Revisiting Sexual Harassment:
Are there Perceived Cultural Differences between Asian and American College Students?

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Abstract

This study examined the cross-cultural differences of American and Asian undergraduate college students’ perceptions of sexual harassment in conversational appropriateness and effectiveness. We also examined cultural and gender differences between the two groups of students. The results were mixed and indicated that Asian and American students did not differ that much in their perceptions of sexual harassment in conversational appropriateness and conversational effectiveness. The regression analyses indicated that conversational appropriateness was more predictive of conversational effectiveness for both groups than conversational appropriateness.
Since the 1980s, sexual harassment has been one of the most widely studied topics on both micro and macro levels in Western countries, organizations, and academic institutions (Berdahl, Magley, & Waldo, 1996; Berryman-Fink, 1997; Clair, 1993; DeFrancisco & Palczewski, 2007; Lott, Reilly, & Howard, 1982; Trommsdorf, & Iwawaki, 1989). However, most of the research has burgeoned in Western countries (Paris, Das, & Laumann, 2006), while few studies have focused their attention on sexual harassment in Asian countries, for example, China, Japan, Korea, and Thailand (Limpaphayom, Williams, & Fadil, 2006; Lou, 1996; Parish, Das, & Laumann, 2006). With a number of college campuses updating their sexual harassment guidelines to help students redress a problem. Therefore, this study revisits sexual harassments and Asian and American college students’ perceived cultural differences.

Any discussion about sexual harassment would be incomplete without an understanding of how it is defined by government and academicians. In the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) Guidelines, sexual harassment is defined as any unwelcome sexual advances, whether explicit or implicit, that creates a hostile working environment for individuals (EEOC, 1980). The EEOC writes that sexual harassment is

Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of employment; submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting such individuals; such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonable interfering with an individual’s work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment.

First, this definition suggests that sexually harassing behavior involves unwelcome verbal, nonverbal, or physical behavior or conduct that is rejected by another person. Second, this definition suggests that sexually harassing behavior creates a hostile environment that makes it difficult for targeted individuals to perform their duties. In examining this definition, most studies conclude that sexual harassment is about power whether the harassment involves males sexually harassing females, females sexually harassing males, or males sexually harassing other males or females sexually harassing other females. Moreover, Brase and Miller argue that sexual harassing behavior can be difficult to interpret as sexually offensive behavior. DeFrancisco and Palczewski’s (2007) study found that college students are at risk of becoming targets of sexually harassing behavior, but Berryman-Fink (1997) claims that college educated females under thirty-five years of age are the most common targets of sexual harassment. Alcohol has been cited as a major contributing factor to sexual harassment. That is, “predators commonly use alcohol as a means to reduce perceived responsibility for their aggressive acts and to increase the blame placed on those they victimize” (DeFrancisco & Palczewski, p. 193).

Neher (1997), an organizational communication scholar, writes that “various surveys and other studies suggest that sexual harassment is still widespread in . . . organizations; nevertheless, organizational rhetoric, tends to downplay the seriousness of this issue” (p. 301). Clair (1993), also an organizational communication scholar, suggests that people may experience simple misunderstandings about sexual harassment. Since extant literature indicates little research has been done on sexual harassment involving Asians and American college students, this study examines their perceptions of sexual harassment in conversational appropriateness and conversational effectiveness. We also examine cultural and gender differences between the two groups of students.
Conversational Appropriateness and Conversational Effectiveness

Conversational appropriateness refers to appropriate communication behavior that fulfills individuals’ expectations, while conversational effectiveness refers to behavior in which individuals accomplish their social needs and communication goals (Rubin, 2004). Conversational appropriateness and conversational effectiveness are also defined as communication competence. For instance, Adler and Towne (2003) define communication competence as “achieving one’s goals in a manner that, ideally, maintains or enhances the relationship in which it occurs” (p. 30). This also includes conversation free of offensive quips which alludes to behavior that makes another individual feel uncomfortable in a sexual manner, whether obvious or inferred.

