Relationships Among Sexual Harassment, Gender, and Diversity Culture in High School Athletics

Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the (a) relationship between an organization's diversity culture and the prevalence of sexual harassment and (b) degree to which gender moderated the association between being sexually harassed and one's job satisfaction and work withdrawal. Data were gathered from 303 (208 men, 95 women) interscholastic coaches. Structural equation modeling indicated that a proactive diversity culture was negatively related to sexual harassment. Sexual harassment held a negative relationship with job satisfaction and a positive association with work withdrawal. The negative association between sexual harassment and job satisfaction was stronger for women than for men. Findings demonstrate the importance of considering how gender moderates sexual harassment's relationship with work outcomes.

Sexual harassment is a serious social problem that spans across educational and organizational settings (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Gelfand, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 1995). To illustrate its pervasiveness, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) reported over 12,500 cases filed by women and men in 2007 (www.eeoc.gov). The sport setting is no different, as patriarchal norms and the standard of masculinity serve to reinforce gendered stereotypes and behaviors (Cunningham, 2008b; Shaw & Frisby, 2006). Examples abound of sexual harassment suits filed in virtually all sport contexts, including professional sports ("Jury rules", 2007), intercollegiate athletics (Mylin, 2007), and corporate sport organizations, such as ESPN (Freeman, 2000). In fact, Pedersen, Lim, Osborne, and Whisenant (2009) reported that over 50% of the female print media professionals in their sample had experienced some form of sexual harassment in sport. Not surprisingly, scholars have begun to examine both the incidences and effects of sexual harassment in various sport settings (Fasting, Brackenridge, & Sundgot-Borgen, 2004; Fasting, Brackenridge, & Walser, 2007; Mastalerzis, 1995; Pedersen et al., 2009).

Given its significance, understanding sexual harassment's effects in the workplace is paramount. People who are harassed face a number of poor work-related outcomes, including decreased coworker and supervisor satisfaction, decreased overall satisfaction with work, greater work withdrawal,
and performance decrements (Chan, Lam, Chow, & Cheung, 2006; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). But the effects are not limited to work-related outcomes, as people who face sexual harassment also report decreases in both their psychological health (e.g., well-being and distress) and overall health and well-being (Chan et al., 2008; Willness et al., 2007). In short, sexual harassment is disrespectful, unprofessional, and wrong. Not surprisingly, given these effects, the presence of sexual harassment is also associated with decreased life satisfaction (Willness et al., 2007).

While researchers have examined the existence of sexual harassment and the destructive effects it has on the lives and careers of women, the literature is lacking in two areas. First, researchers have primarily focused on women’s experiences, and rightly so, as they are more likely to be harassed than are men (Cunningham & Benavides-Espinosa, 2008). Nevertheless, men do get sexually harassed (e.g., Berdahl & Aquino, 2009; Kronfeld, Golding, & Berman, 2009), so understanding their reactions to sexual harassment and how they might differ from those of women is of importance as well. Second, while several antecedent conditions have been examined, such as gender and the organization’s tolerance for sexual harassment (see Willness et al., 2007), examination of the organization’s general diversity culture, which is encompassing of all diversity characteristics, is lacking. Thus, the purpose of this study was twofold: to first examine the association between an organization’s diversity culture and the occurrence of sexual harassment, and also to examine the degree to which gender moderated the impact of being sexually harassed on one’s job satisfaction and work withdrawal. In drawing from the sexual harassment literature (Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997; Fitzgerald, Hulin, & Drasgow, 1994) and the non-symmetry hypothesis (Tsui, Egan, & O’Reilly, 1992), we expected that (a) perceptions of the diversity culture would be associated with the prevalence of sexual harassment, and (b) the relationships among sexual harassment, job satisfaction, and work withdrawal would be moderated by gender, such that the relationships would be stronger for men than they would for women. The theoretical framework and specific hypotheses are presented in the following sections.

Theoretical Framework

Sexual Harassment Defined

Definitions of sexual harassment abound. From a legal standpoint, The EEOC (www.eeoc.gov) defines sexual harassment as:

Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when this conduct explicitly or implicitly affects an individual’s employment, unreasonably interferes with an individual’s work performance, or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment.

From this perspective, sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination that exists along two legal dimensions: quid pro quo and hostile environment harassment. The former occurs when job-related considerations, such as pay or promotion, are contingent upon sexual behavior. The latter occurs “when an employee is subjected to repeated unwelcome behaviors that do not constitute sexual bribery but are sufficiently severe and pervasive that they create a work environment so hostile that it substantially interferes with the harassed employee’s ability to perform his or her job” (Sharp, Mooman, & Claussen, 2007, p. 240).

