THE PERCEPTION AND EXPERIENCE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT AMONG FEMALE CHINESE INTERNATIONAL STUDENTS AND THEIR RELATIONSHIPS WITH CULTURAL FACTORS AND DEPRESSION

A Dissertation

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ABSTRACT

Sexual harassment has long been and continues to be a critical issue on U.S. university campuses. While many studies have examined sexual harassment as it is experienced by female university students, there is a dearth of research specifically investigating female Chinese international student perceptions and experience of sexual harassment. The main purpose of this study was to gather data about how female Chinese international students experience sexual harassment and examine the relationships between Asian cultural values, acculturation, the perception and experience of sexual harassment, and depression in this population. In accordance with two multi-dimensional models of sexual harassment and the Theory of Cultural Dimensions, we hypothesized that female Chinese international students would perceive and identify more sexually harassing behaviors when they adhered less strictly to Asian cultural values and had resided in the United States for a longer period, and that they would report fewer depressive symptoms resulting from experiencing sexual harassment when they perceived more harassing behaviors. 102 female Chinese international student participants recruited from 42 universities completed a Qualtrics-based survey that consisted of a set of instruments measuring their perception of sexual harassment behaviors, adherence to Asian cultural values, the frequency of the harassing behaviors they experienced, and the depressive symptoms they reported related to their experiences of being sexually harassed. Our findings concluded that none of the four Asian cultural values significantly influenced participant perceptions of sexual harassment, and that length of time residing in the U.S. (a proxy for acculturation) did not moderate the relationships between them. The perception of sexual harassment was not found to significantly moderate the relationship between the experience of sexual harassment and depression, but our findings did reveal that the experience of sexual harassment is significantly

and positively associated with depressive symptoms among female Chinese international students. The implications of our findings, and directions for future study of this important topic are discussed in detail.

DEDICATION

To Almighty God and the two Holy Teachers, as well as my dearest mother, Hsiu-Chin Peng, for her unwavering love and confidence in me. I dedicate this dissertation to my family, Shih-Chen Chang, Chun-Chiao Chang, and Tzu-Hsuan Liao for their unconditional support. This work is also dedicated to my extended family, friends, seniors in the Tao community, and peers in Huo Shi Tuan, who have inspired, educated, supported, and encouraged me throughout my studies, thank you for all you have done for me.

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LITERATURE REVIEW

Sexual harassment is a critical issue on many U.S. college campuses (Cantor et al., 2019; Hill & Silva, 2005; Martin-Storey et al., 2018). Although many universities have implemented policies and programs to address these issues, sexual harassment has yet to be resolved and remains one of the types of unfinished business and hidden campus violence identified by Dziech and Hawkins (1998, 2012). Because most of the research in this area has primarily focused on White female college students, little is known about how women of color experience sexual harassment (Buchanan & West, 2010) despite research suggesting that they are more likely to experience it in their daily lives (Berdahl & Moore, 2006), and even less is known about how international students experience sexual harassment. When compared with White women, women of color potentially experience both gender-based and race-based harassment. One study that compared the experiences of Asian and White women in the U.S. reported that Asian women experienced more severe psychological distress and depression as a result of these events than did their White peers (I. Ho et al., 2012, 2018). Other studies indicated that women of color can experience many societally-based stressors in addition to sexual harassment including acculturative stress and racial discrimination (Bergman & Drasgow, 2003; Hwang & Ting, 2008). As women of color and minorities in the United States, female Chinese international students can be particularly vulnerable to be targeted for sexual harassment.

The literature shows that in Chinese culture, where the power differential between men and women is significant, gender inequality can be as a significant contributor to the high rate of sexual harassment Chinese women experience. Due to this long-standing power differential and the traditional cultural values and expectations of females, Chinese women may avoid identifying such behaviors, or deny their occurrence to avoid conflict to maintain harmony in

relationships, and their personal and family reputation (D. Chan et al., 1999; Cortina & Berdahl, 2008). Growing up with traditional Chinese cultural values and beliefs in China, the perception of sexual harassment by female Chinese international students studying in the United States may be influenced by Chinese cultural factors such as sex being regarded as a taboo subject, the concept of face, collectivism, and conformity to social norms (Merkin, 2008; Mishra & Davison, 2020; Sigal et al., 2005). Furthermore, as sexual harassment is a psychological stressor, students' sexual harassment experiences may lead to negative mental health outcomes including depression. They may also feel powerless and experience self-doubt and shame when experiencing sexual harassment. How these female Chinese international university students experience sexual harassment may be influenced by their interpretation of such incidents, which may also influence the impact of these sexual harassment behaviors upon their mental and physical health, and their level of academic success (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; I. Ho et al., 2018; McCabe & Hardman, 2005). The purpose of this study is, therefore, to examine the relationship among Chinese cultural factors, perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment, and depressive symptoms among female Chinese international students.

A 2005 national study of over 2000 university students conducted by the American Association of University Women (AAUW) Educational Foundation found that 62% of female students experienced sexual harassment, and that 66% of harassed female students encountered sexual harassment during their first year of university (Hill & Silva, 2005; Marshall et al., 2014). Other studies suggest that 30 to 50% of female undergraduate students have had at least one experience of sexual harassment by faculty members, and that 70 to 90% of female students experience sexual harassment from their male peers (Paludi & Barickman, 1991; Tang et al., 1996). Rosenthal and colleagues (2016) surveyed 525 graduate students and found that female

students (38%) were 1.6 times more likely to experience sexual harassment from faculty or staff than were male students (23%) (National Academies of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine [NASEM], 2018). Although the numbers of reported incidents of sexual harassment are significant, scholars have reported that the actual number of sexual harassment incidents may be even higher as more than half of students do not report being sexually harassed to faculty members, university administrators, or police on campus (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020). With such high rates of sexual harassment on college campuses, it is even more important to understand the perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment of female Chinese international students.

Conceptualization of Sexual Harassment

Most research on sexual harassment is based on Fitzgerald and colleagues' (1995) sexual harassment model that was conducted in western societies and English-speaking countries like United States and United Kingdom (Pina et al., 2009; Wasti et al., 2000; Whaley & Tucker, 1998). These sexual harassment models are based upon the western concept of this construct, which may be different from the models developed in eastern societies (Tang et al., 1996). Tang et al. (1996) indicated that gender harassment (e.g., sexist remarks and misogynistic comments), and covert seductive behaviors (e.g., unwanted pressure for dates and unwanted disclosure of personal matters) were often not perceived as sexual harassment by Chinese students. The conceptualization of sexual harassment among Chinese international students studying in the United States may be affected by both eastern and western concepts of this construct (Zimbroff, 2007). Therefore, it is important to understand the similarities and differences in how students perceive sexual harassment based on their eastern or western concept of this construct.

The definition often used in academic sexual harassment models is provided by Till (1980) as "the use of authority to emphasize the sexuality or sexual identity of a student in a manner which prevents or impairs that student's full enjoyment of educational benefits, climate, or opportunities" (p. 7). Till (1980) categorized five types of sexual harassment: a) generalized sexist remarks or behaviors, b) essentially sanction-free inappropriate and offensive sexual advances, c) solicitation of sexual activity or other sex-linked behavior by promise of rewards, d) coercion of sexual activity by threat of punishment, and e) sexual assault.

Based on Till's work (1980), Fitzgerald et al. (1988) developed a multi-dimensional model of sexual harassment. Fitzgerald et al.'s (1988, 1995) framework is the most frequently used theoretical model of sexual harassment. The model includes three dimensions, gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion. The model is based on a theoretical framework that adheres to the social-psychological perspectives of sexual harassment research. Gender harassment constitutes a wide range of verbal and nonverbal behaviors that communicate hostile, insulting, and degrading attitudes about women. Gender harassment includes sexual slurs and gestures, distribution of pornographic pictures, gender-based hazing, and intimidating and threatening behaviors. In higher education, gender harassment is the most common form of sexual harassment, according to Bondestam and Lundqvist (2020). Unwanted sexual attention refers to a broad range of both verbal and nonverbal behaviors that are undesired and intrusive, such as staring or leering, attempting to discuss sex, fondling, and making continued requests for a date despite repeated rejection. When compared with the other two dimensions, sexual coercion is the most commonly recognized sexual harassment behavior. It includes coercion by threat of punishment, and quid pro quo harassment that involves the provision of employment-related considerations in return for sexual activity. Behaviors included in this dimension include

the use of bribes and threats of negative consequences to initiate unwanted sexual activity (Fitzgerald, 1993; Fitzgerald, Gelfand, et al., 1995; Fitzgerald, Shullman, et al., 1988).

Similar to Fitzgerald et al.'s (1988, 1995) model, Tang and colleagues (1995, 1996) developed a model of how students in China conceptualized sexual harassment. Their study was one of the first attempts to examine and understand how Chinese university students defined sexual harassment. Tang et al. (1996) conducted panel discussions and administered a questionnaire to collect information about college students' definition, awareness, and experience of sexual harassment. Their model includes four factors; sexual coercion, physical seduction, nonphysical seduction, and gender harassment. Physical seduction includes unwanted intimate behaviors (e.g., putting arms around shoulders or waist, caressing hands or leg, and kissing), and nonphysical seduction includes covert seductive behaviors (e.g., sexually suggestive looks or gestures, pressure for dates, and display of visual matters of a sexual nature). Definitions of sexual coercion and gender harassment are similar to Fitzgerald's model. Tang et al.'s (1996) research findings revealed that similar to Fitzgerald et al.'s (1995) model, overt behaviors like unwanted intimate behaviors and quid pro quo actions were acknowledged as sexual harassment by Chinese student participants at a University in Hong Kong. Conversely, gender harassment and covert seductive behaviors were often not perceived as sexual harassment by Chinese students (Tang et al., 1996). This differs from how White American female university students perceive sexually harassing behaviors. Tang and colleagues (1996) indicated that the differences between the two models on perception of sexual harassment might be related to Chinese students' limited education about sexual harassment and the secretive nature of sex matters in Chinese culture.

Because of the differences between western and eastern conceptualizations of sexual harassment, the definition of sexual harassment used by college students in different countries can vary widely. For instance, the most common definition of sexual harassment used by the students in North America, Australia, and Germany is unwanted verbal or physical sexual propositioning (Pryor et al., 1997). Many countries (50 out of 190) still lack legal protections against sexual harassment in employment for women, and 13 countries (mostly in the Middle East and North African regions) have just recently reformed their policies in this area since 2017, including enacting legislation on sexual harassment and implementing civil remedies to supplement existing laws (World Bank, 2020). As such, international students in the United States may not have a clear picture of what kinds of behaviors constitute sexual harassment if they have not been educated about this type of victimization (Paludi, Nydegger, et al., 2006).

Chinese International Students

According to the Institute of International Education, there were close to one million international students (~914,000) studying in the United States in 2020-2021 of whom 35% came to the U.S. from China (Institute of International Education [IIE], 2021). International students often experience significant challenges when they first enter the United States. They may struggle with culture shock and adjustment issues due to the cultural differences between the U.S. culture and their native culture, a challenge that is often exacerbated by a lack of necessary institutional and interpersonal support. Some students may also experience academic and interpersonal challenges due to language barriers as English is their second language. Most international students need time to adapt to their new environment and the many ways in which U.S. culture is different from their home culture. Living outside of their home country without the physical, emotional, and sometimes financial support of their family may also increase the

emotional and psychological distress these international students experience on a daily basis. They may experience homesickness and alienation that may not always be apparent or understood by their American peers (J. Lee, 2010; J. Lee & Rice, 2007). Lee (2010) found that international students from predominantly non-White countries of origin reported more negative experiences than students from predominantly White countries of origin. Research has also indicated that Chinese international students in the U.S. often seem to persevere due to their strong motivation and cultural values that place great importance on their studies and maintaining their academic performance, and reputation and "not losing face" (K. Chan, 2006; Liu, 2009; X. Wang, 2000).

International students living in an unfamiliar culture in a foreign country often face multiple challenges that can affect their well-being, and sexual harassment can cause them additional stress (Y. Chang et al., 2021). They have reported experiencing intense stress that is correlated with other psychological issues such as depression, helplessness, anxiety, paranoia, and irritability, and physical outcomes like sleep disturbance, low energy, and chronic somatic complaints (Mori, 2000; Russell et al., 2010). Zimbroff (2007) reported that cultural factors and difficulties in language interpretation could influence an individuals' understanding of, and response to a sexual comment or behavior, which can result in misperceptions and misunderstandings of sexual harassment, and result in incidents of sexual harassment being either over or under-perceived. For instance, using hugs to greet people is common in the United States, but students from China may be more accustomed to noncontact greetings such as a slight bow or a waving hand. Therefore, international students who have just arrived from China on a U.S. campus might feel uncomfortable when they are hugged by their American peers. Research has also shown that students, younger women, women of color, female students in male

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dominated fields, women who have been sexually abused, and unassertive women experience higher levels of sexual harassment. Women of color are particularly vulnerable to be target for sexual harassment and racism (Berdahl & Moore, 2006; Bergman & Drasgow, 2003; Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Bonistall Postel, 2020; Buchanan & West, 2010; D. Chan et al., 1999; Paludi et al., 2006). As an Asian woman, a minority, and a person of color in the U.S., female Chinese international students may be subjected to higher levels of sexual harassment than their White female peers (Buchanan & West, 2010).

Although sexual harassment and its effects on women on U.S. university campuses has been studied for decades, little is known regarding the specific experiences of female Chinese international students, who comprise almost half of the Chinese international students in the United States (45%; IIE, 2018). Furthermore, the study of sexual harassment in China is still in its early stages compared to similar research conducted in the United States (J. Chan et al., 2019; Choi et al., 1993). A study of colleges in Hong Kong found that 20 to 50% of female college students reported receiving unwanted sexual attention by their peers (Tang, Critelli, et al., 1995). Another study found that approximately 86% of Chinese women surveyed reported some form of sexual harassment in the past two years (Coalition Against Sexual Abuse, 1992).

Although cross-cultural research scholars have noted that experiencing sexual harassment results in similar negative mental health impacts on individuals from different cultural backgrounds (D. Chan et al., 1999; Cortina & Berdahl, 2008; Paludi, 1996), most research on sexual harassment has been conducted in North American, European, and other English-speaking countries like Australia, and most research on sexual harassment in higher education has been conducted in the United States (Bondestam & Lundqvist, 2020; Fitzgerald, 1993; Fitzgerald & Hesson-McInnis, 1989). As studies of sexual harassment experienced by international students

are rarely conducted despite the growing numbers of international students on university campuses in the U.S., the nature and extent of the harassment experienced by female Chinese international students is still poorly understood. Further study is critically needed to understand how female Chinese international students experience sexual harassment, and the negative consequences they suffer as a result of these experiences.

The findings of one study highlighted the importance of examining culture and how culture influences the perception of sexual harassment. Sigal et al. (2005) examined sexual harassment at universities across nine countries (United States, Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, Ecuador, Pakistan, the Republic of the Philippines, Taiwan, and Turkey). University student participants were asked to evaluate a scenario in which a male professor was accused of sexually harassing a graduate student. Participant responses were evaluated on perceptions of the guilt of the accused harasser, responsibility attribution, and attitudes toward sexual harassment. Sigal et al.'s reported that there was a significant difference between the ratio of guilty to not guilty judgements due to whether the participant's country of origin could be characterized as an individualist or collectivist culture. Students from collectivist cultures were less convinced of the professor's culpability and attributed less responsibility to the accused harasser than did students from individualist cultures. Participants who were from a collectivist country also reported fewer negative attitudes toward sexual harassment than did those from individualist countries (Sigal et al., 2005). This result illustrates the different decision-making considerations of students from individualistic and collectivistic cultures.

