

Running head: PERCEPTIONS OF FEMINIST COMPLAINANTS

Perceptions of Feminist Complainants in Sexual Assault
and Sexual Harassment Mock Jury Trials

Jennifer L. Mazur ©

M. A. Thesis

Submitted to
Department of Psychology

Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario

Date: July 27, 2000

Supervisor: Dr. John Jamieson

Second Reader: Dr. Josephine Tan

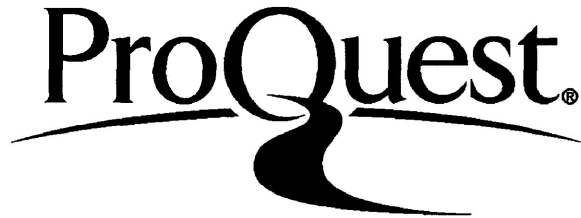
ProQuest Number: 10611449

All rights reserved

INFORMATION TO ALL USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.



ProQuest 10611449

Published by ProQuest LLC (2017). Copyright of the Dissertation is held by the Author.

All rights reserved.

This work is protected against unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code
Microform Edition © ProQuest LLC.

ProQuest LLC.
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106 - 1346

Abstract

Sexual assault and general violence towards women have been established as major issues in which feminists are involved (Hermann & Stewart, 1994). Through the use of mock jury trial methods, it has been found that some characteristics of sexual assault survivors have an impact on jury decisions (Pollard, 1992). This study used a mock jury paradigm to explore attitudes toward sexual assault and sexual harassment complainants who are identified as feminists. Forty two male and 51 female students were randomly assigned as a mock jury to conditions in which the complainant in sexual assault and sexual harassment scenarios was either identified as a feminist or was not. Being identified as a feminist did not affect attributions of guilt and did not produce more negative stereotypes toward the complainant. In the non-feminist condition, the complainant in the sexual harassment scenario was likely to be labeled as a feminist by those who felt she was less credible. These results show that complainants who are labeled as a feminist are not more likely to be blamed or to be viewed according to negative stereotypes. However those who are viewed as making frivolous sexual harassment complainants are likely to be labeled as feminists.

Table of Contents

Abstract	ii
List of Tables	iv
List of Appendixes	v
Introduction	1
Overview	1
Mock Jury Trials	2
Mock Jury Judgments: Credibility, Blame, and Sanctioning Judgments	3
Mock Jury Paradigm and Sexual Assault	3
Mechanisms Underlying Sexual Assault Judgments	6
Feminism	8
Perceptions of Feminists	9
Mechanisms Underlying Perceptions of Feminists	11
Feminists in Sexual Assault and Harassment Trials	14
The Present Study	15
Method	
Participants	16
Scenario Materials	16
Dependent Measures	17
Guilt Attribution Questionnaire	18
Stereotyped Attitudes Toward Feminists Questionnaire	18
Assessment of Feminist Attitudes	19
Feminist Perspectives Scale	20
Manipulation Impact	22
Demographic Questionnaire	22
Procedure	22
Results	23
Correlates of Guilt Attributions and Stereotypical Attitudes Towards Feminists	29
Discussion	29
References	34
Tables	40
Appendixes	48

List of Tables

Table 1:	Means and (Standard Deviations) for Scales by Feminist Status	40
Table 2:	Means and (Standard Deviations) for Individual Guilt Attribution Items	41
Table 3:	Means and (Standard Deviations) for Individual Guilt Attribution Items	42
Table 4:	Means and (Standard Deviations) for the Manipulation Check	43
Table 5:	Percentages (n) Indicating Correct and Incorrect Recognition of Feminist Status	44
Table 6:	Means and (Standard Deviations) for the Scales by Feminist Status (excluding participants who did not correctly identify complainant as a feminist/non-feminist)	45
Table 7:	Means and (Standard Deviations) for Incorrect and Correct Identifiers of Complainant Feminist Status (for the Non-Feminist Condition)	46
Table 8:	Correlations Between Measures by Guilt Attributions (GUILT) and Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists (SATF) by Scenario	47

List of Appendixes

Appendix A: Feminist Complainant Sexual Assault Scenario	48
Appendix B: Non-Feminist Complainant Sexual Assault Scenario	49
Appendix C: Sexual Assault Complainant and Defendant Statements	50
Appendix D: Feminist Complainant Sexual Harassment Scenario	51
Appendix E: Non-Feminist Complainant Sexual Harassment Scenario	52
Appendix F: Sexual Harassment Complainant and Defendant Statements	53
Appendix G: Sexual Assault Attribution Questionnaire	54
Appendix H: Sexual Harassment Attribution Questionnaire	55
Appendix I: Stereotyped Attitudes Toward Feminists Questionnaire (for sexual assault scenario)	56
Appendix J: Stereotyped Attitudes Toward Feminists Questionnaire (for sexual harassment scenario)	57
Appendix K: Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES-Form BB)	58
Appendix L: Feminist Perspectives Scale (FPS)	59
Appendix M: Demographic Questionnaire	64
Appendix N: Instructions for Study	65
Appendix O: Informed Consent Form	66
Appendix P: Debriefing	67

Perceptions of Sexual Assault and Sexual Harassment Complainants

The feminist movement has promoted critical inquiry and initiated considerable policy change surrounding sexual assault in legal, theoretical, scientific, and therapeutic domains (Hermann & Stewart, 1994). For example, feminist initiative has resulted in the establishment of sexual assault crisis centers, education of professionals who come into contact with survivors and books for the general public regarding the impact of sexual assault trauma. Feminist scholarship and experience have had a positive influence on the manner in which sexual assault is portrayed as it has challenged common myths, such as sexual assault being primarily a crime related to sex instead of one related to power and control; the notion of women “asking for it” by wearing provocative attire; or that only attractive women may be raped (Burt, 1981). Sexual assault and general violence towards women have been established as major issues in which feminists are involved (Hermann & Stewart, 1994).

Through the use of mock jury trial methods, it has been found that some characteristics of sexual assault survivors have an impact on jury decisions (Pollard, 1992). These include the defendant’s age, marital status, occupational status (e.g., topless dancer versus social worker), emotionality, and behaviors prior to the assault (i.e., walking by oneself) which all influence juror perceptions (Herrmann & Stewart, 1994; Krahe, 1988; Macrae & Shepherd, 1989; Monson, Byrd, & Langrinrichson-Rohling, 1996; Pollard, 1992). Since extraevidentiary information regarding the defendant can influence juror judgments it becomes very important to identify those complainant characteristics that have this impact. Since feminists are perceived as having a “political agenda” (Alexander & Ryan, 1994; Berryman-Fink & Verderber, 1985; Kamen, 1991)

regarding sexual assault issues and because feminists are often perceived in a negative manner (Banikotes & Banikotes, 1972; Kamen, 1991; MacDonald & Zanna, 1998) it is important to determine whether information that a complainant is a feminist will negatively impact jury decisions. The present study examined whether information about “feminist status” will impact on judgments in a mock jury trial. A second purpose of the study was to explore possible mechanisms underlying the judgments made regarding feminist sexual assault complainants.

Mock Jury Trials

A typical method used to investigate the impact of characteristics of the complainant and defendant on jury decision making is the mock jury trial (Pollard, 1992). Generally, participants in these studies are provided with a written transcript, video, or contrived newspaper articles outlining the “evidence” and statements of the incident as reported by the complainant, the defendant, and occasionally from the judiciary. These materials are often referred to as “scenarios” in the relevant literature. Following exposure to the constructed scenarios, participants are asked to make judgments, such as the degree of blame, credibility, or punishment (sanctioning judgments) that should be assigned to the complainant and defendant. As this method allows researchers to easily manipulate situational and person variables related to the incident in question (such as the behaviours or reputation of those involved), it is a useful method for gaining insight into the attitudes and cognitive processes of jury members that may operate in actual trials (Ward, 1995). Generally, research using this paradigm has found that many variables, such as degree of attitudinal similarity between the jury member and the complainant, have an impact on judgments regarding the complainant, defendant, and crime.

Mock Jury Judgments: Credibility, Blame, and Sanctioning Judgments

Three outcomes that are most commonly of interest in mock jury trial paradigms are: credibility, blame, and sanctioning judgments. Credibility is defined as being believable, or reliable, having the quality of being trustworthy, or that a person's statements reflect reality (Guralnik, 1987). Impeaching the credibility of crime complainants has been a popular method used to influence jury members' judgments. There are generally two ways through which the credibility of a victim's story may be decreased; one is to make the crime seem different from the usual crime (situational credibility); the second is to make the survivor seem unusual in her behaviours or character (victim credibility).

Degree of blame assigned to the complainant and defendant is one of the most commonly used outcomes of mock jury trials. In essence, blame implies that the actor has an underlying motive and engages in behaviour(s) to actualize the goal of that motive (Weiner, 1995).

Sanctioning judgements refer to the assignment of a penalty or punishment to an individual who has committed a violation (Weiner, 1995), and is often used as an outcome measure in mock jury trials. Jury members may assign the degree of punishment or type of punishment. For example, jury members may be asked to indicate the number of years a defendant should be incarcerated, as well as whether the defendant should be granted an alternative treatment or punishment such as community work or psychiatric hospitalization.

Mock Jury Paradigm and Sexual Assault

"The most powerful rape myth to operate in the legal arena is that women fabricate rape accusations. Their motives are assumed to be varied but include malice, guilt, and revenge," (Ward, 1995, p.32). However, in North America, false reports of sexual assault are actually

calculated to be in the region of 1-2 percent, which is not significantly different from false reports of other violent crimes (Brownmiller, 1975; Katz & Mazur, 1979). Putting the first statement and second statistic together suggests that there are inferences underlying judgments in sexual assault trials which are not immediately obvious. In order to shed light on these latent processes, social scientists have applied the mock jury trial paradigm to the study of sexual assault. Typically, these studies involve scenarios which manipulate variables surrounding the defendant (e.g., degree of force used), the complainant (e.g., past sexual behavior) or some other situational aspect of the assault (e.g., relationship between the persons involved, place where incident occurred, etc.). Mock jurors are asked to make judgments after reading one version of the scenario. Judgments include rating the degree of credibility, blame, and punishment assigned to the defendant and/or the complainant. Repeatedly, inferences regarding the character and behavior of the complainant have been found to significantly affect sexual assault judgements.

Studies have found a multitude of characteristics associated with decreased judgments of credibility. Specifically, being a child (McNickle, Rose, & Randall, 1982; Spears & Spohn, 1996), a teenager, a young woman (who may have something to hide; McNickle, Rose, & Randall, 1982), an older person (McNickle et al., 1982), having a history of drug abuse (Spears & Spohn, 1996), a character perceived as being morally deficient (Reskin & Visher, 1986), showing evidence of homosexuality (Goffman, 1963; Stanko, 1982), an unattractive appearance (Stanko, 1982), a “non-genuine” character, being lower or working class, an ethnic minority, or living in a poor area (McNickle, et al., 1982; Stanko, 1982) all are attributes of the complainant which are associated with decreased credibility by mock jury members, screening prosecutors (Stanko, 1982), and police officers (McNickle et al., 1982). Complainant behaviors that result in

decreased credibility are consumption of alcohol (Schuller & Wall, 1998), especially in the presence of men (McNickle, Rose, & Randall, 1982), any prior sexual activity in general (being a virgin versus sexually “promiscuous”) (Johnson, 1994), walking alone at night (Spears & Spohn, 1996), having any criminal record, having a relationship (i.e., being married to or on a date) with the defendant (Monson, Byrd, & Langinrichsen, 1996), working as a gas attendant in the evening (Krahe, 1988), nervous mannerisms, inability to articulate clearly (Stanko, 1982), showing little emotion (McNickle, Rose & Randall, 1982), unwillingness to “cooperate” with officials, lack of physical corroboration (no bruises or torn clothing), reporting the incident more than 48 hours after it occurs, working as a stripper, and serving alcohol in a bar (Stanko, 1982).

