The Devil is in the Details: Sexual Harassment e-Training Design Choices and Perceived Messenger Integrity

ABSTRACT

While training design choices seem amoral, they interact to determine training (in)effectiveness, potentially harming/benefiting trainees and organizations. These moral implications intensify when training is administered at scale (e.g., e-training) and focuses on social issues like sexual harassment (hereafter, SH). In fact, research on SH training shows it can elicit trainees' gender-based biases against content messengers. We suggest that one such bias, resulting from messenger gender-occupation incongruence and influencing training effectiveness, is lowered perceptions of the messenger's integrity. We also investigate whether rich media will increase or decrease this perceived integrity penalty. Using an excerpt from real SH e-training and a sample [*N = 210*] consistent with the targeted training audience, we conducted a 2x2x2 relative comparison experiment (messenger gender x messenger occupation x media richness) and tested a moderated mediation model of the interactive effects of messenger gender-occupation incongruence and media richness on trainees' perceptions of messenger integrity and training outcomes. Results suggest that trainees' perceptions of messenger integrity decrease when the messenger's gender is incongruent with their occupation, leading to worse outcomes in text-based training. These effects, however, are mitigated by increased media richness, providing support for media richness theory. Implications for researchers and practitioners are discussed.

Keywords:
Sexual harassment training, role congruity theory, integrity, media richness, cognitive load theory

The Devil is in the Details: Sexual Harassment e-Training Design Choices and Perceived Messenger Integrity

INTRODUCTION

Training design is an organizational activity subsumed under the domain of human resource (HR) management, with seemingly minute design decisions (e.g., messenger characteristics, media richness) often outsourced to an instructional designer (ID) – (i.e., suppliers of training programs). HR and ID scholars often theorize from an amoral perspective, focusing on the psychology of learning or return on investment (Noe, Clark, & Klien, 2014). Yet, we know that training design affects employees' learning and performance outcomes (Arthur et al. 2003; Lacerenza et al. 2017; Roehling, Wu, Choi, & Dulebohn. 2021) and that training effectiveness can result in broader outcomes, such as organizational culture (Warren, Gaspar, & Laufer, 2015). If training is poorly designed, learning decreases, and employees, organizations, and other stakeholders may forego potential benefits (e.g., promotions, increased performance) or even incur harms (e.g., poor performance, safety accidents, hostile work environments). From a utilitarian perspective, these potential benefits and harms place training design in the realm of business ethics, with some forms of training having greater ethical implications than others.

Training that affects a greater number of employees, such as e-training programs administered at scale, can increase the overall magnitude of potential harm and benefit (Jones, 1991). Additionally, training that addresses social issues, such as sexual harassment (SH), can contribute to the social consensus around normative principles for social structures and acceptable behaviors (e.g., reporting and investigation procedures, norms of respect). For example, the issue of SH inspired both supporting social movements (e.g., #MeToo) and criticizing counter-movements (e.g., #NotAllMen), indicating that the treatment of women and other vulnerable targets (e.g., people of color, LGBTQ+ folks, interns, undocumented workers; Cortina & Areguin, 2021) in the workplace is still debated. As

such, workplaces should be concerned with SH training design. Poorly designed SH training might not only harm individual trainees (e.g., decreased learning) and contribute to an undesirable organizational culture (NASEM, 2018; Clancy et al. 2020), but could also stunt the progression of normative principles for equity among people of different genders at work. For instance, Bingham and Scherer (2001, p. 128) found that a SH training program "developed under suboptimal conditions" by a committee with "no formal background in training … or sexual harassment prevention" actually increased men's tendency to victim blame.

Because gender equity at work is a worthwhile and ethical objective (Bernstein, Bulger, Salipante, & Weisinger, 2020), the design choices that contribute to SH training effectiveness are also ethical issues. We draw on role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Diekman, 2005), media richness theory (Daft & Lengel, 1984), and cognitive load theory (Sweller, 1988) to propose how design choices interact to affect outcomes through trainees' perceptions of a messenger's integrity. As perceived integrity is a key mediating variable in our model, we also connect the integrity-based trust literature with the training, gender, and communications literatures to show how perceived messenger integrity is related to SH training effectiveness, demonstrating that perceptions of moral principles (i.e., messenger integrity) are related to moral outcomes (i.e., SH training effectiveness).

We test our predictions in a 2x2x2 (messenger gender X messenger occupation X media richness) relative comparison experiment, utilizing an excerpt from a real SH e-training program and a sample consistent with the program's targeted audience (i.e., student interns). Our research investigates whether e-training messengers who violate gender-based social norms suffer a perceived integrity penalty and whether media richness attenuates or intensifies that penalty. Our findings provide insight into the routine decisions HR personnel and IDs make during training design. What

seem like minute, amoral details (e.g., Should the messenger be a man or a woman?, Should the messenger be from HR or an attorney?, Should we pay for the added cost of video or keep content text-based?), have implications for the overall effectiveness of SH e-training programs.

Our study reconceptualizes training design as an ethical issue, charging HR personnel and IDs to carefully consider the potential harms and benefits that can result from interacting design elements, especially in widely administered e-training on social issues. We contribute to the knowledge of best practices in SH e-training design in light of contemporary practitioner trends (e.g., e-training, diverse representation; Preusser et al. 2011; Lee & Fogle, 2020; Ho, 2021). In addition, our study also contributes to the intersection of research on HR development, learning, and business ethics. By including perceptions of integrity as our key mediating variable, we show that the perceived morals of a messenger matter in the context of learning about a social issue. Finally, our study contributes to the ongoing debate between media richness theory and cognitive load theory about whether media richness reduces or increases cognitive biases.

Next, we review the SH training literature and develop our hypotheses by first applying role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Diekman, 2005; see also Heilman, 2012 for a review of this theory and other relevant gender stereotyping research) to show how messenger casting decisions in SH e-training affects trainees' gender-based biases. Then, we develop competing hypotheses based on media richness theory (see Ishii, Lyons, & Carr, 2019 for a recent review) and cognitive load theory (see Sweller, van Merriënboer, & Paas, 2019 for a recent review) to determine how media richness will either exacerbate or attenuate perceived integrity biases against messengers. We chose our three primary theories due to their relevance to our manipulated e-training design factors (i.e., messenger characteristics, media richness). Finally, we integrate the integrity-based trust

literature with the training and communications literatures to connect perceived messenger integrity to SH e-training outcomes. A description of our experimental methodology follows, and we conclude with a discussion of our results and directions for future research.

Sexual Harassment (SH) Training

SH training is defined as a systematic approach to increase learning related to (1) identifying and refraining from SH behaviors, and (2) following the organization's SH policy (Goldberg, 2007; Alhejji et al. 2016). Recent meta-analytic evidence suggests that SH training is effective *on average*, especially at improving knowledge, but with more modest effects on skills, attitudes, and transfer (Roehling et al. 2021). This meta-analysis also determined that there is no effect of delivery media (i.e., in-person vs. online/e-training) on SH training effectiveness, reasoning that other unknown moderators (e.g., design factors) likely determine whether particular modalities are effective (Roehling et al. 2021, p. 22). Given the prevalence of e-training (Preusser et al. 2011; Ho, 2021) and the general paucity of research on SH e-training design (Roehling & Huang, 2018; Medeiros & Griffith, 2019), Roehling and Huang (2018) specifically identified the critical need for experimental studies examining this topic.

Previous research also identified that SH training can make gender stereotypes highly salient to trainees and even increase gender-based biases against messengers, decreasing effectiveness (Stuhlmacher & Poitras, 2010; Tinkler et al. 2015). Similar biases against messengers in SH e-training may also occur. This proposed effect is especially likely given increased practitioner efforts to include diverse representation in e-training content and design (Lee & Fogle, 2020). As such, there is a critical need for experimental research on e-training design choices, especially those pertaining to messengers' gender. Next, we explore how gender biases may form when a messengers' gender interacts with the two trainer-qualifying occupations in SH

training – HR and law. Our specific focus is on *gender-occupation incongruency* (i.e., women (men) in stereotypically masculine (feminine) occupations), and so we utilize role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Diekman, 2005) to develop our first hypothesis.

HYPOTHESES DEVELOPMENT

Gender-Occupation Incongruence

For SH training, only particular occupations, such as HR and law, (Fair Employment & Housing Act, 2016; Medeiros & Griffith, 2019) legally qualify a person to be a trainer. Even in e-training, expert characters' credentials must be developed to convey that information from them can be trusted. So, both expert characters in e-training and live in-person trainers are often employed in the occupations of HR or law, in accordance with legal standards. Perhaps not surprisingly then, the messengers' expertise or occupation becomes a salient factor around which trainees form perceptions (Wisshak & Hochholdinger, 2018). Another key factor that trainees attend to is gender. In fact, research suggests that trainees hold gender stereotypes toward SH policy messengers, which affect policy reactions (Tinkler et al. 2015).

It is important to note that both HR and law are gender-typed occupations (i.e., occupations historically dominated by one gender and believed to require qualities associated with that gender; Clarke, 2020). Yet, gender representation is becoming more diverse in these occupations. Specifically, while law has traditionally been male-dominated (Cheeseman Day, 2018), women are becoming increasingly common in the profession (40%; US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). Similarly, HR professionals remain mostly women, but men now comprise approximately 25% of all HR roles (US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2020). Still, while the gender representation of these professions has changed, gendered job stereotypes prevail (Clarke, 2020). HR continues to be seen as a female profession, with one of the highest numbers of female managers (i.e., 77.9%: Clarke, 2020). And law

is still seen as a masculine profession (Couch & Sigler, 2001), where both minority and white female attorneys are mistaken for janitors more often than white men (Williams, Multhaup, Li, & Korn, 2018) due to occupational gender-typing (Clarke, 2020).

Given the occupational gender-typing within HR and law, trainees will perceive male HR professionals and female lawyers as having *gender-occupation incongruence*, whereby a person's gender does not match the gender stereotypically associated with their occupation. This is problematic as role congruity theory posits that individuals are evaluated less favorably when they occupy gender incongruent work roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Diekman, 2005). Women in jobs requiring masculine qualities are perceived as unlikeable and deviant (Koch, D'Mello, & Sackett, 2015). Similarly, men defying prototypical masculinity are often the targets of SH (Alonso, 2018). Overall, research shows backlash against individuals who deviate from gender stereotypes (Rudman, 1998; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007; Kark & Eagly, 2010; Ferguson, 2018; Gupta, Han, Mortal, Silveri, & Turban, 2018; Wang, Markóczy, Sun, & Peng, 2018). This may be especially true during SH training, which makes gender highly salient and threatens gendered workgroup norms (Tinkler, 2012; Rawski & Workman-Stark, 2018; Rawski, O'Leary-Kelly, & Breaux Soignet, 2022).