Sexual Harassment in Chinese Culture

Sexual harassment is a taboo in Chinese culture because talking about sex is private, shameful, and discouraged in this community. The word "sex" is so untouchable that Chinese

people even avoid speaking its name. Chinese individuals feel uncomfortable and embarrassed when talking about sexual topics, which is still a prohibited cultural schema in the Chinese sociocultural context. Chinese people excuse sexually harassing behaviors by characterizing such incidents as "carelessly crossing the line" or "making fun" (J. Chan et al., 2019; Leiber et al., 2009). Sexual harassment behaviors in China share similar characteristics to those encountered in western countries (Tang et al., 1996). For instance, China's Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) conducted a study of 14,442 students across nine Hong Kong universities (J. Chan et al., 2019) in which female students were found to have better awareness of sexual harassment and a greater chance of experiencing sexual harassment on campus than were male students, and that females blamed the victim of sexual harassment less than males and had more empathy for victims (Bongiorno et al., 2019; J. Chan et al., 2019). The six most common types of sexual harassment reported on campus included someone making sexually suggestive comments or jokes (to others or to self), inappropriate physical contact (e.g., forcible kissing or touching), leering or making sexual gestures, making sexual comments about a person's appearance, repeated invitations to go out on dates despite repeated rejections, and playing sexually suggestive games during student activities. In addition, victims often decided to deal with the incidents passively due to fear of consequences (e.g., being blamed and experiencing retaliation), and fear of experiencing psychological distress during the disclosure process (J. Chan et al., 2019).

Even though the issue of sexual harassment is a serious problem in many countries, the differences between eastern and western cultural values may influence how an individual perceives what constitutes sexual harassment, and how they define and respond to sexual harassment related behaviors (Luthar & Luthar, 2008; Merkin, 2008; Mishra & Davison, 2020;

Sigal, 2006). Merkin (2008) indicated that differences in cultural perceptions correspond to different perceptions of the language and behavior involved in sexual harassment. As such, sexual harassment models need to consider cultural factors. Paludi et al. (2006) pointed to the difficulty of conducting sexual harassment research outside of the western countries due to differences in cultural values. Fitzgerald's sexual harassment model study collected data from a predominately White female sample (88%), suggesting that the generalizability of the study's findings to other racial/ethnic/cultural groups may be limited (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Fitzgerald, Huilin, et al., 1995).

Sexual harassment issues within Chinese culture have been studied by Tang and her colleagues (1995, 1996). They reported that, of the 849 university students surveyed, approximately 80% did not perceive unwanted pressure for dates and joking related to a students' gender as sexual harassment (Tang, Yik, et al., 1995), which resulted in Chinese students reporting a lower rate of sexual harassment experiences than did U.S. students. This finding may not indicate fewer incidents occurred in China but instead reflects the secretive nature of sexual harassment (hush-hush or *shi*) in China (Tang, Yik, et al., 1995; Tjaden & Thoennes, 2000). Tang and her colleagues (1996) hypothesized that the lower rate of sexual harassment they found may be due to adherence to strong cultural values of following the rules and maintaining social harmony that differ from traditional western values (Paludi et al., 2006; Tang, Yik, et al., 1995, 1996). They also indicated that the female Chinese university students who were sexually harassed may not reveal their experience of these incidents to avoid losing face, shame, and embarrassment, and that collectivism and filial piety possibly influenced these Hong Kong female students' perceptions of and attitudes and reactions toward these behaviors (K. Chan, 2009; J. Chan et al., 2019; Tang et al., 1996). Power theory studies have reported that

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sexual harassment is often used as a form of intimidation to maintain power and control over people (Choi, et al., 1993). Cortina and Berdahl (2008) noted that women from traditionally patriarchal collectivist cultures tend to respond passively to sexual harassment experiences through avoidance and denial.

Chinese Cultural Values

Due to its long history, Chinese culture includes a wide variety of traditional beliefs and values and is one of the most collectivist cultures in the world. Chinese cultural beliefs and values are greatly influenced by the spiritual and philosophical teachings of Confucianism, Buddhism, and Taoism, and Chinese families are usually structured through an implicit patriarchal hierarchy with traditional gender roles (Do, 2020; Leung, 2010; Tang et al., 1996). Research also found that the Asian culture (especially East Asian culture) includes values and beliefs such as conformity to norms, family recognition through achievement, emotional self-control, collectivism, humility, filial piety, hierarchical relationships, respect for elders, deference to authority, maintenance of interpersonal harmony, and avoidance of shame (avoid losing face) (Do, 2020; Kim, Atkinson, et al., 1999; Kim & Hong, 2004; Sue & Sue, 2007). Chinese and American cultures are fundamentally different. Chinese international students from mainland China who grew up with traditional Chinese cultural values may experience significant cultural shocks and other difficulties related to cultural differences in universities in the United States (Liu, 2009).

The Influence of Confucianism

Chinese personal values are influenced by the social and cultural norms of China (e.g., male-dominated, collectivist). Confucianism is a philosophy and belief system that guides the Chinese people, a critical part of Chinese culture in ancient China, and still has great impact on

many Chinese cultural values and norms to this day (Y. Wang et al., 2021). Essentially, Confucianism emphasizes moral and ethical codes to which people should adhere to behave appropriately according to their societal and familial roles in order to maintain a harmonious community and society (Do, 2020). Confucianism teaches that there are five main relationships for humans, three of which are based within the family (father-son, emperor-subject, husband-wife, elder-younger, and friend-friend). Individuals seem to belong to the family, the society, and the world in that order (H. Chang & Holt, 1991; Gove & Huang, 2012; Tang, 1999). Chinese culture stresses the supremacy of the family and group, and downplays the concept of the individual (Tang, 2002). Within the context of traditional Chinese hierarchical relationships, Chinese women form their identities through obedience to their fathers, husbands, and sons. Chinese children are often taught to be obedient, disciplined, and humble, and are raised to respect their elders and authority figures, follow the rules, and ensure that they commit no errant behavior that could ruin their family's reputation (K. Chan, 2009). Culture can include expectations about morality and sexuality. The traditional gender roles and cultural values associated with interdependent harmony in a patriarchal society like China may influence individuals' perceptions of and attitudes toward sexual harassment and contribute to their responses to such incidents (e.g., avoid acknowledging sexually harassing behaviors) (Yee et al., 2015; Zimbroff, 2007).

The Importance of Filial Piety

Filial piety (*xiao*) is regarded as one of the most fundamental Chinese cultural values and family virtues influenced by Confucianism, emphasizing the importance of giving parents, grandparents, and the family's senior members the utmost respect and devotion. In Chinese culture, individuals are taught to honor their parents and be responsible for their care and are

expected to uphold the reputations of their family and their ancestors (Kim & Hong, 2004; Liu, 2009). In The Classic of Filial Piety (*Xiao Jing*), one of the Confucian classics, it is said that "The body, hair and skin, all have been received from the parents, and so one doesn't dare damage them—that is the beginning of filial piety" (p. 2) (Feng, 2008). This shows that the Chinese persons are expected to take full responsibility for their own physical integrity. Confucius also extended this concept of filial piety to respect and obedience to elders (Bedford & Yeh, 2019).

The Emphasis on Achievement

Related to the emphasis on preventing damage to the family reputation is the fact that individual achievements are viewed as the honor of the entire family. Individuals strive to make their family unit recognizable through their own achievements. Due to the cultural schema of education in Chinese society, passing an exam is not only related to academic achievement, but also familial and social achievement (Hui, 2005). International students who study abroad carry high expectations from their parents and family, as academic and occupational achievements are very highly valued and add to their family's reputation (Schneider & Lee, 1990; Sue & Sue, 2007). These expectations and pressures for academic success may motivate Chinese international students to persevere through academic difficulties, but they may also overwhelm these students, making them more afraid of academic failure than their American peers, and experience higher levels of anxiety and isolation (Liu, 2009).

The Concept of Face

In Chinese culture, "not losing face" or "saving face" is very important. The Chinese concept of "face" refers to personal integrity, expressed through the upholding of moral and ethical standards and norms, and reputation (J Wang et al., 2022). This cultural value is based on

a foundational belief that one must protect one's own, and one's family's reputation, which for the Chinese is often considered more important than one's own (K. Chan, 2006, 2012; D. Ho et al., 2004). Chinese people's behaviors and interpersonal interactions and communication are often influenced by the concept of "face," and they act with restraint to avoid harming personal and family reputation (K. Chan, 2012). Chinese culture values the family and group, but often downplays the individual (Tang, 2002). This may affect how Chinese individuals weigh their personal rights versus their family's reputation when experiencing sexual harassment and influence their decisions about whether to disclose incidents of sexual harassment (Bedford & Hwang, 2003). Research has also shown that cultural values that promote group harmony and cohesiveness impact individuals' perceptions of sexual harassment behaviors and issues (Zimbroff, 2007).

Cultural Influence on the Perception and Effects of Sexual Harassment

In Chinese societies, sex-related issues like sexual harassment are regarded as "hush-hush" topics that people avoid discussing, and there have been a limited number of empirical studies published on recognizing sexually harassing behaviors prior to the #MeToo movement in 2018 in Chinese society and academia (Choi et al., 1993; Parish et al., 2006; Shi & Zheng, 2020; Tang, Yik, et al., 1995). Studies have indicated that Chinese culture has a very conservative view of the discussion of sexual matters, attitudes and practices, and that Chinese people (including family members) do not discuss topics associated with sex (Ruan, 2013; Ruan & Matsumura, 1991; Tang, 2022). Leiber et al. (2009) pointed out that Chinese people experience embarrassment when talking about sex and sex-related topics, and have negative views (e.g., private, shameful) of sex-related talk and sexual topics. Because discussing sexual topics may seem inappropriate and might result in "losing face/humiliation" in the Chinese community,

Chinese international students may not possess the knowledge required to recognize sexual harassment behaviors when they occur, and those who experience sexual harassment are unlikely to discuss it with others (including even family and friends) or receive the support they may need (K. Chan, 2006).

Culture can affect the psychological processes and social functioning of the individual. Hofstede's (1980, 2001) theory of cultural dimensions provided a framework that helps enhance the understanding of how sexual harassment is perceived in different cultures. This framework has been widely used and uses four dimensions, including uncertainty avoidance, individualism-collectivism, masculinity-femininity, and power distance to characterize how perception of sexual harassment varies according to the cultural context of the person (Hofstede & Bond, 1984; Merkin, 2008). People from different genders, cultures, ethnicities, and languages may have different perceptions on what types of behaviors constitute sexual harassment because they interpret messages differently. Some behaviors considered acceptable in one culture may be interpreted as sexually offensive in another culture. According to Hofstede (2001), individuals from strongly collectivist, power-distant, and uncertainty-avoidant cultures were often discouraged from questioning prevailing ethical rules and situations that are perceived to be to maintain the status quo. Research has shown that in cultures dominate by collectivism and toxic masculinity, females often tolerate sexual harassment and exploitation and avoid conflicts to maintain the value of harmony, and that people from collectivist and patriarchal cultures tended to be avoidant negotiators (D. Chan et al., 1999; Luthar & Luthar, 2002). Furthermore, strong power distances are associated with well-defined social hierarchy and inequity, sexism, and characterized by unassertive attitudes and responses by victims of sexual harassment (Merkin, 2008). Chinese culture is a strongly collectivist, power-distant, and masculine culture; thus,

Chinese individuals' perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment may be affected by these cultural dimensions.

Research on sexual harassment has indicated that cultural values and norms influence individuals' perceptions and attitudes regarding sexually harassing behaviors (Merkin, 2008; Sigal et al., 2005). Some studies have examined the relationship between Asian cultural values and sexual harassment among the Asian student population (especially the Chinese population), and have indicated that values such as collectivism, conformity to norms, family reputation, and the concept of face may be related to how individuals perceive sexual harassment, their attitudes toward these behaviors, and their reactions to experiencing sexual harassment (K. Chan, 2009; Kim & Hong, 2004; Kim, Yang, et al., 2001; Luthar & Luthar, 2008; Merkin, 2008). However, there is a dearth of research examining the relationship between other important Asian cultural values (e.g., filial piety) and the perception of sexual harassment. There has also, to date, been little research investigating the relationship between Chinese cultural values and the perception of sexual harassment by Chinese international students. In order to explore these relationships, we used the Sexual Harassment Index created by Tang et al. (1995) to assess female Chinese international students' awareness and understanding of sexually harassing behaviors and utilized Asian Values Scale-Revised (AVS-R) developed by Kim et al. (1999) to evaluate these female Chinese international students' adherence to some Asian cultural values and beliefs.

We used the Asian Values Scale-Revised to measure the level of participant adherence to the several Asian cultural dimensions of interest in this study including Collectivism, Conformity to Norms, Emotional Self-Control, Family Recognition Through Achievement, Filial Piety, and Humility. According to Kim and colleagues (2001), the definitions of each Asian cultural value are as follows. *Collectivism* refers to the importance of prioritizing the interests of one's group

before oneself, and considering others' needs before one's own needs. *Conformity to Norms* refers to the importance of conforming to familial expectations and societal norms (e.g., following the expectations of gender and family hierarchical roles), and not disgracing family's reputation. *Filial Piety* refers to the importance of being grateful to parents, taking care of parents when they cannot take care of themselves, and respecting wisdom and words of elders. *Humility* refers to the importance of being humble, not boasting, and being modest. *Emotional Self-Control* refers to the importance of being able to control one's emotions and having sufficient inner resources to address emotional issues. *Family Recognition Through Achievement* refers to the importance of honoring the family through one's educational and occupational achievements and avoid bringing shame to the family by avoiding educational and occupational failures.

Although limited, research on the intersection of culture and perception of sexual harassment has revealed that cultural values do influence individuals' perceptions of and attitudes toward sexual harassment (Merkin, 2008; Sigal et al., 2005; Zimbroff, 2007). Thus, Chinese international students' perception of sexual harassment may therefore be affected by their Chinese cultural values. Regarding sexual harassment research, collectivism and conformity to norms have been studied more than the other values such as filial piety and humility. The relationship between the cultural value of filial piety and sexual violence has been studied due to its association with unquestioning obedience and deference or obedience to senior members of families and society (Chan, 2009). The concept of humility is characterized by low self-focus and acknowledgement of one's mistakes and limitations (J. Li., 2016). Previous studies did not, however, examine the direct relationship between the perception of sexual harassment and the values of emotional self-control and family recognition through achievement, and the results of

the present study did not provide data to either confirm or discount the causal nature of these relationships. Therefore, we will remove these two Asian cultural values from consideration in hypotheses one and two.

Collectivism

Chinese culture is a high-context culture, indicating that Chinese individuals must consider many contextual factors (e.g., environments and situations) prior to acting. Research has shown that individuals from collectivist cultures stress group rather than individual goals, even when they witness or experience sexual harassment they may avoid acknowledging and identifying sexual harassment behaviors and offer excuses that allow perpetrators of such acts to deny the occurrence and avoid conflict with the goal of maintaining harmony in social relationships (D. Chan et al., 1999; J. Chan et al., 2019; Sigal et al., 2005). Female Chinese international students who do not acknowledge the sexual harassment behaviors such as sexist comments may possibly be influenced less by the incident. However, their higher level of tolerance for these behaviors may also increase their vulnerability to future sexual harassment (Luthar & Luthar, 2002, 2007; Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002). These ways of denying and/or tolerating sexually harassing behaviors may be negatively associated with an individual's perception of sexual harassment (Mishra & Davison, 2020).