Some of these characteristics are ambiguous (e.g., perceived poor moral character), some are inconsistent (sometimes being young is better, at other times it is not). In reality, sexual assault happens to persons regardless of their status on these factors (Ward, 1995). Hence, although certain situations, victims, and behaviors are seen as less credible or indicative of increased blame or responsibility on the victim’s part, reliance on such extralegal factors does not serve as an accurate indicator of the complainant credibility. Interestingly, the influence of such extralegal characteristics on judgments regarding sexual assault increases as the real (legally admissible) evidence gets weaker (Kalvin & Zeisel, 1966).

Mechanisms underlying sexual assault judgments. There are several prominent theories as to what mechanisms prompt jurors or other professionals to place importance on such factors, other than the absence of actual evidence. Gender-role attitudes, perceived similarity in gender role attitudes, and psychological reactance all impact on judgments in sexual assault trials. Sex role socialization theory (Malamuth & Check, 1983) states that as a result of the developmental

processes involved in learning the societally prescribed behaviours for one's sex, both males and females develop certain expectations and attitudes regarding the appropriate gender role behaviours and characteristics. There is direct support for traditional gender role beliefs structuring perceptions of sexual assault. For example, Willis (1992) found that those holding traditional gender-role values believed sexual assault complainants to be more culpable and defendants less so, than those with egalitarian beliefs. Ong and Ward (1999) found that traditional attitudes had a positive impact on judgments regarding the defendant. Specifically, those with more conservative gender-role attitudes attributed less fault to the alleged perpetrator than those with more liberal attitudes. In a meta-analysis, Anderson, Cooper, and Okamura (1997) reported that traditional gender- role beliefs, adversarial sexual beliefs, needs for power and dominance, aggressiveness, and conservative political beliefs all predict the degree of sexual assault acceptance in participants. Hence, attitudes towards gender roles are important in the study of sexual assault.

Additionally, there is evidence that complainants who are perceived as having characteristics of or behaving dissimilarly to mock juror's own gender-role expectations are negatively evaluated in sexual assault trials. For example Beaver, Gold, and Prisco (1992) exposed males who scored low and high on a personality measure of hypermasculinity to one of four "priming" stories: either a control scene describing a nonsexual interaction, a consenting sexual scene, a realistic sexual assault scene, or a family scene describing a male college student returning home for Easter vacation to his mother and sister cooking in the kitchen. Afterward, participants viewed one of two purposely ambiguous sexual assault portrayals on video and rated the complainant and defendant responsibility, empathy, likelihood of behaving similarly, anger,

and length of prison sentence for the defendant. Results show that the traditional family prime served to decrease perception of force, male responsibility, length of sentence, and increased the likelihood of behaving similarly for participants regardless of level of masculinity. Furthermore, the interaction of hypermasculinity and family prime resulted in the lowest scores on perceived force, male responsibility, prison sentencing, and highest female responsibility. The authors conclude that the presentation of a traditional family scene featuring traditional women elicited an association to the males' (especially hypermasculine males) early family experiences with women. Presentation of the sexual assault scenario immediately after, where women did not behave according to traditional gender role expectations, may have produced a contrast effect, resulting in harsh judgments because these women were not consistent with males' beliefs (especially hypermasculine males).

Psychological reactance theory (Brehm & Brehm, 1981) or the "boomerang effect" (Mullin, Imrich, & Lintz, 1996) proposes that a threat to freedom motivates an individual to secure or restore that freedom. As such, individuals will sometimes be motivated to resist or to act counter to attempted social influence (such as a persuasive media message) if that influence is deemed a threat to the perceived freedom to think or behave as one chooses. In some sexual assault scenarios, psychological reactance has been shown to influence judgments made of sexual assault complainants. Specifically in a study regarding pre-trial publicity, Mullin et al. (1996) found that men exposed to information describing the male defendant as predatory in nature exhibited a pronounced pro-attacker tendency, whereas women were unaffected. Furthermore, when comparing publicity that spoke of sexual assault as predatory versus publicity that spoke of sexual assault as a result of miscommunication between persons involved, men made more pro-

defendant judgments when exposed to a scenario that portrayed all men as predators than those exposed to the miscommunication information or control condition. The authors suggested that the nature of the manipulations produced a greater gender awareness, which may have resulted in a greater perceived similarity to the perpetrator (perceived similarity hypothesis) and greater leniency on the male defendant and harsher judgments for the female complainant. Since the conditions appeared to portray men in a negative light and were presented in women's magazines, men may have felt it necessary to "react" against the strong message portrayed about men's behavior. Hence, when male mock jurors feel that men are being portrayed negatively because they are men, they will feel threatened and will be more likely to be more lenient on the male defendant and more harsh on the female complainant.

Feminism

Feminism has been a term familiar to the general public for years (Kamen, 1991; Herrman & Stewart, 1994; Olivetti, Nelson, Shanahan, & Belew, in press). Despite this, there is a great diversity of opinion regarding definitions of the term. Generally, however, it is certainly possible to construct a baseline definition of feminism and feminist which can be agreed upon by most. Specifically, many would agree that at the very least a feminist is someone who holds that women suffer discrimination because of their gender, that they have specific needs which remain negated and unsatisfied, and that the satisfaction of these needs would require some change in the social, economic and political order (Delmar, 1994). Widely speaking, feminism has been defined as, "the movement for political, economic, and social equality which favors the legal and social changes that will be necessary to achieve those changes" (Hyde, 1991).

Beyond this, a singular definition is difficult to come by as there is a large heterogeneity

in the perceptions and aims of feminists and feminism. For example, there are many ideologies that fall under the term feminism; the most common of these include liberal, socialist and Marxist, radical, and cultural feminism (Olivetti et al., in press). Liberal feminism focuses on equal opportunity for men and women in all domains. Socialist and Marxist feminism focus on capitalism and economic exploitation as the causes of the oppression of women. Radical feminism puts forth that oppression of women is the main form of oppression in society and that inequalities women face originate in domination by males, instead of capitalism. Cultural feminism highlights characteristics unique to women and promotes many traditionally feminine characteristics as more humane and sensible bases for social interaction than characteristics thought of as traditionally masculine. Cultural feminist ideas have had some public exposure although they are generally not labeled as feminist by the media. Socialist and Marxist feminism are well known mostly in academic circles (Olivetti et al., in press). The general public seems to be most familiar with the radical and liberal forms of feminism (Donovan, 1993).

Perceptions of Feminists

There are also many characteristics associated with the term “feminist”. A common theme in research investigating perceptions of feminists are terms expressing strong political interests in a cause or harboring a certain political agenda. For example, in a qualitative study of first and third year university students, Alexander and Ryan (1994) asked participants to report any visual images and affective reactions to words or phrases associated with the women’s movement such as “feminist” and “feminism”. Regardless of the degree of positiveness assigned to the terms, respondents repeatedly mentioned the existence of the negative stereotype of “radical,” “militant,” feminists. Berryman-Fink and Verderber (1985) similarly found in a study

using a semantic differential test that feminists were described as behaviorally opinionated, active, and motivated in political areas such as general political reform, the Equal Rights Amendment, and equal rights not specific to any one area. Most importantly, feminists' political stance is often thought to be "anti-male" or "men-hating", such that they are seen as engaging in "male bashing". Interestingly, these stereotypes are claimed to be the primary reason for not self-identifying as a feminist, especially in public, for fear of disapproval or retribution from others (Alexander & Ryan, 1994; Kamen, 1991).

Furthermore, level of perceived militancy impacts judgments made about feminists. Specifically, militant feminists are judged to be less attractive than non-active feminists and critics of the feminist movement, regardless of the rater's gender (Johnson, Dannenbring, Anderson, & Villa, 1983). These results suggest that political motivation is an important factor when understanding the perceptions of, and reactions to, feminists.

Perceptions of feminist women differ greatly from those of traditional women. Traits traditionally associated with feminists include being extroverted, independent, energetic, intelligent, logical, having greater knowledge of current events than their traditional counterparts (but less than males), aggressive, dominating, unattractive, potentially abusive, lesbian (Kamen, 1991), immoral, unemotional, uncaring, and psychologically unhealthy in attitude (Banikotes & Banikotes, 1972; Berryman-Fink & Verderber, 1985; Six & Eckes, 1991; Tavris, 1973). Characteristics assigned to traditional women include high morality, nurturance, a patient, caring attitude (Bergen & Williams, 1991; Six & Eckes, 1991), weakness, vulnerability, easily influenced, submissiveness, irrationality, stupidity, excitability, selflessness, having no interests of her own, obsequiousness, clinging, and anxiousness (Six & Eckes, 1991). Traits associated

with feminists and those with traditional women have been substantiated by Six and Eckes (1991) who also concluded through hierarchical clustering and non-metric multidimensional scaling analysis that feminist and traditional subtypes each fell into two completely distinct groups.

Emotions elicited by feminists and traditional women show a clear pattern. For example, housewives are evaluated more favorably than feminists on a feeling thermometer (Haddock & Zanna, 1998), especially by men who score high on a right wing authoritarianism scale. In sum, although traditional women and feminists both have positive and negative traits associated with them, the traits associated with traditional women still provoke a more favorable response. Hence, feminists, holistically, are perceived less positively than traditional women.

Mechanisms underlying perceptions of feminists. Attitudinal similarity appears to influence perceptions of feminists. Persons self-identifying as feminists evaluate other feminists more favorably than non-feminists and non-feminists evaluate non-feminists more favorably than feminists (Banziger & Hooker, 1979). Also, agreement with the concepts put forth by feminism (i.e., sense of common fate with other women, rejection of traditional roles, and power discontent) are important contributing factors to self-identification as a feminist (Henderson-King & Stewart, 1994).

However, the rejection of the feminist label is common, even among women who clearly espouse feminist views (Griffin, 1989; Olivetti et al., in press). Specifically, despite acknowledging agreement with basic issues of the women's movement (i.e., equality in salary, housekeeping, child care, day-care centres, abortion reform, etc.), persons leading reform on these issues (feminists) are believed to be "psychologically unhealthy" (Tavris, 1973). Counter-

intuitively, even non-traditional men who espoused feminist views on a pre-test were more likely than traditional women to derogate feminists than non-feminists on affection related items and traits (Haddock & Zanna, 1994). Research investigating factors that lead to self-identifying as a feminist, replicate this finding that acknowledging support for the aims of the women's movement is a necessary but insufficient factor for labeling oneself a "feminist" (Cowan, Mestlin, & Masek, 1992). Therefore, it appears that there are factors influencing perceptions of feminists other than agreement with feminist goals.

Research suggests that certain perceptions of feminists may override otherwise positive evaluations of feminists. This is suggested implicitly in the common response of persons in qualitative studies when asked whether they would consider themselves a feminist (Alexander & Ryan, 1994; Kamen, 1991; Percy & Kremer, 1995). Specifically Alexander and Ryan (1994) coined this as the "Yes...but" or "No...but" response. The majority of the sample fell into one of these two categories, where they often identified themselves as a feminist, but qualified that identity on the grounds that they did not hold certain attitudes or characteristics thought to be associated with most feminists. Conversely, participants would say they would not consider themselves to be a feminist because of these identical attitudes or characteristics, adding the qualification that they did agree with some concepts of feminism, such as equal rights.

