

# Did They Even Know It Was Harassment? Shifting Perceptions Through Information\*

Aysu Avci<sup>†</sup>      Lídia Farre<sup>‡</sup>      Libertad González<sup>§</sup>

June 6, 2026

## Abstract

We study the extent to which perceptions of sexual harassment at work can be modified through a light information intervention. We conducted an online survey with 12,000 respondents in Spain, and we asked which of six behaviors they classified as sexual harassment. Respondents were then randomly assigned to control and treatment groups, with the treatment group receiving published statistics on how the Spanish population classifies these behaviors. Then, we re-elicited perceptions, and also asked whether the respondent had experienced such behaviors (victimization) or engaged in them (perpetration). We find that the information treatment significantly increased the fraction of respondents classifying severe behaviors (e.g., groping) as harassment, with no significant effect on milder behaviors (e.g., insulting jokes). Victimization reports were largely unaffected, with only marginal evidence of an increase in reports of hearing insulting jokes, while perpetration was more responsive, with the treatment increasing acknowledgment of making insulting jokes as well as (marginally) more severe behaviors. Our findings provide a basis for understanding how interventions can shape perceptions of workplace sexual harassment<sup>1</sup>.

**Keywords:** workplace sexual harassment, perceptions, information treatment

**JEL Codes:** J16, J71, J81

---

\*Farré and González acknowledge financial support from the Agencia Estatal de Investigación (AEI) through the Severo Ochoa Program: Grant CEX2024-001476-S funded by MICIU/AEI/10.13039/501100011033/. Farré acknowledges funding from the Ministry of Science and Innovation (grant PID2022-1402060B-I00) and González from Icrea Acadèmia.

<sup>†</sup>Universitat Pompeu Fabra (UPF).

<sup>‡</sup>Institut d'Anàlisi Econòmica of the Consejo Superior de Investigaciones Científicas (IAE-CSIC) & Barcelona School of Economics (BSE).

<sup>§</sup>Universitat Pompeu Fabra (UPF), Barcelona School of Economics (BSE) & IZA Institute of Labor Economics.

<sup>1</sup>The three authors made substantial contributions to the different parts of the paper.

# 1 Introduction

Sexual harassment in the workplace imposes considerable mental health burdens on victims and entails severe economic consequences for both workers and employers. Recent research consistently shows that harassment worsens victims' job satisfaction, increases their intention to leave, and lowers their productivity (Antecol and Cobb-Clark, 2001, 2004, 2006; Folke and Rickne, 2022). The resulting loss of productivity and higher turnover impose costs on employers, and, in addition, firms in harassment-prone jobs face the extra burden of paying compensating wage premia to attract and retain workers (Hersch, 2011, 2018). Folke and Rickne (2022) show that both men and women (but especially women) are willing to trade off wages to avoid workplaces where they perceive a higher risk of harassment. Furthermore, Adams-Prassl et al. (2023) find that when male employees assault female coworkers, not only do the victims leave, but other women in the firm are also more likely to quit. Together, these dynamics contribute to persistent gender segregation and the gender pay gap, as risk groups avoid harassment-prone environments.

The high prevalence of workplace sexual harassment adds to these serious consequences. In Europe, around one in three women (31%) who have ever worked report having experienced unwanted behavior with sexual connotations in the workplace (EU-GBV 2021). In the United States, 17.5% of women and 7.8% of men working in government positions experienced it in the past two years alone (US Merit Systems Protection Board 2023). In Spain, the numbers are also alarming: 16% of women and 13% of men reported experiencing sexual harassment at work during the last 12 months (EWC Survey 2021). Yet, these numbers should be interpreted with caution, as prevalence rates depend heavily on how sexual harassment is defined and perceived, which can vary across individuals and countries. One commonly referenced definition—used by the UN Secretariat, ILO Convention, EU Directives, and Spain's Organic Law 3/2007—defines sexual harassment as unwelcome conduct of a sexual nature, whether verbal, non-verbal, or physical, that has the purpose or effect of violating a person's dignity or

creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating, or offensive environment.

Given its high prevalence and far-reaching consequences in the labor market, sexual harassment constitutes a central topic of study. An important issue is the extent to which individuals are able to identify specific behaviors as sexual harassment, which can potentially affect their reactions (in terms of reporting or even perpetration). We investigate whether perceptions of sexual harassment at work can be shifted through a simple information intervention. Specifically, we conducted an online survey of 12,000 respondents drawn from a representative sample of the Spanish population, in which participants were asked about their perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment at work for specific behaviors, as well as their own experiences of victimization and perpetration. To test our research question, we implemented a simple information treatment that shared published statistics on how the Spanish population classifies workplace behaviors as sexual harassment, thereby exposing respondents to the views of others. Individuals were randomly assigned to treatment and control groups, with the treatment group receiving the information treatment after reporting their views regarding the types of workplace behaviors that can be considered sexual harassment. Later in the survey, both groups were asked again about their views, as well as about their perceptions of victimization and perpetration based on their own experiences.

Previous research shows that, while many individuals report experiencing potentially harassing behaviors, only a subset categorize those experiences as sexual harassment (Ilies et al., 2003). In this study, we focus on perceptions regarding which behaviors can be classified as harassment, and also on experiences of victimization or perpetration (regardless of actual reporting of the behavior to an authority). As recognition of sexual harassment is shaped by prevailing social norms and beliefs, some victims and perpetrators may not fully recognize that certain behaviors "count" as harassment. Prior research shows that with evolving norms and beliefs, the willingness to label certain workplace behaviors as harassment has increased over time, indicating that such perceptions are malleable (Antecol and Cobb-Clark, 2004). This provides a compelling basis for examining the effectiveness of our treatment.

A previous study by Antecol and Cobb-Clark (2003) examined whether participation in sexual harassment training changes people's attitudes, finding that such training is linked to a higher tendency (particularly among men) to label certain behaviors as harassment. Their design relies on variation in whether individuals self-report having attended some form of sexual harassment training. By contrast, our study uses a randomized design to provide causal evidence on whether perceptions of workplace harassment can be shifted through an intervention. Hence, we contribute to the literature by testing (via a survey experiment) whether perceptions of sexual harassment can be modified, thus establishing a clear foundation for understanding the role of interventions in shaping beliefs.

The design of our intervention has several advantages. First, it is simple and essentially costless. In a real workplace, our information treatment could be communicated, for instance, through a poster or a short notice, without requiring additional time commitments from employees or substantial resources from firms. Second, unlike more intensive sexual harassment training that can trigger backlash (especially among men in male-dominated sectors, where harassment reports are more frequent, see (Coly and Suteau, 2025)) this type of light intervention is less likely to be perceived as accusatory or personally threatening. Hence, assessing the effectiveness of such a simple intervention in shaping perceptions of sexual harassment holds (potentially) great value, especially as it has the potential to lead to behavior change.

This potential is illustrated by research in other domains, which shows that interventions shifting perceptions can indeed lead to meaningful behavioral change. For instance, Bursztyn et al. (2020) surveyed Saudi men about their attitudes toward women working outside the home and found that men systematically underestimated other men's support for female employment. Using an information treatment similar to ours, men in the treatment group were shown charts revealing that most of their peers privately supported women's labor force participation. Correcting this misperception increased the likelihood that their wives subsequently applied for and interviewed for jobs outside the home. This evidence underscores the potential of simple, information-based interventions to shift beliefs and, ultimately, influence behavior,

supporting the broader motivation behind our study.

Overall, we find that our simple information treatment made respondents more likely to classify certain behaviors as sexual harassment, in particular for more severe behaviors (sexual innuendos, requests for sexual relations, unwanted touching, and pressure to obtain sexual favors under threats). The treatment raised the fraction of respondents classifying these behaviors as harassment by 3–4 percentage points. By contrast, we do not find significant effects for milder behaviors, such as gender-related insulting comments or jokes. The treatment effect is concentrated among respondents who had not initially classified these behaviors as sexual harassment, but revised their views after receiving the information.

In the second part of our analysis, we ask respondents whether they have personally experienced specific behaviors at work (victimization) or engaged in them themselves (perpetration). Regarding victimization, we find only marginal evidence of an effect of the treatment, limited to reports of hearing gender-based insulting comments or jokes, where the treatment raised the fraction reporting such experiences by about 2 percentage points. Finally, regarding perpetration, the intervention increased the fraction of respondents acknowledging having made gender-based insulting comments or jokes by about 4 percentage points. We also find marginal evidence of smaller effects (1–2 percentage points) for jokes directed at a coworker and for threats tied to rejecting sexual advances.