Conformity to Norms

Chinese individuals are expected to conform to familial and societal norms such as following the expectations of traditional gender and hierarchical roles in one's family and society and are discouraged from violating these norms and bring disgrace to their family's reputation (Kim, Atkinson, 2001; Kim, Yang, et al., 2001). Traditionally, Chinese women and girls are expected to be submissive and modest and have been historically subordinated to Chinese men

(Z. Lin & Yang, 2019; Zuo et al., 2018). Traditional Chinese masculine culture is focused on hierarchy leading to the historical adoption of stereotyped gender roles, which may impact the perception of sexual harassment behaviors, and the attitudes that support them (Hofstede & Bond, 1984; Merkin, 2008; Mishra & Davison, 2020). Some societal norms internalized by Chinese individuals such as treating sex as a taboo subject and promoting rigid gender roles (e.g., masculinity) may increase their risk of experiencing sexual violence and sexual harassment (World Health Organization [WHO], 2009). "Face" is important to the Chinese, and individuals cannot risk losing face in order to avoid negative consequences such as shame and guilt (J. Wang et al., 2022; K. Chan, 2006). The culturally based avoidance of discussing sex-related topics may negatively affect Chinese individuals' knowledge and perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment (X. Li et al., 2022).

Filial Piety

Due to the strong emphasis on filial piety in Chinese culture, Chinese students are taught to care for their parents and family's reputation, be responsible for protecting their own body, and respect their elders (Kim, Yang, et al., 2001). Chan (2009) pointed out that Chinese values of filial piety are associated with certain behavioral patterns, such as absolute and unquestioned obedience to parents and elderly family members. Maintaining the virtues of respect for the elderly and forgiving others in Chinese culture may have some influences on victims' sexual harassment experience such as the perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment, and their decision about whether to reveal the incident if the perpetrator is an elder (Bedford & Yeh, 2019; K. Chan, 2009; J. Li & Fischer, 2007). Individual's perceptions of sexual harassment, and their responses to such an incident may possibly be negatively influenced by cultural expectations related to filial piety.

Humility

The Asian cultural value of humility has been influenced greatly by Confucianism, and Chinese individuals are taught at an early age that humility is a great virtue one should be careful to observe. The most foundational Confucian teaching is the emphasis on and articulation of one's lifelong moral cultivation, a self-perfecting process (J. Li, 2016). Chinese people have learned to not be boastful, not talk about or feel proud of personal achievements, and refuse compliments as receiving compliments can be seen as a sign of vanity (Kim, Yang, et al., 2001). Humility consists of a reduced self-focus, moderate self-view, acknowledgement of one's mistakes and limits, and keeping one's abilities/achievements in perspective (Tangney, 2000). Chinese humbleness (*qianxu*, humility), influenced by Confucian self-cultivation, highly stresses being strict with oneself and being lenient with others (White & Chan, 1983), which leads Chinese individuals to be introspective and make internal attributions when they make mistakes. For example, attributing failure to their lack of effort rather than upon external factors. These cultural beliefs of being self-critical, identifying one's mistakes, and having a high tolerance of others may influence Chinese individuals' interpretations of others' behavior, including sexual harassment. People who are more self-critical may be more forgiving to others and give excuses to the perpetrators of sexually harassing behaviors.

Despite the initial evidence of prior published research on perceptions of sexual harassment, and the dearth of prior research on the relationship between Chinese international students' cultural values and perceptions of sexual harassment, it is still unclear whether several components of Asian cultural values (collectivism, conformity to norms, filial piety, and humility) are indeed associated with the perception of sexual harassment among female Chinese international students. Therefore, the current study will examine the relationship between female

Chinese international students' adherence to these Asian cultural values and their perception of sexual harassment through correlational analyses. My hypothesis is that there will be negative correlations between the perception of sexual harassment and Asian cultural values.

Regarding the effect of sex on the perception of sexual harassment, research has shown that men, in general, have narrower definitions and lower levels of awareness of sexual harassment than women, that women have broader definitions of sexual harassment and a lower tolerance for it (Choi, et al., 1993; Fitzgerald, 1993; MacKinnon, 1979), and that women have a greater sensitivity to sexually harassing behaviors (Yee et al., 2015). Individual attitudes regarding, and reactions resulting from sexual harassment experiences are also associated with the victim's perceptions of what sexual harassment means and entails (Luthar & Luthar, 2008; Tang, Cheung, et al., 2002). The #MeToo movement has inspired more Chinese women in both university and work settings to take an active role in resisting sexual harassment. Historically, women have been placed in a more vulnerable position than men in Chinese society. Sexual harassment is one way in which men use their power to violate women's human rights and physical integrity (Cheung, 1999; Srivastava & Gu, 2009).

In Chinese society, women are expected to be responsible for protecting their own reputation, their family's reputation, and their bodily integrity even when they are being harassed or assaulted (K. Chan, 2009, 2012). Research has found that female victims of sexual violence and sexual harassment are often blamed for not trying hard enough to resist the perpetrator of the violent incident that occurred to them and not taking diligent care of themselves, which in turn results in the ruination of the family reputation (K. Chan, 2009; Tang, Cheung, et al., 2002). The individuals who are victimized often feel ashamed and experience judgment by family members and friends. Bonistall Postel (2020) reported that Asian students are more likely to blame and

hold negative feelings toward the victims of sexual violence than the White students due to certain Chinese cultural values (e.g., chastity). Like many cultures, the unreasonable victim-blaming attitude characteristic of Chinese culture harms the victims of sexual harassment and discourages them from seeking help. Research has shown that victims at universities often experience further harm when they report the incident due to becoming the focus of negative attention on campus. This negative impact not only affects the victims, but also their peers, who may experience sexual harassment or violence in the future. These students' reactions to sexual harassment behaviors may be influenced due to collectivistic cultural values and adherence to social norms (J. Chan et al., 2019; H-C. Lee & Cheung, 1991; Paludi et al., 2006). These considerations may help explain the underreporting of such incidents by female Chinese international students.

The Effect of Acculturation on the Perception of Sexual Harassment

Acculturation is the extent to which individuals adopt the mainstream values of a host culture while also retaining the values of their native culture (Berry, 2003). Though the acculturation construct includes behavioral, value, and identity-based aspects, many studies have focused on behavioral acculturation, which is primarily focused on behavioral adaptations such as adopting behaviors specific to the host culture (language use and other cultural practices) (Portes & Rumbaut, 2001; Schwartz et al., 2010). Chinese international students studying in the United States are acculturated to different extents depending on the number of years they have been studying in the U.S., which is a proxy for acculturation (Fan & Ashdown, 2014). Scholars have pointed out that acculturating from eastern to western culture reduces the personal impact of noncompliance with social norms, an important Asian cultural value, and that female Chinese international students acculturate better than their male counterparts (Fan & Ashdown, 2014).

Previous studies have indicated that individuals who adhere more to western culture and individualism may have stronger boundaries and more knowledge of the definition of sexually harassing behaviors, meaning that they may be better equipped to recognize sexual harassment behaviors and prevent such incidents from happening (Kennedy & Gorzalka, 2002).

One study that investigated the potential attitudinal differences associated with sexual harassment between Asian and non-Asian university students found that Asian students had significantly more conservative attitudes than their non-Asian peers. However, as the length of residency in a western country increased, tolerance for sexual harassment diminishes (Buchanan & West, 2010; Do, 2020). The length of residency of international students living in the United States provides greater exposure to American culture and other female students (particularly female American students), who may value individual rights and personal space more highly and have a better understanding of the concept of sexual harassment (Fan & Ashdown, 2014). For example, Chinese international students witnessing the negative reactions of their American peers to sexual harassment behaviors, and open discussion about sex-related matters may learn that it is acceptable to express feelings and thoughts about sexual harassment and sex matters. These peer influences may affect how international students perceive and react to sexually harassing behaviors (Foulis & McCabe, 1997). Chinese international students' lack of understanding about the topic of sexual harassment may result from a lack of necessary education and discussion of sexual matters. Previous research suggests that increasing knowledge about sexual harassment through prevention training can effectively improve students' understanding about this issue and reduce the frequency of sexual harassment incidents that they experience (Coker et al., 2011; Coker et al., 2015; Hill & Kearl, 2011).

The Effect of Sexual Harassment Training on the Perception of Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination and violence against many women. Policies designed to combat sex discrimination (including sexual violence and sexual harassment) in the United States have been proposed and enforced through numerous laws and legal filings including; Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972, the Clery Campus Crimes Act of 1991, Justice Sandra Day O'Connor's 2001 Gebser opinion, the "Dear Colleague Letter" (DCL) released by the Department of Education's Office for Civil Rights (OCR) in 2011, the Violence Against Women Reauthorization Act (VAWA) in 2013, and Not Alone, the First Report of the White House Task Force to Protect Students From Sexual Assault (2014). Throughout the evolution of sexual violence policies, there has been a push for the OCR to ensure that institutions of higher education take responsibility for and make an effort to eliminate sexual harassment and related incidents with the goal of providing a safer campus climate (United Educators, 2015). In addition to meeting legal compliance requirements, cultural changes and sexual violence and sexual harassment prevention training have proven to be effective at raising awareness, improving behaviors, and preventing sexual harassment (Berdahl & Raver, 2011; Kearney et al., 2004). In 2011, the DCL influenced the University of Montana to create a blueprint for campus compliance that led universities across the country to bring their student conduct and sexual assault policies into compliance with the standards set by the government (United Educators, 2015).

As a result of the growing emphasis on strengthening sexual violence-related policies on U.S. college campuses, especially the Title IX policy, several universities set up mandatory training requirements for sexual violence and sexual harassment prevention and intervention. Title IX's gender discrimination policy directly impacts the type of information new students

receive during this orientation (Hill & Kearl, 2011). All universities are required to publish a policy against sex discrimination (including sexual harassment) and introduce grievance procedures for filing sexual harassment complaints by students. At a southwestern university, incoming students receive primary prevention and awareness education during new student orientation to gain an understanding of how to define and respond to sexual harassment behaviors. These prevention programs focus on promoting safe bystander intervention by identifying warning signs, learning strategies to avoid potential attacks, and understanding healthy behaviors that contribute to the formation of mutually respectful relationships. All students are required to complete a mandatory online training module (Haven, September 16, 2020) that stressed the identification of sexual harassment and other sexual violence behaviors. Further, starting in 2019, all graduate assistants were trained to become mandatory Title IX related violation incident reporters of their supervised student groups. This training focuses on general Title IX policy knowledge, possible violations, and incident reporting procedures (Texas A&M University [TAMU], 2018). These training opportunities, in which Chinese graduate students have been required to participate as a requirement of receiving a graduate assistantship to reduce the financial stress, have helped to improve Chinese international students' understanding of sexual harassment.

A significant proportion of the female Chinese international students in the United States have had greater exposure than their Chinese peers in China to the concept of sexual harassment as they are required to complete the mandatory Title IX trainings at their university as graduate students. These students' length of residency in the U.S. also indicates not only increased exposure to sexual harassment and sex-related topics but also increased understanding of sexual harassment (Coker et al., 2015; Hill & Kearl, 2011). However, most training provide the

definitions and knowledge about sexual harassment used in western societies, and there is almost no content in these trainings specifically related to behaviors and misunderstandings resulting from cultural differences (U.S. Department of Education [ED], Office for Civil Rights, 2011). There is also a dearth of studies that have focused on how the perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment among female Chinese international students may differ from American students due to culture. Considering the extent to which acculturative experiences impact international students' perceptions based on their length of residency in the U.S. (a proxy for acculturation), I hypothesized that the number of years that female Chinese international students reside in the U.S. will moderate the association between their adherence to Asian cultural values and the perception of sexual harassment. The relationships will be analyzed by using the moderation hierarchical regression model (Petrocelli, 2003).

Experience of Sexual Harassment and Depression

Sexual harassment has been defined as a psychological stressor by Fitzgerald and colleagues (1997), and as a gender-specific stressor (Quick & McFadyen, 2017). The experience of sexual harassment often negatively impacts individuals and is associated with an increase in the frequency of psychological and physical symptoms, and a decrease in educational and occupational performance (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Buchanan et al., 2009; Siuta & Bergman, 2019). These stress reactions to sexual harassment (both psychological and physiological) are affected by not only the stressor itself, but also an individual's appraisal of the degree of threat to their well-being, and the coping resources available to deal with the incident (Lazarus, 1993). Research has indicated that women's experiences of sexual harassment are related to their perceptions of and attitudes toward sexual harassment, which are influenced by their culture, cultural orientation, and past sexual harassment training. Asian female university students who

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come from collectivist cultures and adhere strongly to Asian cultural values may hold more

traditional cultural attitudes and gender-role expectations and stereotypes that can lead to

significant shame and self-blame when victimized by incidents of sexual harassment (I. Ho et al.,

2018; McCabe & Hardman, 2005; Quick & McFadyen, 2017; Sigal et al., 2005). These factors

may contribute to the development of higher levels of psychological distress and mental health

concerns (e.g., depression) among the Asian female students in higher education.

The literature indicates that university students experiencing sexual harassment may incur

a high personal cost. The negative impacts of sexual harassment on female university students

can include poorer educational, occupational, psychological, and physiological outcomes. For

instance, female student victims have reported poorer academic performance and greater

academic withdrawal, reduced self-esteem, feelings of helplessness and fear, and headaches,

sleep disturbances, and gastrointestinal disorders (J. Chan et al., 2019; Lundberg-Love &

Marmion, 2003; Paludi et al, 2006; Ramos, 2000; Sigal et al., 2005). Based on the Stop Street

Harassment's 2018 study of approximately 2000 participants, individuals with sexual harassment

and assault experiences across all demographics experienced the following impacts: 1) anxiety

and/or depression (31% of women, 20% of men), 2) changes to their regular routine (23% of

women, 12% of men), and 3) end of a relationship (e.g., friendship or romantic relationship) due

to the abuse (15% of women, 12% of men) (Kearl, 2018).

Another study by Buchanan and her colleagues (2018) pointed out that sexual harassment

is a risk factor for depression and posttraumatic stress. Their study collected data from 129 Asian

American women who attended a midwestern university (mean age = 20 years) to understand the

connections between mental health, and sexual and racial harassment. The study results indicated

that sexual harassment characterized by unwanted sexual attention and sexual coercion was

associated with increased posttraumatic stress and depression. Additionally, 66.7% of the participants reported at least one experience of sexual harassment within the past year, but only 23.3% of this sample labeled the experience as sexual harassment. In China's EOC 2019 report, of 14,000 Chinese university students surveyed, 23% (3,329 students) reported being sexually harassed in the 12 months before the survey, and 15.6% (2,259 students) reported that the incident had taken place on campus. Among the students who reported experiencing sexual harassment, approximately 60% of students were female (2,083 students) (J. Chan et al., 2019).

