment: quid pro quo and hostile work environment. Quid pro quo harassment "involves sexual conduct combined with the granting or denial of employment benefits" and hostile work environment harassment means that "the behavior in question is severe enough to alter conditions of employment and create an abusive working environment" (p. 915). Researchers often agree on what constitutes blatant sexual harassment, but do not always agree on what constitutes less severe forms and ambiguous forms of what may be considered sexual harassment (McCabe & Hardman, 2005). This study focuses on hostile environment harassment. Hostile environment harassment (which is more prevalent than *quid pro quo* harassment) does not require a power differential between two individuals (Charney & Russell, 1994). Individuals' definitions of harassment play a large role in how people view and respond to sexually oriented behavior and whether it is harassing or not because of the EEOC's vague definition (Powell, 1986).

This disagreement on a universally accepted definition of harassment helps explain why some people consider some behaviors harassing while others may not consider them to be so (Foulis & McCabe, 1997; Johnson, Stockdale, & Saal, 1991; Thacker & Gohmann, 1993). For example, complimenting a person on his or her appearance could be considered kind by one individual and inappropriate and harassing by another (Garlick, 1994; see also Gutek et al., 1980). Icenogle, Eagle, Ahmad, and Hanks (2002) state that if a compliment about dress or

appearance is perceived as harassing, such a comment would fall under the category of a hostile work environment.[1]

As compliments are likely considered a mild form of harassment (or may not even be considered harassing at all), harassment from compliments alone may not warrant legal action (see Risser, 2000). For example, in the case *Speedwaysuperamerica, LLC v. Dupont* 2005 WL 1537247 (Fla.App. 5 Dist.), a female employee sued for comments made by a male coworker regarding her appearance and won the case, according to a 2005 issue of *Fair Employment Practices Guidelines*. However, an appellate court overturned the ruling saying that such flirtatious compliments are not harassing and do not create a hostile working environment. The Florida court said a man can compliment a woman's looks or a woman can compliment a man's looks without the fear of being guilty of sexual harassment ("'Compliments Delivered in a Flirtatious Manner,'" 2005). It is also interesting to note that there appears to be a minor tone change in the *Fair Employment Practices Guidelines* because in 2001, an issue stated that something as seemingly small as unwarranted compliments should not be ignored ("'Just Staring' Could be Harassment," 2001).

Similarly, an article in *Supervisory Management* (1994) states that compliments in general should be considered safe (e.g., you could tell a woman you like her shoes). The article mentions a case in which a woman sued for sexual harassment on the basis of a supervisor asking too many personal questions, but the woman did not win because the court found that the man's compliments (e.g., he complimented her earrings) were not sexual. However, the article warns that these situations still cost companies time in court, so one should be careful in using compliments ("Compliments Aren't Harassment," 1994, para. 1-2).

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[1] Icenogle et al. (2002) are referring to a potential sexual harassment item that appears to have been initially used by Petrocelli and Repa (1995).

As the above cases demonstrate, some compliment situations may not warrant legal action, but Fitzgerald et al. (1997) point out that although behaviors would have to be labeled as harassment at some point in order to merit legal action, the experience does not have to be labeled as harassment to be stressful, offensive, or have negative consequences. It is important to see where there is overlap and where there are differences between legal definitions of harassment and psychological experiences of harassment and the implications of each (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; see also Cohen & Gutek, 1985; Terpstra & Baker, 1986). "How any specific experience is categorized depends on how the recipient perceived the experience. The emphasis here is less on the objective behavior and more on the subjective experience of that behavior" (Gutek et al., 1980, p. 257; see also York, 1989). The current study assesses the psychological experience of compliments because it is more likely that with such a mild form of harassment, it may not be a legal issue; and, legal issue or not, the target may experience psychological discomfort.

Some non-empirical work has addressed the issue of compliments and sexual harassment. Perry (1996) says that constant compliments are likely minor and may only warrant informing a supervisor that constantly complimenting may not be a wise decision. Yet, Crawford (1993) states that "a casual compliment could be a career-limiting move" (para. 5), and that in some cases, telling a person he or she looks nice may not be harassment, but such a compliment may be crossing the line if complimenting shapeliness rather than ability. Eyres (2004) says that telling someone that they look nice in an outfit is an appropriate compliment, but telling someone "'Great skirt. It shows off your legs'" (p. 1) or includes body language or tone that is sexual (e.g., a drawn out word such as "'niiiiiiiice….'"; pp. 1-2) crosses the line. In fact, communications consultant Jacqueline Dunckel recommends that one avoid making comments

about another person's physical beauty in the workplace (*Ms. Manners' Survival Guide*, 1993) and Bennett-Alexander (1991) suggests that employees can compliment others, but the compliment should not contain any sexual suggestion or innuendo (for other non-empirical work on this topic, see Taylor, 2009; "What Constitutes 'Harassment,'" 2008).

From an empirical standpoint, the literature is fairly limited in addressing compliment behavior in regard to harassment specifically, but some articles do address this topic to some degree. For example, Cook et al. (1996) found that over 90% of those in residency training experienced sexual harassment and that unwanted compliments about their body or figure were one of the most common types of harassment. Kissling and Kramarae (1991) found that some people feel that women should take street remarks or whistles from strangers as compliments, but others view these types of remarks/whistling as types of verbal hostility or harassment (see also Holmes, 2003).

Barr (1993) states that continuous complimenting on appearance is a mild form of harassment and Fitzgerald et al. (1997) state that unwanted sexual attention could range from persistent and annoying compliments to more severe forms such as stalking or assault. In a study of sexual harassment on campus, Rossi and Weber-Burdin (1983) found certain comments to be judged as inappropriate in a male professor/female student interaction and Brewer (1982) states that compliments and requests for dates are flirtatious behavior. In addition, Gutek, Morasch, and Cohen (1983) mention that a comment about someone's work should be more appropriate than a comment about one's appearance and that women would rather have personal comments and touching left out of the work environment, especially from male supervisors. (For other empirical examples/books that address compliment behavior and sexual harassment, see Cohen & Gutek, 1985; Farley, 1979; Garlick, 1994; Gutek, 1985; Gutek & Morasch, 1982; Hendrix,

Rueb, & Steel, 1998; Icenogle et al., 2002; Jones & Remland, 1992; Knapp et al., 1984; Kneeshaw, 1997; McCann & McGinn, 1992; Nielsen, 1996; Petrocelli & Repa, 1995, as cited in Icenogle et al., 2002; Madson & Shoda, 2002; Pryor, 1985; Saal, Johnson, and Weber, 1989.) Also, some research has investigated how complimentary certain actions are, such as kissing someone despite his or her initial denial of such an advance (e.g., Semonsky & Rosenfeld, 1994), but these types of actions address whether the behavior is considered complimentary, not whether a compliment is considered harassing.

In citing this empirical research, one may notice that not only are the amount of studies relatively limited (i.e., there are very few studies for thirty years-worth of research), but many of the studies concerning the overlap of sexual harassment and compliment behavior are dated. The topic warrants further investigation because of the changes in people's perceptions that generally occur over time (e.g., there may have been a more liberal tone in the workplace regarding these interactions than there is now). In fact, Sherry Silva, a director at a business that provides online harassment training, mentions that some people may be surprised that what may have been considered a compliment twenty years ago (e.g., whistling) and was acceptable may no longer be acceptable (Winkelmann, 2005). Additionally, most, if not all, of the research concerning this topic does not identify compliment behavior and its harassing potential as the researchers' sole focus of investigation, something this study intends to contribute to the literature.

In examining this overlap of appearance compliments and sexual harassment, a number of factors need to be examined in order to more fully delve into the topic. Tata (1993) concludes that perceptions of harassment are indeed affected by the type of harassing behavior, gender, and relative status of the actor and the target in minor types of harassment. Hence, it seems most fruitful to study both gender and status differences on perceptions of compliments because the

so-called minor types of harassment seem to have less agreement in the literature (see Icenogle et al., 2002; McCabe & Hardman, 2005; Thacker & Gohmann, 1993). Also, it appears that two of the most common variables studied in the sexual harassment literature and the compliment literature are those of gender and status, so those variables seem the most important to examine. Thus, this study investigates gender differences, status differences, and the interaction of these two factors (e.g., a male superior complimenting a female subordinate compared with a female superior complimenting a male subordinate). Each of these factors will be addressed in turn.

Gender Differences

Compliments

Women give compliments more often than men (Herbert, 1990; Holmes, 1988; Wolfson, 1983) and receive compliments more often than men (Holmes, 1988; Wolfson, 1983). Knapp et al. (1984) found that 60% of compliments are given between members of the same sex. These researchers also discovered that females are more likely to compliment another female than a male, while males are equally likely to compliment either a male or a female. According to Knapp et al., this discovery makes females as responsible as males for the continuing focus and emphasis on appearance/attire for females in American society. In the same study, the researchers also found that females were more likely to receive appearance compliments than males, while performance and personality compliment reception was basically even between the sexes (see also Wolfson, 1983). Parisi and Wogan (2006) found that males gave females more compliments on appearance versus skill, whereas females gave males more compliments on skill versus appearance.

Compliments received from the opposite sex are valued more than compliments received from a person of the same sex (Turner & Edgley, 1974), but women's and men's use of and

interpretations of compliments likely differ (Holmes, 1988). There is a possibility that men and women often give women more compliments because it is believed that women value them more than men (Holmes, 2003). When examining different ways in which compliments are interpreted, the sex of the addressee must be taken into account (Johnson & Roen, 1992). If women perceive compliments as ways to establish rapport, this may explain why women use compliments more often than men. If men feel that compliments are negative face-threatening acts, this may explain why men use them less frequently than women (Holmes, 2003), suggesting that male compliments are outside the norm and thus may be more likely to be considered harassing.

Same-gender compliments. The current study also investigates how appearance compliments from another person of the same sex are perceived. Women may compliment other women on appearance, and men may compliment other men on appearance. Holmes (2003) states that appearance compliments may embarrass men and Wolfson (1983) says that males rarely ever receive appearance compliments. Wolfson (1983) also mentions that women frequently receive compliments from other women (see also Holmes, 1988). Holmes (1988) believes that women use compliments as positive politeness strategies while men may view them as face-threatening acts. These differing perceptions from same-gender compliments may translate into perceived harassment for men, but not women. With some of the gender differences in compliment behavior established, attention can now be turned to gender differences in the sexual harassment literature.

Sexual Harassment

"Perhaps the most consistent finding in the SH [sexual harassment] literature is that male and female research participants often differ in their perceptions of what is and what is not SH"

(Wayne, Riordan, & Thomas, 2001, p. 180; see also Charney & Russell, 1994; Hendrix et al., 1998; Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982). An individual's sex is the most influential predictor in predicting harassment (Jackson & Newman, 2004). Tata (1993) feels it is important that both gender's perspectives be taken into account when assessing harassment situations. Gender differences appear to be larger in hostile work environment scenarios than quid pro quo scenarios (Rotundo et al., 2001). Hendrix et al. (1998) believe that more education on the subject of sexual harassment and the gender differences in perceptions of what constitutes harassment may help men have a better understanding of what women might consider offensive. In addition, these researchers believe that this understanding also may help women "realize some behaviors have a benign intent and therefore [women may be able to] take less offense" (p. 248). Clearly, appearance compliments may not have a hostile intent.

Frequency and perceptions. The lay person feels sexual harassment is a male behavior (Pryor, 1985) and it is the case that men are most frequently the initiators of sexual harassment (Charney & Russell, 1994; Foulis & McCabe, 1997; Saal et al., 1989; Tangri et al., 1982) and women are more likely to be victims (Benson & Thomson, 1982; Blumenthal, 1998; Garlick, 1994; Gutek, 1985; Jackson & Newman, 2004; Phillips & Schneider, 1993; Reilly, Lott, & Gallogly, 1986; Saal et al., 1989; Tangri et al., 1982). However, it is important to note that perpetrators or victims could be men or women (Charney & Russell, 1994; see also Collins & Blodgett, 1981; Dziech and Weiner, 1984; Reilly et al., 1986). Not only are there gender differences in the frequency of harassment, but there are also gender differences in definitions and perceptions of harassment.

Women are more likely than men to define and/or perceive behaviors as sexual harassment (see Adams, Kottke, & Padgitt, 1983; Golden et al., 2001; Gutek, 1985; Gutek et al.,

1983; Gutek et al., 1980; Hendrix et al., 1998; Jones & Remland, 1992; LaRocca & Kromrey, 1999; Marks & Nelson, 1993; Mazer & Percival, 1989; Powell, 1986; Padgitt & Padgitt, 1986; Rotundo et al., 2001; Tata, 1993). It has been suggested that the difference between men's and women's ratings may be due to the differing amounts of sexual behavior directed toward them, so women may be more likely to view actions as harassment (Powell, 1986). Kenig and Ryan (1986) suggest that women have lower levels of tolerance for harassment (see also Foulis & McCabe, 1997; Mazer & Percival, 1989; McCabe & Hardman, 2005; Reilly et al., 1986; Tangri et al., 1982) and thus define more behaviors as harassing, and that this may also come from women often being the victims, so they are more sensitive to the issue. Men, on the other hand, may feel threatened that their behaviors are viewed as harassment and that they are more likely to be seen as perpetrators; therefore, they may be less likely to define certain behaviors as harassing. Additionally, participants rate differently depending on the gender of the perpetrator and/or victim suggesting that there may be a double standard in harassment perception, a topic that will now be addressed.

Double standard. There is a possibility that with the exact same compliment given in the exact same scenario, a male will be viewed as more harassing than a female. McCann and McGinn (1992) provide an interesting discussion of how women cannot engage in similar behaviors as men because if they wish for harassment to stop, they must not engage in the same behaviors; otherwise, they are promoting a double standard. McCann and McGinn also mention that men are protected by the law and that men should be protected from women's harassing behaviors.

In focus groups with men and women, Serini, Toth, Wright, and Emig (1998) found that women discussed subtle forms of gender discrimination in the context of sexual harassment such

as when men speak to men about work, but to women about physical characteristics such as complimenting them on their hair or clothing. Some men have said that they have to be more careful with some of their previous behaviors such as complimenting, and that the appropriateness of such behaviors differs from woman to woman and from man to man. Men mentioned that what some men see as flirtation and flattery, women would see as harassment and that women can say and do things that men cannot because if men did those things, women would feel harassed. It is possible that a double standard exists because the threat to women may possibly be larger than the threat to men. Harassment might have more negative consequences on women's lives than men's lives (Mazer & Percival, 1989). Keeping these things in mind, some of the results from research regarding a possible double standard will now be explored.

In a study that involved an organization in which training on harassment was given, all participants were much more likely to perceive behaviors as harassing if the event involved a man harassing a woman than vice versa (McCabe & Hardman, 2005; see also Hendrix et al., 1998; LaRocca & Kromrey, 1999). Also, there is a tendency for observers to be more likely to perceive a situation as harassing when a woman is the target of social-sexual communication rather than a man (Solomon & Williams, 1997b). In addition, other researchers have found that even men are more tolerant of a female violator than a male violator (Margolin, 1990; see also Katz, Hannon, & Whitten, 1996).

LaRocca and Kromrey (1999) suggest that perhaps female perpetrator's actions are more likely "to be misinterpreted as harmless flirtation" (p. 938). Jones and Remland (1992) found that observers were more likely to perceive a female professor's "harassing" behaviors toward a male student as caring or comforting rather than harassing, as opposed to a male professor's "harassing" behaviors toward a female student. These researchers did not find differences in

raters' perceptions of the target gender alone; therefore, it appears the harasser's gender may play a larger role in perceptions than target gender. A possible explanation for this finding is that perhaps, among other reasons, it seems less likely that one would imagine a female professor guilty of harassing a male student, unless the scenario was something blatant (Jones & Remland, 1992; see also Katz et al., 1996).

Coercive sexual harassment acts (e.g., uninvited genital touch) are considered more harmful when initiated by a man directed toward a woman than the exact same act when initiated by a woman directed toward a man (see Struckman-Johnson & Struckman-Johnson, 1993). If coercive acts, which have generally been shown to be considered harassing by males and females, are viewed as more harmful when initiated by a man than by a woman, it seems all the more likely that a less blatant type of act such as an appearance compliment will seem more harassing coming from a man than a woman and also be considered more harassing by women than by men. In addition, an appearance compliment is more ambiguous than coercive acts, and ambiguous situations have been shown to have gender differences in perception with women more likely to perceive ambiguous acts as harassing (see Adams et al., 1983; Kenig & Ryan, 1986; LaRocca & Kromrey, 1999; Rotundo et al., 2001; Tata, 1993).

In some instances, ambiguous behaviors (e.g., smiling, inviting an opposite sex person to one's apartment) that are intended to be merely friendly are misconstrued as flirtation. Men may view these situations as positive, ego-enhancing experiences, whereas women often view the experience more negatively, which could account for gender differences in reactions to such experiences (Abbey, 1987). That is, since men are flattered by such behaviors, they may expect women to be flattered by the same behaviors, and since women are offended by some of these

behaviors, they may "expect men to [also] be offended (when misperceived) or apologetic (when the misperceiver)" (Abbey, 1987, p. 191).

Same-gender harassment. Dziech and Weiner (1984) state that same-sex harassment does occur. Wayne et al. (2001) investigated cases in which male and female mock jurors rated hostile environment scenarios and examined both cross-gender and same-gender scenarios. Wayne et al. found that participants, regardless of their gender, viewed the same situation more negatively in same-gender scenarios than cross-gender scenarios. The researchers did not find their hypothesized prediction that participants would give more guilty verdicts and more negative perception ratings in the male-male scenarios than the female-female scenarios. However, they did find a predicted difference in that participants were more likely to give a larger monetary reward to those in a male-male scenario than a female-female scenario.

Hypothesis 1. Based on the aforementioned research – that men view ambiguous behaviors from the opposite sex more positively than women (Abbey, 1987), that women are more likely to define and/or perceive behaviors as sexual harassment (e.g., see Rotundo et al., 2001; Tata, 1993), that men are most frequently the initiators of sexual harassment (Foulis & McCabe, 1997) and women are more likely to be the victims (Jackson & Newman, 2004) – it is hypothesized that females will rate appearance compliments from men as more harassing than males will rate appearance compliments from women (Hypothesis 1a). In addition to those research findings, and because women frequently receive compliments from other women (Wolfson, 1983) and give compliments more often than men (Herbert, 1990), because Wayne et al. (2001) found that participants gave a larger monetary reward to those in a male-male scenario than a female-female scenario , and because of Holmes' (2003) belief that appearance compliments may embarrass men, it is hypothesized that appearance compliments in male-male

situations will be perceived as more harassing than appearance compliments in female-female situations (Hypothesis 1b), that males will perceive same-gender appearance compliments as more harassing than cross-gender ones (Hypothesis 1c), and that females will perceive cross-gender appearance compliments as more harassing than same-gender ones (Hypothesis 1d). Having established the gender differences in both compliment and sexual harassment behavior, attention can now be turned to another important aspect of the context of compliment behavior and sexual harassment: status.

Status Differences

Compliments

Holmes (1988) states that appearance compliments are "perceived as most appropriate between those who know each other well" (p. 458). Compliments between those "equal" in status are given far more often than compliments given from those in higher status positions to lower status positions or vice versa (Holmes, 1986; see also Holmes, 1988; Wolfson, 1983). Knapp et al. (1984) discovered that compliments most often occur between those of same status, with the next most frequent occurrence of compliments coming from those in high status positions to those in low status positions, then from those of low status to those of high status (see also Holmes, 2003).

Compliments directed downward are twice as likely to be work-related than on appearance; however, "the reverse [is] the case both for status equals and for compliments upwards" (Holmes, 1986, p. 498; Holmes, 1988; see also Wolfson, 1983, pp. 91-92). Even though appearance compliments directed upward were more likely than similar compliments given to a subordinate, it seems that appearance compliments may be more appropriate between friends or status equals than between people of different statuses. Also, it may be the case that

appearance compliments directed upward are less taboo than appearance compliments directed downward because appearance compliments directed upward are more common than appearance compliments directed downward.

Holmes' (1988) research also found that, regardless of status, appearance compliments were given between women far more often than any other type of compliment. She states that since compliments, especially appearance compliments, are to help solidarity, a subordinate giving an appearance compliment to a person of higher-status may seem "presumptuous" to either higher status males or females (Holmes, 1988, p. 459; see also Holmes, 2003). As further illustration of this point, teachers in New Zealand reported feeling uncomfortable when overseas students complimented a teacher on his or her appearance (Holmes, 1986, p. 498). If appearance compliments are more common from status equals and from a low status person to a high status person, it seems that an appearance compliment from a high status person to a low status person would be more likely to be perceived as harassing because it is less common than the other situations. Also, if certain teachers felt uncomfortable receiving appearance compliments from students (a compliment directed upward), it seems that appearance compliments directed upward will be perceived as more harassing than appearance compliments given to a co-worker or co-student. Having discussed the status differences in the compliment literature, status differences in the sexual harassment literature will now be addressed.

Sexual Harassment

Rotundo et al. (2001) state that there are other factors at play besides merely gender as to what individuals believe to constitute sexually harassing behaviors. Phillips and Schneider (1993) state that telling someone that she is attractive may be a compliment if coming from a close friend, but may be the beginning of sexual harassment if spoken by a male employer to a

female applicant (p. 1936). Benson (1984) describes three types of power relations in sexual harassment: power sexual harassment, which occurs when the harasser has formal power over the victim; contrapower harassment in which the subordinate has formal power over the harasser; peer harassment, which occurs when the two parties have equal status. Therefore, all three status differences seem important to examine (see also Popovich, Licata, Nokovich, Martelli, & Zoloty, 1986).

Blumenthal (1998) found that non-legal scenarios increased the size of gender and status effects in one meta-analysis, and more recently conducted studies report larger gender differences than smaller ones, which is contrary to what one might expect with increased awareness of sexual harassment.[2] Blumenthal also mentions that there are fewer studies on status differences than gender. Therefore, it is important to continue an investigation of both gender and status differences in potential sexually harassing behaviors.

Two places where the most reported cases of sexual harassment occur are the workplace and academia (Saal et al., 1989). The workplace typically has a hierarchical organization, which gives "differential power and status on employees in different positions" (Jackson & Newman, 2004, p. 707) and usually has status equality as well (e.g., co-workers). Academia also presents status differential (e.g., professor and student) and status equality (e.g., co-student) situations. The reader should be advised that instructor-student scenarios can parallel those of employer-employee scenarios (Benson & Thomson, 1982). The status equals research will first be addressed, followed by a discussion of the status differential research.

Status equals. Those in authority are not the only ones who may make a working environment uncomfortable or a hostile environment—peers may do this as well (Mazer &

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[2] Blumenthal (1998) mentions that these larger differences were not found for status, but that this may have more to do with methodological differences rather than being a theoretical issue.

Percival, 1989). Co-workers are the most likely to harass (Pryor, 1987; Tangri et al., 1982) and most sexual advances at work are aimed at peers, not subordinates (Gutek, 1985), yet co-workers are the most tolerated perpetrators of harassment (Schneider, 1982). Although students are not exactly co-workers and student-to-student harassment may not meet the unequal power aspect of harassment, it is clear that some behaviors make students uncomfortable and produce a negative environment. While these instances of student-to-student harassment should be treated differently from faculty/staff-to-student harassment, they are an important component of harassment nonetheless (Mazer & Percival, 1989).

Workers likely need to understand better the potentially harassing behaviors that co-workers may exhibit (Icenogle et al., 2002). Since most perpetrators are co-workers and peers, this may be a way that men are trying to establish and/or maintain dominance because there is no actual power differential if the behavior is between co-workers or peers (Charney & Russell, 1994). Some organizations are not aware that they could be sued for co-worker sexual harassment and only train their supervisors to avoid harassment (Popovich et al., 1986), hence it is important to study co-worker harassment as well as power differential harassment.

Status differentials. Men, as well as women, consider higher status people initiating potential sexually harassing behaviors as inappropriate (Gutek et al., 1983). Sexual teasing, jokes, or remarks are viewed as more serious for both sexes when coming from a supervisor rather than a co-worker (Tangri et al., 1982; see also Rotundo et al., 2001). Even though a high status individual may not intend to be offensive, a low-status individual may perceive particular actions as harassment (Tata, 1993). Potentially harassing behaviors are not exhibited by supervisors nearly as often as co-workers, but these behaviors are more likely to be perceived as harassing if they come from a supervisor versus a co-worker (Popovich et al., 1986; see also

Collins & Blodgett, 1981; Dougherty, Turban, Olson, Dwyer, & Lapreze, 1996; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Gutek et al., 1983; Icenogle et al., 2002; Katz et al., 1996; Pryor, 1987; Solomon & Williams, 1997b; Tata, 1993), and high status initiators are viewed as more harassing than low status initiators (Solomon & Williams, 1997b).

A high-status initiator may use joking to explore what the target thinks or how the target responds, and if the target responds positively or complies, the high-status individual may view such a response as interpersonal attraction. However, the low-status person may perceive such an approach as an abuse of power (whether the initiator intended it to be or not), feel constrained, and fear some type of retaliation if he or she rejects the advance (Brewer, 1982). As mentioned earlier (see Parisi & Wogan, 2006), perhaps an individual may use an appearance compliment in an ambiguous (perhaps joking) manner to explore the situation.

In the workplace, low status employees are more vulnerable to harassment than those in high status positions (Jackson & Newman, 2004; see also Fain & Anderton, 1987). In academia, it is difficult to delineate between harassment and consensual relationships considering the unequal power issue between faculty and students (Adams et al., 1983). Harassment of students can cause them great stress and cause their work to suffer (Paludi, 1997).

Pryor (1985) found that people viewed behaviors as increasingly more harassing starting from a student's behavior and moving up in status toward a teaching assistant's behavior, then to a professor's behavior. Concerning harassment from staff and faculty, the most common forms of harassment were mild forms (Mazer & Percival, 1989). In some instances faculty may be overly friendly with their students or vice versa, which makes for ambiguous situations (Rowland, Crisler, & Cox, 1982). Dziech and Weiner (1984) believe professors should not

discuss clothing of their students or their physical traits. Appearance compliments, though mild, may be in the realm of overly friendly behaviors.

In a study by Benson and Thomson (1982) concerning female students and male professors, these researchers found that "attention and friendliness obviously unwarranted by [a] particular teacher-student relationship were recognized as reflecting sexual and not academic interest" (p. 243), and "the problem of sexual harassment on campus is significant because of the specific - and at times highly ambiguous - manner in which the formal teacher-student relationship overlaps with the pursuit of sexual interest" (p. 247). These researchers also found that people are more accepting than they used to be of casual relations of instructor-student and even intimate relations. Keep in mind though that this study is from 1982, so there is a possibility that with current academic policies, this type of interaction may be more taboo than it once was. On the flip-side, certain behaviors from students could make professors feel uncomfortable as well, and, even though professors have the power of grade deduction, the student could have the power of affecting whether the professor can keep his or her job (somewhat relating to the contrapower harassment mentioned earlier by Benson [1984] regarding students giving formal, anonymous teacher evaluations).

Hypothesis 2. Based on the aforementioned research – that compliments between those "equal" in status are given far more often than compliments given from those in higher status positions to lower status positions or vice versa (Holmes, 1986); that sexual teasing, jokes, or remarks are viewed as more serious for both sexes when coming from a supervisor rather than a co-worker (Tangri et al., 1982); and that potentially harassing behaviors are not exhibited by supervisors nearly as often as co-workers, but that these behaviors are more likely to be perceived as harassing if they come from a supervisor versus a co-worker (Popovich et al., 1986)

– it is hypothesized that participants will rate the compliments given in status differential situations as more harassing than compliments given in equal status scenarios (Hypothesis 2a). It is also hypothesized participants will rate the compliments given from one of higher status as more harassing than compliments given from one of lower status (Hypothesis 2b) because high status initiators are viewed as more harassing than low status initiators (Solomon & Williams, 1997b). In looking at gender differences and power differentials, it does seem important to investigate the interaction of these two variables as there are likely differences regarding a male in a supervisory role complimenting a female in a subordinate role and a female in a supervisory role complimenting a male in a subordinate role among other gender/status interaction scenarios. The interaction of gender and status differences in both compliment and sexual harassment behaviors is the final topic that will be addressed.

Interaction of Gender and Status

Compliments

Holmes (1988) states that the status and sex of participants need to be taken into account when studying compliments. Holmes (2003) mentions that Wolfson's (1983) and Knapp et al.'s (1984) findings that superiors give more compliments to subordinates rather than vice versa is likely in line with women receiving more compliments than men because women are often in subordinate roles. However, Holmes (2003) states that neither Wolfson's (1983) nor Knapp et al.'s (1984) studies directly examined the interaction of gender and status.[3]

It is important to note that people of different statuses, especially cross-sex pairs, are less likely to compliment each other on appearance, and it is even less likely for men to compliment

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[3] Indeed, Knapp et al.'s (1984) study does not directly address this interaction; however, a review of Wolfson (1983) shows that Wolfson does at least address status as an "intervening variable" (p. 92) with regard to sex differences in compliment giving and receiving, noting that women are more likely to have an inferior status to men in workplace interactions in the U.S.

other males or females if there are status differences than for females to compliment either sex (Holmes, 1988). Therefore, it seems that these cross-sex interactions will be viewed as more harassing if coming from a male to a female when there is a status differential because it is less common for males to compliment in these situations. However, this examination of the gender and status differences interaction gets more complicated when specific types of status differentials are taken into account (e.g., superior to subordinate).

Holmes (2003), citing her 1986 work, mentions that women in higher status positions were two times more likely to be complimented than men in higher status positions. Holmes (2003) goes on to say that while it may be the case that people in high status positions are less likely to receive compliments than people in low status positions, women in these higher status positions are still more likely to be complimented than men in these positions (this occurs regardless of the sex of the complimenter). In fact, men are more likely to compliment women in higher status positions than women are to compliment women in these superior positions (Holmes, 1988, 2003). Although it may be more common for women in high status positions to be complimented than men in these positions, the commonality may mean it just happens more often; it does not necessarily mean that a compliment to a female superior is perceived as any less harassing. Holmes (2003) states that it may be that women are typically viewed as socially subordinate, so female superiors are still more likely to be complimented, therefore sex apparently plays a larger role than status position (see also Holmes, 1986).

