

ABSTRACT

Title of Thesis: BRINGING SEXUAL HARASSMENT RESEARCH IN
LINE WITH THE SERVICE ECONOMY: A MEASURE
AND MODEL OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT OF
PROFESSIONAL WOMEN BY THEIR CLIENTS

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Previous research on sexual harassment has focused almost exclusively on harassment by co-workers and supervisors, ignoring extra-organizational sources of harassment. Given that women are spending an increasing amount of time with clients, the current research does not adequately represent women's experiences. This thesis expands harassment research in two ways. First, a measure of sexual harassment was created for the client context. The current measure of harassment, the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire, was adapted to measure client harassment. It was then administered to a sample of 346 professional women, and its structure determined. Second, a model of the antecedents and consequences of client harassment was tested. Antecedents and outcomes previously linked to harassment were examined in the client context, and found to be similarly related. By examining the structure of client

harassment, and its antecedents and outcomes, this research has begun to address an important source of harassment for women in organizations.

BRINGING SEXUAL HARASSMENT RESEARCH IN LINE WITH THE SERVICE
ECONOMY: A MEASURE AND MODEL OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT OF
PROFESSIONAL WOMEN BY THEIR CLIENTS

by

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Bringing Sexual Harassment Research In Line with the Service Economy: A Measure
and Model of Sexual Harassment of Professional Women by their Clients

In the last few decades, sexual harassment has become a topic of intense interest in the public and legal arenas, especially since Anita Hill's highly publicized 1991 testimony in the Senate confirmation hearings of Supreme Court Justice Clarence Thomas. Sexual harassment has been the subject of government task forces (i.e., Defense Manpower Data Center's Department of Defense-wide surveys in 1988 and 1995), and numerous hours of employee sensitivity and awareness training. Additionally, there have been thousands of sexual harassment lawsuits¹, including highly publicized high-stakes class action lawsuits.²

Likewise, scholarly research on the topic has skyrocketed since the early 1990s. Of all the psychology journal articles found devoted to the topic, over 85% were published since 1990. However, despite all of the attention paid to sexual harassment by co-workers and supervisors within the same organization (co-employee harassment), research has virtually ignored extra-organizational sources of harassment, such as clients and customers. The near absence of research on sexual harassment by clients (client harassment) is surprising, especially given the exponential growth in the number of service industry jobs which require increasing contact with clients (United States Census

¹ This number was determined by a 2002 Lexis-Nexis review of sexual harassment cases brought in federal court.

² Notable of these is the Mitsubishi class action lawsuit. The Equal Employment Opportunity Commission instituted an action against Mitsubishi on behalf of hundreds of female employees after a class action had been brought by approximately 30 of the

Bureau, 1997; Statistics Canada, 1994).³ To be sure, trade and professional journals have begun to address the subject (i.e., Prorok, 1993; Stevens, 1994; Clancy, 1994; de Mayo, 1998; Samborn, 1998). Nevertheless, the only two academic studies published regarding client or customer sexual harassment to date do not examine the construct of client harassment itself, and/or do not examine its outcomes for women, as described below (Fine, Shepherd & Josephs, 1999; Hughes & Tadic, 1998).

Purpose of this Research

The purpose of the current study is to begin filling the void in the existing literature by investigating the construct of client harassment, developing a measure designed specifically to assess sexual harassment of professional women by clients, and examining a model of client harassment's antecedents and outcomes for women. In what follows, I review previous research regarding sexual harassment by co-employees, including its measurement, the nature of the construct, and its antecedents and consequences. I then turn to a discussion of client harassment: the increasing coverage in the trade and popular presses and client harassment's status under the law. Next, I present the questions addressed in this study, along with a model to be tested based on prior sexual harassment research. I then describe the methods used to examine these questions and test the model, followed by the results of the data analyses for this study.

employees in December 1994. Mitsubishi settled in June of 1998 for \$34 million, setting a record for the largest settlement in a sexual harassment case.

³ According to the United States Census Bureau's 1997 Economic Census, the number of paid employees in service industry jobs increased by approximately one third between 1992 and 1997 and the payroll for these employees increase by over fifty percent during that period.

Finally, I close with a discussion of the results and their implications for future research on sexual harassment by clients.

This study has begun to fill in the gap in the literature by examining the construct of client harassment itself, as well as a model of antecedents and consequences. First, it is important to note that this study was conducted exclusively on women. There are several reasons for this. To start with, the vast majority of victims of sexual harassment are women (Fitzgerald, et al., 1988; U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1981, 1988, 1994, 1995; “Sexual Harassment Claims Filed,” 1997). Second, there has been very little research regarding men’s experience of sexual harassment, much of it focusing solely on incidence rates (Raver, 2001). Indeed, the very construct of sexual harassment and its indicators has been based exclusively on women. Finally, there appear to be significant differences between the sexual harassment of women and the sexual harassment of men, which makes it necessary to study them separately. The sociocultural structures in which female and male sexual harassment occurs are different (Tangri, et al., 1982). Men typically identify fewer behaviors as sexual harassment than do women (Riger, 1991). Men are more likely to experience same-sex harassment, that is, be harassed by other men (52% reported Magley, Waldo, et al., 1999; 35%, reported by U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1994), and are more likely to report feelings of being harassed when the harassment deals with deviation from male sex-role stereotypes (Berdahl, et al., 1996). Men’s psychological reactions and outcomes are often less severe, (Berdahl, et al., 1996; Popovich, Campbell, Everton, Mangan, & Godinho, 1994, Tangri, et al., 1982) and they feel less anxiety, less threatened and more in control of the

situation as compared to women (Berdahl, et al., 1996). In sum, because of the low incidence rates of harassment of men and because our current conceptualizations of harassment are based exclusively on the experiences of women, this study focused only on the sexual harassment of females.

Secondly, this study focused exclusively on women in professional careers, such as law, consulting, business, etc., from across the United States. Professional careers were defined as generally involving knowledge work (characterized by requiring the ability to acquire and to apply theoretical and analytical knowledge, as well as continuous learning, Drucker, 1994), and requiring a business or professional education (Hall, 2000; Drucker, 1994). This was done to avoid confounds that would be caused by potential differences between professional and non-professional occupations in education, power, job type, etc. Because sexual harassment has generally been tied to issues of power (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987), with lower power and status being more likely to be harassed (Riger, 1991), if “high power” women (i.e., well educated, well compensated professionals) are being harassed, other women (lower power) should be even more vulnerable, thus this provides a conservative test of rates and effects of client harassment.

Overview of Sexual Harassment Research

Sexual harassment began to be the focus of sustained research on vocational behavior by the later 1980s (Fitzgerald, et al., 1988; Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1993). However, the majority of the research on harassment during this time dealt primarily with incidence levels and consequences of sexual harassment, using simple checklist methodologies. As noted by Gelfand, et al. (1995), these studies made little attempt to

aggregate behaviors at a higher level of generality. In addition, little or no attention was given to defining the construct of sexual harassment, nor to identifying its structure. Consequently, the measures used had essentially no theoretical foundation. Furthermore, the various studies did not employ a standard definition of sexual harassment. Some asked respondents to report not only their own experiences, but also whether they had heard of similar situations happening to others (Lott, Reilly, & Howard, 1982), likely inflating incidence rates; others asked only about severe situations, likely depressing them. Because of the lack of theory and the lack of uniformity, early research on sexual harassment was of dubious validity (Gelfand, et al., 1995). Fortunately, psychologists have spent much of the last decade attempting to rectify these shortcomings.

Specifically, in the mid 1990s, Fitzgerald and her colleagues proposed and began testing the first integrated model of sexual harassment, which began to fill in the gap in theory and measurement. Fitzgerald, Gelfand & Drasgow (1995) and Gelfand, et al. (1995) posited that sexual harassment is a stable behavioral construct, and that sexual harassing behaviors should be viewed as related manifestations of this construct rather than behaviors occurring in isolation. Fitzgerald, et al., (1988) developed the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ, see Table 1) to assess the prevalence and frequency of sexual harassment in a way that was not only psychometrically sound, but was grounded in theory.

[Insert Table 1 about here]

In particular, the SEQ was developed based on Till's (1980) five dimensions of sexual harassment: *gender harassment*, *seductive behavior*, *sexual bribery*, *threat of punishment*

for noncompliance, and sexual imposition or assault. Specific questions were developed based on literature searches, focus groups and consultation with subject matter experts. The questions were written in purely behavioral terms (i.e., In the last 24 months, has anyone told sexual stories or jokes that were offensive to you?), and did not ask for an evaluation of the behavior as sexual harassment until the end of the questionnaire. Each question asked about the respondent's experience in the last 24 months, and used a 3 point response scale of (0) never, (1) once, and (2) more than once. Exploratory factor analysis suggested that these five categories could be collapsed into three categories: *gender harassment*, *sexual harassment* (combining seductive behavior and sexual imposition or assault), and *sexual coercion* (combining sexual bribery and threat of punishment for noncompliance) (Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1985).

Based on this exploratory research and preliminary theory, Gelfand, et al. (1995) proposed a tripartate model of sexual harassment, and tested this structure with the revised SEQ. (See Appendix A for this version of the SEQ). The model posited that sexual harassment could be divided into three related but conceptually unique dimensions:

Gender Harassment: range of verbal and non-verbal behavior aimed not at getting sexual cooperation, but at denigrating, insulting, or conveying hostility towards women; in some recent studies, gender harassment has been found to break into two distinct factors: *sexist hostility* (behaviors that show discriminatory hostility based upon one's sex), and *sexual hostility* (behaviors that exhibit hostility in a

more explicitly sexual way) (Cortina, 1999; Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow, & Waldo, 1999)

Unwanted Sexual Attention: range of verbal and non-verbal behavior of a sexual nature that is unwanted, unreciprocated and offensive, but with no implication of job related losses/benefits (i.e., repeated requests for dates, attempts to touch or kiss)

Sexual Coercion: *quid pro quo*; attempts to get sexual cooperation by bribes (i.e., offering job benefits in exchange for sex) or threats (i.e., threatening job loss, career damage, etc. if the woman does not comply sexually)

This conceptualization was tested through confirmatory factor analysis, and was shown to be generalizable across settings (workplace and higher education), job types (professional, technical, clerical and blue collar) and cultures (United State and Brazil) (Gelfand, et al., 1995; Fitzgerald, et al., 1995). Indeed, this measure is generally considered to be the most psychometrically sound measure of its type (Arvey & Cavanaugh, 1995).

Since then, sexual harassment has been shown to have numerous psychological and professional consequences for women, although as will be noted below, virtually all of this research has focused on sexual harassment from within organizational boundaries. Specifically, research within organizations has shown that sexual harassment is indeed prevalent. Numerous studies have estimated that between 40% and 68% of women are harassed (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1981, 1987; Gutek, 1985; Pryor, 1995; Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997), and that it has serious consequences both for the

individual victim and the organization in which the harassment occurs. Women who are harassed experience a great deal of psychological distress (Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997; Schneider, et al., 1997), have decreased general life satisfaction (Schneider et al., 1997), and suffer from stress related illnesses (Magley, Waldo, Drasgow, & Fitzgerald, 1999; Fitzgerald, et al., 1997; Schneider & Swan, 1994; Gelfand & Drasgow, 1994). Similarly, women who are harassed are negatively affected professionally in the form of decreased job satisfaction (Schneider & Swan, 1994; Fitzgerald, et al., 1997; Schneider et al., 1997), reduced affective commitment (Shaffer, Joplin, Bell, Lau, & Oguz, 2000), decreased job performance (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1981, 1988), increased turnover and retirement intentions (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991), and career interruption/job loss (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991). In fact, research has shown that one does not have to be a victim of sexual harassment to be negatively affected by it. The job-related, psychological and health outcomes for both men and women of indirect exposure to sexual harassment within a work group are similar to those experienced by direct targets of harassment (Glomb, et al., 1997; Richman, Glomb, & Hulin, 2000). Even teams are negatively affected by sexual harassment. Raver & Gelfand (2003) found that sexual harassment in teams negatively affected group processes, including team level organizational citizenship behaviors, and group financial performance.

Additionally, “job gender context,” or the gendered nature of the workplace, has been found to predict harassment. Job gender context has been operationalized in several ways, including the gender ratio of the workgroup and/or industry, supervisor gender, and

the nature of the job duties (whether traditionally masculine or feminine) with more heavily male, traditional occupations and workplaces being related to higher rates of sexual harassment (Cortina, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 2002; Fitzgerald, et al, 1997). These indicators are thought to predict harassment based on the straightforward effect of contact (“contact hypothesis”): where the more contact a woman has with men the more likely she is to be harassed (Gutek, Cohen & Conrad, 1990). Additionally, these indicators are believed to predict harassment based on the “sex role spillover hypothesis” (Stockdale, Visio, & Batra, 1999). Women in traditionally masculine occupations are more likely to be subjected to harassment because they tend to stand out for their gender and be seen as women rather than co-workers, and are consequently treated differently (e.g., harassed). Additionally, women in non-traditional occupations are seen as acting outside of their societally prescribed gender role, and therefore are subjected to increased ridicule or harassment (Stockdale, et al., 1999). The organizational climate with regard to sexual harassment, or the extent to which people perceive that harassment is tolerated, has also been found to be an antecedent of sexual harassment (Hulin, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 1996). Specifically, higher levels of harassment are predicted by (i) greater perceived degree of risk to a victim if she were to report harassment, (ii) lack of seriousness with which the organization takes harassment complaints, and (iii) a lower likelihood that the organization would impose meaningful sanctions on the harasser.