Kearl's (2018) study reported that the most frequent outcomes of sexual harassment experiences were depression and anxiety (31% of women, 308 participants). Buchanan and West (2010) reported that Asian cultural values such as collectivism, conformity to social norms, sexualized stereotypes, and gender role expectations may influence individual perceptions of sexual harassment behaviors, and that the mental health effects of sexual harassment, such as depression and post-traumatic stress, may continue for years after the incident. Chinese women's concept of losing face, which is associated with shame, affects how they cope with incidents of sexual harassment, and is also related to an increased risk of anxiety, depression, and PTSD (Andrews et al., 2002; Bedford & Hwang, 2003). Economic marginalization, language barriers, citizenship status, and lack of understanding of sexual harassment laws in the United States also contribute to making female Chinese international students more vulnerable to sexual harassment (Buchanan & West, 2010; J. Chan et al., 2019).

Research on the perception of sexual harassment has indicated that this is a complex concept to explore because it can be influenced by training, experience, social norms, and cultural values (Fiedler & Blanco, 2006; McCabe & Hardman, 2005; Merkin, 2008; Mishra & Davison, 2020). Individuals' perceptions of sexual harassment represent their interpretation of

sensations and situations, and their understanding of sexually harassing behaviors. Chinese female students who scored higher on the Sexual Harassment Index had a better awareness and a clearer definition and knowledge of the concept of sexual harassment (Tang et al., 1996; Foulis & McCabe, 1997). They may have received more sexual harassment trainings, had more exposure to discussions of sex-related topics, and learned more coping strategies and availed themselves of more resources to deal with sexual harassment behaviors and incidents. Tang and colleagues (1996) have indicated that the awareness and actual experiences of sexual harassment were correlated with each other. Studies have shown that individuals' perceptions of sexual harassment may be negatively correlated with their attitudes toward sexual harassment behaviors (McCabe & Hardman, 2005), indicating that persons who have better awareness and understanding of sexually harassing behaviors may have more negative attitudes toward sexual harassment, leading to more negative reactions to these behaviors when they occur (Luthar & Luthar, 2008; X. Li et al., 2022; Tang, Cheung, et al., 2002). Negative attitudes toward sexual harassment may affect how persons are affected by sexual harassment experiences. Individuals who have negative attitudes toward sexually harassing behaviors and better awareness may feel more empowered and less threatened by incidents of sexual harassment, and less likely to attribute the responsibility of these incidents to themselves or negatively internalize these experiences (Feiring et al., 2002). This may result in fewer negative mental outcomes (e.g., shame and depression) compared to persons who have a more poorly developed perception of sexual harassment.

Shi and Zheng (2020) reported a negative correlation between an individual's perception and tolerance of sexual harassment, and a positive correlation between tolerance and experience of sexual harassment. They indicated that a high tolerance for sexually harassing behaviors is

associated with a low level of perception of sexual harassment and frequent past sexual harassment experiences. People with a deeper understanding of sexually harassing behaviors tend to be less tolerant of such behaviors (Foulis & McCabe, 1997; McCabe & Hardman, 2005; W. Zhang et al., 2018). Female students are particularly vulnerable to sexual harassment and have a broader perspective than male students in defining and recognizing sexual harassment behaviors (NASEM, 2018). Mazer and Percival (1989) reported that repeated incidents of sexual harassment may increase tolerance of such behaviors and normalize experiences of sexually harassing behaviors, which may result in the belief that such experiences are common, especially as concerns mild forms of harassment (e.g., dirty jokes often perceived as jokes instead of verbal sexual harassment) (X. Li et al., 2022; McCabe & Hardman, 2005). This heightened tolerance may also be related to avoiding the acknowledgement of sexual harassment behaviors in an effort to minimize conflicts and possible negative consequences. Conversely, the more alert a person is to incidents of sexual harassment, the less tolerant they will be of such behaviors.

Li and colleagues (2022) indicated that increased perception of sexual harassment may lead to decreased likelihood to be sexually harassed due to stronger awareness of prevention and self-protection. Female students who perceive sexual harassment behaviors more accurately tend to be more sensitive toward these behaviors and better able to avoid such incidents. Studies have also indicated that the experience of sexual harassment may make individuals become more sensitive toward sexual harassment behaviors for the purpose of self-protection, thereby protecting themselves by preventing the occurrence of such behaviors in the future (Mazer & Percival, 1989). The relationship between the perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment has yet to be studied in depth. There is, currently, a dearth of research focusing on the examination of the relationship between these two factors and their association with depression.

There is also a dearth of research focusing on the mental health impacts of perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment and depressive symptoms specifically in Chinese international students. In the current study, I will use data collected through the use of the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ), Sexual Harassment Index (SHI), and Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9) and analyze them through the use of moderation hierarchical regression modeling (Petrocelli, 2003) to explore the relationship between perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment and depression. Considering the negative associations between the perception and experience of sexual harassment, and the influence of perception of sexual harassment on mental process, I hypothesized that the relationship between experience of sexual harassment and depressive symptoms is moderated by the perception of sexual harassment.

Purpose of Study

Previous studies have shown that cultural values can impact the perception and experience of sexual harassment, and that acculturation influences the extent to which cultural values are retained. Previous research has also reported that experiences of sexual harassment can lead to depression due to sexual harassment being a psychological stressor, and that the severity of depression and other mental health outcomes can be influenced by an individual's perception of and attitude toward sexual harassment. The purpose of this study is to examine the relationships between Asian cultural values, a proxy measure for acculturation, and the perception of sexual harassment, and the relationship between the perception and experience of sexual harassment, and depression among female Chinese international students. The following research questions will guide this study:

1. Which components of Asian cultural values [conformity to social norms, collectivism, filial piety, and humility] are associated with the perception of sexual harassment?

2. Does a proxy for acculturation [length of residency in the U.S.] moderate the association between the components of Asian cultural values and the perception of sexual harassment?

3. Does the perception of sexual harassment moderate the relationship between experience of sexual harassment and depression?

Based on the review of the existing literature, the hypotheses are:

Hypothesis 1: There are negative correlations between the perception of sexual harassment and Asian cultural values [conformity to social norms, collectivism, filial piety, and humility].

Hypothesis 2: The relationship between Asian cultural values [conformity to social norms, collectivism, filial piety, and humility] and the perception of sexual harassment is moderated by a proxy for acculturation [length of residency in the U.S.].

Hypothesis 3: The relationship between experience of sexual harassment and depressive symptoms is moderated by the nature of the perception of sexual harassment.

METHOD

Participants

A power analysis indicated that 98 participants were needed for a small effect size of .15 ($\alpha = .05$; $p = .80$). 102 Chinese international students enrolled at various universities across the United States participated in the data collection for this study (24 participants from the southwestern university and 78 participants from other 41 universities). The average age of participants was 24.98 years ($SD = 3.88$). The mean number of years of residing in the United States was 4.56 years ($SD = 3.54$) with a range of less than a year to 19 years. Of the 102 participants, 69 opted to complete the survey in Chinese (68%) and 33 in English (32%). 24% of participants were undergraduates ($n = 24$), 26% were master's level students ($n = 27$), and 50% were doctoral level students ($n = 51$). The mean number of the degree level/educational level was 2.26 ($SD = .82$) indicated that the majority of the participants were graduate students. The average number of years participants had been working on their current degree was 2.2 years ($SD = 1.59$). A majority of participants majored in social sciences ($n = 44$) while the remaining participants majored primarily in science, technology, engineering, or mathematics (STEM) ($n = 25$), and education ($n = 10$). Approximately 25% of the participants were from the Beijing Municipality and the province of Zhejiang.

Procedure

After Institutional Review Board approval, participants were recruited through flyers with a QR code (See Appendix A) posted at libraries and various other buildings on campus of a southwestern university and the electronic flyers were distributed through social media, chat apps, and emails forwarded from international student organization officers (e.g., Chinese Student Scholar Association, and Chinese Student Association) at 194 different universities. The

recruitment period for the current study began in September 2019 and ended in November 2020, which was partially during the COVID-19 pandemic. Many universities were either closed and offered online-only courses, or implemented a hybrid model between March 2020 and June 2021. Participants who clicked on the study link were taken to a Qualtrics-based website where they were offered the choice to take the survey in their preferred language, Chinese or English. Once language preference was selected, participants were then taken to a webpage with a brief study description and research consent information. Participants were also provided with an option to enter a drawing for a digital gift card. Participants who provided their contact information were entered into a drawing for a total of ten $25 gift cards, five $50 gift cards, and one $100 gift card. Participants contact information was kept separate from all anonymously submitted survey information.

The participants completed the survey at their own pace. Participation in the study was voluntary, and each participant was offered the option to decline participation in this research at any time. Of the 192 participants who clicked onto the study's website, 29% ($n = 55$) completed the consent form but did not take the survey, 11% ($n = 22$) of responses were removed because they only consisted of demographic data, 4% ($n = 7$) of survey responses were completed by male students, 3% ($n = 5$) of responses were from students not currently enrolled in university, and 0.5% ($n = 1$) survey response was removed due to enrollment in a university outside the United States. After removal of these 90 incomplete or unusable responses, a total of 102 participant surveys met inclusion criteria for the study and were used in analysis.

Measures

Demographic Questionnaire

This questionnaire was created for the purposes of this study and used to obtain background information from the participants. The self-report questionnaire asked about personal characteristics of the participants including age, gender, sexual orientation, province of origin in China, total years residing in the United States, and academic information such as name of university, degree level/educational level, field of study, university status, year of enrollment, and anticipated graduation year. Participants were asked to report their age by filling in the blanks and their current pursued type of degree level by selecting the option of bachelor, master's, doctoral, or post-doctoral, which were coded from 1 to 4, with higher numbers indicating higher educational levels.

Asian Cultural Values

The Asian Values Scale-Revised (AVS-R; Kim & Hong, 2004) is a 25-item self-report scale that measures participants' adherence to Asian heritage, and cultural and familial values and beliefs that is comprised of six subscales (Kim et al., 1999). In the current study, we analyzed four of the six Asian values; conformity to social norms (7 items; e.g., *One should not deviate from familial and social norms*), collectivism (2 items; e.g., *One should consider the needs of others before considering one's own needs*), humility (4 items; e.g., *One should be discouraged from talking about one's accomplishments*), and filial piety (3 items; e.g., *Children should not place their parents in retirement homes*). Each item is rated on a four-point Likert scale ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (4) *strongly agree*, with higher scores indicating greater levels of agreement and stronger adherence to the specific Asian cultural values. Coefficient alphas for the present study were .59, .61, .32, and .31 for conformity to social

norms, collectivism, humility, and filial piety, respectively. Internal reliability for the total scale score was estimated to be .79, indicating good internal consistency.

Perception of Sexual Harassment

The Sexual Harassment Index (SHI; Tang, Yik, et al., 1995) is a 16-item self-report behavioral checklist that assesses perception of sexual harassment. This scale assesses four components of sexual harassment including sexual coercion, physical seduction, non-physical seduction, and gender harassment. Items are scored using either "yes" or "no" (1 = yes, 0 = no). The item scores were summed to yield a total score ranging from 0 to 16 with higher scores indicating higher perception of behaviors as sexual harassment. Items on the Sexual Harassment Index consist of statements such as, "Unwanted sexually suggestive looks or gestures", "Unwanted leaning over or cornering", and "Unwanted intimate behaviors: putting an arm around your shoulders or taking your hand." For peer sexual harassment, Tang, Yik, et al. (1995), reported that the entire list of behavioral items and the factor scores of sexual coercion and physical seduction presented satisfactory internal reliability (ranged from .69 to .83). Internal reliability for the current study was estimated to be .95.

Sexual Harassment Experience

The Sexual Experiences Questionnaire-Shortened Version (SEQ; Fitzgerald, Gelfand, et al., 1995; Fitzgerald et al., 1988) is a 19-item behavioral measure developed to examine the frequency at which sexual harassment behaviors are experienced by university students that consists of three dimensions: gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion (Fitzgerald Gelfand, et al., 1995; Kearney et al., 2004). Each item is rated on a five-point Likert scale ranging from (0) *never* to (4) *very often*, with higher scores indicating greater frequency experiencing the sexually harassing behaviors included in the inventory. All items request that

participants answer whether and how often the situations have occurred to them at the university. Items on the SEQ university scale consist of statements such as, "When at the university, have you ever been in a situation where any individuals gave you unwanted sexual attention?" The term "sexual harassment" does not appear in the questionnaire items. In the revised version of SEQ by Fitzgerald et al. (1995), Cronbach's alpha for the total scale was .89 (.86 for gender harassment, .75 for unwanted sexual attention, and .87 for sexual coercion). Internal reliability for the current study was estimated to be .88.

Depressive Symptoms

The Patient Health Questionnaire-9 (PHQ-9; Kroenke et al., 2001) is a nine-item brief questionnaire that measures the presence and severity of depressive symptoms. Responses are rated on a four-point Likert scale ranging from (0) *not at all* to (3) *nearly every day.* The item scores were summed to yield a total score ranging from 0 to 27. A total score of 10 or higher is often used as the cutoff score denoting a possible major depressive disorder diagnosis. Items on the PHQ-9 consist of statements such as, "Feeling down, depressed, or hopeless" and "Feeling bad about yourself – or that you are a failure or have let yourself or your family down." The scores of PHQ-9 have shown steady psychometric properties with a coefficient of .84 test-retest reliability and internal consistency estimates of .86 and .89 based on a 6,000-patient sample (Kroenke et al., 2001). The Chinese version of PHQ-9 (W. Wang et al., 2014), was reported to be positively correlated with the Chinese version of Self-rating Depression Scale (SDS; Zhang et al., 2013; $r = .29$; $p < .001$). The Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for this study was estimated to be .86.

Proxy for Acculturation

Proxy for acculturation was assessed by the number of years the participants reported living in the United States. Years spent in the United States has been used in previous studies as a proxy measure for acculturation (Eshun, 2006; Schwartz et al., 2010; Wilton & Constantine, 2003).

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

The overall means, standard deviations, and correlations for all the measures used in the study are presented in Table 1. Average Sexual Harassment Perception, Sexual Harassment Experience, and Depression scores were 12.72 (SD = 4.07), 8.24 (SD = 8.03), and 6.60 (SD = 4.84), respectively. The means and standard deviations for the length of residency and each of the six Asian cultural values are as follows: Years in U.S. (M = 4.56, SD = 3.55), Conformity to Social Norms (M = 2.25, SD = .38), Family Recognition through Achievement (M = 2.17, SD = .39), Emotional Self-Control (M = 2.91, SD = .59), Collectivism (M = 2.30, SD = .60), Humility (M = 2.43, SD = .36), and Filial Piety (M = 2.37, SD = .42). Of the 102 participants in the study, 67 reported past experiences of sexual harassment (66%) and 26 reported experiences of college sexual harassment (25%). The correlations among the predictor variables and dependent variables were examined, and statistically significant Pearson correlation coefficients were found between Age and Degree (r = .67; p < .001), Age and Years in U.S. (r = .30; p = .003), Degree and Years in U.S. (r = .23; p = .02), Conformity to Social Norms and Collectivism (r = .50; p < .001), Conformity to Social Norms and Humility (r = .36; p < .001), Conformity to Social Norms and Filial Piety (r = .56; p < .001), Collectivism and Humility (r = .42; p < .001), Collectivism and Filial Piety (r = .46; p < .001), Humility and Filial Piety (r = .45; p < .001), Sexual Harassment Experience and Depression (r = .25; p = .01).

Evaluation of Assumptions

The meeting of basic statistical assumptions about collected data is required to perform any linear regression analysis, to further generalize the study results to the target population, and

to avoid possible biases. Prior to conducting the main analyses, the data were checked for

linearity, homoscedasticity, multicollinearity, independence of errors, outliers, and normality.