Cultural Differences and Sexual Harassment

Asians and Americans have significantly perceived cultural differences of sexual harassment. Title VII of the Civil Rights Acts of 1964 made it possible for more American women to fight against sexual harassment in the workplace and academic institutions. “Following the passage of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act, the legal stage of gender-based discrimination appeared to have attained relative equilibrium and stability” (Raghupathi, 2005, p. 304). Because of their cultural upbringing, Asian women have tolerated unnecessary mental and emotional distress as a result of sexually harassing behavior in the workplace and on college campuses (Lee, 2001) in their native countries because it is considered a cultural taboo to discuss such a sensitive topic.

Culturally speaking, Kennedy and Gorzalka (2002) also explored differences between Asians and non-Asians. Kennedy and Gorzalka found that Asians embraced a more conservative attitude towards sex and found that Asians feel “it is only natural for a man to make sexual advances to a woman he finds attractive” (p. 232). Given this statement, it suggests that Asian men do not consider sexual advances offensive behavior, but believe that women should just simply accept it. Consequently, this socially constructed reified behavior and the patriarchal oppressive system under which Asian women live, it makes it difficult for them to seek redress in the courts.

Gender Differences and Sexual Harassment

Gender differences affect individuals’ perception of sexual harassment. Pryor, Fitness, Hutz, Kumpf, Lubbert, Pesonen, and Erber (1997) have documented gender differences in the interpretation of social-sexual behavior, if you account for culture. Their study found that Brazilian male and female students did not view sexual harassment as an abuse power, but U. S. students viewed sexual harassment as harmful sexual behavior. Moreover, their study found that in Germany and Australia both males and females in general viewed sexual harassment as negative behavior when compared to U. S. males and females. Rotundo, Nguyen, and Sackett (2001) suggest that culture impacts gender differences on individuals’ perceptions of sexually offensive behavior. Said differently, the authors suggest that the views of the offender and the victim can be different based on their understanding of what constitutes sexually harassing behavior. In view of the EEOC’s definition of sexual harassment and what constitutes its, some scholars have argued that the courts may have difficulty determining what circumstances create a hostile and unpleasant environment and from whose perspective, the victim or the offender (Rotundo, Nguyen, & Sackett, 2001).

Beyond this, some studies have found that women are likely to interpret “an ambiguous incident as sexual harassment” (Sydell & Nelson, 1998, p. 100) than men.
This notion supports Clair’s (1993) argument that individuals may simply mistake a perceived offender’s behavior as sexually harassing. For example, in an organizational setting, a man may touch a woman’s shoulder and the woman might interpret this touch as sexual harassment. Given this interpretation, Sydell and Nelson’s study found that females rated sexually harassing behavior more inappropriate than their male counterparts, especially if it involved touching.

DeFrancisco and Palczewski’s (2007) claimed that both males and females, regardless of their sexual orientation, are likely to be sexually harassed by men than by women and “equally likely to be sexually harassed on campus” (p. 192). In examining gender differences, Russell and Trigg (2004) found that dominance, gender roles, hostile sexism, and heterosexuality play a role in the way males’ and females’ perceive sexual harassment.

Thus far, extant literature has examined sexual harassment in Western and non-western countries and academic institutions, but sexual harassment in conversational appropriateness and conversational effectiveness remains to be examined among Asian and American college students and few studies compared their attitudes on sexual harassment. However, Chae’s (2007) master of humanities thesis was an attempt to assess the perceptions of sexual harassment between Korean and American college students, using Canary and Spitzberg’s conversational appropriateness and conversational effectiveness scales. Chae’s study found few significant differences between Korean and American college students’ perceptions of what constitutes sexually harassing behavior. Therefore, this study extends the sexual harassment literature by examining its influence on American and Asian and college students’ perceptions of sexual harassment in conversational appropriateness and conversational effectiveness. Thus, the following hypothesis and research questions constitute this study:

\( H_1: \) American college students will report they experience more sexually harassing conversations than Asian students?

\( RQ_1: \) Are there cultural differences between Asian and American college students’ perceptions of sexual harassment in conversational appropriateness and conversational effectiveness?

\( RQ_2: \) Are there gender differences between Asian and American college students’ perceptions of sexual harassment in conversational appropriateness and effectiveness?