The rest of the paper is structured as follows. Section 2 describes the data collection process and the main variables, and provides descriptive statistics. Section 3 outlines the empirical strategy, and Section 4 presents the main results. Finally, Section 5 concludes with a discussion of the results and additional implications.

## **2 Data and Descriptive Statistics**

We conducted an online survey to measure perceptions of sexual harassment and to implement the information treatment in a representative sample of the Spanish population aged

24 to 50. The survey was conducted in two waves: the first in May 2024, covering 8,000 respondents, and the second in December 2024, covering 4,000 respondents. This yields a total sample of 12,000 individuals. In both waves, in addition to the main questions, we collected information on demographics (e.g., age, education) and labor market characteristics (e.g., employment status, sector), which are later used as control variables in our analysis. Detailed information on these variables is provided in Appendix Table A1. Table 1 presents summary statistics for the full sample. Our respondents are 39 years old on average, 52 percent are women, and 87 percent are employed. Appendix Tables A2 and A3 present the distribution of key characteristics by wave and by treatment status, respectively, and show no substantial differences across groups.

Table 1: Summary Statistics

	Mean	St. Dev.	Min	Median	Max
Treated	0.50	0.50	0.00	0.50	1.00
<b>Demographics</b>					
Female (=1)	0.52	0.50	0.00	1.00	1.00
Age	38.76	7.51	24.00	40.00	50.00
Highest degree: bachelor or equivalent (=1)	0.57	0.49	0.00	1.00	1.00
Highest degree: postgraduate degree (=1)	0.27	0.45	0.00	0.00	1.00
<b>Labor Market Characteristics</b>					
Currently employed (=1)	0.87	0.34	0.00	1.00	1.00
Works in public sector (=1)	0.19	0.39	0.00	0.00	1.00
Holds a supervisor position (=1)	0.20	0.40	0.00	0.00	1.00
Net monthly salary (€)	1223.06	996.16	0.00	1500.00	6000.00

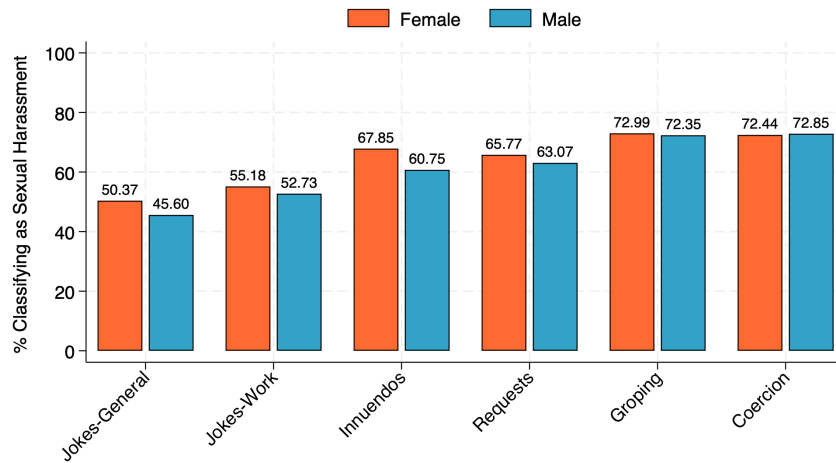
*Notes:* The table reports descriptive statistics for the control variables in the analysis. Binary variables take the value 1 if the condition is met and 0 otherwise. Net monthly salary is reported in euros. “Highest degree: bachelor or equivalent” refers to respondents whose highest educational attainment is a bachelor’s degree or an equivalent qualification, such as vocational education and training. “Highest degree: postgraduate” refers to respondents whose highest educational attainment is a master’s or doctoral degree.

In both waves, respondents were first asked about their perceptions of sexual harassment in the workplace <sup>2</sup>. Specifically, they were presented with six behaviors and asked to answer “yes” if they considered the behavior to constitute sexual harassment and “no” otherwise. The

<sup>2</sup>The exact questionnaire item can be found in Appendix Figure B1.

behaviors were: (i) insulting comments or jokes about women or men in general, (ii) insulting comments or jokes about a specific (male or female) worker, (iii) sexual innuendos or hints, (iv) repeatedly requesting sex without pressure or threats, (v) unwanted touching, pinching, cornering, hugging, or kissing, and (vi) pressure to obtain sexual favors in exchange for job improvements or under threat of dismissal. For ease of reference, we refer to these behaviors as "jokes-general", "jokes-work", "suggestions", "requests", "groping", and "coercion", respectively.

Figure 1: Perceptions of Sexual Harassment by Gender



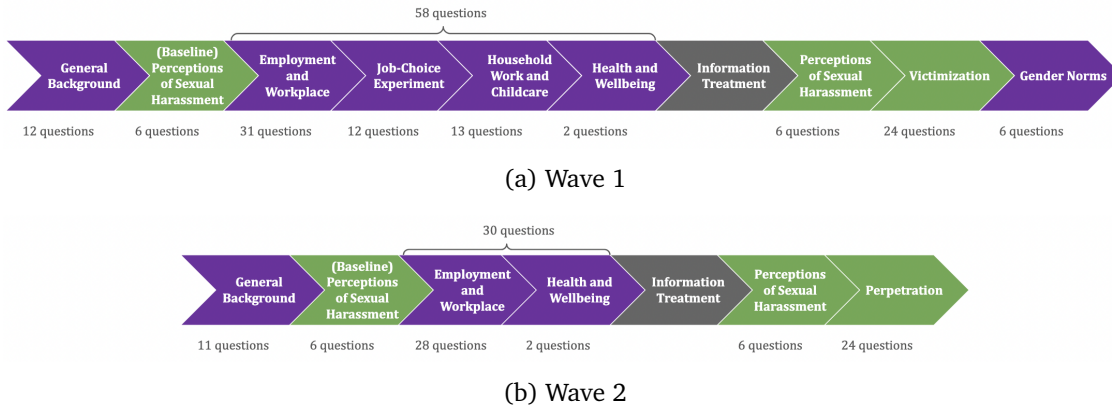
Notes: The figure shows the share of respondents who classify each listed workplace behavior as sexual harassment, reported separately for men and women. The behaviors correspond to: (i) insulting comments or jokes in general (Jokes-General), (ii) insulting comments or jokes about a coworker (Jokes-Work), (iii) sexual innuendos or hints (Innuendos), (iv) repeated requests for sexual relations (Requests), (v) unwanted physical contact (Groping), and (vi) pressure to obtain sexual favors for job improvements or under threats (Coercion). Percentages are based on the baseline survey responses prior to treatment.

Figure 1 displays the share of respondents who classify each behavior as sexual harassment, broken down by gender. Across all behaviors, women are more likely than men to consider them as harassment. The lowest proportion for both genders concerns insulting gender-related comments or jokes, while the highest are the ones for groping and coercion.

Figure 2 shows the structure of the survey in each wave, as well as the number of questions included in each module. After the first elicitation of perceptions, respondents completed a long intervening survey section before the information treatment (58 questions in the first wave, 30 in the second). This section included modules on employment and workplace char-

acteristics, job-choice tasks, household work and childcare responsibilities, and health and well-being.

Figure 2: Timeline and Structure of the Survey Experiment

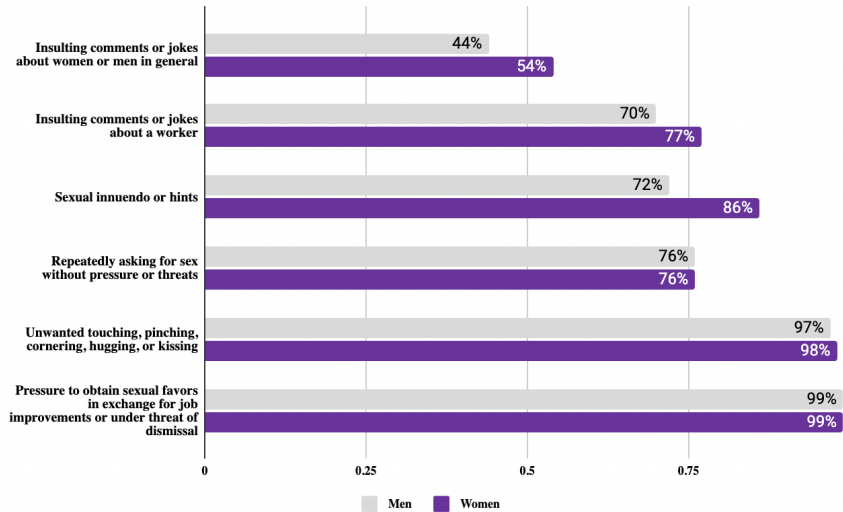


The exact length varied by respondent because several questions were conditional on employment and family status<sup>3</sup>. Only then did the treatment group receive the information intervention. At the end of the survey, both the (randomly assigned) treatment and control groups were again asked about their perceptions of sexual harassment. The phrasing of the perception questions was identical to the initial one (the order of the perception questions was not randomized). This structure minimizes the likelihood that respondents simply remembered or repeated their earlier answers, allowing us to better isolate the effect of the treatment.