Linearity

Linearity was the first assumption to be examined, or linear variable relationships. In

multiple regression, the dependent variable should have a linear relationship with all the

independent variables considered, and the best effects will be obtained by comprehensively

investigating the relationships between variables (Field, 2018).

According to the scatterplot (Figure 1) and correlation coefficient (Table 1), there were

linear relationships between the AVS-R variable and Sexual Harassment Index outcome variable,

mostly in a negative direction with the exception of the Emotional Self-Control subscale. There

was also a linear relationship between the SEQ variable and PHQ-9 outcome variable as

illustrated in the residual scatterplot below (Figure 2).

Homoscedasticity

The second assumption was residual **homoscedasticity**, which requires that the variance

of the predictor residuals be constant (Wiley, 2021). Residual scatter plots were examined to

provide a test of homoscedasticity and linearity assumptions between predicted dependent

variables and prediction errors (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

The scatterplot of the interaction between the AVS-R variable and Sexual Harassment

Index outcome variable indicated support for the homoscedasticity assumption (Figure 1). The

scatterplot of the interaction between the SEQ variable and PHQ-9 outcome variable revealed a

concentration of residuals in the center of the plot, and a normal distribution of residuals forming

a rectangular shape in a symmetrical pattern. The scatter plot indicated no violation of the

assumptions of linearity and homoscedasticity.

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Multicollinearity

The third assumption to be confirmed was that there was no **multicollinearity** in the data. The degree of multicollinearity can be determined using collinearity statistics (e.g., tolerance scores and variance inflation factor values). Variance inflation factor (VIF) is a commonly used method for assessing multicollinearity and the assumption can be considered met when the VIF score is below 10 (Hair et al., 1995).

VIF scores for AVS-R variables were all lower than 5, ranging from 1.23 to 1.91, and tolerance values were higher than .20, ranging from .53 to .81 (Table 2). Therefore, the assumption of multicollinearity was not violated for the relationship between each component of the AVS-R variable and the Sexual Harassment Index outcome variable. The VIF score for the SEQ was less than 5 (VIF = 1.09) and tolerance value was above .20 (Tolerance = .92; Table 3). Thus, multicollinearity was not an issue for the scores of the SEQ variable and the PHQ-9 outcome variable and the relationship between these two variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

Independence of Errors

The fourth assumption to be confirmed was the **independence of errors**. The distance between the data points and the regression line should be independent of each other. Failing this assumption would invalidate standard error measurements (Field, 2018). Independence of errors can be evaluated by using the Durbin-Watson correlation test, the results of which can range from 0 to 4. For this study, the Durbin-Watson value for the AVS-R variable was 1.61, suggesting independence of the adjacent residuals. The Durbin-Watson value for the SEQ was close to 2.26, which met the assumption and indicated that there was no correlation between residuals.

Outliers

The fifth assumption to be examined and confirmed was there were no significant outliers. The presence of outliers can be evaluated using residual scatter plots and boxplot analysis for each outcome variable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

The boxplot for the Sexual Harassment Index outcome variable showed a small number of outliers in the lower values (Figure 3). Based upon the residual scatterplot of the interaction between the AVS-R variable and Sexual Harassment Index outcome variable, the concentration of outlier residuals was distributed mostly at the bottom of the plot, but they were not significant (Figure 1). Cook's Distance values for AVS-R subscales were all less than 1, ranging from .00 to .17, suggesting that there were no individual cases significantly affecting the model.

The boxplot for the PHQ-9 outcome variable showed limited outliers in the figure (Figure 4). According to the residual scatterplot, the concentration of outlier residuals was distributed at the edges of the plot, but they were not significant. Cook's Distance values ranged from .00 to .15 (less than 1), suggesting that there were no individual cases significantly affecting this model.

Normality

The sixth assumption to be investigated was whether the residual and sampling distributions were normally distributed. The validity of this assumption can be observed using a P-P Plot of regression standardized residuals and a histogram (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

The residual scatterplot of the interrelationship between the AVS-R variable and Sexual Harassment Index outcome variable revealed a skewed distribution of residuals concentrated at the top of the plot, indicating a failure of normality (Figure 1). The histogram of residuals indicated that the model presents negative skewness and has more participants with higher scores

(Figure 5). The tests of normality value on the Sexual Harassment Index outcome variable ($p <$ .001) also indicated that the survey results were not normally distributed. The residual scatterplot, P-P plot, and histogram for Experience of Sexual Harassment variable and Depression outcome variable revealed a normal distribution of residuals (Figure 2; Figure 6).

Due to the lack of normality found in the association between the AVS-R variable and Sexual Harassment Index outcome variable, the robust standard errors approach was used in an attempt to stabilize the standard error issue, address the skewed distribution, and examine the significance level. Prior to conducting the robust standard errors approach, the skewness and kurtosis of residuals were evaluated (skewness = -1.99; kurtosis = 3.28) and the degree of departure from normality and both values were found to be acceptable. The results of the robust standard errors approach indicated that all six Asian cultural values examined by AVS-R were not statistically significant (Table 4; Hayes & Cai, 2007).

Hypothesis 1

A bivariate correlation analysis was conducted using the AVS-R and Sexual Harassment Index scores to evaluate the strength and direction of the relationship between the study variables and the perception of sexual harassment (Table 1). The study variables included four Asian cultural values: conformity to social norms, collectivism, filial piety, and humility. Results showed that no significant correlations between each of the four Asian cultural values and the perception of sexual harassment were found. There were only weak negative correlations between these Asian cultural values and the perception of sexual harassment, indicating a non-significant trend in the predicted direction. The effect sizes, calculated using Pearson correlation coefficients, between the perception of sexual harassment and conformity to social norms ($r = -.16$), collectivism ($r = -.13$), and filial piety ($r = -.16$) were small but in the predicted direction

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(Cohen, 1988). The effect size for humility (r = -.03) indicated no effect. These results were inconsistent with the hypothesis of expecting significant negative correlations between the study variables and the perception of sexual harassment.

Hypothesis 2

Four three-stage moderation hierarchical regression models, as suggested by Petrocelli (2003), were conducted to examine the relative effect of the study variables on perception of sexual harassment (Figure 7). The study variables were divided into three domains and entered in separate models in the following order; (a) age and degree, (b) an Asian cultural value and the proxy for acculturation variable (years resided in the U.S.), and (c) an interaction variable (e.g., Years in U.S. x Conformity to Social Norms). The specific order of variable entry was chosen to allow for the determination of the extent to which each study variable contributed to the total variance of the dependent variable (perception of sexual harassment). Tables 5 through 8 presents the results of the moderation hierarchical regression using the Asian cultural value variables to predict the perception of sexual harassment. It shows the change in R^2 for each step of the regression and the standardized beta weight (β) for each predictor variable. The length of residency in the U.S. was found to be significantly correlated with age (r = .30; p = .003) and degree (r = .23; p = .02). To control for the effects of demographic variables, age and degree were included as covariates in the model and entered in the regression equation first (Iwamoto & Liu, 2010; Shaffer et al., 2000). Next, the components of Asian cultural value and the number of years in the United States were entered into separate models. To evaluate the interaction effect, each of the moderators was entered into the equation last. Four moderation hierarchical regression models were run separately for the four Asian cultural value components (conformity

to social norms, collectivism, filial piety, and humility). Intercorrelations between the regression variables are reported in Table 1; the regression statistics are summarized in Tables 5 through 8.

The first model analysis results revealed that at stage one, demographic variables (Age and Degree) accounted for 3% of the variation in perception of sexual harassment, $R^2 = .03$, F (2,99) = 1.46, $p = .24$. Introducing the Asian cultural value variable (Conformity to Social Norms) and a proxy for acculturation variable, after controlling for age and degree, explained an additional 3% of variation in perception of sexual harassment, R^2 Change = .03, F (2,97) = 1.34, $p = .27$. The effect size, calculated using Cohen's F-squared (Cohen, 1988), was .028. This result indicated a small effect. Adding the interaction variable (Years in U.S. x Conformity to Social Norms) to the regression model explained an additional 0.3% of the variation in perception of sexual harassment, R^2 Change = .003, F (1.96) = .356, $p = .56$. The effect size, calculated using Cohen's F-squared, was .003. This result indicated no effect. When all independent variables were included in stage three of the regression model, a total of 6% of the variance in perception of sexual harassment was accounted for by the study variables, $R^2 = .06$, F (5,96) = 1.19, $p = .32$, however, none of them were significant predictors (Table 5).

The second model analysis results revealed that at stage one, Age and Degree accounted for 3% of the variation in perception of sexual harassment, $R^2 = .03$, F (2,99) = 1.46, $p = .24$. Introducing the Asian cultural value variable (Collectivism) and a proxy for acculturation variable explained an additional 1% of variation in perception of sexual harassment, R^2 Change = .01, F (2,97) = .62, $p = .54$. The effect size, calculated using Cohen's F-squared, was .013. This result indicated weak to no effect. Adding the interaction variable (Years in U.S. x Collectivism) to the regression model explained an additional 0.1% of the variation in perception of sexual harassment, R^2 Change = .001, F (1,96) = .15, $p = .70$. The effect size, calculated using Cohen's

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F-squared, was .002. This result indicated no effect. When all independent variables were included in stage three of the regression model, a total of 4% of the variance in perception of sexual harassment was accounted for by the study variables, $R^2 = .04$, $F (5,96) = .85$, $p = .52$, however, none of them were significant predictors (Table 6).

The third model analysis results revealed that at stage one, Age and Degree accounted for 3% of the variation in perception of sexual harassment, $R^2 = .03$, $F (2,99) = 1.46$, $p = .24$. Introducing the Asian cultural value variable (Humility) and a proxy for acculturation variable explained an additional 3% of variation in perception of sexual harassment, R^2 Change $= .03$, $F (2,97) = 1.41$, $p = .25$. The effect size, calculated using Cohen's F-squared, was .029. This result indicated a small effect. Adding the interaction variable (Years in U.S. x Humility) to the regression model explained an additional 0.3% of the variation in perception of sexual harassment, R^2 Change $= .003$, $F (1,96) = .29$, $p = .59$. The effect size, calculated using Cohen's F-squared, was .003. This result indicated no effect. When all independent variables were included in stage three of the regression model, a total of 6% of the variance in perception of sexual harassment was accounted for by the study variables, $R^2 = .06$, $F (5,96) = 1.20$, $p = .31$, however, none of them were significant predictors (Table 7).

The fourth model analysis results revealed that at stage one, Age and Degree accounted for 3% of the variation in perception of sexual harassment, $R^2 = .03$, $F (2,99) = 1.46$, $p = .24$. Introducing the Asian cultural value variable (Filial Piety) and a proxy for acculturation variable explained an additional 0.3% of variation in perception of sexual harassment, R^2 Change $= .003$, $F (2,97) = .16$, $p = .85$. The effect size, calculated using Cohen's F-squared, was .003. This result indicated no effect. Adding the interaction variable (Years in U.S. x Filial Piety) to the regression model explained an additional 0.4% of the variation in perception of sexual harassment, R^2

Change = .004, F (1,96) = .41, p = .52. The effect size, calculated using Cohen's F-squared, was .004. This result indicated no effect. When all independent variables were included in stage three of the regression model, a total of 4% of the variance in perception of sexual harassment was accounted for by the study variables, R^2 = .04, F (5,96) = .72, p = .61, however, none of them were significant predictors (Table 8).

Results from all four moderation hierarchical regression models indicated that there was no statistically significant relationship between these Asian cultural values and the perception of sexual harassment, and that length of residency did not moderate the relationship between them. The p-value for each of these interaction terms was greater than .05 and therefore, cannot be deemed a significant source of moderation in the association between Asian cultural values and the perception of sexual harassment for female Chinese international students.

Hypothesis 3

A moderation hierarchical regression analysis was performed to evaluate the relationship effect of the study variables on depression (Petrocelli, 2003; Table 9; Figure 8). Study variables were grouped into three domains and entered in the following order; (a) age and degree, (b) experience of sexual harassment and the perception of sexual harassment, and (c) interaction variables (Sexual Harassment Experience x Sexual Harassment Perception). The specific order of variable entry was chosen to determine the contribution of each independent variable to the total variance of the dependent variable (e.g., depression). To control for the effect of demographic variables, age and degree were used as covariates in the model (Iwamoto & Liu, 2010) and entered into the regression equation first, after which the experience of sexual harassment and perception of sexual harassment were entered. The moderator was entered into

the equation last to examine interaction effects. Intercorrelations between the regression variables were reported in Table 1 and the regression statistics in Table 9.

The moderation hierarchical regression model analysis results revealed that at stage one, demographic variables (Age and Degree) accounted for 1% of the variation in depression, $R^2 = .01$, $F(2,99) = .28$, $p = .76$. Introducing the experience of sexual harassment and perception of sexual harassment variables explained an additional 9% of variation in depression, R^2 Change $= .09$, $F(2,97) = 4.53$, $p = .013$. The effect size, calculated using Cohen's F-squared, was .094. This result indicated a small to medium effect. Adding the interaction variable (SH Experience x SH Perception) to the regression model explained an additional 1% of the variation in depression, R^2 Change $= .01$, $F(1,96) = 1.09$, $p = .30$. The effect size, calculated using Cohen's F-squared, was .011. This result indicated weak to no effect. When all independent variables were included in stage three of the regression model, there was a substantial amount of variance in depression (10%) was explained by study variables, indicating there was no statistically significant relationship between the study variables and depression, $R^2 = .10$, $F(5,96) = 2.15$, $p = .07$. However, none of them were found to be significant predictors of depression. As shown in Table 9, when Age and Degree were controlled at stage two, the was a statistically significant main effect between experience of sexual harassment and depression, indicating that the experience of sexual harassment explained a significant proportion of variance in depression scores ($B = .15$, $\beta = .06$, $p = .01$). Analysis results for the moderator revealed a non-significant trending in the predicted direction indicating the interaction variable negatively influenced the association between the experience of sexual harassment and depression ($B = -.02$, $\beta = .02$, $p = .30$).

DISCUSSION

This study expands on previous research examining the sexual harassment experiences of female Chinese university students by examining how Asian cultural values affect their perceptions of sexual harassment, and how this perception may influence the severity of depressive symptoms resulting from sexual harassment experience. The most significant finding of this study is that there is a significant positive association between the experience of sexual harassment and depressive symptoms among female Chinese international students studying in the United States.

Based on the Hypothesis 1 data analysis, no significant correlation between Asian cultural values and the perception of sexual harassment was found, and none of the four Asian cultural values examined in the study significantly influenced participants' perceptions of sexual harassment. Humility was the value found to have a non-statistically significant but negative association with the perception of sexual harassment, suggesting that the higher students' adherence to humility, the lower their awareness and understanding of sexual harassment. This may be due to higher adherence to humility leading to more introspection and negative self-reflection and making internal attributions for their own and others' behaviors (e.g., failure and mistake) that leads to a higher tolerance of others and excusing their behaviors (Kim, Yang, et al., 2001; Tangney, 2000; White & Chan, 1983). Further, the correlations between each of the four Asian cultural values and the perception of sexual harassment were low, indicating low predictability, but their negative associations were aligned with the direction predicted in the hypothesis.