Regarding appearance compliments, women, regardless of status, receive appearance/possession compliments, but not men, especially if men are older or in a higher status position than the complimenter (Wolfson, 1984). Wolfson (1984) cites an example of a boss who tells his secretary that she looks pretty when she smiles and she should do it more, but found

no examples of men receiving these types of compliments. Another example she gives involves a male who interrupted a female professor's class, walked up to her and whispered how lovely she looked that day. Wolfson (1984) says these types of behaviors only make sense if one views attractiveness for women as something which is socially approved (pp. 242-243). The question still remains though as to how harassing some of these differing scenarios are perceived with regard to gender and status.

Sexual Harassment

Rowland et al. (1982) studied flirtatious behaviors between faculty and students. These researchers found that students may feel pressure to get good grades and flirting may be a mild action in order to achieve success. Males were more likely to believe flirting in a student/professor interaction was initiated by either a male student or a female professor. However, females were more focused on the female student/male instructor dyad "and tended to discount the role of the female instructor" (Rowland et al., 1982, p. 356), another reason women may view a male instructor compliment directed toward them as more harassing than males would a compliment from a female instructor.

Females are more likely than males to perceive behaviors as harassing if the behaviors are exhibited by a supervisor (Popovich et al., 1986) and more women than men are harassed by a superior (Tangri et al., 1982). More generally, females are more likely than males to perceive behaviors of a hostile work environment as harassing, regardless of whether the behavior comes from a supervisor or a co-worker (Thacker & Gohmann, 1993). It seems that the more vulnerable or powerless position a woman is in, those that are minorities in the workplace, are new to a job, or are not in supervisory positions are more likely to apply the label of sexual harassment to these less serious incidents (Schneider, 1982).

It is the case that people find relationships in the workplace appropriate if the two people are co-workers, or a teacher/student relationship may seem acceptable if a teacher does not have direct authority over a student, but women more than men interpret work relationships such as these as inappropriate (Kenig & Ryan, 1986). Also, there are significant differences among co-worker relationships and supervisor/subordinate relationships with women perceiving the romantic relationships as less appropriate than men. When there was no authority between interlocutors (e.g., co-workers), men and women disagreed the most, with women more likely than men to interpret behaviors as harassing (Kenig & Ryan, 1986). Also, there may be more gender differences in perceptions of sexual harassment when the two people involved are peers because men may believe the interaction is harmless, yet women may feel threatened (Rotundo et al., 2001).

Harassers often have some sort of power over the target, hence women are more vulnerable because males are more often in high status positions (Thacker & Gohmann, 1993). Sexual harassment is often thought of in terms of power differentials, and in university settings, this can result from male professors controlling the academic success of females (Rossi & Weber-Burdin, 1983). However, there is a call for investigating females harassing males as well because more women are now in high status positions (LaRocca & Kromrey, 1999). In fact, it appears that with students and staff, men harass women and women harass men (Mazer & Percival, 1989).

Hypothesis 3. Those in higher-status positions should watch for comments that might carry sexual overtones, such as comments about females' appearance from males, among other things (Thacker & Gohmann, 1993). Based on the aforementioned research – that people of different statuses, especially cross-sex pairs, are less likely to compliment each other on

appearance, and that it is even less likely for men to compliment other males or females if there are status differences than for females to compliment either sex (Holmes, 1988), that there are significant differences among co-worker relationships and supervisor/subordinate relationships with women perceiving the romantic relationships as less appropriate than men with men and women disagreeing the most in co-worker scenarios (Kenig & Ryan, 1986), and keeping in mind the literature from the previous "Gender" and "Status" hypotheses sections – it is hypothesized that females will rate a compliment from a male superior as more harassing than males will rate a compliment from a female superior (Hypothesis 3a), that females will rate a compliment from a male subordinate as more harassing than males will rate a compliment from a female subordinate (Hypothesis 3b), and that females will rate a compliment from a male of equal status as more harassing than males will rate a compliment from a female of equal status (Hypothesis 3c). For the same-gender appearance compliment situations, it is hypothesized that both males and females will rate a compliment from a same-gender superior as more harassing than a compliment from a subordinate or person of equal status (Hypothesis 3d) and will rate a compliment from a same-gender subordinate as more harassing than a compliment from a person of equal status (Hypothesis 3e).

This paper thus far has demonstrated the importance of gender and status differences in the compliment literature as well as the sexual harassment literature. In order to more fully understand whether appearance compliments are perceived as harassing in the current era, it is necessary to study these variables in compliment behavior in potentially harassing scenarios. While there may be other variables that need to be taken into account, these two variables seem more important to study than others in order to establish a baseline understanding of whether or not appearance compliments are viewed as harassing. While some previous studies have

investigated appearance compliments as harassing to some degree, the research is limited in scope, dated, and studying appearance compliments as potentially harassing remarks was not their sole focus, therefore it seems important to revisit the topic.

Method

Participants

Three hundred eighty-three (130 males, 253 females) participants fully completed the study. Participants ranged from ages 17-63 (M_{age} = 20.62). Three-hundred nineteen of the participants identified themselves as White/European American, 24 as Hispanic, 17 as Asian, and the remainder as either African American (5), Pacific Islander (5), Native American (2), or marked "Other" and identified their race (11). Three hundred thirty-two of the participants were single, while 51 were married, and 192 were currently employed, while 191 were not currently employed. Forty-three of the participants had never been employed, while 107 of the participants had been employed for five years or more. The remaining participants had been employed anywhere from one to four years. Three-hundred seventy-six participants identified their sexual orientation as heterosexual/straight, while two people identified themselves as homosexual/gay/lesbian, three as bisexual, one as "Other", and one said they did not know/were not sure.

Procedure

Participants were recruited from undergraduate psychology classes at Brigham Young University (BYU) and their participation was voluntary. Participants signed up to participate in the study through BYU's online research system (SONA) and were recruited via the SONA website and through announcements made in undergraduate psychology classes and by e-mail (see below; Appendix A). Participants who chose to come to a computer lab for participation

received either two dollars compensation, which was given to them in cash at the conclusion of their session, or course/extra credit. Whether course/extra credit was offered was left up to each individual professor. Participants who did not choose to come to the lab filled out the survey online and qualified only for course/extra credit, but did not qualify for the option of cash compensation. The study was hosted on the Qualtrics website.

Students were asked at the beginning of the study to indicate their consent to participate after reading through an online consent form (see below; Appendix B). After providing their consent, participants were given general instructions in which they were partially informed of the purpose of the study and what they would be asked to do, such as imagining themselves as the recipient of different compliments (see below; Appendix C1). Afterward, participants read through six hypothetical vignettes (see below; Appendix C2) and answered harassment rating items for each vignette (see below; Appendix C3). After making ratings of all six vignettes, participants filled out the Big Five Inventory (BFI; see John, Naumann, & Soto, 2008; see below; Appendices D1 and D2) and then answered some basic demographic questions (see below; Appendix E). At the conclusion of their participation, participants were debriefed (see below; Appendix F).

Measurement

Vignettes. Six hypothetical vignettes (see Appendix C2) were created in which an appearance compliment was given from a person of the participant's opposite sex in a high status, low status, and equal status position, and from a person of the participant's same sex in each of the three status positions (e.g., participants imagining themselves as employees complimented by a female manager, as students complimented by a fellow male student, as managers complimented by a female employee). Vignettes involved both academic settings and

workplace settings and all vignettes included information that indicated to participants that the compliment came from a person that they did not know very well. Different appearance compliments were used in each of the vignettes in order to mask the true intent of the study. Independent raters judged a number of appearance compliments without being given any contextual information surrounding the compliment (i.e., they were not told the gender or status of the complimenter). The six compliments ("That shirt fits you well", "You look really hot in those clothes", "I should shop where you shop so I can look as sexy as you do", "Those clothes fit your body very nicely", "That shirt and those jeans really enhance your shape", and "You're looking niiiiiiiice…") chosen for this study did not differ as to how complimentary they were perceived or how happy or sad they would make an individual feel if he or she were the recipient of such a compliment. Also, there were no gender differences or interaction effects (Gender x Compliment) among the six compliments on the aforementioned dimensions.

In addition, each vignette was paired with each compliment and counterbalanced using a digram-balanced Greco-Latin design (Lewis, 1993) to control for order effects as well as Compliment x Status of Male/Female Complimenter interactions. Participants were randomly assigned to one of the twelve different conditions/orders used in this design. This design was used because a 6x6 Greco-Latin square does not exist (see Klyve & Stemkoski, 2006) and there is precedent for its use in the literature (see Polkosky & Lewis, 2002). In this design, there are two Latin squares in which each vignette and compliment "appear exactly once in each row and column of each square, and each combination appears exactly twice over both squares", and, "across both squares, each [vignette] immediately precedes and follows each other [vignette] exactly twice, and each [compliment] immediately precedes and follows each other [compliment] exactly twice" (Lewis, 1993, p. 414).

Harassment rating items. The harassment rating items (see Appendix C3) included Likert-type scales ranging from 1-5 and a few categorical questions developed for this research. I developed items 1-10 (appropriateness, comfort level, offensiveness, interfere with work/classroom performance, intimidating, welcome, flattering, desire to receive remark in the future, hope that the situation never happens to them, how happy/sad they would feel receiving such a remark) using the legal definition of hostile work environment as a guide. Items 1-10 are known as the harassment rating scale in this research. Three items on the harassment rating scale, items 3 ("To what degree do you feel this remark is offensive?"), 5 ("How intimidating do you find this remark?"), and 9 ("Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statement: 'I hope that this situation never happens to me.'"), were reverse-scored.

Reliability. A reliability analysis of the harassment rating scale was conducted using Cronbach's alpha. Each of the six scenarios used the same ten-item harassment rating scale, and because each participant rated all six scenarios, Cronbach's alpha was independently measured for each of the scenarios. The six scales yielded good internal consistency reliabilities (see Table 1), thus the aggregate ratings of the scales were used as dependent variables in subsequent analyses, with higher ratings representing increased perceptions of harassment.[4]

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[4] A principal components factor analysis with varimax rotation was also employed for each of the six scales. Components were included only if they had eigenvalues greater than 1. The following results show the number of components for each scale with the variance that the component(s) explains in parentheses: male superior = 1 (52%); male peer = 2 (71%; but the second component with an eigenvalue of 1.099 only explains about 11% of the variance and the first component alone explains 60% of the variance); male subordinate = 2 (61%, but the second component with an eigenvalue of 1.306 only explains about 13% of the variance and the first component alone explains 48% of the variance); female superior = 1 (65%); female peer = 1 (64%); female subordinate = 1 (60%). For the two scales that yielded two components, the same two items (how intimidating the remark is perceived and how likely it is that the remark would interfere with work/classroom performance) each loaded on the second component. The aggregate ratings of the scales were used as dependent variables in subsequent analyses because most of the scales yielded only one component, the second component of the two scales that yielded two components only explained a minimal amount of the variance, and the six scales yielded good reliabilities.

Table 1

Harassment Rating Scales Reliabilities

	Participants		
Scenario Scale	All (α)	Males (α)	Females (α)
Male superior	.88	.89	.87
Male peer	.92	.91	.93
Male subordinate	.87	.88	.87
Female superior	.94	.91	.95
Female peer	.93	.90	.95
Female subordinate	.92	.92	.93

Other variables that were included in this research were questions about participant's perceptions of the hypothetical complimenter's attractiveness, sexual orientation, whether the participant desired to spend more time with the complimenter, whether a similar situation had ever happened to the participant, how acceptable the compliment would be had the participant known him or her for a long time, how flirtatious the compliment was, the complimenter's tone of voice, the complimenter's age, whether the complimenter was married, and how likely it was that the situation could actually occur to the participant. There were no hypotheses regarding these variables, but they were included in this study to see if they may warrant further investigation regarding appearance compliments and sexual harassment.

Big Five Inventory. Individual differences may play a role in how people perceive potentially harassing situations. Crow, Hartman, Hammond, and Fok (1995) investigated personality factors and their influence on one's sensitivity to harassment. These researchers state that, based on their results, personality factors may influence how sensitive individuals are as to

whether or not they perceive certain situations as harassing. Indeed, John et al. (2008) state that personality traits are important to examine because they influence how one construes and interprets particular situations. Crow et al. (1995) used Cattell's (1989, as cited in Crow et al., 1995) Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF), but in their conclusion they mention that using the "Big Five" personality factors may be a useful approach in investigating personality factors and perceptions of harassment as the Big Five were starting to receive psychological attention at the time. However, it does not appear since this time that many, if any, researchers have examined all Big Five factors and how they might pertain to a target's perception of potential sexual harassment situations. Therefore, the Big Five were included in this research as an exploratory measure of how predictive they may be of sexual harassment perception without making any specific predictions.

The Big Five personality factors are Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness. The following definitions for each factor come from John et al. (2008). Extraversion is partially defined as consisting of traits such as sociability and positive emotionality; Agreeableness refers to traits such as tender-mindedness and trusting; Conscientiousness is described as thinking before acting and following norms and rules; Neuroticism is a contrast between emotional stability and feelings of anxiety or nervousness; and Openness (or Openness to Experience) is partially defined as originality, and depth and breadth of life experiences.

There are a number of different Big Five personality scales in existence. Costa and McCrae (1992) published the 240-item NEO (standing for "Neuroticism", "Extraversion", and "Openness") Personality Inventory—Revised (NEO-PI-R; as cited in John et al., 2008, p. 125)

which measures all five personality factors. John et al. (2008) state that, "For many research applications, the NEO-PI-R is rather lengthy" (p. 125) and that

> Costa and McCrae (1989, 1992) developed the 60-item NEO-FFI [Five Factor Inventory], an abbreviated version based on an item-level factor analysis of the 1985 version of the NEO PI (Costa & McCrae, 1985)…The reliabilities (Costa & McCrae, 1992) are adequate, with a mean of .78, and the NEO-FFI scales are substantially correlated with the NEO-PI-R scales. (as cited in John et al., 2008, p. 125)

Another commonly used shortened personality measure is Goldberg's (1992) 100-item Trait Descriptive Adjectives (TDA) personality test and its shorter 40-item version (Saucier, 1994) which measures personality using single adjectives (both references as cited in John et al., 2008). A final example of a shortened version is the Big Five Inventory (BFI) which was constructed "(t)o address the need for a short instrument measuring the prototypical components of the Big Five that are common across investigators…(John, Donahue, & Kentle, 1991)" (John et al., 2008, p. 129). The BFI consists of 44 items (see Appendices D1 and D2 for the scale and scoring instructions). John et al. (2008) state that "the goal was to create a brief inventory that would allow efficient and flexible assessment of the five dimensions when there is no need for more differentiated measurement of individual facets" (p. 129; the facets refer to specific facets underlying each of the Big Five categories; for example, the facet of "anxiety" under the broad factor "Neuroticism"). The BFI scales are useful because they add clarifying information to some of the one-word trait adjectives while maintaining brevity, and in U.S. and Canadian samples, the reliabilities of the BFI average above .80 (John et al., 2008). In addition, "three-month test-retest reliabilities range from .80 to .90, with a mean of .85 (Rammstedt & John, 2005; 2007)" (John et al., 2008, p. 130). A reliability analysis for each of the five traits of the

BFI for the current study was conducted using Cronbach's alpha. This analysis showed the five traits (Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness) for this sample each yielded good internal consistency reliabilities (α = .88, .79, .80, .82, and .78, respectively).

When comparing the BFI with the NEO-FFI and the TDA, the overall mean internal consistency reliability for all five factors across the three personality measures was .83 and the overall mean of the corrected convergent validity correlations for all five factors across all three measures was .93 (John et al., 2008, p. 132). In addition, these three measures are not very susceptible to acquiescence (i.e., "yea-saying" or "nay-saying") effects, with an overall mean of the standardized convergent validity coefficients from confirmatory factor analysis for all five factors across all three measures equaling .91 (John et al., 2008). On average, the "BFI converged much better with both TDA and NEO-FFI than did TDA and NEO-FFI with each other" (John et al., 2008, p. 133), suggesting that the BFI correlates well with other Big Five instruments. Also, in looking at discriminant validity for all three measures, "discriminant correlations were low with absolute values averaging .19 overall and .16 for the TDA and .20 for both the NEO-FFI and the BFI" (John et al., 2008, p. 133) suggesting that any of these three measures are useful personality measures because of their effectiveness in distinguishing among the different personality factors. The BFI, however, was used in this study for reasons outlined below.

A clear reason to use the BFI was its efficiency as it only takes about five minutes compared to fifteen minutes for the NEO-FFI and the 100-item TDA (John et al., 2008). In addition, "the BFI items are shorter and easier to understand than the NEO-FFI items (Benet-Martinez & John, 1998; Soto et al., 2008)" and, while the 100 (or 40) TDA items are even

shorter than the BFI items, using one-word adjectives to describe a trait may be ambiguous (John et al., 2008, p. 137). John et al. (2008) suggest that the NEO-PI-R is most useful "when participant time is not at a premium, participants are well educated and test-savvy, and the research question calls for the assessment of multiple facets for the Big Five" (p. 137). However, this study did not seek to investigate in-depth facets of each of the Big Five personality domains, so the NEO-PI-R seemed less necessary. In addition, participants had already spent time answering questions for each of the six vignettes, so answering 240 more questions may result in fatigue (see Burisch, 1984, p. 219, as cited in John et al., 2008, p. 129), thus the BFI was a useful measure for the purposes of this research. Indeed, John et al. (2008) state that the Big Five seems to be a useful alternative that aims at the core attributes of the Big Five and "that is at least as efficient and easily understood as the 60-item NEO-FFI and the 100-item TDA" (p. 137). Also, John et al. (2008) make it clear that "The availability of so many different instruments to measure the Big Five makes clear that there is no single instrument that represents *the* gold standard" (emphasis original, p. 130), so it seemed reasonable in this research to use the BFI. Again, there were no direct hypotheses regarding these five personality factors, but they were included as an exploratory measure to see what role personality may play in perceptions of sexual harassment.

Results

Hypotheses

Before discussing the results of each hypothesis test, it is necessary to address the issue of multiple comparisons that were used in testing the directional hypotheses of this study. While it is understood that multiple comparisons can be problematic due to a concern of alpha inflation, previous researchers have argued that these multiple comparisons may not be as much of a

problem as some believe. In fact, Rothman (1990) does not believe that adjustments need to be made for multiple comparisons in most cases (see also Perneger, 1998). In addition, the analyses presented only include those for which directional hypotheses had been established a priori based on previous literature, thus limiting the amount of multiple comparisons employed and providing a rationale for each test that was conducted.

Hypothesis 1. In order to test Hypothesis 1a, that females will rate appearance compliments from men as more harassing than males will rate appearance compliments from women, the three male complimenter scenario scores were summed to get an overall male scenario harassment rating score and the same action was taken for the three female complimenter scenarios to get an overall female scenario harassment rating score. An independent-samples *t*-test (one-tailed) was employed using participant gender as the independent variable and opposite-sex perceived harassment as the dependent variable. This test revealed a significant gender difference, $t(381) = 12.55$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.33$, 95% CI [20.26, 27.8],[5] with females perceiving male compliments ($M = 103.24$, $SD = 17.07$) as more harassing than males perceived female compliments ($M = 79.21$, $SD = 19.00$), thus supporting Hypothesis 1a.

In order to test Hypothesis 1b, that appearance compliments in male-male situations will be perceived as more harassing than appearance compliments in female-female situations, an independent-samples *t*-test (one-tailed) was employed using participant gender as the independent variable and same-sex perceived harassment as the dependent variable. This test revealed a significant gender difference,[6] $t(293.38) = 8.05$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.85$, 95% CI [12.04, 19.83], with males perceiving male compliments ($M = 101.81$, $SD = 17.44$) as more harassing

[5] Unless otherwise specified, confidence intervals refer to the confidence interval of the mean difference.
[6] Levene's test for equality of variances was significant, thus reported values do not assume equal variances.

than females perceived female compliments (M = 85.87, SD = 19.99), thus supporting Hypothesis 1b.

In order to test Hypothesis 1c, that males will perceive same-gender appearance compliments as more harassing than cross-gender ones, a paired-samples t-test (one-tailed) was employed comparing the same-gender compliment perceptions with the cross-gender perceptions, using only the male participants. This test revealed that males perceived same-gender compliments (M = 101.81, SD = 17.44) as more harassing than cross-gender compliments (M = 79.21, SD = 19), with $t(129) = 12.06$, $p < .001$, d = 1.46, 95% CI [18.89, 26.31], supporting Hypothesis 1c. The same paired-samples t-test was then employed using only the female participants in order to test Hypothesis 1d, that females will perceive cross-gender appearance compliments as more harassing than same-gender ones. This test revealed that females perceived opposite-gender compliments (M = 103.24, SD = 17.07) as more harassing than same-gender compliments (M = 85.87, SD = 19.99), with $t(252) = 14.57$, $p < .001$, d = 0.93, 95% CI [15.02, 19.71], supporting Hypothesis 1d.

Hypothesis 2. In order to test Hypotheses 2a (that participants will rate the compliments given in status differential situations as more harassing than compliments given in equal status scenarios) and 2b (that participants will rate the compliments given from one of higher status as more harassing than compliments given from one of lower status), the two high status complimenter scenario scores (male superior and female superior) were summed to get an overall high status scenario harassment rating score and the same action was taken for the two equal status and two subordinate status scenarios. A repeated measures ANOVA was employed using each status level as the independent variable and the aggregate harassment rating scale score for each status level as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed a main effect among

the three different statuses,[7] $F(1.84, 701.09) = 153.4$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .29$. Follow-up analyses revealed that compliments from superiors ($M = 69.15$, $SD = 14.25$) were perceived as more harassing than from peers ($M = 54.12$, $SD = 15.33$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [13.12, 16.95], and compliments from subordinates ($M = 63.09$, $SD = 13.25$) were also perceived as more harassing than from peers, $p < .001$, 95% CI [7.29, 10.64], supporting Hypothesis 2a. In addition, compliments from superiors were perceived as more harassing than from subordinates, $p < .001$, 95% CI [4.59, 7.54], supporting Hypothesis 2b.

Hypothesis 3. The differences between the means for each situation corresponding to each of the hypotheses for Hypotheses 3a-c were then tested.[8] Hypothesis 3a (that females will rate a compliment from a male superior as more harassing than males will rate a compliment from a female superior) will first be addressed, followed by Hypothesis 3b (that females will rate a compliment from a male subordinate as more harassing than males will rate a compliment from a female subordinate), and Hypothesis 3c (that females will rate a compliment from a male of equal status as more harassing than males will rate a compliment from a female of equal status). Afterward, Hypotheses 3d-e will be discussed.

An independent-samples *t*-test (one-tailed) using participant gender as an independent variable and opposite-sex harassment scores from the superior condition as the dependent variable revealed that females perceived opposite-sex compliments from superiors ($M = 39.91$, $SD = 7.51$) as more harassing than males did ($M = 29.75$, $SD = 9.07$), with $t(221.95) = 10.97$, $p < .001$, $d = 1.22$, 95% CI [8.33, 11.97], supporting Hypothesis 3a. Also, an independent-samples *t*-test (one-tailed) using participant gender as an independent variable and opposite-sex harassment

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[7] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.
[8] Reported values do not assume equal variances for Hypotheses 3a-c because Levene's test for equality of variances was significant.

scores from the subordinate condition as the dependent variable revealed that females perceived compliments from male subordinates (M = 34.95, SD = 7.76) as more harassing than males perceived compliments from female subordinates (M = 27.25, SD = 9.23), with $t(224.67) = 8.15$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.9$, 95% CI [5.84, 9.57], supporting Hypothesis 3b. In addition, an independent-samples t-test (one-tailed) using participant gender as an independent variable and opposite-sex harassment scores from the peer compliment condition as the dependent variable revealed that females perceived compliments from male peers (M = 28.37, SD = 9.48) as more harassing than males perceived compliments from female peers (M = 22.21, SD = 8.11), with $t(298.52) = 6.65$, $p < .001$, $d = 0.7$, 95% CI [4.35, 8], supporting Hypothesis 3c.

Finally, the differences between the means for each situation corresponding to each component of Hypotheses 3d-e were then tested. Hypothesis 3d has four separate components which will be referred to as Hypotheses 3d1, 3d2, 3d3, and 3d4. Hypothesis 3e has two separate components which will be referred to as Hypotheses 3e1 and 3e2. Hypotheses 3d1 (that males will rate compliments from a male superior as more harassing than from a male subordinate), 3d2 (that males will rate compliments from a male superior as more harassing than compliments from a male equal), and 3e1 (that males will rate compliments from a male subordinate as more harassing than from a male equal) are linked in that they concern only the male participants. Hypotheses 3d3 (that females will rate compliments from a female superior as more harassing than from a female subordinate) and 3d4 (that females will rate compliments from a female superior as more harassing than compliments from a female equal), and 3e2 (that females will rate compliments from a female subordinate as more harassing than females will rate compliments from a female equal) are linked in that they concern only female participants. The

male participant same-sex components will be discussed first, followed by the female participant same-sex components.

In order to test these three same-sex components for the male participants (Hypotheses 3d1, 3d2, and 3e1), a repeated measures ANOVA was employed using the three same-sex status conditions as the independent variable and the harassment ratings for each of these conditions as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three statuses, $F(2, 258) = 13.34$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$. Follow-up analyses showed that males perceived compliments from same-sex superiors ($M = 36.23$, $SD = 8.16$) as more harassing than from same-sex subordinates ($M = 34.12$, $SD = 7.98$), with $p = .013$, 95% CI [.45, 3.76], supporting Hypothesis 3d1, and that males perceived compliments from a same-sex superior as more harassing than from a same-sex peer ($M = 31.45$, $SD = 9.1$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.82, 6.74], supporting Hypothesis 3d2. In addition, males perceived compliments from a same-sex subordinate as more harassing than from a same-sex peer, $p = .005$, 95% CI [0.8, 4.54], supporting Hypothesis 3e1.

In order to test the three same-sex components for the female participants (Hypotheses 3d3, 3d4, and 3e2), a repeated measures ANOVA was employed using the three same-sex status conditions as the independent variable and the harassment ratings for each of these conditions as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three statuses, $F(2, 504) = 17.87$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. Follow-up analyses showed that females perceived compliments from a same-sex superior ($M = 30.88$, $SD = 10.62$) as more harassing than from a same-sex subordinate ($M = 29.02$, $SD = 9.64$), with $p = .029$, 95% CI [.19, 3.53], supporting Hypothesis 3d3, and that females perceived compliments from a same-sex superior as more harassing than from a same-sex peer ($M = 25.98$, $SD = 10.03$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [3.24,

6.56], supporting Hypothesis 3d4. In addition, females perceived compliments from a same-sex subordinate as more harassing than from a same-sex peer, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.48, 4.59], supporting Hypothesis 3e2.

Additional Contextual Factors

The items for which there were no hypotheses that involved Likert-scale ratings were submitted to a 2 (Participant Gender) X 2 (Complimenter Gender) X 3 (Status) repeated measures ANOVA to see if there were any gender or status differences regarding these variables. The ratings of each item for each of the six vignettes were used as the dependent variables in each analysis. Again, there were no directional hypotheses regarding these items, therefore the following analyses are merely exploratory. Recall that the means listed for these items are based on a five-point scale. Each item will now be addressed in turn.

Attractiveness. For the question "How likely do you think it is that [complimenter's name] is attractive?" (higher scores represent greater likelihood of attractiveness), the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that female participants ($M = 3.14$, $SE = .03$) were more likely than male participants ($M = 2.92$, $SE = .04$) to perceive a complimenter as attractive, $F(1, 381) = 18.56$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. This analysis also revealed that male complimenters ($M = 2.69$, $SE = .04$) were perceived as less attractive than female complimenters, ($M = 3.37$, $SE = .03$), with $F(1, 381) = 240.8$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .39$. These effects were modified by a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 381) = 123.56$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .25$.

In order to examine this interaction further, the three male complimenter attractiveness ratings were summed to get an aggregate male complimenter attractiveness rating, and the same was done for the female complimenters. A repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only male participants with complimenter gender as the independent variable and the aggregate

attractiveness ratings for complimenter gender as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed that males perceived female complimenters (M = 10.52, SD = 1.81) as more attractive than male complimenters (M = 7.01, SD = 2.26), with $F(1, 129) = 190.05$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .6$. The same analysis using only female participants revealed that females also perceived female complimenters (M = 9.72, SD = 1.83) as more attractive than male complimenters (M = 9.14, SD = 1.77), with $F(1, 252) = 18.09$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. These two analyses show that this interaction is largely explained by the larger effect size for the male participants versus the female participants (see Figure 1).

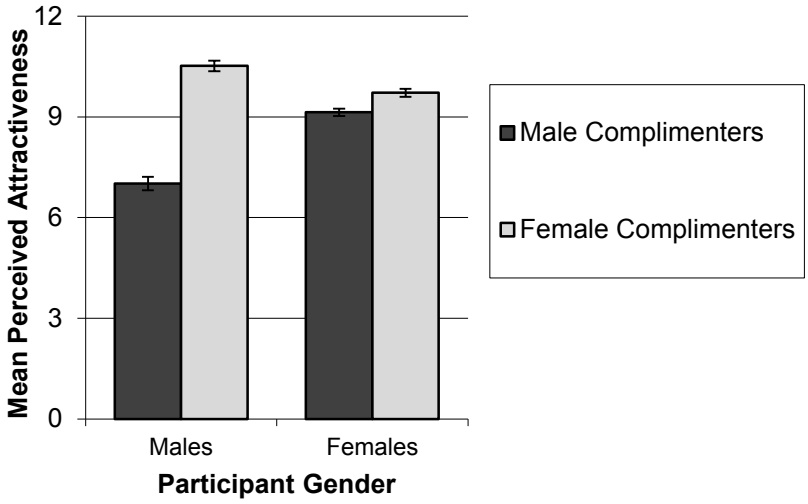

Figure 1. Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender attractiveness ratings.