**METHOD**

**Participants**

Participants for this study were 316 (164 Americans and 152 Asian) college students attending a predominantly white Midwestern university. The Asian participants’ class rank consisted of 34 freshmen, 39 sophomores, 41 juniors, and 33 seniors. Ages ranged from 17 to 36 (\( m = 22.17, sd = 3.74 \)). The Asian sample was comprised of international exchange students. The American participants’ class rank consisted of 36 freshmen, 42 sophomores, 39 juniors, and 47 seniors. Ages ranged from 20 to 54 (\( m = 23.26, sd = 4.24 \)).

**Procedure**

Data was collected during Spring Semester 2007. Researchers received permission from their colleagues to have students complete a survey questionnaire at the beginning of the hour. Participants were asked to complete a modified version of Canary and
Spitzberg’s conversational appropriateness and conversational effectiveness scales. Completing the questionnaire was a way students received extra credit from their instructors for participating in this study.

**Scale Measures**

**Conversational Appropriateness Scale:** This scale comprised ten items and is a modified version of Canary and Spitzberg’s (1987) 20-item scale measurement, which asks questions concerning individuals’ experience with sexually harassing behavior in conversational appropriateness (Rubin, Palmgreen, & Sypher, 2004). The items are based on components of interpersonal communication competence. Students were asked to check mark their responses on a five-point Likert scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly disagree) to indicate the degree of their experience with perceived sexually harassing behavior. Examples of conversational appropriateness items are “I have experienced sexually harassing behavior from another person” or “Everything he/she said was inappropriate and indicated sexually harassing behavior.” The reliability estimate for this scale, as determined by Cronbach’s alpha, was $\alpha = 0.88$.

**Conversational Effectiveness Scale:** This scale comprised ten items and is a modified version of Canary and Spitzberg’s (1987) 20-item scale measurement, which asks questions concerning individuals’ experience with sexually harassing behavior in conversational effectiveness (Rubin, Palmgreen, & Sypher, 2004). The items are based on affective behavior to allow individuals to achieve their social and communication goals. Examples of conversational effectiveness items are “Our conversation was very beneficial and free of sexually offensive language”; “I achieved everything I hoped to achieve in our conversation”; or “The conversation was unprofitable because it alluded to sex.” The reliability estimate for this scale, as determined by Cronbach’s alpha, was $\alpha = 0.87$.

**Data Analysis**

Multiple regression analyses were used to test the hypothesis. Independent-samples $t$ tests were used to answer the two research questions.

**RESULTS**

**Multiple Regression Analyses**

To explore the relative influence of conversational appropriateness on conversational effectiveness, a simple regression analysis was conducted. In this analysis, conversational appropriateness is the predictor/explanatory variable and conversational effectiveness is the response/criterion variable. The results for the Asian sample are presented in Table 1. The results for the American sample are presented in Table 2.

For the Asian sample, the results indicated that conversational appropriateness was predictive of conversational effectiveness, $R = .97$, $R^2 = .94$, $F(1,151) = 75.728$, $p < .001$, indicating that conversational appropriateness, the explanatory variable, accounted for 97 percent of the variance in conversational effectiveness. For the American sample, the results indicated that conversational appropriateness was predictive of conversational effectiveness, $R = .96$, $R^2 = .93$, $F(1,163) = 1369.59$, $p < .001$, indicating that conversational appropriateness, the explanatory variable, accounted for 96 percent of the variance in conversational effectiveness.
Table 1

Regression Analysis: Asian Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>Conversational Appropriateness</td>
<td>.953</td>
<td>.023</td>
<td>.097</td>
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</table>

Model Statistics: $R = .97$, $R^2 = .94$, $F(1,151) = 75.728$, $p < .001$

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

Table 2

Regression Analysis: American Sample

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Beta</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conversational Effectiveness</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conversational Appropriateness</td>
<td>.885</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.964</td>
<td>37.01</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Model Statistics: $R = .96$, $R^2 = .93$, $F(1,163) = 1369.59$, $p < .001$

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

Independent-samples t tests—Cultural Differences between Both Samples

Table 3 presents the results of the independent-samples $t$ test, means, and standard deviations of each statement for both the American and Asian samples. Culture was measured using students’ self-report perceptions of sexual harassment. An independent-samples $t$ test was calculated comparing the mean scores of American and Asian students’ perceptions of cultural differences. The $t$ test indicated no significant difference between American ($m = 1.71; sd = 2.283$) and Asian students’ ($m = 2.16; sd = 1.137$) cultural perceptions of “having experienced sexual harassment,” ($t(314) = -1.156, p > .05$).