From a psychological perspective, sexual harassment is broken down into three categories: (a) gender harassment, which encompasses sex-based discriminatory experiences (i.e. offensive sexual remarks) and comments or actions sexual in nature, such as the use of embarrassing jokes, remarks, or body language; (b) unwanted sexual attention, which includes repeated and unwelcomed date requests, attempts to force a relationship, and sexual imposition; and (c) sexual coercion, which is comprised of job-related bribes and threats in exchange for sexual favors (see Fitzgerald et al., 1986; Fitzgerald, Swan, & Magley, 1997). Willness et al. note that the psychological and legal conceptualizations overlap, as gender harassment and unwanted sexual attention constitute what legal scholars consider hostile environment harassment, while sexual coercion is consistent with the legal definition of quid pro quo.

Diversity Culture and Sexual Harassment

Researchers have identified a host of antecedents of sexual harassment, including the sexual harassment climate, workgroup composition, and the proportion of women in the workplace and occupation as a whole (see Willness et al., 2007, for an overview). Of these, the sexual harassment climate is generally considered to be the best predictor of sexual harassment in the workplace (Willness et al., 2007). This relationship is understandable, as the likelihood of harassment is low when employees perceive that sexual harassment is not tolerated, that harassers will be punished, and that victims have the safety to report such incidents.

In this study, we sought to extend these findings by considering the impact of an organization’s diversity culture. In drawing from past scholars (DeSensi, 1985; Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Pink & Pastore, 1999), we conceptualize diversity culture as people’s perceptions of the prevailing values, beliefs, and assumptions concerning diversity and inclusion within the workplace. These values, assumptions, and beliefs are deeply engrained, taught to newcomers, and seen as the legitimate “way of doing things.” An organization’s diversity
culture is also seen as conceptually distinct from the sexual harassment climate. Climates are generally seen as surface-level manifestations of culture (Kath, Swidy, Magley, Bunk, & Gallus, 2009; Schein, 1990). Further, diversity culture is concerned with diversity, broadly defined, and therefore focuses on how various diversity dimensions (e.g., race, gender, age, sexual orientation, and physical and mental ability, among others) interact with the structure and processes within an organization to shape people’s experiences and opportunities. Thus, diversity culture represents a broader and more encompassing perspective than does sexual harassment climate.

Fink and Pastore’s (1999) diversity management framework is particularly germane to this discussion, principally their discussion of proactive organizations. Sport organizations with a proactive diversity culture (a) adopt a broad, inclusive view of diversity (Holladay, Knight, Paige, & Quinones, 2003); (b) demonstrate the positive disposition toward diversity by implementing diversity initiatives into the mission statement, policies, procedures, and practices (Allen & Montgomery, 2001; Thomas, 1991, 1996); (c) have multicultural leadership teams that encourage cooperative forms of communication (Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Ely & Thomas, 2001); and (d) are proactive in devising strategies and plans to leverage the benefits diversity brings to the workplace (Doherty & Chelladurai, 1999; Fink & Pastore, 1999).

Research suggests that proactive diversity cultures are associated with quality group functioning (Fink et al., 2001, 2003), positive employee attitudes (Fink et al., 2001, 2003), and objective measures of performance (Cunningham, 2009).

These findings suggest that proactive organizations are places where people are valued, irrespective of their individual differences. Further, engaging in activities that do not connote a sense of respect for others (e.g., sexual harassment), would run counter to the prevailing values, beliefs, and assumptions in these organizations. In fact, it is unlikely that people who hold misogynistic views would be attracted to or remain in organizations with a proactive diversity culture, as the two sets of values would not mesh (see Schneider, 1987, for related arguments). Collectively, this literature led us to hypothesize:

**Hypothesis 1:** Perceptions of a proactive culture of diversity will be negatively associated with the occurrence of sexual harassment.

### Gender and the Consequences of Sexual Harassment

While there are various theoretical approaches to understanding sexual harassment (see O’Leary-Kelly, Bowes-Sperry, Bates, & Lean, 2009, for an overview), researchers have most frequently followed an occupational stress model (Chan et al., 2008; Willness et al., 2007). Lazarus and Folkman’s (1984) model of psychological stress suggests that threatening events evoke psy-
Cunningham and Sagas (2007) found that men reacted more strongly to facing gender discrimination than did women. These findings support the notion that people not accustomed to being different or to facing discrimination in the workplace react more negatively to those occurrences than do their counterparts.