The information treatment consisted of sharing official statistics from a survey conducted by the Center for Sociological Research of the Ministry of the Presidency of the Spanish Government with a sample of 2,500 individuals. As illustrated in Figure 3, the results showed the percentage of men and women who considered the same set of behaviors as sexual harassment. After receiving the information treatment, respondents were again asked about their perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment, allowing us to examine whether the treatment led to any changes in perceptions.

<sup>3</sup>Wave 2 followed a shorter structure, omitting the job-choice experiment and the household work and childcare modules.

Figure 3: Information Treatment



Notes: This figure shows the exact plot shared with respondents in the information treatment. Statistics are from an official survey by the Center for Sociological Research of the Ministry of the Presidency of the Spanish Government (n = 2,500). The survey and labels are in Spanish; from top to bottom, the corresponding variables in the analysis are “jokes-general,” “jokes-work,” “suggestions,” “requests,” “groping,” and “coercion”. Results are shown by gender, with purple bars for women and gray bars for men.

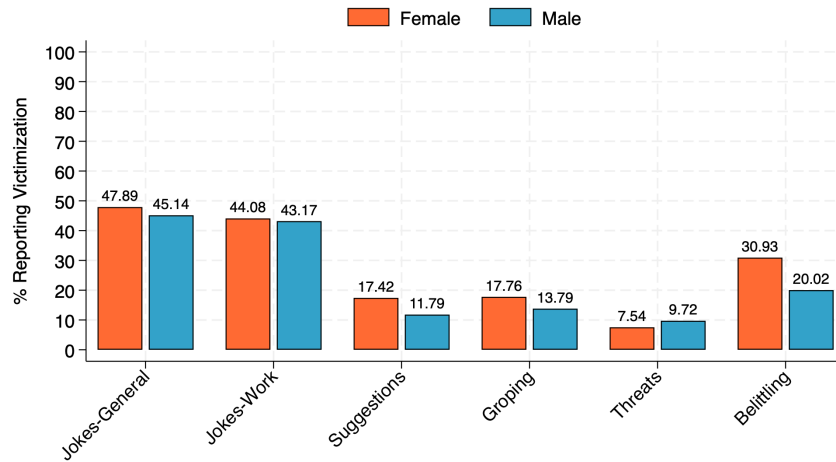
In addition to asking respondents about their perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment, we also asked whether they had either experienced or perpetrated such behaviors in the workplace <sup>4</sup>. In the first wave (8,000 respondents), we asked about victimization; in the second wave (4,000 respondents), we asked about perpetration. Each group was asked about their own experiences involving: hearing insulting comments or jokes about women or men in general, hearing insulting comments or jokes about a specific worker, receiving inappropriate sexual suggestions, experiencing unwanted physical contact, receiving threats of negative job consequences for rejecting sexual advances, and being belittled because of one’s gender. We refer to these behaviors as “jokes-general”, “jokes-work”, “suggestions”, “groping”, “threats”, and “belittling”, respectively.

As shown in Figure 4, women report more instances of workplace victimization than men across all behaviors, with the exception of Threats. Consistent with this pattern, Figure 5 shows that men report more instances of workplace perpetration across all behaviors. The more

<sup>4</sup>The questionnaire items used in the survey can be found in Appendix Figure B2.

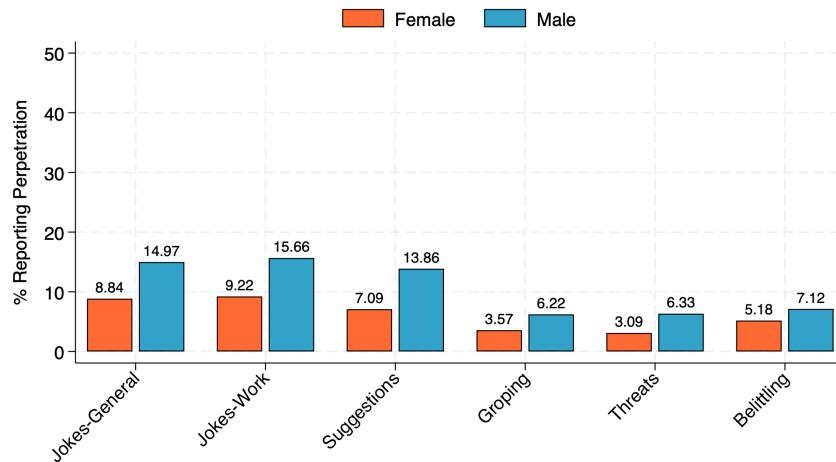
common (and milder) behaviors are also the ones less likely to be perceived as harassment.

Figure 4: Self-reported Victimization by Gender



Notes: This figure reports the share of respondents who state that they have personally experienced victimization of each listed workplace behavior, by gender. The behaviors correspond to: (i) insulting comments or jokes in general (Jokes-General), (ii) insulting comments or jokes about a coworker (Jokes-Work), (iii) inappropriate sexual suggestions (Suggestions), (iv) unwanted physical contact (Groping), (v) threats of negative job consequences for rejecting sexual advances (Threats), and (vi) being belittled because of one's gender (Belittling).

Figure 5: Self-reported Perpetration by Gender



Notes: This figure reports the share of respondents who state that they have personally engaged in perpetrating each listed workplace behavior, by gender. The behaviors correspond to: (i) insulting comments or jokes in general (Jokes-General), (ii) insulting comments or jokes about a coworker (Jokes-Work), (iii) inappropriate sexual suggestions (Suggestions), (iv) unwanted physical contact (Groping), (v) threats of negative job consequences for rejecting sexual advances (Threats), and (vi) belittling because of one's gender (Belittling).

### 3 Empirical Strategy

We randomly assign individuals to either the treatment or the control group. The treatment group receives the information intervention, after which we measure post-treatment perceptions of sexual harassment in the workplace. All respondents are asked whether specific behaviors constitute sexual harassment. In addition, one subsample is asked whether they have experienced these behaviors (victimization), while another subsample is asked whether they have perpetrated them. This experimental design provides a clean setting to assess the causal effect of the information treatment on respondents' perceptions. We estimate the following specification:

$$Y_{ik} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Treatment}_i + \beta' \mathbf{X}_i + \epsilon_i, \quad (1)$$

where  $Y_{ik}$  is a binary indicator equal to one if respondent  $i$  answered “yes” to one of the perception questions about behavior  $k$ . We asked perception questions for six different behaviors, hence  $k \in \{1, \dots, 6\}$ .  $\text{Treatment}_i$  is a binary indicator equal to one if the respondent received the treatment; hence  $\beta_1$  is the coefficient of interest, capturing the average treatment effect.  $\mathbf{X}_i$  is a vector of respondent-level controls, including demographics (age, region, and education level), labor market characteristics (unemployment status, public sector employment, supervisor status, and net salary), and survey wave (victimization and perpetration questions were asked in different waves).<sup>5</sup>

One might expect the effect of the treatment to differ across respondent characteristics. For instance, the treatment may be more effective for men than for women, or for those with different initial perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment. To examine such heterogeneity, we estimate the following specification with interactions between the treatment indicator and

---

<sup>5</sup>As some responses to these control variables were unknown or missing, we include corresponding missing-value indicators.

both prior belief and gender:

$$\begin{aligned}
Y_{ik} = & \beta_0 + \beta_1 \text{Treatment}_i + \beta_2 \text{PriorBelief}_{ik} + \beta_3 \text{Female}_i \\
& + \beta_4 (\text{Treatment}_i \times \text{PriorBelief}_{ik}) + \beta_5 (\text{Treatment}_i \times \text{Female}_i) \\
& + \beta' \mathbf{X}_i + \epsilon_i
\end{aligned} \tag{2}$$

In this specification, the baseline group consists of male respondents who did not initially classify the behavior as sexual harassment (i.e.,  $\text{Female}_i = 0$  and  $\text{PriorBelief}_i = 0$ ). The coefficient  $\beta_1$  therefore captures the effect of the treatment for this baseline group.  $\text{PriorBelief}_{ik}$  is a binary indicator equal to one if respondent  $i$  classified behavior  $k$  as sexual harassment prior to the treatment. Accordingly,  $\beta_2$  captures the difference in answers between those who did and did not initially consider the behavior as harassment, holding other factors constant. To test for heterogeneity by prior belief, we include the interaction term  $\text{Treatment}_i \times \text{PriorBelief}_{ik}$  where  $\beta_4$  captures how the effect of the treatment differs between respondents who initially classified the behavior as harassment and those who did not.