For the statement “Some comments indicated sexual harassment,” the results indicated no significant difference between American ($m = 3.83; sd = 1.238$) and Asian ($m = 3.58; sd = 1.211$) students, ($t(314) = .960, p > .05$). For the statement “I did not feel comfortable talking to this individual,” the results indicated no significant difference between American ($m = 2.47; sd = 1.125$) and Asian ($m = 3.62; sd = 1.421$) students, ($t(314) = -1.163 p > .05$). For the statement “I felt awkward because the conversation hinted to sexual harassment,” the results indicated a significant difference between American ($m = 3.62; sd = 1.002$) and Asian ($m = 3.44; sd = 1.153$) students, ($t(314) = 2.340, p < .01$).

For the statement “The conversation included improper comments,” the results indicated a significant difference between American ($m = 4.57; sd = 1.313$) and Asian ($m = 3.25; sd = 1.220$) students, ($t(314) = 5.093, p < .001$).

Table 3

...
Independent-Samples t tests: Cultural Differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>American</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Asian</th>
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<th></th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Experienced Sexual Harassment</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>2.283</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>2.16</td>
<td>1.137</td>
<td>152</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Indicated sexual Harassment</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>1.238</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.211</td>
<td>152</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Did not feel comfortable</td>
<td>2.47</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.421</td>
<td>152</td>
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<td>5. Included improper comments**</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>1.131</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.220</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Comments alluded to sex</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>1.127</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>1.175</td>
<td>152</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Felt embarrassed</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>1.311</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.144</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Some comments inappropriate**</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.206</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.157</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Felt comfortable w/person</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>1.263</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>1.004</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Person violated expectations***</td>
<td>4.92</td>
<td>1.063</td>
<td>164</td>
<td>2.84</td>
<td>1.543</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

For the statement “The comments alluded to sex,” the results indicated no significant difference between American (m = 4.56; sd = 1.127) and Asian (m = 3.85; sd = 1.175) students, (t(314) = 2.093, p > .05). For the statement “I felt embarrassed by his/her comments,” the results indicated no significant difference between American (m = 3.38; sd = 1.311) and Asian (m = 3.66; sd = 1.144) students, (t(314) = -.959, p > .05).

For the statement “Some comments were inappropriate,” the results indicated significant differences between American (m = 3.25; sd = 1.206) and Asian (m = 3.21; sd = 1.157) students, (t(314) = 5.218, p < .01). For the statement “I felt comfortable with this person,” the results indicated no significance difference between American (m = 3.23; sd = 1.263) and Asian (m = 3.34; sd = 1.004) students, (t(314) = .341, p > .05). For the statement “The person violated my expectations of appropriate conversation,” the results indicated significant differences between American (m = 4.92; sd = 1.063) and Asian (m = 2.84; sd = 1.543) students, (t(314) = 6.016, p < .001).

Independent-samples t tests: Gender Differences

The second research question asked whether there were gender differences between Asian and American male and female students’ perceptions of sexual harassment in conversational appropriateness and conversational effectiveness. The question was answered using independent-samples t tests. The mean scores of Asian male and female students were compared and the mean scores of American male and female students were compared for matched ethnicity purposes. Table 4 presents the results of the independent-samples t test, means, and standard deviations.

As indicated in Table 4, the independent-samples t test indicated significant mean difference between American males (m = 2.11) and females (m = 2.21) for having experienced sexual harassment, (t(162) = 2.581, p < .01). On the other hand, the independent-samples t test indicated no significant mean difference between Asian males (m = 2.02) and females (m = 2.33) for having experienced sexual harassment (t(150) = -1.268, p > .05).