Most of the sexual harassment literature has focused on mean differences in the occurrence of sexual harassment (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Waldo, Berdahl, & Fitzgerald, 1998; see also Rotundo, Nguyen, & Sackett, 2001), with little attention paid to potential differences in the strengths of relationships among sexual harassment and subsequent outcomes. In fact, so few studies have been completed, that Willness et al. (2007) were unable to examine gender as a moderator in their meta-analysis, leading them to conclude that "there is a pressing need for further research on this topic" (p. 152). Interestingly, the few studies that have examined these possibilities have produced equivocal results. Barling, Dekker, Loughlin, Kelloway, Fullager, and Johnson (1996) found that the associations between sexual harassment and both negative mood and turnover intentions were stronger for women than for men. Contrarily, Street, Gradue, Stafford, and Kelly (2007) observed that the relationship between sexual harassment and depression was stronger for men than it was for women. Finally, Stockdale (1998) found no gender effects, as women and men were equally likely to report negative work consequences associated with being sexually harassed. This ambiguous pattern suggests that additional research is needed.

Research suggests that men are less likely to be sexually harassed than are women (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Waldo et al., 1998). Thus, from a non-symmetry hypothesis perspective, because men are less likely to be harassed, they ought to experience stronger reactions to the harassment than should women. We therefore hypothesized:

**Hypothesis 2a**: Gender will moderate the negative relationship between sexual harassment and job satisfaction such that the effects are stronger for men than they are for women.

**Hypothesis 2b**: Gender will moderate the positive relationship between sexual harassment and work withdrawal such that the effects are stronger for men than they are for women.

**Method**

**Setting and Participants**
We collected data from interscholastic coaches (N = 303) who worked at high schools in a large state in the Southwest United States. We chose this setting for two primary reasons. First, researchers have examined sexual ha-

rassment in a variety of sport settings, including sport media (Pedersen et al., 2009), elite sport (Pasting et al., 2004), and intercollegiate athletics (Masterlexis, 1995). However, similar examinations in the interscholastic setting are missing; thus, we sought to fill this void. Second, while elite sport and intercollegiate athletics receive considerable attention, particularly in the press, interscholastic athletics is actually larger in scope than either of those contexts. In fact, there are more public high schools in the state where the research took place (n = 1445) than there are universities in the entire NCAA (n = 1670). These two factors suggest that examination of sexual harassment in the interscholastic context is warranted.

The sample consisted of mostly men (n = 208, 68.6%), was mostly White (n = 198, 67.8%), Hispanic (n = 51, 17.5%), or African American (n = 29, 9.9%). The coaches' ages were distributed in the following manner: 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%). Participants had a mean occupational tenure of 15.65 years coaching (SD = 10.42).

**Materials**
We sent a questionnaire to interscholastic coaches, asking them to provide their demographic information (as outlined above). In addition, they responded to items measuring perceptions of diversity culture, sexual harassment, job satisfaction, and work withdrawal.

**Sexual harassment.** Fitzgerald, Gelfand, and Drasgow’s (1995) 17-item scale Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ-W) was used to measure sexual harassment. These authors demonstrate the sound psychometric properties of the instrument, and it has been used in a number of other studies (e.g., Fitzgerald, Drasgow et al., 1997; Berdahl & Aquino, 2009). The stem for the items read, “During the past 12 months, how often has someone in your athletic department...” Examples include “told suggestive stories,” “gave unwanted sexual attention,” “attempted to establish a sexual relationship,” and “repeated requests for dinner and drinks despite rejection.” Responses were made using a 7-point scale ranging from 1 (never) to 7 (very often). We employed the 7-point scale (rather than 5-point scale in the original questionnaire) to better capture the variability in responses. Consistent with the sexual harassment literature (Fitzgerald, Drasgow et al., 1997), the items were combined to create a composite sexual harassment score (α = .85).

**Diversity culture.** Fink et al.’s (2001) scale was used to measure the degree to which the coaches perceived their workplace had a proactive diversity culture. Participants were asked to read the stem, “my athletic department...”
and then respond to various items (e.g., “implies building and managing diversity into the mission statement”) using a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree). This scale demonstrated acceptable reliability (α = .95).

**Job satisfaction.** We used Cammann, Fichman, Jerkins, and Klecha’s (1983) three-item scale to measure job satisfaction. The coaches indicated on scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 7 (strongly agree) their feelings about their job. A sample item is “all in all, I am satisfied with my job”. This scale demonstrated acceptable reliability (α = .86).