Although the study findings were unexpected to me, the results suggest that participants were able to identify types of sexual harassment. Participants scored an average of 12.72, with an

overall Sexual Harassment Index score of 16, which is higher than mean scores ranging from 9.58 to 10.76 reported in the Tang's study, indicating a better awareness and understanding of the definition of sexual harassment behaviors (Tang, Yik, et al., 1995). This may be because female students who were more interested in this topic and participated in the survey were much more likely to have had prior training in and be more knowledgeable about the topic. In other words, people who were willing to discuss their perception and experience of sexual harassment may view the topic with less associate stigma even though discussion of sex-related topics is a taboo and unwelcome in Chinese culture (Ruan, 2013; Tang, Yik, et al., 1995).

The Hypothesis 1 findings may also be explained by one or more critical factors not being considered in this study. For example, compared to Asian cultural values, sexual harassment-related educational efforts such as Title IX training may more directly influence an individual's knowledge and perception of sexual harassment. Research has shown that Title IX training and exposure to discussions involving sex-related topics can increase awareness and understanding of the concept of sexual harassment (Coker et al., 2015; Hill & Kearl, 2011). It may be better to consider Asian cultural values as a moderator in the relationship between education and perception of sexual harassment. Other important values such as face and emotional restraint and feeling of shame should also be considered for future investigations. Exploring these other factors may provide a deeper level of understanding of Chinese students' perception of sexual harassment. Future research should seek to assess which cultural values, or the ways in which Asian cultural values may influence the perception of sexual harassment. Additionally, future research should also explore whether there are other factors (e.g., sexual harassment-related education, sex education) that impact individuals' knowledge about, and perception of sexual harassment.

Furthermore, Asian Values Scale-Revised (Kim & Hong, 2004) was not developed or validated for Chinese international students but was originally developed for a participant base of 618 Asian Americans of which 24% were Chinese. In this study, The Asian Values Scale has a wide range of alpha scores some of which were below .70, which suggests that some subscale items may not be closely measuring the targeted underlying constructs. This differs from Kim et al.'s (1999) study that reported alpha scores ranging from .81 to .82, and Kim and colleague's (2005) study that reported an alpha score of .90 received from conducting the original 36-item Asian Cultural Values scale. A low alpha score can result from a small number of items, heterogeneous constructs, or poor interrelatedness between questions, which can be dealt with by revising or deleting some items (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Future research would benefit from validating the Asian Values Scale with Chinese-born students or utilizing a culturally specific value scale developed specifically for this student group in order to gain a deeper understanding of the challenges this specific population faces.

Contrary to my expectation for Hypothesis 2, the proxy for acculturation does not moderate the relationship between the four components of Asian cultural values and the perception of sexual harassment. Similar to the study variables in Hypothesis 1, the number of years residing in the United States had a low level of correlation with the perception of sexual harassment, indicating low predictability. This finding may be due to the wide range of length of residency reported by the participants (from less than a year to 19 years), and the missing information regarding the number of sexual harassment-related training experiences and the association of this number with the length of residency. The low level of association between the Asian cultural values used in this study and the perception of sexual harassment may also have contributed to the findings in Hypothesis 2.

Other Hypothesis 2 findings included a non-statistically significant but positive relationship between degree/educational level and the perception of sexual harassment, suggesting that students with a higher educational level may have better awareness and understanding of sexual harassment. This may be due to mandatory Title IX trainings that graduate students must complete as a condition of their employment, and their exposure to sexual harassment topics through peer discussion, media, and relevant events (e.g., sexual assault awareness month) (Hill & Kearl, 2011). The findings also indicated that there is a significant positive relationship between age, degree, and length of residency in the U.S., suggesting that female Chinese international students whose educational level is higher (e.g., doctoral) tend to be older and have resided in the United States for a longer period of time. Future research should further explore the relationships between degree, length of residency, education, and perception of sexual harassment among international students.

For Hypothesis 3, my results suggested that the perception of sexual harassment does not significantly moderate the relationship between the experience of sexual harassment and depression, which is contrary to the expectation. This may be due to the low negative correlation between the perception of sexual harassment and depression, and the perception and experience of sexual harassment, which indicates low predictability. This finding also shows a non-significant trend in the predicted direction, indicating that the perception of sexual harassment negatively affects the relationship between the experience of sexual harassment and depressive symptoms. Furthermore, the findings also show that the experience of sexual harassment is significantly and positively associated with depression symptoms among female Chinese international students. In other words, female Chinese international students who experienced sexual harassment behaviors reported feeling more depressed than those who did not. This

finding is consistent with previous studies that have highlighted and supported sexual harassment as a psychological stressor, and the association between experiencing sexual harassment and depressive symptoms (Buchanan et al., 2018; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Kearl, 2018).

Depressive symptoms as a psychological stress reaction to sexual harassment is not only influenced by the experience itself, but also by individuals' assessment of the level of threat to their well-being and available coping resources to help deal with the incident, which may be related to attitude toward sexual harassment and sexual harassment-related education and training (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Lazarus, 1993). The perception of sexual harassment is positively associated with both negative attitudes toward and low tolerance of sexual harassment, and with sexual harassment-related training (Coker et al., 2015; McCabe & Hardman, 2005). Negative attitudes toward sexually harassing behaviors may affect how such behaviors, attribution of responsibility, and reactions to sexual harassment are interpreted, which may influence the mental health outcomes that result from such incidents (Feiring et al., 2002; Merkin, 2008; Sigal et al., 2005). Future research should explore the relationships between attitudes toward and experience of sexual harassment, relevant training experiences, and depressive symptoms.

Limitations

There are several limitations inherent to this study that affect the generalizability of the findings of this study. One of the major limitations for this study is that any sexually related topic is viewed as a "hush-hush" topic in Chinese culture in general, and in the Chinese student population in particular (J. Chan et al., 2019; Tang et al., 1996). It is not uncommon to have low response rates on sexual harassment surveys as it is a socially sensitive research topic (Quick & McFadyen, 2017). Due to negative perceptions of, attitudes toward, and sensitivity to sex-related

topics, female Chinese international students who were able to overcome their inherent discomfort with this topic sufficiently to participate in the study survey may be more interested in this issue than those who decided not to participate. They may be more open to learning about and discussing information related to sexual harassment and possess a higher level of awareness of the nature of sexual harassment behaviors. Many female students that participated in this study scored high on the Sexual Harassment Index, indicating greater knowledge about, and perception of sexual harassment that might not be representative of the general Chinese international student population. Additionally, more graduate students than undergraduate students participated in the study, indicating that they may be older and have resided in the United States for a longer period. Due to the now widespread mandatory Title IX training, graduate students with graduate assistantships in the U.S. may also have had greater exposure to the concept of sexual harassment, and consequently a deeper understanding of the concept. Future research should consider the extent of students' prior sexual harassment-related training experiences (e.g., Title IX training, bystander education, sex education), and how such training influenced their interpretation of sexual harassment behaviors. The generalizability of this research could be strengthened by future studies that focus their participant recruitment on a wider variety of universities (type and geography) whose students possess a broader range of knowledge about and understanding of the concept of sexual harassment.

A second limitation of the current study is the relatively small sample size. The significant challenges we faced in participant recruitment in the 15-month duration of the research project can be attributed not only to investigating a stigmatized topic like sexual harassment but were also compounded by the severe challenges posed by the COVID-19 pandemic. The worldwide COVID-19 pandemic created many negative impacts on not only

student physical and mental health, but also through amplified financial and academic stressors, which may have made it more challenging for students to complete a questionnaire, especially a non-COVID related one. Further, many Chinese international students were dealing with intense stress resulting from witnessing and experiencing COVID-19-related anti-Asian discrimination on societal, organizational, and interpersonal levels (e.g., anti-immigrant policy, anti-Asian hate crimes, the usage of the phrase China flu and Chinese virus). Students may have experienced interpersonal discrimination directly through receiving overt and covert reactions (e.g., verbal abuse, microaggressions), and indirectly by listening to other the negative experiences in person and online of other Chinese students (Hahm et al., 2021). These reasons mentioned above may have contributed to the high incompletion rate of the survey (49%). Future researchers may not experience the same pandemic-related challenges and have greater access to recruiting participants that results in a wider diversity of participants.

The third limitation of this study is the relatively low level of participant diversity in gender and sexual diversity (e.g., sexual orientation, related minorities), and major fields of study. Though this is due to the specific nature of the research design, future research can consider studying a more diverse group. According to research on college campuses, gender and sexual minority students are particularly vulnerable to sexual violence, including sexual harassment, when compared to their non-sexual-minority peers (Edwards et al., 2015; Martin-Storey et al., 2018). Transgender and gender-nonbinary students were found to be significantly more likely to report experiences of sexual violence. Cisgender women and men with sexual orientations other than heterosexual were also at higher risk of sexual harassment (Martin-Storey et al., 2018). Sexual harassment experiences may result in deleterious effects on student mental health and academic performance. As the current study focuses solely on female Chinese

international students studying in the United States, the findings may not be generalizable to students of other gender and sexual identities, or to students whose country of origin is other than China. Further, more than one third of the participants were from the social science fields (43%), which may also influence the generalizability of the results to students in other fields. 25% of participants were from STEM fields in this study. International students from China accounted for 35% of the 914,000 international students studying in the United States in 2020-2021, among whom 54% pursue STEM field majors (172,746 students; Institute of International Education, 2021). Since the proportion of STEM international students is large and about one-third of that population is female (62% are from China and India), it is important that future studies include data collected from the students in those fields. Additionally, according to a study of female STEM students and sexual harassment (Leaper & Starr, 2019), many female STEM students have experienced sexual harassment at least once in their college years. Future literature would significantly benefit from additional research examining the experiences of sexual harassment among a more diverse population.

Another possible limitation involves the use of translated scales in the study. More than half of 102 participants who selected the Chinese version of the questionnaire took the survey in their native language rather than their second or third language (English). However, there may have been some limitations involved in the efforts to create an accurate translation from English to Chinese of all the phrases and their meanings even after the translation and back-translation method was applied (Shaffer et al., 2000). Two native Chinese translators further examined and discussed the usage of some Chinese phrases in each scale and encountered some difficulties finding the most suitable terms. For example, it was challenging to translate the following phrases into Chinese: "sufficient inner resources" from "*One should have sufficient inner*

resources to resolve emotional problems" and "bringing displeasure to ancestors" from "*One should avoid bringing displeasure to one's ancestors*." Some participants also pointed out after completing the questionnaire that they could understand the meaning of the phrases, but the wording chosen seemed unnatural to them.

A final limitation of this study is related to data collection. First, there was one item, due to technical problems, missing from the Sexual Harassment Index on the Qualtrics-based survey (e.g., one item was unable to be presented its Chinese version). Although one item may not greatly affect the alpha level and analysis results, it still had an impact on the total and average scores. Additionally, when collecting demographic data, the data describing the country where the students lived prior to studying in the United States was not collected, which may have affected the evaluation of the proxy for acculturation factor (e.g., years residing in the United States). Individuals who had previous experience of living in western countries (e.g., Europe) prior to coming to the United States may have had different or more impactful acculturation experiences and better understanding of social and cultural norms in the U.S. than those who came directly from China (J. Lee, 2010; J. Lee & Rice, 2007). Future research would benefit from collecting more detailed demographic and survey data to better understand the influence of varied factors on Chinese international students' perception of sexual harassment and acculturation experiences. Despite these limitations, the current study has important implications for the inclusion and counseling of Chinese international students on U.S. university campuses.

Implications

The findings from the current study provide important insights and clinical implications for female Chinese international students who have experienced sexual harassment. Due to the strong association between the experience of sexual harassment and depressive symptoms (when

controlling for age and degree) among female Chinese international students and the many other stressors that these students may be experiencing (e.g., minority status, being women of color, language barriers), it is particularly important for mental health professionals to be mindful of the deleterious effects of sexual harassment on different areas of the life of this vulnerable population (Berdahl & Moore, 2006; Buchanan & West, 2010; I. Ho et al., 2018). International students may also have access to lower levels of support, and insufficient coping resources to effectively deal with experiences of sexual harassment when they first arrive the United States due to lack of relevant discussion and education and cultural adjustment. For example, Asian international students are less likely than their White peers to use counseling services due to stigma on mental health services, language barriers, and cultural differences (e.g., worrying about bringing shame to themselves and their families) (Bonistall Postel, 2020). Due to the sensitive nature of the topic of sexual harassment, and how Chinese individuals view the discussion of sex-related topics, it is critical that mental health practitioners be very careful not to make any assumptions without being fully aware of the clients' cultural beliefs (e.g., saving face, conformity to norms). For example, the relationship between the humility value and the perception of sexual harassment in this study shows the influence of cultural values on awareness and understanding of sexually harassing behaviors. Asian cultural values like emotional self-control, maintaining the reputation of the family and self, and respect for authority figures and elders may also contribute to the difficulties that Chinese female clients' experience in expressing their negative emotions and disclosing their experiences of sexual harassment (Kim & Park, 2015; Kim, Atkinson, et al., 2001). To provide the critical help that female Chinese international student clients who have experienced sexual harassment need and to better serve this population, mental health professionals would benefit from learning about Asian cultural

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values and behaviors. This training and education should include information about the specific psychological stressors and challenges experienced by Chinese international students, and the application of a culturally sensitive practice and trauma-informed care. Research has indicated that cultural humility serves as a guiding philosophy for a trauma-informed care practice, and cultural humility also helps prevent assumption making and a power-over communication style by mental health professionals (Ranjbar et al., 2020). It is, therefore, crucial that mental health practitioners approach therapy with cultural sensitivity and humility.

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SEXUAL HARASSMENT SURVEY

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION FORM

Please answer each question as accurately as possible by selecting the correct answer or filling in the space provided.

Gender:

☐Male   ☐Female   ☐Non-binary/Gender Non-Conforming   ☐Transgender

☐Other: _____   ☐Prefer Not to Say

Sexual Orientation:

☐Heterosexual   ☐Gay   ☐Lesbian   ☐Bisexual   ☐Asexual

☐Other: _____   ☐Prefer Not to Say

What province/municipality/autonomous or administrative region are you from (China)? _____

How many years have you resided in the United States? _____

Age. Please write your answer in numeric (e.g., 23). _____

What university are you currently attending? _____

What type of degree level are you pursuing currently?

☐Bachelor   ☐Master's   ☐Doctoral   ☐Post-doctoral

What is your current field of study? _____

What is your year of enrollment at current university? Please write your answer in numeric (e.g., 2018). _____

How many years have you been working on your current degree? Please write your answer in numeric (e.g., 2 for 2 years). _____

What is your year of anticipated graduation? Please write your answer in numeric (e.g., 2018).

_____

ASIAN VALUES SCALE-REVISED (AVS-R)

Indicate the extent to which you agree with value expressed in each statement.