Similarly, we include the gender dummy  $\text{Female}_i$  which equals one if respondent  $i$  is a woman. The coefficient  $\beta_3$  captures the difference in levels between male and female respondents (in the control group). The interaction term  $\text{Treatment}_i \times \text{Female}_i$  allows the treatment effect to vary by gender, with  $\beta_5$  indicating whether the effect of the treatment differs significantly between men and women.

## 4 Results

This section presents our estimated effects of the information treatment on perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment, as well as on perceptions of victimization and perpetration experiences.

## 4.1 Perceptions of what behaviors constitute sexual harassment

Figure 6 displays our estimated effects of the information treatment on perceptions of whether the different behaviors constitute sexual harassment at the workplace. The figure summarizes results from separate OLS regressions (as outlined in Equation 1) for each of the six behaviors: jokes-general, jokes-work, innuendos, requests, groping, and coercion. The full regression output is reported in Appendix Table A4.

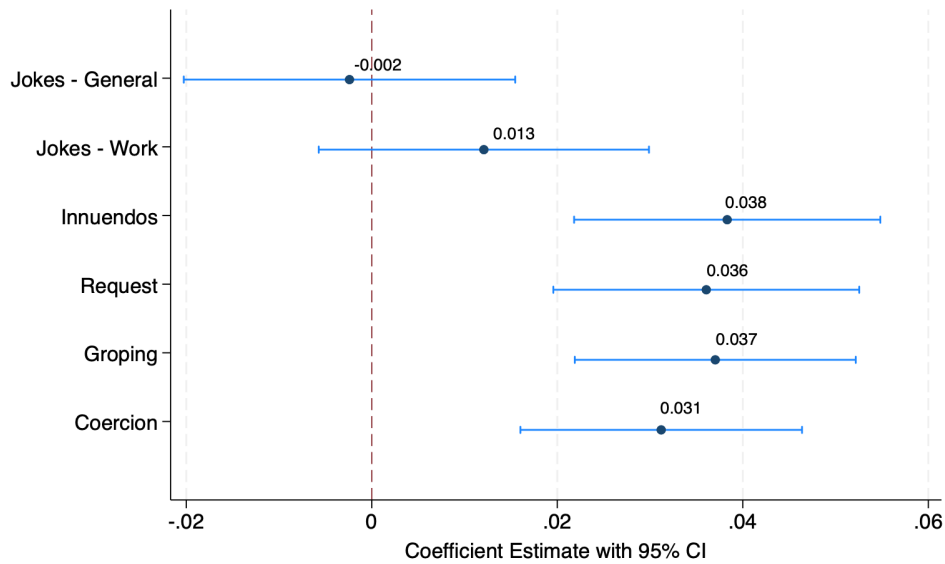
As shown in the plot, posterior beliefs regarding jokes-general and jokes-work do not differ significantly between the control and treatment groups, suggesting that the information treatment does not meaningfully alter respondents' perceptions of gender-based insulting comments or jokes as sexual harassment. Note that jokes are the behaviors with the lowest fraction of respondents classifying them as sexual harassment, both in the information treatment (see Figure 3) and in our baseline beliefs (see Figure 1).

On the other hand, for the remaining four behaviors (sexual innuendos, requests for sexual relations, unwanted touching, and coercion), respondents who received the information treatment are significantly more likely to classify them as sexual harassment. The treatment leads to an increase of around 4 percentage points in the fraction of respondents who categorize sexual innuendos, requests for sexual relations, and unwanted touching as sexual harassment, relative to the control group. Similarly, the treatment increases the fraction who categorize pressure to obtain sexual favors in exchange for job improvements or threats as sexual harassment by about 3 percentage points.

These effects may reflect changes in beliefs as a result of the information treatment, but they may also derive from changes in reporting due to social desirability concerns. Two elements minimize the importance of social desirability in our setting. First, the survey is completely anonymous (and completed online). Second, there are many questions in between the first and the second elicitation of beliefs (see Figure 2). To further strengthen our interpretation, we conduct two additional checks. First, we interact the treatment indicator with a proxy for

"low effort" respondents <sup>6</sup>. We find no differential effect for low-effort respondents, who may be more likely to react "superficially" (see Appendix Table A5). Second, we show (see Appendix Table A6) that the treatment had no effect on reported gender attitudes (unrelated to sexual harassment but perhaps reactive to enhanced social desirability concerns).

Figure 6: Effect Size of Treatment on Perceptions of Sexual Harassment at Work



Notes: Each point represents the OLS estimate of the effect of the binary treatment indicator on the probability of classifying the listed workplace behavior as sexual harassment (1 = yes), with 95% confidence intervals shown. Each coefficient comes from a separate regression, one for each behavior: jokes-general, jokes-work, innuendos, requests, groping, and coercion. All regressions control for age, gender, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, wave, and corresponding missing-value indicators. Exact coefficient estimates are displayed next to each point. Robust standard errors were used.

Because we have six behaviors of interest, we address the issue of multiple hypothesis testing by combining our six outcomes into a single perceptions index, which is just the sum of the six indicators (measuring the number of behaviors that a respondent classifies as sexual harassment). We then estimate Equation 1 for this index. The result is shown in Column 1 of Appendix Table A7. The information treatment increases the number of behaviors classified as sexual harassment by 0.057, and this effect is statistically different from zero.

<sup>6</sup>We define as "low effort" respondents with missing values in at least two of three labor market questions (earnings, public sector employment, and supervisor status). About 19% of respondents are classified as "low effort".

To analyze the heterogeneity of the treatment effect by prior stated beliefs and gender, we estimate the specification outlined in Equation 2. Table 2 reports our estimated coefficients for the treatment indicator and its interactions with gender and prior belief (whether the respondent initially classified the respective behavior as sexual harassment). Not surprisingly, prior beliefs are strong predictors of the post-treatment classification of a behavior as sexual harassment. Across all behaviors, individuals who initially classified a behavior as harassment are roughly 70 percentage points more likely to do so in the follow-up, holding other factors constant.

Table 2: Heterogeneous Effects of Treatment on Perceptions of Sexual Harassment at Work

	Jokes-General	Jokes-Work	Innuendos	Request	Groping	Coercion
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Treated	0.022** (0.011)	0.033*** (0.012)	0.084*** (0.014)	0.076*** (0.014)	0.106*** (0.016)	0.096*** (0.016)
Prior Belief	0.724*** (0.009)	0.717*** (0.009)	0.694*** (0.010)	0.702*** (0.010)	0.702*** (0.011)	0.695*** (0.011)
Female	0.022** (0.009)	0.019** (0.009)	0.035*** (0.009)	0.028*** (0.009)	0.020** (0.008)	0.023*** (0.008)
Treated × Prior Belief	-0.032** (0.013)	-0.055*** (0.013)	-0.086*** (0.015)	-0.076*** (0.014)	-0.093*** (0.016)	-0.087*** (0.016)
Treated × Female	-0.001 (0.013)	0.008 (0.013)	0.010 (0.013)	0.014 (0.012)	-0.002 (0.011)	0.005 (0.011)
Controls	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000
R-squared	0.504	0.480	0.469	0.487	0.486	0.478
Avg. DV	0.487	0.546	0.682	0.684	0.761	0.759

Notes: Each column reports OLS estimates of the effect of the binary treatment indicator on the probability of classifying the listed workplace behavior as sexual harassment (1 = yes). Behaviors are jokes-general, jokes-work, innuendos, requests, groping, and coercion. Prior Belief is a binary indicator for whether the respondent initially classified the behavior as sexual harassment before the treatment. Female is a binary indicator for respondent gender. Interaction terms capture differential treatment effects by prior belief and by gender. All regressions control for age, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, wave, and corresponding missing-value indicators. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \* $p < 0.1$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

Table 2 shows that, for the baseline group (male respondents who did not initially classify the behavior as harassment), treatment leads to a 2–3 percentage-point increase in the fraction classifying sexist jokes as harassment. The negative and significant interaction with initial belief

indicates that the treatment effect is concentrated among respondents who initially did not classify the behavior as harassment. For example, for insulting jokes about a specific worker, Column (2), the treatment increases the fraction of respondents who classify the behavior as harassment by 3.3 percentage points for the baseline group.

