

## Antecedents and Outcomes of Sexual Harassment

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Sexual harassment, which can be defined as a form of sex discrimination that includes quid pro quo and a hostile workplace environment (Welsh, 1999), is a social problem across educational and organizational settings (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Gelfand et al., 1995). As one illustration, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) reported over 12,000 cases filed by women and men in 2006 (EEOC, 2007). The sport setting is no different, as patriarchal norms and masculinity standard serve to reinforce gendered stereotypes and behaviors (Cunningham, 2008; Shaw & Frisby, 2006). Not surprisingly, scholars have begun to document the incidence of sexual harassment in various sport settings, including intercollegiate athletics (Masteralexis, 1995) and elite sport (Fasting et al., 2004, 2007).

While researchers have thoroughly examined the existence of sexual harassment and the devastating effects it has on the lives and careers of women, the literature is lacking in two areas. First, the focus has primarily been on women, and rightly so, as they are more likely to be harassed than are men (EEOC, 2007). Nevertheless, men can be sexually harassed, and understanding their reactions is of importance as well. Second, systematic inquiry into the factors that influence the occurrence of sexual harassment is lacking. Understanding the antecedents of sexual harassment is an important first step toward ameliorating its effects. Thus, the purpose of this study was to examine a comprehensive model of sexual harassment of men and women by considering two antecedents (job-gender context and the culture of diversity) and two outcomes (job satisfaction and work withdrawal) of the behavior. Job-gender context reflects the gendered nature of the workplace and has been defined as the ratio of female employees to male employees in an organization as well as the nature of the tasks performed on the job (Fitzgerald et al., 1994; Fitzgerald et al., 1997). As men are most often the sexual harassment offenders, we expected that an increase in the proportion of women would be accompanied by a decrease in the incidence of sexual harassment (Hypothesis 1). The culture of diversity refers to the diversity-related values, assumptions, and beliefs in the workplace. According to Fink and Pastore's (1999) model, a proactive culture is most desired, as organizations following this perspective take a broad view of diversity and value diversity to the fullest extent. In this spirit, we expected that the presence of a proactive culture of diversity would be negatively associated with the occurrence of sexual harassment (Hypothesis 2).

Job satisfaction refers to the degree of fulfillment an individual gets from performing their job. It is an important construct related to decreased absenteeism and turnover, as well as having positive effects on individuals' well being and health (Johns & Saks, 2001). Consistent with previous research (Willness et al., 2007), we expected that sexual harassment would be negatively related to job satisfaction (Hypothesis 3). Work withdrawal is the avoidance of work-related tasks in the workplace, such as being absent, late, or simply disregarding work (Laband & Lentz, 1998). People who are subjected to sexual harassment might also be more likely to disengage from their work activities. Thus, we predicted that sexual harassment would be positively related to work withdrawal (Hypothesis 4). Finally, we were interested in examining possible gender differences in the strength of these relationships. From a non-symmetry perspective (Tsui et al., 1992), men might be more negatively affected by sexual harassment, as they are less likely to experience sex discrimination in the workplace. Alternatively, however, experiencing sexual harassment might compound other forms of discrimination women already face in the workplace (Fink, 2008), and therefore, the effects on subsequent outcomes might be stronger for women than for men. Given the potential conflicting effects, rather than advancing a formal hypothesis, we were led by the following research question: are there differences between women and men in the impact of sexual harassment on subsequent outcomes?

To examine these hypotheses and research question, we collected data from interscholastic coaches from a state in the Southwest United States. Four contacts were made with 1,000 randomly selected coaches (pre-notification, first questionnaire, reminder, and second questionnaire), and 292 responded. The sample consisted of mostly men ( $n = 198, 67.8\%$ ), was mostly White ( $n = 198, 67.8\%$ ), Hispanic ( $n = 51, 17.5\%$ ), or African American ( $n = 29, 9.9\%$ ). The coaches' ages were relatively evenly distributed: 18-30 years ( $n = 54, 18.5\%$ ), 31-40 years ( $n = 97, 33.2\%$ ), 41-50 years ( $n = 71, 24.3\%$ ), 51-60 years ( $n = 60, 20.5\%$ ), and 61 years or more ( $n = 7, 2.4\%$ ). Coaches had spent an average of 15.65 years coaching ( $SD = 10.42$ ).

Coaches received a questionnaire asking them to provide their demographic information (as outlined above) and to respond to items measuring the following constructs: job-gender context (single item from Fitzgerald et al., 1997); diversity culture (7 items from Fink et al., 2001,  $\alpha = .95$ ); sexual harassment (17 items from Fitzgerald et al., 1988,  $\alpha = .85$ ); job satisfaction (3 items from Cammann et al., 1983,  $\alpha = .85$ ); and job withdrawal (12 items from Lehman & Simpson, 1992,  $\alpha = .72$ ). Structural equation modeling was used to examine the hypotheses and research questions. The model fit the data relatively well:

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chi-square (60) = 214.02,  $p < .001$ ; RMSEA (90% CI = .08, .10) = .09; CFI = .92. Job-gender context did not influence sexual harassment ( $\beta = .04$ ,  $p = .56$ ), and thus, Hypothesis 1 was not supported. Hypotheses 2, 3, and 4 were supported, however, as a proactive culture of diversity was negatively related to sexual harassment ( $\beta = -.29$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and sexual harassment was negatively related to job satisfaction ( $\beta = -.38$ ,  $p < .001$ ) and positively associated with work withdrawal ( $\beta = .51$ ,  $p < .001$ ). We then followed Byrne's (2004) recommendations to simultaneously compare the models with women-only and men-only samples. Results indicate that the models did significantly differ: chi-square change (2) = 122.80,  $p < .001$ . The negative relationship between sexual harassment and job satisfaction was stronger for women ( $\beta = -.45$ ) than it was for men ( $\beta = -.31$ ), but the opposite was the case for work withdrawal, as its positive relationship with sexual harassment was stronger for men ( $\beta = .54$ ) than it was for women ( $\beta = .37$ ).

There are several implications from this study. We showed that the culture of diversity in the workplace can meaningfully influence the harassment people face; thus, managers would do well to promote and encourage a proactive culture of diversity. The need to reduce sexual harassment is imperative not only from a legal standpoint, but from a psychological one, as coaches' satisfaction and withdrawal were meaningfully influenced by the harassment they experienced. Finally, ours is the first study to show that harassment does not influence all people the same, as the effects on subsequent outcomes differed between men and women. Given these effects, athletic directors and principals need to make serious, concerted efforts to rid harassment from their schools.