The omnibus ANOVA also revealed a significant difference among the three statuses,[9] $F(1.94, 739.19) = 115.57$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .23$. Follow-up analyses showed that participants perceived superiors (M = 2.63, SE = .04) as less attractive than peers (M = 3.25, SE = .04), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [-.73, -.53], and subordinates (M = 3.22, SE = .04), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [-.68, -.51], but peers and subordinates were not perceived to differ in attractiveness, p = .46, 95% CI [-

[9] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.

.05, .12]. There was no significant Status x Participant Gender interaction, $F(1.94, 739.19) = 1.63$, $p = .198$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$.

The analysis did reveal a Status x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(2, 762) = 7.22$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. In order to examine this interaction further, a repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only the male complimenters at each status level as the independent variable and the attractiveness ratings for the male complimenters at each status level as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three male statuses, $F(2, 764) = 107.1$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .22$. Follow-up analyses showed that male peers ($M = 3.14$, $SD = 1.1$) were perceived as more attractive than male superiors ($M = 2.25$, $SD = .95$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.75, 1.01], and that male subordinates ($M = 3.03$, $SD = 1.08$) were also perceived as more attractive than male superiors, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.65, .9], but that there was no difference in perceived attraction between male peers and subordinates, $p = .101$, 95% CI [-.02, .24]. The same repeated measures ANOVA was then employed using only the female complimenters. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three female statuses,[10] $F(1.96, 747.55) = 38.29$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$. Follow-up analyses showed that female peers ($M = 3.47$, $SD = .92$) were perceived as more attractive than female superiors ($M = 3.04$, $SD = .88$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.3, .54], and that female subordinates ($M = 3.48$, $SD = .88$) were also perceived as more attractive than female superiors, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.33, .55], but that there was no difference in perceived attraction between female peers and subordinates, $p = .768$, 95% CI [-.12, .09]. Thus, it appears that the interaction is explained by the superiors being perceived as less attractive than peers and subordinates, and participants not perceiving a difference in attractiveness between peers and subordinates (see Figure 2).

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[10] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

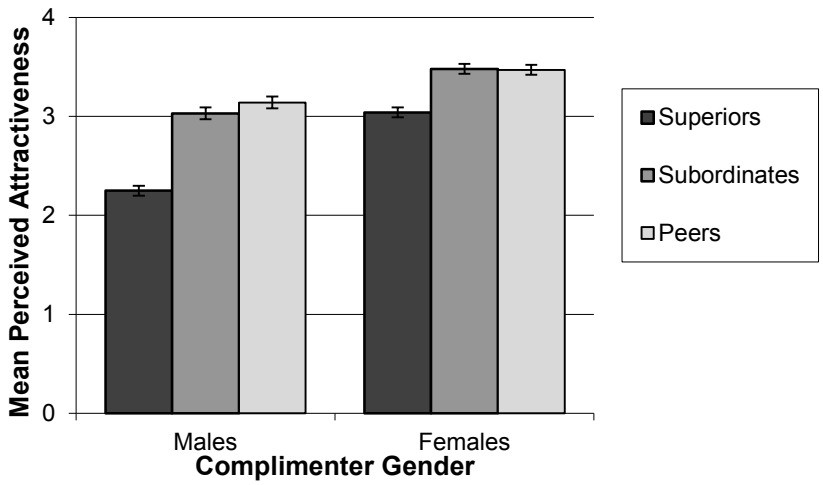


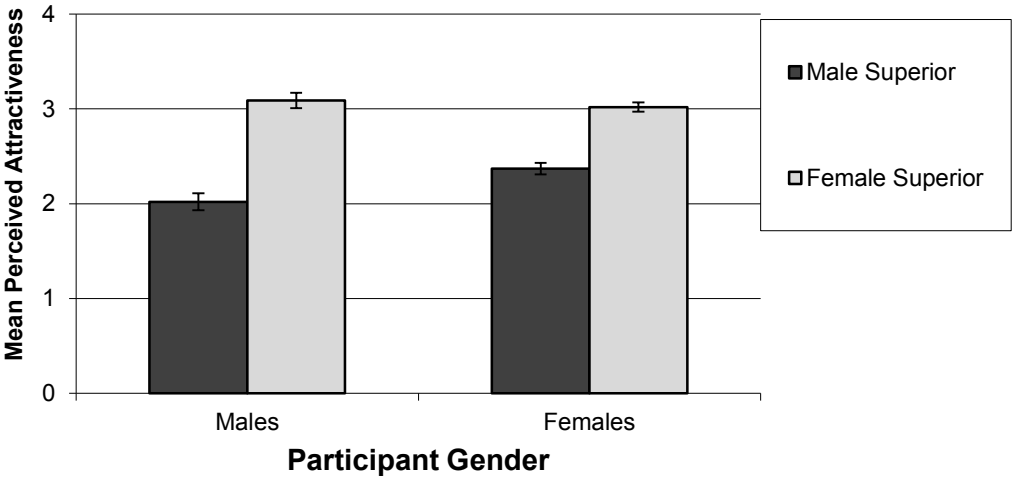
Figure 2. Complimenter Gender x Status perceived attractiveness.

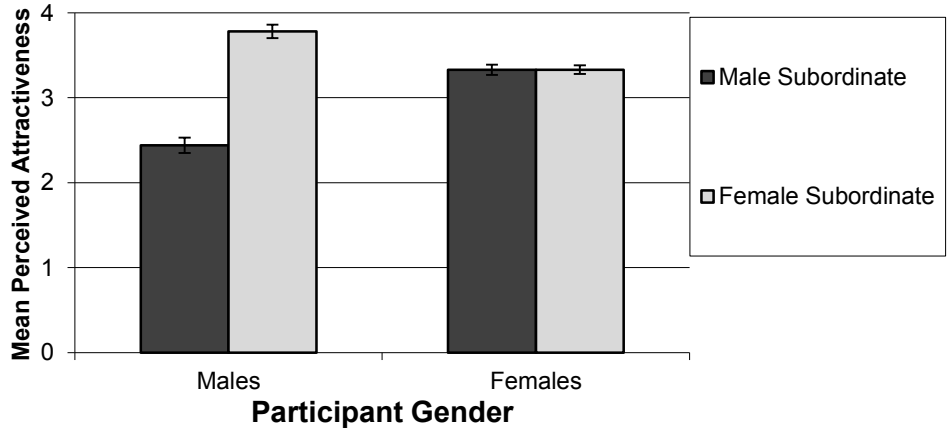
The omnibus ANOVA also revealed a significant three-way interaction, $F(2, 762) = 15.02$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses showed a significant simple interaction between participant gender and complimenter gender at the superior status level, $F(1, 381) = 10.32$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, 95% CI [-.68, -.16], the equal status level, $F(1, 381) = 75.23$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .17$, 95% CI [-1.44, -.91], and the subordinate status level, $F(1, 381) = 91.43$, $p < 001$, $\eta_p^2 = .19$, 95% CI [-1.61, -1.06]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at each of the three status levels. These tests revealed that a male superior was perceived as more attractive by females ($M = 2.37$, $SD = .92$) than males ($M = 2.02$, $SD = .97$), with $F(1, 381) = 11.9$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, 95% CI [-.55, -.15], but males ($M = 3.09$, $SD = .9$) and females ($M = 3.02$, $SD = .87$) did not differ in their attractiveness perceptions of a female superior, $F(1, 381) = .58$, $p = .446$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$, 95% CI [-.11, .26]. A male peer was perceived to be more attractive by female participants ($M = 3.44$, $SD = 1.02$) than male participants ($M =$

2.55, *SD* = 1), with $F(1, 381) = 66.75$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .15$, 95% CI [-1.11, -.68], and a female peer was perceived to be more attractive by male participants ($M = 3.65$, $SD = .83$) than female participants ($M = 3.37$, $SD = .95$), with $F(1, 381) = 8.24$, $p = .004$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, 95% CI [.09, .48]. Finally, a male subordinate was perceived to be more attractive by female participants ($M = 3.33$, $SD = .99$) than male participants ($M = 2.44$, $SD = .99$), with $F(1, 381) = 69.83$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .16$, 95% CI [-1.1, -.68], and a female subordinate was perceived to be more attractive by male participants ($M = 3.78$, $SD = .86$) than female participants ($M = 3.33$, $SD = .85$), with $F(1, 381) = 23.41$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$, 95% CI [.26, .63] (see Figure 3).

Desire to spend more time with complimenter. For the question "How likely is it that you would desire to spend more time with [complimenter's name]?" (higher scores represent a greater desire to spend more time with the complimenter), the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that females ($M = 2.34$, $SE = .04$) and males ($M = 2.38$, $SE = .05$) did not differ in their desire to spend more time with the complimenters, $F(1, 381) = .46$, $p = .497$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. This analysis did reveal that participants had a greater desire to spend more time with female complimenters ($M = 2.78$, $SE = .04$) than male complimenters ($M = 1.94$, $SE = .04$), with $F(1, 381) = 322.11$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .46$. These effects were modified by a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 381) = 43.6$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .1$.

In order to examine this interaction further, the three male complimenter "desire to spend more time" ratings (which will be referred to as the "time" variable) were summed to get an aggregate male complimenter time rating, and the same was done for the female complimenters. A repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only male participants with complimenter gender as the independent variable and the aggregate time ratings for complimenter gender as the





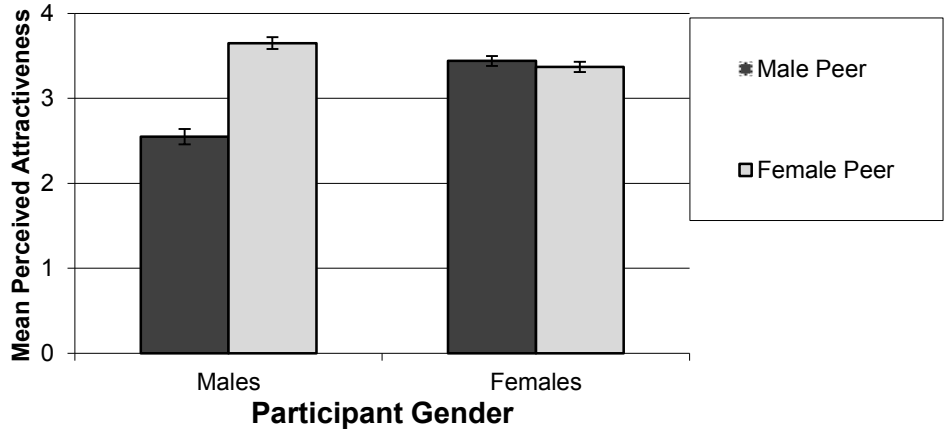


Figure 3. Participants' perceived complimenter attractiveness in each condition.

dependent variables. This analysis revealed that males desired to spend more time with female complimenters (M = 8.86, SD = 2.54) than male complimenters (M = 5.42, SD = 1.75), with $F(1,129) = 182.57$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .59$. The same analysis using only female participants revealed that females also desired to spend more time with female complimenters (M = 7.81, SD = 2.38) than male complimenters (M = 6.22, SD = 2.04), with $F(1, 252) = 108.67$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .3$. These two analyses show that this interaction is largely explained by the larger effect size for males, indicating that males, more than females, have an even greater desire to spend more time with a female complimenter than a male complimenter (see Figure 4).

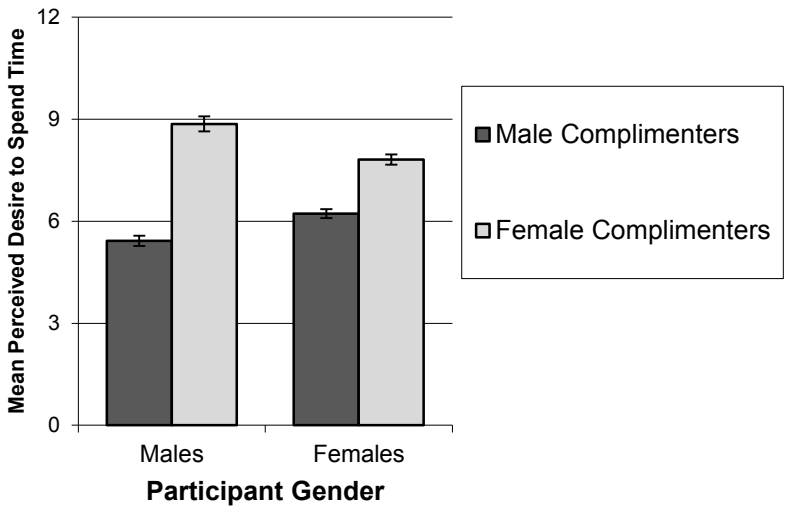


Figure 4. Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender desire to spend more time with the complimenter.

This analysis also revealed a significant difference among the three statuses,[11] $F(1.89, 720.93) = 123.14$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .24$. Follow-up analyses showed that participants desired to spend more time with peers (M = 2.83, SE = .05) than superiors (M = 1.99, SE = .04), with $p <$

[11] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.

.001, 95% CI [.72, .96], and subordinates (M = 2.25, SE = .04), with p < .001, 95% CI [.47, .69], and more time with subordinates than with superiors, p < .001, 95% CI [.16, .35]. There was no significant Status x Participant Gender interaction, $F(1.89, 720.93) = 2.88$, $p = .06$, $\eta_p^2 = .008$.

The analysis also did not reveal a Status x Complimenter Gender interaction,[12] $F(1.95, 743.37) = .68$, $p = .506$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$, but did reveal a significant three-way interaction, $F(1.95, 743.37) = 20.97$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses did not show a significant simple interaction between participant gender and complimenter gender at the superior status level, $F(1, 381) < .001$, $p = .992$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$, 95% CI [-.27, .27], but did show an interaction at the equal status level, $F(1, 381) = 72.95$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .16$, 95% CI [-1.66, -1.04], and the subordinate status level, $F(1, 381) = 9.83$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, 95% CI [-.82, -.19]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at the equal and subordinate status levels. These tests revealed that females (M = 2.81, SD = 1.28), more than males (M = 2.05, SD = 1.01), desired to spend more time with a male peer, $F(1, 381) = 35.61$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$, 95% CI [-1.02, -.52], and males (M = 3.52, SD = 1.04), more than females (M = 2.94, SD = 1.2), desired to spend more time with a female peer, $F(1, 381) = 21.73$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$, 95% CI [.33, .82]. Finally, there was no difference between males (M = 1.81, SD = .93) and females (M = 1.89, SD = 1.06) in their desire to spend more time with a male subordinate, $F(1, 381) = .61$, $p = .437$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$, 95% CI [-.3, .13], but males (M = 2.86, SD = 1.19), more than females (M = 2.44, SD = 1.17), desired to spend more time with a female subordinate, $F(1, 381) = 10.91$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, 95% CI [.17, .67] (see Figure 5).

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[12] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.

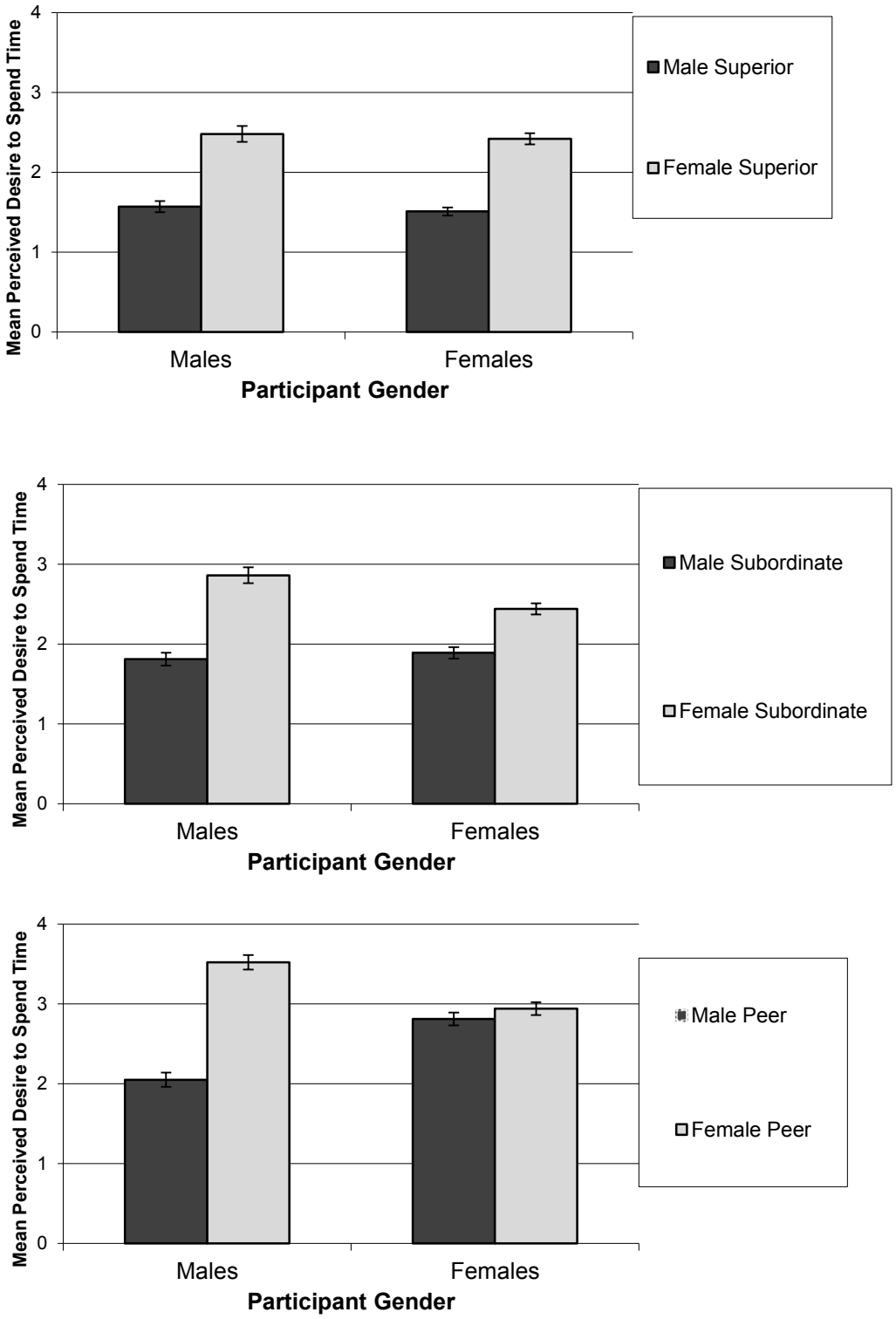

Figure 5. Participants' desire to spend more time with the complimenter in each condition.

Acceptability of compliment had people known each other for a long time. For the question "How acceptable do you feel [complimenter's name] remark would be if you have known him/her for a long time?" (higher scores represent more acceptability of the remark), the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that males ($M = 3.69$, $SE = .06$) and females ($M = 3.73$, $SE = .04$) did not differ as to whether they felt the compliment was acceptable had they known the complimenter for a long time, $F(1, 381) = .35$, $p = .555$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. This analysis also revealed that female compliments ($M = 4.13$, $SE = .04$) were considered to be more acceptable than male compliments ($M = 3.29$, $SE = .05$) had the participant known the complimenter a long time, $F(1, 381) = 305.97$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .45$. These effects were modified by a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 381) = 5.42$, $p = .02$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

In order to examine this interaction further, the three male complimenter ratings for this variable (which will be referred to as the "acceptability" variable) were summed to get an aggregate male complimenter acceptability rating, and the same was done for the female complimenters. A repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only male participants with complimenter gender as the independent variable and the aggregate acceptability ratings for complimenter gender as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed that males perceived female compliments ($M = 12.17$, $SD = 2.11$) as more acceptable than male compliments ($M = 9.98$, $SD = 2.82$) had they known the complimenter a long time, $F(1, 129) = 75.17$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .37$. The same analysis using only female participants revealed that females also perceived female compliments ($M = 12.63$, $SD = 2.25$) as more acceptable than male compliments ($M = 9.77$, $SD = 2.43$) had they known the complimenter a long time, $F(1, 252) = 314.74$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .56$. These two analyses show that this interaction is largely explained by the larger effect size for female participants than male participants (see Figure 6).

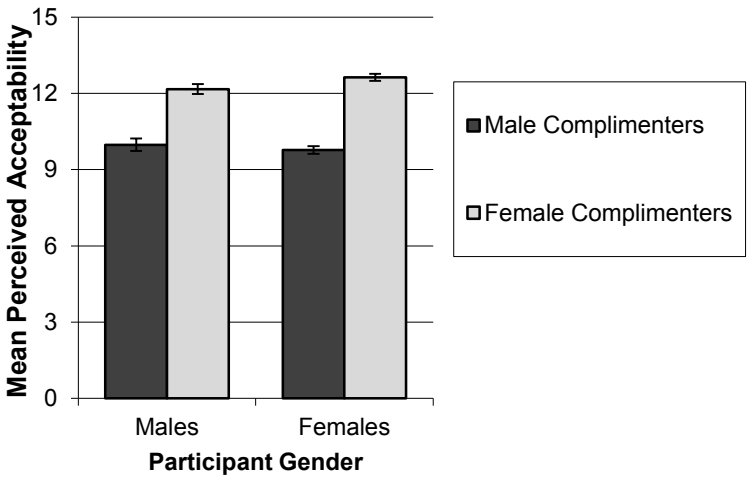

Figure 6. Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender acceptability of compliment had recipient known the complimenter a long time.

The omnibus ANOVA also revealed a significant difference among the three statuses, $F(2, 762) = 110.6$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .23$. Follow-up analyses showed that participants perceived peer compliments ($M = 4.15$, $SE = .04$) as more acceptable than superior ($M = 3.31$, $SE = .05$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.73, .96], and subordinate compliments ($M = 3.68$, $SE = .05$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.37, .59], and subordinate compliments were perceived as more acceptable than superior compliments, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.25, .48] had they known the complimenter a long time. There was no significant Status x Participant Gender interaction, $F(2, 762) = 2.75$, $p = .064$, $\eta_p^2 = .007$.

The analysis did reveal a Status x Complimenter Gender interaction,[13] $F(1.91, 725.77) = 25.5$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$. In order to examine this interaction further, a repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only the male complimenters at each status level as the independent variable and the acceptability ratings for the male complimenters at each status level

[13] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.

as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three male statuses, $F(2, 764) = 128.21$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .25$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from a male peer ($M = 3.88$, $SD = 1.17$) were perceived as more acceptable than from a male superior ($M = 2.56$, $SD = 1.33$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.15, 1.48], and male subordinate ($M = 3.4$, $SD = 1.31$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.32, .64], and subordinate compliments were perceived as more acceptable than superior compliments, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.67, 1], had the participant known the complimenter a long time. The same repeated measures ANOVA was then employed using only the female complimenters. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three female statuses,[14] $F(1.92, 732.14) = 32.22$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from a female peer ($M = 4.48$, $SD = .85$) were perceived as more acceptable than from a female superior ($M = 4.02$, $SD = 1.13$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.33, .59], and female subordinate ($M = 3.98$, $SD = 1.21$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.37, .63], but that female subordinate and female superior compliments did not differ in their acceptability had they known the complimenter a long time, $p = .606$, 95% CI [-.19, .11]. Thus, this interaction is largely explained by females not finding compliments from a female superior or female subordinate to be any more or less acceptable had they known the complimenter a long time (see Figure 7).

The analysis also revealed a significant three-way interaction,[15] $F(1.91, 725.77) = 21.71$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses showed a significant simple interaction

[14] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.
[15] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

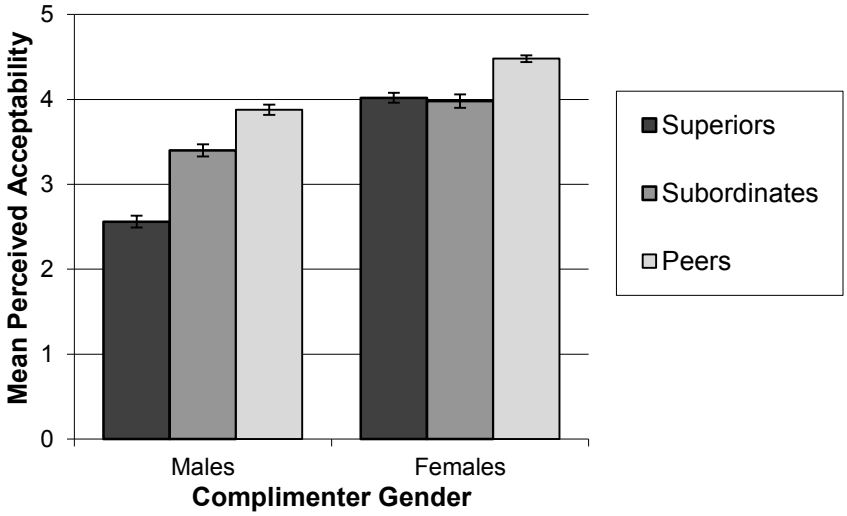

Figure 7. Complimenter Gender x Status acceptability of compliment had recipient known the complimenter a long time.

between participant gender and complimenter gender at the superior status level, $F(1, 381) = 34.05$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$, 95% CI [.66, 1.32], and equal status level, $F(1, 381) = 11.69$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, 95% CI [-.73, -.2], but not at the subordinate status level, $F(1, 381) = .73$, $p = .392$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$, 95% CI [-.19, .49]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at the superior and equal status levels. These tests revealed that a male superior compliment was perceived as more acceptable by males ($M = 2.96$, $SD = 1.34$) than females ($M = 2.36$, $SD = 1.27$), with $F(1, 381) = 18.49$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$, 95% CI [.33, .88], but that a female superior compliment was perceived as more acceptable by females ($M = 4.15$, $SD = 1.1$) than males ($M = 3.76$, $SD = 1.15$), with $F(1, 381) = 10.43$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, 95% CI [-.63, -.15], had they known the complimenter a long time. A male peer compliment was perceived to be more acceptable by females ($M = 4$, $SD = 1.1$) than males ($M = 3.62$, $SD = 1.27$), with $F(1, 381) = 9.45$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, 95% CI [-.63, -.14], had they known the complimenter a long time, but males ($M = 4.53$, $SD = .76$) and females ($M = 4.45$, $SD = .89$) did not differ in their

acceptability perceptions when complimented by a female peer, $F(1, 381) = .77$, $p = .381$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$, 95% CI [-.1, .26] (see Figure 8).

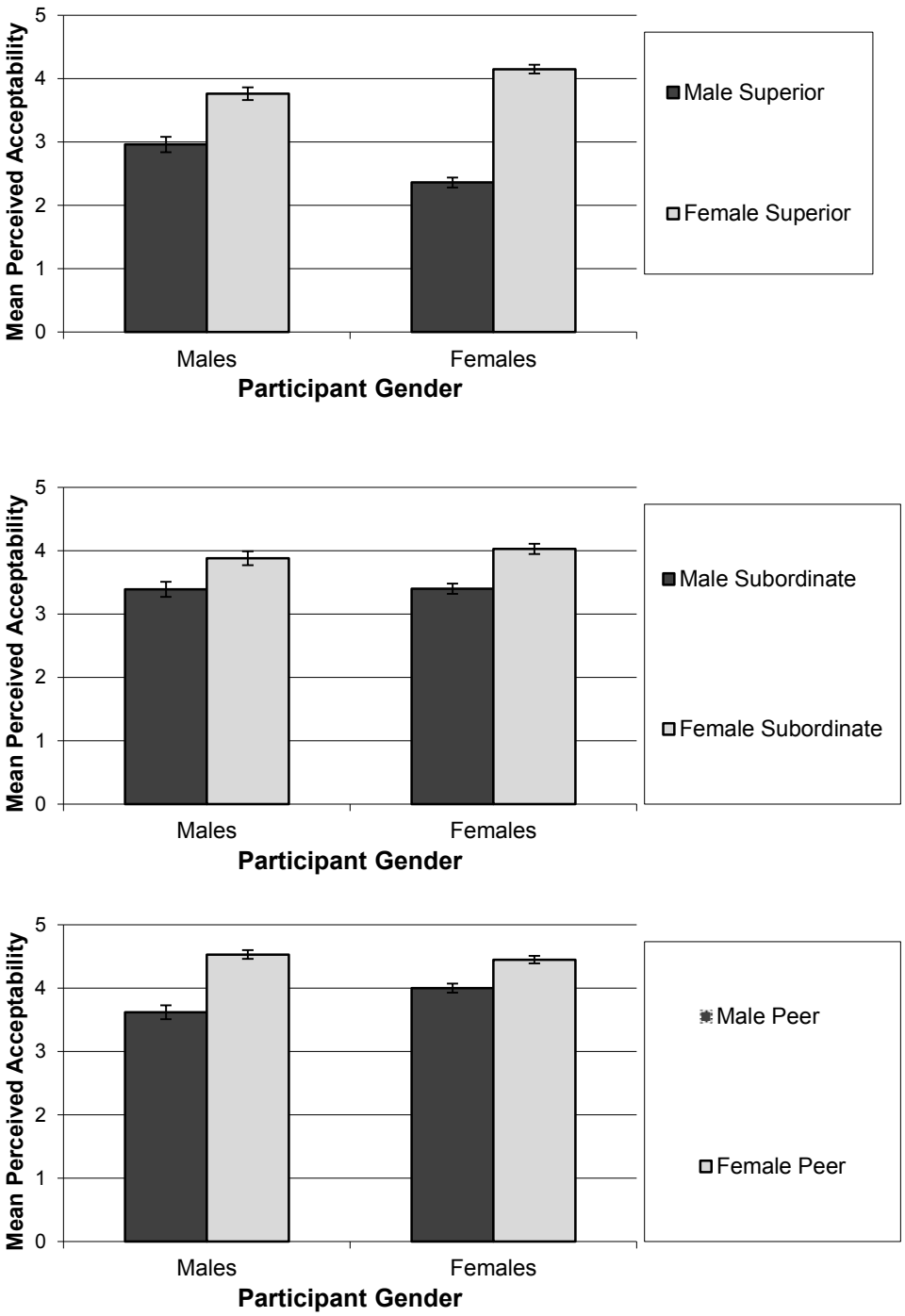

Figure 8. Participants' perceived acceptability of the compliment had they known the complimenter a long time in each condition.