Finally, the costs of sexual harassment are not borne by individuals and groups alone: organizations bear the costs of withdrawal behaviors, via consequences such as increased absences (Fitzgerald, et al., 1997; Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991; U.S. Merit

Systems Protection Board, 1987, 1994), and decreased productivity (Magley, Waldo, et al., 1999). Several studies have reported tremendous organizational losses related to sexual harassment. Wagner (1992) reported that the Fortune 500 companies studied averaged losses of \$6.7 million per company per year, excluding litigation costs. Faley, Knapp, Kustis, & Dubois (1994) estimated the cost to be \$500 million for one year for the Army alone. According to the large-scale U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board survey of federal employees (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1994), over a two-year period, harassment cost the federal government approximately \$327 million (due to turnover, sick leave, individual and work group productivity losses). These reports of staggering losses have helped move sexual harassment from the realm of merely a concern for equality, fairness and victim's rights, to a concern with what is most companies' main motivator: the bottom line.

Up until the late 1990s, most studies tested only one or two antecedents or outcomes of sexual harassment at a time. More recently however, Fitzgerald and her colleagues (Fitzgerald, et al., 1997) began testing the relationships of sexual harassment, its antecedents and consequences simultaneously, through an integrated model, illustrated in Figure 1. They confirmed previous results, finding that both job gender context and organizational tolerance for sexual harassment predict co-employee harassment. Additionally, they found the job satisfaction, health conditions and psychological conditions were all directly negatively affected by harassment. Furthermore, they found that work withdrawal, health satisfaction and job withdrawal were indirectly affected by harassment via job satisfaction and health conditions. Significantly, this model included

stress as a covariate, in order to show that the harassment accounts for outcomes above and beyond that which is caused by general stress levels in participants' lives. This model has been corroborated across industries, job types and cultures (Cortina, et al., 2002; Fitzgerald, Drasgow & Magley, 1999; Fitzgerald, et al., 1997; Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997).

[Insert Figure 1 about here]

Summary

In sum, the research to date has given us reliable measures of sexual harassment and a general understanding of some of the antecedents and outcomes of sexual harassment. However, given the great movement in the work world toward increasing client contact, the current state of the research may not extend far enough to explain sexual harassment from all relevant sources, specifically, extra-organizational sources.

Client Harassment

While previous research has focused almost exclusively on sexual harassment by co-employees (including both co-workers and supervisors), the world of work has changed dramatically over the last several decades, rendering this focus too narrow. Specifically, as the economy has shifted towards a service economy, an increasing number of employees have regular contact with customers or clients (United States Census Bureau, 1997; Hughes & Tadic, 1998), and in some instances, employees spend their time almost exclusively with customers or clients and have little or no contact with co-employees (Rafaeli, 1989). This is true both in the service/retail and professional occupations. For example, many cashiers in supermarket chains are in constant contact

with customers but have limited contact with their co-employees (Rafaeli, 1989).

Likewise, technical representatives of many pharmaceutical/lab equipment companies also spend their time exclusively on site with clients, and have little direct contact with other employees. Indeed, many employees have significant contact with customers and clients, or must spend time working on-site at the client's place of business, on a regular basis or almost exclusively.

Despite these new organizational realities, very little attention has been paid to the topic of *sexual harassment by clients*. Virtually all of the studies on sexual harassment have examined co-employee harassment, which while important, may reflect a limited view of sexual harassment in organizations. To date, there have been only two studies on client harassment, both looking at sales employees.

Fine, et al. (1999) examined sexual harassment of salespeople by customers, its incidence rates, and the relationship amongst demographic variables, perceived customer power, and rates of harassment. Fine found that harassment was prevalent, with 58% of the female respondents reporting harassment by customers, and that the experience of more severe harassment was associated with higher perceptions of customer power (the customer's ability to reward or punish the salesperson). While this represents an advance in the study of client harassment, there are several methodological concerns regarding this study. Perhaps the most important concern is that Fine and her colleagues did not investigate the construct of client harassment itself. They simply reworded the SEQ, which has been developed for co-employee harassment, for use in the client context, and thus assumed that the construct of sexual harassment by co-employees is veridical to that

which occurs with clients. From a psychometric point of view, it is possible that the construct had *deficiencies* (i.e., missed important elements of client harassment that are not prevalent in co-employee harassment). It is also possible that the construct may have been *contaminated* (i.e., included elements of harassment that are relevant to co-employee harassment, but that are not relevant to clients). More generally, the study assumed that client harassment, as a construct, is synonymous with co-employee harassment. In addition, this study did not examine the consequences that client harassment has for women, or whether they are similar those that occur as a result of co-employee harassment. As discussed later in this proposal, each of these two issues will be a focus of the current study.

Similarly, Hughes & Tadic (1998) conducted an exploratory study of sexual harassment by customers in a retail setting. They studied female employees working in small retail shops in Canada, as well as security officers in such locations, and explored their experiences with harassment by customers. They reported qualitative data on the types of harassment these women experienced (i.e., obscene phone calls), the effects they experienced (i.e., embarrassment), and their responses (i.e., dressed differently). However, they did not provide much quantitative analysis for the reader, as the quantitative data consisted exclusively of percentages of reported incidences and reactions that fell into a particular category (i.e., of reported incidence of harassment, 18% of were obscene phone calls, 24% were flirting, etc.). The study was largely descriptive, offering measures of harassment, reactions and outcomes, but did not test relationships between harassment and outcomes via inferential statistics. Nonetheless,

the study provided some interesting insights, notably, the perception that the current strong emphasis on customer service constrained women's ability to defend themselves, and that some of the women engaged in coping behaviors that could have detrimental effects on their sales performance, such as being less friendly or avoiding male customers. While this study did provide some insight into harassment by customers, as with Fine et al., no attempt was made to ensure that the measure of harassment was appropriate for the customer context. Additionally, no attempt was made to determine whether the outcomes for women who were harassed actually differed from those who had not.

Client Harassment in the Law and the Media

It is important to note that while there has been little attention to sexual harassment by clients amongst academics, there has been increasing attention to the topic in the legal arena as well as in trade and industry magazines. The law regarding client harassment is very clear: employers can be held liable for the sexual harassment of their employees by customers or clients (29 Code of Federal Regulations 1604.11(e)). However, the legal standard regarding client harassment is more lenient than for sexual harassment by co-employees. An employer will be held liable for harassment by a client where it (1) knew or should have known of the conduct of the client and (2) failed to take reasonable steps to stop the harassing behavior.

This differs from liability for sexual harassment by both co-workers and supervisors. If an employer knew or should have known about harassment by a co-worker, the employer is expected to actually *stop* the harassment. With harassment by

supervisors, the liability standard is even more strict: regardless of whether the employer knew, should have known, or *could* have known, and even if it directly forbade the harassing conduct of the supervisor, if there was tangible employment action against the victim, the employer is strictly liable for the damages. Note that if there was no tangible employment action, the employer can avoid liability if the employee failed to take advantage of preventative and corrective opportunities and the employer exercised reasonable care in preventing and stopping the harassment (29 Code of Federal Regulations 1604.11(c) & (d); *Faragher v. City of Boca Raton* (1998); *Burlington Industries, Inc. v. Ellerth* (1998)).

Even though the liability standards for employers regarding sexual harassment of their employees by clients are not as strict as those for co-employee harassment, the courts have not been reticent to enforce the client harassment regulations. In recent cases involving client harassment, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) and the courts have made clear that they intend to enforce and hold employers liable when they fail to abide by the standards regarding harassment of their employees by third parties (*Little v. Windermere Relocation, Inc.* (2002); *EEOC v. Advance Auto Parts* (2003); *Lockard v. Pizza Hut, et. al.* (1998); *Rodriguez-Hernandez v. Miranda-Velez* (1998); *Magnuson v. Peak Technical Services* (1994); *Powell v. Las Vegas Hilton Corporation* (1992)).

For example, in early 2003, the EEOC instituted an action against retailer Advance Auto Parts, alleging that an employee was subjected to harassment by a customer of the store. The employee sought assistance from store management when the

customer began coming into the store on a regular basis and subjecting her to increasingly intensified sexual harassment. The alleged harassment included leering, name-calling, sexually explicit comments, propositions, gestures and physical grabbing. The EEOC alleges that Advance Auto Parts failed to follow its sexual harassment policy and failed to take action to end the harassment despite the employee's complaints and therefore is liable for hostile work environment harassment. Similarly, in *Lockard v. Pizza Hut*, a waitress reported persistent incidents of lewd comments and groping by two regular customers to her supervisor. She requested that some one else wait on the offenders, but the supervisor forced her to continue waiting on the harassing customers. Pizza Hut was found liable for the harassment.

Additionally, courts have indicated the way employers must go about stopping harassment: it must not be detrimental to the employee. In *EEOC v. Federal Express* (1995), Federal Express was sued when, in response to harassment by a customer, they took the harasser's entire building off the victim's regular route. The court asserted that this solution served to penalize the employee-victim, was detrimental to her career, and therefore was not an acceptable "reasonable step" to stop the harassment. So, while there has not been extensive litigation regarding sexual harassment by clients, the courts have made clear that they will hold employers liable when they do not appropriately protect their employees from their clients.

In addition to significant attention to client harassment in the legal arena, there has been increasing attention to the topic in the trade publications. Lawlor reported that in some sales fields, sexual harassment by customers actually occurs with greater

frequency than harassment by co-employees, but is often ignored by women for fear of losing the customer's business (Lawlor, 1995). Similarly, *Working Woman* (Clancy, 1994) reported that "in professional-service fields, including law, accounting and management consulting, [client harassment] comes up routinely" and that when sexual harassment comes from a client instead of a boss, women "have fewer safeguards and much more at stake." *Selling* published tips for salespeople on how to deal with harassment from customers without losing the sale (McCune, 1999). Similarly, the American Bar Association has addressed the issue of clients propositioning and harassing attorneys, making suggestions as to how to tactfully handle the harasser without losing his or her business (Samborn, 1998). In an article entitled "Halting Harassment: Making Clients Happy Can Go Too Far," the issue of balancing good customer service and the corresponding increased risk of client's harassing female employees was addressed (Debiak, 2001). Employers' legal liability for third party sexual harassment was laid out in an article in *HR Focus* (Prorok, 1993), and recommendations were made as to how to prevent such harassment and avoid legal liability. Other articles addressing the issue have been published in *The Wall Street Journal* (Stevens, 1994), *The Professional Psychologist* (de Mayo, 1998), and *Training*, ("Did a Mandatory Smile Policy Invite Customer Come-Ons?" 1998). The industry press makes clear that client harassment is a real problem for women in the workforce, but that they have fewer protections and perhaps more to lose than with harassment from inside their organization.

In sum, because of the increase in service oriented jobs, workers are more likely to spend significant time in contact with clients and customers. Therefore, the threat of

sexual harassment “at work” comes from a much wider range of people in a wider range of places than in the past. Trade publications as well as the lawmakers and courts have been paying increasing attention to this problem, while the academic press has lagged behind. Due to the increased pervasiveness of client contact in the modern work environment, the previous conceptualizations of sexual harassment, based solely on research of co-employee harassment, may be too restricted to adequately explain the sexual harassment experiences of women today. This omission is not without serious consequence. It has been argued that co-employee harassment only became a legitimate public issue after being “problematized” within academic research, and it was only then that employees gained the means with which to deal with sexual harassment (Weeks, et al. 1986). Judging by the industry press, women are very vulnerable to harassment by clients for various social and economic reasons, and currently are lacking sufficient means to deal with this harassment. In order for women to gain the necessary tools of defense, sexual harassment by clients may very well need to undergo the same problematization that co-employee harassment did in the 1980s (Hughes & Tadic, 1998). This thesis took a first step in bringing sexual harassment research in line with the current experiences of many working women.

The Current Research

In this study, client harassment was investigated using both focus interviews and quantitative survey methods. The purpose of the focus interviews was to inform the development of the SEQ-Client (SEQ-C) through the addition of new items and/or the

modification of existing items to the SEQ, as well as to provide insight into possible unique victim reactions to and outcomes of client harassment. The quantitative portion of the study examined the structure of the SEQ-C as a measure of client harassment, and a model of its antecedents and consequences for professional women.

Specifically, this study sought to answer the following questions regarding the construct and impact of sexual harassment by clients:

Question 1. What is the structure of the construct of client harassment?

Is it similar to that which is found within organizations?

There are a number of reasons to expect that client harassment might be similar to co-employee harassment. For example, client harassment might be similar in its form to sexual harassment by one's supervisor because customers/clients often have a certain level of power over employees through control or influence over rewards and punishments (French & Raven, 1960; O'Connell & Korabik, 2000), through sheer proximity (Rafaeli, 1989), or merely because they are men (Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982). Additionally, it is probable that many of the harassing behaviors will be similar (i.e., degrading sexual remarks, unwanted sexual attention, explicit conditioning of rewards on sexual cooperation, etc.).

Yet at the same time, there are several important variables that are likely to differ between sexual harassment that occurs within the organizational context and that which occurs in the client context, which in turn may result in differences in the construct of the harassment. Specifically, the social and political dynamics may vary between intra-office and extra-office relationships. Women operate under different power structures (both

formal and informal) with those outside their office than with those within. In addition, they may work at the client's place of business, physically separated from the support of their co-workers. Because of these (and possibly other) factors particular to the client context, it is possible that unique dimensions of client harassment and/or different indicators of the dimensions exist.

Therefore, whether the construct and measurement of sexual harassment, which has been derived for experiences with co-employees, can be applied to client harassment, was empirically assessed. I addressed the question of whether client harassment has the same dimensions as sexual harassment, and whether additional indicators are needed. The goal of this research was to examine whether the current conceptualizations of sexual harassment needed to be expanded in order to apply to the client context. As such, I developed a new measure, the SEQ-C, assessed its structure using factor analysis.

Question 2: What are the antecedents and outcomes of sexual harassment by clients?