The independent-samples t test found significant differences between American males’ (m = 3.56) and females’ responses (m = 4.90) when they were asked if some of the other person’s comments indicated sexual harassment (t(162) = 3.797, p < .01). Likewise,
the independent-samples t found significant differences between Asian males’ \( (m = 3.12) \) and females’ \( (m = 4.11) \) when asked if some of the other person’s comments indicated sexual harassment, \((t(150) = -4.996, p < .001)\).

The independent-samples t test found significant mean differences between American males’ \( (m = 2.93) \) and females’ responses \( (m = 3.92) \) when they were asked whether they felt comfortable with the person, \((t(162) = 4.540, p < .001)\). Likewise, the independent-samples t test found significant mean differences between Asian males’ \( (m = 2.58) \) and females’ \( (m = 3.78) \) responses when they were asked if the client’s comments indicated sexual harassment, \((t(150) = 3.236, p < .001)\).

The independent-samples t test found significant mean differences between American males’ \( (m = 2.93) \) and females’ \( m = 3.92 \) when they were asked whether they felt comfortable with the person, \((t(162) = 4.540, p < .001)\). Likewise, the independent-samples t test found significant mean differences between Asian males’ \( m = 2.58 \) and females’ \( m = 3.78 \) responses when they were asked if the client’s comments indicated sexual harassment, \((t(150) = 3.236, p < .001)\).

The independent-samples t test found significant mean differences between American males’ \( m = 2.51 \) and females’ \( m = 4.20 \) responses when they were asked if they perceived the person’s comments were improper \((t(162) = 3.868, p < .001)\), although the \( t \) test found no significant mean differences between Asian males’ \( m = 3.22 \) and females’ \( m = 3.40 \) responses when they were asked if they perceived the person’s comments were improper, \((t(150) = -0.796, p > .05)\).

The independent-samples t test found significant mean differences between American males’ \( m = 2.58 \) and females’ \( m = 3.81 \) responses when they were asked if they felt embarrassed by the person’s comments, \((t(162) = 3.344, p < .01)\). However, the independent-samples t test found no significant mean differences between Asian males’ \( m = 3.31 \) and females’ \( m = 3.62 \) responses when they were asked if they felt awkward with the person, \((t(150) = -1.977, p > .05)\).

The independent-samples t test found significant mean differences between American males’ \( m = 2.58 \) and females’ \( m = 3.32 \) responses when they were asked if they felt embarrassed by the person’s comments, \((t(162) = 5.046, p < .001)\), although the \( t \) test found no significant mean differences between Asian males’ \( m = 3.43 \) and females’ \( m = 3.87 \) responses when they were asked if they perceived the person’s comments alluded to sex, \((t(150) = -1.908, p > .05)\).

The independent-samples \( t \) test found significant mean differences between American males’ \( m = 3.32 \) and females’ \( m = 4.86 \) responses to the question if they perceived that some of the person’s comments were inappropriate, \((t(162) = 2.789, p < .01)\). On the other hand, the independent-samples \( t \) test reveals no significant mean differences between Asian males’ \( m = 3.29 \) and females’ \( m = 3.60 \) responses to the same question whether they perceived the person’s comments were inappropriate, \((t(150) = -1.368, p > .05)\).

The independent-samples \( t \) test reveals no significant mean differences between American males’ \( m = 2.44 \) and females’ \( m = 2.19 \) responses when they were asked if they felt comfortable with the person, \((t(162) = 1.862, p < .05)\). Likewise, the independent-samples \( t \) test found no significant mean differences between Asian males’ \( m = 1.39 \) and females’ \( m = 1.09 \) responses when they were asked the same question, \((t(150) = .859, p > .05)\).
The independent-samples $t$ test found significant mean differences between American males’ ($m = 3.48$) and females’ ($m = 4.34$) responses when they were asked if they perceived the person violated their expectations of appropriate conversation, ($t(103) = 3.551, p < .01$), although the independent-samples $t$ test found no significant mean differences between Asian males’ ($m = 2.83$) and females’ ($m = 2.13$) responses when they were asked the same question, ($t(150) = -.318, p > .05$).

### Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
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<th>Asian</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Experienced Sexual Harassment**</td>
<td>2.11</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Indicated sexual Harassment***</td>
<td>3.56$^{a}$</td>
<td>4.90$^{b}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Did not feel comfortable***</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Felt awkward in conversation**</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>3.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Included improper comments***</td>
<td>2.51</td>
<td>4.20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Comments alluded to sex**</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>4.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Felt embarrassed***</td>
<td>2.58</td>
<td>3.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Some comments inappropriate**</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>4.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Felt comfortable w/person</td>
<td>2.44$^{a}$</td>
<td>2.19$^{b}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Person violated expectations***</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>4.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^{a,b}$Common superscripts indicate a lack of significant differences between means, using Levene’s Test for Equality of Variances; $^*p < 0.05; ^{*}*p < 0.01; ^{*}{*}*p < 0.001$

**DISCUSSION**

The goal of this study was to compare the perceived cultural differences of sexual harassment between Asian and American college students and whether conversational appropriateness predicted conversational effectiveness for both samples. This study also confirms results found in other studies with Asian samples (Chae, 2007; Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002). It was hypothesized that American students will report they experience more sexually harassing conversations than Asian students. The hypothesis was not supported. The results indicated significant differences for both Asian and American samples. The regression analyses indicated that conversational appropriateness influences conversational effectiveness for this sample of Asian and American college students. Since conversational appropriateness accounted for 97 percent of the variance in conversational effectiveness for the Asian sample, and 96 percent of the variance in conversational effectiveness for the American sample, the model indicates a good fit. That is, the standardized predicted values indicated that the more appropriate the content of a conversation, the more effective individuals can exchange messages without feeling offending by one another. With this said, the influence of culture should not be exaggerated as difference, but sometimes perceived as similar on some issues.

The *first research question* examined the cultural differences between Asian and American college students’ perceptions of sexual harassment in conversational appropriateness and conversational effectiveness. Culture was measured using students’ self-report of their underlying beliefs, values, and assumptions about their experiences
and knowledge of sexual harassment. Significant results for cultural perceptions were found on 4 of the 10 items on sexual harassment. As seen in Table 3, both American and Asian students appeared to be less tolerant of sexually harassing behavior. Moreover, this intolerance for both samples could have been influenced by explicit information, where information about sexually harassing behavior is made available to students at their universities. Students learn about sexual harassment in diversity courses, such as those courses that focus on gender. Furthermore, another possible contributing factor to these significant results is the influence of filtering (Dodd, 1998). Both the U.S. and Asian cultures have provided information about sexual harassment and how one can identify it, even though the discussion of this topic is a cultural taboo in Asian countries. This provides each cultural group with a clear view of what constitutes sexually harassing behavior where sexually harassing messages can be screened and interpreted.

The second research question asked whether there were gender differences between Asian and American students' perceptions of sexual harassment in conversational appropriateness. Significant results were found on 4 of the 10 items for gender differences between American male and female students and Asian male and female students. When compared based on matched race/ethnicity, the results indicated a significant difference between American males’ and females’ and Asian males’ and females’ responses for feeling awkward in a conversation that alludes to sex. For example, both samples of males and females indicated they had experienced sexually harassing behavior from the opposite sex and would feel awkward and embarrassed if someone made inappropriate comments about sex. Culturally speaking, Dodd (1998) argues that one’s upbringing and socialization in an individualistic or collectivistic culture can influence individuals’ experiences with controversial subjects. If individuals are socialized in an individualist culture, they are likely encouraged to exercise their autonomous judgments with reference to redressing any sexual harassment problems. On the other hand, individuals socialized in collectivistic cultures might be encouraged to accept sexual advances by embracing tradition and tradition says it is a taboo to discuss such controversial topic. Furthermore, both samples of students believed that when inappropriate comments are made about sex, the other person’s expectations for effective communication outcomes would most likely be violated.

Since both Asian and American males and females in this study shared similar perceptions when it comes to experiencing sexually harassing behavior, future studies should investigate “women who perpetrate sexual harassment and the commonalities they share with men who perpetrate [sexual] harassment” (Russell & Trigg, 2004).

Since few studies have examined the perceived cultural differences of Asian and American college students’ perceptions of sexual harassment, future research findings will need to confirm or disconfirm these findings.
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References