Flirtatiousness. For the question "How flirtatious do you feel [complimenter's name] remark was?" (higher scores represent more flirtatiousness), the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that male participants ($M = 3.36$, $SE = .05$) perceived the compliments as more flirtatious than female participants ($M = 3.18$, $SE = .04$), with $F(1, 381) = 7.1$, $p = .008$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. This analysis also revealed that male complimenters ($M = 3.37$, $SE = .04$) were perceived as more flirtatious than female complimenters, ($M = 3.16$, $SE = .04$), with $F(1, 381) = 15.51$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. These effects were modified by a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 381) = 573.8$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .6$.

In order to examine this interaction further, the three male complimenter flirtatiousness ratings were summed to get an aggregate male complimenter flirtatiousness rating, and the same was done for the female complimenters. A repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only male participants with complimenter gender as the independent variable and the aggregate flirtatiousness ratings for complimenter gender as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed that males perceived female complimenters ($M = 11.71$, $SD = 1.96$) as more flirtatious than male complimenters ($M = 8.42$, $SD = 2.71$), with $F(1, 129) = 177.3$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .58$. The same analysis using only female participants revealed that females perceived male complimenters ($M = 11.82$, $SD = 2.14$) as more flirtatious than female complimenters ($M = 7.25$, $SD = 2.66$), with $F(1, 252) = 533.47$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .68$. Thus, this interaction is largely explained by the participants' near mirror-image perceptions of opposite- and same-sex compliments (see Figure 9).

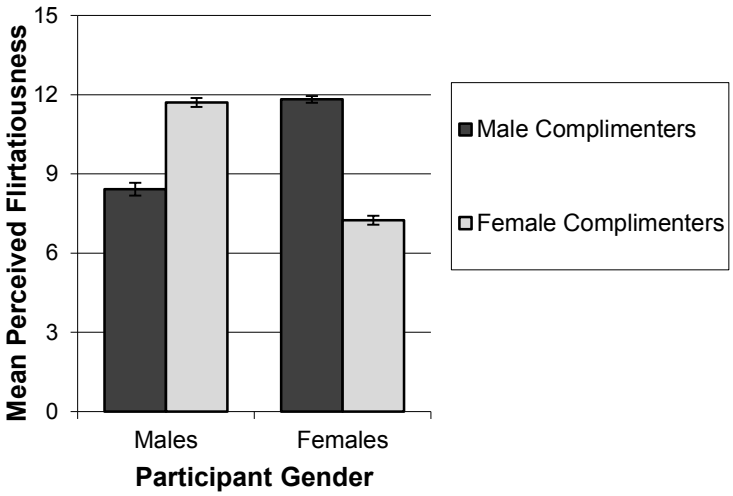

Figure 9. Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender perceived flirtatiousness.

The omnibus analysis also revealed a significant difference among the three statuses,[16] $F(1.87, 712.83) = 26.33$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. Follow-up analyses showed that participants perceived subordinates ($M = 3.53$, $SE = .05$) as more flirtatious than superiors ($M = 3.12$, $SE = .05$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.29, .53], and peers ($M = 3.14$, $SE = .05$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.27, .51], but peers and superiors were not perceived to differ in flirtation, $p = .752$, 95% CI [-.12, .16]. There was no Status x Participant Gender interaction, $F(1.87, 712.83) = 1.93$, $p = .15$, $\eta_p^2 = .005$.

The omnibus analysis did reveal a Status x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(2, 762) = 8.43$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. In order to examine this interaction further, a repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only the male complimenters at each status level as the independent variable and the flirtatiousness ratings for the male complimenters at each status level as the dependent variables. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three

[16] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.

male statuses,[17] $F(1.89, 722.01) = 39.72$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$. Follow-up analyses showed that male subordinates ($M = 3.94$, $SD = 1.18$) were perceived as more flirtatious than male superiors ($M = 3.25$, $SD = 1.36$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.55, .82], and peers ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 1.35$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.31, .62], and male peers were perceived as more flirtatious than superiors, $p = .011$, 95% CI [.05, .39]. The same repeated measures ANOVA was then employed using only the female complimenters. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three female statuses,[18] $F(1.94, 740.18) = 7.95$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Follow-up analyses showed that female subordinates ($M = 3.06$, $SD = 1.52$) were perceived as more flirtatious than female peers ($M = 2.72$, $SD = 1.47$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.18, .5], and that female superiors ($M = 2.98$, $SD = 1.44$) were also perceived as more flirtatious than female peers, $p = .005$, 95% CI [.08, .43], but that there was no difference in perceived flirtation between female superiors and subordinates, $p = .366$, 95% CI [-.1, .27]. Thus, it appears that the interaction occurs because flirtation perceptions did not differ between female superiors and female subordinates, and because female superiors were perceived as more flirtatious than female peers whereas male peers were perceived as more flirtatious than male superiors (see Figure 10).

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[17] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

[18] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

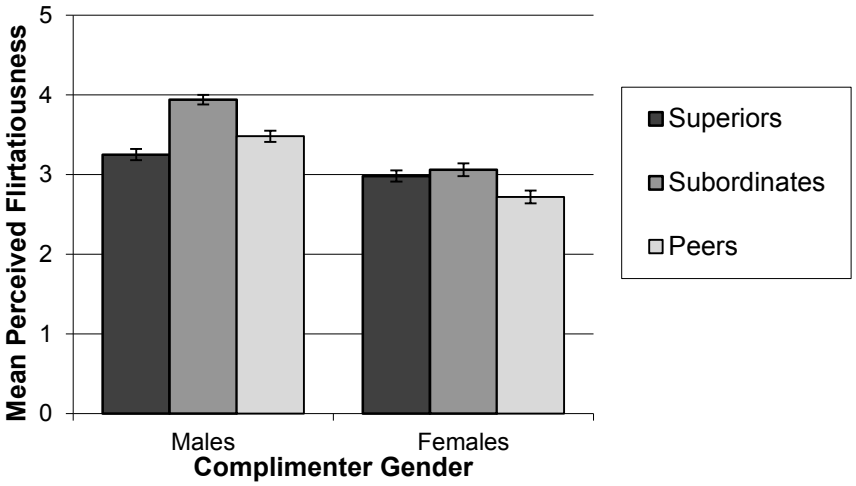


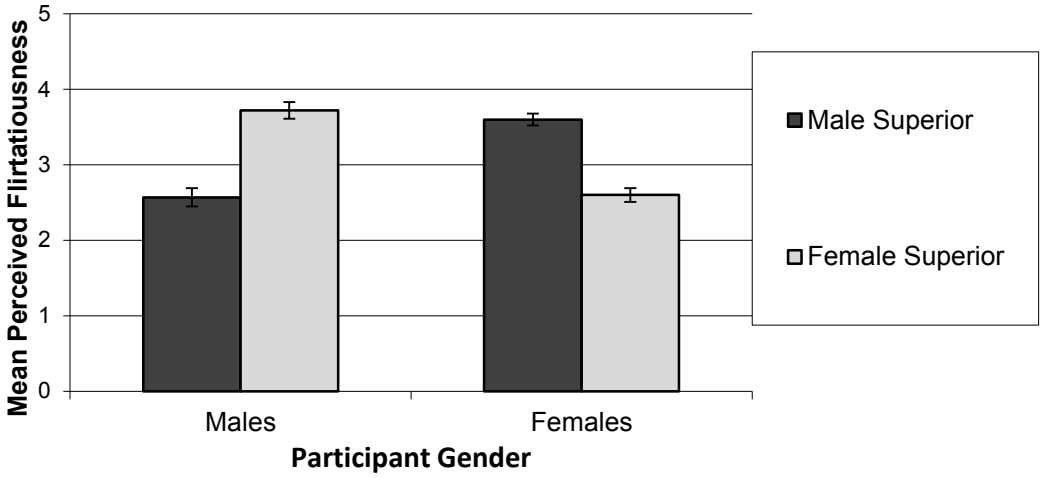
Figure 10. Complimenter Gender x Status perceived flirtatiousness.

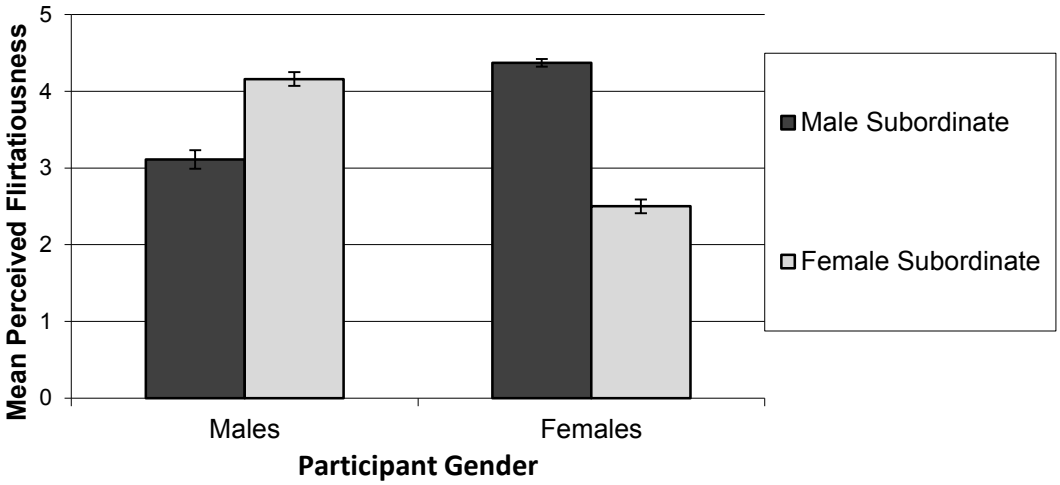
The omnibus ANOVA also revealed a significant three-way interaction, $F(2, 762) = 5.6$, $p = .004$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses showed a significant simple interaction between participant gender and complimenter gender at the superior status level, $F(1, 381) = 132.45$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .26$, 95% CI [-2.5, -1.79], the equal status level, $F(1, 381) = 261.68$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .41$, 95% CI [-3.12, -2.45], and the subordinate status level, $F(1, 381) = 273.25$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .42$, 95% CI [-3.27, -2.58]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at each of the three status levels. These tests revealed that a male superior was perceived as more flirtatious by females ($M = 3.6$, $SD = 1.24$) than males ($M = 2.57$, $SD = 1.32$), with $F(1, 381) = 57.48$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .13$, 95% CI [-1.3, -.77], and a female superior was perceived as more flirtatious by males ($M = 3.72$, $SD = 1.2$) than females ($M = 2.6$, $SD = 1.4$), with $F(1, 381) = 60.26$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .14$, 95% CI [.84, 1.4]. A male peer was perceived to be more flirtatious by females ($M = 3.85$, $SD = 1.22$) than males ($M = 2.75$, $SD = 1.31$), with $F(1, 381) = 66.99$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .15$, 95% CI [-1.37, -.84], and a female peer was

perceived to be more flirtatious by males (M = 3.83, SD = 1.02) than females (M = 2.15, SD = 1.33), with $F(1, 381) = 159.72$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .3$, 95% CI [1.42, 1.94]. Finally, a male subordinate was perceived to be more flirtatious by females (M = 4.37, SD = .82) than males (M = 3.11, SD = 1.32), with $F(1, 381) = 131.38$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .26$, 95% CI [-1.48, -1.04], and a female subordinate was perceived to be more flirtatious by males (M = 4.16, SD = 1.03) than females (M = 2.5, SD = 1.42), with $F(1, 381) = 139.97$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .27$, 95% CI [1.39, 1.94] (see Figure 11).

Tone of voice. For the question "How likely do you feel it is that [complimenter's name] tone of voice was sarcastic/joking?" (higher scores represent increased likelihood of a sarcastic/joking tone), the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that male participants (M = 2.29, SE = .06) perceived complimenters as being more sarcastic/joking than female participants (M = 2.01, SE = .04), with $F(1, 381) = 15.79$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. This analysis also revealed that male complimenters (M = 2.24, SE = .05) were perceived as more sarcastic than female complimenters, (M = 2.06, SE = .04), with $F(1, 381) = 13.57$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. These effects were modified by a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 381) = 29.65$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$.

In order to examine this interaction further, the three male complimenter sarcasm ratings were summed to get an aggregate male complimenter sarcasm rating, and the same was done for the female complimenters. A repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only male participants with complimenter gender as the independent variable and the aggregate sarcasm ratings for complimenter gender as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed that males perceived male complimenters (M = 7.56, SD = 2.71) as more sarcastic than female complimenters (M = 6.17, SD = 2.12), with $F(1, 129) = 25.7$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .17$. The same





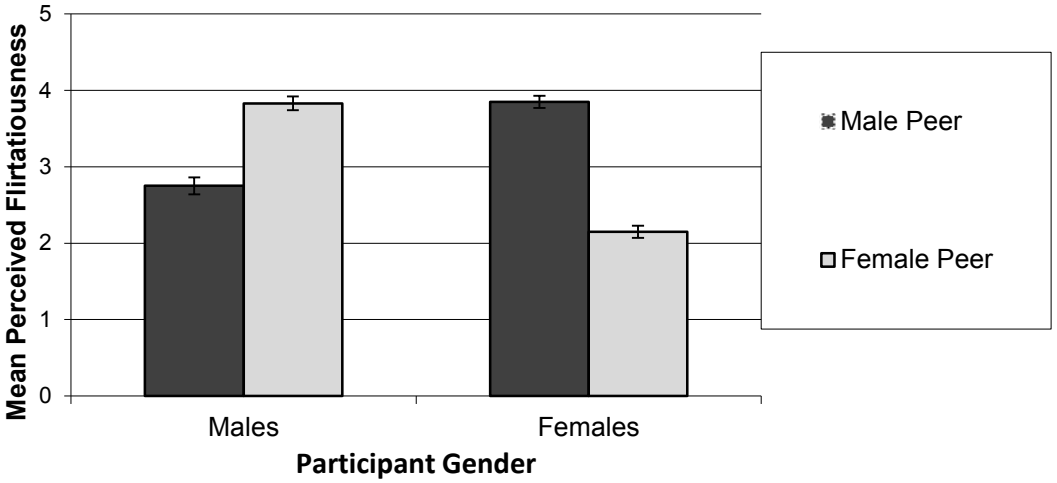


Figure 11. Males' and females' perceived flirtatiousness in each condition.

analysis using only female participants revealed that females did not differ in their perceptions of sarcasm regarding male ($M = 5.9$, $SD = 2.35$) and female compliments ($M = 6.17$, $SD = 2.43$), with $F(1, 252) = 2.59$, $p = .11$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Thus, this interaction is largely explained by males' greater likelihood to perceive same-sex compliments as sarcastic than opposite-sex compliments, and females not differing in perceived sarcasm between same- and opposite-sex compliments (see Figure 12).

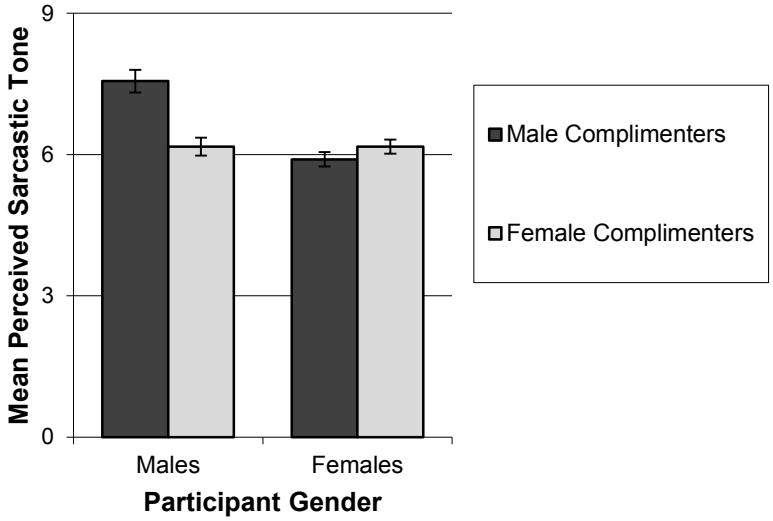


Figure 12. Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender perceived tone of voice.

The omnibus ANOVA model did not reveal a perceived sarcasm difference among superiors ($M = 2.13$, $SE = .05$), peers ($M = 2.16$, $SE = .05$), and subordinates ($M = 2.15$, $SE = .05$),[19] $F(1.96, 745.9) = .14$, $p = .866$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$. Also, there was no significant Status x Participant Gender interaction, $F(1.96, 745.9) = 1.23$, $p = .291$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$. However, the analysis did reveal a Status x Complimenter Gender interaction,[20] $F(1.97, 749.06) = 9.19$, $p <$

[19] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.
[20] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.

.001, η_p^2 = .02. The omnibus ANOVA did not reveal a significant three-way interaction, $F(1.97, 749.06) = 1.07$, $p = .344$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$.

In order to examine the Status x Complimenter Gender interaction further, a repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only the male complimenters at each status level as the independent variable and the sarcasm ratings for the male complimenters at each status level as the dependent variables. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three male statuses, $F(2, 764) = 3.07$, $p = .047$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Follow-up analyses showed that male peers (M = 2.05, SD = 1.07) were perceived as less sarcastic than male superiors (M = 2.2, SD = 1.25), with $p = .045$, 95% CI [-.29, -.003], and subordinates (M = 2.21, SD = 1.17), with $p = .021$, 95% CI [-.28, -.02], but that male superiors and subordinates were not perceived to differ in their sarcastic tone, $p = .94$, 95% CI [-.13, .14]. The same repeated measures ANOVA was then employed using only the female complimenters. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three female statuses,[21] $F(1.94, 739.25) = 6.19$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Follow-up analyses showed that female peers (M = 2.19, SD = 1.14) were perceived as more sarcastic than female superiors (M = 1.95, SD = 1.04), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.11, .37], and subordinates (M = 2.03, SD = 1.1), with $p = .04$, 95% CI [.01, .3], but that there was no difference in perceived sarcasm between female superiors and subordinates, $p = .176$, 95% CI [-.04, .21]. Thus, it appears that the interaction occurs because male superiors and subordinates, as well as female superiors and subordinates, were not perceived to differ in sarcastic tone, and also because male peers were perceived as less sarcastic than the other two statuses whereas female peers were perceived as more sarcastic than the other two statuses (see Figure 13).

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[21] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

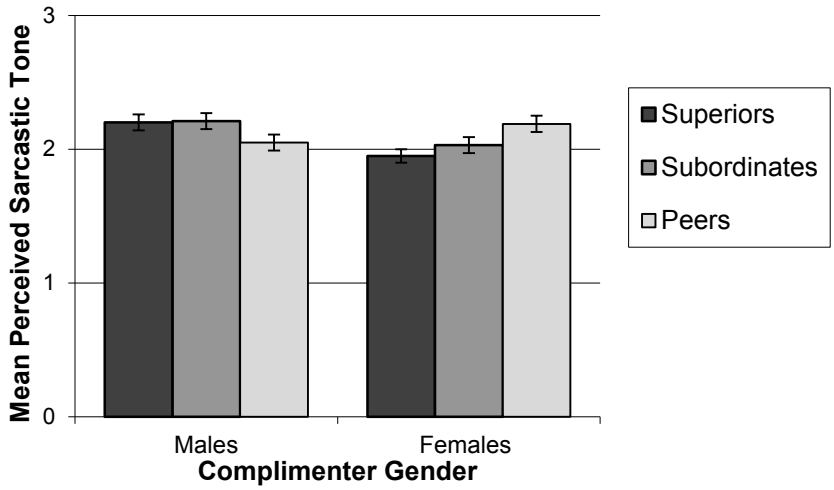

Figure 13. Complimenter Gender x Status perceived tone of voice.

Marital status. For the question "How likely do you think it is that [complimenter's name] is married?" (higher scores represent a greater likelihood that the complimenter is perceived to be married), the repeated measures ANOVA revealed no differences between males ($M = 2.31$, $SE = .04$) and females ($M = 2.34$, $SE = .03$) in their perception of the complimenter as being married, $F(1, 381) = .47$, $p = .494$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$. Also, participants did not differ in their perception of whether a male ($M = 2.3$, $SE = .03$) or female ($M = 2.35$, $SE = .04$) complimenter was married, $F(1, 381) = 1.55$, $p = .214$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$. However, the analysis did reveal a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 381) = 30.89$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$.

In order to examine this interaction further, the three male complimenter "marriage" ratings were summed to get an aggregate male complimenter marital rating, and the same was done for the female complimenters. A repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only male participants with complimenter gender as the independent variable and the aggregate marital ratings for complimenter gender as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed that males perceived male complimenters ($M = 7.19$, $SD = 1.83$) as more likely to be married than female complimenters ($M = 6.64$, $SD = 2.22$), with $F(1, 129) = 6.48$, $p = .012$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. The

same analysis using only female participants revealed that females perceived female complimenters (M = 7.46, SD = 2.1) as more likely to be married than male complimenters (M = 6.59, SD = 1.54), with $F(1, 252) = 35.67$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .12$. Thus, this interaction is explained by the participants' perceptions that a same-sex complimenter was more likely to be married than an opposite-sex complimenter (see Figure 14).

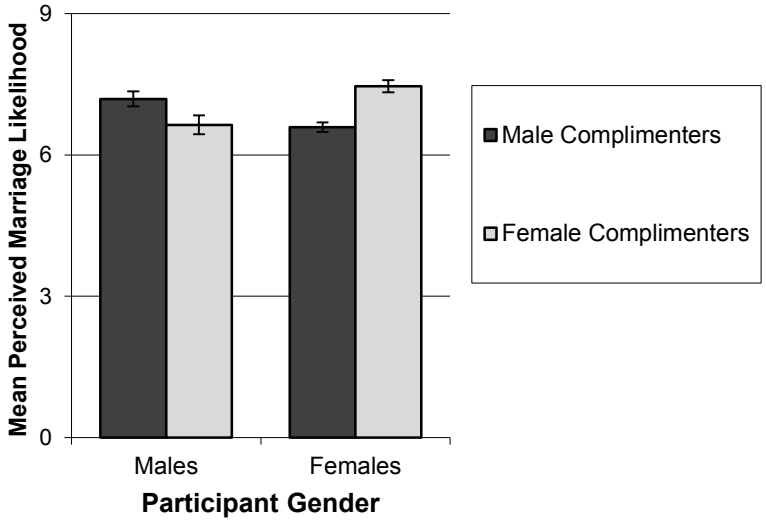

Figure 14. Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender perceived likelihood that the complimenter is married.

The omnibus analysis also revealed a significant difference among the three statuses,[22] $F(1.86, 707.14) = 568.66$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .6$. Follow-up analyses showed that participants perceived superiors (M = 3.35, SE = .05) as more likely to be married than peers (M = 1.89, SE = .04), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.34, 1.57], and subordinates (M = 1.73, SE = .04), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.51, 1.73], and peers were perceived as more likely to be married than subordinates, p

[22] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.

< .001, 95% CI [.07, .25]. There was no significant Status x Participant Gender interaction, $F(1.86, 707.14) = 2.38$, $p = .098$, $\eta_p^2 = .006$.

The omnibus analysis did reveal a Status x Complimenter Gender interaction,[23] $F(1.85, 705.83) = 160.97$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .3$. In order to examine this interaction further, a repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only the male complimenters at each status level as the independent variable and the marital ratings for the male complimenters at each status level as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three male statuses,[24] $F(1.73, 659.74) = 929.6$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .71$. Follow-up analyses showed that male superiors ($M = 3.84$, $SD = 1.13$) were perceived as more likely to be married than male peers ($M = 1.55$, $SD = .81$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.15, 2.43], and subordinates ($M = 1.41$, $SD = .74$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.3, 2.56], and male peers were perceived as more likely to be married than subordinates, $p = .006$, 95% CI [.04, .23]. The same repeated measures ANOVA was then employed using only the female complimenters. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three female statuses,[25] $F(1.94, 739.87) = 78.04$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .17$. Follow-up analyses showed that female superiors ($M = 2.91$, $SD = 1.25$) were perceived as more likely to be married than female peers ($M = 2.22$, $SD = 1.03$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.55, .84], and subordinates ($M = 2.05$, $SD = .99$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.71, 1.01], and female peers were perceived as more likely to be married than subordinates, $p = .015$, 95% CI [.03, .29]. Thus, this interaction is largely explained due to the much larger effect size for male complimenters than female complimenters (see Figure 15).

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[23] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.
[24] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.
[25] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

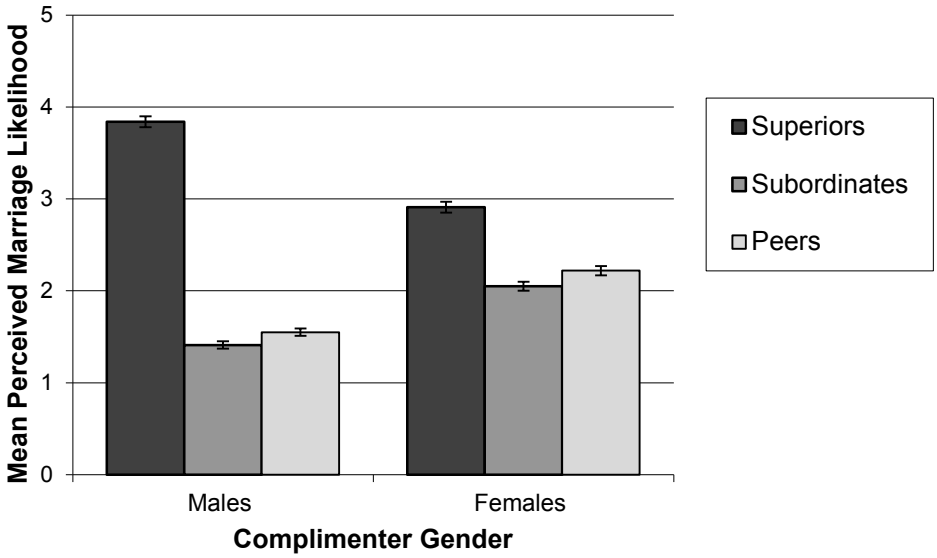


Figure 15. Complimenter Gender x Status perceived likelihood that the complimenter is married.

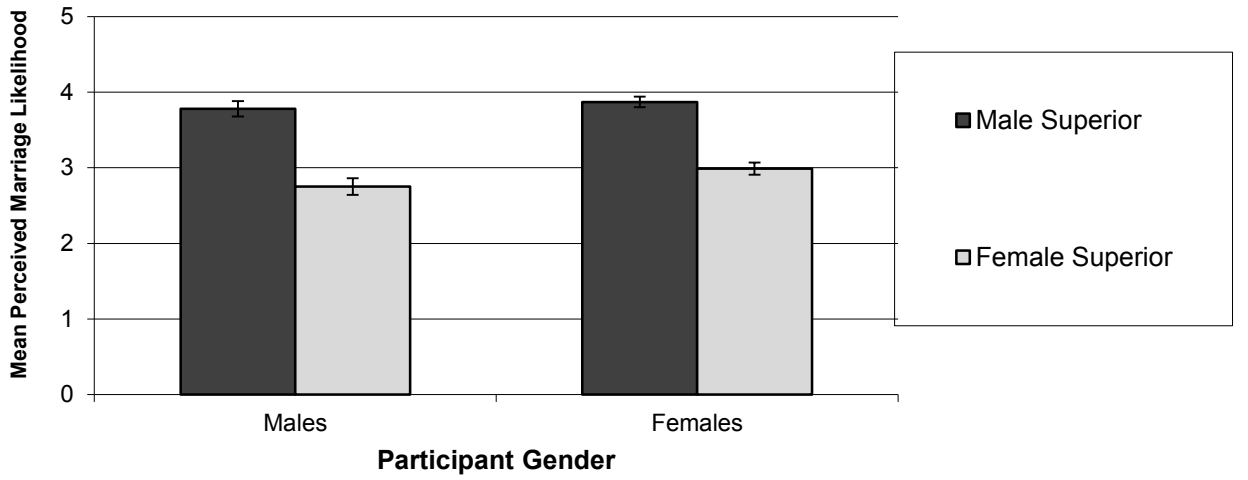
The analysis also revealed a significant three-way interaction,[26] $F(1.85, 705.83) = 5.39$, $p = .006$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses did not show a significant simple interaction between participant gender and complimenter gender at the superior status level, $F(1, 381) = .833$, $p = .362$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$, 95% CI [-.18, .5], but did show a significant interaction at the equal status level, $F(1, 381) = 42.13$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .1$, 95% CI [.55, 1.04], and the subordinate status level, $F(1, 381) = 15.09$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, 95% CI [.24, .72]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at the peer and subordinate status levels. These tests revealed males ($M = 1.85$, $SD = .97$) were more likely than females ($M = 1.39$, $SD = .65$) to perceive a male peer as married, $F(1, 381) = 30.92$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$, 95% CI [.3, .63], and females ($M = 2.33$, $SD = 1.01$) were more likely than males ($M = 2$, $SD = 1.03$) to perceive a

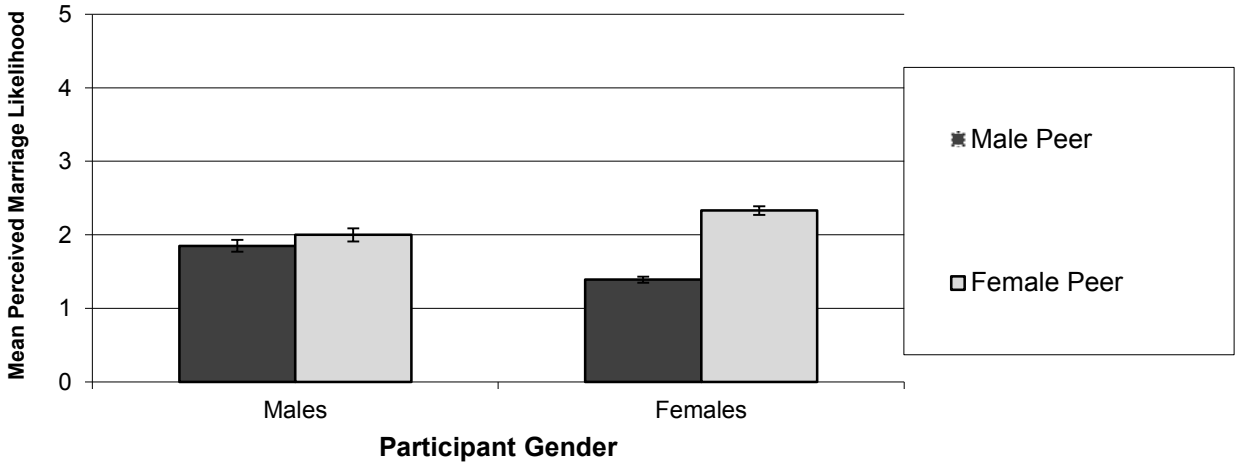
[26] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.

female peer as married, $F(1, 381) = 8.9$, $p = .003$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, 95% CI [-.54, -.11]. Males ($M = 1.55$, $SD = .88$) were more likely than females ($M = 1.34$, $SD = .64$) to perceive a male subordinate as married, $F(1, 381) = 7.67$, $p = .006$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, 95% CI [.06, .37], and females ($M = 2.14$, $SD = 1.03$) were more likely than males ($M = 1.88$, $SD = .89$) to perceive a female subordinate as married, $F(1, 381) = 5.93$, $p = .015$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, 95% CI [-.47, -.05] (see Figure 16).