To date, other than anecdotal reports, we have very little understanding of the impact that client harassment has on professional women. To fill this void, I developed and tested an integrated model of antecedents and consequences of client harassment (see Figure 2). This model is based upon Fitzgerald and her colleagues' model (Fitzgerald, et al., 1997), and extends it to the client context.

[Insert Figure 2 about here]

As seen in the model, I expect that the gender composition of the individual's client base will predict the level of harassment experienced (Fitzgerald, Hulin &

Drasgow, 1995), with more male clients resulting in more harassment. This parallels co-employee harassment research, where job gender context (including percentage of men in a workgroup) has been found to be an antecedent of harassment (Fitzgerald, Drasgow & Magley, 1999; Gelfand et al., 1995; Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997).

Second, the model includes several outcomes of client harassment. A critical question here is whether women who are harassed by clients would experience the same outcomes as those harassed by co-employees. Some might argue that they would not, because clients generally work in a separate place of business, and therefore the woman could very easily escape the harassment. However, one could also argue that the outcomes should in fact be similar, as clients are a focal point of many professional women's work, and the importance of the client's business to a woman's success may be considerable. Therefore, as illustrated in the model, the outcomes of client harassment are expected to be similar to those of co-employee harassment.

Co-employee harassment research found harassment to be negatively related to job and health satisfaction (Schneider & Swan, 1994; Magley, Waldo, et al., 1999), and to be directly related to levels of psychological distress (Schneider, et al., 1997). I anticipate finding the same here. Additionally, as was found with co-employee harassment (Fitzgerald, et al, 1997), I expect client harassment to be negatively related to affective commitment via job satisfaction and health satisfaction, as those who are unhappy with their job and their physical state would likely have less positive feelings about their organization and therefore be less affectively committed. I anticipate that client harassment be related to turnover intentions through both health satisfaction and

job satisfaction, as has been found in the co-employee context (Fitzgerald, Hulin & Drasgow, 1995; Fitzgerald, et al, 1997), presumably because those who perceive their health to be poor and those who are unhappy with their present job would be more likely to be considering leaving their organization.

Additionally, the possibility that there are additional outcomes unique to the client context was also explored. There are differences between the intra-organizational and client contexts that may result in differing consequences for victims. For example, drawing on Hanisch and Hulin's construct of organizational withdrawal (Hanisch, 1990; Hanisch & Hulin, 1991), I expect that professional women may engage in "client withdrawal" behaviors, such as no longer aggressively pursuing new business with the harassing client, and attempting to get co-workers to take over some of the business with the harassing client. To this end, the variable of client withdrawal was added to this model. I expect that client harassment's effects on client withdrawal will be mediated by the psychological distress caused by that harassment. The more distressed a woman is about the harassment, the more likely she will be to withdraw from the offending client.

Finally, as is standard in sexual harassment research, stress was included in the model as a covariate. This was done to ensure that the effects of stress were not mistakenly attributed to harassment, in order to show that the harassment accounts for negative outcomes above and beyond those that is caused by general levels of stress.

Testing this model of client harassment is important for both theoretical and practical reasons. Theoretically, it is important to ascertain the type and severity of the consequences of client harassment, and if or how they differ from those of co-employee

harassment. Practically, it is essential to determine the human and business costs of client harassment because there is a danger that companies will not take client harassment as seriously as co-employee harassment. Due to their keen interest in keeping the client happy (and keeping the client's business), such employers may be very reticent to address the inappropriate behavior of their clientele, leaving the victims with no protection. Therefore, it is critical that the consequences of client harassment be clearly delineated so that employers are made aware that there are bottom-line consequences to *not* addressing the issue.

Question 3: Are labeling rates and effects similar to sexual harassment by co-employees?

Another important variable related to harassment examined in this study was labeling. "Labeling" occurs when a person who has experienced sexual harassing behavior actually classifies the behavior as harassment. In studies of co-employee harassment, it has been found that 20-30% of women who have experienced a sexually harassing behavior (that is, endorse at least one item on the SEQ) actually label it as harassment (Magley, Hulin, Fitzgerald & DeNardo, 1999). Many theories have been posited as to why the level of labeling is this low. One argument is that different women may have different definitions of what constitutes sexual harassment, and that any given experience endorsed on the SEQ might not conform to a particular woman's definition of harassment. Others have posited that women may hesitate to label their experiences as harassment because they feel they will be classifying themselves as a victim, which has very negative connotations (i.e., loser, weak, etc.) (Magley, Waldo, et al., 1999).

Furthermore, women may be reluctant to label their experiences as sexual harassment because of the often negative institutional treatment of women who report harassment. Such women are often branded as whistleblowers (Fitzgerald, Swan & Fischer, 1995), their complaints are frequently not taken seriously (Gutek & Koss, 1993), or their complaints are attributed to oversensitivity or whining (Riger, 1991). Interestingly, regardless of the reasons for such low rates of labeling, previous sexual harassment research has found that women experience very similar negative outcomes irrespective of whether they label their experiences as harassment or not (Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999).

In this study, I compared the rates of labeling in client harassment with the rates found in co-employee harassment research and investigated the relationship between frequencies and type of harassment and labeling. The issue of labeling is particularly interesting in the client context because there appears to be little formal discussion within the workplace about sexual harassment by clients as either a human resource or a legal problem. According to the trade literature, there is a general lack of awareness that employers can be held liable for sexual harassment by clients (Milite, 1999; Lawlor, 1995; Prorok, 1993). Indeed, third party sexual harassment is rarely dealt with in companies' sexual harassment policies, nor is it typically included in sexual harassment awareness training ("Harassment from the Outside", 1996). Therefore, I would expect that labeling rates would be lower for client harassment than the 20%-30% typically found with sexual harassment by co-employees (Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999).

In addition, amongst those who have experienced client harassment, the effects of labeling on outcomes were investigated. Generally, I looked to see which of three

possibilities occurred for those who do not label versus those who do: (1) the outcomes are less severe, (2) the outcomes are not different, or (3) the outcomes are more severe. There was a possible rationale for each of these three outcomes. (1) Women may not be aware that what they are experiencing is sexual harassment, and not experience significant negative consequences as a result of their experiences. This was not an expected result, as the research regarding co-employee sexual harassment has indicated that outcomes do not differ depending on labeling (Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999). (2) Women may not label what they are experiencing as sexual harassment, but still be as negatively affected by the harassment as if they had labeled it as such. This is in line with the current thought regarding harassment by co-employees (Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999). (3) Alternatively, because of the differences between the client context and organizational context (i.e., physical separation from co-workers, lack of organizational support, and different power structures), client harassment may diverge from the traditional sexual harassment model, with the outcomes being more severe for those who do not label versus those who do.

Methods

The study was conducted in two parts: exploratory focus interviews, followed by a survey based quantitative evaluation. In the focus interview section, manifestations of sexual harassment specific to the client context were identified through individual focus interviews with professional women who have experienced client harassment in some form. These interviews informed the development of new SEQ-C items designed to

assess any additional dimensions or indicators of sexual harassment that are unique to the client context, as well as the modification of current items. The SEQ (Gelfand, et al., 1995) was used as the base measure to which additions and modifications were made (See Appendix A). In the second section, the preliminary SEQ-C was administered via a web based survey to a larger sample of professional women, along with measures of job satisfaction, turnover intentions, satisfaction with health, psychological distress, client withdrawal, affective commitment, as well as demographic and control variables. Finally, the structure of the construct of client harassment was explored via exploratory factor analysis and SEQ-C items that did not meet strict standards of psychometric rigor were discarded. A final version of the SEQ-C was produced, and a model of antecedents, structure, and consequences of client harassment was analyzed.

Part I: Focus Interviews

Focus interviews were conducted in order to investigate the nature of client harassment and its outcomes. The purpose of the interviews was twofold. The first was to uncover what harassing behaviors the women experienced from their clients in order to determine if there were construct deficiencies or contaminants in the current conceptualization of sexual harassment applied to the client context. This information was to be used to modify the SEQ by either dropping or adding items. Secondly, the interviews were intended to explore the consequences of client harassment for these women (i.e., avoiding the client's calls, client berating her, loss of interest in work, increased anxiety, etc.), and to determine if there were outcomes unique to the client

context. To these ends, the interviews were transcribed and the harassing behaviors and consequences were coded and analyzed (discussed in more detail below).

Participants

The women solicited to participate in this study were exclusively women in professional occupations. Professional occupations were defined as those that involve some sort of knowledge work (characterized by requiring the ability to acquire and to apply theoretical and analytical knowledge, as well as continuous learning), and where careers generally require professional or business education (undergraduate or graduate degrees) to develop the necessary knowledge and competencies to perform successfully (Drucker, 1994; Hall, 2001). The participants were restricted to women in “professional” careers to help avoid confounds caused by potential differences between professional and non-professional occupations with regard to education, job type, workplace culture, etc. While the sample is not representative of the workforce as a whole, the results in this study may actually be an underestimation of the problem. Harassment is often tied to issues of power (Betz & Fitzgerald, 1987; O’Connell & Korabik, 2000; Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982); therefore if harassment is occurring with “high power” women (i.e., white, well-educated and well paid), lower power women are likely to be much more vulnerable.

Women were solicited via email, their email addresses procured from four publicly available professional directories: Martindale Hubbel Directory for attorneys, the directory of the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology for consultants, the National Association of Women Business Owners website, which includes both

business owners and non-owners in the business field, and the Lobbyist Directory for women in lobbying firms. Women were selected first by living in the Washington, D. C. area (so that interviews could be done in person if they desired), and then randomly, depending on the number of local women in the directory (e.g., the Society of Industrial and Organizational Psychology directory resulted in less than three dozen possible participants, so all of those women were contacted, while the Martindale Hubbel Directory resulted in thousands, so only every 50th was included). The women were asked if they had had any experiences where they were treated inappropriately by a client based on their gender, and if so, would they be willing to be interviewed regarding that situation. A total of fourteen women were interviewed, between the ages of 27 and 59. They were mostly white, with one Latina and Asian woman. The women worked in a variety of professions, including law, human resources consulting, medical technology consulting and sales, business, political action, and entrepreneurial pursuits.

The Interviews

Focus interviews were conducted using a semi-structured interview technique. The interviews were conducted either over the phone, or in person at their choice of location (i.e., their office, home, or coffee shop), and lasted from thirty minutes to almost two hours, with an average of approximately an hour. The interviews were recorded with the participants' permission. A specific list of topics was covered in each interview (an interview sheet can be found in Appendix B), generally covering the circumstances surrounding the harassment, characteristics about the harasser, the participant's actions with regard to the harassment, and the effects of the harassment on the participant

personally and professionally. However, the participant was asked generally about any incidents with client where she was made to feel uncomfortable, or where she felt she was treated inappropriately, and was allowed to take the interview in the direction of her choosing with minimal prompting (other than to clarify or elicit more information about something that was said). Later in the interview, depending on the information offered by the participant, questions were asked in order to cover any unaddressed topics. When the interviews began to elicit redundant information, the interviews were stopped.

Sensitivity of Subject Matter

When dealing with subject matter as personal and volatile as sexual harassment, there is always a concern that participants will not be completely truthful, either out of fear of repercussions for themselves or co-employees, or sheer discomfort and embarrassment with the topic. Untruthfulness on the part of the participants would obviously be a substantial threat to the validity of the findings, so several things were done to ensure that participants felt comfortable enough with the study to be honest. Three concerns of participants that are considered to be at the root of the veracity problem (participants' concerns for the confidentiality of their information, for anonymity of their answers, and for their personal privacy (Sieber, 1998)), were dealt with directly. The women were clearly informed by the interviewer that while they previously agreed to be interviewed, they had not forfeited their personal privacy. Their participation was still voluntary and they could decline to answer any question or terminate the interview at any time. Additionally, the interviewer discussed how the information was to be used: that their information was anonymous – that no identifying

information was associated with their responses, and the information would be kept confidential. Finally, the overwhelming response of the women interviewed was very positive. Many expressed their excitement that someone was addressing an issue they considered important, offering suggestions for additional lines of research. They volunteered personal information beyond what was asked, offered references to help with the research, and the majority expressed interest in seeing the results of the study. Therefore, the concern that the women interviewed were not candid is minimal.

Coding Procedure

Interviews were transcribed and coded as the interview process went along to help detect redundancy and determine when theoretical “saturation”, or redundancy, had been reached. Redundancy was defined as reaching asymptote: where the information gained from each interview added in only a negligible way, typically giving a new fact pattern to the same type of behavior (Bloor, 2001). Following Yin (1994) and Hill, Thompson & Williams (1997), when the interviews no longer yielded additional useful information, the interviews were stopped.

Coding was done by two people, the researcher and an undergraduate research assistant, and focused primarily on two things: harassing behaviors of clients and consequences for the women. Each coder simply marked client behaviors they considered harassment as harassment, and things they determined to be outcomes of that harassment as consequences. The two coders’ results were compared, looking for any differences in what had been coded as a behavior or consequence. All differences

between the two coders were discussed and resolved. Finally, lists of harassing behaviors the interviewees experienced and consequences of those experiences were compiled.

Creation of the SEQ-C based on interviews

Modifying the SEQ to be applicable to the client context proceeded in two steps: determining possible construct contamination and determining possible construct deficiency. The current SEQ items were compared to the list of harassing client behaviors to determine if each existing item had been mentioned by an interviewee as occurring in the client context. This was done to check the SEQ for construct contamination. The following quotes illustrate this process:

<i>SEQ Item</i>	<i>Behavior in the Client Context</i>
made offensive remarks about appearance, body or sexual activities	“this happened with almost every client, someone in their organization would say ‘Oh, well since you’re such a pretty attractive auditor I’ll answer your question.’ Not because I was intelligent or because it was my job. ‘Oh, you can come back because you’re attractive.’ ”
treated you differently because of your sex	“most of the clients have seemed to regard me as their secretary”
put you down or condescending to you because of your sex	“clients said stuff like ‘you don’t know what you’re doing little girl.’ ”
unwanted attempts to establish a romantic relationship with you despite your efforts to discourage him	“I literally had to hide every time he would show up because he would just follow me around and tell me how much he loved me.”
made you feel like you were being bribed with a reward to engage in sexual behavior	“the client said ‘you can make a reservation at such & such a hotel to thank me for the sale’ ”
made unwelcome attempts to draw you into discussion of sexual matters	“I’ve had clients talk about strip clubs and stuff in front of me and that’s kind of uncomfortable... you know, who has the best strip club... where they’ve gone the night before...”