Consequently, when SH training messengers' gender and occupation are incongruent, trainees are likely to form negative perceptions about them. We consider perceived integrity as a key variable in this context. We chose integrity because of its association with trustworthiness (Mayer et al. 1995; Mayer & Davis, 1999) and persuasion (Eagly et al. 1978; Petty et al. 2001), and because it is related to the evaluation of others' moral principles, which is especially relevant in the context of a learning about a moral issue like SH (O'Leary-Kelly & Bowes-Sperry, 2001; Skitka, 2010). As such, perceived messenger integrity is likely to be an influential construct.

Perceived Integrity

Integrity perceptions (i.e., the perceived extent that a person adheres to acceptable principles; Mayer et al. 1995; Mayer & Davis, 1999) are especially important at early stages of interactions (Mayer et al. 1995; Dowell et al. 2015), such as when an unfamiliar messenger shares information. Additionally, perceptions and biases exhibit greater effects during limited and early interactions (Jones & Shah, 2016). When there is a perceived moral discrepancy, individuals tend to experience discomfort (Skitka & Mullen, 2002), distancing themselves from dissimilar others (Skitka, Bauman, & Sargis, 2005). For moral issues (i.e., those involving harm and/or social norms; Jones, 1991; Treviño, Weaver, & Reynolds, 2006), reactions are stronger (Skitka, 2010). As SH is a moral issue (O'Leary-Kelly & Bowes-Sperry, 2001), perceptions of messenger integrity should be especially relevant in SH e-training.

While previous studies have not focused on gender-role incongruity and integrity, research on trustworthiness, which comprises integrity, provides insight. A recent meta-analysis (Xie, Flake, & Hehman, 2019) and experiment (Schniter & Shields, 2020) both found that target gender is related to trustworthiness perceptions and trust. More specific to role congruity theory, Stuhlmacher and Poitras (2010) show that men's and women's trustworthiness are judged on different gendered job-related characteristics.

In addition to the association between trust and gender norm conformity, research on persuasion suggests that messages are more convincing when they are incongruent with the messenger's self-interest (Eagly et al. 1978; Petty et al. 2001). We know that both men and women who defy gender norms are more likely to experience SH (Berdahl, 2007; Alonso, 2018). So, messengers with gender-occupation incongruence are more likely to be perceived as self-interested (i.e., protecting themselves from SH; rejecting traditional gender role norms for personal gain) and

lacking in integrity than messengers with gender-occupation congruence. At the same time, messengers with gender-occupation congruence may be seen as having greater integrity, as they are not pursuing a personal agenda, but rather communicating based on moral principles. So, we expect gender-occupation incongruence will result in lower perceptions of messenger integrity.

> *Hypothesis 1: Trainees' perceptions of SH e-training messenger integrity will be lower when the messenger's gender and occupation are incongruent compared to congruent.*

Now that we have established the link between e-training design choices (e.g., messenger gender and occupation) and perceived integrity, we turn our attention to another training design factor, media richness, that spotlights an unresolved debate. Namely, whether media richness will exacerbate or attenuate trainees' biases. Given strong arguments from both media richness theory and cognitive load theory, we generate competing hypotheses in the following section.

Media Richness and Cognitive Load

Generally, our perceptions of others change as we learn more about individuals (Bandura, 1986). Research suggests that individuating information reduces stereotyping (Rubinstein, Jussim, & Stevens, 2018). For example, information about a person's credentials reduces reliance on gender in decision-making (Landy, 2008). So, the proposed negative effect of gender-occupation incongruence on integrity perceptions (i.e., Hypothesis 1) may be attenuated by individuating information about the messenger.

Media richness (i.e., the amount of information conveyed through a communication medium; Purdy & Nye, 2000) is a potential way of sharing individuating information in SH e-training. Factors such as the number of cues (e.g., vocal inflection, gestures), immediacy of feedback, language variety (e.g., symbols, numbers), and personalization (e.g., the use of emotions) all contribute to enrich media (Daft & Lengel, 1984). A media rich e-training, (e.g., video-based) provides greater psychological arousal (Kock, 2005), is associated with increased interaction involvement (i.e., the extent to which

information exchange is engaging; Ramirez & Burgoon, 2004), and requires less information seeking as it provides a larger volume of information accessed with less effort (Maity, Dass, & Kumar, 2018) compared to less media rich formats (e.g., text-based). Media richness is also positively associated with source credibility perceptions (Frasca & Edwards, 2017), trusting behaviors (Chesney, Chuah, Dobele, & Hoffmann, 2017), and is preferred when engaging in low trust and equivocal tasks (Daft & Lengel, 1984; Lo & Lie, 2008), such as SH e-training with an unfamiliar messenger. Additionally, more personal knowledge about another's behavior (even in virtual settings) is associated with improved integrity assessments (Robert, Denis, & Hung, 2009). Taken together, insights from media richness theory (Daft & Lengel, 1984) suggest that richer media provides more salient and easily accessible individuating information to trainees in SH e-training and thus, should attenuate the negative effect of gender-occupation incongruence on perceived messenger integrity.

However, richer media can also increase cognitive load (Parog & Mayer, 2018; Makransky et al. 2019), in particular, extraneous cognitive load, or the complexity of how information is presented rather than the inherent difficulty of the information itself (Sweller, 1988; Paas et al. 2003; Reif, 2010). Cognitive load theory surmises that humans have finite cognitive resources that determine the extent of information processing (Sweller, 1988). Indeed, increased cognitive load is associated with greater reliance on cognitive heuristics, such as stereotypes, that increase cognitive processing efficiency (Macrae, Stangor, & Milne, 1994; Sherman et al. 1998). In a study of expert witness testimony, McKimmie and colleagues (2013) found that participants were less persuaded by gender-inconsistent female experts when under conditions of high cognitive load. Cognitive load has also been shown to disrupt trait inferences for counter-stereotypical targets (Wigboldus et al. 2004). This effect may disrupt any associations between gender-occupation incongruent messengers and positive traits like integrity, which may be more readily applied to congruent messengers (Vial et al. 2016; Hu

et al. 2022). As such, cognitive load theory would predict that richer media will intensify trainees' biases against gender-occupation incongruent messengers. Therefore, given the competing theoretical arguments from media richness theory (Daft & Lengel, 1986) and cognitive load theory (Sweller, 1988), we seek to inform this ongoing debate by testing the following competing hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 2: The effect of SH e-training messenger gender-occupation incongruence on trainees' perceptions of messenger integrity will be moderated by media richness such that the negative effect of incongruence on integrity will be either (a) attenuated or (b) strengthened when media richness is high.*

Training Effectiveness Outcomes

A training program is *effective* to the extent it achieves intended objectives (Sitzman & Weinhardt, 2015). Because many training programs set out to achieve multiple objectives, it is often necessary to assess multiple operationalizations of effectiveness. In general, the most proximal outcomes of interest have been at the individual level and include factors such as reactions (i.e., trainees' feelings about the training; Kirkpatrick, 1976; Santos & Stuart, 2003), learning (i.e., positive changes in trainees' knowledge, attitudes, or skills; Kirkpatrick, 1976), and/or performance (i.e., behavioral transfer of learning to the work context; Holton, 1996). Importantly, performance is also predicted by training-related motivation and behavioral intentions (Colquitt, et al. 2000).

In SH training research, these outcomes have been adapted, such that reactions have been operationalized as decreases in *backlash attitudes toward training* (i.e., negative attitudes that training is illegitimate; Tinkler, 2012; Rawski, 2017) and *identity threat reactions*, or perceptions that one's identity will be harmed (Petrigileri, 2011) due to negative identity content within the training program (e.g., harasser and victim identities, Rawski, 2017). Learning has been operationalized as *SH knowledge assessments* (Bingham & Scherer, 2001; Goldberg, 2007; Cheung et al. 2017; Goldberg et al. 2018) and *SH-related attitudes* (e.g., myth-based attitudes; Lonsway, Cortina, & Magley, 2008; Goldberg et al. 2018). Motivation and intention outcomes have been measured as *transfer motivation*

and *SH reporting intentions* (Goldberg, 2007; Rawski & Conroy, 2020). These outcomes, rather than SH performance, have been of interest due to the logistical and ethical barriers to observing SH behaviors. However, one common performance outcome of SH training is *identification of SH in scenarios* (Moyer & Nath, 1998; Tinkler, 2008; Rawski & Conroy, 2020).

Previous research suggests that SH training is less effective when trainees perceive it as illegitimate (Rawski, 2017). This finding is consistent with communications research demonstrating that perceptions of a source as biased are associated with lower perceptions of credibility and persuasiveness (Wallace, Wegener, & Petty, 2020). Indeed, audiences do not always internalize presented information, but rather evaluate source credibility when considering information validity (Avery, 2010). So, when training messengers are perceived as having low integrity, the information they present is likely to be considered less credible. This leads to reduced training effectiveness because trainees are less motivated to learn information deemed illegitimate. For instance, Rawski (2017) found that backlash reactions against SH training were associated with decreased learning. As such, we propose that the interaction between messenger gender-occupation incongruence and media richness is mediated through perceived messenger integrity to affect training effectiveness outcomes, including reactions, learning, motivation/intentions, and performance.

> *Hypothesis 3: Trainees' perceptions of SH e-training messenger integrity will mediate the interactive effect between messenger gender-occupation incongruence and media richness on individual-level training effectiveness outcomes, including (a) reactions, (b) learning, (c) motivation/intentions, and (d) performance.*

Insert Figure 1 About Here

METHODS

Sample

The sample included 214 laboratory volunteers at a large public university in the Midwestern US, representative of the intended training audience (i.e., potential student interns).[1] Four participants failed attention checks and were excluded, leaving 210 participants. About 72% of the sample was employed (4.3% full-time, 50% part-time, 14.3% multiple part-time jobs, 9.5% internship), working an average of 15.2 hours per week [*SD = 10.4*], with an average of 4.3 years of work experience [*SD = 2.1*] and an average age of 20.7 years [*SD = 2.1*]. About 30% of our sample identified as a racial minority (70% white). The majority was female (69%).

Experimental Manipulations

Three independent variables (messenger gender, messenger occupation, and media richness) were manipulated, resulting in a 2 (male, female) x2 (HR, law) x2 (text, video) relative comparison experimental design (Trochim, 2005), allowing for direct comparisons of alternative treatments. Stimulus materials (See Appendix A) included a messenger profile and training excerpt, focusing on quid pro quo SH. Messenger gender was manipulated via gendered pronouns in their profile and the gender of the messenger in the training video. Messenger occupation was manipulated in the profile as well. To avoid confounding differences in trainees' assumptions about other messenger characteristics, the profile kept the messenger's name, education level and prestige, years of experience, race (black), and competence constant across conditions. A separate manipulation check study[2] supported our manipulation of messenger gender-occupation incongruence. Because hypotheses focus on messengers' gender-occupation incongruence, gender-occupation congruence

[1] Additionally, meta-analytic results suggest there are no systematic differences of training setting (organizational vs. educational) on SH training outcomes (Roehling et al. 2021), supporting the generalizability of our sample to a workplace context.