There are many characteristics that are associated with qualifying responses. The first is that some believe that the feminist movement is over (Alexander & Ryan, 1994; Kamen, 1991). According to this view, women have already achieved the majority of important goals such as equal opportunity in jobs and education, the right to vote and pursue a career (Alexander & Ryan, 1994). Today's feminists are perceived as having very little connection to these fundamental

rights. Instead, feminists are often thought of as advocates for controversial, inconsequential or generally misunderstood causes (i.e., politically correct terminology and spelling). Related to this, many respondents believe that feminism is unnecessary in the present world. As a result, feminists are often viewed as suspect in motivation (Alexander & Ryan, 1994; Kamen, 1991).

There is often a general lack of understanding of why feminists react the way they do to certain issues. People are wary because they are unsure of the standards by which feminists judge others; feminists are viewed as somewhat unpredictable, divisive and “out of touch with daily life”, or psychologically impaired (Kamen, 1991; Tavris, 1973). They are sometimes thought to have little sense of humor, in regard to the issues they defend (Kamen, 1991), and are perceived as likely to misinterpret innocent niceties as sexism or an offence against their person (e.g., opening doors). Feminists are also viewed by some as “close-minded” and “misguided” in the values that they do hold.

It is acknowledged that feminists are often seen as attacking and hypersensitive about anything related to gender (Alexander & Ryan, 1994; Percy & Kremer, 1995). Of particular importance, is that many times feminists are perceived as “militant, highly charged, dramatic” persons who are “anti-male” and willing to go to any length (“too far” to be precise) to persecute men who disregard their standards or rules of conduct (Kamen, 1991). Sometimes, feminists are portrayed as wanting to get back at men because of a tragic incident occurring in their past involving a man (Kamen, 1991).

It is also believed by some that feminists are anti-family or anti-traditional women (Percy & Kremer, 1995). Simply, respondents often describe a feminist as someone who does not wish to put children or family first, nor would she want to associate with women who do (Percy &

Kremer, 1995). Also, being a feminist is incompatible with having a liking for any traditional family behaviours. For example, some report the main reason for not identifying themselves as a feminist was because they had come from a traditional family, or that they enjoyed spending time with their children (Alexander & Ryan, 1994). Implied here is that feminists cannot enjoy common human activities and still be considered a feminist.

Putting these ideas together leads one to conclude that there are many perceptions of feminists which would result in negative feelings or evaluations of feminists. Many people do not know why women (or men) would continue to identify themselves as feminists in what they perceive to be a fair society, nor do they understand the logic behind the political issues they take a stand on. Along with this, feminists are essentially seen as persecuting women who are not consistently putting work ahead of family (arguably most women) and men in general. Those who believe that feminists have such characteristics as these, could be “on the defensive” when interacting with identified feminists.

Feminists in Sexual Assault and Harassment Trials

A search of the literature was not successful in locating a single empirical study examining the credibility of feminists in sexual assault or harassment trials. Past literature does clearly show, as noted in previous sections, that opinions or beliefs which jury members hold impact on judgments regarding the complainant and defendants in sexual assault trials. Additionally, research shows that some people misunderstand the aims of feminism and often have a negative perception of feminists. What the impact of identifying a complainant of sexual assault or harassment as a feminist will have on judgments has been unexplored. Research using the mock jury paradigm has not compared whether juries will differentially judge a traditional

woman in comparison to a feminist. The literature on perceptions of feminists has looked at the attitudes towards, feelings and thoughts elicited about this group but has rarely considered the behavioral implications of these perceptions and attitudes. Hence, there appears to be a gap in the literature surrounding these issues.

The Present Study

The present study attempted to address this gap by investigating the impact of complainant feminist status and research participant gender on guilt attributions (a single score measuring complainant/defendant blame, complainant/defendant credibility, belief that the scenario is sexual assault/harassment, and defendant punishment) and stereotypical attitudes towards feminists as applied to the complainant in a mock sexual assault trial. Studies using mock sexual harassment trials are rare in comparison to those of sexual assault, so, inclusion of this type of scenario may add an additional contrast to the impact of feminist status in complainants. Two complainant statuses were contrasted in this study, namely, feminist versus a non-feminist. Participants read two scenarios, describing a sexual assault case and a sexual harassment case. Two versions of each scenario were used, in one of which the complainant was described as a feminist. Participants were randomly assigned to these two conditions. The analyses compared the guilt attributions and the degree to which participants endorsed negative and stereotypical attributes sometimes associated with feminists (in regard to the complainant) in the feminist and non-feminist conditions. As well, the degree of acceptance of men and women assuming nontraditional roles and agreement with six feminist perspectives were measured, to identify the reasons why feminist status may have an effect on these judgments.

Method

Participants

Thirty-six males and fifty-one females from the Introductory Psychology pool participated in the study. These participants received one bonus point for their involvement. In addition, six non-psychology male students solicited from a university cafeteria also participated in the study, and did not receive any bonus marks for volunteering. Random assignment resulted in 21 males and 25 females in the feminist condition and 21 males and 26 females in the non-feminist condition. The average age of the sample was 21 ($SD = 5.31$).

Scenario Materials

The sexual assault scenario provided a detailed description of a sexual assault (Appendixes A and B; McFarlane, 1995). This particular description was designed to be ambiguous, as it has been suggested that case equivocality is an essential component when examining the role of extraevidentiary variables (Bagby, Parker, Rector, & Kalemba, 1994). Specifically, conflicting information was presented to allow the influence of participants' attitudes on the development of participant inferences about the complainant and the defendant in the scenario. The information regarding the incident was presented in a factual, chronological order until the point of sexual contact. At this point both the complainant and defendant's divergent interpretations of what occurred was given (Appendix C). The use of the words, sexual assault, victim, survivor, assailant, and offender were intentionally avoided to allow participants to make a judgement about whether they perceived the situation as sexual assault or otherwise. Hence, the details about the date were given in very different ways. For instance, the complainant's version used phrases such as "grabbing my breasts", and "he kissed me very

aggressively”. In contrast, the defendant’s account used phrases such as “I touched her hair, her face, her breasts”, and “we made out for awhile”. Different interpretations of the same event by both the victim and the offender were given to the participants in order to maintain some of the real-life characteristics of a sexual assault trial. There were two versions of this scenario, one in which the complainant was described as a feminist who was active in a feminist organization (Appendix A) and one in which she was described as a student active in a biology club (Appendix B) to create the feminist and non-feminist manipulation.

The sexual harassment scenario (Appendixes D and E) which was adapted from a contemporary play script (Mamet, 1994) was also designed to be ambiguous. As with the sexual assault scenario, a brief factual description of the incident was given, followed by conflicting statements from the complainant and defendant (Appendix F). As before the complainant was identified as either a feminist active in a feminist organization (Appendix E) or as a student active in a biology club (Appendix F).

Dependent Measures

Unless otherwise indicated, all of the following measures were assessed using a 6-point scale with endpoints defined by the extent of participant endorsement (0 = disagree strongly, 1 = disagree somewhat, 2 = disagree slightly, 3 = agree slightly, 4 = agree somewhat, 5 = agree strongly).

Guilt Attribution questionnaire (Appendixes G and H). This questionnaire was made up of seven items: those which assessed sexual assault identification, credibility, blame, and punishment. Items which specifically mentioned terms such as sexual assault were modified appropriately for the sexual harassment scenario (Appendix H). Item 1 assessed whether

participants believed the incident to be of a criminal nature. To assess the credibility of both the defendant and the complainant, participants were asked to indicate their degree of endorsement with statements that the complainant and defendant were credible (Items 2 and 3). Two items assessed the degree to which participants believed that each party was responsible or to blame for the outcome (Items 4 and 5). In terms of punishment, Item 6 asked if they would recommend a prison sentence (sexual assault scenario) or punishment by the university (sexual harassment scenario). Item 7 asked if participants would recommend psychological treatment for the defendant.

For each scenario (sexual harassment and sexual assault) all seven items were summed into a single index of guilt and divided by the total number of items. The items assessing defendant credibility (Item 3) and complainant blame (Item 4) were reverse scored. These items were reversed so that higher scores on each index represented greater degree of confidence that the complainant was credible (the defendant less so), that the scenario was identified to be a sexual assault/harassment, that the complainant was less to blame (and the defendant more so), and that the defendant should be punished and receive psychological treatment.

Assessment of stereotyped attitudes toward feminists (SATF; Appendixes I and J). A questionnaire was constructed for this study to assess the degree to which participants endorse certain negative and stereotypical attributes sometimes associated with feminists, as applied to the complainant. Items were developed from findings in qualitative studies and interviews investigating commonly held perceptions of feminists (Delmar, 1994; Johnson, Dannenbring, Anderson, & Villa, 1983; Kamen, 1991; Percy & Kremer, 1995; Tavris, 1973). From these studies, several common stereotypes of feminists were noted which were distilled into a 17 item

questionnaire. There were two forms of this questionnaire, with modifications made to match the complainant's name to the appropriate scenario (Andrea or Sarah). Specifically, items measured perceived political interest or agenda of the complainant (Items 1 and 2), perceived inconsequentiality of concerns (item 3), incident misinterpretation (Item 5), attitudes toward men (Items 4, 7, 8, and 16; item 8 is reverse scored), misguided intentions (Item 6), militancy and extremist attitude (Items 9 and 15, respectively), ability to empathize with perspectives different from one's own, concern for others, attractiveness, morality, psychological health (Items 10 through 14, respectively; items 12 and 13 are reverse scored), and political correctness (Item 17). Items were summed to obtain a single score for each scenario (sexual assault and sexual harassment). Higher scores indicated greater participant agreement with these stereotypical feminist attributes, as applied to the complainant, and could range from 0 to 90.

Assessment of feminist attitudes. (Appendix K) Agreement with basic ideologies proposed by the feminist movement were assessed by the Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES; King & King, 1993). Sex-role egalitarianism is defined as "an attitude that causes one to respond to another individual independently of the other individual's sex". A person who has such an attitude is accepting of both men and women assuming nontraditional roles. Specifically, this measure assessed sex-role egalitarianism regarding marital, parental, employment, social-interpersonal-heterosexual, and educational domains. Although the SRES was not specifically designed to measure acceptance of feminist ideology as it does not address issues such as social activism, it does capture some of the more important concepts of feminism, such as equal opportunity in education and career, sharing of family related responsibilities, and the challenging of traditional interpersonal roles in heterosexual couples. The shortened version of

the SRES was used (Form BB). It is made up of 25 items, scored on a scale of 1 (“strongly agree”) to 5 (“strongly disagree”). An item score of 1 indicates the least egalitarian position, while an item score of 5 indicates the most egalitarian position. The total score was obtained by summing across all 25 items, with a possible range from 25 to 125. More egalitarian attitudes are represented by higher summative scores, and more traditional sex-role attitudes are represented by lower scores.

The SRES was chosen because it is shown to be theoretically based, brief, and reliable. It has been found to have an internal consistency of .94, and a three-week interval test-retest reliability of .88 (King & King, 1993). In addition, this scale does not show social desirability response biases, avoiding the problems identified in reviews of other measures (Fassinger, 1994; McHugh & Frieze, 1997; Olivetti et al., in press; Stith, 1986; Stith, Crossman, & Bischof, 1991).