A similar pattern is observed for all behaviors. The treatment was effective in altering perceptions for respondents who initially did not classify behaviors as sexual harassment, and the effect is larger for more severe behaviors (for which the treatment is also less ambiguous). For example, treatment increases the fraction who report that groping is harassment by 10.6 percentage points for the baseline group, while the effect is essentially 0 for those who had initially categorized groping as sexual harassment (i.e. there is no adjustment downwards). Additionally, across all behaviors, women are 2–3.5 percentage points more likely to classify all behaviors as sexual harassment compared to men. We do not find evidence of heterogeneity in the treatment effect by gender, as none of the interaction terms are statistically significant.

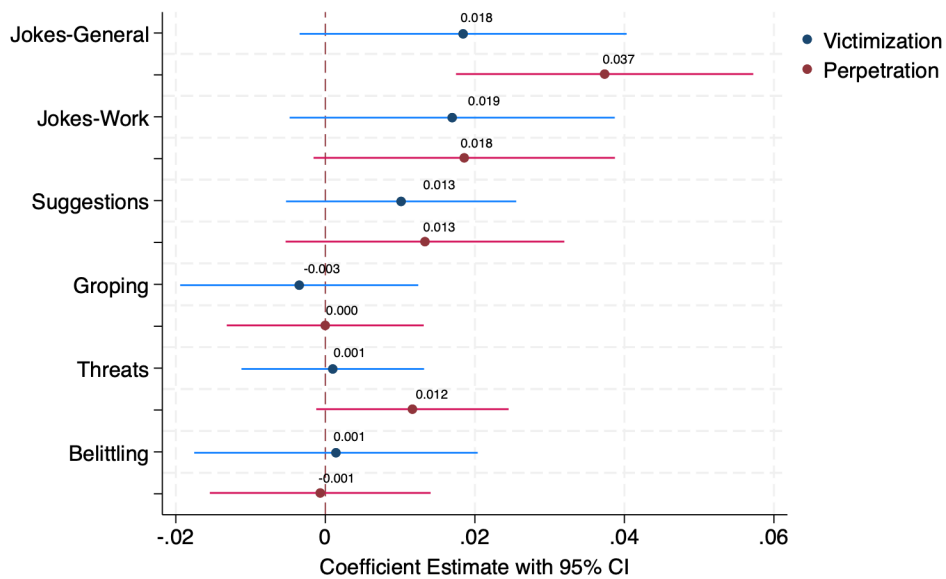
We also explore heterogeneity in the estimated effects by survey wave. Appendix Table A8 shows the results for a specification that interacts the treatment indicator with Wave 1. The coefficient on the interaction is not significantly different from zero at the 95% confidence level for any of the six behaviors.

## **4.2 Perceptions of Victimization and Perpetration**

Next, we estimate the effect of our information treatment on perceptions of victimization and perpetration of sexual harassment at work. Since these outcomes rely on respondents' self-reports of whether they experienced or engaged in certain behaviors, we interpret them as perceptions (rather than formal reports or declarations). We again estimate the simple OLS specification given in Equation 1 for specific behaviors. Regressions, both for victimization and perpetration, are run separately for the six behaviors: jokes-general, jokes-work, suggestions, groping, threats, and belittling (and also for the index that adds up all six).

Figure 7 displays the results, using self-reported victimization and perpetration as the outcome variables. The corresponding regressions are also reported in Appendix Table A9 and Table A11. The treatment does not have significant effects on respondents' self-reports of victimization across behaviors (shown in blue), with mostly positive but statistically imprecise coefficients. Only for jokes-general (at the top of the Figure 7) we find a marginally significant effect, where the treatment is associated with an increase of around 2 percentage points in the fraction of respondents who report having heard insulting comments or jokes. Overall, we find no significant effect of the information treatment on the victimization index (see Appendix Table A7). The heterogeneity analysis does not indicate any differential treatment effects across groups; see Appendix Table A10 for results.

Figure 7: Effect Size of Treatment on Self-reported Victimization and Perpetration



Notes: Each point represents the OLS estimate of the effect of the information treatment on the probability of self-reporting victimization or perpetration for the listed workplace behavior, with 95% confidence intervals shown. The figure displays the same six behaviors and each estimated separately for victimization (blue) and perpetration (red). All regressions control for respondent age, gender, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, and corresponding missing-value indicators. Exact coefficient estimates are displayed next to each point. Robust standard errors were used.

The results on acknowledging perpetration are shown in red in Figure 7, displayed below the victimization estimates. At the top of the figure, we document that the treatment increases

the fraction of respondents reporting that they have made general insulting comments or jokes by 3.7 percentage points, an effect that is statistically significant at the 1% level. There is also a marginally significant effect for jokes about a specific coworker (“jokes-work”), with the treatment increasing the fraction reporting insulting comments or jokes by 1.8 percentage points. The treatment is also marginally associated with a 1.2 percentage point increase in the fraction reporting having made threats to obtain sexual favors. For the remaining behaviors, the estimated effects are small and not statistically significant. When we aggregate the six behaviors into a single index, we find that the information treatment increases the number of behaviors significantly, by 0.045 (see Appendix Table A7). The heterogeneity analysis shows no evidence of differential treatment effects across groups; see Appendix Table A12.

## 5 Conclusion

We examine perceptions of sexual harassment in the workplace and the extent to which they can be modified through a simple information treatment. To elicit perceptions, we surveyed 12,000 respondents drawn from a representative sample of the Spanish population, and randomly assigned half of them to receive an information treatment that shared official statistics on how the Spanish population classifies workplace behaviors as sexual harassment. Before and after the treatment, we asked participants whether they considered six different behaviors to constitute sexual harassment at work: insulting comments or jokes (general), insulting comments or jokes about a coworker, sexual innuendos, repeated requests for sexual relations, unwanted physical contact, and pressure to obtain sexual favors for job improvements or threats. After the treatment, we also asked a subsample of 8,000 respondents about their experiences of victimization and a separate subsample of 4,000 respondents about their experiences of perpetration, focusing on six behaviors: insulting comments or jokes (general), insulting comments or jokes about a coworker, sexual suggestions, unwanted physical contact, threats of negative job consequences for rejecting sexual advances, and belittling in connection to one's gender.

Our information treatment increased the fraction of respondents classifying more severe behaviors—such as sexual innuendos, requests for sexual relations, unwanted physical contact, and pressure to obtain sexual favors or threats—as sexual harassment by about 3–4 percentage points. We find no significant effect for milder behaviors such as gender-related insulting comments or jokes (general or directed at a coworker). Across all behaviors, the effect comes mainly from respondents who did not initially classify these behaviors as harassment, but changed their views after the treatment.

We then examine effects on individual experiences of harassment, asking respondents whether they had been victimized themselves or perpetrated such behaviors. We find evidence of limited effects on reports of victimization (with the treatment increasing reports of hearing general

gender-based jokes by about 2 percentage points). Regarding perpetration, the treatment significantly increased acknowledgments of making gender-based jokes by 3.7 percentage points. We also find smaller, marginally significant increases of about 1–2 percentage points regarding jokes about a specific coworker and for threats made when sexual advances were rejected. We do not find any significant gender differences in the effects of the treatment.

We contribute to the scarce but growing literature on workplace sexual harassment in economics. To our knowledge, we are the first to test whether perceptions of workplace sexual harassment can be influenced through a (randomized) simple information intervention. Given that harassment has substantial mental health costs and far-reaching labor market consequences—including, but not limited to, gender segregation and the gender pay gap—the design and results of this study could be informative for shaping policy and workplace regulations.