[2] Manipulation check study methodology and results available upon request from the corresponding author.

(i.e., male lawyer or female HR professional) was coded as 0 and gender-occupation incongruence (i.e., male HR professional or female lawyer) as 1. This coding scheme represents the most direct test of our hypotheses[3].

Media richness was manipulated by the modality of content (text transcript vs. video of a messenger reciting the same transcript), thereby holding training content constant. This content constancy across conditions is a strength of our study since previous SH training design experiments have failed to do so (Roehling & Huang, 2018). The moderating factor, media richness, was coded as 0 = low/text and 1 = high/video.

Consistent with previous experimental studies of SH training (Tinkler et al. 2015), the training in this study consisted of a 4.5-minute excerpt from a professionally produced, legally compliant, and positively framed (i.e., respectful workplace focus) SH e-training program. While our stimulus materials may be shorter than those used in practice, meta-analytic findings suggest that there is no relationship between duration and SH training effectiveness (Roehling et al. 2021). Additionally, we limited our knowledge and performance measures to assess only content that appeared in the training excerpt (i.e., content pertaining to quid pro quo SH). So, we contend that our stimulus materials, while short in duration, do comprehensively cover one sub-topic of SH training and serve as a conservative test of our hypotheses.

[3] We also tested the 3-way interaction (i.e., messenger gender x messenger occupation x media richness). Results from this analysis did not identify a significant difference within the gender-occupation incongruence condition (i.e., male HR professional vs. female lawyer) or within the congruence condition (i.e., male lawyer vs. female HR professional). This indicated the main effect of gender-occupation incongruence sufficiently captures our observed effects.

Measures

Unless otherwise noted, participants responded to items using a 5-point Likert scale [1 = Strongly Disagree, 5 = Strongly Agree]. All reflective measures demonstrated acceptable internal consistency (See Table 1). See Appendix B for a list of all items.

Mediating Variable

Perceived Messenger Integrity. Perceived integrity was measured using six items adapted from Mayer and Davis (1999).

Dependent Variables

Reaction Outcomes. Reaction outcomes were operationalized as (1) backlash attitudes toward training and (2) identity threat reactions. Backlash attitudes were measured using eight items from Rawski's (2017) measure. Identity threat reactions were measured using seven items from Rawski's (2017) measure, and are consistent with Petriglieri's (2011) conceptualization of threats to an identity's value.

Learning Outcomes. Learning was operationalized as (1) SH training-related knowledge and (2) myth-based attitudes about SH. Knowledge was measured via eight true-false statements about SH designed for the current study. Participants responded on a 7-point scale to statements [1 = definitely false, 2 = probably false, 3 = maybe false, 4 = I don't know, 5 = maybe true, 6 = probably true, 7 = definitely true]. The eight items were summed to compute a total knowledge score (ranging 8 – 56), with higher scores indicating greater knowledge. Consistent with previous research (Goldberg et al. 2018), the summation of our knowledge items is appropriate given that this measure is formative and does not assume items are internally consistent (Coltman, Devinney, Midgley, & Venaik, 2008).

Myth-based attitudes about SH were measured using three items from Goldberg's and McHugh's (1999) Attitudes toward Sexual Harassment (ASH) scale.

Motivation & Intention Outcomes. Motivation and intention outcomes serve as distal indicators of performance outcomes. We utilized three operationalizations for this category of outcomes, including (1) transfer motivation, (2) bystander reporting intentions, and (3) motivation to participate in future SH training sessions, an important outcome considering employees typically complete SH training periodically (Gurchiek, 2018). Transfer motivation was measured using six items adapted from Noe and Schmitt's (1986) 7-item measure[4]. Bystander reporting intentions were measured with two items crafted for the current study. Future training motivation was measured using Rawski's (2017) five-item measure.

Performance Outcome. We operationalized performance as SH identification, a skill that precedes reporting and intervention. SH identification was measured using four scenarios, three depicting SH and one reverse-coded benign scenario. In response to each scenario, participants were asked: "Do you think this situation is sexual harassment?" Responses were measured on a 5-point scale [1 = definitely not sexual harassment, 3 = I don't know, 5 = definitely sexual harassment] and summed to represent total scores (ranging 4 – 20), with higher scores indicating better SH identification. Consistent with prior research (Rawski & Conroy, 2020), our SH identification measure is also a formative construct, making summation of this outcome score appropriate (Coltman et al. 2008).

Comprehension Checks

To verify participants' awareness of the messenger's gender and occupation, we administered two comprehension checks after all other study variables were measured (see Appendix B).

[4] The item "There are more problems than [the messenger] realizes in using the sexual harassment training program content in my future work activities" was dropped to improve internal consistency.

Procedure

See Figure 2 for an overview of participants' experience. Participants were contacted through the behavioral research laboratory's system and asked to sign up for our research study. When participants arrived at the laboratory, they were signed into the study and given informed consent information. Upon consenting, they were escorted to a private computer station.

Using Qualtrics survey software, participants were randomly assigned to one of eight experimental conditions (see experimental manipulations section). Importantly, random assignment ensures equivalence across groups, such that the only differences between groups are the independent variables being examined. Participants then read a brief messenger profile, which contained the manipulations for messenger gender and occupation. Next, participants read or watched (depending on condition) an excerpt from an SH e-training program for student interns focusing on quid pro quo SH. The messenger gender manipulation was also apparent in the video condition (see Appendix A).

After the training excerpt, participants completed a survey that assessed their perceptions of the messenger's integrity followed by the order-randomized operationalizations of training effectiveness (see measures section). Additionally, two attention check questions were embedded into the survey to ensure participants were reading all of the survey questions. The online survey automatically ended if a participant failed an attention check question. Lastly, participants answered demographic questions and finally, comprehension check questions.

Once the survey was completed, participants were paid for their participation in the experiment. Participants were paid $5 for showing up on time and an additional $10 for completing the study without failing any attention check items. Participants completed the experimental procedure in less than 60 minutes.

Insert Figure 2 About Here

RESULTS

Descriptive statistics and correlations are reported in Tables 1 and 2. Chi-square analyses of two comprehension checks confirm participants were accurately aware of the messenger's gender [$\chi^2 = 174.41, p < .001$] and occupation [$\chi^2 = 165.38, p < .001$] in their randomly assigned conditions.

Insert Tables 1 and 2 About Here

Hypotheses were tested using PROCESS, "a computational tool for path analysis-based moderation and mediation analysis as well as their integration in the form of a conditional process model" (Hayes, 2013, p. 419).[5] See Table 3[6] for results. Hypothesis 1 predicted that messenger gender-occupation incongruence is negatively related to perceptions of integrity. Results do not support Hypothesis 1 [$b = -.06, t = -.88, NS$]. However, this finding should be interpreted in the context of the higher-order interaction effect described next.

Insert Table 3 About Here

Hypothesis 2 predicted that media richness either (a) attenuates or (b) strengthens the effect of gender-occupation incongruence on perceived integrity. The interaction is significant [$b = .33, t =$

[5] PROCESS Template Model 8, which represents a model in which a two-way interaction effect on a single outcome is mediated by a single mediator, was used, with a separate analysis for each dependent variable (DV). Each of our training effectiveness outcomes are hypothesized to be determined by the indirect interactive effects of experimental manipulations through the mediator, rather than each other. Due to the lack of temporal precedence among the DV measures, which occurred in a randomized order after the mediator was measured, any relationships among the DVs are a result of them simultaneously emanating from the same manipulated training and messenger integrity perceptions. In this case, the separate analyses conducted for each DV in our study are analytically equivalent to the simultaneous modeling of all DVs in one path analysis (see Hayes, 2018, pgs. 145 – 146).

[6] We also conducted additional analyses including participant gender or prior knowledge as a covariate. Results for these additional analyses did not substantially differ from those included in the manuscript.

2.31, p < .05]. Conditional effects (See Table 4) show gender-occupation incongruence has a negative effect on integrity only when media richness is low. An ANOVA [*F(3, 206) = 4.96, p < .01*][7] shows the pattern of the two-way interaction on integrity [*F(1, 206) = 5.62, p < .05*] is such that high levels of media richness make up for an integrity penalty against gender-occupation incongruent messengers [$\bar{x}_{text} = 4.08;\ \bar{x}_{video} = 4.46; LSD = .20$], but does not enhance perceived integrity for congruent messengers [$\bar{x}_{text} = 4.31;\ \bar{x}_{video} = 4.35; LSD = .20$]. This supports Hypothesis 2a, but not 2b.

Insert Table 4 About Here

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the two-way interaction between messenger gender-occupation incongruence and media richness affects training outcomes through the mediating effect of perceived integrity. As shown in Table 3, perceived integrity was a significant predictor of all training outcomes. The mediator was positively related to desirable outcomes, including learning [*knowledge: b = 2.86, t = 4.40, p < .001*], motivations and intentions [*transfer motivation: b = .30, t = 4.01, p < .001; reporting intentions: b = .36, t = 4.18, p < .001; future training motivation: b = .35, t = 3.92, p < .001*], and performance [*SH identification: b = .69, t = 3.46, p < .001*]. The mediator was also negatively related to undesirable outcomes, including negative reactions [*backlash attitudes: b = - .58, t = - 9.19, p < .001; identity threat reactions: b = - .44, t = - 6.30, p < .001*] and negative attitudes about SH [*myth-based attitudes: b = - .32, t = - 3.45, p < .001*]. The direction of these effects indicates that higher integrity perceptions are associated with better training effectiveness.

Table 4 shows the indirect effects of gender-occupation incongruence moderated by media richness and mediated through perceived messenger integrity, showing a consistent pattern that messenger gender-occupation incongruence decreases training effectiveness through the mediator

[7] Based on a critical t of 1.97, a mean square error of .27 and within group sample sizes of 51 – 53, Fisher's Least Significant Difference (LSD) post-hoc test computed a least significant mean difference of .20.

when media richness is low. These significant conditional indirect effects are positive for undesirable training outcomes, such as negative reactions, backlash attitudes [*.13*] and identity threat reactions [*.10*], and myth-based attitudes [*.07*], and negative for desirable outcomes, including learning knowledge [- *.65*], motivations and intentions, such as transfer motivation [- *.07*], reporting intentions [- *.08*], future training motivation [- *.08*], and the performance outcome, SH identification [- *.16*]. Overall, this pattern supports Hypotheses 3a - d and indicates that when the media richness of SH e-training is low, messenger gender-occupation incongruence negatively, directly affects perceptions of messenger integrity and negatively, indirectly (through integrity perceptions) affects training outcomes. However, these negative effects are attenuated when media richness is increased.