Feminist Perspectives Scale. (Appendix L) Despite the benefits of the SRES scale, it does not appear to measure all areas of attitudes towards feminism, such as activism or the range of theoretical perspectives pertaining to feminist ideology. As such, the Feminist Perspectives Scale (FPS; Henley, Meng, O’Brien, McCarthy, & Sockloskie, 1998) a newer measure of feminist attitudes was also included in the study. Specifically, the FPS incorporates six theoretically derived feminist perspectives (each calculated as a separate sub-scale); Liberal, Radical, Socialist, and Cultural feminist; Women of Colour (womanist), and Conservative.

The original FPS consists of 59 items. For the purposes of this study one item was removed from the questionnaire, “Capitalism hinders a poor woman’s chance to obtain adequate prenatal medical care or abortion,” as it does not pertain to the Canadian medical system which pays for medical services. Items were accompanied by a 7-point scale labeled from “strongly,”

“moderately,” and “somewhat” disagree through “undecided,” to “somewhat,” “moderately,” and “strongly” agree. A Conservative perspective was measured by items 1, 4, 13, 17, 23, 36, 38, 46, 52, and 58. An example of a conservative item from this scale is “It is a man’s right and duty to maintain order in his family by whatever means necessary”. The Liberal Feminist perspective was measured by items 5, 6, 7, 22, 24, 27, 33, 41, 51, and 59. “Men need to be liberated from oppressive sex role stereotypes as much as women do,” is an example of an item in the liberal scale. Radical feminist attitudes were measured by items 2, 15, 16, 18, 19, 29, 34, 45, 47, and 54. An example from this subscale is, “Sex role stereotypes are only one symptom of the larger system of patriarchal power, which is the true source of women’s subordination”. Items 10, 20, 25, 31, 39, 44, 53, 55, and 57 measured Socialist Feminism ideology. An example of an item measuring socialist feminism is, “The way to eliminate prostitution is to make women economically equal to men”. The Woman of Colour perspective was represented by items 3, 8, 12, 21, 26, 40, 42, 48, 50, and 56. An item from this scale is, “Women of colour are oppressed by White standards of beauty”. The Cultural Feminist perspective was measured by items 9, 11, 14, 28, 30, 32, 35, 37, 43, and 49. “Traditional notions of romantic love should be replaced with ideas based on feminine values of kindness and concern for all people,” is an example of an item measuring cultural feminism ideology.

For each subscale, scores were summed across items, for a total of six separate subscale scores (one for each perspective). A higher score represents greater agreement with that particular perspective. For example, a high score on the Conservative subscale indicates more conservative beliefs, as measured by this scale. A high score on the Cultural Feminist subscale shows a greater alignment with cultural feminism ideology. The Conservative, Liberal, Radical, Woman of

Colour, and Cultural Feminist subscales had possible ranges from 0 to 60. The Socialist subscale had a possible range of 0 to 54. No items were reverse scored.

Factor analysis of the FPS has provided good support for the six perspective structure of this scale. The composite of the six feminist attitudinal subscales has shown to have a Cronbach's alpha of .91, with test-retest correlations of .91 at two weeks and .86 at four weeks (Henley et al., 1998).

Manipulation impact. To assess whether the independent variable had its intended effect, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agreed that the complainant is a feminist. This item was placed at the end of the Stereotyped Attitudes Toward Feminists questionnaire.

Demographic questionnaire (Appendix M). Participants were asked to fill out a short questionnaire requesting demographic information, such as age, gender, whether they have taken a Women's Studies course and if they considered themselves a feminist.

Procedure

Participants were individually tested at Lakehead University. A shortened version of the study's basic objectives was given to each participant before beginning the study (Appendix N). The experimenter also discussed the confidential and voluntary nature of participation and asked each participant to carefully review the consent form and sign if he or she was in agreement with all its terms (Appendix O). Participants were randomly assigned to either the feminist complainant or non-feminist complainant condition. All participants received both sexual assault and the sexual harassment scenarios, the order of which was counterbalanced within the feminist and non-feminist conditions.

The questionnaire booklet that participants received was made up of the sexual assault and harassment scenarios with either the feminist (Appendixes A and D) or traditional complainant (Appendixes B and E) featured. Half of the sample received the feminist complainant and the other half the non-feminist complainant. The booklet also included two sets of the Guilt Attributions Questionnaire containing statements related to identity, blame, credibility (believability) and sanctioning judgements as described earlier (Appendixes G and H). The proper form of each Guilt Attributions Questionnaire (one for sexual assault and one for harassment) followed the appropriate scenario. After reading each scenario and completing the Guilt Attributions Questionnaire, participants filled out the appropriate version of the Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists Questionnaire (Appendixes I and J). After completing both of these, they filled out the Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale (Appendix K), Feminist Perspectives Scale (Appendix L), and demographic questions (Appendix M).

Upon completion of the study, participants were verbally debriefed by the examiner (as well as receiving a written version to read; Appendix P). Participants who wished to receive a summary of the study results were asked to place their name and address on a mailing list.

Results

Two questionnaires were developed as outcome measures. The Guilt Attribution questionnaire contains items measuring identification of the incident as sexual assault/harassment, complainant/defendant credibility, complainant/defendant blame and punishment for the defendant. It originally had seven items, all of which were retained for the study. The inter-item reliability for the Guilt Attribution questionnaires for both the sexual assault and harassment scenarios yielded alpha levels of .82 and .90, respectively.

The second outcome measure, Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists, was intended to capture the degree to which participants assign negative stereotypical attributes of feminists (i.e., unattractiveness, political extremism, and dislike for men) to the complainant. This scale contained 17 items with an alpha level of .89 and .92 for the sexual assault and harassment conditions. As with the previous outcome measure, all 17 items were retained.

Initially, the data were analyzed using a 2 (gender) X 2 (Feminist/Non-feminist) between X 2 (Sexual Assault/Sexual Harassment) within repeated measures ANOVA. Participants reported mean Guilt Attribution scores for the sexual harassment and sexual assault scenarios of 2.19 ($SD = 1.19$) and 3.63 ($SD = .91$), respectively. This difference was highly significant, $F(1, 89) = 104.96, p < .001$, as was the difference on the Stereotyped Attitudes Toward Feminists scale, $F(1, 89) = 101.87, p < .001$, with higher scores in the sexual harassment scenario ($M = 35.96, SD = 15.45$) than in the sexual assault scenario ($M = 20.42, SD = 12.48$). Thus the complainant in the sexual assault scenario was found to be more credible and was assigned fewer negative stereotypical characteristics than the complainant in the sexual harassment scenario.

The main goal of this study was to determine whether complainant feminist status impacts on Guilt Attributions. For ease of interpretation and clarity, two separate 2 (Feminist/Non-feminist) X 2 (gender) ANOVAs were conducted on the Guilt Attribution scales for the sexual harassment and assault scenarios, respectively. Table 1 contains the means and standard deviations for the Guilt Attribution scales for the two scenarios. The main effect of feminist status on the Guilt Attributional questionnaire for the sexual harassment context was not significant. Gender exerted a main effect on the sexual harassment guilt attribution measure, $F(1, 89) = 4.14, p < .05$, with females ($M = 2.42$) being more lenient on the complainant than males

($M = 1.93$). The interaction between gender and feminist status was not significant for the sexual harassment scenario.

The main effects of feminist status and gender on the Guilt Attribution questionnaire for the sexual assault context was not significant. Nor was the interaction between gender and feminist status significant on guilt attributions for the sexual assault scenario.

To determine which items of the Guilt Attribution Scale contributed to the observed gender difference for the sexual harassment scenario, analyses were conducted with each item as a dependent outcome. Gender showed a main effect for one item of the scale in the sexual harassment context, defendant punishment, with women ($M = 2.09$) more in favor of assigning university punishment than men ($M = 1.42$), $F(1, 89) = 4.31$, $p < .05$. Tables 2 and 3 contain means and standard deviations for each item on the Guilt Attribution scales for the sexual harassment and sexual assault scenarios, respectively.

Another goal of the study was to determine whether complainant feminist status would cause the complainant to be viewed in a negatively stereotyped way, as measured by the Stereotypical Attitudes Towards Feminists scale. As with the preceding analyses, two separate 2 (Feminist/Non-feminist) X 2 (Gender) ANOVAs were conducted on this scale for sexual assault and harassment scenarios, respectively. No significant effects were found for either analyses.

A manipulation check was conducted on the item, "was a feminist (non-feminist)" to determine whether participants made the appropriate distinction between the feminist and non-feminist condition. As indicated by a t -test, this item was significantly different between the two conditions, indicating that the feminist manipulation was successful (see Table 4). Despite this, a substantial number of participants made errors in identifying whether or not the complainant was

a feminist (see Table 5). To explore whether these individuals might have masked the effect of the feminist manipulation, those participants who did not correctly identify the complainant as feminist or non-feminist were then excluded for the following analyses.

As before, two separate 2 (Feminist/Non-feminist) X 2 (gender) ANOVAs were conducted on the Guilt Attributions scale for the sexual assault and harassment scenarios, respectively. Table 6 contains the means and standard deviations for these analyses. Feminist status had an impact on guilt attributions in the sexual harassment scenario, $F(1, 58) = 6.69, p < .05$. In the feminist condition, complainants were assigned less credibility than in the non-feminist condition. Gender no longer exerted a main effect. The interaction between gender and feminist status also remained non-significant on sexual harassment attributions. For the sexual assault scenario no significant effects were observed.

Two separate 2 (Feminist/Non-feminist) X 2 (Gender) ANOVAs were performed on the Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists measure for the sexual harassment and sexual assault scenarios, respectively. No significant effects were found for the sexual assault scenario. However, for the sexual harassment scenario, there was a significant Feminist/Non-feminist main effect, $F(1, 58) = 3.84, p < .05$, where participants in the Feminist condition ($M = 38.55$) reported higher scores than in the Non-feminist condition ($M = 31.07$). No other significant effects were found for the sexual harassment scenario.

While the above analyses show that feminist status affects guilt attributions when individuals who incorrectly perceive the feminist status of the complainant are removed, it is possible that women making claims of sexual harassment may be identified as a “feminist” (in a derogatory sense), despite not being outwardly described as such. More specifically, it may be

possible that the independent variable manipulation check was also measuring the effect of the independent variable (feminist/non-feminist condition). If so, then removing cases may have distorted the estimate of the effect of the independent variable. In the feminist condition, this was not likely to be an issue, since the feminist status of the complainant was plainly stated and therefore is unlikely to cause someone to label the complainant as a non-feminist. However, in the non-feminist condition (where there is no statement specifying that the complainant is a non-feminist), it may be possible that some persons labeled her as a feminist because they think that only a feminist (using it as a derogatory term) would make such an “unfounded” accusation. As such, the participants who were removed previously from the non-feminist condition, might have been those who were the most biased against the complainant. Removing these participants could have made the non-feminist group less negatively biased against the complainant, and created the new (and artifactual) finding. To test this hypothesis, correlations were conducted between Guilt Attribution scores and the manipulation check question of whether the complainant is a feminist, for the non-feminist condition. Results support this hypothesis. A positive correlation was observed between Guilt Attribution scale scores and the manipulation check in the non-feminist condition, for the sexual harassment scenario only $r = -.565, p < .001$. Those who perceived the complainant as less credible were likely to label her as a feminist.

Next, mean differences on Guilt Attribution scales were conducted on the excluded and non-excluded participants in each condition (non-feminist, feminist). In the non-feminist condition, t -tests indicated that participants who incorrectly identified the complainant as a feminist had lower scores on the Guilt Attribution scale than those who correctly identified the complainant in the non-feminist condition (for the sexual harassment scenario only), $t(43) = -$

3.41, $p < .01$. For the feminist condition, there was no significant difference between those who correctly viewed the complainant as a feminist and those who did not. Thus the artifact hypothesis is supported, since the significant difference in Guilt Attributions when participants were excluded was not caused by participants in the feminist condition, but by those in the non-feminist condition.