Therefore, because each SEQ item was found to be relevant in the client context, it was determined that the SEQ was not construct contaminated, and no items needed to be dropped in order to be an appropriate measure of client harassment.

Secondly, each harassing behavior coded from the interviews was reviewed to determine if it fell under one of the sixteen existing SEQ questions. Those behaviors that were found to be inadequately covered in the current SEQ were used in the creation of new items for the SEQ-C, resulting in four new client specific items. While some of the new items could arguably fall under an existing SEQ item, the behaviors were unique enough specifically to the client context that context specific items seemed warranted. These included two items where the harasser used his position as a client to spend personal time with the woman, and two items where the woman was excluded based on her gender.

The following quotes in Table 2 illustrate each of these new items:

[Insert Table 2 about here]

These new items, along with the revised original sixteen items, can be found in Table 3.

[Insert Table 3 about here]

Consequences of Client Harassment

The majority of the consequences women spoke of in the interviews were similar to those of co-employee harassment. For example, many of the same personal consequences emerged: damage to health (“I was drained beyond belief and I had no energy. I lost a ton of weight during that period. I got really thin,” “Sometimes I couldn’t sleep or I’d go to bed really late because I just couldn’t, and I’d get sick more often.”); and psychological damage (“It was really emotionally hard on me. I tried to talk to my sales rep and understand strategies for fixing it but nobody really knew what to tell me,” “It really shot my confidence. It took me years to get over it.”). Additionally, many

similar professional consequences emerged as well: reduced job satisfaction (“I dreaded going to work”); and loss of commitment to job (several women cited client harassment as a reason they left their job). In fact, two women even left their professions for more woman friendly careers (“I think was ultimately one of the reasons that I did leave the corporate world because I just felt like my opportunities there were going to be limited by this [poor treatment by clients]. I guess I’d hit the glass ceiling, at least, I could see it.”) Thus, these women clearly experienced many of the same job and psychological outcomes typically found with co-employee harassment.

At the same time, throughout the interviews, a unique client outcome surfaced: as expected, many women engaged in actions of withdrawal from their clients. For example, several of the women went out of their way to not physically be in the same place as the client: one woman would go to the client’s at times she knew the harasser would not be working (“I started going to different shifts, late at night, because I didn’t want to see him”); another would actually hide when the client came to the office (“I literally had to hide every time he would show up because he would just follow me around”); another refused to visit the client alone ([to co-worker] “I can’t go there again or if I go there you have to be there with me stuck to my side”). Women also altered their interpersonal style with the client, becoming “snappish and rude,” and being “much less friendly.” Some went as far as to decline business from that client or asked to be reassigned. It is clear by the nature of these behaviors that client withdrawal could have serious consequences for women’s careers, especially those where the relationship with the client is important. In order to further assess client withdrawal, the behaviors were

compiled into items and included in the survey portion of this study (see Table 4 for items).

[Insert Table 4 about here]

Part II: Survey Study of Client Harassment

A survey of professional women was conducted in order to test the structure of client harassment, determine its frequency, to test a model of antecedents and consequences (including the unique client withdrawal variable), and to compare these findings to the findings with co-employee harassment research. To this end, the preliminary SEQ-C (as well as other measures, as described below) was administered to approximately 394 women via a web-based survey. Data were collected from participants recruited from the same sources as for the focus interviews, though no women contacted for the interviews were contacted for the survey. Possible participants were contacted via email, and asked to participate in a web-based survey regarding women's relationships with their male clients, including inappropriate treatment. A link to the web-based survey was included on the email. In order to maintain control over who participated in the survey, each link could only be used once, and no one could take the survey without receiving a link from the researcher. Reminder emails were sent out approximately two weeks after the initial solicitation. Consent was obtained on the first page of the survey.

The response rate for the survey was approximately 27%, with 394 women responding to the survey, though some were later excluded due to missing data (see

below). These women ranged in age from 23 to 70, with an average age of 43. 94% were white. The average income was in the \$75,000-100,000 range, with the mode being the \$150,000+ category. 39% were self-employed. The participants were all from the United States, spanning 34 states. The women worked in a variety of fields, with approximately 30% in the legal profession, 24% consulting, and 19% in business/financial professions, and the remaining 27% were in a variety of professions, including lobbying, research and development and training. Their education levels ranged from a few years of college to multiple graduate/post-graduate degrees, with approximately 93% having at least a college degree.

This sample was relatively homogenous in that it was predominantly white, well educated, and well compensated. At the same time, the sample was quite diverse in other ways: there was a wide age range, numerous organizations (potentially as many organizations as there were respondents) from multiple industries were represented, the participants were from 34 states spread across the United States. The implications of the nature of the participants for the generalizability of the study is discussed further below.

The Survey and Measures

Participants completed a web-based survey entitled “Client Relations Survey.” They were told that they would be asked about their attitudes and perceptions of themselves, their jobs, their clients, and specific interactions with clients. They were assured that their answers would be kept confidential and that their participation was completely voluntary and could be discontinued at any time.

Client harassment. The participant's sexual harassment experiences were measured using the preliminary twenty item SEQ-C, found in Table 3, plus the one question criterion item ("Have you ever been sexually harassed by a client or customer?"). Specifically, it consisted of a list of questions regarding behaviors experienced by the respondent in the last 24 months (using a five point scale of (0) never, (1) once or twice, (2) sometimes, (3) often (4) many times), with the term "sexual harassment" not appearing in the behavioral portion of the survey in order to increase reliability. The twenty behavioral SEQ-C items were asked together, and the criterion item was asked several sections later in the survey. Those who endorsed at least one behavioral harassment item were also asked an open-ended question to describe the harassing situation in their own words.

Outcomes. Job satisfaction was measured using an abbreviated version of the Job Descriptive Index (Smith, Kendall & Hulin, 1969), as revised by Roznowski (1989) (Appendix C), which in the present sample had a coefficient alpha of .88. Turnover intentions were assessed using a subset of the job withdrawal scale developed by Hanisch and Hulin (Hanisch, 1990; Hanisch & Hulin, 1991) (Appendix D), for which the coefficient alpha in this study was .85. Affective commitment (genuine identification and psychological attachment to the organization), was measured using Meyer, Allen & Smith's (1993) six item measure which is a subscale of organizational commitment (Appendix E), and the measure's reliability in this study was .89. Physical health was assessed using the Health Satisfaction Index subscale of the Retirement Descriptive Index (Smith, et al., 1969) (Appendix F), which measures health satisfaction. Coefficient alpha

in the present sample was .78. Psychological outcomes were measured using a measure of psychological distress, an abbreviated version of Saunders, Arata, and Kilpatrick's (1990) Crime-Related Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder Scale (Appendix G), which in the current sample had a coefficient alpha of .95. Finally, a measure of "client withdrawal" behaviors was created administered and analyzed to explore the behaviors victims engage in towards their clients in response to client harassment (Appendix H). Coefficient alpha for this scale was .85. Note that because the questions regarding psychological distress and client withdrawal referenced an incident of harassment by a particular client, the survey was programmed so that only women who had endorsed at least one item on the SEQ-C would answer these questions.

Antecedent. The "job gender context" was measured using the gender ratio of the subject's client base. The proportion of clients who were male was used to indicate the amount of contact the woman had with men in the client context, which has been shown to predict levels of harassment amongst co-employees.

Additional measures. Additional information regarding characteristics of the participants, the participants' client relationships, and characteristics of the client harasser were included in the survey. General information, including demographics, salary, nature of job (industry, position, tenure), and the amount and nature of client contact, were asked in a general information section (Appendix I). As is standard in sexual harassment research, the Stress in General Scale (Smith, Sademan & McCrary, 1992) was included (Appendix J) in order to show that the harassment accounts for outcomes above and beyond that which is caused by general stress levels in participants' lives. This measure

had a coefficient alpha of .88 in this study. The order the measures were administered in the survey can be seen in Table 5.

[Insert Table 5 about here]

Sensitivity of the Subject Matter

As discussed in Part I, because of the personal and often disturbing nature of sexual harassment, there are concerns that subjects will not be completely truthful in their answers. To avoid this threat to the validity of the study, steps were taken to ensure that subjects feel comfortable enough with the study to be honest. They were assured that the information gathered would be anonymous, having no identifying information associated with it. Additionally, they were assured that the data were confidential, and that they would in no way forfeit control of their personal privacy. All inquiries requesting additional verifying information about the status and purpose of the researchers were answered with additional information, links to University web pages, and/or faxed references. Finally, the participants were told that they could discontinue participation at any time. This information was clearly stated in the initial email soliciting their participation and/or the consent and instructions to the survey.

Missing Data Imputation

Data were discarded completely for all participants who missed more than one SEQ-C item or who missed data for more than 50% of the items in the entire survey. This resulted in a loss of 48 participants (48 participants missed more than 50% of the items, with 47 of these also having skipped more than 1 SEQ-C item), leaving a total sample of 346. For the participants who had skipped a single item on the SEQ-C, the

mean was imputed for that item. This data imputation method is known to be useful for factor analysis (Finkbeiner, 1979). The participants who missed more than 50% of the items were analyzed (as far as possible given the missing data) and compared to those who were included in the general analyses. There were no differences in means on the variables for which they answered, or in correlations amongst constructs, with one exception. The participants who were excluded were less affectively committed to their organizations than were those who completed enough items to be included (with means on a scale of 42 of 18.5 and 23.2 respectively, a difference significant at $p < .05$). This difference does not likely pose a threat to the validity of the analyses in this study. Based on this difference, the women who are included have one component of their affective state that is more positive than those who selected themselves out, therefore eliminating the possibility that the results found in the study (especially those indicating decrements to affective states and commitment to jobs and organizations) were the result of the self selection of more positively affective and more committed women selecting out of the survey.

Analysis

Question 1: Incidence and Structure of Client Harassment

Item Distributions

Prior to structurally testing the SEQ-C data, the distribution of each item's responses was examined for severe deviations from normal distributions. Four of the items had notably skewed distributions. These four items had endorsement rates that

were less than 10%, with less than 1% endorsing the last two responses (the responses indicate that the particular harassing behavior had occurred “often” or “many times”). All four of these items were “sexual coercion” items, considered to be the most severe form of harassment. In the research of harassment within organizational context, endorsement rates for these items are typically low and distributions positively skewed (and are theoretically expected to be so), but are generally retained because of their importance to content validity (Fitzgerald, et al., 1995). However, because items with extremely low variances do not sufficiently discriminate amongst respondents on the constructs of interest (DeVellis, 1991) and therefore would attenuate the correlation of client harassment with other variables, only descriptive statistics for these four items will be reported in this study.

Assessing Structure

In order to assess the dimensionality of the SEQ-C items, exploratory, rather than confirmatory, factor analysis was used because it was theoretically unclear whether sexual harassment in the client context would differ significantly from harassment by co-employees. As mentioned above, the four sexual coercion items were left out of this analysis due to their abnormal distributions.⁴ Exploratory factor analysis with maximum likelihood extraction and direct oblim rotation ($\delta = 0$) was conducted. Oblim rotation was used in order to allow the factors to correlate, which is consistent with the theory and empirical findings in co-employee harassment research (Schneider, et al., 1997; Magley, Waldo, et al. 1999). The 346 participants included in the final data set for this analysis

provided a ratio of 21.6 respondents per item, more than fulfilling the minimum of 5 cases per item for factor analysis (Stevens, 1996), and also exceeded the general rule of thumb of a minimum of 300 cases for factor analysis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996).

The number of factors to be extracted was determined by loadings and theoretical interpretability. A three factor solution was determined because (1) three eigenvalues above 1.0 were extracted (Kaiser, 1958), (2) the scree plot indicated that three factors were appropriate (Cattell, 1966), (3) this factor structure produced the strongest factor loadings, with a minimum loading of .474, and all others over .600, and (4) it was the most conceptually defensible structure, as the factors mapped onto the factors of the original SEQ. The resulting rotation left two items with multiple loadings, and both were dropped from the scale. The first factor captured 21.9% of the variance (eigenvalue = 7.170), the second captured 17.8% (eigenvalue = 2.079), and the third captured 17.7% (eigenvalue = 1.165). These three factors together accounted for a total of 57.4% of the variance. Tables 6 and 7 list the item loadings and new factor groups, respectively. The three factors were labeled *client gender harassment – sexual hostility* (comprised of behaviors such as the telling of offensive sexual stories or jokes, and attempts to draw the woman into sexual discussions), *client gender harassment – sexist hostility* (comprised of behaviors such as refusing to work with women, or being condescending to women based on gender), and *client unwanted sexual attention* (comprised of behaviors such as repeated requests for dates despite being told no, and unwanted touching).

[Insert Tables 6 and 7 about here]

⁴ Exploratory factor analysis was run with the four sexual coercion items included,

The intercorrelations amongst the factors listed in Table 7 suggest that the three factors are interrelated but still represent distinct constructs. The sexual coercion item group is also included in this table for descriptive purposes; it is similarly intercorrelated with the other factors. All of the correlations are significant at the .01 level, consistent with the theory regarding sexual harassment that various forms of harassment occur not in isolation, but in combination (Schneider, et al., 1997; Magley, Waldo, et al. 1999).