**Work withdrawal.** Finally, withdrawal behaviors were measured using Lehman and Simpson’s (1992) 12-item measure. Coaches rated the frequency they engaged in the following withdrawal behaviors in the past twelve months from 1 (never) to 7 (very often). Sample items include “thought of being absent,” “chatted with coworkers about non-work topics”, and “left work situation for unnecessary reasons”. The reliability of this scale was acceptable (α = .73).

**Procedures**

Names and mailing addresses of 1000 randomly selected interscholastic coaches were gathered from the school websites. We mailed a pre-notification post card to each coach alerting them to the study, and a questionnaire packet (i.e., cover letter explaining the purpose of the study, questionnaires, and postage paid return envelope) followed one week later. We then mailed a reminder post card one week after mailing the questionnaire packet, and finally a second questionnaire packet four weeks after the first questionnaire packet was mailed. A total of 169 coaches responded after the first mailing, and another 134 responded after the second mailing, for a response rate of 30.3% (N = 303).

Given the sensitive nature of this study, some (e.g., Berdahl & Aquino, 2009) have argued that response rates similar to ours are “good” (p. 37 and p. 41). Nevertheless, the low response rate opens the possibility of non-response bias concerns. We examined this possibility by comparing the mean scores of early and late responders, as late responders are considered to have similar characteristics as non-respondents (Rogelberg & Luong, 1998). Analysis of variance indicated that early and late responders did not vary in their reported sexual harassment, the culture of their workplace, the job-gender context, their job satisfaction, or their work withdrawal (all Fs < .32, all p’s > .56). We should note that late respondents “are not ‘pure’ nonrespondents” (Rogelberg & Luong, 1998, p. 63); thus, although these results suggest that non-response bias may not be a substantial concern, caution should be exercised in generalizing the results (see also Rogelberg & Stanton, 2007).

**Results**

**Confirmatory factor analysis**

We tested the study hypotheses through structural equation modeling (SEM) using AMOS 7.0 (Arbuckle, 2006). In following Anderson and Gerbing’s (1988) guidelines, we first computed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and then followed this by testing the structural model. In specifying the model, we treated organizational culture, sexual harassment, job satisfaction, and work withdrawal as latent variables. Three of the latent variables had a high number of item indicators: sexual harassment (n = 17), culture (n = 7), and work withdrawal (n = 12). Given that the number of item indicators is inversely related to the fit of the model (Bentler, 1980; Bollen, 1989), we formed three parcels, or “an aggregate-level indicator comprised of the sum (or average) of two or more items, responses or behaviors” (Little, Cunningham, Sheehy, & Widaman’s, 2002, p. 152) for each of those latent variables. We interpreted the root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and comparative fit index (CFI) to assess model fit.

Results from the CFA indicated that the hypothesized five-factor model was a close fit to the data: χ² (n = 303, df = 48) = 129.63, p < .001; χ² / df = 2.70; CFI = .96; RMSEA (90% CI: .06, .09) = .07. We tested this against an alternative model in which the job satisfaction and work withdrawal items (i.e., the outcomes of sexual harassment) loaded on a single factor. This alternative model was a statistically poorer fit to the data than was the hypothesized model: Δχ² (n = 303, Δdf = 3) = 176.77, p < .001. The hypothesized model was also a statistically better fit than a second alternative model in which all items loaded on a single factor: Δχ² (n = 303, Δdf = 6) = 716.57, p < .001. Collectively, these findings point to the validity evidence of the constructs used in the study.

**Descriptive statistics**

We computed means, standard deviations, and correlations for the entire sample, for women only, and for men only, and the results are all presented in Table 1. As a collective, the coaches in our sample experienced low levels of sexual harassment (N = 1.75, SD = .86), as the mean was significantly lower than the midpoint of the scale (4), t (287) = -44.51, p < .001. The mean scores for work withdrawal were also low (M = 2.28, SD = .79), t (292) = -37.36, p < .001, while the average job satisfaction score was high (M = 6.00, SD = 1.20), t (292) = 28.38, p < .001. The same general pattern was observed in the samples of women only and men only.

In terms of relationships among the variables, a proactive culture of diversity was negatively associated with both the incidence of sexual harassment and work withdrawal, while holding a positive relationship with job satisfaction. Sexual harassment also held the expected correlations with job
satisfaction and work withdrawal. These general patterns held in both sub-
samples, though the impact of a proactive culture of diversity on sexual ha-
rrassment and work withdrawal did not reach the level of significance among 
women.