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
One should not deviate from familial and social norms.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Children should not place their parents in retirement homes.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One need not focus all energies on one's studies.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One should be discouraged from talking about one's accomplishments.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Younger persons should be able to confront their elders.	☐	☐	☐	☐
When one receives a gift, one should reciprocate with a gift of equal or greater value.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One need not achieve academically in order to make one's parents proud.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One need not minimize or depreciate one's own achievements.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One should consider the need s of others before considering one's own needs.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Educational and career achievements need not be one's top priority.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One should think about one's group before oneself.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One should be able to question a person in an authority position.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Modesty is an important quality for a person.	☐	☐	☐	☐

One's achievements should be viewed as family's achievements.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One should avoid bringing displeasure to one's ancestors.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One should have sufficient inner resources to resolve emotional problems.	☐	☐	☐	☐
The worst thing one can do is to bring disgrace to one's family reputation.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One need not remain reserved and tranquil.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One should be humble and modest.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Family's reputation is not the primary social concern.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One need not be able to resolve psychological problems on one's own.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Occupational failure does not bring shame to the family.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One need not follow the role expectations (gender, family hierarchy) of one's family.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One should not make waves.	☐	☐	☐	☐
One need not control one's expression of emotions.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Note. Total scale score is computed by adding the scores on the 25 items, where responses range from 1 (strongly disagree) to 4 (strongly agree). Subscale scores are calculated by summing the scores on each of the following categories: conformity to social norms, family recognition through achievement, emotional self-control, collectivism, humility, and filial piety.

APPENDIX D

SEXUAL HARASSMENT INDEX (SHI)

Please indicate whether the following behaviors constitute sexual harassment.

Please answer each item:

	Yes	No
Making remarks about body or other features relating to your sex	☐	☐
Talking or joking about your gender	☐	☐
Unwanted pressure for dates	☐	☐
Unwanted sexually suggestive looks or gestures	☐	☐
Unwanted leaning over or cornering	☐	☐
Unwanted intimate behaviors: putting arm around your shoulders or taking your hand	☐	☐
Unwanted intimate behaviors: putting arm around your waist	☐	☐
Unwanted intimate behaviors: pressing or caressing your leg	☐	☐
Unwanted intimate behaviors: kissing	☐	☐
Unwanted intimate behaviors: touching sex organs	☐	☐
Unwanted disclosure of personal or emotional matters	☐	☐
Unwanted letters or phone calls which are of a sexual nature	☐	☐
Unwanted display of visual materials of a sexual nature (e.g., slides, photos, posters, pamphlets, etc.)	☐	☐
Asking for sexual activity as a condition for certain benefits	☐	☐
Unwanted pressure for sexual activity	☐	☐

Note. Total scale score is computed by adding the scores on the 15 items, where responses range from 0 (no) to 1 (yes). The original scale includes 16 items; item 8 is missing from this survey due to technical problems with Qualtrics.

APPENDIX E

SEXUAL EXPERIENCES QUESTIONNAIRE (SEQ)-SHORTENED VERSION

We will now be asking you some questions related to your experience with sexual harassment. This is a reminder that the responses are anonymous and cannot be associated with you.

Read each of the situations listed and then check the box that matches how often you have had this experience. Some questions may appear repetitive, but please answer them despite this.

When at the university, have you ever been in a situation where any individuals…

	How often did this happen?				
	Never	Once	Some times	Often	Very Often
Habitually told suggestive stories or offensive jokes?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Made unwanted attempts to draw you into a discussion of personal or sexual matters (e.g., attempted to discuss or comment on your sex life)?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Made crude and offensive sexual remarks, either publicly (e.g., in the office), or to you privately?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Treated you "differently" because of your sex (e.g., mistreated, slighted, or ignored you)?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Gave you unwanted sexual attention?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials (e.g., pictures, stories, or pornography)?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Frequently made sexist remarks (e.g., suggesting that women are too emotional to be scientists or that men should not be the primary caretakers of children because they are not nurturing?)	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Attempted to establish a romantic relationship with you despite your efforts to discourage this person?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
"Put you down" or was condescending to you because of your sex?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Has continued to ask you for a date, drinks, dinner, etc., even though you have said "no"?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Made you feel like you were being subtly bribed with some sort of reward or special treatment to engage in sexual behavior?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Made you feel subtly threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative (e.g., the mention of an upcoming evaluation, review, etc.)?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Touched you (e.g., laid a hand on your bare arm, put an arm around your shoulders) in a way that made you feel uncomfortable?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Made unwanted attempts to stroke or fondle you (e.g., stroking your leg or neck, etc.)?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Made unwanted attempts to have sex with you that resulted in you pleading, crying, or physically struggling?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Implied faster promotions or better treatment if you were sexually cooperative?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Made it necessary for you to respond positively to sexual or social invitations in order to be well-treated on the job or at school?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Made you afraid you would be treated poorly if you did not cooperate sexually?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Treated you badly for refusing to have sex?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Note. Total scale score is computed by adding the scores on the 19 items, where responses range from 0 (never) to 4 (very often).

APPENDIX F

PATIENT HEALTH QUESTIONNAIRE-9 (PHQ-9)

Over the last 2 weeks, how often have you been bothered by any of the following problems? Please indicate your answer for each statement:

	Not at all	Several days	More than half the days	Nearly every day
Little interest or pleasure in doing things	☐	☐	☐	☐
Feeling down, depressed, or hopeless	☐	☐	☐	☐
Trouble falling or staying asleep, or sleeping too much	☐	☐	☐	☐
Feeling tired or having little energy	☐	☐	☐	☐
Poor appetite or overeating	☐	☐	☐	☐
Feeling bad about yourself — or that you are a failure or have let yourself or your family down	☐	☐	☐	☐
Trouble concentrating on things, such as reading the newspaper or watching television	☐	☐	☐	☐
Moving or speaking so slowly that other people could have noticed? Or the opposite — being so fidgety or restless that you have been moving around a lot more than usual	☐	☐	☐	☐
Thoughts that you would be better off dead or of hurting yourself in some way	☐	☐	☐	☐

Note. Total scale score is computed by adding the scores on the nine items, where responses range from 0 (not at all) to 3 (nearly every day).

APPENDIX G

TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Study Variables

Variable	Mean	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Age	24.98	3.88	---											
2. Degree Level	2.26	.82	.67**	---										
3. Years in U.S.	4.56	3.55	.30**	.23*	---									
4. Conformity to Social Norms	2.25	.38	-.17	-.17	.01	---								
5. Family Recognition	2.17	.39	.09	.02	-.04	.38**	---							
6. Emotion Self Control	2.91	.59	-.06	-.13	-.21*	.34**	.14	---						
7. Collectivism	2.30	.60	-.05	-.16	.08	.50**	.22*	.36**	---					
8. Humility	2.43	.36	-.02	-.02	.18	.36**	.25*	.02	.42**	---				
9. Filial Piety	2.37	.42	-.09	-.08	.16	.56**	.29**	.24*	.46**	.45**	---			
10. SH Perception	12.72	4.07	-.03	.10	-.05	-.16	-.12	.10	-.13	-.16	-.03	---		
11. SH Experience	8.24	8.03	.11	.04	-.02	-.02	.17	.001	.07	-.02	-.11	-.05	---	
12. Depressive Symptoms	6.60	4.84	-.08	-.05	-.17	.26**	.33**	.13	.08	.006	.06	-.15	.25*	--

Note. *N* = 102. Years in U.S. = years resided in the U.S./ length of residency. SH = sexual harassment.

* *p* ≤ .05. ** *p* ≤ .01.

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Table 2

Collinearity Statistics: AVS-R and SHI

Variable	VIF	Tolerance
(constant)		
Conformity to Social Norms	1.91	.53
Family Recognition through Achievement	1.23	.81
Emotional Self-control	1.26	.80
Collectivism	1.67	.60
Humility	1.43	.70
Filial Piety	1.69	.59

Table 3

Collinearity Statistics: SEQ and PHQ-9

Variable	VIF	Tolerance
(constant)		
SEQ	1.08	.92

Table 4

Multiple Regression with Robust Standard Errors Results for Perception of Sexual Harassment

Parameter	*B*	*Robust SE*	*Sig.*	95% *CI*	
				LL	*UL*
Intercept	16.31	2.69	<.001	10.98	21.64
Conformity to Social Norms	-1.99	1.32	.13	-4.62	.64
Family Recognition through Achievement	-.72	.96	.45	-2.62	1.18
Emotional Self-control	1.27	.73	.08	-.17	2.71
Collectivism	-.74	.92	.43	-2.57	1.09
Humility	-1.14	1.53	.46	-4.17	1.90
Filial Piety	1.36	1.19	.25	-.99	3.71

Table 5

Moderation Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Perception of Sexual Harassment, Conformity to Social Norms, and Length of Residency

Variable	*B*	*SE*	*β*	*t*	*p*	*R*	*R²*	*ΔR²*	*f²*
Step 1						.17	.03	.03	
Age	-.19	.14	-.18	-1.35	.18				
Degree	1.11	.66	.22	1.68	.10				
Step 2						.23	.06	.03	.028
Age	-.20	.14	-.19	-1.37	.17				
Degree	1.05	.66	.21	1.59	.12				
Years in U.S.	-.05	.12	-.04	-.41	.69				
Conformity to Social Norms	-1.68	1.08	-.16	-1.56	.12				
Step 3						.24	.06	.003	.003
Age	-.21	.15	-.20	-1.45	.15				
Degree	1.10	.67	.22	1.64	.10				
Years in U.S.	-.51	.79	-.45	-.65	.52				
Conformity to Social Norms	-2.56	1.83	-.24	-1.40	.16				
Years in U.S. × Conformity to Social Norms	.21	.35	.42	.60	.55				

Note. N = 102. Years in U.S. = years resided in the U.S./ length of residency.

Table 6

Moderation Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Perception of Sexual Harassment and Collectivism, and Length of Residency

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	R	R^2	ΔR^2	f^2
Step 1						.17	.03	.03	
Age	-.19	.14	-.18	-1.35	.18				
Degree	1.11	.66	.22	1.68	.10				
Step 2						.20	.04	.01	.013
Age	-.17	.14	-.16	-1.16	.25				
Degree	1.01	.67	.20	1.49	.14				
Years in U.S.	-.05	.12	-.04	-.41	.69				
Collectivism	-.69	.69	-.10	-.99	.32				
Step 3						.21	.04	.001	.002
Age	-.17	.14	-.16	-1.19	.24				
Degree	1.03	.68	.21	1.51	.13				
Years in U.S.	-.28	.61	-.24	-.46	.65				
Collectivism	-1.08	1.23	-.16	-.88	.38				
Years in U.S. × Collectivism	.10	.25	.22	.39	.70				

Note. $N = 102$. Years in U.S. = years resided in the U.S./ length of residency.

Table 7

Moderation Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Perception of Sexual Harassment and

Humility, and Length of Residency

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	R	R^2	ΔR^2	f^2
Step 1						.17	.03	.03	
Age	-.19	.14	-.18	-1.35	.18				
Degree	1.11	.66	.22	1.68	.10				
Step 2						.24	.06	.03	.029
Age	-.19	.14	-.18	-1.31	.19				
Degree	1.12	.66	.22	1.70	.09				
Years in U.S.	-.02	.12	-.02	-.20	.84				
Humility	-1.80	1.13	-.16	-1.60	.11				
Step 3						.24	.06	.003	.003
Age	-.18	.14	-.18	-1.29	.20				
Degree	1.10	.66	.22	1.67	.10				
Years in U.S.	-.59	1.05	-.51	-.56	.58				
Humility	-2.80	2.16	-.25	-1.29	.20				
Years in U.S. × Humility	.22	.41	.52	.54	.59				

Note. $N = 102$. Years in U.S. = years resided in the U.S./ length of residency.

Table 8

Moderation Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Perception of Sexual Harassment and Filial Piety, and Length of Residency

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	R	R^2	ΔR^2	f^2
Step 1						.17	.03	.03	
Age	-.19	.14	-.18	-1.35	.18				
Degree	1.11	.66	.22	1.68	.10				
Step 2						.18	.03	.003	.003
Age	-.18	.14	-.17	-1.23	.22				
Degree	1.12	.67	.23	1.68	.10				
Years in U.S.	-.06	.12	-.05	-.45	.65				
Filial Piety	-.24	.99	-.02	-.24	.81				
Step 3						.19	.04	.004	.004
Age	-.18	.14	-.18	-1.27	.21				
Degree	1.17	.67	.24	1.74	.09				
Years in U.S.	-.54	.77	-.47	-.71	.48				
Filial Piety	-1.21	1.81	-.12	-.67	.51				
Years in U.S. × Filial Piety	.19	.30	.46	.64	.52				

Note. N = 102. Years in U.S. = years resided in the U.S./ length of residency.

Table 9

Moderation Hierarchical Regression Analyses for Depression, Sexual Harassment Experience, and Perception of Sexual Harassment

Variable	B	SE	β	t	p	R	R^2	ΔR^2	f^2
Step 1						.08	.006	.006	
Age	-.10	.17	.17	-.57	.57				
Degree	.01	.79	.79	.02	.99				
Step 2						.30	.09	.09*	.094
Age	-.17	.16	.16	-1.07	.29				
Degree	.30	.78	.78	.38	.70				
SH Experience	.15	.06	.06	2.58*	.01				
SH Perception	-.17	.12	.12	-1.45	.15				
Step 3						.32	.10	.01	.011
Age	-.14	.17	.17	-.83	.41				
Degree	.14	.79	.79	.18	.86				
SH Experience	.41	.26	.26	1.60	.11				
SH Perception	-.01	.20	.20	-.03	.98				
SH Experience × SH Perception	-.02	.02	.02	-1.04	.30				

Note. $N = 102$. SH = sexual harassment.

* $p \leq .05$.