[Insert Table 8 about here]

Reliability and Validity

Analysis of the resulting three factor fourteen item scale resulted in a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .91. Each of the three factors, sexual hostility (consisting of four items), sexist hostility (consisting of four items) and unwanted sexual attention (consisting of six items), exhibited good reliability, with standardized item alphas of .85, .84, and .89, respectively. Incidentally, the sexual coercion items, while having a low base rate, still coalesced, with an alpha of .89 for the subscale, and the reliability of the whole scale remained essentially unchanged when the sexual coercion items were added.

Using the theoretically based and empirically validated SEQ as its foundation strengthened content validity of the SEQ-C. Additionally, construct contamination was guarded against by retaining only the SEQ items where the behavior had been mentioned in the focus interviews as occurring in the client context. Several construct deficiencies were detected where behaviors mentioned in the interviews were not accounted for by the existing items. These deficiencies were corrected for by the addition of new items. Both

resulting in a factor structure that were not as theoretically interpretable.

of these bolster the content validity of the scale. In addition, the correlation of each item with the criterion item (“Have you been sexually harassed by a client or customer?”) was examined. As expected, all the items had significant positive correlations with the criterion item ($p < .01$, as shown in Table 9), ranging from $r = .215$ to $r = .480$, with an average $r = .366$. Overall, it appears that the new three factor SEQ-C scale, as well as the eighteen item version including the sexual coercion items, have sufficient validity for research purposes.

[Insert Table 9 about here]

Frequency

The frequency of endorsement of SEQ-C items appears in Table 10, listed individually by item as well as by factor. A woman is considered to have experienced a particular harassing behavior if she indicates that she has experienced the behavior at least once. She is considered to have experienced one of the factors of sexual harassment if she endorses at least one of the items comprising that factor. As this table illustrates, gender harassment – sexist hostility was far and away the most common form of sexual harassment by clients in this sample, experienced by 85% of the women surveyed. This was followed by gender harassment – sexual hostility, with 68%, then unwanted sexual attention with 51%, and finally sexual coercion having been experienced by 8% of the women surveyed.

[Insert Table 10 here about here]

When compared to the incidence rates of co-employee harassment, harassment by clients appears to occur more frequently. Research on co-employee harassment generally

reports the incidence rates of around 50% (Munson, et al., 2001), varying from 40% to 68% (U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1981, 1987; Gutek, 1985; Pryor, 1995; Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997). The overall incidence rate of client harassment in this sample was 89%, significantly higher than co-employee harassment. Clearly this study needs to be replicated in order to determine if this high rate is a function of characteristics of this particular sample or study, or if it represents something unique about the client relationship.

Harassment rates were also compared based on age, race, industry and whether the participants were self-employed. There were no significant differences in frequency of harassment based on industry or age. However, significant differences were found based on race, with non-whites experiencing more harassment than whites ($F = 6.72$; $p < .01$). Additionally, women who were self-employed experienced significantly more client harassment than those who worked for others ($F=5.31$; $p < .01$).

Question 2: Antecedents and Consequences

The second question addressed in this research involved the antecedents and outcomes of client harassment. As a result of the focus interviews, it was determined that there in fact was a unique outcome of client harassment: “client withdrawal.” The women engaged in behaviors such as avoiding the client, not pursuing new business with him, and having a co-worker take over interactions with the client, amongst other things, as reactions to being harassed. In order to explore this construct further, a measure of client withdrawal was developed and analyzed. The items of the client withdrawal were derived from the experiences of the women interviewed, as well as well literature

regarding coping with sexual harassment (Wasti & Cortina, 2002; Magley, 2002; Fitzgerald, Gold, Brock, & Gelfand, 1993, and especially Fitzgerald, et al, 1993). The measure was intended to measure active withdrawal from clients, so while much of the coping literature deals with both behavioral and cognitive responses, this measure was limited to behavioral responses directly tied to the client relationship. The resulting six item scale was unidimensional (with an average loading of .697) and exhibited good reliability ($\alpha = .85$). (See Table 4 for items). Notably, while the intent of these behaviors appears to be to stop or avoid harassment, they may have unintended negative consequences for women's careers. For example, 43% of women who were harassed acted cold or unfriendly toward the client in order to discourage his behavior, while 50% reacted by no longer pursuing new business with that client as aggressively.

Next, the analysis of the model of antecedents and consequences of client harassment was performed using structural equation modeling (SEM). As discussed above, the model of antecedents and outcomes was created based primarily on the findings of co-employee harassment research. The means, standard deviations, and internal consistency reliability of all the variables in this model can be seen in Table 11, and their intercorrelations in Table 12.

[Insert Tables 11 & 12 about here]

As is standard in sexual harassment research, job stress was included in the model in order to control for ordinary job stress, and therefore prevent the effects of stress from being mistakenly imputed to harassment. Stress was included and allowed to covary with the client harassment outcomes variables of turnover intentions, health satisfaction, post

traumatic stress. Additionally, a direct path from client harassment to stress was added, based on harassment's well documented role as a stressor (Lyons, 2002; McDermut, Haaga & Kirk, 2000; Rosell, Miller & Barber, 1995).

Because of the nature of two of the outcome variables, it was necessary for two different models to be tested. Because the items for the two outcome variables (client withdrawal and post traumatic stress) directly referenced an incident of harassment, only those who had been harassed (that is, endorsed at least one SEQ-C item) answered these questions. Therefore the entire model was run with data only from subjects who had been harassed (Entire Model), while the model *without* those two variables was run with data from all subjects, whether harassed or not (Partial Model). It was important to analyze the Partial Model with the complete data set because the variance on the sexual harassment measure would be restricted in the "harassed subjects only" database, and the statistical power was reduced because of the elimination of participants (n=346 for all subjects, n=308 for harassed subjects only). These models are illustrated in Figures 2 & 3.

[Insert Figure 3 about here]

SEM was used to test these models, as conducted with the Mplus statistical program (Muthén & Muthén, 1998). The analysis incorporated a structural model, where relationships amongst variables are specified. To assess this overall structural model, paths were fixed (at zero) or freed (allowed Mplus to estimate them) according to the hypothesized theoretical relations shown in Figures 2 & 3.

As shown in Table 13, the fit indices for the initial structural model for both the Entire and Partial Models included χ^2/df ratios of 7.71 & 12.99, CFIs of .72 & .77, RMSEAs of .17 & .20 and SRMRs of .10 & .10.

[Insert Table 13 about here]

These statistics indicate problematic model fit. Most of the coefficients for both models were significant at the .01 level, with the exception of the path from health satisfaction to affective commitment, which was nonsignificant in both models, and the path from health satisfaction to turnover intentions, which was marginally significant. Thus, the data suggested some revision of the basic model was necessary. The estimated coefficients for the Entire and Partial Models are represented in Figures 4 and 5, respectively.

[Insert Figures 4 & 5]

In order to address the problematic fit, both the Entire Model and the Partial Model were reassessed, and it was determined that three additional paths were theoretically justified. First, a direct path was inserted from client harassment to client withdrawal. It is very likely that the degree to which a woman would withdraw from a client would be directly related to the extent he was harassing her, that is, harassment would directly affect withdrawal behaviors rather than affecting withdrawal solely through psychological distress. Secondly, a path was inserted between turnover intentions and affective commitment. Turnover intentions and affective commitment tap into very similar constructs, with affective commitment tapping attachment to the organization, and turnover intentions tapping intentions to leave that organization,

therefore it is logical that they would be correlated. Finally, a path between health satisfaction and job satisfaction was added. There is support in the literature for a correlation between these two types of satisfaction (Cass, Siu, Faragher & Cooper, 2003), and it is not surprising that satisfaction, or lack thereof, with ones job would spill over into satisfaction with ones health, and vice versa. In addition to these theoretical arguments, the standardized residuals and/or modification indices were highest for these three paths, further supporting their inclusion. Thus, these three paths were added to the original models, and the fit of the revised models was tested.

Revised Models

As shown in Table 14, the revision improved the both the Entire Model and Partial Model's fit indices, resulting in χ^2/df ratios of 1.59 & 2.26, CFIs of .98 & .98, RMSEAs of .05 & .06 and SRMRs of .05 & .04.

[Insert Table 14 about here]

Almost all the coefficients for both models were significant at the .01 level. In both models, the path from health satisfaction to affective commitment was nonsignificant. In the Entire Model, the path from job satisfaction to turnover intentions was marginally significant. The estimated coefficients for the revised models are represented in Figures 6 and 7. These results demonstrate good fit for the revised models.

[Insert Figures 6 & 7 about here]

Because the two datasets (all subjects, and harassed subjects only) resulted in identical models (with the exception of course of the two variables not included in the Partial Model), the discussion will only refer to the Entire Model. As Figure 6 illustrates,

the path coefficient from client gender context to client harassment was .12, indicating a positive relationship between the percentage of clients who are men and frequency of client harassment. This is consistent with the expectation that the percentage of clients who are men would be an antecedent to client harassment. It is also analogous to co-employee harassment research which has shown that the gender ratio of a woman's work group or industry is a predictor of harassment (Cortina, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 2002; Fitzgerald, et al, 1997).

Next, the data shows that client harassment, even with general job stress accounted for, was directly related to job and psychological outcomes. The paths from client harassment to job satisfaction, health satisfaction, post traumatic stress and client withdrawal were -.19, -.16, .48, and .48, respectively. This suggests that, as expected, higher levels of client harassment were related to decreases in job and health satisfaction, and increases in psychological distress and withdrawal from the client. Additionally, the path from post-traumatic stress to client withdrawal was .20, indicating that client withdrawal behaviors increased with increased psychological distress. These results were all consistent with past findings regarding co-employee harassment (Schneider, et al., 1997; Magley, Waldo, et al., 1999; Schneider & Swan, 1994; Fitzgerald, et al., 1997; U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board, 1981, 1988; Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991).

Furthermore, consistent with expectations, client harassment was found to be related to affective commitment through job satisfaction. Client harassment was negatively related to job satisfaction, which in turn was related to affective commitment (path coefficient of .48), indicating that increased job satisfaction resulted in increased

affective commitment to the organization. This was consistent with findings in the co-employee harassment literature (Shaffer, Joplin, Bell, Lau, & Oguz, 2000).

In addition, client harassment affected turnover intentions through both job and health satisfaction, again, consistent with previous findings (Fitzgerald, Hulin & Drasgow, 1995; Fitzgerald, et al, 1997). Health satisfaction was related to turnover intentions with a coefficient of $-.09$, suggesting that increases in health satisfaction were related to decreases in turnover intentions. Similarly, the path coefficient between job satisfaction and turnover intentions was $-.50$, which implies, consistent with the extensive literature on this relationship in the co-employee harassment context (Hanisch & Hulin, 1990, 1991), that higher job satisfaction is related to decreased turnover intentions.

It is worth noting that all these findings were in keeping with the focus interviews. The women interviewed reported consequences consistent with psychological distress (“I was drained beyond belief and I had not energy. I worried about it constantly... I couldn’t sleep”; “emotionally, it was very damaging for me”); health problems (“I lost a ton of weight during that period... I did get sick and would lose my voice a lot); decreased job satisfaction (“I dreaded going to work”); and actual turnover (“There were other reasons I left but that [gender based mistreatment by clients] was one of them”; one woman quit because her relationship with her most powerful client was severed when she rebuffed his advances, which “devastated” her career).

Question 3: Labeling

For the third research question, whether the labeling rates and effects for client harassment are similar to sexual harassment by co-employees was investigated. The

criterion for classifying a woman as having been sexually harassed by a client is endorsement of at least one item on the SEQ-C. Of the women who were harassed, 30% answered “yes” to the question “have you ever been sexually harassed by a customer or client?” This was within the 20-30% range found in studies of harassment by co-employees (Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999). However, this was contrary to the predicted result that, due to the lack of awareness about client harassment, that its labeling rates would be lower than the rates for co-employee harassment.

The relationship between “level” of harassment and labeling was also analyzed. The dimensions of sexual harassment have often been treated as levels of severity (with the two gender harassment dimensions being the least severe, and sexual coercion being the most severe) and these levels have been used to predict labeling rates, where the more severe the harassment experienced, the more likely the woman would be to label her experiences as harassment (Fitzgerald, et al, 1988; Fitzgerald, et al., 1995; Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999). Those results were found in the present study. For each of the three factors and the sexual coercion item group, the rates of labeling were as follows: sexual hostility = 68%, sexist hostility = 85%, unwanted sexual attention = 51%, and sexual coercion = 8%. However, as Magley and her colleagues have indicated, this approach is problematic. Severity may in fact be a proxy for frequency, as those experiencing sexual coercion are likely to be experiencing the other forms as well. In fact, in the current study, *every* woman who experienced sexual coercion harassment experienced *all* of the other types as well (that is, every woman who endorsed at least one sexual coercion harassment item endorsed at least one item in each of the other three factors). Therefore,

labeling was also analyzed based on frequency. It has been shown in previous research that there is a strong relationship between the frequency of harassment and rates of labeling (Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999). This same result was found here, with a significant positive correlation between frequency and labeling ($r=.539$, $p < .01$).

Additionally, whether labeling moderates the negative effects of harassment was analyzed. Previous research found labeling to have little if any effect on the outcomes of harassment (Munson, Miner & Hulin, 2001; Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999). Hierarchical regression analyses were performed to determine if labeling had significant interaction with harassment on harassment outcomes, specifically psychological distress (PTSD), health satisfaction, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, affective commitment and client withdrawal. These analyses were conducted only on data collected from women who had been harassed in order to address the effects of labeling on outcomes of harassment only, and to avoid grouping those who had not been harassed, all of whom answered “no” the question “Have you been sexually harassed by a client or customer,” with those who had been harassed but also answered “no.” The results were mixed. As can be seen from Table 15, no significant moderating effects were found on four of the six outcome variables, but significant interactions were found on health satisfaction and client withdrawal, indicating moderation.