Finally, analyses of variance indicated that men and women did not sta-
ristically differ in their reported sexual harassment, \( F(1, 286) = 3.18, p = .08 \),
job satisfaction, \( F(1, 291) = .66, p = .42 \), or work withdrawal, \( F(1, 291) = 2.11, 
\( p = .15 \). Table 1 provides the mean scores for these variables.

**Hypothesis testing**

We tested Hypotheses 1, 2a, and 2b through simultaneous multitgroup com-
parison of SEM models, as outlined by Byrne (2004). In specifying the model,
we included a path from job satisfaction to work withdrawal. Though not specific-
ally hypothesized, this path was included because of the consid-
erable evidence pointing to this relationship (Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; 

Results of the SEM with the entire sample indicated that the model was
an adequate, but not close, fit to the data: \( \chi^2 (n = 303, df = 50) = 196.91, p <
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\[ .001; \chi^2 / df = 3.94; CFI = .92; RMSEA (90\% CI: .08, .11) = .09 \]. An illustrative 
summary is presented in Figure 1.

With Hypothesis 1, we predicted a proactive diversity culture would be
egatively associated with sexual harassment. This hypothesis was sup-
ported \( (\beta = -.28, p < .001) \), and a proactive diversity culture accounted for 8% of 
the variance in sexual harassment. Though not specifically hypothesized,
we also found support for the direct effects of sexual harassment on both job

satification \( (\beta = -.38, p < .001) \) and work withdrawal \( (\beta = .35, p < .001) \).

In the second set of hypotheses, we predicted gender differences in 
the strength of relationships among sexual harassment and job satisfaction 
(H2a) and sexual harassment and work withdrawal (H2b). Following Byrne's
(2004) guidelines, we first simultaneously ran the women-only and men-
only models and then compared constrained models to this benchmark. The 
comparison model in which both samples were computed simultaneously 
was a good fit the data: \( \chi^2 (n = 303, df = 100) = 274.52, p < .001 \); \( \chi^2 / df = 
2.75; CFI = .92; RMSEA (90\% CI: .07, .09) = .08 \). We then constrained the two 
paths of interest in the subsequent model such that they would be equiva-
 lent across both samples. This model was a poorer fit to the data than was 
the baseline model: \( \chi^2 (n = 303, df = 102) = 281.40, p < .001 \); \( \chi^2 / df = 2.76;
CFI = .91; RMSEA (90\% CI: .07, .09) = .08 \). The chi-square difference test 
indicated that these differences were statistically significant: \( \Delta \chi^2 (n = 303,
\Delta df = 2) = 6.88, p < .05 \).
To understand the nature of the differences, we ran two models, one each of the constrained path of interest, and compared these to the baseline model (Byrne, 2004). Results indicate that the model in which the path from sexual harassment to job satisfaction was constrained was significantly different from the baseline model: Δχ² (n = 303, Δdf = 1) = 4.58, p < .05. Examination of the coefficients, however, indicate that the strength of association was strong for women (β = -.45) than it was for men (β = -.31). Thus, Hypothesis 2a was not supported.

Hypothesis 2b, which predicted gender differences in the strength of association between sexual harassment and work withdrawal, was not supported. The model in which that path was constrained was not significantly different than the base model: Δχ² (n = 303, Δdf = 1) = 1.68, p = .19.

**Supplementary analyses**
Results from the SEM suggest that a proactive diversity culture is negatively associated with sexual harassment; however, the descriptive statistics indicate that the associations were significant for men but not for women. This is also illustrated in the SEM (β = -.16, p = .17 for women; β = -.31, p < .001 for men). We were interested in examining whether these variations were statistically significant. To examine this issue, we simultaneously ran the women-only and men-only models. We computed a model in which the path between proactive culture to diversity and sexual harassment was constrained, and compared the findings to the benchmark. Results indicate that the constrained model was not significantly different from the baseline model: Δχ² (n = 303, Δdf = 1) = 1.72, p > .05. Thus, the associations were not significantly different from one another and the association between perceptions of diversity culture and sexual harassment were equivalent for women and men.