DISCUSSION

Our results show that text-based SH e-training depicting messengers with a gender-occupation incongruence is less effective due to trainees' lowered perceptions of messenger integrity. These negative effects can be mitigated, however, by media rich training designs (e.g., video). Therefore, diverse messengers can be utilized in SH e-training, if other elements of training design (i.e., media richness) counteract trainee biases. These findings have implications for researchers and practitioners.

Research Implications

First, our study integrates business ethics, HR management, and instructional design (ID). In our introductory ethical analysis, we reconceptualized training design as a moral issue. Specifically, we outlined how training design choices interact to predict potential harms and benefits for individual trainees, organizations, and other stakeholders. We further suggested that SH e-training intensifies the moral relevance of training design because it is administered at scale, increasing the magnitude of possible harm and benefit and (potentially) creating social consensus around the issue SH in the workplace. As such, our results demonstrate just how harmful/beneficial seemingly amoral design

choices can be and highlight how these design choices can interact in complex ways. Given our ethical analysis and experimental study, we encourage HR and ID scholars to continue considering the moral implications of training design choices in their future research (see Greenwood & Freeman, 2018).

Additionally, our study integrates a key construct from the business ethics literature, integrity perceptions, with research on training, gender biases, and communications. Our findings indicate that perceived messenger integrity affects trainees' reactions, learning, motivation, and performance. This presents implications for designing e-training, and potentially in-person training too. In theory, if an in-person trainer had a reputation for lacking integrity (e.g., a history of bias in managing SH), then SH training would be less effective. Future research should explore this research question along with potential ways to increase trainees' perceptions of trainer integrity in an in-person training context.

Thirdly, by manipulating training design factors while maintaining content consistency across conditions, our relative comparison experiment on training design factors fills a high priority methodological gap in the SH training literature (Roehling & Huang, 2018). As such, we can make causal inferences about the relationship between the training design manipulations' interaction and perceptions of messenger integrity. Further, we investigated an increasingly popular type of SH training, e-training, and training design factors that are relevant to contemporary trends in instructional design (e.g., diverse representation). So, our study helps training research keep pace with innovations in practice. Our results also contribute to the further development of SH e-training best practices. Employment law dictates much of the required SH training content (EEOC, 2016) and research has identified the importance of positively framing this content (Rawski, 2017; Lee et al. 2019; Rawski et al. 2022). As such, the stimulus materials used in this study were developed to be both legally compliant and positively framed (e.g., respectful workplace framing), and yet, trainees' gender-based

biases still had negative effects in the low media richness condition. This suggests that we must simultaneously consider the content, framing, *and* design of SH training.

Penultimately, our experiment contributes to an ongoing debate – whether media richness decreases or increases biases, such as stereotyping. Media richness theory (Daft & Lengel, 1984) suggests that the increased individuating information offered by richer media will decrease bias, but cognitive load theory (Sweller, 1988) suggests that richer media increases cognitive load and subsequent reliance on cognitive heuristics, such as stereotypes. Our results support the former argument. However, future research should explore the boundary conditions of our findings. Would even greater media richness (e.g., virtual or augmented reality) further reduce trainee biases or instead push learners over a cognitive load tipping point that then increases their biases?

Finally, our results extend the application of role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Diekman, 2005). Previous research has already determined that gender role stereotypes affect social interactions (Rudman, 1998; Heilman & Okimoto, 2007; Kark & Eagly, 2010). Our study extends the reach of gender role stereotypes to e-learning contexts. Given the prevalence of e-training in our post-COVID workplaces (Ho, 2021), it is essential to remember that social biases can affect perceptions of content messengers and the overall effectiveness of e-training programs.

Practitioner Implications

Finally, results of our study provide two key insights to practitioners, including IDs and HR professionals. First, gender diverse casting choices in SH e-training hold the potential to elicit trainees' biases. So, while increased gender representation has benefits (e.g., increasing gender diversity, Ali, Grabarski, & Konrad, 2021) in SH e-training design, this choice must be made in conjunction with other design choices that reduce biases. Second, even though richer media in SH e-training increases development costs, our results indicate that the cost is worth it when diverse representation is a goal.

Greater financial investments in training also signal to employees that a training topic is important and that employees are supported by the organization (Keep, 1989), thereby improving training reactions (Santos & Stuart, 2003).

Limitations

While the current study advances SH training design best practices, it has limitations. First, while our experiment was one of the first to manipulate training design while holding content constant, our stimulus materials represent a truncated version of training. We therefore, encourage future researchers to replicate our results in the field with a full SH e-training program. Another concern is the cross-sectional nature of our data collection. Future research could implement a longitudinal design to strengthen support of the causal ordering of our model and determine whether our observed effects are long-lasting. In particular, field studies with time lags that demonstrate the effect of SH training on SH behaviors would contribute greatly to the literature.

A third limitation relates to the generalizability of our sample and stimulus material. We argue that our sample has "targeted" generalizability in that we recruited a sample that was similar to the target audience for the training utilized in our study. So, we would expect our results to generalize to the student intern population, a population that is notably vulnerable to sexual harassment due to their low power in organizations. Given that Roehling and colleagues (2021) found meta-analytic evidence that setting (educational vs. business) had no effect on SH training effectiveness, we are also optimistic that our results potentially generalize to the broader working adult population. It would be beneficial, however, for future research to test our hypotheses with a larger and more experienced sample to verify generalizability with increased statistical power.

With regards to the generalizability of our stimulus material (i.e., the SH training excerpt), our focus on a very specific type of training leaves lingering questions about other types of training.

Future research examining whether messengers' gender-occupation incongruence produces similar changes in perceptions of messenger integrity in the context of diversity training, leadership training, or job skills training in gender-typed jobs would be informative. It would also be interesting to investigate whether messengers who are black or indigenous people of color face increased integrity penalties under conditions of low media richness due to race-based biases. Notably all messengers in our stimulus materials were black so we could not test race-based differences among our messengers. These effects could be examined for both e-training messengers and in-person trainers to further extend our results.

Our stimulus material is also limited to two levels of media richness, text-based and video-based. We recommend future researchers extend our findings in order to identify potential media richness "tipping points". There is still a need for comparisons between text-based e-training and additional levels of media richness (Bedwell & Salas, 2010). Tinkler (2015) has contributed to this area by studying text-based training with added audio narration (male vs. female voice) and found similar trainee gender-based biases. However, investigating the utility of cartoons, graphics, and photos in addition to text and richer media than video, such as augmented or virtual reality, could determine the boundary conditions of the bias-countering effects of media richness.

One last methodological concern is whether the very nature of training studies creates demand characteristics that may artificially inflate DV measures (i.e., participants want to perform well on training effectiveness measures *because* they are being studied). Though, we expect any such bias in our data would inflate DV scores equivalently across all conditions, future research would benefit to utilize archival data or control groups that may help reduce any demand effects.

CONCLUSION

Overall, we suggested here that the devil is in the details – that training design factors interact to meet or undermine training objectives in ways that harm/benefit trainees, organizations, and other stakeholders. The current study experimentally manipulated SH e-training design (i.e., messenger gender-occupation incongruence and media richness), finding that trainees' gender-based biases are expressed as lower integrity perceptions of gender-occupation incongruent messengers in text-based e-training. Further, when SH training content messengers are perceived as lacking integrity, trainees' reactions, learning, motivations/intentions, and SH identification performance are negatively affected. These negative outcomes can be avoided, however, if e-training is designed with richer media. Our results contribute to our theoretical understanding of how trainees' biases can affect training outcomes, even when content messengers are virtual, emphasizing the importance of research-based training design in practice. We encourage future researchers to examine HR and ID decisions from a business ethics perspective. What may seem like inconsequential design choices, could amount to millions of employees who learn less from e-training and ultimately fail to prevent SH in the workplace.

REFERENCES

Alhejji, H., Garavan, T., Carbery, R., O'Brien, F., & McGuire, D. (2016). Diversity training programme outcomes: A systematic review. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, *27*(1), 95-149.

Ali, M, Grabarski, MK, Konrad, AM. (2021). Trickle-down and bottom-up effects of women's representation in the context of industry gender composition: A panel data investigation. *Human Resource Management,* 60: 559– 580.

Alonso, N. (2018). Playing to Win: Male–Male Sex-Based Harassment and the Masculinity Contest. *Journal of Social Issues*, 74(3), 477–499.

Andrews, D. H., Hull, T. D., & Donahue, J. A. (2009). Storytelling as an Instructional Method: Definitions and Research Questions. *Interdisciplinary Journal of Problem-Based Learning, 3(*2). https://doi.org/10.7771/1541-5015.1063

Arthur, W., Jr., Bennett, W., Jr., Edens, P. S., & Bell, S. T. (2003). Effectiveness of training in organizations: A meta-analysis of design and evaluation features. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 88*(2), 234–245. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.234

Avery, E. J. (2010). The role of source and the factors audiences rely on in evaluating credibility of health information. *Public Relations Review*, 36(1), 81–83.

Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action: A social cognitive theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bedwell, W. L., & Salas, E. (2010). Computer-based training: Capitalizing on lessons learned. *International Journal of Training and Development, 14*(3), 239–249. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1468-2419.2010.00355.x

Berdahl, J. L. (2007). The sexual harassment of uppity women. Journal of Applied Psychology, 92(2), 425–437. https://doi.org/10.1037/0021-9010.92.2.425

Bernstein, R.S., Bulger, M., Salipante, P., & Weisinger, J. Y. (2020). From diversity to inclusion to equity: A theory of generative interactions. *Journal of Business Ethics 167,* 395–410. https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-019-04180-1

Bingham, S. G., & Scherer, L. L. (2001). The unexpected effects of a sexual harassment educational program. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 37(2), 125-153.

Campbell, J., with Moyers, B. (1988). The power of myth. New York: Anchor Books.

Cheeseman Day, J. (2018, May 8). Number of women layers at record high but men still highest earners. *United States Census Bureau*, retrieved from: https://www.census.gov/library/stories/2018/05/women-lawyers.html

Chesney, T., Chuah, S., Dobele, A. R., Hoffmann, R. (2017). Information richness and trust in v-commerce: implications for services marketing. *Journal of Services Marketing*, 31(3): 295 – 307. DOI: 10.1108/JSM-02-2015-0099

Cheung, H.K., Goldberg, C., King, E., & Magley, V. (2017). Are they true to the cause? Beliefs about organizational and unit's commitment in sexual harassment training. *Group and Organization Management, 43*(4): 531 – 560.

Clancy, K. B. H., Cortina, L. M., Kirkland, K. (2020). Opinion: Use science to stop sexual harassment in higher education. PNAS 117(37): 22614 – 18.

Clarke, H. M. (2020). Gender stereotypes and gender-typed work. In K. F. Zimmermann (ed.), *Handbook of Labor, Human Resources and Population Economics* (pp. 1-23).