Likelihood of situation. For the question "How likely do you think it is that this situation could occur?" (higher scores represent increased perceptions of likelihood that the situation could occur), the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that females ($M = 3.55$, $SE = .05$) were more likely than males ($M = 3.09$, $SE = .06$) to believe the situations could occur, $F(1, 381) = 36$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$. Also, compliments from females ($M = 3.51$, $SE = .04$) were perceived to be more likely than compliments from males ($M = 3.13$, $SE = .05$), with $F(1, 381) = 89.93$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .19$. These effects were modified by a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 381) = 15.45$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$.

In order to examine this interaction further, the three male complimenter "situation likelihood" ratings were summed to get an aggregate male complimenter likelihood rating, and the same was done for the female complimenters. A repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only male participants with complimenter gender as the independent variable and the aggregate likelihood ratings for complimenter gender as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed that males perceived compliments from females ($M = 10.07$, $SD = 2.62$) to be more likely than compliments from males ($M = 8.45$, $SD = 2.54$), with $F(1, 129) = 63.61$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .33$. The same analysis using only female participants revealed that females also perceived compliments from females ($M = 11$, $SD = 2.22$) to be more likely than compliments from males ($M = 10.32$, $SD = 2.5$), with $F(1, 252) = 23.56$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$. Thus, this interaction is





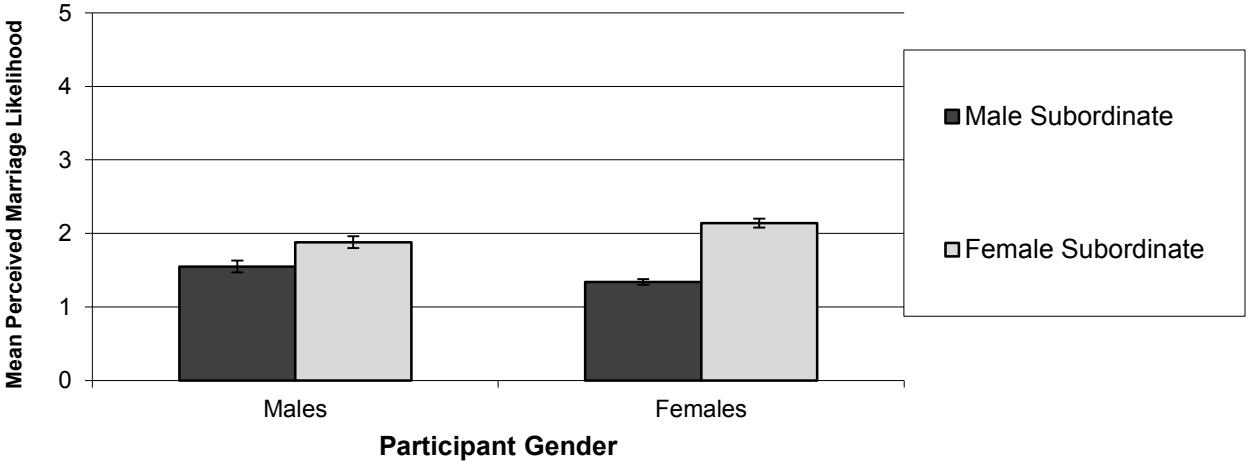


Figure 16. Males' and females' perceived likelihood that the complimenter is married in each condition.

largely explained by the larger effect size for the male participants versus the female participants (see Figure 17).

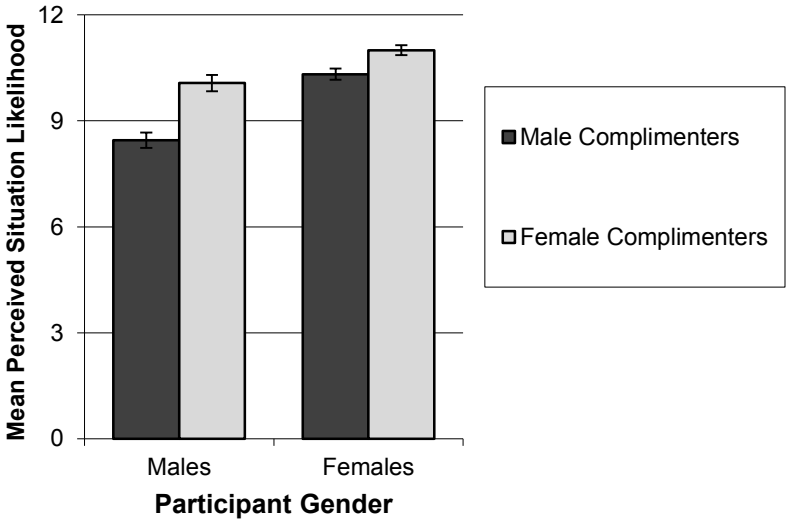


Figure 17. Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender perceived likelihood of each situation.

The omnibus ANOVA also revealed a significant difference among the three statuses,[27] $F(1.93, 735.2) = 112.89$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .23$. Follow-up analyses showed that participants perceived compliments from peers ($M = 3.67$, $SE = .05$) as more likely than compliments from superiors ($M = 2.95$, $SE = .05$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.62, .83], and subordinates ($M = 3.34$, $SE = .05$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.24, .43], and compliments from subordinates were perceived as more likely than from superiors, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.3, .48]. There was no significant Status x Participant Gender interaction, $F(1.93, 735.2) = .03$, $p = .97$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$.

The omnibus analysis did reveal a Status x Complimenter Gender interaction,[28] $F(1.9, 723.38) = 8.62$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. In order to examine this interaction further, a repeated

[27] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.
[28] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.

measures ANOVA was employed using only the male complimenters at each status level as the independent variable and the likelihood ratings for the male complimenters at each status level as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three male statuses,[29] $F(1.95, 746.43) = 105.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .22$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from male peers ($M = 3.68$, $SD = 1.16$) were perceived as more likely than compliments from male superiors ($M = 2.74$, $SD = 1.16$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.81, 1.08], and subordinates ($M = 3.27$, $SD = 1.16$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.29, .53], and compliments from male subordinates were perceived as more likely than from superiors, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.41, .66]. The same repeated measures ANOVA was then employed using only the female complimenters. This analysis revealed a significant difference among the three female statuses,[30] $F(1.96, 746.85) = 29.65$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from female peers ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 1.06$) were perceived as more likely than from female superiors ($M = 3.3$, $SD = 1.15$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.39, .65], and subordinates ($M = 3.56$, $SD = 1.1$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [.14, .38], and compliments from female subordinates were perceived as more likely than from superiors, $p < .001$, 95% CI [.12, .4]. Thus, this interaction is largely explained due to the larger effect size for male complimenters than female complimenters (see Figure 18). The omnibus ANOVA did not reveal a significant three-way interaction,[31] $F(1.9, 723.38) = .09$, $p = .905$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$.

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[29] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

[30] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

[31] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant for the status of the complimenter, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated in this section.

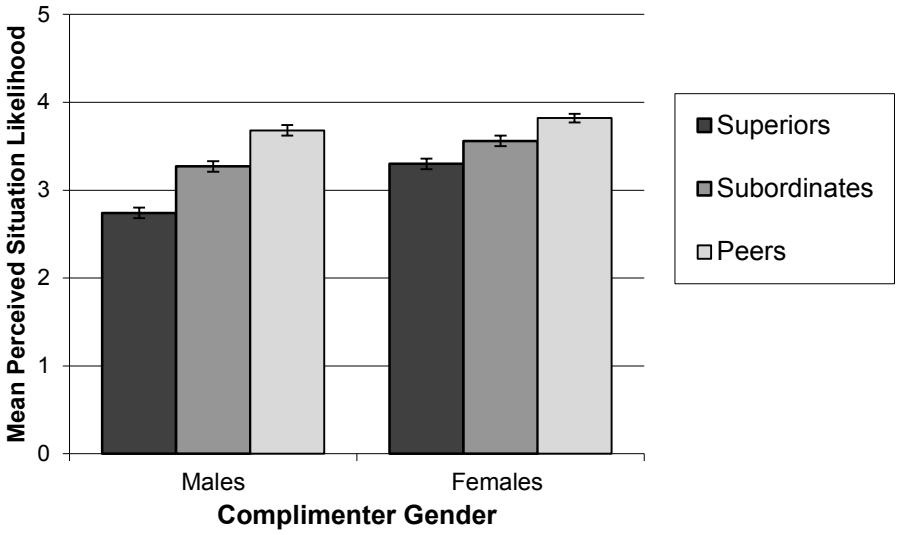

Figure 18. Complimenter Gender x Status perceived likelihood of each situation.

Categorical contextual factors. The items that did not involve Likert-scale ratings (i.e., required a categorical response such as "yes" or "no") were submitted to a logistic regression analysis to investigate any gender differences with the response for each of the six scenarios for each categorical question used as the dependent variable and participant gender used as the predictor variable. Again, these items were exploratory and were included only to see if they warranted further investigation concerning compliments and sexual harassment. Each item will be addressed in turn.

Perceived sexual orientation of complimenter. For the question, "What sexual orientation do you think [complimenter's name] is?", gender differences were examined by employing a binary logistic regression for all six scenarios. Participants had the option of choosing "heterosexual" or "homosexual" as their response. For a female subordinate, the odds that females identified her as homosexual was 14.34 times the odds that males identified her as

homosexual,[32] $b = 2.66$, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 19.58, p < .001$, 95% CI for odds ratio [4.41, 46.63], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .17$. For a female peer, the odds that females identified her as homosexual was 15.76 times the odds that males identified her as homosexual, $b = 2.76$, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 14.28$, $p < .001$, 95% CI for odds ratio [3.77, 65.91], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .15$. For a female superior, odds ratios (OR) could not be calculated because none of the males perceived her as homosexual. Therefore, a chi-square test of independence was employed. This analysis revealed that females were more likely than males to perceive a female superior as homosexual, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 58.71$, $p < .001$, Nagelkerke $R^2 = .31$.

For a male subordinate, the odds that males identified him as homosexual was 34.31 times the odds that females identified him as homosexual, $b = 3.54$, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 103.72$, $p < .001$, 95% CI for odds ratio [17.38, 67.75], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .51$. For a male peer, the odds that males identified him as homosexual was 4.63 times the odds that females identified him as homosexual, $b = 1.53$, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 43.65$, $p < .001$, 95% CI for odds ratio [2.94, 7.29], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .16$. Finally, for a male superior, the odds that males identified him as homosexual was 20.42 times the odds that females identified him as homosexual, $b = 3.02$, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 56.47$, $p < .001$, 95% CI for odds ratio [9.3, 44.84], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .35$.

Similar situation. For the question, "Has a similar situation to the situation you just read ever happened to you?", gender differences were also examined by employing a binary logistic regression for all six scenarios. Participants had the option of choosing "yes" or "no" as their response. For both the female subordinate, $b = .2$, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = .75$, OR = 1.23, $p = .387$, 95% CI for odds ratio [.77, 1.94], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .003$, and female peer conditions, $b = .23$, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 1.13$, OR = 1.26, $p = .287$, 95% CI for odds ratio [.82, 1.92], Nagelkerke $R^2 =$

[32] All χ^2 values are Wald statistics save for the female superior perceived sexual orientation of the complimenter result.

.004, neither males nor females were more likely to report a similar situation ever happening to them. For the female superior condition, the odds that females had a similar situation happen to them was 2.31 times the odds that males had a similar situation happen to them, $b = .84$, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 9.64$, $p = .002$, 95% CI for odds ratio [1.36, 3.92], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .04$.

For both the male subordinate, $b = .25$, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = .95$, OR = 1.28, $p = .331$, 95% CI for odds ratio [.78, 2.11], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .004$, and male superior conditions, $b = .62$, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 2.91$, OR = 1.85, $p = .088$, 95% CI for odds ratio [.91, 3.77], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .02$, neither males nor females were more likely to report a similar situation ever happening to them. For the male peer condition, the odds that females had a similar situation happen to them was 1.75 times the odds that males had a similar situation happen to them, $b = .56$, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 6.4$, $p = .011$, 95% CI for odds ratio [1.14, 2.71], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .02$. Perceived age of the complimenter is the last categorical variable that will be addressed.

Perceived age of complimenter. For the question, "About what age range do you think [complimenter's name] falls in?", an ordinal logistic regression was employed for all six scenarios with each age range category (e.g., 18-29, 30-39, 40-49, and so on up to and including 70-79) as the dependent variable and participant gender as the predictor variable. Males and females did not differ as to what age they perceived a female subordinate, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = .91$, $\beta = -.32$, $p = .341$, 95% CI for β [-.98, .34], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .004$; female peer, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 2.05$, $\beta = -.52$, $p = .152$, 95% CI for β [-1.24, .19], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .01$; or female superior, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 3.22$, $\beta = -.39$, $p = .073$, 95% CI for β [-.81, .04], Nagelkerke $R^2 = .01$. Also, males and females did not differ as to the perceived age of a male subordinate, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = .001$, $\beta = -.03$, $p = .975$, 95% CI for β [-1.74, 1.68], Nagelkerke $R^2 < .001$; male peer, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) =$

.435, β = -.45, p = .509, 95% CI for β [-1.77, .88], Nagelkerke R^2 = .005; or male superior, $\chi^2(1, N = 383) = 1.10$, β = -.21, p = .295, 95% CI for β [-.61, .19], Nagelkerke R^2 = .003.

Big Five

The Big Five personality factors were included in this research as an exploratory measure. Each of the Big Five factors were taken in turn and the aforementioned 2 (Participant Gender) x 2 (Complimenter Gender) x 3 (Status) repeated measures ANOVA used for the additional contextual factors was employed with the aggregate harassment rating scale score as the dependent variable using only those participants who scored high or low on each of the Big Five factors. Whether a participant scored high or low on each factor was determined by dividing the participants up using tertiles. That is, each analysis only included those who scored in the top-third and bottom-third of the participant distribution for each factor. Those who scored in the middle-third were not included since those participants do not seem as though their scores on a particular personality dimension would influence their interpretation of each situation. For example, consider the Agreeableness personality factor. Those who score high on this factor are trusting of others, and those who score low on this factor are therefore untrusting of others. One can imagine that someone who is untrusting of others might also be more likely to perceive an appearance compliment as harassing because he or she may view the complimenter as having some ulterior motive, while someone who is trusting of others would be less likely to take offense. For those whose personalities do not fall at either extreme (high or low Agreeableness), it does not seem that their middle-of-the-road Agreeableness mentality would be predictive of harassment. In addition, stating that someone who is neither trusting nor untrusting is predictive (or not predictive) of harassment does not provide any meaningful information, therefore these participants were not included in these analyses. Using the top-third

and bottom-third of the sample for each factor provides enough participants for analysis while maintaining only those participants who fall at the extreme ends of each personality factor spectrum because those participants seem as though they will yield the most meaningful results.

Extraversion. Those who scored high on the Extraversion (e.g., sociable, positive emotionality) factor ($N = 124$) were those whose scores were greater than 3.75 on this factor, and those who scored low on the Extraversion factor ($N = 111$) were those whose scores were less than 2.875 on this factor. A two-tailed *t*-test was conducted between the high and low Extraversion groups using the aggregate harassment rating scale score as the dependent variable and high/low Extraversion as the independent variable. This test revealed that high Extraverts ($M = 186.04$, $SD = 33.33$) did not differ from low Extraverts ($M = 183.29$, $SD = 29.29$) in their harassment perceptions, $t(233) = -.67$, $p = .504$, $d = -.09$, 95% CI [-10.86, 5.35]. In addition, the high Extraversion group as well as the low Extraversion group were each independently submitted to the same analyses as the additional contextual factors. Results from these analyses are discussed below.

High Extraversion. For those who scored high on the Extraversion factor, the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that females ($n = 86$; $M = 31.94$, $SE = .58$) perceived more harassment overall than males ($n = 38$; $M = 28.9$, $SE = .88$), with $F(1, 122) = 8.36$, $p = .005$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$. The analysis also revealed that male complimenters ($M = 33.24$, $SE = .59$) were perceived as more harassing than female complimenters ($M = 27.60$, $SE = .66$), with $F(1, 122) = 68.43$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .36$. There was no Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 122) < .001$, $p = .993$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$.

The omnibus ANOVA revealed a main effect for the three statuses,[33] $F(1.86, 227.29) = 26.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .18$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from superiors ($M = 33.22$, $SE = .69$) were perceived as more harassing than compliments from peers ($M = 27.12$, $SE = .77$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [4.24, 7.95], and subordinates ($M = 30.92$, $SE = .68$), with $p = .002$, 95% CI [.85, 3.75], and that subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.11, 5.48]. There was no Status x Participant Gender interaction,[34] $F(1.86, 227.29) = 1.99$, $p = .142$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, nor was there any Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 244) = 1.24$, $p = .29$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, or three-way interaction, $F(2, 244) = 2.15$, $p = .119$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

Low Extraversion. For those who scored low on the Extraversion factor, the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that neither male ($n = 40$; $M = 29.92$, $SE = .77$) nor female participants ($n = 71$; $M = 30.9$, $SE = .58$) differed in their harassment perceptions, $F(1, 109) = 1.03$, $p = .312$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. The analysis did, however, reveal that male complimenters ($M = 34.03$, $SE = .55$) were perceived as more harassing than female complimenters ($M = 26.79$, $SE = .60$), with $F(1, 109) = 134.25$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .55$. There was no Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 109) = 3.34$, $p = .07$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$.

The omnibus ANOVA did reveal a main effect for the three statuses,[35] $F(1.84, 200.99) = 38.93$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .26$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from superiors ($M = 33.83$, $SE = .68$) were perceived as more harassing than compliments from peers ($M = 26.44$, $SE = .72$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [5.52, 9.27], and subordinates ($M = 30.96$, $SE = .65$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.42, 4.33], and that subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, p

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[33] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.
[34] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.
[35] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

< .001, 95% CI [2.86, 6.19]. There was no Participant Gender x Status interaction, $F(1.84, 200.99) = 2.03$, $p = .138$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

The omnibus ANOVA revealed no Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 218) = .75$, $p = .473$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, but there was a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 218) = 10.48$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses showed a significant simple interaction between participant gender and complimenter gender at the superior status level, $F(1, 109) = 4.44$, $p = .037$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, 95% CI [-8.31, -.26], and the equal status level, $F(1, 109) = 18.58$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .15$, 95% CI [4.81, 13.01], but not at the subordinate level, $F(1, 109) = 1.07$, $p = .303$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, 95% CI [-2.03, 6.46]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at the male superior and female superior levels as well as the male equal and female equal levels. These tests revealed that females perceived more harassment ($M = 40.06$, $SD = 7.22$) than males ($M = 35.55$, $SD = 8.34$) when complimented by a male superior, $F(1, 109) = 8.89$, $p = .004$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$, 95% CI [-7.5, -1.51]; that males perceived more harassment ($M = 32.25$, $SD = 8.8$) than females ($M = 26.87$, $SD = 9.46$) when complimented by a male peer, $F(1, 109) = 8.69$, $p = .004$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$, 95% CI [1.76, 8.99]; and that females perceived more harassment ($M = 25.08$, $SD = 9.82$) than males ($M = 21.55$, $SD = 6.3$) when complimented by a female peer, $F(1, 109) = 4.2$, $p = .043$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, 95% CI [-6.95, -.12]. Neither males nor females differed in their harassment perceptions when complimented by a female superior, $F(1, 109) = .01$, $p = .906$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$, 95% CI [-3.93, 3.49] (see Figure 19).

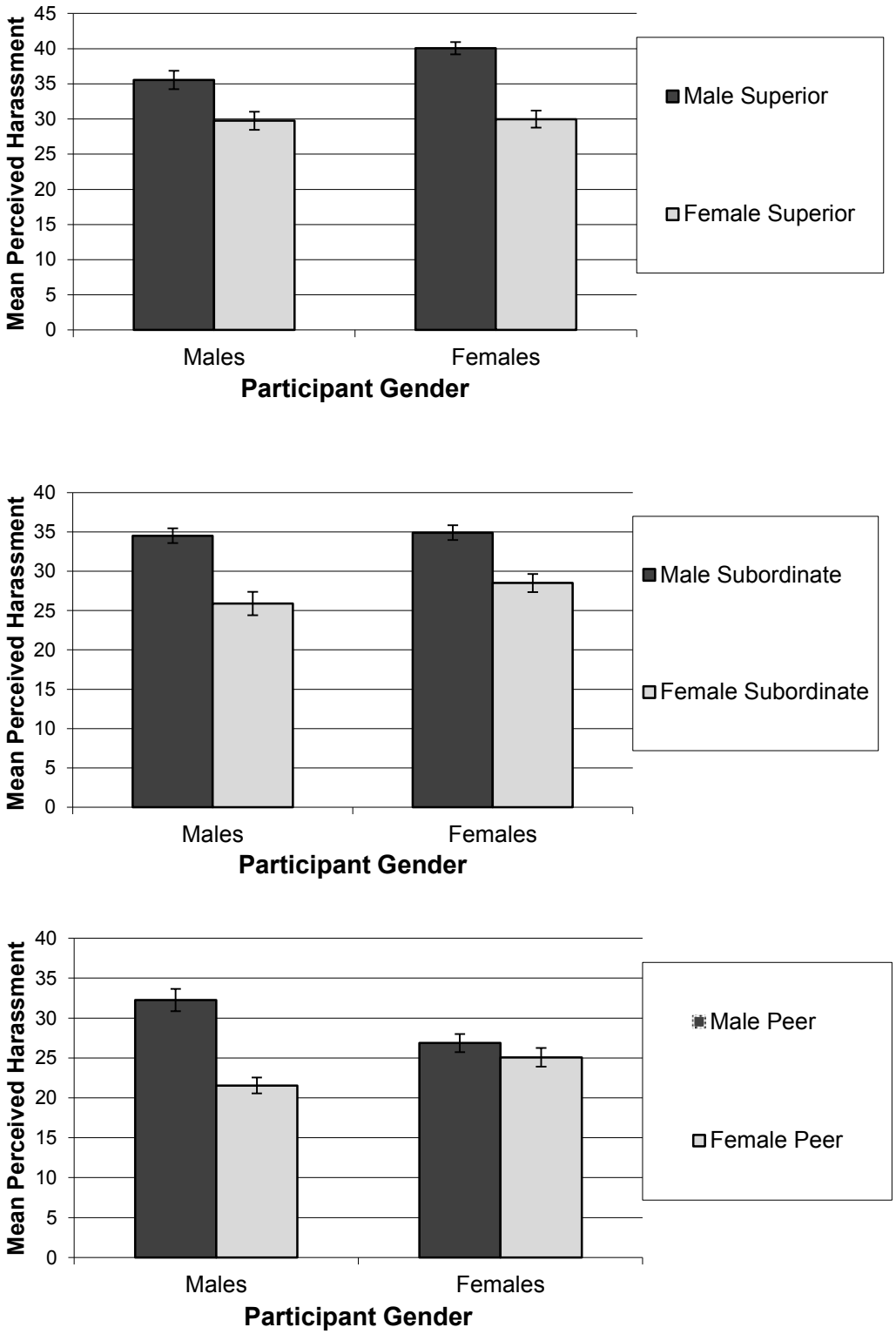


Figure 19. Low Extraverted males' and females' perceived harassment in each condition.

Agreeableness. Those who scored high on the Agreeableness (e.g., trusting, tender-minded) factor ($N = 138$) were those whose scores were greater than 4.3333 on this factor, and those who scored low on the Agreeableness factor ($N = 136$) were those whose scores were less than 3.7778 on this factor. A two-tailed *t*-test was conducted between the high and low Agreeableness groups using the aggregate harassment rating scale score as the dependent variable and high/low Agreeableness as the independent variable. This test revealed that those high in Agreeableness ($M = 183.45$, $SD = 31.21$) and those low in Agreeableness ($M = 187.02$, $SD = 30.77$) did not differ in their harassment perceptions, $t(272) = .95$, $p = .341$, $d = .12$, 95% CI [-3.8, 10.94]. In addition, the high Agreeableness group as well as the low Agreeableness group were each independently submitted to the same analyses as the additional contextual factors.

High Agreeableness. For those who scored high on the Agreeableness factor, the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that females ($n = 97$; $M = 31.23$, $SE = .52$) perceived more harassment than males ($n = 41$; $M = 29.03$, $SE = .8$), with $F(1, 136) = 5.32$, $p = .023$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. The analysis also revealed that male complimenters ($M = 33.94$, $SE = .57$) were perceived as more harassing than female complimenters ($M = 26.32$, $SE = .59$), with $F(1, 136) = 135.42$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .5$. These effects were modified by a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 136) = 8.03$, $p = .005$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$.

In order to examine this interaction further, the three male complimenter harassment scale ratings were summed to get an aggregate male complimenter harassment rating, and the same was done for the female complimenters. A repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only male participants with complimenter gender as the independent variable and the aggregate harassment ratings for complimenter gender as the dependent variable. This analysis

showed that males perceived male complimenters (M = 101.29, SD = 18.57) as more harassing than female complimenters (M = 72.88, SD = 16.8), with $F(1, 40) = 61.98$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .61$, 95% CI [21.12, 35.71]. The same analysis using only female participants revealed that females also perceived male complimenters (M = 102.33, SD = 18.34) as more harassing than female complimenters (M = 85.04, SD = 19.65), with $F(1, 96) = 71.2$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .43$, 95% CI [13.22, 21.36]. Thus, this interaction is largely explained by the larger effect size for the male participants versus the female participants (see Figure 20).

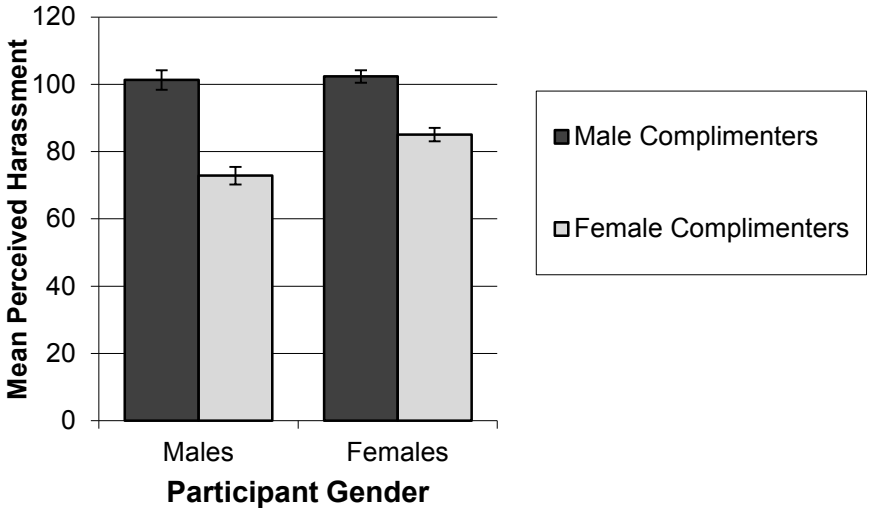


Figure 20. Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender perceived harassment for those high in Agreeableness.