To gain further insight into mechanisms specific to the artifactual findings (such as holding certain feminist views or viewing feminists in a negative way), a one-way ANOVA contrasting those who identified the complainant as a feminist versus those who did not (in the non-feminist condition) was conducted on all sub-scales of the Feminist Perspectives Scale (i.e., Conservatism, Radical, Cultural, Socialist feminist sub-scales) and Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists scales. Results revealed a significant difference between the groups only on the Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists scale (sexual harassment version only), with those persons who labeled the complainant as a feminist having higher average scores which indicate that they see the complainant in a more negative light, $F(1, 43) = 13.17, p < .001$ (see Table 7).

Next, to understand whether stereotyped attitudes towards feminists is a factor that accounts for the observed differences between correct and incorrect identifiers of the complainant on Guilt Attributions for the sexual harassment scenario, a one way (correct identifier/incorrect identifier) ANCOVA was conducted on Guilt Attributions, co-varying for Stereotypical Attitudes Towards Feminists. Results show that stereotypical attitudes towards feminists do appear to account for the differences previously observed for correct and incorrect identification of the complainant in the non-feminist condition, $F(1, 41) = 34.52, p < .001$, as the difference between those who correctly identify and those who do not is no longer significant.

Correlates of Guilt Attributions and Stereotypical Attitudes Towards Feminists

Nine factors were examined as possible correlates of guilt attributions and stereotypical attitudes towards feminists (see Table 8). For the sexual assault condition, higher guilt attributions were made by those who held higher sex-role egalitarian beliefs, and lower conservative perspectives. For the sexual harassment condition, higher guilt attributions were only correlated with age of participant. The Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists Scale showed more relationships and for both the sexual harassment and assault conditions the negative characteristics were more likely to be given by those scoring low in sex role egalitarianism and high on socialist, radical, cultural feminist perspectives, and conservatism.

Within each of the sexual harassment and assault conditions, Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists and Guilt Attributions correlated negatively (r 's = $-.71$ and $-.60$), indicating that participants who are less likely to assign negative characteristics to the complainant will find her more credible.

Discussion

The main purpose of this study was to investigate whether complainant feminist status has an effect on guilt attributions in sexual harassment and assault trials. Initially, analyses indicated that feminist status did not impact on attributions regarding complainants and defendants. Gender of participant, however, did impact on guilt attributions in the sexual harassment condition, with women assigning more guilt to the defendant than men, which has been demonstrated in many other mock jury trial studies (e.g., Pollard, 1992).

However, when those individuals who incorrectly identified the feminist status of the complainant were removed, an effect of feminist status for the sexual harassment scenario was

revealed. This finding was notable as it indicated that feminist complainants were seen as less credible than non-feminist complainants.

Despite the change in findings, it was possible that the results (after cases were removed) were artifactual. The independent variable manipulation check may have also been measuring the effect of the independent variable. If this were true, then removing the cases as was done in the previous stage of the analysis would have meant that the estimated effect of the independent variable could have been distorted. Specifically, participants in the non-feminist conditions may have labeled the complainant as a feminist because they believed that only a “feminist” (used derogatorily) would make such an “unfounded” accusation. As such, removing participants from the non-feminist group would have meant less negatively biased attitudes towards the complainant, which would have created the observed difference for feminist status. Further analyses supported the artifact hypothesis. It appears that some participants label complainants as feminists when they report an incident of sexual harassment. This labeling is associated with the complainant being perceived as less credible and more to blame for the incident.

Although it does not appear that participants will rate a complainant who identifies herself as a feminist to be less credible or more to blame than one who does not, it is interesting that a feminist label is assigned to complainants who are not explicitly identified as such. It is also interesting that this labeling process is more likely to occur for the harassment scenario than for the, perhaps less ambiguous, sexual assault scenario, playing into the common belief that feminists are over-reactive to innocuous events. There could be many reasons why this labeling occurs. One factor which appears to act as a mechanism for this labeling is the degree to which one negatively stereotypes feminists. Since the difference in Guilt Attributions between correct

and incorrect identifiers of the complainant's feminist status disappeared when Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists was co-varied out, this variable may serve as a mediator of the degree to which participants are willing to assign the label of feminist to a complainant of sexual harassment. In summary these findings indicate that identification as a feminist is not detrimental to complainants regarding either guilt attributions or being viewed in a negatively stereotyped way. However the findings also show that people may identify a sexual harassment complainant as a "feminist" (derogatorily), regardless of whether she is identified as such because of negative preconceived ideas about feminists.

The Sex-Role Egalitarianism scale was correlated in the expected direction with stereotyped attitudes towards feminists and guilt attributions for the sexual assault scenario. Persons answering high on this scale, hold views that men and women are equal, and these individuals are more likely to find the complainant in a sexual assault as credible, and are less likely to view female complainants in a negatively stereotyped way. Self-identification as a feminist was not related to attributions of guilt, perhaps because so few ($n = 16$) identified themselves as feminists. The Feminist Perspectives subscales yielded a mixed pattern of findings. The Conservative subscale was related to Guilt Attributions in the expected direction indicating that people who held more conservative views were more likely to blame the complainant and to view her in a more stereotyped manner. In contrast the Socialist, Radical, and Cultural subscales all showed a positive correlation with Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists, which means that the more one ascribes to any of these feminist perspectives, the more one perceives the complainant in a negatively stereotyped way. These puzzling findings may have been caused by this scale (the Feminist Perspectives Scale) not being appropriate for this population. Many of the

participants reported that they did not understand the items on this scale. However it is also possible that the negative stereotypes are not really “negative” to someone holding these feminist perspectives. For example “taking things to extreme” and “being unpredictable” in the way she responds to men” may well be viewed as positive characteristics by someone who holds feminist views.

The present findings are limited by the use of undergraduate students and may not generalize to actual juries which are likely to be composed of older people with more varied educational backgrounds. However, the failure to find any indication that being identified as a feminist will either impact on attributions of guilt, or produce a negatively stereotyped view of the complainant suggests that being identified as a feminist may not have a major impact on actual jury decisions. It is particularly noteworthy that men did not react negatively to the feminist label. These findings therefore provide a basis for confidence that being labeled as a feminist will not negatively impact on jury decisions.

The finding that people who view a sexual harassment claim as less credible are also more likely to label the complainant as a feminist puts a damper on the optimistic conclusion reached in the preceding paragraph. The sexual harassment scenario was perceived to be significantly less credible than the assault scenario, and thus might be viewed as a less well founded claim. Overall the complainant was viewed as less credible in the sexual harassment scenario than in the sexual assault scenario. In the non-feminist condition, these individuals who viewed the complainant as less credible were more likely to label her as a feminist. Thus, the negative labeling of an unfounded complainant appears limited to sexual harassment complaints.

The conclusion from this study is that being labeled as a feminist does not affect your

credibility when making a claim of sexual assault or sexual harassment, but if you make a sexual harassment claim which is not perceived to be credible, you will be labeled as a feminist. Thus one could draw the paradoxical conclusion that: Feminists are credible, but non-credible complainants are feminists.

References

- Alexander, S., & Ryan, M. (1994). Social constructs of feminism: A study of undergraduates at a women's college. College Student Journal, *36*, 555-567.
- Anderson, K. B., Cooper, H., & Okamura, L. (1997). Individual differences and attitudes toward rape: A meta-analytic review. Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, *23* (3), 295-315.
- Bagby, R. M., & Parker, J. D., Rector, N. A., & Kalembo, V. (1994). Racial prejudice in the Canadian legal system. Law and Human Behavior, *18* (3), 339-350.
- Banikotes, P. G., & Banikotes, F. G. (1972). Male and female perceptions of liberated vs conventional sex roles. Psychonomic Science, *29* (2), 111-112.
- Banziger, G., & Hooker, L. (1979). The effects of attitudes toward feminism and perceived feminism on attractiveness ratings. Sex Roles, *5* (4), 437-443.
- Beaver, E. D., Gold, S. R., & Prisco, A. G. (1992). Priming macho attitudes and emotions. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, *7* (3), 321-333.
- Bergen, D. J., & Williams, J. E. (1991). Sex stereotypes in the United States revisited: 1972-1988. Sex Roles, *24*, 413-423.
- Berryman-Fink, C., & Verderber, K. S. (1985). Attributions of the term feminist: A factor analytic development of a measuring instrument. Psychology of Women Quarterly, *9*, 51-64.
- Brehm, S. S., & Brehm, J. W. (1981). Psychological reactance: A theory of freedom and control. New York: Academic Press.
- Brownmiller, S (1975). Against our will: Men, women, and rape. Toronto: Bantam Books.

Burt, M. R. (1981). Cultural myths and support for rape. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 38, 217-230.

Cowan, G., Mestlin, M., & Masek, J. (1992). Predictors of feminist self-labeling. Sex Roles, 27, 321-330.

Delmar, R. (1994). What is feminism? In A.C. Hermann, & A.J. Stewart (Eds.), Theorizing feminism: Parallel trends in the humanities and social sciences (pp.5-25). Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Donovan, J. (1993). Feminist theory: The intellectual traditions of American feminism. New York: Continuum.

Fassinger, R. (1994). Development and testing of the Attitudes Toward Feminism and the Women's Movement (FWM) scale. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 18 (3), 389-402.

Goffman, E. (1963). Stigma: Notes on the management of spoiled identity. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Griffin, C. (1989). 'I'm not a women's libber but...': Feminism, consciousness, and identity. In S. Skevington, & D. Baker (Eds.), The social identity of women. London: Sage.

Guralnik, D. B. (Ed.). (1987). Webster's new world dictionary of the American language (7th ed.). New York: Warner Books.

Haddock, G., & Zanna, M. P. (1994). Preferring "housewives" to "feminists": Categorization and the favorability of attitudes toward women. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 18, 25-52.

Haddock, T. K., & Zanna, M. P. (1998). Cross-dimension ambivalence toward social groups: Can ambivalence affect intentions to hire feminists? Personality and Social Psychology

Bulletin, 24 (4), 427-441.

Henderson-King, D. H., Stewart, A. J. (1994). Women or feminists? Assessing women's group consciousness. Sex Roles, 31 (9 / 10), 505-516.

Henley, N. M., Meng, K., O'Brien, D., McCarthy, & Sockloskie, R. J. (1998). Developing a scale to measure the diversity of feminist attitudes. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 22, 317-348.

Hermann, A. C., & Stewart, A. J. (1994). Theorizing feminism: Parallel trends in the humanities and social sciences. Boulder, CO: Westview Press.

Hyde, J. S. (1991). Half the human experience: The psychology of women (4th ed.). Toronto, ON: D.C. Heath and Company.

Johnson, J. D. (1994). The effect of rape type and information admissibility on perceptions of rape victims. Sex Roles, 30, (11 & 12), 781-792.

Johnson, R. W., Dannenbring, G. L., Anderson, N. R., Villa, R. E. (1983). How different cultural and geographic groups perceive the attractiveness of active and inactive feminists. The Journal of Social Psychology, 119, 111-117.

Kalven, H., & Zeisel, H. (1966). The American jury. Boston: Little, Brown.

Kamen, P. (1991). Feminist fatale: Voices from the "twentysomething" generation explore the future of the "women's movement". New York: Donald I. Fine.

Katz, S., & Mazur, M. (1979). Understanding rape victims. New York: Wiley.