Colquitt, J. A., LePine, J. A., & Noe, R. A. (2000). Toward an integrative theory of training motivation: a meta-analytic path analysis of 20 years of research. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 85*(5), 678.

Coltman, T., Devinney, T. M., Midgley, D. F., & Venaik, S. (2008). Formative versus reflective measurement models: Two applications of formative measurement. *Journal of Business Research, 61*, 1250–1262.

Cortina, L. M., & Areguin, M. A. (2021). Putting people down and pushing them out: Sexual harassment in the workplace. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology & Organizational Behavior, 8*: 285 – 309.

Couch, J. V., & Sigler, J. (2001). Gender perception of professional occupations. *Psychological Reports, 88*(3), 693-698.

Daft, R.L., & Lengel, R.H., (1984). Information richness: a new approach to managerial behavior and organization design. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 6*, 191–233.

Davis, C. (2019, November 11). Thinking cinematically: Storytelling tools for instructional design. *Training Industry*. Retrieved from: https://trainingindustry.com/articles/content-development/thinking-cinematically-storytelling-tools-for-instructional-design/

Eagly, A. H., & Diekman, A. B. (2005). What is the Problem? Prejudice as an Attitude-in-Context. In J. F. Dovidio, P. Glick, & L. A. Rudman (Eds.), *On the nature of prejudice: Fifty years after Allport.* (pp. 19–35). Blackwell Publishing.

Eagly, A. H., & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, 109(3), 573–598.

Eagly, A. H., Wood, W., & Chaiken, S. (1978). Causal inferences about communicators and their effect on opinion change. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 36(4), 424–435. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.36.4.424

ELM Learning, (2020, September 1). Instructional storytelling: How to use the hero's journey for training. *The ELM Learning Lab*. Retrieved from: https://elmlearning.com/blog/instructional-storytelling-how-to-use-the-heros-journey-for-training/

Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC). (June, 2016). *Select Task Force on the Study of Harassment in the Workplace*. Retrieved from https://www.eeoc.gov/eeoc/task_force/harassment/report.cfm#_Toc453686310

Fair Employment & Housing Act. 2 CCR § 11024.a.10.A (2016). https://www.dfeh.ca.gov/wp-content/uploads/sites/32/2017/07/FinalText-20170703.pdf

Ferguson, T. W. (2018). Female leadership and role congruity within the clergy: Communal leaders experience no gender differences yet agentic women continue to suffer backlash. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research, 78*(5-6), 409–422. https://doi.org/10.1007/s11199-017-0803-6

Frasca, K. J., & Edwards, M. R. (2017). Web-based corporate, social and video recruitment media: Effects of media richness and source credibility on organizational attraction. *International Journal Of Selection And Assessment, 25*(2), 125-137. https://doi.org/10.1111/ijsa.12165

Greenwood, M., & Freeman, R. E. (2018). Deepening ethical analysis in business ethics. *Journal of Business Ethics, 147*: 1 – 4.

Goldberg, C. B. (2007). The impact of training and conflict avoidance on responses to sexual harassment. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *31*(1), 62-72.

Goldberg, C. B., & McHugh, P. (1999). The impact of training on perceptions of and reactions to sexual harassment. Presented at the Academy of Management Conference, Chicago, IL.

Goldberg, C. B., Rawski, S. L., Perry, E. L. (2018). The direct and indirect effects of organizational tolerance for sexual harassment on the effectiveness of sexual harassment investigation training for HR managers. *Human Resource Development Quarterly*, 1 – 20.

Gurchiek, K. (2018, May 30). Sexual harassment prevention training should involve real conversations. Society of Human Resource Management (SHRM), Retrieved from: https://www.shrm.org/resourcesandtools/hr-topics/behavioral-competencies/global-and-cultural-effectiveness/pages/sexual-harassment-prevention-training-should-involve-real-conversations.aspx

Gupta, V. K., Han, S., Mortal, S. C., Silveri, S. (D.), & Turban, D. B. (2018). Do women CEOs face greater threat of shareholder activism compared to male CEOs? A role congruity perspective. *Journal of Applied Psychology, 103*(2), 228–236. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000269

Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process Analysis: A regression-based approach.* New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Heilman, M. E. (2012). Gender stereotypes and workplace bias. *Research in Organizational Behavior, 32*: 113 – 135.

Heilman, M. E., &. Okimoto, T. G. (2007). Why are women penalized for success at male tasks? The implied communality deficit? *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92, 81–92.

Ho, M. (2021). What effect has the pandemic had on L&D? *Association for Talent Development*, Retrieved from: https://www.td.org/magazines/td-magazine/what-effect-has-the-pandemic-had-on-l-d

Holton, E. (1996). The flawed four-level evaluation model. Human Resource Development Quarterly, 7(1), 5-21.

Hu, L., Jiang, N., Huang, H. and Liu, Y. (2022), "Perceived competence overrides gender bias: gender roles, affective trust and leader effectiveness", *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, *43*(5): 719-733. https://doi.org/10.1108/LODJ-06-2021-0312

Ishii, K. Lyons, M. M., Carr, S. A. (2019). Revisiting media richness theory for today and future. *Human Behavior and Emerging Technologies*, *1*(2): 69 – 175.

Jones, T. M. (1991). Ethical Decision Making by Individuals in Organizations: An Issue-Contingent Model. *The Academy of Management Review*, *16*(2), 366–395. https://doi.org/10.2307/258867

Jones, S. L., & Shah, P. P. (2016). Diagnosing the locus of trust: A temporal perspective for trustor, trustee, and dyadic influences on perceived trustworthiness. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *101*(3), 392–414. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000041

Kark, R., & Eagly, A. H. (2010). Gender and leadership: Negotiating the labyrinth. In J. C. Chrisler & D. R. McCreary (Eds.), *Handbook of gender research in psychology*, Vol 2: Gender research in social and applied psychology. (pp. 443–468). Springer Science + Business Media.

Kaye, B., & Jacobson, B. (1999). True tales and tall tales: the power of organizational storytelling. *Training & Development*, *53*(3), 44. https://link.gale.com/apps/doc/A54260060/AONE?u=anon~277d3895&sid=googleScholar&xid=f54e40a4

Keep, E. (1989). Corporate training: The vital component? *In New Perspectives on Human Resource Management*, J. Storey (ed). London: Routledge.

Kirkpatrick, D. L. (1976). Evaluation of training. In R. L. Craig (Ed.), *Training and Development Handbook* (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill.

Koch, A. J., D'Mello, S. D., & Sackett, P. R. (2015). A Meta-Analysis of Gender Stereotypes and Bias in Experimental Simulations of Employment Decision Making. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 100(1), 128–161.

Kock, N. (2005). Media richness or media naturalness? The evolution of our biological communication apparatus and its influence on our behavior toward e-communication tools. *IEEE Transactions on Professional Communication*, *48*, 117-130.

Lacerenza, C. N., Reyes, D. L., Marlow, S. L., Joseph, D. L., & Salas, E. (2017). Leadership training design, delivery, and implementation: A meta-analysis. Journal of Applied Psychology, 102(12), 1686–1718. https://doi.org/10.1037/apl0000241

Landy, F. J. (2008). Stereotypes, bias, and personnel decisions: Strange and stranger. Industrial and Organizational Psychology: Perspectives on Science and Practice, 1(4), 379–392.

Lee, J. S. & Fogle, E. (2020, November 10). Diverse representation: Learner impacts and strategies in online courses. *Coursera Blog.* Retrieved from: https://blog.coursera.org/diverse-representation-learner-impacts-and-strategies-in-online-courses/

Lee, S., Hanson, M., & Cheung, H. (2019). Incorporating bystander intervention into sexual harassment training. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology, 12*(1), 52-57. doi:10.1017/iop.2019.8

Lo, S. & Lie, T. (2008). Selection of communication technologies: A perspective based on information richness theory and trust. *Technovation*, 28: 146 – 153. DOI: 10.1016/j.technovation.2007.05.017

Lonsway, K. A., Cortina, L. M., & Magley, V. J. (2008). Sexual harassment mythology: Definition, conceptualization, and measurement. Sex Roles,58(9-10), 599-615.

Lueck, S. (2017, August 30). The magic of the "hero's journey" in learning engagement. *Dashe & Thomson Learning & Development Blog*. Retrieved from: https://www.dashe.com/blog/the-magic-of-the-heros-journey-in-learning-engagement

Macrae, C. N., Milne, A. B., & Bodenhausen, G. V. (1994). Stereotypes as energy-saving devices: A peek inside the cognitive toolbox. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 66*(1), 37–47. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.66.1.37

Maity, M., Dass, M., & Kumar, P. (2018). The impact of media richness on consumer information search and choice. *Journal of Business Research, 87*, 36–45. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jbusres.2018.02.003

Makransky, G., Terkildsen, T. S., & Mayer, R. E. (2019). Adding immersive virtual reality to a science lab simulation causes more presence but less learning. *Learning and Instruction, 60*, 225-236.

Mayer, R. C., & Davis, J. H. (1999). The effect of the performance appraisal system on trust for management: A field quasi-experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, *84*(1), 123 - 136.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H., & Schoorman, F. D. (1995). An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, *20*(3), 709-734.

McKimmie, B. M., Newton, S. A., Schuller, R. A., Terry, D. J. (2013). It's Not What She Says, It's How She Says It: The Influence of Language Complexity and Cognitive Load on the Persuasiveness of Expert Testimony, Psychiatry, Psychology and Law, 20:4, 578-589, DOI: 10.1080/13218719.2012.727068

Medeiros, K., & Griffith, J. (2019). # Ustoo: How IO psychologists can extend the conversation on sexual harassment and sexual assault through workplace training. *Industrial and Organizational Psychology*, *12*(1), 1-19.

Moyer, R. S., & Nath, A. (1998). Some effects of brief training interventions on perceptions of sexual harassment. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology, 28*(4), 333-356.

National Academies of Science, Engineering, & Medicine (NASEM). (2018). *Sexual Harassment of Women: Climate, Culture, & Consequences in Academic Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine*. Washington D. C.: National Academic Press.

Noe, R. A., Clarke, A. D. M., & Klien, H. J. (2014). Learning in the twenty-first-century workplace. *Annual Review of Organizational Psychology & Organizational Behavior, 1*: 245 – 275).

Noe, R. A., & Schmitt, N. (1986). The influence of trainee attitudes on training effectiveness: Test of a model. *Personnel Psychology*, 39(3), 497-523.

O'Leary-Kelly, A. M., & Bowes-Sperry, L. (2001). Sexual harassment as unethical behavior: The role of moral intensity. *Human Resource Management Review*, *11*(1-2), 73-92.