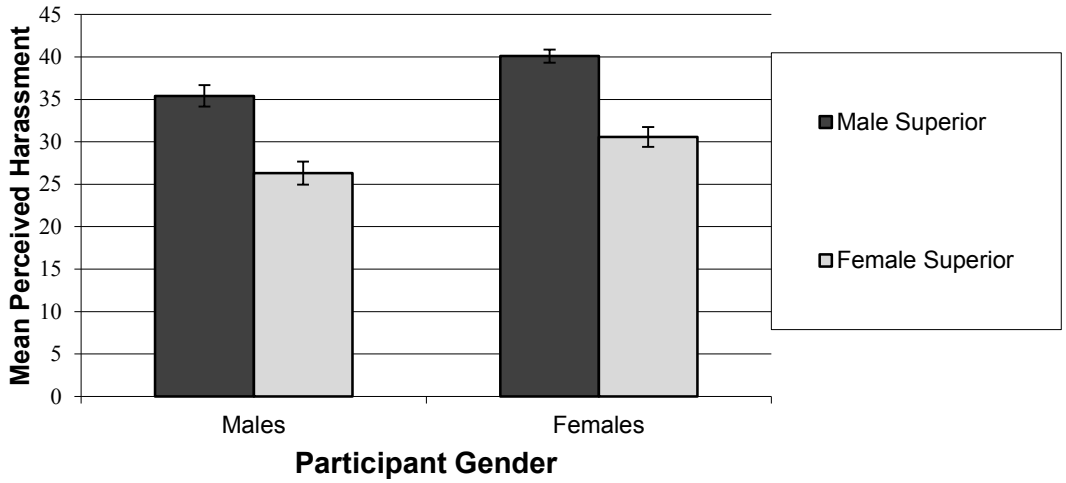
The omnibus ANOVA also revealed a main effect for the three statuses,[36] $F(1.75, 238.51) = 26.22$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .16$. Follow-up analyses showed that superiors (M = 33.1, SE = .7) were perceived as more harassing than peers (M = 26.95, SE = .74), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [4.21, 8.09], and subordinates (M = 30.33, SE = .61), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.37, 4.16], and that

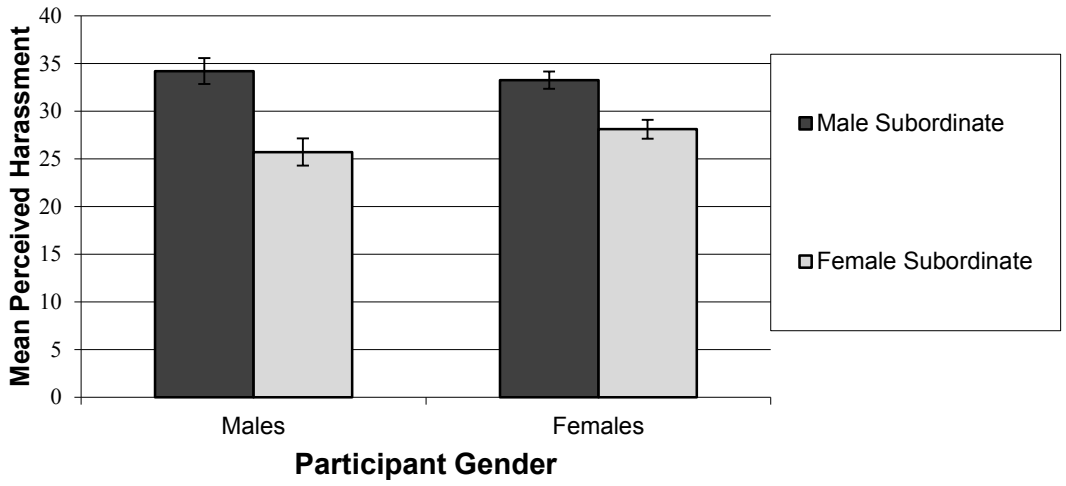
[36] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.72, 5.05]. There was no Participant Gender x Status interaction, $F(1.75, 238.51) = 2.75$, $p = .073$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

The omnibus ANOVA did not reveal a Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 272) = 1.88$, $p = .155$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. However, there was a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 272) = 4.07$, $p = .018$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses showed no interaction between participant gender and complimenter gender at the superior status level, $F(1, 136) = .04$, $p = .839$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$, 95% CI [-4.69, 3.82], nor at the subordinate status level, $F(1, 136) = 1.91$, $p = .169$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, 95% CI [-1.44, 8.15], but did show an interaction at the equal status level, $F(1, 136) = 17.42$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .11$, 95% CI [4.32, 12.1]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at the male equal and female equal levels. These tests revealed that females perceived more harassment ($M = 26.35$, $SD = 10.4$) than males ($M = 20.83$, $SD = 7.2$) when complimented by a female peer, $F(1, 136) = 9.6$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$, 95% CI [-9.05, -2], but that neither males nor females differed in their harassment perceptions when complimented by a male peer, $F(1, 136) = 2.28$, $p = .134$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, 95% CI [-.84, 6.22] (see Figure 21).

Low Agreeableness. For those who scored low on the Agreeableness factor, the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that males ($n = 52$; $M = 30.42$, $SE = .71$) and females ($n = 84$; $M = 31.64$, $SE = .56$) did not differ in their harassment perceptions, $F(1, 134) = 1.81$, $p = .18$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. The analysis did, however, reveal that male complimenters ($M = 34.11$, $SE = .47$) were perceived as more harassing than female complimenters ($M = 27.95$, $SE = .57$), with $F(1, 134) =$





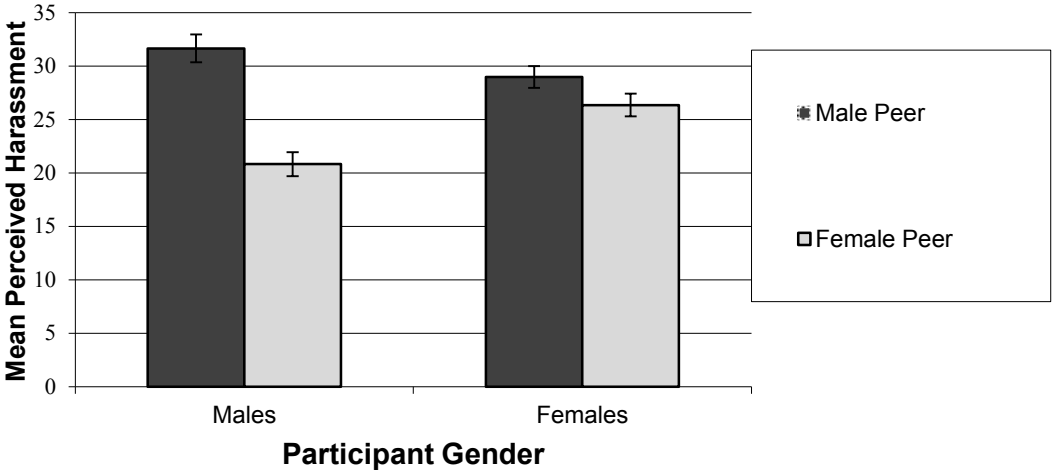


Figure 21. High Agreeableness males' and females' perceived harassment in each condition.

134.96, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .5$. There was no Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 134) = .23$, $p = .63$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$.

The omnibus ANOVA did reveal a main effect for the three statuses,[37] $F(1.89, 252.87) = 60.44$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .31$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from superiors ($M = 34.69$, $SE = .58$) were perceived as more harassing than compliments from peers ($M = 26.7$, $SE = .7$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [6.41, 9.57], and subordinates ($M = 31.69$, $SE = .57$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.73, 4.27], and that subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p < .001$, 95% CI [3.5, 6.47]. There was no Participant Gender x Status interaction, $F(1.89, 252.87) = .48$, $p = .611$, $\eta_p^2 = .004$.

The omnibus ANOVA did not reveal a Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 268) = 1.97$, $p = .142$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, but there was a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 268) = 6.29$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses showed a significant simple interaction between participant gender and complimenter gender at the superior status level, $F(1, 134) = 4.62$, $p = .033$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, 95% CI [-8.24, -.34], and the equal status level, $F(1, 134) = 7.91$, $p = .006$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$, 95% CI [1.56, 8.93], but not at the subordinate status level, $F(1, 134) = .107$, $p = .744$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$, 95% CI [-2.93, 4.09]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at the male superior and female superior levels as well as the male equal and female equal levels. These tests revealed that females perceived more harassment ($M = 40.08$, $SD = 7.22$) than males ($M = 36.46$, $SD = 7.08$) when complimented by a male superior, $F(1, 134) = 8.2$, $p = .005$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$, 95% CI [-6.12, -

[37] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

1.12], but neither males nor females differed in their harassment perceptions when complimented by a female superior, $F(1, 134) = .144$, $p = .705$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$, 95% CI [-2.82, 4.16], male peer, $F(1, 134) = 1.86$, $p = .175$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, 95% CI [-1, 5.44], or female peer, $F(1, 134) = 3.1$, $p = .081$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, 95% CI [-6.43, .37] (see Figure 22).

Conscientiousness. Those who scored high on the Conscientiousness (e.g., thinking before acting, following norms and rules) factor ($N = 137$) were those whose scores were greater than 4.1111 on this factor, and those who scored low on the Conscientiousness factor ($N = 106$) were those whose scores were less than 3.4444 on this factor. A two-tailed *t*-test was conducted between the high and low Conscientiousness groups using the aggregate harassment rating scale score as the dependent variable and high/low Conscientiousness as the independent variable. The analysis showed those high on Conscientiousness ($M = 189.85$, $SD = 30.80$) perceived more harassment than those low on Conscientiousness ($M = 179.86$, $SD = 30.39$), with $t(241) = -2.52$, $p = .012$, $d = -.33$, 95% CI [-17.79, -2.19]. In addition, the high Conscientiousness group as well as the low Conscientiousness group were each independently submitted to the same analyses as the additional contextual factors.

High Conscientiousness. For those who scored high on the Conscientiousness factor, the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that females ($n = 90$; $M = 32.92$, $SE = .51$) perceived more harassment than males ($n = 47$; $M = 29.19$, $SE = .71$), with $F(1, 135) = 18.37$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .12$. The analysis also revealed that participants perceived male complimenters ($M = 34.08$, $SE = .54$) as more harassing than female complimenters ($M = 28.03$, $SE = .55$), with $F(1, 135) = 85.55$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .39$. There was no Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 135) = .24$, $p = .624$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$.

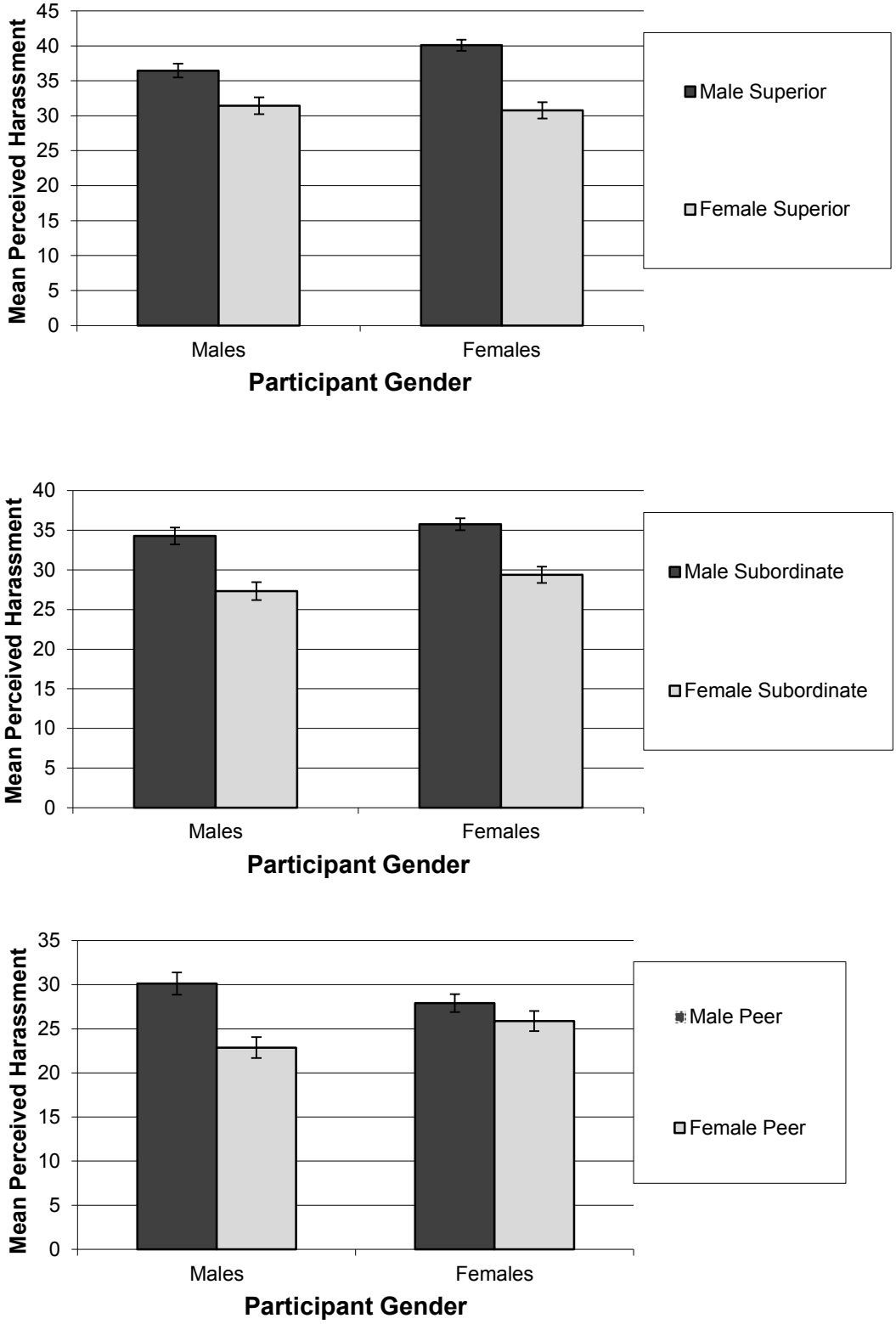


Figure 22. Low Agreeableness males' and females' perceived harassment in each condition.

The omnibus ANOVA revealed a significant difference among the three statuses,[38] $F(1.81, 243.9) = 36.17$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .21$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from superiors ($M = 34.38$, $SE = .65$) were perceived as more harassing than compliments from peers ($M = 27.33$, $SE = .7$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [5.15, 8.94], and subordinates ($M = 31.46$, $SE = .59$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.44, 4.39], and that subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.59, 5.66]. There was no Participant Gender x Status interaction, $F(1.81, 243.9) = 1.44$, $p = .239$, $\eta_p^2 = .011$.

The omnibus ANOVA did not reveal a Complimenter Gender x Status interaction,[39] $F(1.9, 256.83) = .13$, $p = .867$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$; however, there was a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(1.9, 256.83) = 3.65$, $p = .029$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses showed a significant simple interaction between participant gender and complimenter gender at the superior status level, $F(1, 135) = 4.02$, $p = .047$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, 95% CI [-8.25, -.06], but not at the equal status level, $F(1, 135) = 2.9$, $p = .091$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, 95% CI [-.55, 7.36], or subordinate status level, $F(1, 135) = .29$, $p = .589$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$, 95% CI [-5.52, 3.15]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at the male superior and female superior levels. These tests revealed that females perceived more harassment ($M = 41.19$, $SD = 7.35$) than males ($M = 33.79$, $SD = 8.15$) when complimented by a male superior, $F(1, 135) = 29.03$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .18$, 95% CI [-10.12, -4.69], but neither males nor females differed in their harassment perceptions when complimented by a female superior, $F(1, 135) = 2.92$, $p = .09$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, 95% CI [-7.02, .51] (see Figure 23).

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[38] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.
[39] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

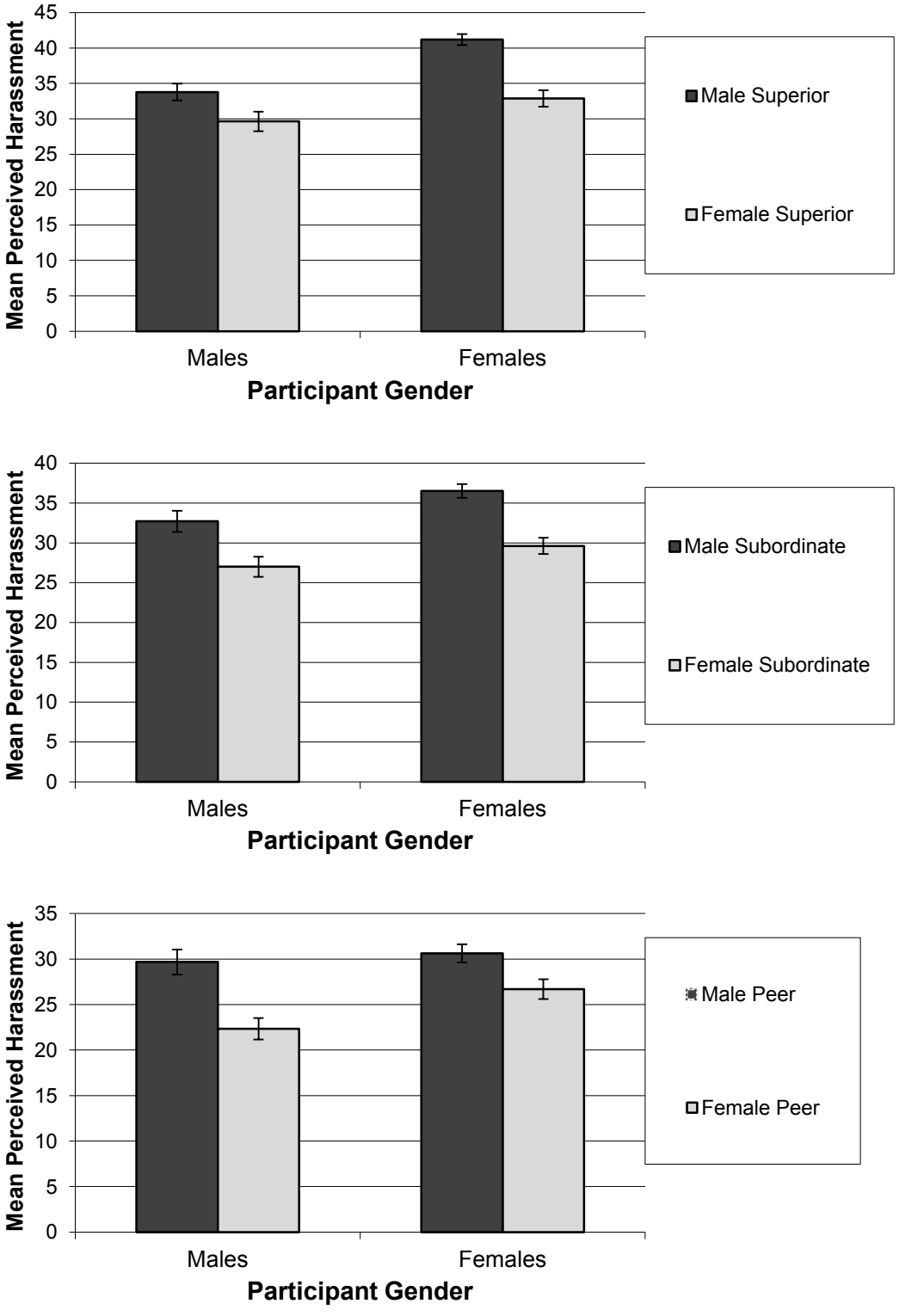


Figure 23. High Conscientiousness males' and females' perceived harassment in each condition.

Low Conscientiousness. For those who scored low on the Conscientiousness factor, the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that neither males (n = 30; M = 30.98, SE = .92) nor females (n = 76; M = 29.58, SE = .58) differed in their harassment perceptions, $F(1, 104) = 1.66$, $p = .2$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. The analysis did, however, reveal that male complimenters (M = 34.21, SE = .56) were perceived as more harassing than female complimenters (M = 26.35, SE = .69), with $F(1, 104) = 160.46$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .61$. This effect was modified by a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 104) = 10.78$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$.

In order to examine this interaction further, the three male complimenter harassment scale ratings were summed to get an aggregate male complimenter harassment rating, and the same was done for the female complimenters. A repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only male participants with complimenter gender as the independent variable and the aggregate harassment ratings for complimenter gender as the dependent variable. This analysis showed that males perceived male complimenters (M = 107.8, SD = 13.93) as more harassing than female complimenters (M = 78.1, SD = 17.68), with $F(1, 29) = 83.25$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .74$, 95% CI [23.04, 36.36]. The same analysis using only female participants revealed that females also perceived male complimenters (M = 97.47, SD = 16.27) as more harassing than female complimenters (M = 80, SD = 19.55), with $F(1, 75) = 79.82$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .52$, 95% CI [13.58, 21.37]. This effect is largely explained by the larger effect size for male participants versus female participants (see Figure 24).

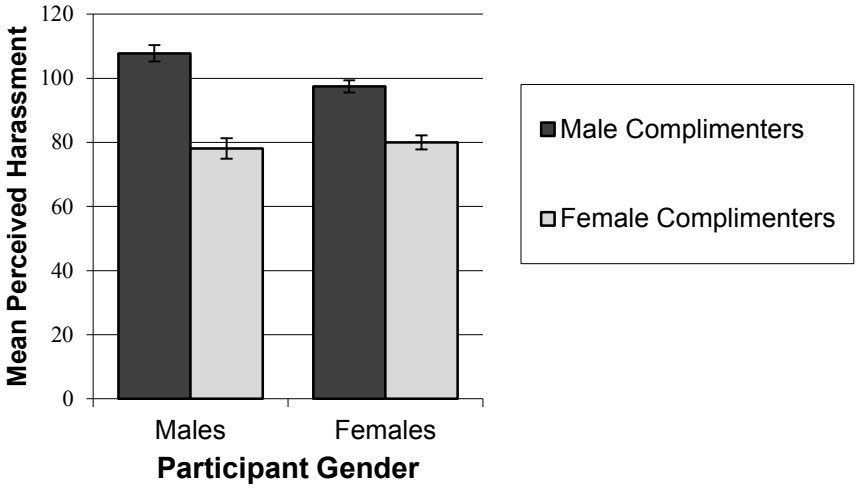


Figure 24. Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender perceived harassment for those low in Conscientiousness.

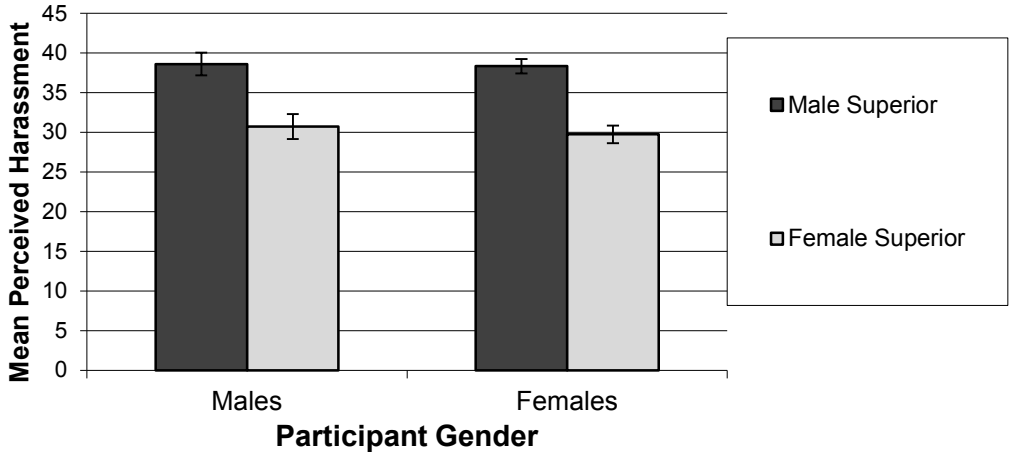
The omnibus ANOVA revealed a main effect among the three statuses,[40] $F(1.89, 196.74) = 55.05$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .35$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from superiors ($M = 34.35$, $SE = .73$) were rated as more harassing than compliments from peers ($M = 25.77$, $SE = .78$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [6.82, 10.34], and subordinates ($M = 30.72$, $SE = .65$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.2, 5.05], and that subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p < .001$, 95% CI [3.28, 6.63]. There was no Participant Gender x Status interaction, $F(1.89, 196.74) = .6$, $p = .54$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

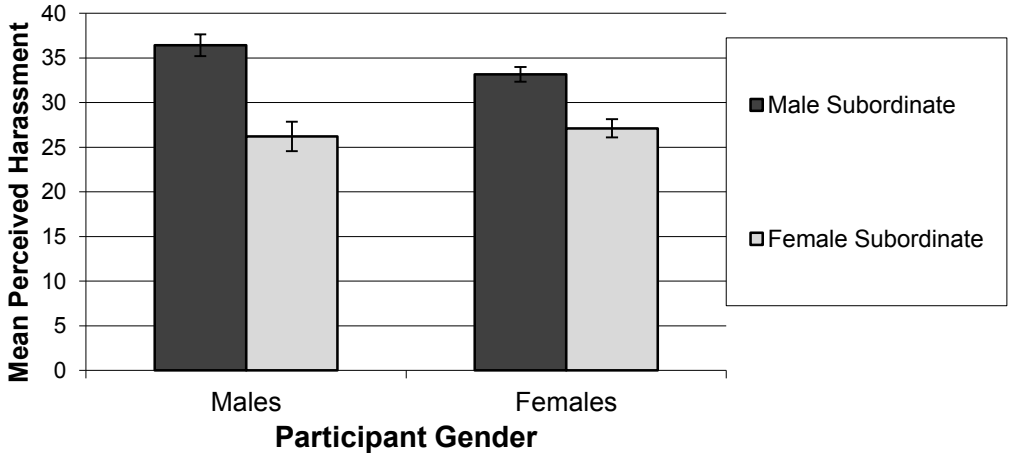
The omnibus ANOVA did not reveal a Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 208) = .24$, $p = .79$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$. However, there was a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 208) = 4.29$, $p = .015$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses

[40] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

showed a significant simple interaction between participant gender and complimenter gender at the equal status level, $F(1, 104) = 17.21$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .14$, 95% CI [4.58, 12.96], but not at the superior status level, $F(1, 104) = .1$, $p = .756$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$, 95% CI [-5.34, 3.89], or subordinate status level, $F(1, 104) = 3.33$, $p = .071$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, 95% CI [-.37, 8.73]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at the male equal and female equal levels. These tests revealed that males perceived more harassment ($M = 32.77$, $SD = 7.88$) than females ($M = 25.99$, $SD = 8.82$) when complimented by a male peer, $F(1, 104) = 12.32$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .11$, 95% CI [2.95, 10.61], but neither males nor females differed in their harassment perceptions when complimented by a female peer, $F(1, 104) = 1.18$, $p = .281$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, 95% CI [-5.63, 1.65] (see Figure 25).

Neuroticism. Those who scored high on the Neuroticism (e.g., feelings of anxiety, nervousness) factor ($N = 113$) were those whose scores were greater than 3.125 on this factor, and those who scored low on the Neuroticism factor ($N = 121$) were those whose scores were less than 2.375 on this factor. A two-tailed *t*-test was conducted between the high and low Neuroticism groups using the aggregate harassment rating scale score as the dependent variable and high/low Neuroticism as the independent variable. This analysis revealed that those high on Neuroticism ($M = 190.43$, $SD = 31.79$) perceived more harassment than those low on Neuroticism ($M = 175.54$, $SD = 29.12$), with $t(232) = -3.74$, $p < .001$, $d = -.49$, 95% CI [-22.74, -7.04]. In addition, the high Neuroticism group as well as the low Neuroticism group were each independently submitted to the same analyses as the additional contextual factors.





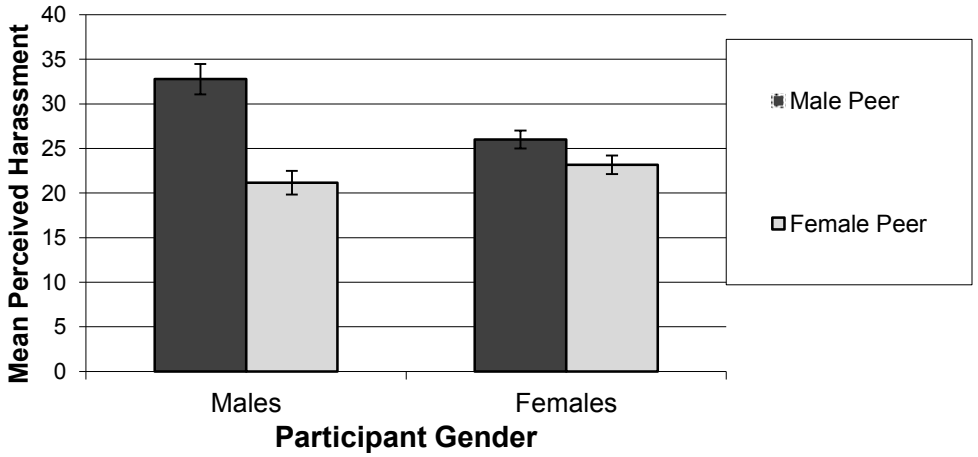


Figure 25. Low Conscientiousness males' and females' perceived harassment in each condition.

High Neuroticism. For those who scored high on the Neuroticism factor, the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that males (n = 24; M = 30.6, SE = 1.08) and females (n = 89; M = 32.04, SE = .56) did not differ in their harassment perceptions, $F(1, 111) = 1.4$, $p = .239$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. However, the analysis did reveal that male complimenters (M = 35.16, SE = .68) were perceived as more harassing than female complimenters (M = 27.49, SE = .73), with $F(1, 111) = 114.17$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .51$. This effect was modified by a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 111) = 4.28$, $p = .041$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$.

In order to examine this interaction further, the three male complimenter harassment scale ratings were summed to get an aggregate male complimenter harassment rating, and the same was done for the female complimenters. A repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only male participants with complimenter gender as the independent variable and the aggregate harassment ratings for complimenter gender as the dependent variables. This analysis showed that males perceived male complimenters (M = 105.54, SD = 15.17) as more harassing than female complimenters (M = 78.08, SD = 15.16), with $F(1, 23) = 57.68$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .72$, 95% CI [19.98, 34.94]. The same analysis using only female participants revealed that females also perceived male complimenters (M = 105.4, SD = 86.85) as more harassing than female complimenters (M = 86.85, SD = 20.02), with $F(1, 88) = 85.05$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .49$, 95% CI [14.55, 22.55]. This effect is largely explained by the larger effect size for male participants versus female participants (see Figure 26).