[Insert Table 15 about here]

The interaction of client harassment and labeling on health satisfaction can best be interpreted from Figure 8. Specifically, when the level of harassment is low, the health satisfaction of for “labelers” and “non-labelers” is very similar, with non-labelers being

slightly more satisfied with their health. As the frequency of harassment increases, health satisfaction for both groups drops, but much more precipitously for non-labelers, so that at higher levels of harassment, health satisfaction is markedly lower for non-labelers. From this interaction, it appears that the higher the level of client harassment, the more labeling serves to alleviate decrements to health satisfaction caused by harassment.

[Insert Figure 8 about here]

Similarly, as can be seen in Table 15, labeling had a significant moderating effect on the effects of harassment on client withdrawal. The interaction can best be interpreted from Figure 9. At low levels of harassment, the level of customer withdrawal is almost identical for labelers and non-labelers. However, as the level of harassment increases, the non-labelers' level of client withdrawal increases more rapidly than it does for labelers, so that at higher levels of harassment, non-labelers engage in markedly more client withdrawal behaviors than do labelers. Analysis of the effect of labeling on both of these outcome variables paints the picture: at the lowest levels of client harassment, labeling has almost no effect, but, the greater the level of harassment, the more labeling serves to buffer women from harassment's effects on their health satisfaction and client interactions.

[Insert Figure 9 about here]

Interestingly, labeling exhibited main effects on two outcome variables. Labeling, even after controlling for the effects of client harassment, had a significant main effect on affective commitment, where labeling was positively related to affective commitment, and a significant main effect on turnover intentions, where labeling, even

after controlling for client harassment, was negatively related to intentions to quit.

Consistent with the moderating effects of labeling found in this study, labeling had a positive direct effect on these outcomes.

Discussion

Creation of the Measure & Structure of the Construct

The measure of client harassment created in this study is grounded both in the theory derived from experiences of co-employee harassment, as well as the experiences of women who have experienced harassment by their clients. From focus interviews, it was determined that the SEQ as written for co-employees was not construct contaminated, but it was construct deficient. That is, while all the harassing behaviors that have been found to occur with co-employees also occur with clients, there were several behaviors that are unique to the client context. This was an important step not only to show a lack of construct contamination in applying the original SEQ to the client context, but also to show the need to further investigate construct deficiencies that might result from the distinctive nature of client relationships.

Analyses of the internal structure of the SEQ-C revealed that it has a factor structure similar to the SEQ: sexist hostility, sexual hostility and unwanted sexual attention. Consistent with research in the co-employee context, intercorrelations amongst the factors suggest that the factors are interrelated but still represent distinct constructs. The sexual coercion item group (typically the fourth factor in previous research), while not part of the factor structure analysis, was significantly related to each of the other three

factors. This is consistent with the conceptualization of the various types of harassment typically occurring together rather than in isolation. The similarities in structure to the SEQ are encouraging, as they are an indication that research of co-employee harassment may be able to draw on the years of empirical work and theory development of co-employee harassment.

The SEQ-C showed sufficient reliability and validity to be useful for research purposes. The reliability of the scale and subscales was high ($\alpha=.91$ for whole measure, and $\alpha = .85, .84$ and $.89$ for the subscales), and, as previously discussed, there is support for the measure's content validity. Additionally, the SEQ-C predicted outcomes consistent with original SEQ, and was similarly related to the antecedent of client gender context, providing evidence of construct validity of the measure.

Extent and Type of Client Harassment

Probably the most striking finding in this research is that 89% of the women studied had been sexually harassed by a client (that is, they endorsed at least one item on the SEQ-C), far exceeding even the upper range typically found in co-employee harassment research. However striking, this finding is not inconsistent with perceptions of some of the women interviewed, who indicated that dealing with sexual advances, sexism and the like, was just an occupational hazard for women. That the incidence rate of client harassment is so much higher than that of co-employee harassment begs the question to be answered: what is it about the client relationship that results in harassment being this prevalent? Drawing from the focus interviews as well as the industry press, possible answers to that question include issues of client power, lack of support from

inside the organization, lack of awareness, and the ability of clients to use the client relationship to attempt to develop a personal relationship. However, the possibility that self-selection into the study inflated the incidence rate must be considered as well, a point which will be elaborated upon in the limitations section.

Interestingly, sexist hostility, experienced by 85% of the sample, drove the high harassment rate; it was by far the most common form of client harassment experienced by these professional women. This raises the question as to whether this overwhelming prevalence of sexist hostility is a function of some aspect of the client relationship, or perhaps the industries in which most of this sample works (over 50% were from the legal and consulting fields). The other forms of harassment were also experienced by large percentages of women: sexual hostility and unwanted sexual attention were experienced by 68% and 51% of women, respectively. Finally, consistent with co-employee harassment research, sexual coercion was much less widespread, with almost 10% of the women experiencing it. This “classic” form of *quid pro quo* harassment therefore makes up only a fraction of the sexual harassment experiences of women. That is not to diminish its gravity or importance, this relatively “small number” translates into approximately one in ten working women having a client use coercion, subtle or otherwise, in an attempt to gain sexual compliance.

Model of Antecedents and Consequences

A major contribution of this study is taking the first step towards developing an integrated model of the antecedents and outcomes of sexual harassment by clients. This research shows the importance of at least one organizational variable that gives rise to

harassment by clients: the percentage of clients that are male. Similar to the co-employee context, a male-dominated client base was predictive of high levels of harassment.

Perhaps even a more important contribution of the study is the determination of the outcomes and costs of client harassment. This is a crucial determination, perhaps more so in the client context than in the co-employee context, because (according to the industry literature and the women interviewed in the study) employers are very reticent to deal with improper treatment of their female employees by clients, for fear of losing business. Making clear the costs of client harassment to organizations is critical to getting decision makers in industry to address the problem, especially if the threat of litigation continues to be so remote. This study showed that professional women who are harassed by their clients have lower job satisfaction, are more stressed, tend to engage in behaviors that could damage the organization's relationship with the client, and ultimately feel less attached to the organization on an affective level as well as spend more time thinking about quitting. It is important that these, and other, costs continue to be investigated.

Finally, in addition to determining that the model of antecedents and consequences of client harassment is similar to that of co-employee harassment, this research discovered, and created and analyzed a preliminary measure of, a unique outcome variable – client withdrawal. The behaviors comprising client withdrawal, while aimed at stopping or avoiding harassment, may have serious negative consequences for women's careers. For example, 43% of women who were harassed acted cold or

unfriendly toward the client in order to discourage his behavior, while 50% reacted by no longer pursuing new business with that client as aggressively. Because client withdrawal behaviors have the potential to so directly affect a woman's career, the measure, nature and effects of client withdrawal merit considerable additional study.

Perceptions of Harassment and the Effects of Labeling

Research of co-employee harassment has consistently found discrepancies between the percentage of women who have experienced harassing behavior (that is, endorsed at least one item on the SEQ), and those who label what they have experienced as sexual harassment, a phenomenon which has puzzled researchers. The typical labeling rates have ranged from 20 to 30%, and the current research found labeling rates for client harassment within that range, though at the high end, at 30%. Further, in the co-employee harassment literature the propensity to label has been shown in the co-employee harassment literature to increase with both the severity and the frequency of harassment, findings that were also replicated here.

However, the consistent finding in the co-employee literature that there is no difference in outcomes for women who label compared to those who do not was *not* replicated here. In the current study, labeling *did* have significant moderating or main effects on several outcomes of harassment. Specifically, labeling significantly mitigated the negative effects of harassment on health satisfaction and client withdrawal. Labeling had significant direct effects on affective commitment and turnover intentions, where labeling was related to higher affective commitment and lesser intentions to quit. While the rates of labeling for in client harassment are similar to co-employee harassment, it

appears that, in the client context, labeling has some positive effects for women who are harassed. This again raises the question: what is unique about the client relationship that would result in this divergent finding? One possibility is that, contrary to previous characterizations, labeling is the externalization of blame for the negative experience and consequences of harassment, and the benefits of that externalization are able to be reaped in the client context, but not in the co-employee context.

In the labeling literature, it has generally been posited that the effects of labeling (if any) would be negative because of the presumed negative consequences of labeling oneself a “victim” (Magley, Hulin, et al., 1999). However, perhaps labeling is not the equivalent of accepting victimization as has been suggested, but instead functions as the external attribution of blame. Women who label externalize at least some of the blame for the unhappy situation they have experienced. If in fact this externalization of blame for the harassment has positive consequences, then a possible explanation for the differences in the findings in the co-employee harassment research and the present study could rest in the different effects of blaming a co-worker and blaming a client. More specifically, it may be that a client is more easily conceived of as a member of an “out-group,” a person that needs to be dealt with, but who is no reflection on the victim herself or on the in-group to which she belongs (her organization). Conversely, when a woman labels a co-worker a harasser (even admits it to herself or on a survey), she is acknowledging that someone in her own in-group has attempted to abuse her, which clearly is a reflection on the group to which she belongs, as well as her place in that group. Therefore, the failure to find any effects of labeling on outcomes in the co-

employee context may be the result of labeling having both positive (externalization of blame) and negative (unfavorable reflection on in-group and self) effects in that context, essentially creating a null effect. In the client context however, the negative effects are arguably less (externalization of blame with no corresponding negative reflection on self or in-group), and therefore the positive effects of labeling are able to manifest themselves.

Future Directions

Clearly, confirmatory analyses of the SEQ-C and the model of antecedents and consequences are called for. Research should be done across different industries and different job types (professional, technical, clerical, blue collar, etc.), and with a broader diversity of demographic variables (i.e., socio-economic status and race). This study was done completely with professional women, and it is clear that some of the new client harassment items will not cross over to certain job types. For example, being left out of networking events, while common in the client context, would not reasonably occur in the retail sales context. Accordingly, it is likely that modifications or additions will need to be made to scale items to reflect the differences in client relationships across different job types, and perhaps across different industries.

Because of the diffuse nature of the sample in this study, organizational characteristics were not able to be measured, leaving an interesting question unaddressed: does organizational climate with regard to sexual harassment “spill over” to affect the way employees are treated by clients? For example, clients may pick up on negative treatment of women being permissible within an organization, and therefore feel a license

to behave in kind. If in fact organizational climate does have an effect on client harassment, what are the conditions under which this spill over can occur (i.e., perhaps it occurs only where business with clients is conducted at the organization's place of business)? Additionally, other organizational climate variables may affect client harassment, such as the strength of climate for customer service (Schneider, White & Paul, 1998), where a strong focus on customer service may put women in a vulnerable position and subject them to increased harassment by customers.

The beneficial moderating and direct effects of labeling found in this study also merit further attention. This was the one finding in this study that did not parallel the findings of co-employee research. Clearly, these findings need to be replicated in other samples. If the same results are found in other samples, the following questions should be addressed: What about the client relationship is driving these effects? And if there *is* something different, does it also affect reporting rates?

Finally, the role of client power in client harassment also warrants exploration. The role of power in co-employee harassment is the subject of an unsettled debate in the literature. Some assert that harassment is an outgrowth of power (either organizational power or socio-cultural power), with greater power resulting in more harassment (MacKinnon, 1983; Tangri, et al., 1982). Others have found that power had inconsistent effects on incidence rates of harassment (Sheets & Braver, 1999; Cleveland, 1994), but was a significant moderator of its effects, such that harassment by a lower power man has little negative effect (O'Connell & Korabik, 2000). This unresolved issue calls for more attention, especially in the client context where the power dynamics can be so volatile.

With clients, the issues of power may be less straightforward than with employees.

Boundaries with clients may not be as clear, and there may be a lack of support within the organization.

“The client relationship is a very, very sticky and complicated one and there’s always a lot of pressure from upper management within your company to make things happen and they usually don’t care what the means are.”

Practical Implications

The findings in this study have implications for both organizations and for working women. Given that client harassment is so prevalent, and that client and customer related jobs are on the increase, the negative consequences of harassment found in this research should be of serious concern to organizations, as harassment by clients is likely exacting both job related and psychological costs on the organization and its employees. Additionally, the industry press coverage has indicated that client harassment is indeed a significant problem for women, so significant that in some industries it is more prevalent than harassment by co-employees (Lawlor, 1995). In fact, many industry journals and magazines have addressed the issue and even given advice to employees and employers alike on how to handle harassing clients without losing their business or getting sued. Because of the increasing visibility of client harassment, employers could face a significant increase of lawsuits and complaints in the future. Organizations will need to determine how to protect employees (and themselves) while continuing to successfully do business with their clients and customers.

The findings in this study also have implications for working women. Client harassment was clearly not something that was easy to deal with. Given the high rates of

harassment when dealing with clients, women should be aware that harassment by clients is something they will likely face if they work in an industry with client/customer contact, and be aware of the implications that has for their careers.

Additionally, the findings in this study have important legal and policy implications. The consequences of client harassment are very similar to those found with harassment by co-employees, nevertheless, the law treats them differently. While courts have indicated that they will hold employers liable for the sexual harassment of employees by clients, the legal standard to which employers are held is much weaker. The rationale that employers cannot exert as much control over third parties (clients) as they can their own employees, and therefore should not bear the same liability is of course legitimate. However, this lesser liability, in combination with the dynamic of organizations catering to clients at any cost, leaves women without the means to protect themselves from their clients. In the words of one interviewee:

“If I go to [my boss] and complain about co-workers, there’s a mechanism within the company to deal with that. You know, there are people that are HR or counselors or whatever who handle these kinds of things... But in the client situation, there is no watch dog. There’s no regulator. It’s just you out there and you can’t tell the client that they can’t do things... You try to defend yourself but because of the complexity of the relationship, you can’t. I’d rather be harassed by a co-worker, it’s easier to deal with.”