Osland, J.S. (2000), The journey inward: Expatriate hero tales and paradoxes. Hum. Resour. Manage., 39: 227-238. https://doi.org/10.1002/1099-050X(200022/23)39:2/3<227::AID-HRM11>3.0.CO;2-R

Paas, F., Renkl, A., & Sweller, J. (2003). Cognitive load theory and instructional design: Recent developments. *Educational Psychologist*, *38*(1), 1-4.

Parong, J., & Mayer, R. E. (2018). Learning science in immersive virtual reality. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, *110*(6), 785.

Pearson, C. (1991). Awakening the heroes within: Twelve archetypes to help us find ourselves and transform our world. San Francisco: Harper, San Francisco.

Petriglieri, J. L. (2011). Under threat: responses to and the consequences of threats to individuals' identities. Academy of Management Review, 36(4), 641-662.

Petty, R. E., Fleming, M. A., Priester, J. R., & Feinstein, A. H. (2001). Individual versus group interest violation: Surprise as a determinant of argument scrutiny and persuasion. Social Cognition, 19(4), 418–442. https://doi.org/10.1521/soco.19.4.418.20758

Preusser, M. K., Bartels, L. K., & Nordstrom, C. R. (2011). Sexual Harassment Training: Person versus Machine. *Public Personnel Management, 40*(1), 47–62.

Purdy, J.M., & Nye, P., (2000). The impact of communication media on negotiation outcomes. *The International Journal of Conflict Management, 11*(2): 162–187

Ramirez, A. & Burgoon, J. K. (2004). The effect of interactivity on initial interactions: The influence of information valence and modality and information richness on computer-mediated interaction. *Communication Monographs, 71*(4): 422 – 447.

Rawski, S. L. (2017). Understanding employees' reactions to sexual harassment training: Interactional disruptions, identity threats, and negative training outcomes. (Doctoral dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (AAI10103180).

Rawski, S. L. & Conroy, S. A. (2020). Beyond demographic identities and motivation to learn: The effect of organizational identification on diversity training outcomes. *Manuscript submitted for publication.*

Rawski, S. L., O'Leary-Kelly, A., & Breaux-Soignet, D. (2022). It's all fun and games until someone gets hurt: An interactional framing theory of work social sexual behavior. *Academy of Management Review, 47*(4): 617 – 636. https://doi.org/10.5465/amr.2019.0316

Rawski, S. L., & Workman, S. A. L. (2018). Masculinity contest cultures in policing organizations and recommendations for training interventions. *Journal of Social Issues*, 74(3), 607–627.

Reif, F. (2010) *Applying Cognitive Science to Education. Thinking and Learning in Scientific and Other Complex Domains*. Cambridge, MA: The MIT Press.

Robert, L. P., Denis, A. R., & Hung, Y. T. C. (2009). Individual swift trust and knowledge-based trust in face-to-face and virtual team members. *Journal of Management Information Systems*, *26*(2), 241-279.

Roehling, M. V., & Huang, J. (2018). Sexual harassment training effectiveness: An interdisciplinary review and call for research. *Journal of Organizational Behavior, 39*, 134-150.

Roehling, M. V., Wu, D., Choi, M. G., & Dulebohn, J. H. (2021). The effects of sexual harassment training on proximal and transfer training outcomes: A meta-analytic investigation. *Personnel Psychology*, 1– 29. Advance online publication.

Rubinstein, R., Jussim, L., & Stevens, S. T. (2018). Reliance on individuating information and stereotypes in implicit and explicit person perception. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 75*, 54-70.

Rudman, L. A. (1998). Self-promotion as a risk factor for women: The costs and benefits of counterstereotypical impression management. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 74*(3), 629–645.

Santos, A. & Stuart, M. (2003), Employee perceptions and their influence on training effectiveness. *Human Resource Management Journal*, 13: 27-45.

Schniter, E., & Shields, T. W. (2020). Gender, stereotypes, and trust in communication. *Human Nature*, 31(3), 296–321.

Sherman, J. W., Lee, A. Y., Bessenoff, G. R., & Frost, L. A. (1998). Stereotype efficiency reconsidered: Encoding flexibility under cognitive load. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 75*(3), 589–606. https://doi.org/10.1037/0022-3514.75.3.589

Sitzmann, T., & Weinhardt, J. M. (2015). Training engagement theory: A multilevel perspective on the effectiveness of work-related training. *Journal of Management*, 1– 25.

Skitka, L. J. (2010). The psychology of moral conviction. *Social and Personality Psychology Compass*, *4*(4), 267-281.

Skitka, L. J., Bauman, C. W., & Sargis, E. G. (2005). Moral conviction: Another contributor to attitude strength or something more?. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *88*(6), 895.

Skitka, L. J., & Mullen, E. (2002). Understanding judgments of fairness in a real-world political context: A test of the value protection model of justice reasoning. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 28,* 1419-1429.

Stuhlmacher, A. F., & Poitras, J. (2010). Gender and job role congruence: A field study of trust in labor mediators. *Sex Roles: A Journal of Research*, 63(7–8), 489–499.

Sweller, J. (1988). Cognitive load during problem solving: Effects on learning. *Cognitive Science, 12*(2), 257-285.

Sweller, J., van Merriënboer, J. J. G., Paas, F. (2019). Cognitive architecture and instructional design: 20 years later. *Educational Psychology Review, 31*: 261 – 292.

Tinkler, J. E. (2008). "People Are Too Quick to Take Offense": The Effects of Legal Information and Beliefs on Definitions of Sexual Harassment. *Law & Social Inquiry, 33*(2), 417-445.

Tinkler, J. E. (2012). Resisting the enforcement of sexual harassment law. *Law & Social Inquiry, 37*(1), 1-24.

Tinkler, J. E., Gremillion, S., & Arthurs, K. (2015). Perceptions of Legitimacy: The Sex of the Legal Messenger and Reactions to Sexual Harassment Training. *Law & Social Inquiry, 40*(1), 152–174.

Treviño, L. K., Weaver, G. R., & Reynolds, S. J. (2006). Behavioral Ethics in Organizations: A Review. Journal of Management, 32(6), 951–990. https://doi.org/10.1177/0149206306294258

Trochim, W. (2005). Research methods: A concise knowledge base. Cincinnati, OH: Atomic Dog Publishers. https://conjointly.com/kb/

US Bureau of Labor Statistics (2020) https://www.bls.gov/cps/cpsaat11.htm

Vance, C.M. (1991), "Formalising Storytelling in Organisations: A Key Agenda for the Design of Training", Journal of Organizational Change Management, Vol. 4 No. 3, pp. 52-58. https://doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000001198

Vial, A.C., Napier, J.L. and Brescoll, V.L. (2016), "A bed of thorns: female leaders and the self-reinforcing cycle of illegitimacy", *The Leadership Quarterly, 27*(3): 400-414.

Wallace, L. E., Wegener, D. T., & Petty, R. E. (2020). When sources honestly provide their biased opinion: Bias as a distinct source perception with independent effects on credibility and persuasion. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 46(3), 439–453.

Wang, J.C., Markóczy, L., Sun, S.L., Peng, M. W. (2019). She'-E-O Compensation Gap: A Role Congruity View. *Journal of Business Ethics, 159*, 745–760 (2019). https://doi.org/10.1007/s10551-018-3807-4

Warren, D., Gaspar, J., & Laufer, W. (2014). Is Formal Ethics Training Merely Cosmetic? A Study of Ethics Training and Ethical Organizational Culture. *Business Ethics Quarterly, 24*(1), 85-117. doi:10.5840/beq2014233

Wigboldus, D. H. J., Sherman, J. W., Franzese, H. L., van Knippenberg, A. (2004). Capacity and comprehension: Spontaneous stereotyping under cognitive load. Social Cognition, 22:3, 292 – 309. https://doi.org/10.1521/soco.22.3.292.35967

Williams, J.C., Multhaup, M., Li, S., & Korn, R. (2018). *You can't change what you can't see: Interrupting racial & gender bias in the legal profession*. American Bar Association and Minority Corporate Counsel Association. https://www.mcca.com/wp-content/uploads/2018/09/You-Cant-Change-What-You-Cant-See-Executive-Summary.pdf

Wisshak, S., & Hochholdinger, S. (2018). Trainers' knowledge and skills from the perspective of trainers, trainees and human resource development practitioners. *International Journal of Training Research*, 16(3), 218–231.

Xie, S. Y., Flake, J. K., & Hehman, E. (2019). Perceiver and target characteristics contribute to impression formation differently across race and gender. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 117(2), 364–385.