King, L., & King, D. (1993). Sex-role egalitarianism scale manual. London, Ontario: Research Psychologists Press.

Krahe, B. (1988). Victim and observer characteristics as determinants of responsibility

attributions to victims of rape. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 18 (1), 50-58.

MacDonald, T.K., & Zanna, M. P. (1998). Cross-dimension ambivalence toward social groups: Can ambivalence affect intentions to hire feminists? Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 24 (4), 427-441.

Macrae, C. N., & Shepherd, J. W. (1989). Sex differences in the perception of rape victims. Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 4 (3), 278-288.

Malamuth, N. M., & Check, J. V. (1983). Sexual arousal to rape depictions: Individual differences. Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 92, 55-67.

Mamet, D. (1992). Oleanna. New York: Panther Books.

McFarlane, J. (1995). Cognitive processes in acquaintance rape judgments: An information processing perspective. Unpublished master's thesis, Lakehead University, Thunder Bay, Ontario, Canada.

McHugh, M C., & Frieze, I. R. (1997). The measurement of gender-role attitudes: A review and commentary. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 21, 1-16.

McNickle-Rose, & Randall, S. C. (1982). The impact of investigator perceptions of victim legitimacy on the processing of rape/sexual assault cases. Symbolic Interaction, 5 (1), 23-36.

Monson, C. M., Byrd, G. R., & Langinrichsen-Rohling, J. (1996). Journal of Interpersonal Violence, 11 (3), 410-424.

Mullin, C., Imrich, D. J., Linz, D. (1996). The impact of acquaintance rape stories and case-specific pretrial publicity on juror decision making. Communication Research, 23 (1), 100-135.

Olivetti, J., Nelson, L. J., Shanahan, S. B., & Belew, M. (in press). "I'm not a feminist, but...": Construction of a feminist attitudes scale. Journal of Psychology and the Behavioral Sciences.

Ong, A. S. J., & Ward, C. A. (1999). The effects of sex and power schemas, attitudes toward women, and victim resistance on rape attributions. Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 29 (2), 362-376.

Percy, C., & Kremer, J. (1995). Feminist identifications in a troubled society. Feminism & Psychology, 5 (2), 201-222.

Pollard, P. (1992). Judgements about victims and attackers in depicted rapes: A review. British Journal of Social Psychology, 31, 307-326.

Reskin, B., & Visher, C. (1986). The impacts of evidence and extralegal factors in juror's decisions. Law and Society Review, 20, 423-438.

Schuller, R. A., & Wall, A. (1998). The effects of defendant and complainant intoxication on mock jurors' judgments of sexual assault. Psychology of Women Quarterly, 22, 555-573.

Six, B., & Eckes, T. (1991). A closer look at the complex structure of gender stereotypes. Sex Roles, 1 / 2, 57-71.

Spears, J. W., & Spohn, C. C. (1996). The genuine victim and prosecutors' charging decisions in sexual assault cases. American Journal of Criminal Justice, 20 (2), 183-205.

Stanko, E. A. (1982). The impact of victim assessment on prosecutors' screening decisions: The case of the New York county district attorney's office. Law & Society Review, 16 (2), 225-239.

Stith, S. M. (1986). Police officer response to marital violence predicted from the

officers' attitudes, stress, and marital experience: A path analysis. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Kansas State University.

Stith, S. M., Crossman, R., & Bischof, G. (1991). Alcoholism and marital violence: a comparative study of men in alcohol treatment programs and batterer treatment programs. Alcoholism Treatment Quarterly, 8, 3-20.

Tavris, C. (1973). Who likes women's liberation – and why: The case of the unliberated liberals. Journal of Social Issues, 29 (4), 175-198.

Ward, C. (1995). Attitudes toward rape: Feminist and social psychological perspectives. London: Sage.

Weiner, B. (1995). Judgements of responsibility. New York: The Guilford Press.

Willis, C. E. (1992). The effect of sex role stereotype, victim, and defendant race, and prior relationship on rape culpability attributions. Sex Roles, 26 (5 / 6), 213-226.

Table 1

Means and (Standard Deviations) for Scales by Feminist Status

Outcome Measure	Condition			
	Non-Feminist		Feminist	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Sexual Harassment Guilt Attribution Questionnaire	1.93 (1.31)	2.69 (.98)	1.92 (.93)	2.15 (1.37)
Sexual Assault Guilt Attribution Questionnaire	3.44 (.99)	3.71 (.78)	3.78 (1.02)	3.57 (.90)
Sexual Harassment Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists Questionnaire	7.53 (1.12)	35.68 (14.41)	35.86 (15.85)	35.12 (15.67)
Sexual Assault Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists Questionnaire	22.95 (12.98)	20.76 (11.85)	19.68 (13.31)	19.36 (12.61)

Table 2

Means and (Standard Deviations) for Individual Guilt Attribution Items

Sexual Harassment Items	<u>Non-Feminist</u>		<u>Feminist</u>	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
1. This was sexual harassment.	1.85 (1.57)	2.48 (1.23)	1.68 (1.09)	2.08 (1.55)
2. Complainant's claim of sexual harassment is believable.	2.40 (1.67)	3.16 (1.03)	2.73 (1.32)	2.69 (1.49)
3. Defendant's claim of innocence is believable.	3.40 (1.54)	3.38 (1.42)	3.59 (1.14)	3.38 (1.42)
4. Complainant is to blame...	2.40 (1.70)	1.40 (1.41)	1.91 (1.41)	1.73 (1.85)
5. Defendant is to blame...	2.25 (1.52)	2.80 (1.61)	2.05 (1.25)	2.08 (1.79)
6. ...recommend that the university punish the defendant.	1.65 (1.63)	2.44 (1.45)	1.18 (1.18)	1.73 (1.82)
7. ...recommend psychological treatment for defendant.	1.15 (1.57)	2.12 (1.56)	1.27 (1.32)	1.58 (1.77)

Table 3

Means and (Standard Deviations) for Individual Guilt Attribution Items

Sexual Assault Items	<u>Non-Feminist</u>		<u>Feminist</u>	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
1. This was sexual assault.	4.05 (1.19)	4.20 (.91)	4.41 (1.01)	4.12 (1.34)
2. Complainant's claim of sexual assault is believable.	4.25 (1.07)	4.32 (.71)	4.50 (.86)	4.31 (.74)
3. Defendant's claim of innocence is believable.	2.05 (1.27)	1.52 (1.19)	1.50 (1.63)	1.81 (1.33)
4. Complainant is to blame...	1.10 (1.29)	1.04 (1.24)	.91 (.97)	.73 (1.25)
5. Defendant is to blame...	3.55 (1.28)	3.84 (1.14)	3.64 (1.62)	3.42 (1.60)
6. ...recommend a prison sentence for defendant.	2.35 (1.60)	2.32 (1.55)	3.09 (1.54)	2.38 (1.58)
7. ...recommend psychological treatment for defendant.	3.00 (1.52)	2.32 (1.27)	3.23 (1.80)	3.31 (1.59)

Table 4

Means and (Standard Deviations) for the Manipulation Check

Scenario	Non-Feminist	Feminist	t
Sexual Harassment	1.73 (1.57)	3.69 (1.64)	-10.12***
Sexual Assault	1.04 (1.13)	3.83 (1.49)	-5.86***

*** $p < .001$.

Table 5

Percentages (n) Indicating Correct and Incorrect Recognition of Feminist Status

<u>Scenario Type</u>	<u>Condition</u>			
	<u>Feminist</u>		<u>Non-Feminist</u>	
	<u>Correct</u>	<u>Incorrect</u>	<u>Correct</u>	<u>Incorrect</u>
Sexual Harassment	79.2 (38)	20.8 (10)	64.4 (29)	35.6 (16)
Sexual Assault	83.3 (40)	16.7 (8)	86.7 (39)	13.3 (6)

Table 6

Means and (Standard Deviations) for the Scales by Feminist Status (excluding participants who did not correctly identify complainant as a feminist/non-feminist)

Outcome Measure	Condition			
	Non-Feminist		Feminist	
	Men	Women	Men	Women
Sexual Harassment Guilt Attribution Questionnaire	2.49 (1.27)	2.97 (.95)	1.69 (1.00)	2.19 (1.40)
Sexual Assault Guilt Attribution Questionnaire	3.48 (.92)	3.73 (.79)	3.50 (1.12)	3.55 (.95)
Sexual Harassment Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists Questionnaire	31.75 (13.38)	30.38 (13.81)	41.79 (14.57)	35.3 (16.30)
Sexual Assault Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists Questionnaire	18.33 (10.89)	20.38 (10.95)	24.29 (10.86)	19.85 (12.82)

Table 7

Means and (Standard Deviations) for Incorrect and Correct Identifiers of Complainant Feminist Status (for the Non-Feminist Condition)

Outcome Measure	Condition	
	Incorrect Identifiers	Correct Identifiers
Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists (sexual harassment version)	46.87 (19.58)	31.10*** (13.17)
Sex – Role Egalitarianism	105.31 (13.70)	107.28 (8.84)
Conservative Subscale of Feminist Perspectives Scale (FPS)	16.44 (9.85)	15.86 (7.84)
Radical Subscale of FPS	17.19 (8.63)	20.76 (9.23)
Liberal Subscale of FPS	38.88 (7.34)	40.83 (6.34)
Socialist Subscale of FPS	17.81 (7.98)	22.62 (9.42)
Woman of Colour Subscale of FPS	34.00 (18.92)	30.00 (6.89)
Cultural Subscale of FPS	24.81 (10.17)	24.79 (8.44)

*** $p < .001$.

Table 8

Correlations Between Measures by Guilt Attributions (GUILT) and Stereotyped Attitudes Towards Feminists (SATF) by Scenario

Measure	<u>Sexual Harassment</u>		<u>Sexual Assault</u>	
	SATF	GUILT	SATF	GUILT
Sex Role Egalitarianism	-.323**	.200	-.414***	.321**
Socialist Feminism Perspective	.232*	.130	.279**	-.008
Radical Feminism	.306**	.011	.295**	-.068
Liberal Feminism	-.007	.022	-.056	.071
Cultural Feminism	.227*	.070	.266**	.030
Conservative Perspective	.257*	-.099	.277**	-.242*
Woman of Colour	.137	-.027	-.036	.077
Self-Identification as Feminist	.014	-.040	.130	-.176
Age of Participant	-.061	.315**	-.052	.138

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. *** $p < .001$.

Appendix A: Feminist Complainant Sexual Assault Scenario

**BELOW IS AN ACCOUNT OF THE EVENTS WHICH TOOK PLACE ON A DATE BETWEEN
JIM AND SARAH.**

Jim and Sarah are university students. Jim is active in the Biology club. Sarah is a feminist who is active in the Gender Issues organization on campus. After their meetings with their prospective organizations, Sarah and Jim decided that they would go out together later that evening.

Jim arrived at Sarah's residence at exactly 7:00. He buzzed her and the door opened, so Jim proceeded up the stairs to her apartment. Sarah greeted Jim enthusiastically, and told him she would be a few more minutes. Jim sat down on the couch and recalled the party he had attended just two weeks earlier in this very apartment. Jim remembered watching Sarah dancing that night, and how turned on he had been. Jim couldn't remember exactly how the party ended, but he did get Sarah's phone number and had called her three days after the party.

Since that time they had been out twice. The first date they had lunch in a downtown bistro, and on the second date they went to the show. Jim was anticipating this date much more than the first two, as tonight they were going to dinner at an expensive restaurant and then going out dancing afterward. Sarah came out from her room. She was dressed in a black evening gown. The dress hugged every curve of her body. Jim thought she looked great.