Figure 1

Residual Scatterplot: AVS-R and SHI
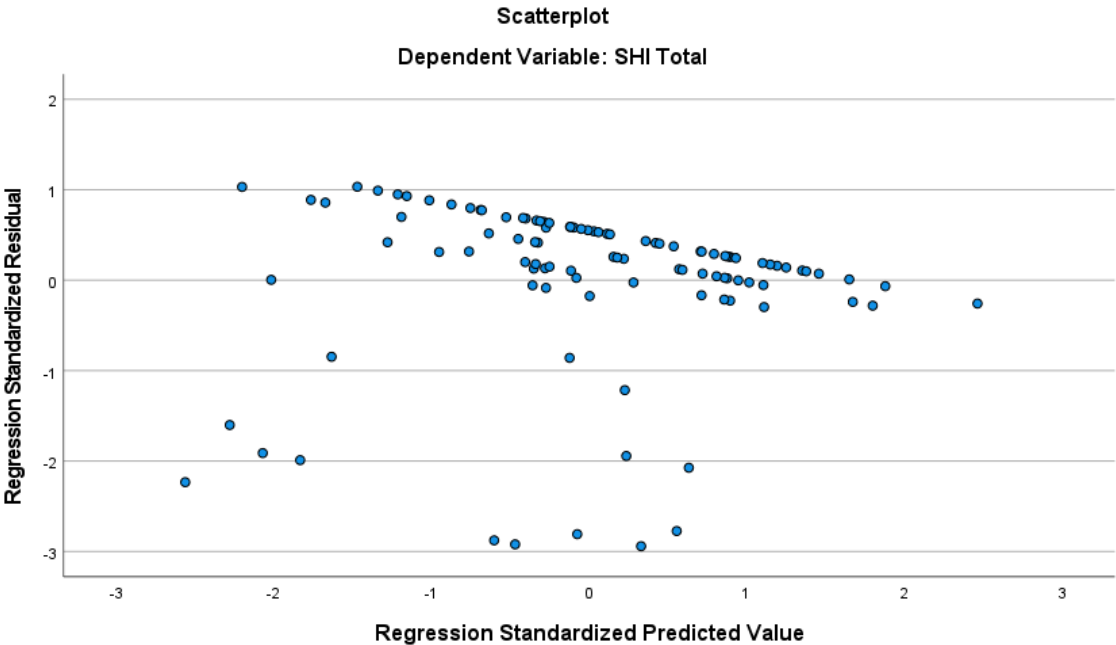
Figure 2
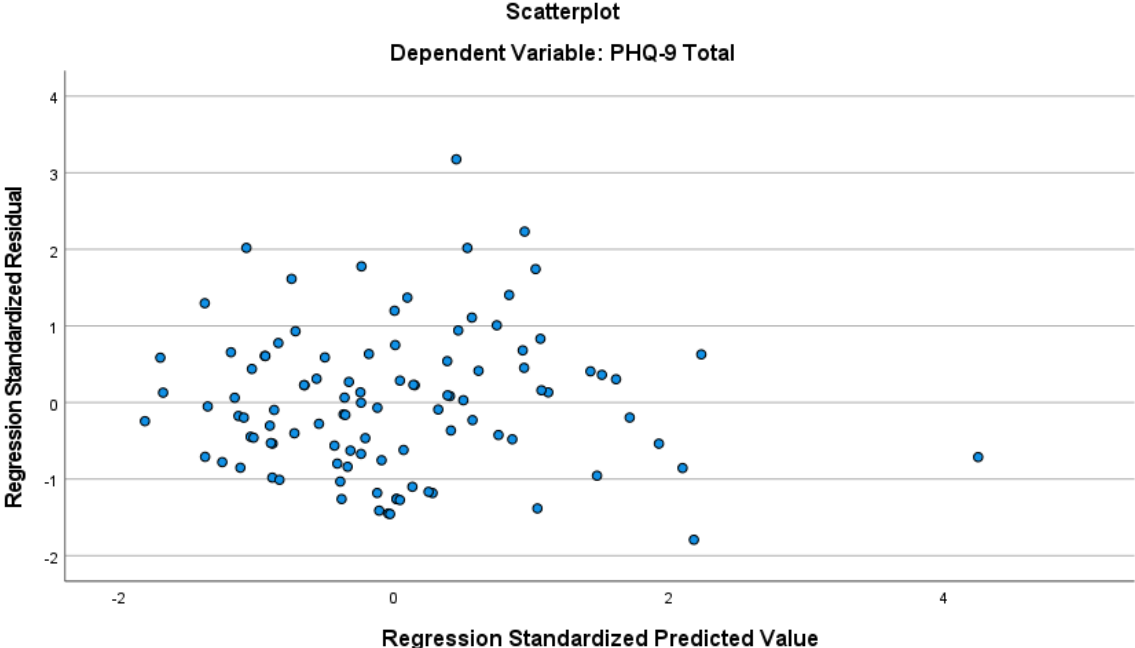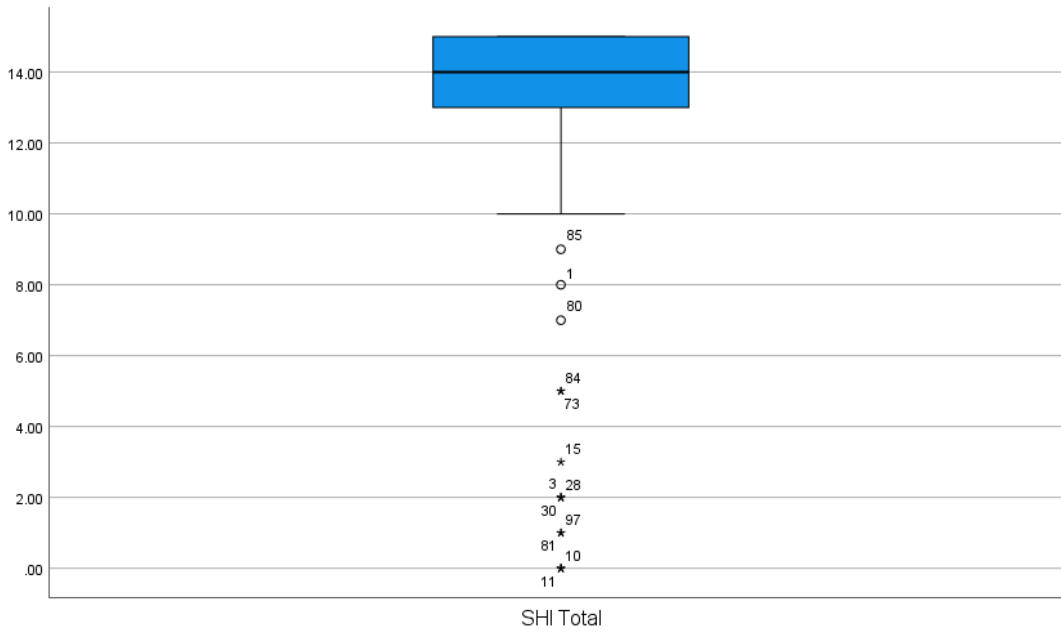
Residual Scatterplot: SEQ and PHQ-9

Scatterplot
Dependent Variable: PHQ-9 Total

Figure 3

Boxplot: AVS-R and SHI

Figure 4

Boxplot: SEQ and PHQ-9
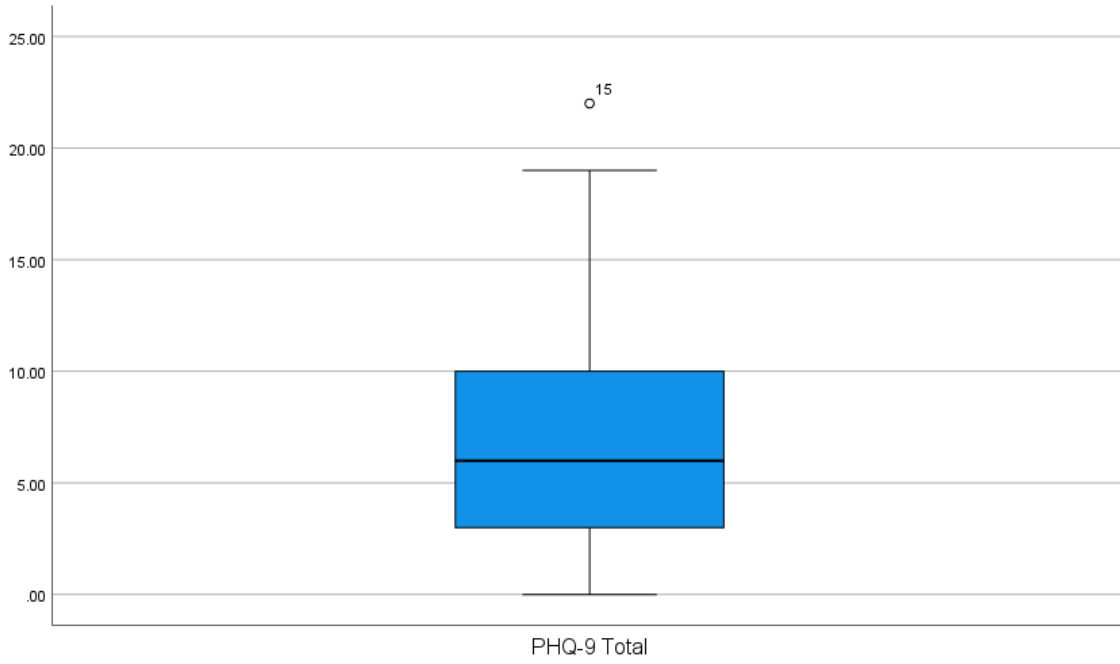
Figure 5

Histogram: AVS-R and SHI

101
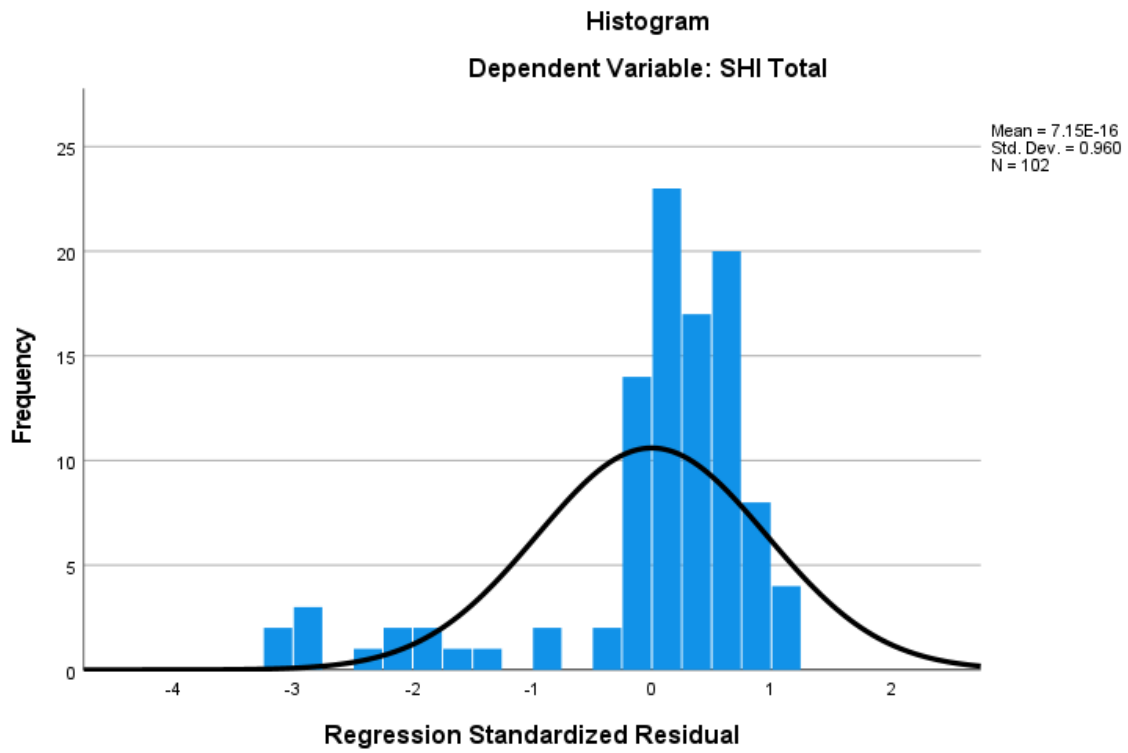
Figure 6

Histogram: SEQ and PHQ-9

Histogram
Dependent Variable: PHQ-9 Total

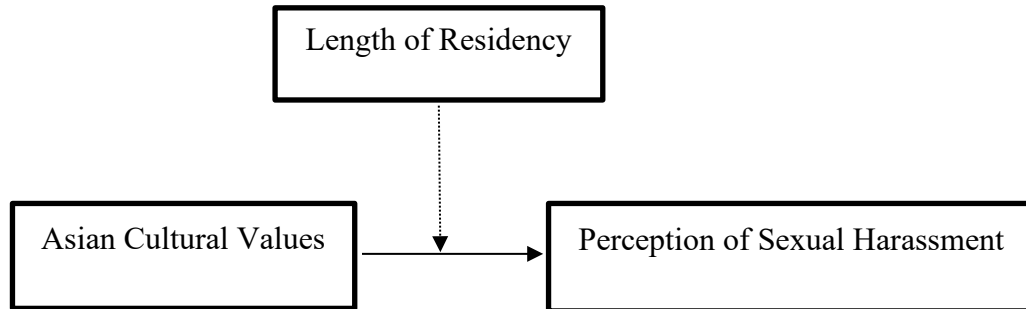Mean = -5.38E-16
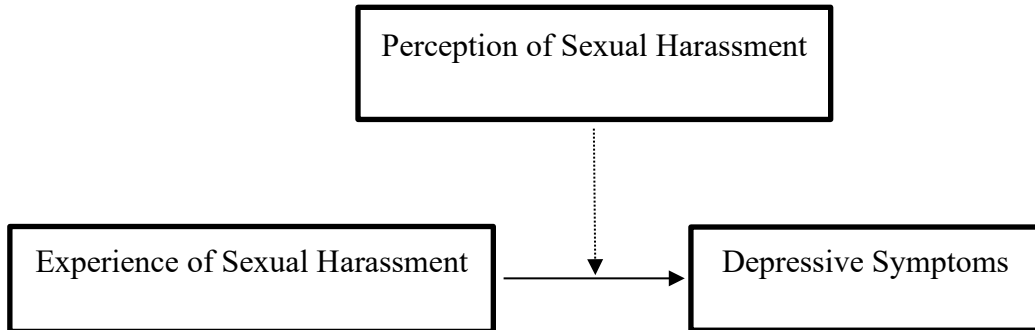Std. Dev. = 0.923
N = 102
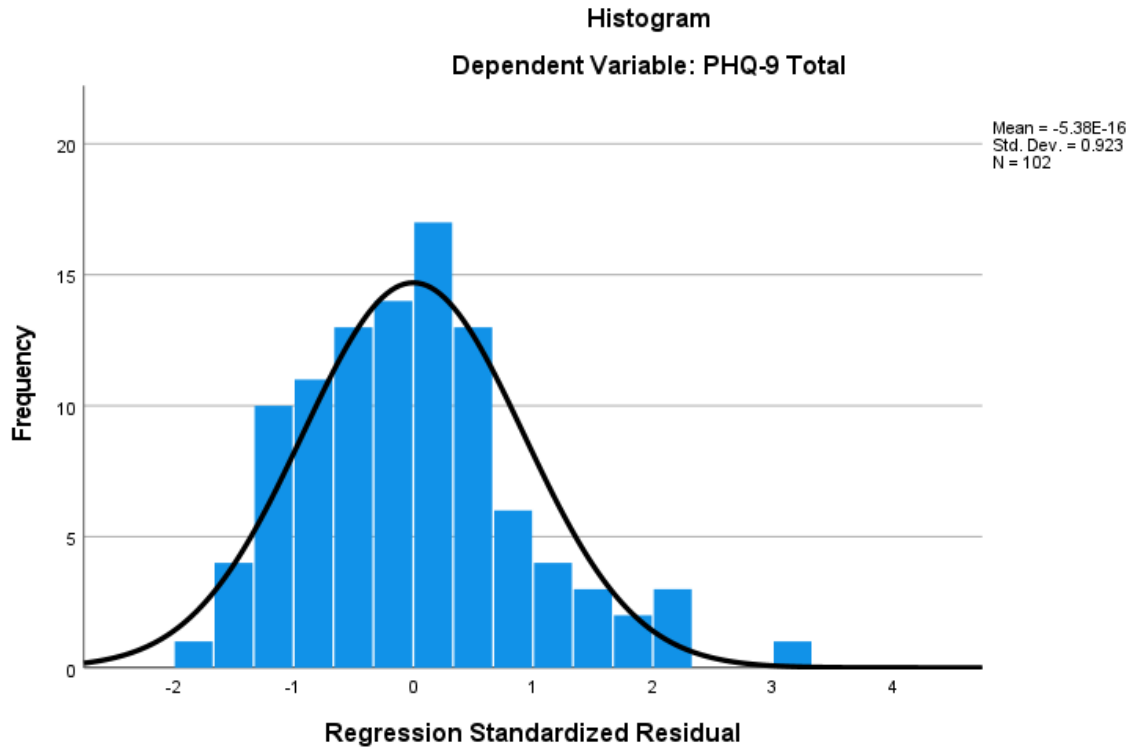
Figure 7

Hypothesis 2 Moderation Hierarchical Regression Model

Note. Age and degree were included in this model as covariates. The Asian cultural value variables used in the study were conformity to social norms, collectivism, humility, and filial piety.

Figure 8

Hypothesis 3 Moderation Hierarchical Regression Model

Note. Age and degree were included in this model as covariates.