Granted, the issue of protecting women while not placing unreasonable burdens on their employers is a very difficult question, and not likely one with easy answers. However, it is clearly a question with considerable and widespread ramifications, and should not be left unaddressed.

Limitations

As with all research, there are limitations. The sample studied was mostly white, well educated, well compensated and professional. Clearly this research needs to be replicated with other samples. At the same time, in other ways, the sample was quite diverse: there was a wide age range, numerous organizations (perhaps as many organizations as there were respondents) from multiple industries were represented, the participants were from 34 states spread across the United States, thus improving generalizability.

While the sample was restricted, there are indications that their experiences may be similar to other groups. First, the SEQ-C was based upon, and has a similar factor structure to the SEQ, which has been shown to generalize across industries, races, job types (i.e., professional, blue collar, etc.), and cultures (Gelfand, 1995). This is a good indication that this measure may do the same. Additionally, the antecedents and outcomes which have been found to occur across demographic groups for co-employee harassment were also found here, again evincing that the SEQ-C may also generalize.

It is possible, even likely however, that there are unique behaviors in different industries or job types that are not contained in the current SEQ-C. However, this does not diminish the generalizability of the construct. Items tapping the dimensions may have to be altered based on industry, but there is little reason to think that the dimensions of client harassment themselves will change. For example, unwanted sexual attention, which might occur to waitresses via unwelcome touching, would necessarily occur in a different way for employees with only virtual contact with their customers. However, the

underlying construct is likely unchanged. Because the structure of the interaction with clients and customers varies so much across different jobs and industries, it is to be expected that specific behaviors manifesting harassment will need to be modified to track those differences.

A second limitation is that the data in the study are all self-report, suggesting that results may be due to method variance or same source bias. Although definitive conclusions about client harassment must wait for cross-validation, there are reasons to believe that self-report issues will not compromise the results found here. First, research on common methods variance has produced conflicting results regarding whether or not it is in fact a serious problem in organizational research (Crompton & Wagner, 1994; Doty & Glick, 1998; Spector, 1987). Additionally, the fact that the creation of the construct and measure, as well as the choice of variables and structure of the whole model, was theory based, and that the results conformed so closely to those found in the extensive research on co-employee harassment, increases confidence that the findings in the present study are not due to chance.

Additionally, it is possible that the rates of harassment are biased due to self-selection. While the solicitation to participants did not use the term sexual harassment, it did say the study involved inappropriate treatment by clients. It is possible that women who had been harassed by a client would have been more motivated to respond, thus artificially inflating the incidence rates. Clearly this study needs to be replicated with a sample in which self-selection on the basis of harassing experiences is less likely to occur.

A final limitation is the unknown effects of using web-based surveys. While there is some evidence in the research that there is not much variance in factor structures, factor loadings, and construct intercorrelations across the administration modes of paper and pencil and web based surveys (Stanton, 1998), very little research has been done regarding the possible pitfalls of this method of data collection. However, two concerns that have been raised in the literature are addressed here (Stanton, 1998; Igbaria & Parasuraman, 1989). First, the open access of web pages has been cited as causing sampling problems, for researchers can lose control over who completes their surveys. However, in the present research only those who were sent a link via email were able obtain access to the survey. Second, there is some evidence that indicates a relationship between education level and computer anxiety, which would affect the demographic makeup of those willing to participate in the research. However, this problem is not a concern here because of the relatively consistent educational level of the individuals solicited for the study. Even so, this research will need to be replicated with the paper and pencil method, especially if it is to be done across different educational groups.

Conclusion

In the United States, approximately half of working women have been harassed by their coworkers or supervisors, and the current research has shown that harassment of professional women by clients may not only be as prevalent, but significantly more so. This study is a first step towards creating a measure of sexual harassment that has been psychometrically validated in the client context. It is the first systematic evidence to date of how to measure sexual harassment in the client context, and the first to systematically

analyze its antecedents and consequences, including consequences unique to such harassment. The resulting measure and model have opened the door to further study of the structure of client harassment, as well as its antecedents, moderators and consequences.

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Table 1
Original SEQ

In the last 2 years, how often have you been in a situation where a male supervisor or co-worker

- 1) told offensive sexual stories or jokes?
 - 2) made unwelcome attempts to draw you into discussion of sexual matters?
 - 3) treated you differently because of your sex?
 - 4) made offensive remarks about appearance, body or sexual activities?
 - 5) made gestures or used body language of a sexual nature that offended you?
 - 6) displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials?
 - 7) made offensive sexist remarks?
 - 8) made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic relationship with you despite your efforts to discourage him?
 - 9) continued to ask you for dates, drinks, dinner, etc., even though you said "No"?
 - 10) made you feel like you were being bribed with a reward to engage in sexual behavior?
 - 11) made you feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative?
 - 12) touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable?
 - 13) made unwanted attempts to stroke, fondle, or kiss you?
 - 14) treated badly for refusing to have sex?
 - 15) implied better treatment if you were sexually cooperative?
 - 16) put you down or condescending to you because of your sex?
-

Table 2
Quotes for New SEQ-C Items

New Item	Interviewee's Experience
asked you to "business" lunches, dinner or their office, but it appeared it was really an excuse to spend time with you personally	"...more often than not it's like, 'well, she's attractive. Maybe I'll just call her for dinner to do useless things, so I can talk to her and she can come over.' "
gave you more business/work in what appeared to an attempt to spend time with you personally	[while at an existing client's office, the client brought in another man to order some work from her and left them alone for an hour] "it was just a huge set up... [he really did order a painting] ...but it was obvious it was just another excuse to get together."
left you out of the typically "male" networking events and social gatherings (i.e., going to sporting events, going out for drinks, etc.) because of your sex?	"they have the whole all boys thing going on, drinking and golf, and stuff like that, and I never do stuff like that because [clients] never ask me to...I know of things that go on behind the scenes... no one ever asks me"
refused to work with women	"they would tolerate clients that didn't want women on their accounts... they would just not put women on their accounts"

Table 3
 Preliminary SEQ-C
new client items (in italics)

In the last 2 years, how often have you been in a situation where...

- 1) a male client or customer told offensive sexual stories or jokes?
 - 2) a male client or customer made unwelcome attempts to draw you into discussion of sexual matters?
 - 3) a male client or customer treated you differently because of your sex?
 - 4) a male client or customer made offensive remarks about appearance, body or sexual activities?
 - 5) a male client or customer made gestures or used body language of a sexual nature that offended you?
 - 6) a male client or customer displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials?
 - 7) a male client or customer made offensive sexist remarks?
 - 8) a male client or customer made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic relationship with you despite your efforts to discourage him?
 - 9) a male client or customer continued to ask you for dates, drinks, dinner, etc., even though you said "No"?
 - 10) a male client or customer made you feel like you were being bribed with a reward to engage in sexual behavior?
 - 11) a male client or customer made you feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative?
 - 12) a male client or customer touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable?
 - 13) a male client or customer made unwanted attempts to stroke, fondle, or kiss you?
 - 14) a male client or customer treated badly for refusing to have sex?
 - 15) a male client or customer implied better treatment if you were sexually cooperative?
 - 16) *a male client or customer asked you to "business" lunches, dinner or their office, but it appeared it was really an excuse to spend time with you personally?*
 - 17) *a male client or customer gave you more business/work in what appeared to an attempt to spend time with you personally?*
 - 18) *a male client or customer left you out of the typically "male" networking events and social gatherings (i.e., going to sporting events, going out for drinks, etc.) because of your sex?*
 - 19) *a male client or customer refused to work with women?*
 - 20) a male client or customer put you down or condescending to you because of your sex?
-

Table 4
Client Withdrawal Scale

-
1. I tried to get a co-worker to handle interactions with that client.
 2. I made up some excuse so he would leave me alone.
 3. I no longer pursued new business with the client as aggressively.
 4. I avoided contact with the client as much as possible.
 5. I tried not to be with the client alone (i.e., made sure there would be other people around when meeting with the client, brought co-worker to meetings, etc.)
 6. I acted cold or unfriendly toward the client in order to discourage his behavior.
-

Table 5
Order of Survey Measures

-
1. Job satisfaction
 2. Turnover intentions
 3. Affective commitment
 4. Stress in general
 5. Health satisfaction
 6. Preliminary SEQ-C
 7. Client withdrawal
 8. Client power
 9. PTSD
 10. SEQ-C criterion item
 11. General information & demographics
-

Table 6
SEQ-C Item Factor Loadings

	Unwanted Sexual Attention	Gender Harassment – Sexist Hostility	Gender Harassment – Sexual Hostility
...repeated requests for dates, drinks, etc. despite being told no	.9		
...attempts to establish a romantic relationship	.79		
...attempts to stroke, fondle or kiss	.75		
...used “business” lunches as excuse to spend personal time with you	.74		
...gave more business in attempt to spend personal time with you	.68		
...touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable	.47		
...put you down or condescending to you because of your sex		.89	
...left you out of “male” networking events because of your sex		.73	
...refused to work with women		.65	
...treated you differently because of your sex		.61	
... <i>offensive sexist remarks</i> *			
... attempted to draw you into discussion of sexual matters			.90
... told offensive sexual stories or jokes			.75
...made offensive gestures of a sexual nature			.70
...made offensive remarks about appearance, body or sexual activities			.59
... <i>displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials</i> *			

* loaded on more than one factor

Table 7
 Revised SEQ-C (Factor Groups and sexual coercion item group):
 subscale reliabilities, and subscale-total, item-subscale and item-total correlations

	<i>Item/Total r</i>	<i>Item/Scale r</i>
Gender Harassment – sexual hostility ($\alpha = .85$; subscale-total $r = .85$)		
1) . . . told offensive sexual stories or jokes	.68	.83
2) . . . attempts to draw you into discussion of sexual matters	.71	.87
4) . . . made offensive remarks about appearance, body or sexual activities	.70	.81
5) . . . made offensive gestures of a sexual nature	.71	.81
Gender Harassment – sexist hostility ($\alpha = .84$; subscale-total $r = .79$)		
3) . . . treated you differently because of your sex	.69	.84
18) . . . left you out of “male” networking events because of your sex	.60	.84
19) . . . refused to work with women	.60	.72
20) . . . put you down or condescending to you because of your sex	.68	.86
Unwanted Sexual Attention ($\alpha = .89$; subscale-total $r = .83$)		
8) . . . attempts to establish a romantic relationship	.69	.83
9) . . . repeated requests for dates, drinks, etc. despite being told no	.70	.86
12) . . . touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable	.67	.73
13) . . . attempts to stroke, fondle or kiss	.56	.75
16) . . . used “business” lunches as excuse to spend personal time with you	.69	.85
17) . . . gave more business in attempt to spend personal time with you	.65	.80
Sexual Coercion ($\alpha = .89$; item group-total $r = .58$)		
10) . . . bribed to engage in sexual behavior	.57	.93
11) . . . threatened with retaliation if not sexually cooperative	.45	.87
14) . . . treated badly for refusing to have sex	.45	.74
15) . . . implied better treatment if sexually cooperative	.54	.93

Table 8
SEQ-C Factor Intercorrelations
(and sexual coercion item group)

Item	1	2	3	4
1. Gender Harassment – sexual hostility	—			
2. Gender Harassment – sexist hostility	.56**	—		
3. Unwanted Sexual Attention	.58**	.40**	—	
4. <i>Sexual Coercion item group</i>	.32**	.20**	.69**	—

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 9
Item Correlations with Criterion Item (Labeling)

Item	Correlation with criterion item
Stories or jokes	.36
Discussion of sexual matters	.45
Treated differently	.33
Offensive remark re: appearance or sexual activity	.37
Gestures or body language	.44
Attempts at romantic/sexual relationship	.48
Ask for dates, etc.	.40
Bribed or rewarded	.34
Threatened with retaliation	.28
Touched	.43
Fondle	.42
Treat you badly for refusing	.32
Implied better treatment	.36
"Business" lunches, etc.	.41
More business/work	.38
Left out of networking events	.22
Refused to work with women	.30
Put down /condescending	.32

all correlations significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 10
Frequency of Harassment by Item and Subscale

	<i>Percentage endorsing on SEQC</i>
Gender Harassment – sexual hostility	67.9
1) . . . told offensive sexual stories or jokes	61.3
2) . . . attempts to draw you into discussion of sexual matters	37.6
4) . . . made offensive remarks about appearance, body or sexual activities	33.5
5) . . . made offensive gestures of a sexual nature	30.5
Gender Harassment – sexist hostility	85.3
3) . . . treated you differently because of your sex	82.7
18) . . . left you out of “male” networking events because of your sex	53.7
19) . . . refused to work with women	34.7
20) . . . put you down or condescending to you because of your sex	59.5
Unwanted Sexual Attention	51.2
8) . . . attempts to establish a romantic relationship	25.1
9) . . . repeated requests for dates, drinks, etc. despite being told no	16.8
12) . . . touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable	17.5
13) . . . attempts to stroke, fondle or kiss	10.0
16) . . . used “business” lunches as excuse to spend personal time with you	31.8
17) . . . gave more business in attempt to spend personal time with you	24.0
<i>Sexual Coercion item group</i>	8.4
10) . . . bribed to engage in sexual behavior	5.2
11) . . . threatened with retaliation if not sexually cooperative	4.3
14) . . . treated badly for refusing to have sex	3.8
15) . . . implied better treatment if sexually cooperative	5.2
Entire SEQ-C	89.3