The design of our study has several advantages, as well as some limitations. First, the information treatment that we implement is simple and cost-efficient, making it relatively easy to adopt in real workplace settings to improve the work environment. Second, compared to intensive sexual harassment training, it minimizes the risk of backlash, as it only informs respondents of the opinions of others and is less likely to be perceived as accusatory or threatening. One limitation of our study design is that, because we shared the actual statistics from the Spanish population, the share of people classifying gender-based insulting comments or jokes as harassment is relatively low (especially among men) compared to other behaviors. This likely reduced the effectiveness of the treatment for these specific behaviors, helping to explain why we do not observe significant changes in their classification.

It is also worth noting that responses to the perception questions—asking whether behaviors should be classified as sexual harassment—may be subject to biases. Because we ask respondents twice about their beliefs on what constitutes sexual harassment, they may exhibit a ‘consistency motif’, feeling reluctant to change their answers in order to appear consistent and rational (Podsakoff et al., 2003). However, this concern is likely minimal, as the two

questions were separated by many intermediate questions, requiring substantial time and cognitive effort between the two responses. Alternatively, some respondents may have adjusted their answers because they believed this was what the researchers expected—experimenter demand bias (Zizzo, 2010)—or because they wished to provide answers that appeared more socially desirable. These concerns are mitigated by the fact that the survey was completely anonymous, and no identifying information was collected that could link responses to individuals. Still, respondents might have engaged in such biases unconsciously. However, the results do not suggest strong evidence of this effect: although we observe an increase in responses consistent with the treatment, the final distribution of answers does not simply mirror the information provided, as the share of “yes” responses in the treatment group remains well below the percentages shown in the information treatment. Our results provide a clear foundation for understanding the role of information interventions in shaping beliefs.

An important dimension that we do not address directly is the intersectional nature of workplace sexual harassment. Previous research emphasizes that exposure to harassment and discrimination is often shaped by the interaction of gender with other dimensions of disadvantage, including race, migration status, disability, sexual orientation, or gender identity (Crenshaw, 1989; Berdahl, 2007; Fitzgerald and Cortina, 2018). Women belonging to multiple marginalized groups may face higher risks of harassment, different forms of mistreatment, and additional barriers to reporting or recognition. In this context, perceptions of what constitutes sexual harassment may also differ systematically across groups, potentially affecting both the effectiveness and the interpretation of information-based interventions such as ours. Although our data do not allow us to study these dimensions in detail, future research should examine whether informational interventions have heterogeneous effects across intersectional identities and workplace contexts.

Future work should examine whether similar informational interventions generate comparable effects in different institutional and cultural settings. A relevant limitation for external validity is that our study is conducted in Spain, a relatively progressive country compared to

many other contexts. This may affect both baseline beliefs about what constitutes harassment and the scope for updating in response to information, potentially attenuating or amplifying treatment effects depending on how closely initial beliefs align with the provided statistics. In more conservative settings, where baseline disagreement with the information benchmark may be larger, informational updating could in principle be stronger, but it could also face greater resistance if beliefs are more entrenched or socially polarized. More generally, our estimates should be interpreted as effects of an informational intervention in a high-income, relatively egalitarian context, and may not directly extrapolate to environments with different legal frameworks, workplace norms, or gender attitudes. Finally, while we focus on perception changes given their potential relevance for behavior, we do not directly observe whether these shifts translate into changes in workplace conduct or harassment incidence. Understanding whether informational corrections in beliefs lead to behavioral changes remains an important avenue for future research.

## References

- Adams-Prassl, A., Huttunen, K., Nix, E., and Zhang, N. (2023). Violence against women at work. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 139(2):937–991.
- Antecol, H. and Cobb-Clark, D. A. (2001). Men, women, and sexual harassment in the u.s. military. *Gender Issues*, 19(1):3–18.
- Antecol, H. and Cobb-Clark, D. A. (2003). Does sexual harassment training change attitudes? a view from the federal level. *Social Science Quarterly*, 84(4):826–842.
- Antecol, H. and Cobb-Clark, D. A. (2004). The changing nature of employment-related sexual harassment: Evidence from the us federal government, 1978–1994. *ILR Review*, 57(3):443–461.
- Antecol, H. and Cobb-Clark, D. A. (2006). The sexual harassment of female active-duty personnel: Effects on job satisfaction and intentions to remain in the military. *Journal of Economic Behavior & Organization*, 61(1):55–80.
- Berdahl, J. L. (2007). Harassment based on sex: Protecting social status in the context of gender hierarchy. *Academy of Management Review*, 32(2):641–658.
- Bursztn, L., González, A. L., and Yanagizawa-Drott, D. (2020). Misperceived social norms: Women working outside the home in saudi arabia. *American Economic Review*, 110(10):2997–3029.
- Coly, C. and Suteau, M. (2025). The economic effects of sexual harassment in the workplace. *LSE Public Policy Review*, 3(4).
- Crenshaw, K. (1989). Demarginalizing the intersection of race and sex. *University of Chicago Legal Forum*, 1989(1):139–167.

- Fitzgerald, L. F. and Cortina, L. M. (2018). Sexual harassment in work organizations: A view from the 21st century. In Travis, C. B. and White, J. W., editors, *APA Handbook of the Psychology of Women*, chapter 12. American Psychological Association.
- Folke, O. and Rickne, J. (2022). Sexual harassment and gender inequality in the labor market. *American Economic Journal: Applied Economics*, 14(4):164–189.
- Hersch, J. (2011). Compensating differentials for sexual harassment. *American Economic Review*, 101(3):630–634.
- Hersch, J. (2018). Valuing the risk of workplace sexual harassment. *Journal of Risk and Uncertainty*, 57(2):111–131.
- Ilies, R., Hauserman, N., Schwochau, S., and Stibal, J. (2003). Reported incidence rates of work-related sexual harassment in the united states: Using meta-analysis to explain reported rate disparities. *Personnel Psychology*, 56(3):607–631.
- Podsakoff, P. M., MacKenzie, S. B., Lee, J.-Y., and Podsakoff, N. P. (2003). Common method biases in behavioral research: A critical review of the literature and recommended remedies. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(5):879–903.
- Zizzo, D. J. (2010). Experimenter demand effects in economic experiments. *Experimental Economics*, 13(1):75–98.

## Appendix A

Table A1: Variable Information

Variable	Description
Treated	Binary indicator equal to 1 if the respondent was assigned to the information treatment group; 0 otherwise.
Female	Binary indicator equal to 1 if the respondent is female; 0 otherwise.
Age (years)	Age of the respondent in years at the time of the survey.
Region	Region of residence of the respondent, based on the NUTS second-level classification. For the analysis, these were aggregated to the first-level NUTS classification.
Highest degree: bachelor or equivalent	Binary indicator equal to 1 if the respondent's highest educational attainment is a bachelor's degree or an equivalent qualification, such as higher vocational education and training (Formación Profesional); 0 otherwise.
Highest degree: postgraduate	Binary indicator equal to 1 if the respondent's highest educational attainment is a postgraduate degree, including a master's or doctoral degree; 0 otherwise.
Currently employed	Binary indicator equal to 1 if the respondent is employed at the time of the survey; 0 otherwise. Respondents without paid employment, including those engaged exclusively in domestic work, are classified as not employed, as workplace-related questions in this study do not apply to them.
Public sector	Binary indicator equal to 1 if the respondent works in the public sector; 0 otherwise.
Supervisor position	Binary indicator equal to 1 if the respondent holds a supervisory position, meaning they have employees under their charge; 0 otherwise.
Net monthly salary (€)	Self-reported net monthly salary in euros, originally collected in categorical intervals. For the analysis, this variable was converted to a continuous measure by assigning the midpoint of each interval and coding €6,000 for respondents in the highest category.