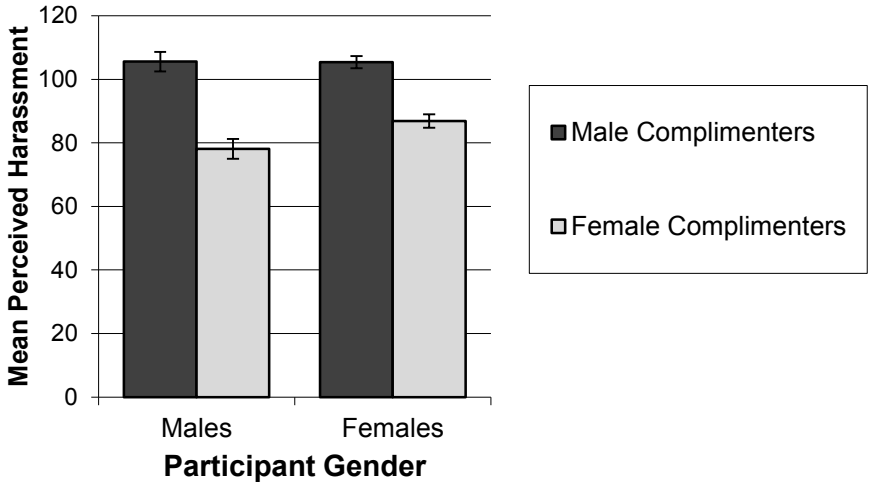


Figure 26. Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender perceived harassment for those high in Neuroticism.

The omnibus ANOVA revealed a main effect for the three statuses, $F(2, 222) = 31.35$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .22$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from superiors ($M = 34.73$, $SE = .82$) were perceived as more harassing than from peers ($M = 27.31$, $SE = .87$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [5.34, 9.51], and subordinates ($M = 31.93$, $SE = .77$), with $p = .002$, 95% CI [1.04, 4.56], and subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.85, 6.4]. There was no Participant Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 222) = 2.12$, $p = .122$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. The omnibus ANOVA also did not reveal a Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 222) = 1.52$, $p = .22$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, or Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 222) = .956$, $p = .386$, $\eta_p^2 = .009$.

Low Neuroticism. For those who scored low on the Neuroticism factor, the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that males ($n = 57$; $M = 28.63$, $SE = .64$) and females ($n = 64$; $M = 29.82$, $SE = .61$) did not differ in their harassment perceptions, $F(1, 119) = 1.81$, $p = .181$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. The analysis did, however, reveal that male complimenters ($M = 32.93$, $SE = .52$) were perceived as more harassing than female complimenters ($M = 25.51$, $SE = .56$), with $F(1, 119) =$

141.91, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .54$. There was no Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 119) = .03$, $p = .861$, $\eta_p^2 < .001$.

The omnibus ANOVA did reveal a main effect for the three statuses,[41] $F(1.76, 209.66) = 37.33$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .24$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from superiors ($M = 32.62$, $SE = .64$) were perceived as more harassing than from peers ($M = 25.8$, $SE = .7$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [4.99, 8.64], and subordinates ($M = 29.25$, $SE = .55$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.98, 4.76], and that subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.01, 4.88]. There was no Participant Gender x Status interaction, $F(1.76, 209.66) = 1.26$, $p = .283$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

The omnibus ANOVA did reveal a Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 238) = 3.77$, $p = .024$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. In order to examine this interaction further, a repeated measures ANOVA was employed using only the three male status conditions as the independent variables and the aggregate harassment rating scale scores as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed a main effect for the three male status scenarios,[42] $F(1.85, 222.26) = 36.7$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .23$, with compliments from male superiors ($M = 37.55$, $SD = 7.83$) perceived as more harassing than compliments from peers ($M = 29.03$, $SD = 9.63$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [6.27, 10.77], and subordinates ($M = 32.3$, $SD = 8.06$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [3.45, 7.06], and male subordinates perceived as more harassing than peers, $p = .001$, 95% CI [1.39, 5.14]. The same repeated measures ANOVA was then employed using only the three female status conditions as the independent variables and the aggregate harassment rating scale scores as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed a main effect for the three female status scenarios, $F(2, 240) = 11.31$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$, with compliments from female superiors ($M = 27.83$, $SD = 10.2$)

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[41] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.
[42] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

perceived as more harassing than from peers (M = 22.63, SD = 8.92), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.9, 7.49], but there was no difference in harassment perceptions from female superiors versus subordinates (M = 26.2, SD = 9.02), with $p = .154$, 95% CI [-.62, 3.88]. In addition, female subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p = .001$, 95% CI [1.48, 5.66] (see Figure 27).

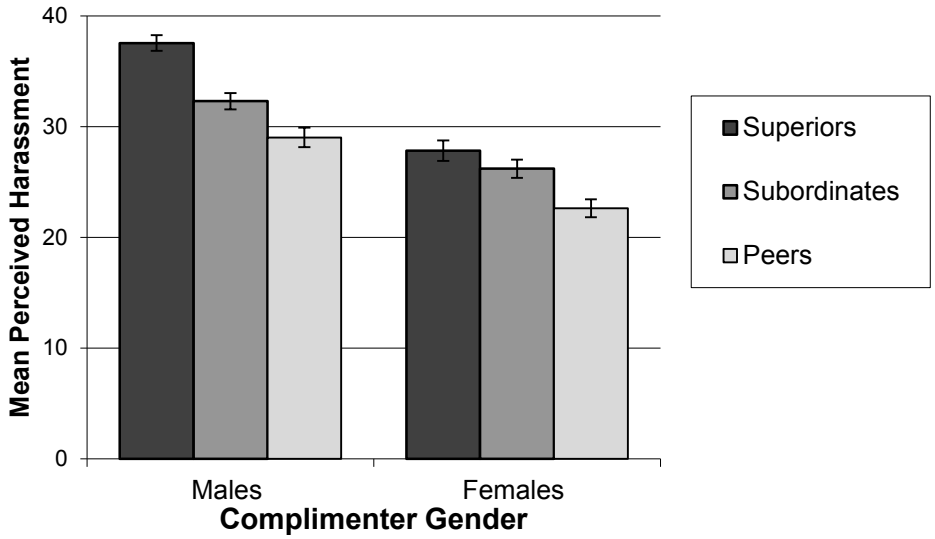


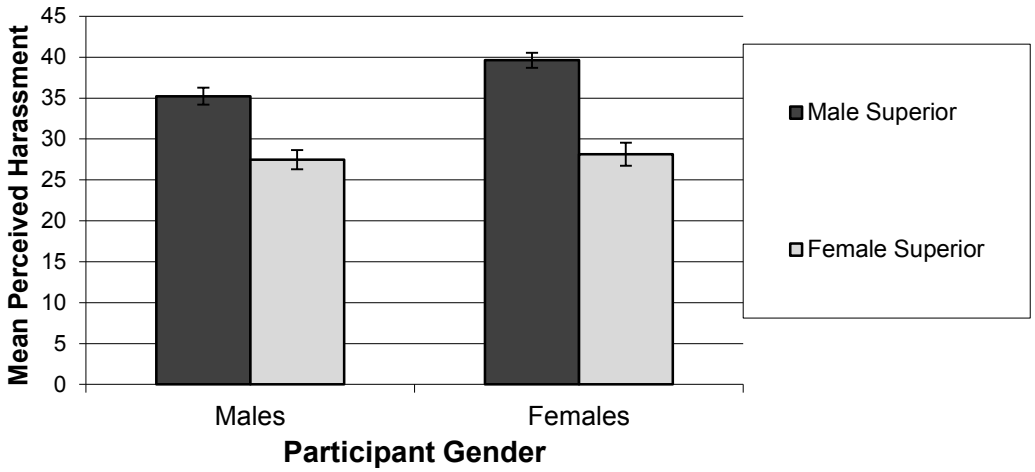
Figure 27. Complimenter Gender x Status perceived harassment for those low in Neuroticism.

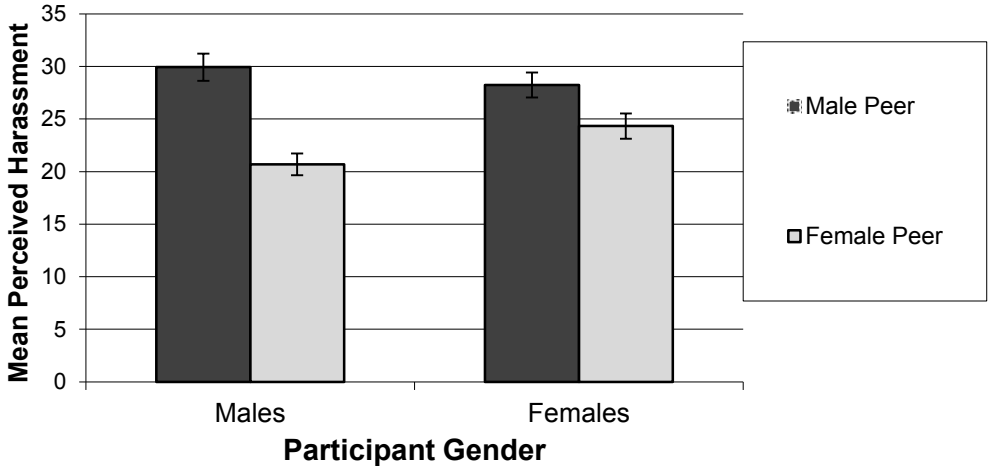
The omnibus ANOVA also revealed a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 238) = 5.5$, $p = .005$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses showed a significant simple interaction between participant gender and complimenter gender at the equal status level, $F(1, 119) = 8.51$, $p = .004$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$, 95% CI [1.72, 8.96], but not at the superior status level, $F(1, 119) = 3.29$, $p = .072$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, 95% CI [-7.8, .34], or subordinate status level, $F(1, 119) = .183$, $p = .669$, $\eta_p^2 = .002$, 95% CI [-5.35, 3.45]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at the male equal and female equal

levels. These tests revealed that females perceived more harassment (M = 24.34, SD = 9.57) than males (M = 20.7, SD = 7.78) from female peers, $F(1, 119) = 5.2$, $p = .024$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, 95% CI [-6.81, -.48], but neither males nor females differed in their harassment perceptions from male peers, $F(1, 119) = .93$, $p = .336$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, 95% CI [-1.78, 5.17] (see Figure 28).

Openness. Those who scored high on the Openness (e.g., originality, wide array of life experiences) factor (N = 118) were those whose scores were greater than 3.9 on this factor, and those who scored low on the Openness factor (N = 124) were those whose scores were less than 3.4 on this factor. A two-tailed t-test was conducted between the high and low Openness groups using the aggregate harassment rating scale score as the dependent variable and high/low Openness as the independent variable. This analysis revealed that those high on Openness (M = 181.97, SD = 34.4) perceived less harassment than those low on Openness (M = 190.32, SD = 28.42), with $t(240) = 2.06$, $p = .04$, $d = .26$, 95% CI [.38, 16.33]. In addition, the high Openness group as well as the low Openness group were each independently submitted to the same analyses as the additional contextual factors.

High Openness. For those who scored high on the Openness factor, the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that males (n = 38; M = 28.9, SE = .92) and females (n = 80; M = 31, SE = .63) did not differ in their harassment perceptions, $F(1, 116) = 3.58$, $p = .061$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. The analysis did reveal that male complimenters (M = 32.74, SE = .6) were perceived as more harassing than female complimenters (M = 27.16, SE = .68), with $F(1, 116) = 82.99$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .42$. There was no Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 116) = 2.86$, $p = .093$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.





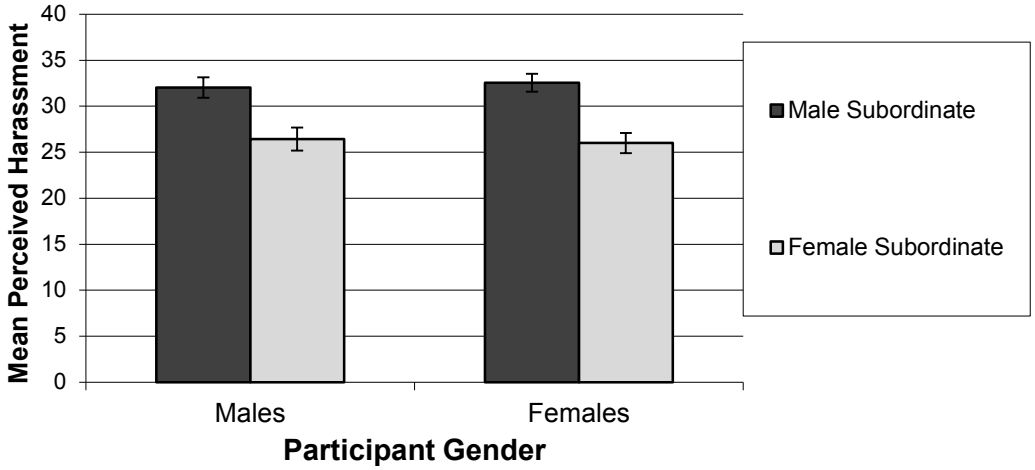


Figure 28. Low Neuroticism males' and females' perceived harassment in each condition.

The omnibus ANOVA did reveal a main effect among the three statuses,[43] $F(1.66, 192.65) = 31.94$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .22$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from superiors ($M = 33.37$, $SE = .72$) were perceived as more harassing than from peers ($M = 26.29$, $SE = .86$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [4.97, 9.19], and subordinates ($M = 30.19$, $SE = .68$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.7, 4.66], and that subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p < .001$, 95% CI [2.28, 5.51]. There was no Participant Gender x Status interaction,[44] $F(1.66, 192.65) = 1.78$, $p = .177$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. There also was no Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 232) = 2.13$, $p = .121$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, or Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 232) = 2.3$, $p = .103$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

Low Openness. For those who scored low on the Openness factor, the repeated measures ANOVA revealed that males ($n = 41$; $M = 30.74$, $SE = .74$) and females ($n = 83$; $M = 32.2$, $SE = .52$) did not differ in their harassment perceptions, $F(1, 122) = 2.64$, $p = .107$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. The analysis did, however, reveal that male complimenters ($M = 35.12$, $SE = .49$) were perceived as more harassing than female complimenters ($M = 27.83$, $SE = .6$), with $F(1, 122) = 137.39$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .53$. There was no Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender interaction, $F(1, 122) = 2.65$, $p = .106$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

The omnibus ANOVA did reveal a main effect among the three statuses,[45] $F(1.81, 220.9) = 43.49$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .26$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from superiors ($M = 34.85$, $SE = .67$) were perceived as more harassing than from peers ($M = 27.41$, $SE = .68$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [5.61, 9.27], and subordinates ($M = 32.17$, $SE = .59$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [1.28, 4.09], and subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p < .001$, 95% CI

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[43] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.
[44] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.
[45] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

[3.23, 6.29]. These effects were modified by a Participant Gender x Status interaction, $F(1.81, 220.9) = 4.49$, $p = .015$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$.

In order to examine this interaction further, the two superior status scenario ratings were summed to get an aggregate superior harassment rating, and the same was done for the equal and subordinate conditions. Using only the male participants, a repeated measures ANOVA was employed using each of the three statuses as the independent variable, and the aggregate ratings for each of the three statuses as the dependent variable. This analysis revealed that males perceived harassment differently among the three statuses, $F(2, 80) = 8.86$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .18$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from superiors ($M = 66.39$, $SD = 14.66$) were perceived as more harassing than from peers ($M = 56.1$, $SD = 12.46$), with $p = .001$, 95% CI [4.64, 15.95], but were not perceived differently from subordinates ($M = 61.98$, $SD = 12.37$), with $p = .059$, 95% CI [-.18, 9.01]. In addition, subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p = .013$, 95% CI [1.33, 10.42]. The same analysis was then employed using only the female participants. This analysis revealed that females perceived harassment differently among the three statuses,[46] $F(1.79, 147.1) = 53.49$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .4$. Follow-up analyses showed that compliments from superiors ($M = 73$, $SD = 13.67$) were perceived as more harassing than from peers ($M = 53.53$, $SD = 15.09$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [15.09, 23.85], and from subordinates ($M = 66.69$, $SD = 12.33$), with $p < .001$, 95% CI [3.03, 9.59], and subordinates were perceived as more harassing than peers, $p < .001$, 95% CI [9.44, 16.88] (see Figure 29).

[46] Mauchly's sphericity test was significant, therefore Greenhouse-Geisser adjustments are stated.

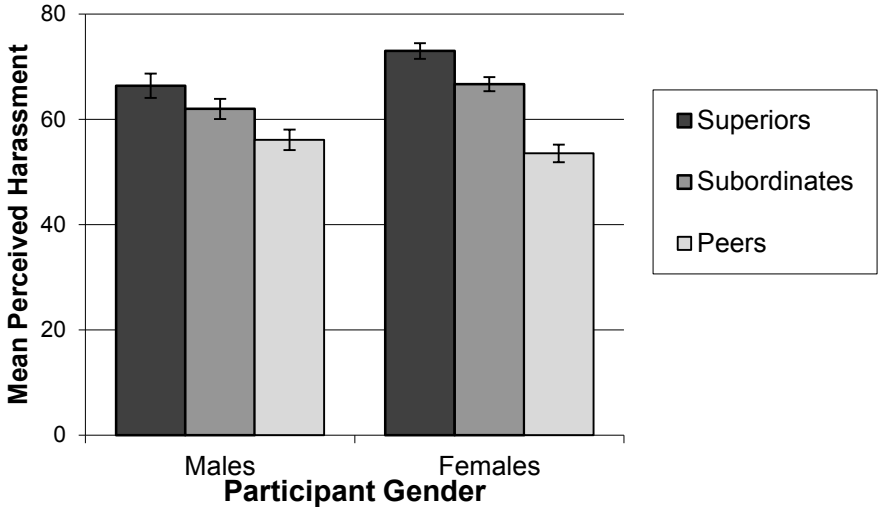

Figure 29. Participant Gender x Status perceived harassment for those low in Openness.

There was no Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 244) = .97$, $p = .379$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, but there was a Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender x Status interaction, $F(2, 244) = 8.46$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$. In order to deconstruct this three-way interaction, three linear contrast analyses were conducted to test the simple interaction of Participant Gender x Complimenter Gender at each of the three status levels. These analyses showed a significant simple interaction between participant gender and complimenter gender at the superior status level, $F(1, 122) = 5.14$, $p = .025$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, 95% CI [-8.24, -.56], and the equal status level, $F(1, 122) = 11.39$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$, 95% CI [2.78, 10.66], but not at the subordinate status level, $F(1, 122) = 2.96$, $p = .088$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, 95% CI [-.56, 8.06]. Based on these results, second-order simple effects for participant gender were tested at the male superior and female superior levels as well as the male equal and female equal levels. These tests revealed that females perceived more harassment ($M = 41.72$, $SD = 6.34$) than males ($M = 36.22$, $SD = 8.68$) when complimented by a male superior, $F(1, 122) = 16.07$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .12$, 95% CI [-8.22, -2.79], and that males perceived more harassment ($M = 33.39$, $SD = 7.67$) than females ($M = 28.75$, $SD = 9.09$) when complimented by

a male peer, $F(1, 122) = 7.9$, $p = .006$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$, 95% CI [1.37, 7.91]. Males and females did not differ in their harassment perceptions when complimented by a female superior, $F(1, 122) = .34$, $p = .559$, $\eta_p^2 = .003$, 95% CI [-4.85, 2.63], or female peer, $F(1, 122) = 1.45$, $p = .231$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, 95% CI [-5.49, 1.34] (see Figure 30).

Big Five Multiple Regression

In order to more fully explore what role personality plays in harassment perceptions, a stepwise multiple regression analysis was employed to predict harassment perceptions from each of the Big Five factors using the scores for Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, and Openness as the predictor variables, and the sum of all six harassment rating scale scores as the criterion variable. Conscientiousness, $b = 9.93$, $t(379) = 3.92$, $p < .001$; Neuroticism, $b = 9.46$, $t(379) = 4.57$, $p < .001$; and Openness, $b = -5.04$, $t(379) = -2.06$, $p = .04$, all emerged as statistically significant predictors of harassment perceptions. That is, more Conscientiousness, more Neuroticism, and less Openness, each predict more harassment perception. These three personality factors also explained a significant portion of the variance in harassment perceptions, $R^2 = .087$, $F(3, 379) = 12.03$, $p < .001$. However, while these three predictors explained a significant proportion of the variance statistically speaking, practically speaking, 8.7% is relatively small. It is likely that these three predictors were statistically significant because of the large sample size. Extraversion and Agreeableness did not emerge as statistically significant factors.

In addition, similar stepwise multiple regression analyses were employed using the Big Five factor scores as predictor variables and the summed scores of all six harassment scenarios for each of the additional contextual factors (e.g., attractiveness of complimenter) were used as criterion variables to see if personality factors helped explain perceptions of any of these

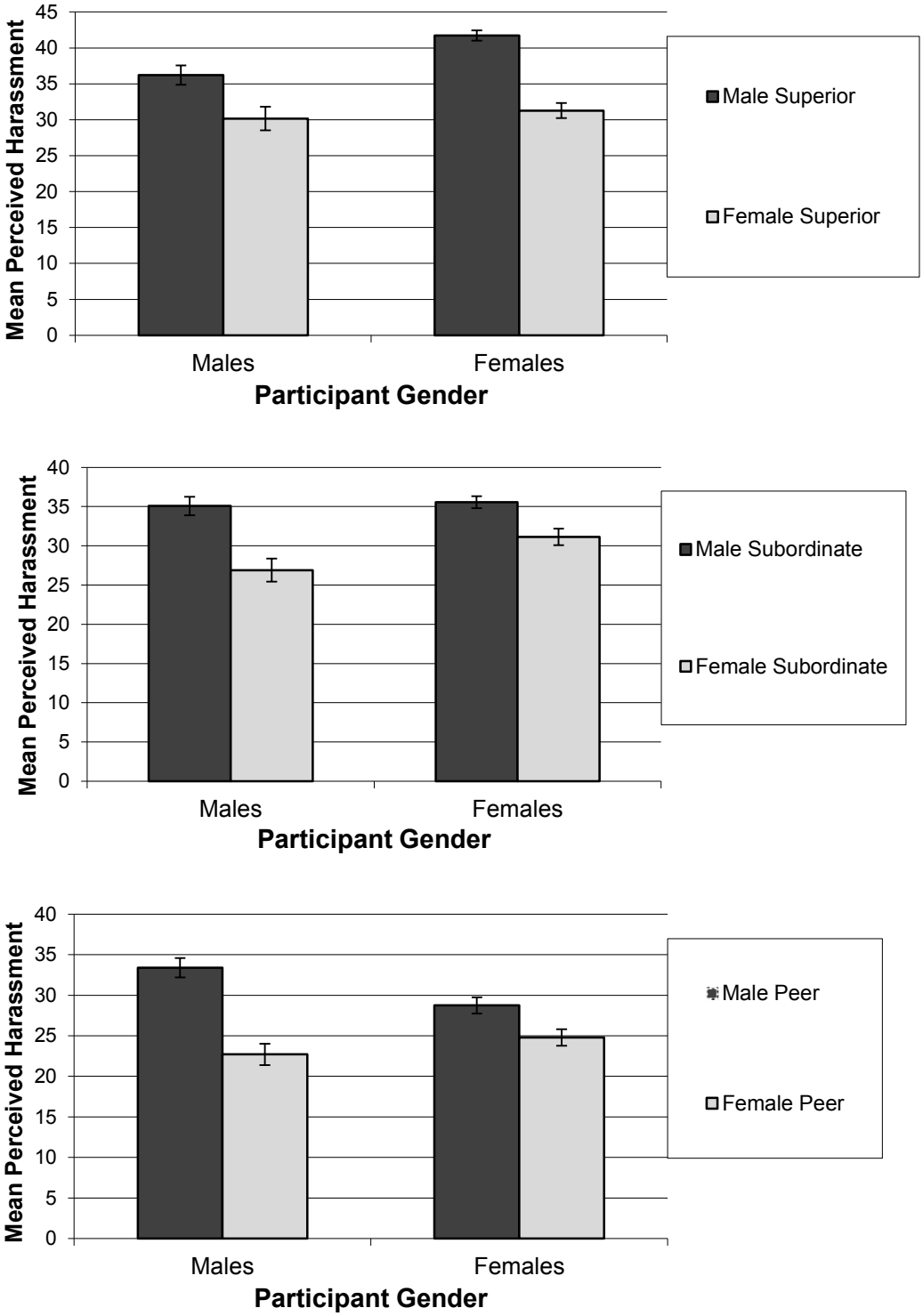

Figure 30. Low Openness males' and females' perceived harassment in each condition.

additional variables. None of the Big Five factors were predictive of how attractive participants perceived the complimenter to be. However, Conscientiousness, $b = -1.13$, $t(380) = -4.02$, $p < .001$, and Openness, $b = .688$, $t(380) = 2.46$, $p = .014$, did emerge as two factors that predicted whether participants desired to spend more time with the complimenter, and also explained a significant proportion of the variance, $R^2 = .057$, $F(2, 380) = 11.56$, $p < .001$. Also, Conscientiousness, $b = -1.05$, $t(380) = -3.2$, $p = .002$, and Neuroticism, $b = -.769$, $t(380) = -2.88$, $p = .004$, significantly predicted how acceptable participants found the compliment had they known the complimenter a long time, and explained a significant proportion of the variance, $R^2 = .037$, $F(2, 380) = 7.38$, $p = .001$. Extraversion, $b = .497$, $t(381) = 2.32$, $p = .021$, was the only factor that emerged as a statistically significant predictor of the flirtatiousness of the compliment, and explained a significant proportion of the variance, $R^2 = .014$, $F(1, 381) = 5.37$, $p = .021$. Conscientiousness, $b = -.709$, $t(381) = -2.22$, $p = .027$, was the only factor that statistically significantly predicted the complimenter's perceived tone of voice, and explained a significant proportion of the variance, $R^2 = .013$, $F(1, 381) = 4.94$, $p = .027$. None of the Big Five factors were predictive of how likely it was that participants felt the complimenter was married. Finally, Extraversion, $b = .943$, $t(381) = 3.66$, $p < .001$, was the only factor that emerged as a statistically significant predictor of participants' perceptions of the likelihood of the situation, and explained a significant proportion of the variance, $R^2 = .034$, $F(1, 381) = 13.4$, $p < .001$. Again, while each of the aforementioned factors were statistically significant, the coefficients of determination were relatively small from a practical standpoint and were likely statistically significant only because of the large sample size.

Discussion

As previously mentioned, not only is the amount of empirical studies for the topic of appearance compliments and sexual harassment relatively limited (i.e., there are very few studies for thirty years-worth of research), but many of the studies concerning the overlap of sexual harassment and compliment behavior are dated. One main purpose for this current study was to further investigate how appearance compliments are perceived in a workplace or academic environment because of the changes in people's perceptions that generally occur over time (e.g., there may have been a more liberal tone in the workplace regarding these interactions than there is now). For example, journalist John Stossel discusses an interview he had with Olivet Jones, a consultant who companies pay to conduct sexual harassment seminars. Stossel queries Jones as to whether one can compliment even another person's eyes, to which Jones responds that what one may think is a harmless compliment could be interpreted very differently by someone else (Stossel, 2004). Additionally, this current research was conducted because most, if not all, of the research concerning this topic does not identify appearance compliment behavior and its harassing potential as the researchers' sole focus of investigation, something which this study now contributes to the literature.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1. Consistent with Hypothesis 1a, females perceived appearance compliments from men as more harassing than males perceived appearance compliments from women. This finding is in harmony with previously discussed research that led to this theorizing, such as men viewing ambiguous behaviors from the opposite sex more positively than women (Abbey, 1987) and women being more likely to define and/or perceive behaviors as sexual harassment (e.g., see Rotundo et al., 2001; Tata, 1993). This gender difference in

compliment perception from a person of the opposite sex suggests that women are more easily offended by male compliments, that men are more flattered by female compliments, or both. Males have a tendency to view friendly behavior as flirtatious (see Abbey, 1987), and so may be flattered by the compliment, whereas females may feel objectified by it.

Also, consistent with Hypotheses 1b-d, appearance compliments in male-male situations were perceived as more harassing than in female-female situations; and males perceived same-gender appearance compliments as more harassing than cross-gender ones, whereas females perceived cross-gender appearance compliments as more harassing than same-gender ones. Thus, overall, people do not favorably perceive appearance compliments from males in these workplace environments. This finding is consistent with Jones and Remland's (1992) finding that the harasser's gender may play a larger role in perceptions than target gender. These results indicate that it would be best for men to avoid giving appearance compliments to anyone (men or women) in the workplace, and that women have more leeway in matters of complimenting appearance. Steering clear of appearance compliments though does not mean that men must avoid giving any compliments; rather, their compliments should be pertinent to another's work performance rather than appearance.

Hypothesis 2. Consistent with Hypothesis 2a, compliments given in status differential situations were perceived as more harassing than compliments between peers. This finding supports previous research that has found that sexual teasing, jokes, or remarks are viewed as more serious for both sexes when coming from a supervisor rather than a co-worker (Tangri et al., 1982; see also Popovich et al., 1986). Also, consistent with Hypothesis 2b, appearance compliments given from superiors were perceived as more harassing than from subordinates, which is in line with previous research that found high status initiators to be viewed as more

harassing than low status initiators (Solomon & Williams, 1997b). Even though a high status individual may not intend to be offensive, a low-status individual may perceive particular actions as harassment (Tata, 1993).

When an appearance compliment is given in a status differential situation, recipients may not know how to react and fear that their reaction, if not pleasing to the complimenter, may have negative ramifications. For example, if a superior compliments one's appearance, perhaps one may fear an unfavorable reaction to the compliment might result in the loss of a job or the reception of a poor grade. As stated earlier, a high-status initiator may use joking to explore what the target thinks or how the target responds, and if the target responds positively or complies, the high-status individual may view such a response as interpersonal attraction. However, the low-status person may perceive such an approach as an abuse of power (whether the initiator intended it to be or not), feel constrained, and fear some type of retaliation if he or she rejects the advance (Brewer, 1982). In the case of a subordinate complimenter, one may fear that the subordinate might have some say as to whether the compliment recipient can keep his or her job such as in giving anonymous negative student evaluations of a professor (somewhat relating to the contrapower harassment spoken of earlier by Benson [1984]). If a compliment is received from a co-worker or peer, there is no power differential, thus the compliment is likely perceived as less threatening. After all, co-workers are the most tolerated perpetrators of harassment (Schneider, 1982).