FIGURE 1
Hypothesized Model

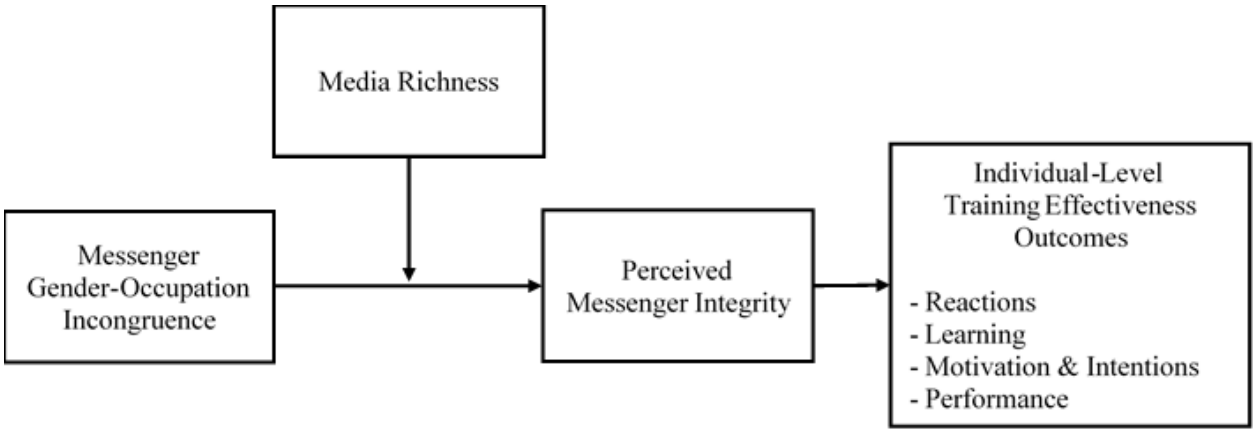

FIGURE 2
Participant Experience Flow Chart

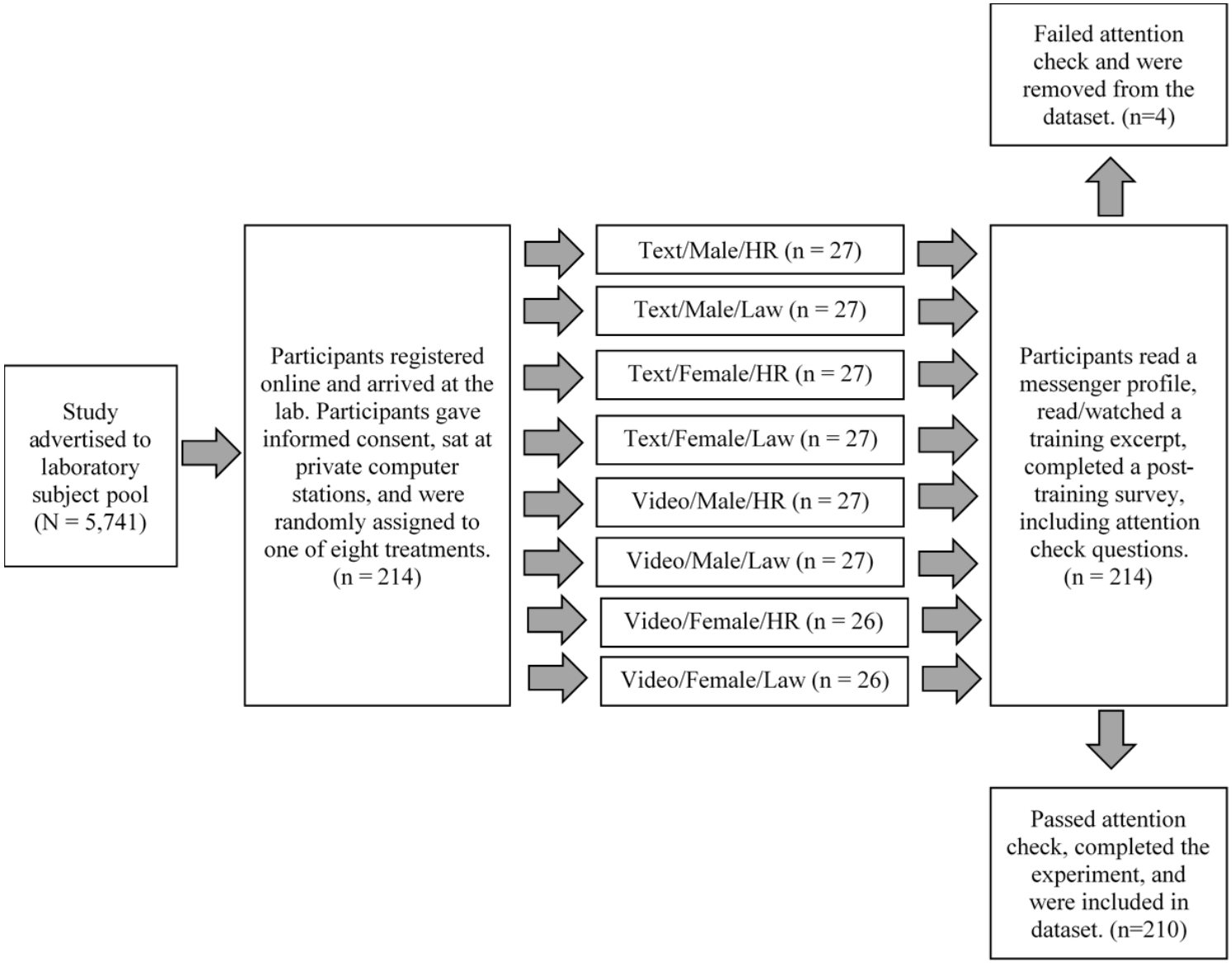

TABLE 1
Cronbach's Alphas & Bivariate Correlations

Table 1: Cronbach's Alphas & Bivariate Correlations

	Variable	α	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1	G-O Incongruence Manipulation	-	-									
2	Media Richness Manipulation	-	-.01	-								
3	Perceived Integrity	.79	-.06	.19**	-							
4	Backlash Attitudes	.83	.09	-.13	-.56***	-						
5	Identity Threat Reactions	.84	.06	-.03	-.40***	.47***	-					
6	Knowledge	-	.01	.04	.30***	-.09	-.08	-				
7	Myth-Based Attitudes	.76	-.02	-.06	-.25***	.38***	.24**	-.09	-			
8	Transfer Motivation	.71	.04	.00	.27***	-.59***	-.34***	-.02	-.13	-		
9	Reporting Intentions	.84	.01	-.10	.25***	-.37***	-.30***	.09	-.23**	.35***	-	
10	Future Training Motivation	.84	-.01	.09	.28***	-.60***	-.46***	.02	-.45***	.59***	.36***	-
11	SH Identification	-	-.04	.02	.24**	-.10	-.17*	.29***	-.29***	-.04	.07	.07

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

N = 210

Gender-Occupation (G-O) Incongruence: 0 = Congruent; 1 = Incongruent

Media Richness: 0 = Low (Text), 1 = High (Video)

TABLE 2
Descriptive Statistics by Condition[8]

Table 1: Descriptive Statistics by Condition

	Mediator		Dependent Variables															
			Reaction Outcomes				Learning Outcomes				Motivation & Intention Outcomes						Perf. Outcome	
	Perceived Integrity		Backlash Attitudes		Identity Threat Reactions		Knowledge		Myth-Based Attitudes		Transfer Motivation		Reporting Intentions		Future Training Motivation		SH Identification	
Condition	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
G-O (In)congruence																		
Congruent	4.33	.50	2.00	.49	1.95	49.99	49.99	5.74	1.86	.64	3.52	.56	4.16	.65	3.92	.68	18.25	1.46
Incongruent	4.27	.56	2.10	.63	2.02	50.09	50.09	4.17	1.84	.76	3.56	.57	4.17	.69	3.90	.70	18.13	1.65
Media Richness																		
Text	4.20	.52	2.12	.57	2.00	49.83	49.83	5.27	1.89	.76	3.54	.56	4.23	.61	3.85	.71	18.17	1.54
Video	4.41	.53	1.97	.55	1.97	50.25	50.25	4.76	1.81	.70	3.54	.58	4.10	.72	3.98	.66	18.22	1.58
Interaction																		
G-O Congruent/Text	4.31	.48	2.01	.50	1.95	50.06	50.06	6.32	1.85	.67	3.56	.53	4.22	.61	3.91	.65	18.26	1.33
G-O Congruent/Video	4.35	.53	1.98	.50	1.95	49.92	49.92	5.16	1.88	.61	3.48	.59	4.10	.68	3.93	.70	18.25	1.59
G-O Incongruent/Text	4.08	.53	2.23	.62	2.05	49.60	49.60	4.00	1.94	.85	3.52	.59	4.25	.62	3.79	.77	18.08	1.73
G-O Incongruent/Video	4.46	.52	1.96	.61	1.98	50.59	50.59	4.33	1.75	.66	3.61	.56	4.10	.76	4.02	.61	18.20	1.57
Total	4.30	.53	2.05	.56	1.98	.56	50.04	5.02	1.85	.70	3.54	.57	4.17	.67	3.91	.69	18.20	1.55

N = 210

[8] Consistent with the PROCESS results in Tables 3 and 4, ANOVA analyses show that the interaction of our manipulated conditions significantly affected perceived messenger integrity [Corrected Model: $F(3, 206) = 4.96$, $p < .01$; Interaction Effect: $F(1, 206) = 5.62$, $p < .05$], but those conditions and their interaction had no significant direct effect on backlash attitudes [Corrected Model: $F(3, 206) = 2.60$, NS], identity threat reactions [Corrected Model: $F(3, 206) = .39$, NS], knowledge [Corrected Model: $F(3, 206) = .34$, NS], myth-based attitudes [Corrected Model: $F(3, 206) = .68$, NS], transfer motivation [Corrected Model: $F(3, 206) = .52$, NS], reporting intentions [Corrected Model: $F(3, 206) = .68$, NS], future training motivation [Corrected Model: $F(3, 206) = .97$, NS], nor SH identification [Corrected Model: $F(3, 206) = .16$, NS].

TABLE 3
PROCESS Moderated Mediation Results (PROCESS Model 8)

Table 3: PROCESS Moderated Mediation Results (PROCESS Model 8)

	Mediator	Dependent Variables							
		Reaction Outcomes		Learning Outcomes		Motivation & Intention Outcomes			Perf. Outcome
	Perceived Integrity	Backlash Attitudes	Identity Threat Reactions	Knowledge	Myth-Based Attitudes	Transfer Motivation	Reporting Intentions	Future Training Motivation	SH Identification
	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b	b
Constant	4.30***	4.56***	3.83***	37.72***	3.22***	2.26***	2.61***	2.40**	15.23***
Experimental Manipulations									
G-O Incongruence (GOI)	-.06	.07	.01	.27	-.04	.06	.03	.00	-.06
Media Richness (MR)	.20**	-.03	.02	-.18	-.02	-.60	-.21*	.05	-.07
Interaction									
GOI x MR	.33*	-.04	.07	.14	-.12	.07	-.16	.09	-.05
Mediator									
Perceived Integrity	-	-.58***	-.44***	2.86***	-.32***	.30***	.36***	.35***	.69***
R^2	.07**	.32***	.17***	.09***	.06**	.08**	.09***	.08**	.05*

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$
N = 210
Gender-Occupation (G-O) Incongruence: 0 = Congruent; 1 = Incongruent
Media Richness: 0 = Low (Text), 1 = High (Video)

TABLE 4
Conditional Effects of Messenger Gender-Occupation Incongruence on Training Outcomes

Table 4: Conditional Effects of Gender-Occupation Incongruence on Perceived Integrity & Training Outcomes

Dependent Variables	Moderator: Media Richness	Direct Effect [CI]	Indirect Effect [CI]
Perceived Integrity (Mediator)	Low (Text)	**-.23 [-.42, -.03]**	-
	High (Video)	.10 [-.10, .30]	-
Backlash Attitudes	Low (Text)	.08 [-.10, .27]	**.13 [.02, .26]**
	High (Video)	.05 [-.14, .23]	-.06 [-.19, .05]
Identity Threat Reactions	Low (Text)	.01 [-.19, .21]	**.10 [.01, .21]**
	High (Video)	.07 [-.12, .27]	-.05 [-.14, .04]
Knowledge	Low (Text)	.20 [-1.67, 2.06]	**-.65 [-1.38, -.09]**
	High (Video)	.34 [-1.52, 2.20]	.29 [-.26, .97]
Myth-Based Attitudes	Low (Text)	.02 [-.25, .28]	**.07 [.01, .16]**
	High (Video)	-.10 [-.37, .16]	-.03 [-.11, .03]
Transfer Motivation	Low (Text)	.02 [-.19, .23]	**-.07 [-.15, -.01]**
	High (Video)	.09 [-.12, .30]	.03 [-.03, .11]
Reporting Intentions	Low (Text)	.11 [-.14, .36]	**-.08 [-.16, -.01]**
	High (Video)	-.04 [-.29, .20]	.04 [-.03, .13]
Future Training Motivation	Low (Text)	-.04 [-.30, .22]	**-.08 [-.17, -.01]**
	High (Video)	.05 [-.21, .31]	.04 [-.03, .13]
SH Identification	Low (Text)	-.03 [-.62, .56]	**-.16 [-.38, -.02]**
	High (Video)	-.09 [-.68, .50]	.07 [-.07, .23]

Mediator: Perceived Integrity
Gender-Occupation (G-O) Incongruence: 0 = Congruent; 1 = Incongruent

APPENDIX A
Stimulus Materials

Example Messenger Profile [Manipulations in Brackets]

Alex Allred is an expert in [human resource management/employment law]. [He/She] earned a graduate degree from a prestigious university, well known for its [human resource management/employment law] program. Alex has worked as [a human resources manager/an employment law attorney] for over 10 years, specializing in the prevention of sexual harassment in the workplace. [He/She] has extensive experience in administering sexual harassment training programs to employees and student interns. Alex also serves as the coordinator of the African American Mentoring Program at [his/her] company, where other black employees have spoken highly of [his/her] leadership. Alex was recently awarded the National [Human Resource Management/Employment Law] Association's [Man/Woman] of the Year Award for [his/her] contributions to the field.