When they arrived at the restaurant Jim told Sarah to order anything she wanted. The atmosphere of the restaurant was very romantic with dim lighting and soft music. The two enjoyed casual conversation over dinner. When they finished, Jim and Sarah left the restaurant and went to one of Jim's favorite clubs. They danced together for quite some time, only leaving the dance floor periodically to get drinks. Sarah was laughing, enjoying Jim's attention, and having a great time. Once last call was announced, Jim invited Sarah back to his place. Sarah accepted Jim's invitation. Later that evening Jim and Sarah had sexual intercourse.

Appendix B: Non-Feminist Complainant Sexual Assault Scenario

BELOW IS AN ACCOUNT OF THE EVENTS WHICH TOOK PLACE ON A DATE BETWEEN JIM AND SARAH.

Jim and Sarah are university students. Jim is active in the Biology club. Sarah is active in the Geology organization on campus. After their meetings with their prospective organizations, Sarah and Jim decided that they would go out together later that evening.

Jim arrived at Sarah's residence at exactly 7:00. He buzzed her and the door opened, so Jim proceeded up the stairs to her apartment. Sarah greeted Jim enthusiastically, and told him she would be a few more minutes. Jim sat down on the couch and recalled the party he had attended just two weeks earlier in this very apartment. Jim remembered watching Sarah dancing that night, and how turned on he had been. Jim couldn't remember exactly how the party ended, but he did get Sarah's phone number and had called her three days after the party.

Since that time they had been out twice. The first date they had lunch in a downtown bistro, and on the second date they went to the show. Jim was anticipating this date much more than the first two, as tonight they were going to dinner at an expensive restaurant and then going out dancing afterward. Sarah came out from her room. She was dressed in a black evening gown. The dress hugged every curve of her body. Jim thought she looked great.

When they arrived at the restaurant Jim told Sarah to order anything she wanted. The atmosphere of the restaurant was very romantic with dim lighting and soft music. The two enjoyed casual conversation over dinner. When they finished, Jim and Sarah left the restaurant and went to one of Jim's favorite clubs. They danced together for quite some time, only leaving the dance floor periodically to get drinks. Sarah was laughing, enjoying Jim's attention, and having a great time. Once last call was announced, Jim invited Sarah back to his place. Sarah accepted Jim's invitation. Later that evening Jim and Sarah had sexual intercourse.

Appendix C: Sexual Assault Complainant and Defendant Statements

SARAH'S STATEMENT:

"I accepted Jim's invitation back to his apartment because I was having a good time and wanted to get to know Jim better. When we got to his place Jim put on some music and poured us each a glass of wine. We talked for a few minutes and then Jim kissed me. I responded to his kiss. He touched my hair and my face while he kissed me, it felt nice. After about a minute of kissing, Jim started grabbing my breasts. His kisses became harder and more forceful. He pulled me down to a lying position. I felt things were happening "too fast". He pulled up my dress and fondled me. It didn't feel good, I became uncomfortable. I told him I had to go. He responded "No, you don't want to leave yet" and kissed me very aggressively. I don't remember how many times, but several times I repeated that I had to go. The next thing I knew he had my hands pinned down on the couch over my head and was pulling down his pants with his other hand. I tried to get my hands free, but he was too strong. "Don't please, I don't want to" I told him. He put his mouth over mine and kissed me hard. Then he entered me and had sex with me, he sexually assaulted me. When he was finished, he told me to get dressed. In silence, he drove me home. As I got out of the car he thanked me for the date. I ran into my house crying."

JIM'S STATEMENT:

"Sarah and I were having a great time at the club. We were flirting with each other all night, I guess you could say we had a "mutual attraction". So, I invited her back to my apartment. When we arrived, we talked for a bit. I remember thinking how beautiful she was as she talked, and then I kissed her. She kissed me back, and we made out for awhile. I touched her hair, her face, her breasts. She seemed to be enjoying herself. I laid her down on the couch and we kissed some more. After some heavy petting she said she should go, but it sounded like she didn't really want to stop. I kissed her while holding her hands together above her head. She seemed to like it. We were both getting pretty turned on at this point. Then we had sex. It was consensual, I definitely did not sexually assault Sarah. When we were done I gave her a ride home. I thanked for our evening together and told her I would call her later".

Appendix D: Feminist Complainant Sexual Harassment Scenario

BELOW IS AN ACCOUNT OF THE EVENTS WHICH TOOK PLACE IN A MEETING BETWEEN DR. SMITH AND ANDREA.

Dr. Smith has been a Geology professor for 15 years. Andrea is a feminist who is active in the campus Gender Issues organization. After class, Dr. Smith and Andrea set up an appointment to talk about Andrea's low mark on a recent exam.

Andrea arrived at Dr. Smith's office at exactly 4:30. They spoke for awhile about her concerns. At one point Dr. Smith put his arm around Andrea. Soon after the meeting ended.

Appendix E: Non-Feminist Complainant Sexual Harassment Scenario

BELOW IS AN ACCOUNT OF THE EVENTS WHICH TOOK PLACE IN A MEETING BETWEEN DR. SMITH AND ANDREA.

Dr. Smith has been a Geology professor for 15 years. Andrea is a student who is active in the campus Biology organization. After class, Dr. Smith and Andrea set up an appointment to talk about Andrea's low mark on a recent exam.

Andrea arrived at Dr. Smith's office at exactly 4:30. They spoke for awhile about her concerns. At one point Dr. Smith put his arm around Andrea. Soon after the meeting ended.

Appendix F: Sexual Harassment Complainant and Defendant Statements

ANDREA'S STATEMENT:

I went to Dr. Smith's office because I had received a poor mark on my exam and I wanted to find out what I could do about it. Once I was in his office, I sat on the sofa and I explained that I was having trouble with the course material and wanted to know if he had any suggestions. Then he sat down beside me, put his arm around me and said that he'd make me a deal. If I agreed to see him every week, in his office and not tell anyone, I would be guaranteed an "A" in the course. Clearly he was making a pass at me. I became afraid that if I refused his offer I would be jeopardizing my chances of passing the course. Luckily, at that point Dr. Smith had received an emergency phone call and didn't have any more time to talk, so I headed right out of that office! Obviously he had sexual intentions, so I left and filed a sexual harassment charge. There is no doubt in my mind that I experienced sexual harassment that afternoon.

DR. SMITH'S STATEMENT:

I met with Andrea because she wanted to discuss her poor mark on the exam. Andrea came into my office, sat down and proceeded to explain to me that she didn't understand some concepts in class and asked if I had any suggestions about what she should do. I explained why she had done poorly and her eyes filled with tears. I put my arm around her to comfort her as she was clearly distressed. I felt sorry for her and offered to meet with her once a week to help her with the course. I told her I could not do this for everyone, so I asked her not to tell the other students I was doing this. I told her that such individual tutoring would almost certainly enable her to get an "A" in the course. At this point things got rather hectic as I received an emergency phone call. There must have been some sort of miscommunication. All I wanted to do was help; it was not sexual harassment.

Appendix G: Sexual Assault Attribution Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE 1

BELOW ARE STATEMENTS ABOUT THE SCENARIO YOU JUST READ. RATE EACH STATEMENT ON HOW MUCH YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE. PLEASE REMEMBER, WE ARE INTERESTED IN YOUR **PERSONAL OPINIONS**, THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree	disagree	disagree	agree	agree	agree
strongly	somewhat	slightly	slightly	somewhat	strongly

Please respond to the following statements as though you were a **JUROR** in this case:

- ___1. This was sexual assault.
- ___2. Sarah’s claim of sexual assault is believable.
- ___3. Jim’s claim of innocence is believable.
- ___4. Sarah is to blame for the outcome of this incident.
- ___5. Jim is to blame for the outcome of this incident.
- ___6. I would recommend a prison sentence for Jim.
- ___7. I would recommend psychological treatment for Jim.

Appendix H: Sexual Harassment Attribution Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE 1

BELOW ARE STATEMENTS ABOUT THE SCENARIO YOU JUST READ. RATE EACH STATEMENT ON HOW MUCH YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE. PLEASE REMEMBER, WE ARE INTERESTED IN YOUR **PERSONAL OPINIONS**, THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree strongly	disagree somewhat	disagree slightly	agree slightly	agree somewhat	agree strongly

Please respond to the following statements as though you were a **JUROR** in this case:

- ___1. This was sexual harassment.
- ___2. Andrea's claim of sexual harassment is believable.
- ___3. Dr. Smith's claim of innocence is believable.
- ___4. Andrea is to blame for the outcome of this incident.
- ___5. Dr. Smith is to blame for the outcome of this incident.
- ___6. I would recommend that the university punish Dr. Smith in some manner.
- ___7. I would recommend psychological treatment for Dr. Smith.

Appendix I: Stereotyped Attitudes Toward Feminists Questionnaire (for sexual assault scenario)

QUESTIONNAIRE 2

BELOW ARE A SERIES OF STATEMENTS REGARDING SARAH. PLEASE INDICATE THE DEGREE TO WHICH YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH EACH STATEMENT USING THE SCALE BELOW:

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree	disagree	disagree	agree	agree	agree
strongly	somewhat	slightly	slightly	somewhat	strongly

-
- 1. Sarah may have an underlying motive for her accusation.
 - 2. People like Sarah often are blinded by their political agendas.
 - 3. Sarah worries too much about unimportant issues.
 - 4. Sarah appears to be unpredictable in the way she responds to men.
 - 5. Sarah misinterprets things that others wouldn't.
 - 6. Sarah is misguided in her intentions.
 - 7. Sarah likes men.
 - 8. Sarah wants to get back at Jim.
 - 9. Sarah goes too far in asserting her rights.
 - 10. Sarah is unable to see other peoples' perspectives.
 - 11. Sarah probably isn't very caring toward others..
 - 12. When I picture Sarah in my mind, I imagine her as quite attractive.
 - 13. I think Sarah is of good character.
 - 14. I get the feeling that Sarah is somewhat "unbalanced".
 - 15. Sarah is a woman who takes things to extremes.
 - 16. Sarah is anti-male.
 - 17. Sarah is easily influenced by political correctness.
 - 18. Sarah is a feminist.

Appendix J: Stereotyped Attitudes Toward Feminists Questionnaire (for sexual harassment scenario)

QUESTIONNAIRE 2

BELOW ARE A SERIES OF STATEMENTS REGARDING ANDREA. PLEASE INDICATE THE DEGREE TO WHICH YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE WITH EACH STATEMENT USING THE SCALE BELOW:

0	1	2	3	4	5
disagree	disagree	disagree	agree	agree	agree
strongly	somewhat	slightly	slightly	somewhat	strongly

-
1. Andrea may have an underlying motive for her accusation.
 2. People like Andrea often are blinded by their political agendas.
 3. Andrea worries too much about unimportant issues.
 4. Andrea appears to be unpredictable in the way she responds to men.
 5. Andrea misinterprets things that others wouldn't.
 6. Andrea is misguided in her intentions.
 7. Andrea likes men.
 8. Andrea wants to get back at Dr. Smith.
 9. Andrea goes too far in asserting her rights.
 10. Andrea is unable to see other peoples' perspectives.
 11. Andrea probably isn't very caring toward others.
 12. When I picture Andrea in my mind, I imagine her as quite attractive.
 13. I think Andrea is of good character.
 14. I get the feeling that Andrea is somewhat "unbalanced".
 15. Andrea is a woman who takes things to extremes.
 16. Andrea is anti-male.
 17. Andrea is easily influenced by political correctness.
 18. Andrea is a feminist.