Hypothesis 3. Consistent with Hypotheses 3a-c, females perceived compliments from a male superior, subordinate, and peer as more harassing than males perceived compliments from a female complimenter at each of the three status levels, respectively. These findings are, in part, consistent with Kenig and Ryan's (1986) finding that, when given categories of potentially

harassing behaviors, women were more likely than men to interpret the behaviors as harassing when the perpetrator had no direct authority over the victim. Also, consistent with Hypotheses 3d-e, both males and females perceived compliments from a same-gender superior as more harassing than from a same-gender subordinate or peer, and perceived a compliment from a same-gender subordinate as more harassing than from a same-gender peer, which is consistent with research cited earlier for Hypothesis 2 concerning status (e.g., Popovich et al.'s finding [1986] that behaviors are more likely to be perceived as harassing if they come from a supervisor versus a co-worker, and high status initiators viewed as more harassing than low status initiators [Solomon & Williams, 1997b]).

Thus, it appears that when combining the gender of the complimenter with the different statuses, the different statuses still follow the predicted trend in harassment perception with superiors being the most harassing, followed by subordinates, followed by peers, and that perceived harassment is magnified when the complimenter is male. These findings show that both men and women in status differential positions (especially superior positions) likely need to take their professional positions into account before giving appearance compliments. In fact, for superiors, males, and especially male superiors, it may be best to entirely avoid giving appearance compliments to anyone, and to only give performance-based compliments in a work environment. Appearance compliments from males or superiors may lead to psychological discomfort for the recipient, confusion as to how the recipient should react to the compliment which may affect work performance, and perhaps even legal action which could cost the organization financially or the complimenter his job. While females should also use discretion in giving appearance compliments, they can likely feel freer to compliment another's appearance in the workplace as long as that individual is a co-worker or peer. Clearly, whether an appearance

compliment is perceived as merely a compliment or as harassment depends on the context of the situation.

Based on these results, it is clear that there indeed exists a double standard between men and women in the workplace regarding appearance compliments. In some ways, these findings mean that men are more limited than women in what they can say in a working environment because of possible negative repercussions. From a psychological standpoint, the exact same compliment is not perceived equally when given from a man or woman. While this double standard is not by definition "fair" for men, it is still important for people to be aware that compliments from men and women will not be equally perceived. In addition, recall that harassment might have more negative consequences on women's lives than men's lives (Mazer & Percival, 1989), which is also unfair for women.

It should also be noted that the appearance compliments used in this study (e.g., "You look really hot in those clothes") were not so blatant that they would obviously be perceived as harassing, but they also were not so benign that one would have a hard time perceiving them as harassing. While men and those in superior status positions can stay safe by avoiding appearance compliments altogether, there is a possibility that milder appearance compliments (e.g., "That's a nice shirt") may be acceptable regardless of gender or status.

Additional Contextual Factors

Some of the main findings from this research are that male complimenters are perceived as more harassing than female complimenters; supervisors are perceived as more harassing than subordinates or peers, and subordinates are perceived as more harassing than peers; and males perceive appearance compliments from other men as more harassing than females perceive them from other women. The additional variables for this study (that were not part of the Harassment

Rating Scale) were included in this research merely to see whether they warranted further investigation concerning compliments and sexual harassment, and there were no hypotheses concerning these variables. These variables provide further insight to the main findings from this research because they demonstrate different ways in which the general findings from this research are manifest. For example, male complimenters were viewed as less attractive than female complimenters, and supervisors were viewed as less attractive than peers or subordinates, which parallels the main findings for gender and status harassment perceptions. The fact that harassment perceptions and complimenter attractiveness covary also shows that attractiveness may play a role in how a compliment is perceived (see Wuensch & Moore, 2004).

These main findings are also manifest in different ways by other variables such as people not wanting to spend as much time with males or superiors than others (e.g., females, peers) who say these appearance compliments. People are more offended by male or superior complimenters, so it is understandable that people would not want to spend as much time with them. Similarly, regardless of whether they have known the person for a long time, male and superior appearance compliments are still viewed as less acceptable than other situations and while previous relationship/experiences between a perpetrator and victim have been examined in the past to some degree (e.g., Reilly, Carpenter, Dull, & Bartlett, 1982), some even briefly touching upon appearance compliments (see Rossi & Weber-Burdin, 1983), it would be interesting to explore this topic in more depth.

Even the flirtatiousness of the appearance compliment shows some support for the general findings of this study. It appears that males are more likely than females to view appearance compliments as flirtatious (which is consistent with Abbey's [1987] work) which means that males perceive appearance compliments from females more favorably, whereas

females perceive these compliments from males less favorably. Also, for both sexes, opposite-sex compliments at any of the three status levels are perceived as more flirtatious than same-sex compliments, and these same-sex compliments may be especially concerning for males because they may wonder why a man is commenting on their physical appearance and wonder if this man is coming on to them (presuming that recipients are heterosexual and would be worried about this). In fact, recall that males and females were both more likely in all scenarios to perceive a same-sex complimenter as homosexual than heterosexual. People in professional working environments, especially males complimenting other males' looks, might do well to avoid such compliments in order to avoid the possible discomfort that the recipient might feel, and, in more extreme cases, a formal complaint.

Some of the general findings are somewhat manifest even in the tone of voice of the complimenter. For example, males viewed male complimenters as more sarcastic/joking than female complimenters, suggesting that they are less offended by female complimenters because they take the female compliments more literally and sincerely rather than with a teasing tone they associate with males. Something that would be of much benefit for future research would be to assess harassment perceptions based on having participants listen to different tones of voice using the same compliment. Recent compliment research has examined tone of voice when giving a compliment, assessing effects of different types of compliments such as literal compliments and ironic compliments (e.g., Dews, Kaplan, & Winner, 1995; Ivanko, Pexman, & Olineck, 2004; Pexman & Olineck, 2002). Perhaps the way that an appearance compliment is stated (in a joking or literal tone) may influence harassment perception. Perceived marital status of the complimenter also provides some insight regarding the main findings of this study.

Superiors were probably perceived as more likely to be married than other statuses because becoming a "superior" means that one has had to work his or her way up to that position, which takes time, implying that superiors are older. Logically, it follows that the older the individual, the more opportunities that person has had to get married, so people probably view superiors as more likely to be married than other statuses. The fact that superiors were perceived as more likely to be married than peers or subordinates may also explain why people were more offended by superiors' appearance compliments. When someone who is married compliments another on his or her appearance (which we know is associated more or less with flirtatiousness), this may raise some red flags and make the recipient wonder why someone in such a position would be commenting on his or her looks when this "superior" has a spouse to whom they should be committed. Some researchers have looked into marital status as a harassment variable (e.g., Fain & Anderton, 1987; Jackson & Newman, 2004), but in both of these studies, only the marital status of the victim was taken into account, not the harasser. Therefore, it may be interesting to manipulate marital status as a variable and see how it affects the perception of an appearance compliment when coming from a married or single individual and directed toward a married or single individual.

The perceived likelihood that any of these situations could occur was included in this study mostly to see how well participants perceive these scenarios as mapping onto reality. Recall that women give compliments more often than men (Herbert, 1990; Holmes, 1988; Wolfson, 1983) and receive compliments more often than men (Holmes, 1988; Wolfson, 1983), and that compliments between those "equal" in status are given far more often than compliments given from those in higher status positions to lower status positions or vice versa (Holmes, 1986; see also Holmes, 1988; Knapp et al., 1984; Wolfson, 1983). In the current study, females were

more likely than men to believe the situations overall could occur, female complimenter scenarios were perceived as more likely than male complimenter scenarios, and compliments from peers were perceived as more likely than from subordinates and superiors. Therefore, this question acted as an effective "reality" check because the perceived likelihood of each situation follows the same pattern as the compliment frequency research cited above. That is, participants in this study felt the most likely scenarios were those that previous research has also shown to be the more common compliment situations (e.g., women give compliments more often than men).

Also, females were more likely than males to report having a female superior compliment them and a male peer compliment them which fits with the normative gender compliment research cited above. And, while it is true that there were few gender differences regarding the other scenarios as to whether or not males or females had had a similar situation happen to them, this question merely asks whether one singular similar instance had ever occurred in their life, not the frequency of these instances that have occurred over time for each individual. Thus, the results from this question are not necessarily contrary to the previously cited normative compliment research because women still may experience these situations more often than men. Some past research on sexual harassment has taken prior experiences of sexual harassment into account (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Rotundo et al., 2001), and may be worth including in future studies. In addition, although there was not much noteworthy to be discussed from people's perceived age of the complimenter, some past sexual harassment research has examined age as a factor (e.g., Blumenthal, 1998; Jackson & Newman, 2004), and, for future studies, it still may be worth examining whether men or women are more or less offended by a potentially uncomfortable appearance compliment from an older or younger man or woman.

Big Five

Extraversion and Agreeableness. Recall that the Big Five personality factors were included in this study merely as exploratory variables and that there were no hypotheses concerning these variables. These personality factors were included to see whether personality may play a role in whether appearance compliments are perceived as harassing. Whether a person rates high (is outgoing, social) or low (not outgoing) on Extraversion, or high (trusting, tender-minded) or low (untrusting) on Agreeableness does not seem to have a large an impact on people's perceptions of whether appearance compliments are harassing. However, the remaining three personality factors (Conscientiousness, Neuroticism, Openness) do provide some information concerning this topic. Each of these remaining factors will be addressed in turn.

Conscientiousness. The Conscientiousness factor provides some valuable information regarding perceived harassment as those who score high on this factor are more likely to perceive harassment than those who score low on this factor. Those who are conscientious are more aware of their surroundings and situations and thus are probably more likely to view such situations as harassment because they are actually attending to the situation. Also, those who are conscientious tend to follow norms, and some of these harassment scenarios may fall out of the norm (especially appearance compliments from high status males), which may be a reason why those who score high on this dimension are more likely to view the scenarios as harassing. Thus, it appears that Conscientiousness may be a factor to take into account when assessing harassment perceptions.

Neuroticism. The Neuroticism factor provides some interesting insight into perceptions of harassment as well. Perhaps those who scored high on this dimension were more likely to perceive harassment than those who scored low on this dimension because those who score high

on Neuroticism are more likely to be anxious or nervous, and perhaps receiving these types of compliments increases their anxiety, and/or makes them uncomfortable, thus resulting in increased harassment perception. Neurotic personalities may be more easily offended because they are more likely to be emotionally on edge. Thus, Neuroticism is a personality factor that one may consider including in harassment perception research as well.

Openness. The Openness personality factor also provides useful insight into how personality may influence judgments of harassment. Those who scored high on this dimension were probably less likely to perceive harassment than those who scored low on this dimension because they are likely more open to a wide variety of experiences and situations. That is, in the context of this study, those who are open to experiences are probably more lenient in their judgments of comments they receive from others. Also, those who are more open may be more accepting of potentially uncomfortable situations, thus less likely to perceive taboo appearance compliments as a form of harassment. Thus, Openness may also be an important personality factor to take into account when assessing harassment perceptions.

Limitations

Hostile environment harassment has a number of factors that could potentially affect perceptions. One of those factors may be the age of the potential victim. One limitation to this study may be that participants were fairly young. While it is the case that college students are likely to have had some work experience and, obviously, academic experience, they still may be more open to certain situations or not be as aware of potentially harassing situations because of their youth and/or lack of "real-world" work experience. Perhaps with more work experience and knowledge of the world, participants may feel differently. For example, Foulis & McCabe (1997) found that older people were less tolerant of harassing behavior than younger people.

Therefore, it would be helpful to get a more diverse age range to see if these results translate. However, the fact that the hypotheses for this study were supported by these results with such a youthful sample suggests that the hypotheses may be even more likely to be supported with an older, more experienced sample, or at least a more age diverse sample.

Another possible limiting factor is that some people may not believe that some of the compliments would be said from one gender to another. That is, perhaps there could be some different compliments used that might be more likely to be said by either sex to either sex. While this could be easily altered, it may always be the case that one has difficulty perceiving some of these compliments coming from one gender to another. For example, since males are less likely to receive compliments than females (Holmes, 1988; Wolfson, 1983), it stands to reason that these situations, regardless of what compliments are used, would be less believable. However, such situations should still be studied because, although they may be rare, the question still remains as to how a person would react in the event that such compliments were received. This study helps to address this issue, but it is understood that some compliments may still be more believable than others.

Two other limiting factors to this study are the fact that participants did not see or hear the complimenter. Depending on the feelings participants get in viewing the complimenter or physically hearing the compliment, results may differ depending on how the complimenter looks and/or sounds. Participants were left to create their own mental picture of the situation rather than being provided physical stimuli. All participants are probably conjuring up very different images of each appearance compliment situation, and thus there may be a wide variety of mental images that are unaccounted for in these data. While there is a lack of control in this aspect, the results still followed predicted trends despite the variations in participants' imaginations.

Future Directions

Future studies could help address some of these limitations by sampling a more diverse age range and also perhaps having people view a brief video clip of the complimenter. The same background information could be provided to the participant and then different video clips could be played. By doing so, the recipient would be able to both see and hear the complimenter and this approach may help reduce variability in people's imaginations and provide more control for the researcher. Based on the results from this study, it might also be beneficial to take some of these things a step farther by having various levels of attractiveness of the complimenters and/or different tones used by the complimenter (i.e., an ironic compliment versus a literal compliment; see Pexman & Olineck, 2002) and assessing harassment perceptions based on some of these additional variables now that some groundwork in this current era regarding gender and status differences has been laid.

Conclusion

People should not need to fear losing their jobs at an "innocent word or gesture", but individuals should also be aware that no one has the excuse to enact certain behaviors just because they engage in less extreme forms of potentially harassing behaviors (Padgitt & Padgitt, 1986, p. 38). Thacker and Gohmann (1993) suggest that organizations need to train their employees about potential hostile work environment types of harassment. Even if appearance compliments are mild, though, some researchers have suggested that organizations work to decrease any offensive sex-related behaviors that in the past have been considered subtle and minor as a victimized worker will be less likely to be committed and productive (Langhout et al., 2005, p. 1001). Learning what behaviors constitute sexual harassment can help in policy development for the workplace and help reduce individual and organizational costs (Terpstra &

Baker, 1987). Some researchers believe that training programs for employees that address explicit types of behaviors can help misunderstandings of intentions that were meant to be friendly or flirtatious and distinguish them from harassing behaviors (Solomon & Williams, 1997a). This research hopefully provides insight into some of these issues and can perhaps be implemented in training programs for supervisors (and others in high status positions) and employees alike.

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Appendix A

Recruiting Scripts

Principal Investigator. Hello, my name is David McMillan. I am currently conducting research for my doctoral dissertation. I am interested in in how people perceive remarks in everyday interactions. People often interpret verbal utterances differently and I am interested in finding out how people personally interpret each remark. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to read through a number of hypothetical scenarios and then to make ratings of each of those scenarios. You will also be asked some basic questions about yourself as well as some demographic information. Your participation is estimated to take about 50 minutes. You may sign up to participate by going to the SONA website and clicking on the study "Perceptions of Remarks in Everyday Interactions." You will have the option of either filling out the survey online from your own computer, or you may sign up for a time slot to come to a computer lab on campus and fill out the survey online in the lab. If you choose to come to the lab, you may receive either two dollars for your participation or receive course or extra credit dependent upon your individual professor. If you choose to fill the survey out online without coming to a computer lab, then you may not receive cash compensation, but will receive either course or extra credit depending upon your professor. Thank you.

Other recruiters. Hello, my name is _____. I am an undergraduate student in psychology and am currently assisting David McMillan conduct research for his doctoral dissertation. We are interested in in how people perceive remarks in everyday interactions. People often interpret verbal utterances differently and we are interested in finding out how people personally interpret each remark. If you choose to participate, you will be asked to read through a number of hypothetical scenarios and then to make ratings of each of those scenarios. You will also be asked some basic questions about yourself as well as some demographic information. Your participation is estimated to take about 50 minutes. You may sign up to participate by going to the SONA website and clicking on the study "Perceptions of Remarks in Everyday Interactions." You will have the option of either filling out the survey online from your own computer, or you may sign up for a time slot to come to a computer lab on campus and fill out the survey online in the lab. If you choose to come to the lab, you may receive either two dollars for your participation or receive course or extra credit dependent upon your individual professor. If you choose to fill the survey out online without coming to a computer lab, then you may not receive cash compensation, but will receive either course or extra credit depending upon your professor. Thank you.

Appendix B

Perceptions of Remarks in Everyday Interactions
Consent to be a Research Subject

Introduction

This research study is being conducted by David McMillan, doctoral candidate, under the supervision of Robert D. Ridge, PhD, at Brigham Young University to determine how people perceive remarks in everyday interactions. You were invited to participate because you are a student in the Psychology department.

Procedures

If you agree to participate in this research study, the following will occur:

- On the questionnaire that follows, you will be asked to read six different hypothetical scenarios.
- You will be asked to make several ratings following each scenario.
- You will be asked some basic questions about yourself.
- The entire study will take place online from your own computer or a campus lab computer.
- Your participation in this research is estimated to take 50 minutes.

Risks/Discomforts

There are minimal risks for participation in this study. However, you may feel some discomfort when reading and/or answering questions about the scenarios and about yourself. If you feel embarrassed about answering a particular question, you may choose to decline or excuse yourself from the study.

Benefits

There will be no direct benefits to you. However, it is hoped that through your participation researchers will learn more about remarks and how they are perceived.

Confidentiality

The research data will be kept secure by being stored in a password protected database, and only the researchers will have access to the data. The ratings made will be completely anonymous. At the conclusion of the study, the data will continue to be kept in the password protected database.

Compensation

At the conclusion of their session, participants who have come to the lab will receive either two dollars compensation for their participation or course or extra credit, depending on the participants' professors. Compensation will not be prorated. Participants who fill out the study online and do not come to the lab may be offered course or extra credit by their professor, but do not qualify for the option of cash compensation. Alternative extra credit opportunities are available on SONA or through other means as determined by one's professor.

Participation

Participation in this research study is voluntary. You have the right to withdraw at any time or refuse to participate entirely without jeopardy to your class status, grade or standing with the university.

Questions about the Research

If you have questions regarding this study, you may contact David McMillan, doctoral candidate, at (801) 440-6966, davidmcmillan80@gmail.com or Robert D. Ridge, PhD, at (801) 422-7867, robert_ridge@byu.edu.

Questions about your Rights as Research Participants

If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, you may contact IRB Administrator, (801) 422-1461, A-285 ASB Campus Drive, Brigham Young University, Provo, UT 84602, irb@byu.edu.

I have read, understood, and received a copy of the above consent (a hard copy will be provided upon request if participating in the lab or an e-mailed copy will be provided upon request if participating in a different setting) and desire of my own free will to participate in this study.

Signature:_____ Initials:_____ Date:_____

Appendix C1

General Instructions

Thank you for participating in this research study. We are interested in individual's perceptions of remarks made in everyday interactions. As a participant in this study, you will be asked to read through six hypothetical scenarios. As you read each scenario, you will imagine yourself as the recipient of the remark in the scenario. After reading through each scenario, you will be asked to answer a number of questions in which you will be asked to make ratings on various scales of your thoughts and feelings concerning each scenario. As you make your ratings, do not worry about how you feel others would respond or how you feel you should respond; rather, make the ratings based on how you personally feel. There may be some instances in which you may not be sure how to make a rating. In such instances, please make your best estimate keeping in mind that there are no "right" or "wrong" answers. Please answer all the questions to the best of your ability. Please do not leave any questions blank. Also, please eliminate any distractions (e.g., cell phones, television, radio, etc.). The survey must be completed in one sitting. Thank you again for your participation!

Appendix C2

Vignettes

Vignette #1 (Male superior to subordinate):

Imagine you are a new student in Dr. Mark Wheeler's class. You have not heard very much about this professor. Students, including yourself, have arrived early to his class and he converses with you before class starts. Dr. Wheeler begins talking about current trends in clothing, and says, "That shirt fits you well/You look really hot in those clothes/You're looking niiiiiiiice…/That shirt and those jeans really enhance your shape/Those clothes fit your body very nicely/I should shop where you shop so I can look as sexy as you do."

Vignette #2 (Female superior to subordinate):

Imagine you were just hired at an accounting firm. Your manager, Mary Walton, has weekly meetings with each of her employees, and you attend your first of these meetings at the end of the week. You are concerned about some of the upcoming projects assigned to you, so you decide to stay after the meeting to ask Mary some questions and to help her get to know you since you have only met her once. After speaking with her about your struggles, you thank her for her help. You gather your things and as you are leaving, she says, "By the way, that shirt fits you well/you look really hot in those clothes/you're looking niiiiiiiice…/that shirt and those jeans really enhance your shape/those clothes fit your body very nicely/I should shop where you shop so I can look as sexy as you do."

Vignette #3 (Male status equal):

Imagine you are attending class at a community college. Before class starts, you meet a new student named Michael. You and Michael begin to talk with each other about some of the upcoming projects in the class, and then your conversation turns to clothing. Michael starts asking you where you buy your clothes, so you tell him the different places in the mall where you like to shop. Michael then says, "That shirt fits you well/You look really hot in those clothes/You're looking niiiiiiiice…/That shirt and those jeans really enhance your shape/Those clothes fit your body very nicely/I should shop where you shop so I can look as sexy as you do."

Vignette #4 (Female status equal):

Imagine you are working for a company that requires a number of team projects. You and a co-worker, Allison, whom you have seen around, but never formally met, are both assigned to work on a project that you need to have done by the end of the week. You decide to meet the next day to work on the project. While working on the project, Allison asks if you are wearing new clothes and you tell her that you are. She then says, "That shirt fits you well/You look really hot in those clothes/You're looking niiiiiiiice…/That shirt and those jeans really enhance your shape/Those clothes fit your body very nicely/I should shop where you shop so I can look as sexy as you do."

Vignette #5 (Male subordinate to superior):

Imagine you have just been hired as a teaching assistant for a stats class. On the first day of class, some of your students are concerned about how difficult their first assignment is, so you offer to add an additional office hour that week for those students who desire extra help. Adam, a student who briefly introduced himself to you on the first day of class, decides to come to your extra office hour. After you have helped him with the assignment, he thanks you for your time and as he is leaving, says "By the way, that shirt fits you well/you look really hot in those clothes/you're looking niiiiiiiice…/that shirt and those jeans really enhance your shape/those clothes fit your body very nicely/I should shop where you shop so I can look as sexy as you do."

Vignette #6 (Female subordinate to superior):

Imagine you are the manager of a business firm. As manager, you are to oversee the work of all your employees. You have an important presentation to give to the CEO of your company in a couple of weeks about employee performance and satisfaction, so you decide you need to interact more closely with your employees since you do not individually know each of them very well. One of your employees, Katie, stays after one of the project meetings because she says she has a few more questions for you. After answering Katie's questions, she says, "By the way, that shirt fits you well/you look really hot in those clothes/you're looking niiiiiiiice…/that shirt and those jeans really enhance your shape/those clothes fit your body very nicely/I should shop where you shop so I can look as sexy as you do."

Appendix C3

Harassment Rating Items that will Follow Each Vignette

Please answer the following questions by marking the option on the scales below that you feel most accurately describes your feelings about the scenario you just read. Please do not leave any questions blank. Remember, there are no right or wrong answers to these questions. If you are unsure of a response, just give your best answer.

1. To what degree do you feel (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) remark is appropriate?

Very appropriate 1 2 3 4 5 Very inappropriate

2. How comfortable do you feel receiving (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) remark?

Very comfortable 1 2 3 4 5 Very uncomfortable

3. To what degree do you feel (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) remark is offensive?

Very offensive 1 2 3 4 5 Very inoffensive

4. To what degree do you feel (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) remark may interfere with your work performance? (For classroom scenarios, this will read "To what degree do you feel this remark may interfere with your classroom performance?")

Would not interfere at all 1 2 3 4 5 Would greatly interfere

5. How intimidating do you find (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) remark?

Very intimidating 1 2 3 4 5 Not intimidating at all

6. To what degree do you feel you would welcome (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) remark?

Would greatly welcome 1 2 3 4 5 Would not welcome at all

7. How flattering do you find (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) remark?

Very flattering 1 2 3 4 5 Not flattering at all

8. To what degree would you like to receive (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) remark in the future?

Want to hear the remark again 1 2 3 4 5 Never want to hear the remark again

9. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with the following statement: "I hope that this situation never happens to me."

Very strongly agree 1 2 3 4 5 Very strongly disagree

10. How would you feel if (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) remark was said to you?

Very happy 1 2 3 4 5 Very sad

11. How likely do you think it is that (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler) is attractive?

Very likely 1 2 3 4 5 Very unlikely

12. What sexual orientation do you think (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) is?

1. Heterosexual
2. Homosexual

13. How likely is it that you would desire to spend more time with (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler)?

Very likely 1 2 3 4 5 Very unlikely

14. Has a similar situation to the situation you just read ever happened to you?

1. Yes
2. No

15. How acceptable do you feel (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) remark would be if you have known him/her for a long time?

Very acceptable 1 2 3 4 5 Very unacceptable

16. How flirtatious do you feel (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) remark was?

Very flirtatious 1 2 3 4 5 Not flirtatious at all

17. How likely do you feel it is that (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler's) tone of voice was sarcastic/joking?

Very likely 1 2 3 4 5 Very unlikely

18. About what age range do you think (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler) falls in?

1. 18-29
2. 30-39
3. 40-49
4. 50-59
5. 60-69
6. 70-79

19. How likely do you think it is that (name; e.g., Dr. Wheeler) is married?

Very likely 1 2 3 4 5 Very unlikely

20. How likely do you think it is that this situation could occur?

Very likely 1 2 3 4 5 Very unlikely

Appendix D1

Big Five Inventory

Instructions: Here are a number of characteristics that may or may not apply to you. For example, do you agree that you are someone who *likes to spend time with others*? Please mark a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement.

Items are answered on a 5-point Likert-scale where 1= *Disagree Strongly*, 2 = *Disagree a little*, 3 = *Neither agree nor disagree*, 4 = *Agree a little*, and 5 = *Agree strongly*.

I see myself as someone who…

1. _____ Is talkative
2. _____ Tends to find fault with others
3. _____ Does a thorough job
4. _____ Is depressed, blue
5. _____ Is original, comes up with new ideas
6. _____ Is reserved
7. _____ Is helpful and unselfish with others
8. _____ Can be somewhat careless
9. _____ Is relaxed, handles stress well
10. _____ Is curious about many different things
11. _____ Is full of energy
12. _____ Starts quarrels with others
13. _____ Is a reliable worker
14. _____ Can be tense
15. _____ Is ingenious, a deep thinker
16. _____ Generates a lot of enthusiasm
17. _____ Has a forgiving nature
18. _____ Tends to be disorganized

19. _____ Worries a lot
20. _____ Has an active imagination
21. _____ Tends to be quiet
22. _____ Is generally trusting
23. _____ Tends to be lazy
24. _____ Is emotionally stable, not easily upset
25. _____ Is inventive
26. _____ Has an assertive personality
27. _____ Can be cold and aloof
28. _____ Perseveres until the task is finished
29. _____ Can be moody
30. _____ Values artistic, aesthetic experiences
31. _____ Is sometimes shy, inhibited
32. _____ Is considerate and kind to almost everyone
33. _____ Does things efficiently
34. _____ Remains calm in tense situations
35. _____ Prefers work that is routine
36. _____ Is outgoing, sociable
37. _____ Is sometimes rude to others
38. _____ Makes plans and follows through with them
39. _____ Gets nervous easily
40. _____ Likes to reflect, play with ideas
41. _____ Has few artistic interests
42. _____ Likes to cooperate with others
43. _____ Is easily distracted
44. _____ Is sophisticated in art, music, or literature

Please check: Did you write a number in front of each statement?

Appendix D2

Scoring Instructions for the BFI

To score the BFI, you’ll first need to **reverse-score** all negatively-keyed items:

Extraversion: 6, 21, 31
Agreeableness: 2, 12, 27, 37
Conscientiousness: 8, 18, 23, 43
Neuroticism: 9, 24, 34
Openness: 35, 41

To recode these items, you should subtract your score for all reverse-scored items from 6. For example, if you gave yourself a 5, compute 6 minus 5 and your recoded score is 1. That is, a score of 1 becomes 5, 2 becomes 4, 3 remains 3, 4 becomes 2, and 5 becomes 1.

Next, you will create scale scores by ***averaging*** the following items for each B5 domain (where R indicates using the reverse-scored item).

Extraversion: 1, 6R, 11, 16, 21R, 26, 31R, 36
Agreeableness: 2R, 7, 12R, 17, 22, 27R, 32, 37R, 42
Conscientiousness: 3, 8R, 13, 18R, 23R, 28, 33, 38, 43R
Neuroticism: 4, 9R, 14, 19, 24R, 29, 34R, 39
Openness: 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35R, 40, 41R, 44

Appendix E

Demographics

Please mark the best answer for the following questions (or type your answer when applicable).

1) What is your gender? 1. Male 2. Female

2) What is your age? _____

3) How do you define your ethnicity?

1. White/European American
2. Hispanic
3. African American
4. Asian
5. Native American
6. Pacific Islander
7. Other (specify) _____

4) What is your marital status? 1. Single 2. Married

5) Are you currently employed? 1. Yes 2. No

6) Regardless of whether you are currently employed or not, about how many total years have you been employed (including part-time and full-time work)?

1. 0
2. 1
3. 2
4. 3
5. 4
6. 5+

7) How would you describe your sexual orientation?

1. Heterosexual/straight
2. Homosexual/gay/lesbian
3. Bisexual
4. Other
5. Don't know/not sure
6. Refused

Appendix F

Debriefing

This study intended to examine people's perceptions of remarks given differing contexts. Whether these remarks are considered complimentary or offensive may depend on factors such as the gender and/or status of the complimenter and compliment recipient, as well as a host of other variables. I am interested in examining which variables may affect people's perceptions of these remarks and if any of these variables influence whether the remark is perceived as sexually harassing. Now that you know the full purpose of the study, it is critical that you not disclose it to any other individuals as doing so may compromise the results of the study. It is my hope that the results of this study will provide meaningful insights and awareness about appropriate verbal interactions in both workplace and academic settings. Thank you again for your participation.