Training Transcript

"I believe an informed workforce is the best way to promote a respectful workplace environment for everyone. But recognizing sexual harassment can be trickier than it sounds, especially when the harasser is an authority figure. So, what I want to drill down on in this section of the training program is the legal definition of quid pro quo sexual harassment in the workplace. In Latin it literally means “something for something.” But more specifically for our purposes, quid pro quo is defined as a favor or advantage granted or expected in return for sexual demands.

In a workplace scenario, envision a situation in which a boss or manager offers a promotion in exchange for sexual favors. The other person complies in order to advance their career. That’s the quintessential example of a quid pro quo exchange. But that’s not always how it plays out. Let’s take a step back to specifically identify quid pro quo sexual harassment. The important thing to consider here is power differential - Is the person initiating the quid pro quo a boss, a manager, someone with power over other people’s careers? And if so, how is that power exerted?

There are two types of power differentials, formal and informal power. Formal power is when someone holds a position of authority over rewards or punishments - pay, promotion, benefits & perks...down to being able to fire people. Their power is defined or implied by their job title. Informal power is when someone holds a position of influence based on their expertise or popularity amongst their colleagues. They’re not necessarily a “higher-up,” but someone who others listen to and/or look up to. So, just because someone isn’t a manager or executive, a power differential can still exist. Either way, these are all authority figures and they have power over coworkers with less authority – subordinates.

Now, an authority figure could make a blatant request for sexual favors in exchange for some sort of workplace advancement – that'd be an obvious abuse of power - the definition of quid pro quo. This harassment is explicit. However, the advance can also be more subtle, and without any guarantee of advancement whatsoever.

Think about this example - if a manager, or someone in power, flirts with a subordinate and tries to start a romantic relationship. Even if no promise of a promotion or raise is explicitly stated, it's implied given the power differential involved. And the harasser may believe they have so much power that they don't have to be super direct – they can be subtle because of that implied power...which also leads them to believe they'll get away with the bad behavior. The person being targeted may be afraid that if they say no, they'll be at a disadvantage... or even lose their job. Even this more subtle situation is quid pro quo sexual harassment. It doesn't have to be "give me sex and I'll give you a promotion." And it may not always involve perks or advancement, but it does always involve an abuse of power.

Most organizations have policies in place to prevent this kind of behavior. And the people in those positions of power are responsible for their own behavior – they shouldn't instigate sexual conduct with subordinates. And—a note to those of you who are interns: you're subordinate to just about everyone else at work. No one should ever feel pressured or coerced to comply with sexual demands...or even seemingly innocuous romantic advances. If someone is afraid that saying no to an advance will result in negative consequences at the office, then that's a major red flag for Quid Pro Quo harassment.

I want to empower you to identify these situations, protect yourselves, and hold harassers accountable for their behavior. If you or someone you know are dealing with any of these situations on the job, I encourage you to contact your HR department as soon as possible."

Messenger Video Images

Video Consistency

Our videos were created in highly controlled conditions in partnership with a media production company that was experienced in creating stimulus materials for social science experimentation. We were careful to cast male and female actors with similar races/skin tones, ages, and acting ability. Both actors were filmed on the same background set and recited the same script (which also served as the transcript in our text-based condition). The actors were both dressed professionally, but in gender conforming styles, given one of our key manipulations was messenger gender. The actors were also coached to give a similar delivery of their lines in terms of intonation, pacing, and affect.

Appendix B
Study Measurement Items

Perceived Messenger Integrity (adapted from Mayer & Davis, 1999)

1. [The messenger] has a strong sense of justice when it comes to the issue of sexual harassment.
2. I believe [the messenger] is an honest person when informing others about sexual harassment.
3. [The messenger] treats others fairly during sexual harassment training.
4. [The messenger] does not seem to act with integrity during sexual harassment training. [Reverse coded].
5. I like [the messenger's] values as expressed in the sexual harassment training program.
6. Sound principles seem to guide [the messenger's] behavior when conducting sexual harassment training.

Backlash Attitudes Toward Training (Rawski, 2017)

1. I believe this sexual harassment training session was important to complete. [Reverse Coded].
2. This sexual harassment training session unnecessarily took up a lot of my time.
3. The scenarios discussed in this sexual harassment training session were ridiculous.
4. I believe a lot of good will come from having completed this sexual harassment training session. [Reverse Coded].
5. A lot of what was covered in this sexual harassment training session was common sense.
6. This sexual harassment training session was a worthwhile activity for future interns to complete. [Reverse Coded].
7. I bet a lot of people thought this sexual harassment training session was a joke.
8. I think this sexual harassment training session is a legitimate way to prevent sexual harassment. [Reverse Coded].

Identity Threat Reactions (based on Petriglieri, 2011; Rawski, 2017)

Stem: If everyone accepted the information in [the messenger's] sexual harassment training program, I would be…

1. Respected more by others. [Reverse coded].
2. Valued less by others.
3. Appreciated less by others.
4. Held in higher regard by others. [Reverse coded].
5. Worth less to others.
6. Thought less of by others.
7. Valued more by others. [Reverse coded].

SH Training-Related Knowledge

Directions: The following questions are meant to assess your current knowledge about sexual harassment. Please answer these True-False questions honestly, according to the information you learned from [the messenger]. There is no penalty for incorrect answers. If you honestly don't know the answer, choose "I Don't Know" as your response.

1. Quid pro quo sexual harassment is defined as a favor or advantage granted or expected in return for sexual demands. [True].
2. The defining feature of all quid pro quo sexual harassment is a power differential that makes a subordinate afraid of negative consequences for refusing sexual advances. [True].
3. Formal power is a position of influence based on someone's expertise or popularity in the workplace. [False].
4. Only those who have supervisory responsibilities in an organization are capable of abusing their power to engage in quid pro quo sexual harassment. [False].
5. Most organizations have policies in place to prevent quid pro quo sexual harassment. [True].
6. Quid pro quo sexual harassment can be reported to a company's Human Resources Department. [True].
7. Supervisors are responsible for refraining from engaging in sexual behaviors with subordinates, even if they have genuine romantic interests in a subordinate. [True].
8. Power based on popularity or expertise is the only type of power that can be abused to engage in quid pro quo sexual harassment. [False].

Myth-Based Attitudes (Goldberg & McHugh, 1999)

1. Sexual harassment is an overstated problem.
2. Many times, poor performers file sexual harassment claims because they are seeking money.
3. Many individuals who file sexual harassment complaints make false accusations.

Transfer Motivation (Noe & Schmitt, 1986)

1. The knowledge I have obtained by completing this sexual harassment training program will be helpful in solving future work-related problems.
2. Before I completed the sexual harassment training program, I considered how I could use the content of the program in my future career.
3. I believe my future job performance will likely improve if I use the knowledge acquired in the sexual harassment training program.
4. It is unrealistic to believe that mastering the content of the sexual harassment training program can improve my future work performance. [Reverse Coded].
5. I will be able to use the knowledge I acquired in this sexual harassment training program in my future work.
6. Before I completed the sexual harassment training program, I identified particular problems that I would like the training to help me with.

Bystander Reporting Intentions

1. If I observed sexual harassment, I would make a formal report about it.
2. I would not report sexual harassment if I observed it in the future. [Reverse Coded].

Motivation to Participate in Future SH Training (Rawski, 2017)

1. I look forward to participating in sexual harassment training in the future.
2. I would benefit from completing another sexual harassment training session.
3. I will try to get out of participating in sexual harassment training in the future. [Reverse Coded].
4. If I am asked to complete sexual harassment training again, I will feel annoyed. [Reverse Coded].
5. I think it is important to participate in sexual harassment training periodically.

SH Identification

Scenarios

1. Sam is a popular coworker in the same work group as Jena. Sam is liked by the work group and has a great relationship with the group's boss. Sam does not supervise Jena, and is considered her peer in the work group. Sam demands that Jena send him naked pictures of herself or he will get Jena fired by telling the boss that Jena stole office supplies. [Sexual Harassment Scenario].

2. An intern, Sarah, asks her supervisor, Mike, for a recommendation letter at the end of her internship. Mike replies that he is very busy, but that Sarah could persuade him to write the letter if she would accompany him at a business conference next weekend. He brags that he will have a suite at the Ritz, and it will feel lonely if Sarah doesn't come share the king size bed with him, stating "I can't recommend people who make me feel lonely." Mike seemed to notice Sarah's apprehension, so he also added that since her internship ends this week, they would not be violating company policy if she joined him for a "little getaway" next weekend. While Mike never explicitly said he wanted Sarah to have sex with him in exchange for the letter, Sarah feels strongly that if she refused to go on the trip or refused Mike's sexual advances during the trip, he would probably not write the letter for her. [Sexual Harassment Scenario].

3. Erica asked her boss, Ron, for a pay raise recently. After thinking it over, Ron agreed to give Erica the pay raise, but only if she would successfully complete a job skills training program first. Ron believes this is a fair exchange for an increase in Erica's compensation. [Benign Scenario].

4. Susan is Jake's direct supervisor. She has romantic feelings for Jake after working with him for several months. Susan had scheduled a one-on-one meeting with Jake to conduct his annual performance evaluation. While they were in the conference room alone together, Susan took the opportunity to express her romantic feelings for Jake and ask him if he'd like to go out on a date with her. [Sexual Harassment Scenario].

Item: "Do you think this situation is sexual harassment?"

Comprehension Checks

1. What is [the messenger's] gender?
    - Male
    - Female
    - I don't know

2. What is [the messenger's] occupation?
    - Employment Lawyer
    - Human Resource Manager
    - Social Psychologist
    - I don't know