Table A2: Summary Statistics by Wave

	Wave 1					Wave 2				
	Mean	St. Dev.	Min	Median	Max	Mean	St. Dev.	Min	Median	Max
Treated (=1)	0.50	0.50	0.00	0.50	1.00	0.50	0.50	0.00	0.50	1.00
<b>Demographics</b>										
Female (=1)	0.51	0.50	0.00	1.00	1.00	0.53	0.50	0.00	1.00	1.00
Age (years)	38.61	7.51	24.00	39.00	50.00	39.07	7.50	24.00	40.00	50.00
Highest degree: bachelor or equiv. (=1)	0.56	0.50	0.00	1.00	1.00	0.60	0.49	0.00	1.00	1.00
Highest degree: postgraduate (=1)	0.29	0.45	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.25	0.43	0.00	0.00	1.00
<b>Labor Market Characteristics</b>										
Currently employed (=1)	0.87	0.34	0.00	1.00	1.00	0.87	0.33	0.00	1.00	1.00
Works in public sector (=1)	0.19	0.39	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.20	0.40	0.00	0.00	1.00
Holds a supervisor position (=1)	0.20	0.40	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.19	0.39	0.00	0.00	1.00
Net monthly salary (€)	1195.80	988.51	0.00	1050.00	6000.00	1277.59	1009.22	0.00	1500.00	6000.00

Notes: This table reports descriptive statistics for the control variables in the analysis. Binary variables take the value 1 if the condition is met and 0 otherwise. Net monthly salary is reported in euros. "Highest degree: bachelor or equivalent" refers to respondents whose highest educational attainment is a bachelor's degree or an equivalent qualification, such as vocational education and training. "Highest degree: postgraduate" refers to respondents whose highest educational attainment is a master's or doctoral degree. "Wave 1" and "Wave 2" refer to the first and second survey waves, respectively.

Table A3: Summary Statistics by Treatment Group

	Control Group					Treatment Group				
	Mean	St. Dev.	Min	Median	Max	Mean	St. Dev.	Min	Median	Max
<b>Demographics</b>										
Female (=1)	0.51	0.50	0.00	1.00	1.00	0.52	0.50	0.00	1.00	1.00
Age (years)	38.77	7.53	24.00	40.00	50.00	38.76	7.49	24.00	40.00	50.00
Highest degree: bachelor or equiv. (=1)	0.57	0.49	0.00	1.00	1.00	0.58	0.49	0.00	1.00	1.00
Highest degree: postgraduate (=1)	0.28	0.45	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.27	0.44	0.00	0.00	1.00
<b>Labor Market Characteristics</b>										
Currently employed (=1)	0.87	0.34	0.00	1.00	1.00	0.87	0.34	0.00	1.00	1.00
Works in public sector (=1)	0.20	0.40	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.19	0.39	0.00	0.00	1.00
Holds a supervisor position (=1)	0.19	0.39	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.20	0.40	0.00	0.00	1.00
Net monthly salary (€)	1237.28	997.00	0.00	1500.00	6000.00	1208.85	995.20	0.00	1500.00	6000.00

Notes: This table reports descriptive statistics for the control variables in the analysis. Binary variables take the value 1 if the condition is met and 0 otherwise. Net monthly salary is reported in euros. "Highest degree: bachelor or equivalent" refers to respondents whose highest educational attainment is a bachelor's degree or an equivalent qualification, such as vocational education and training. "Highest degree: postgraduate" refers to respondents whose highest educational attainment is a master's or doctoral degree. "Treatment Group" refers to sample of respondents assigned to receive the information intervention; "Control Group" refers to sample of respondents who do not received the information intervention.

Table A4: Effects of Treatment on Perceptions of Sexual Harassment at Work

	Jokes-General	Jokes-Work	Innuendos	Request	Groping	Coercion
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Treated	-0.002 (0.009)	0.012 (0.009)	0.038*** (0.008)	0.036*** (0.008)	0.037*** (0.008)	0.031*** (0.008)
Controls	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000
R-squared	0.006	0.006	0.025	0.022	0.022	0.022
Avg. DV	0.487	0.546	0.682	0.684	0.761	0.759

Notes: Each column reports OLS estimates of the effect of the binary treatment indicator on the probability of classifying the listed workplace behavior as sexual harassment (1 = yes). Behaviors are jokes-general, jokes-work, innuendos, requests, groping, and coercion. All regressions control for age, gender, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, wave, and corresponding missing-value indicators. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \* $p < 0.1$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

Table A5: Effect of Treatment on Perceptions of Sexual Harassment at Work: Low Effort Heterogeneity

	Jokes-General	Jokes-Work	Innuendos	Request	Groping	Coercion
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Treated	-0.001 (0.010)	0.013 (0.010)	0.036*** (0.009)	0.037*** (0.009)	0.040*** (0.009)	0.031*** (0.009)
Low Effort	-0.013 (0.025)	-0.024 (0.025)	-0.053** (0.023)	-0.050** (0.023)	-0.019 (0.021)	-0.020 (0.021)
Treated × Low Effort	-0.008 (0.023)	-0.002 (0.023)	0.015 (0.021)	-0.003 (0.021)	-0.014 (0.019)	0.000 (0.019)
Controls	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000
R-squared	0.005	0.005	0.024	0.021	0.021	0.021
Avg. DV	0.487	0.546	0.682	0.684	0.761	0.759

Notes: Each column reports OLS estimates of the effect of the binary treatment indicator on the probability of classifying the listed workplace behavior as sexual harassment (1 = yes). Low Effort is a binary indicator equal to one if the respondent has missing values in at least two of the three labor market control variables. The interaction term tests whether the treatment effect differs for low-effort respondents. Behaviors are jokes-general, jokes-work, innuendos, requests, groping, and coercion. All regressions control for age, gender, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, and wave. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \* $p < 0.1$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

Table A6: Effect of Treatment on Gender Norms

	Individual Items						
	Gender Norms Index	Men Discriminated	Men as Breadwinner	Women Earning More	Working Mother	Fathers as Caregivers	Men share Chores
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Treated	-0.014 (0.026)	-0.082* (0.045)	0.024 (0.044)	-0.050 (0.044)	-0.034 (0.044)	0.067** (0.032)	-0.009 (0.033)
Female	0.170*** (0.026)	0.609*** (0.046)	0.316*** (0.043)	-0.340*** (0.045)	0.041 (0.045)	0.149*** (0.033)	0.200*** (0.031)
Treated × Female	-0.039 (0.036)	0.001 (0.064)	-0.049 (0.058)	-0.023 (0.063)	0.009 (0.061)	-0.138*** (0.045)	-0.024 (0.043)
Controls	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	7,281	7,690	7,736	7,594	7,614	7,788	7,766
R-squared	0.059	0.090	0.058	0.026	0.026	0.009	0.026

Notes: Each column reports OLS estimates of the effect of the binary treatment indicator on the gender norm index and individual gender norm attitudes. Column (1) reports results for the average index across all six items, restricted to respondents who answered all six questions. The index and individual items are coded such that higher values indicate more progressive/egalitarian gender norms. The specific items asked respondents to rate their agreement with the following statements on a 1–5 scale: (2) “Equality for women has gone so far that men are now being discriminated against”; (3) “It is a man’s duty to earn money and a woman’s duty to care for the home and family”; (4) “A woman earning more than her husband tends to cause problems”; (5) “A preschool child is likely to suffer if his or her mother works”; (6) “Fathers are just as capable as mothers of caring for their children”; (7) “Men should take on the same responsibility as women for household chores and childcare”. Female is a binary indicator for respondent gender. All regressions control for age, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, and corresponding missing-value indicators. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \* $p < 0.1$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

Table A7: Effect of Treatment on Index Measures of Perception, Victimization, and Perpetration

	Perception Index	Victimization Index	Perpetration Index
	(1)	(2)	(3)
Treated	0.057*** (0.014)	0.016 (0.015)	0.045** (0.022)
Controls	✓	✓	✓
Sample	Full	Wave 1	Wave 2
Observations	12,000	8,000	4,000
R-squared	0.021	0.020	0.037

Notes: Each column reports OLS estimates of the effect of the binary treatment indicator on a summary index constructed by summing the six reported belief- or behavior-specific outcomes within each category, to address multiple testing concerns. Column (1) uses the full sample and the perception index; Column (2) uses the wave 1 subsample and the victimization index; column (3) uses the wave 2 subsample and the perpetration index. All regressions control for age, gender, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, and corresponding missing-value indicators. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \* $p < 0.1$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

Table A8: Effect of Treatment on Perceptions of Sexual Harassment at Work: Heterogeneity by Wave

	Index	Jokes-General	Jokes-Work	Innuendos	Request	Groping	Coercion
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Treated	0.082*** (0.026)	-0.006 (0.016)	0.023 (0.016)	0.052*** (0.015)	0.059*** (0.015)	0.051*** (0.014)	0.043*** (0.014)
Wave 1	0.074*** (0.023)	0.003 (0.014)	0.020 (0.014)	0.038*** (0.013)	0.055*** (0.013)	0.041*** (0.012)	0.041*** (0.012)
Treated × Wave 1	-0.038 (0.031)	0.006 (0.019)	-0.016 (0.019)	-0.021 (0.018)	-0.034* (0.018)	-0.020 (0.017)	-0.018 (0.017)
Controls	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000	12,000
R-squared	0.020	0.005	0.005	0.024	0.021	0.021	0.021