Appendix K: Sex-Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES-Form BB)

QUESTIONNAIRE 3

BELOW ARE A SERIES OF STATEMENTS ABOUT MEN AND WOMEN. READ EACH STATEMENT AND DECIDE HOW MUCH YOU AGREE OR DISAGREE. WE ARE NOT INTERESTED IN WHAT SOCIETY SAYS. WE ARE INTERESTED IN *YOUR PERSONAL OPINIONS*. BESIDE EACH STATEMENT, PLEASE INDICATE THE LETTER(S) THAT DESCRIBE(S) YOUR OPINION. REMEMBER TO INDICATE *ONLY ONE* OF THE FIVE CHOICES FOR EACH STATEMENT.

SA = Strongly Agree A = Agree N=Neutral/Undecided D=Disagree SD = Strongly Disagree

1. Home economics courses should be as acceptable for male students as for female students.
2. Women have as much ability as men to make major business decisions.
3. High school counselors should encourage qualified women to enter technical fields like engineering.
4. Cleaning up the dishes should be the shared responsibility of husbands and wives.
5. A husband should leave the care of young babies to his wife.
6. The family home will run better if the father, rather than the mother, sets the rules for the children.
7. It should be the mother's responsibility, not the father's, to plan the young child's birthday party.
8. When a child awakens at night, the mother should take care of the child's needs.
9. Men and women should be given an equal chance for professional training.
10. It is worse for a woman to get drunk than for a man.
11. When it comes to planning a party, women are better judges of which people to invite.
12. The entry of women into traditionally male jobs should be discouraged.
13. Expensive job training should be given mostly to men.
14. The husband should be the head of the family.
15. It is wrong for a man to enter a traditionally female career.

- ___ 16. Important career-related decisions should be left to the husband.
- ___ 17. A woman should be careful not to appear smarter than the man she is dating.
- ___ 18. Women are more likely than men to gossip about people they know.
- ___ 19. A husband should not meddle with the domestic affairs of the household.
- ___ 20. It is more appropriate for a mother, rather than a father, to change their baby's diapers.
- ___ 21. When two people are dating, it is best if they base their social life around the man's friends.
- ___ 22. Women are just as capable as men to run a business.
- ___ 23. When a couple is invited to a party, the wife, not the husband, should accept or decline the invitation.
- ___ 24. Men and women should be treated the same when applying for student loans.
- ___ 25. Equal opportunity for all jobs regardless of sex is an ideal we should all support.

Appendix L: Feminist Perspectives Scale (FPS)

QUESTIONNAIRE 4

0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Strongly Disagree	Moderately Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Undecided	Somewhat Agree	Moderately Agree	Strongly Agree

___ 1. Given the way that men are, women have a responsibility not to arouse them by their dress and action.

___ 2. Pornography exploits female sexuality and degrades all women.

___ 3. In education and legislation to stop rape, ethnicity and race must be treated sensitively to ensure that women of color are protected equally.

___ 4. Women should not be direct participants in government because they are too emotional.

___ 5. Whether one chooses a traditional or alternative family form should be a matter of personal choice.

___ 6. People should define their marriage and family roles in ways that make them feel most comfortable.

___ 7. The government is responsible for making sure that all women receive an equal chance at education and employment.

___ 8. Racism and sexism make double the oppression for women of colour in the work environment.

___ 9. Prostitution grows out of the male culture of violence and make values of social control.

___ 10. Capitalism and sexism are primarily responsible for the increased divorce rate and general breakdown of families.

___ 11. Replacing the word "God" with "Goddess" will remind people that the deity is not necessarily male.

___ 12. Women of colour have less legal and social service protection from being battered than White women have.

___ 13. A man's first responsibility is to obtain economic success, while his wife should care for the family's needs.

14. Men should follow women's lead in religious matters, because women have a higher regard for love and peace than men.
15. Using "man" to mean both men and women is one of many ways sexist language destroys women's existence.
16. Sex role stereotypes are only one symptom of the larger system of patriarchal power, which is the true source of women's subordination.
17. Homosexuals need to be rehabilitated into normal members of society.
18. The workplace is organized around men's physical, economic, and sexual oppression of women.
19. Men's control over women forces women to be the primary caretakers of children.
20. Making women economically dependent on men is capitalism's subtle way of encouraging heterosexual relationships.
21. Women of colour are oppressed by White standards of beauty.
22. The availability of adequate child care is central to a woman's right to work outside the home.
23. The breakdown of the traditional family structure is responsible for the evils in our society.
24. Homosexuality is not a moral issue, but rather a question of liberty and freedom of expression.
25. A socialist restructuring of business and institutions is necessary for women and people of color to assume equal leadership with White men.
26. Being put on a pedestal, which White women have protested, is a luxury that women of colour do not have.
27. Social change for sexual equality will best come about by acting through federal, state, and local government.
28. Putting women in positions of political power would bring about new systems of government that promote peace.
29. Men use abortion laws and reproductive technology to control women's lives.
30. Traditional notions of romantic love should be replaced with ideas based on feminine values of kindness and concern for all people.

___ 31. Romantic love supports capitalism by influencing women to place men's emotional and economic needs first.

___ 32. By not using sexist and violent language, we can encourage peaceful social change.

___ 33. Legislation is the best means to ensure a woman's choice of whether or not to have an abortion.

___ 34. Men prevent women from becoming political leaders through their control of economic and political institutions.

___ 35. Beauty (in women) is about feeling one's womanhood through peace, caring, and nonviolence.

___ 36. It is a man's right and duty to maintain order in his family by whatever means necessary.

___ 37. Women's experience in life's realities of cleaning, feeding people, caring for babies, etc., makes their vision of reality clearer than men's.

___ 38. The world is a more attractive place because women pay attention to their appearance and smiles.

___ 39. The way to eliminate prostitution is to make women economically equal to men.

___ 40. Antigay and racist prejudice act together to make it more difficult for gay male and lesbian people of color to maintain relationships.

___ 41. Women should try to influence legislation in order to gain the right to make their own decisions and choices.

___ 42. In rape programs and workshops, not enough attention has been given to the special needs of women of colour.

___ 43. Rape is best stopped by replacing the current male-oriented culture of violence with an alternative culture based on more gentle qualities.

___ 44. It is the capitalist system which forces women to be responsible for child care.

___ 45. Marriage is a perfect example of men's physical, economic, and sexual oppression of women.

___ 46. Women should not be assertive like men because men are the natural leaders on earth.

___ 47. Romantic love brainwashes women and forms the basis for their subordination.

___ 48. Discrimination in the workplace is worse for women of colour than for all men and White

women.

___ 49. Bringing more women into male-dominated professions would make the professions less cut-throat and competitive.

___ 50. Much of the talk about power for women overlooks the need to empower people of all races and colours first.

___ 51. Women should have the freedom to sell their sexual services.

___ 52. Using "he" for "he or she" is convenient and harmless to men and women.

___ 53. All religion is like a drug to people and is used to pacify women and other oppressed groups.

___ 54. Rape is ultimately a powerful tool that keeps women in their place, subservient to and terrorized by men.

___ 55. Capitalism forces most women to wear feminine clothes to keep a job.

___ 56. The tradition of Afro-Canadian women who are strong family leaders has strengthened the Afro-Canadian community as a whole.

___ 57. The personalities and behaviors of "women" and "men" in our society have developed to fit the needs of advanced capitalism.

___ 58. Heterosexuality is the only natural sexual preference.

___ 59. Men need to be liberated from oppressive sex role stereotypes as much as women do.

Appendix M: Demographic Questionnaire

OTHER QUESTIONS

In this part we are interested in obtaining some information from you in order that we may better describe the people who have taken part in the study.

1. Gender: (Circle number of answer)

1. Male 2. Female

2. Age : in Years _____

3. Have you ever taken any Women's studies courses? (Yes/No). If yes, please list them below.

4. Do you consider yourself a feminist? (Check appropriate response)

Yes

No

Not sure

Appendix N: Instructions for Study

Instructions for Study

Researcher: Jennifer Mazur (M.A. Psychology Student)

Supervisor: Dr. John Jamieson

This study will investigate opinions regarding encounters between men and women that lead to sexual assault or sexual harassment complaints. You will be asked to read two vignettes of interactions between men and women. You will also be requested to complete questionnaires and answer some questions about the vignettes that you have read. This study will take approximately one hour to complete.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary, you can leave if you feel it is necessary at any point. If you choose to not complete the study, just return the forms. No questions will be asked and there will not be any sort of penalty. All of your responses will be kept completely confidential and anonymous. For your time, we will be pleased to offer you a summary of our results once the project is completed, if you so wish. To receive a summary, please remember to inform the experimenter as you leave. If you are an Introductory Psychology student you will receive one bonus point for your participation in this experiment whether or not you complete the questionnaires.

Appendix O: Informed Consent Form

CONSENT FORM

- ◆ Title of research: Perceptions of Sexual Assault and Sexual Harassment Complainants
- ◆ I will be asked to read two short stories that describe some encounters between men and women. After reading each one, I will answer questions about my thoughts and perceptions about what happened. I will also be asked to fill out several questionnaires on my feelings, thoughts, and attitudes.
- ◆ I understand that my responses will be kept anonymous and confidential.
- ◆ I understand that there are no foreseeable risks or benefits to participation in this study.
- ◆ I also understand that my participation in this research is voluntary. If for some reason I wish to discontinue my participation in the study once the session has begun, I am free to do so without explanation or penalty even after I have signed this form, and I understand that I shall still receive the bonus mark.
- ◆ I understand that the data obtained in this research will be kept in secure storage for seven years.
- ◆ If I so wish, I may request a summary of the results from this research project upon its completion.

I HAVE READ THE ABOVE DESCRIPTION OF THE STUDY AND WISH TO PARTICIPATE IN IT.

Participant's Name (Print)

Signature

Date

Appendix P: Debriefing

WHAT THIS STUDY IS ALL ABOUT

Have you ever wondered why some people judge other groups of people (i.e., minority groups) the way they do? Do you ever wonder if the attitudes people had about a group of people would affect the way they behave toward a person they **believe** to be a member of that group? Myself, as well as many other researchers have long been interested in these types of questions.

Research shows that in some situations, such as in sexual assault trials, there are many factors which impact on juror's judgments about the level of the complainant's or defendant's guilt, credibility, and responsibility for the incident. Some of these factors include characteristics of the complainant (i.e., attractiveness), characteristics of the defendant (i.e., level of force used), and the situation (i.e., whether the incident occurred in the dark). Finally, the beliefs that jury members have about the complainant (i.e., belief that women often lie about sexual assault) also impact on the decisions made about the incident.

A useful way to study perceptions of people involved in sexual assault and harassment trials is to give out very ambiguous and limited amounts of information about an event. Then, one asks participants to make a decision based on this information. Theoretically, the less information someone is given about the event, the more they will rely on subjective perceptions of the persons involved. Specifically, as you may have guessed by now, I gave you limited and ambiguous information about a mock sexual assault and sexual harassment case and then asked you to make some decisions about the parties involved. Through this method I hope to answer the questions outlined above.

Please note that you may receive a summary of the study's results, once the results are analysed. If you would like us to send you a summary, please write your name and address on a mailing label and I'll send a copy to you. Thanks again for your participation. It is very valuable to us. Without students such as yourselves, it would be much more difficult for us to do our work.

BEFORE YOU LEAVE PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING QUESTIONS:

1. Name some factors that impact on the way complainants and defendants are viewed by jury members. _____
2. How can researchers study perceptions of people involved in sexual assault and harassment trials? _____