**Discussion**

We examined factors that influence the occurrence and effects of sexual harassment among interscholastic coaches. Consistent with our first hypothesis, we found that perceptions of proactive diversity culture were negatively associated with sexual harassment. These findings extend past research, which was primarily focused on sexual harassment climate (see Fitzgerald, Drasgow et al., 1997; Willness et al., 2007), by demonstrating that the broader diversity culture of the workplace is negatively related to coaches being harassed. Our results are also consistent with Fink et al.'s (2001, 2003) research, as these authors have shown that a proactive culture of diversity is associated with a number of benefits both for the organization as a whole (e.g., increased performance) and individual employees (e.g., greater satisfaction). Similarly, Cunningham (2008a) found that a strong collective commitment to diversity among athletic department members (akin to a proactive culture) was associated with the attraction of a diverse fan base, employee satisfaction, and creativity. What makes our findings particularly unique, though, is the context: this is the first study to demonstrate the positive effects of a proactive culture of diversity in high school athletics.

In addition, it is worth noting that perceptions of the proactive diversity culture explained 8% of the variance in sexual harassment. While this is a moderate portion of variance explained (Cohen, 1988), it is also clear that many other factors are influencing whether coaches are sexually harassed. Past meta-analyses have pointed to two factors in particular: the job-gender context and the sexual harassment climate (see Willness et al., 2007). Thus, a bevy of factors, of which a proactive diversity culture is one, influence the prevalence of sexual harassment in the workplace.

Our second objective was to examine the influence of gender on sexual harassment’s outcomes. We observed no mean differences between women and men for any of the study variables. These findings from a sample of high school athletic coaches runs counter to the national trends, where women report more sexual harassment than do men (see www.eeoc.gov). In fact, mean sexual harassment scores for the entire sample were low and significantly lower than the midpoint of the scale. Furthermore, and in contrast to Hypothesis 2b, the influence of sexual harassment on work withdrawal did not vary between women and men. Overall, the pattern of findings lends support to Hyde’s (2005) gender similarities hypothesis, which suggests that there are more similarities than differences between women and men.

However, the one area in which we did observe a gender difference was in the association between sexual harassment and job satisfaction, as the strength of the relationship was significantly stronger for women than it was for men. The nature of the differences was contrary to what we expected and to what the non-symmetry hypothesis (Tsui et al., 1992) would predict. It is possible that these differences are a function of the additive effects of discrimination. That is, women continually face discrimination in the workplace (e.g., differential treatment, limited access to positions; see Claringbould & Knoppers, 2008; Fink, 2008). As sexual harassment occurs in addition to the other forms of discrimination and prejudice, additive effects not experienced by men, the added occupational stress might then have a stronger negative effect on their job satisfaction. Future research is needed to explore this possibility.

As a final point, it is important to note that main effects of sexual harassment on both job satisfaction and work withdrawal. The pattern of findings is consistent with the occupational stress model of sexual harassment (Fitzgerald, Drasgow et al. 1997) and the notion that sexual harassment is a traumatic, life-altering event (Avina & O’Donohue, 2002), with the potential
to shape a number of subsequent outcomes. These findings are consistent with recent meta-analyses also illustrating that sexual harassment is associated with poor work experiences (Chan et al., 2008; Willness et al., 2007), though the strength of the associations are larger in the current study.

Limitations and future directions
Despite the potential contributions of the study, there are limitations. We restricted our sample to interscholastic coaches from a single state in the Southwest United States, and it is possible that persons living in other areas of the country could have reacted differently. Second, our data were all collected on a single questionnaire, thereby raising the potential for common method variance. It should be noted, however, that the one-factor CFA was a significantly poorer fit to the data than was the hypothesized four-factor model. Thus, the potential for artificially inflated associations among the variables is unlikely to be a concern (Korsgaard & Roberson, 1995).

Finally, there are several avenues for future research. As Willness et al. (2007) noted, understanding gender differences in how sexual harassment impacts employees is a critical yet under-researched area. Subsequent studies in varied contexts are needed. It is also possible that the source of the harassment might impact the specific outcomes. For instance, harassment from a coworker might have a stronger impact on some outcomes (e.g., social integration) than others (e.g., perceived organizational support). Likewise, same-sex harassment, whether woman-to-woman or man-to-man, might yield different results. These possibilities should be explored. In addition, while we have investigated differences based on gender, we did not examine other potential moderators, such as race, age, sexual orientation, or social justice beliefs. Finally, while we examined the effects of sexual harassment through quantitative means, it is possible that a qualitative approach would yield new and unique insights. Future researchers should consider these areas. Indeed, given the damaging effects of sexual harassment on people's lives, gaining a better understanding of its effects and ways to reduce the incidence of the harassment is critical.

References


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