Notes: Each column reports OLS estimates of the effect of the binary treatment indicator on the probability of classifying the listed workplace behavior as sexual harassment (1 = yes), using the full sample of 12,000 respondents. Wave 1 is a binary indicator equal to one for respondents surveyed in May 2024 and zero for those surveyed in December 2024. The interaction term Treated × Wave 1 tests whether the treatment effect differs significantly between the two waves. Column (1) reports results for the perception index, constructed as the sum of the six behavior-specific indicators. All regressions control for age, gender, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, and corresponding missing-value indicators. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \* $p < 0.1$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

Table A9: Effect of Treatment on Self-reported Victimization

	Jokes-General	Jokes-Work	Suggestions	Groping	Threats	Belittling
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Treated	0.018* (0.011)	0.017 (0.011)	0.010 (0.008)	-0.003 (0.008)	0.001 (0.006)	0.001 (0.010)
Controls	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	8,000	8,000	8,000	8,000	8,000	8,000
R-squared	0.006	0.005	0.023	0.015	0.021	0.023
Avg. DV	0.466	0.436	0.147	0.158	0.086	0.256

Notes: Each column reports OLS estimates of the effect of the binary treatment indicator on the probability of reporting victimization for the corresponding behavior (1 = yes). Behaviors are jokes-general, jokes-work, suggestions, groping, threats, and belittling. All regressions control for age, gender, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, wave, and corresponding missing-value indicators. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \* $p < 0.1$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

Table A10: Heterogeneous Effects of Treatment on Self-reported Victimization

	Jokes-General	Jokes-Work	Suggestions	Groping	Threats	Belittling
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Treated	0.040** (0.019)	0.034* (0.019)	0.007 (0.013)	0.028* (0.017)	0.018 (0.014)	0.013 (0.015)
Prior Belief	0.126*** (0.016)	0.154*** (0.016)	0.071*** (0.011)	0.068*** (0.012)	0.024** (0.010)	0.127*** (0.014)
Female	0.027* (0.016)	0.014 (0.016)	0.061*** (0.011)	0.056*** (0.012)	-0.014 (0.009)	0.100*** (0.014)
Treated × Prior Belief	0.004 (0.022)	-0.015 (0.022)	-0.000 (0.015)	-0.026 (0.017)	-0.023 (0.014)	-0.015 (0.019)
Treated × Female	-0.040* (0.022)	-0.021 (0.022)	0.005 (0.016)	-0.024 (0.016)	-0.001 (0.013)	-0.005 (0.019)
Controls*	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	8,000	8,000	8,000	8,000	8,000	8,000
R-squared	0.023	0.028	0.032	0.020	0.021	0.041
Avg. DV	0.466	0.436	0.147	0.158	0.086	0.256

Notes: Each column reports OLS estimates of the effect of the binary treatment indicator on the probability of reporting victimization for the corresponding behavior (1 = yes). Behaviors include jokes-general, jokes-work, suggestions, groping, threats, and belittling. Prior Belief is a binary indicator for whether the respondent initially classified the behavior as sexual harassment before the treatment. Female is a binary indicator for respondent gender. Interaction terms capture differential treatment effects by prior belief and by gender. All regressions control for age, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, wave, and corresponding missing-value indicators. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \* $p < 0.1$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

Table A11: Effect of Treatment on Self-reported Perpetration

	Jokes-General	Jokes-Work	Suggestions	Groping	Threats	Belittling
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Treated	0.037*** (0.010)	0.019* (0.010)	0.013 (0.010)	-0.000 (0.007)	0.012* (0.007)	-0.001 (0.008)
Controls	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	4,000	4,000	4,000	4,000	4,000	4,000
R-squared	0.018	0.023	0.024	0.025	0.028	0.016
Avg. DV	0.118	0.123	0.103	0.048	0.046	0.061

Notes: Each column reports OLS estimates of the effect of the binary treatment indicator on the probability of reporting perpetration for the corresponding behavior (1 = yes). Behaviors are jokes-general, jokes-work, suggestions, groping, threats, and belittling. All regressions control for age, gender, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, wave, and corresponding missing-value indicators. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \* $p < 0.1$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

Table A12: Heterogeneous Effects of Treatment on Self-reported Perpetration

	Jokes-General	Jokes-Work	Suggestions	Groping	Threats	Belittling
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Treated	0.030 (0.019)	0.034* (0.020)	0.004 (0.020)	-0.002 (0.017)	0.012 (0.016)	-0.011 (0.012)
Prior Belief	-0.002 (0.013)	0.039*** (0.014)	0.017 (0.013)	-0.016 (0.011)	-0.004 (0.010)	0.020* (0.011)
Female	-0.062*** (0.014)	-0.064*** (0.015)	-0.072*** (0.014)	-0.024** (0.010)	-0.030*** (0.009)	-0.011 (0.011)
Treated × Prior Belief	0.013 (0.020)	-0.034 (0.021)	0.006 (0.019)	0.007 (0.016)	0.002 (0.015)	0.039** (0.015)
Treated × Female	0.002 (0.021)	0.003 (0.021)	0.010 (0.019)	-0.005 (0.014)	-0.002 (0.014)	-0.014 (0.015)
Controls*	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Observations	4,000	4,000	4,000	4,000	4,000	4,000
R-squared	0.018	0.025	0.025	0.026	0.028	0.024
Avg. DV	0.118	0.123	0.103	0.048	0.046	0.061

Notes: Each column reports OLS estimates of the effect of the binary treatment indicator on the probability of reporting perpetration for the corresponding behavior (1 = yes). Behaviors include jokes-general, jokes-work, suggestions, groping, threats, and belittling. Prior Belief is a binary indicator for whether the respondent initially classified the behavior as sexual harassment before the treatment. Female is a binary indicator for respondent gender. Interaction terms capture differential treatment effects by prior belief and by gender. All regressions control for age, region, education level, unemployment status, public sector employment, net salary, supervisor status, wave, and corresponding missing-value indicators. Robust standard errors in parentheses. \* $p < 0.1$ , \*\* $p < 0.05$ , \*\*\* $p < 0.01$ .

## Appendix B

Figure B1: Survey Questions on Perceptions of Sexual Harassment at Work

Below is a list of situations that may occur in the workplace—in a company, office, factory, shop, etc. For each one, please indicate whether you believe it can be classified as sexual harassment:

	Yes	No	DK	NA
Insulting comments or jokes about women or men in general.				
Insulting comments or jokes about a specific male or female worker.				
Sexual innuendos or suggestions.				
Repeatedly asking for sexual relations without pressure or threats.				
Unwanted touching, pinching, cornering, hugging, or kissing.				
Pressure to obtain sexual favors in exchange for job benefits or under threat of dismissal.				

Figure B2: Survey Questions on Self-Reported Victimization and Perpetration at Work

Have you ever, in a work setting (office, business trip, work activity outside the office, etc.):

	Yes	No	DK	NA
Heard insulting comments or jokes about women or men in general?				
Heard insulting comments or jokes about a specific male or female worker?				
Received inappropriate suggestions for a date or any kind of sexual activity that made you feel offended, humiliated, or intimidated?				
Received unwanted physical contact, such as unnecessarily close proximity, touching any part of your body, kisses or hugs, or anything else you did not want?				
Received threats of negative work consequences (e.g., dismissal) if you rejected sexual proposals or advances?				
Felt that someone of the opposite sex belittled your comments or opinions simply because you are a man/woman?				

(a) Self-Reported Victimization of Sexual Harassment

Have you ever, in a work setting (office, business trip, work activity outside the office, etc.):

	Yes	No	DK	NA
Made insulting comments or jokes about women or men in general?				
Made insulting comments or jokes about another male or female co-worker?				
Asked out or expressed romantic or sexual interest toward another worker?				
Initiated physical contact with a <i>male/female co-worker</i> , such as unnecessarily close proximity, touching parts of their body, kisses or hugs, or anything else that could have made <i>him/her</i> feel offended, humiliated, or intimidated?				
Threatened a <i>male/female co-worker</i> with negative job consequences, such as dismissal, if they rejected your sexual proposals or advances?				
Ever belittled the opinion or comments of a co-worker simply because they are a <i>man/woman</i> ?				

(b) Self-Reported Perpetration of Sexual Harassment