Table 11
Summary Statistics for All Model Constructs

	No. Items	Mean	SD	α
Percent Male Clients	1	61%	26.50	n/a
Client Harassment	14	.70	.54	.91
Stress in General	16	24.51	12.32	.88
Job Satisfaction	18	45.04	10.09	.88
Health Satisfaction	8	16.52	6.30	.78
Psychological Distress (PTSD)	17	.70	.54	.95
Turnover Intentions	4	8.45	3.94	.84
Affective Commitment	6	31.08	9.92	.89
Client Withdrawal	6	2.37	1.02	.85

Table 12
Intercorrelations Amongst All Model Variables

Variable	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1. %men	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
2. client harassment	.21**	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
3. stress	.13*	.25**	--	--	--	--	--	--	--
4. job satisfaction	-.10	-.19**	-.42**	--	--	--	--	--	--
5. health satisfaction	-.03	-.19**	-.38**	.27**	--	--	--	--	--
6. turnover intentions	.08	.06	.38**	-.55**	-.28**	--	--	--	--
7. affective commitment	-.08	-.02	-.26**	.501*	.20**	-.62**	--	--	--
8. post traumatic stress*	.01	.49**	.25**	-.08	-.21**	-.28**	.04	--	--
9. client withdrawal	-.04	.52**	.14*	-.09	-.14*	.09	-.08	.42**	--

* Correlation significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

** Correlation significant at the .01 level (2-tailed)

*Note: All correlations involving PTSD and client withdrawal used only data from participants who had been harassed, as they were the only ones who answered those questions

Table 13
Goodness of Fit Indices for Initial Models

Model	χ^2	<u>Df</u>	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Entire Model	154.28	20	7.71	.72	.17	.10
Partial Model	116.88	9	12.99	.77	.20	.10

Table 14
Goodness of Fit Indices for Revised Models

Model	χ^2	<u>Df</u>	χ^2/df	CFI	RMSEA	SRMR
Entire Model	27.11	18	1.59	.98	.05	.05
Partial Model	15.79	7	2.26	.98	.06	.04

Table 15
Hierarchical Regression Analysis in Labeling Analysis

Step	PTSD			Health Sat			Job Sat		
	ΔR^2	F	β	ΔR^2	F	β	ΔR^2	F	β
1. Sexual Harassment	.23**	72.94**	.48**	.03**	8.84**	-.18**	.04**	10.92**	-.20**
2. Labeling ★	.00	1.12	-.07	.01	2.06	-.10	.00	.49	-.05
3. Interaction	.00	1.04	.19	.03**	8.89**	-.59**	.01	1.46	.24

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

‡ = Borderline significance $.06 < p < .10$

★ Note, labeling was coded such that labeling was given a value of 1 and not labeling a value of 2. Therefore, a negative coefficient on this table indicates a positive relationship of labeling with the relevant variable.

Table continues, next page

Table 15, continued
 Hierarchical Regression Analysis in Labeling Analysis

Step	Client Withdrawal			Turnover Intentions			Affective Commit		
	ΔR^2	F	β	ΔR^2	F	β	ΔR^2	F	β
1. Sexual Harassment	.32**	111.7**	.56**	.00	.48	-.04	.00	.02	.01
2. Labeling★	.00	.71	-.05	.02*	4.61*	.15*	.02*	5.72*	-.17*
3. Interaction	.02*	5.59*	.41*	.00	.68	.17	.01	1.64	-.26

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

‡ = Borderline significance $.06 < p < .10$

★ Note, labeling was coded such that labeling was given a value of 1 and not labeling a value of 2. Therefore, a negative coefficient on this table indicates a positive relationship of labeling with the relevant variable.

Figure 1
Integrated Model of the Antecedents and Consequences of Co-employee Harassment
(Fitzgerald, L. F., Drasgow, F., Hulin, C. L., Gelfand, M. J., & et al., 1997).

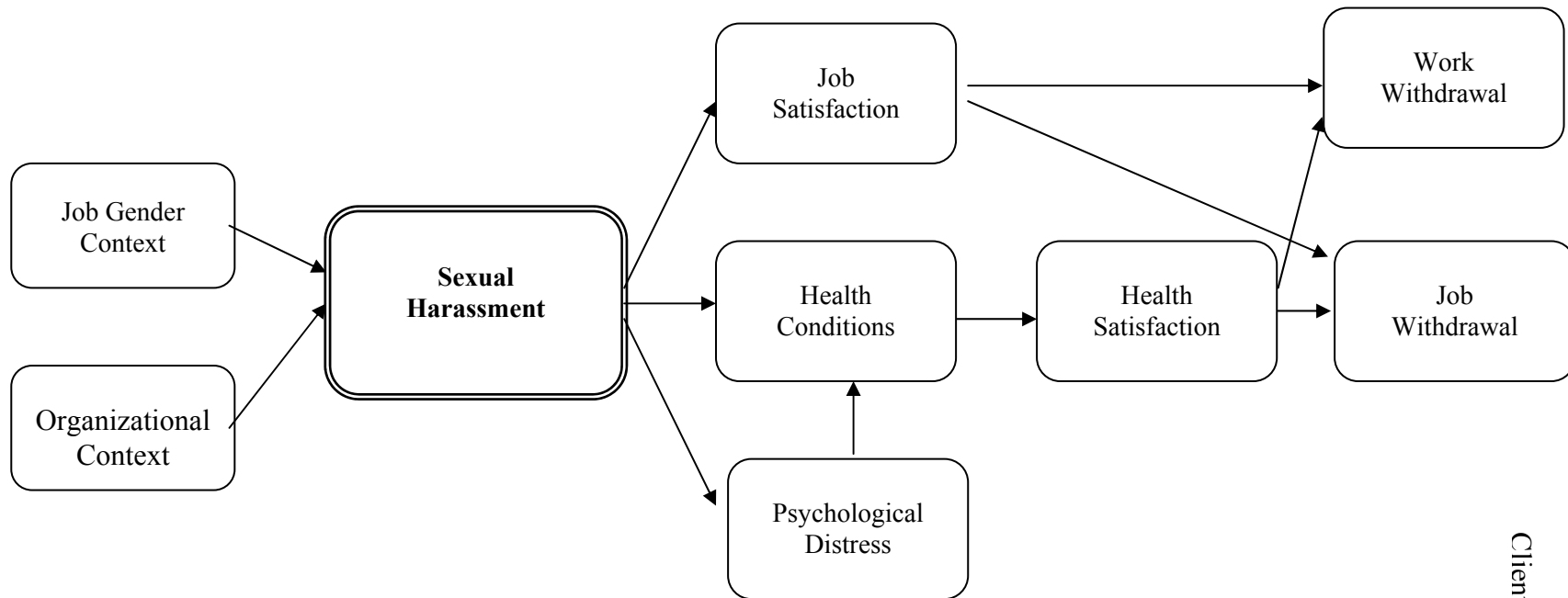
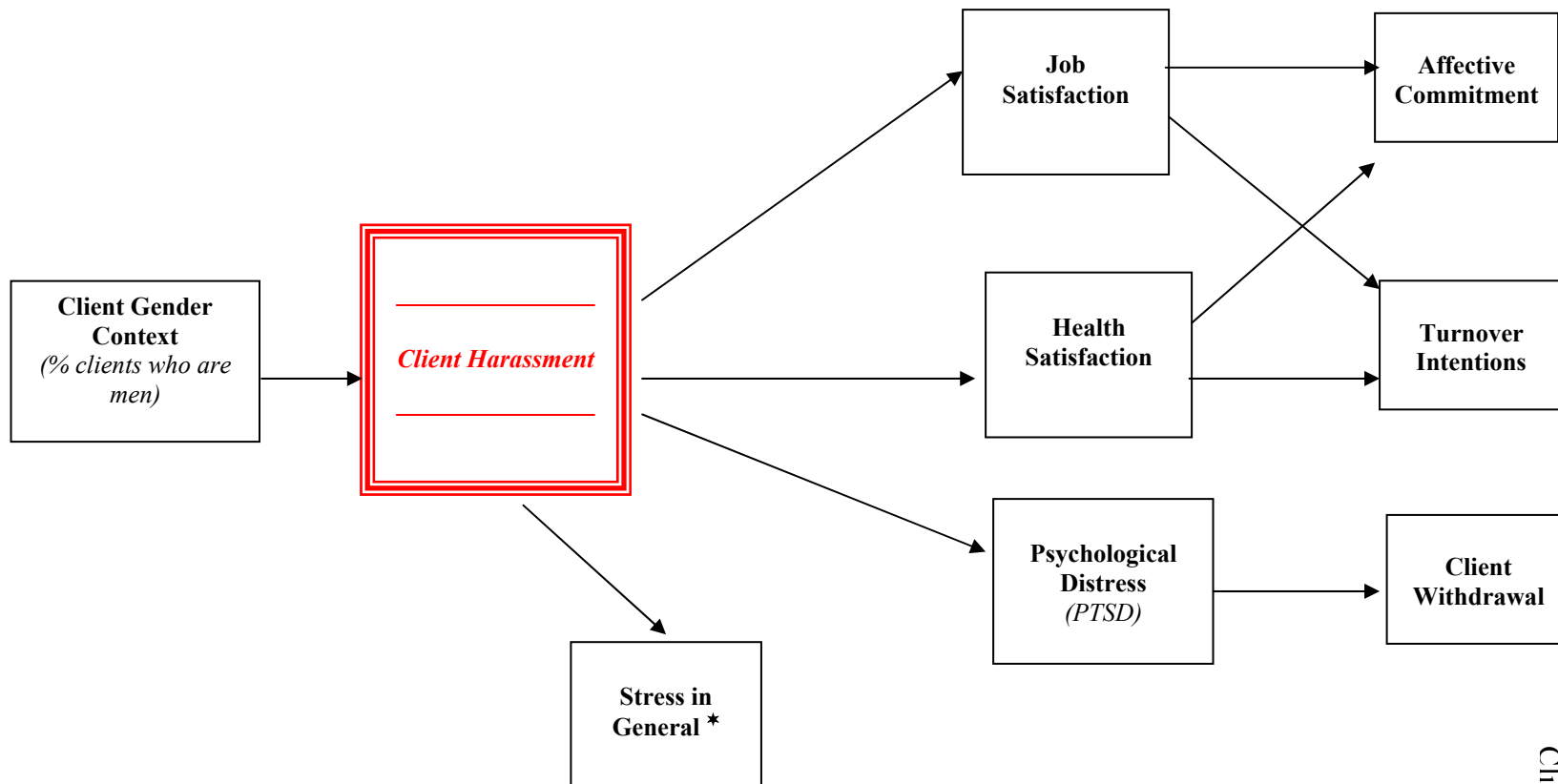
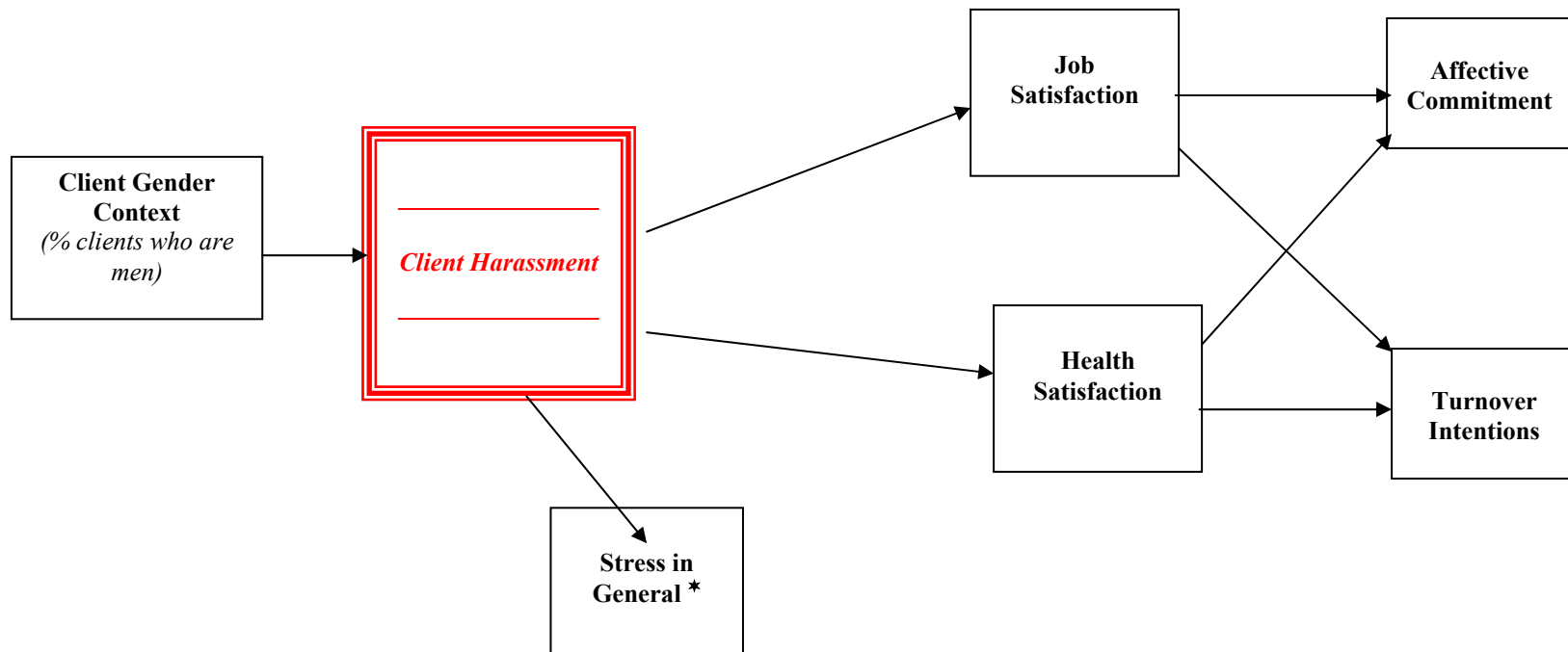


Figure 2
Entire Model



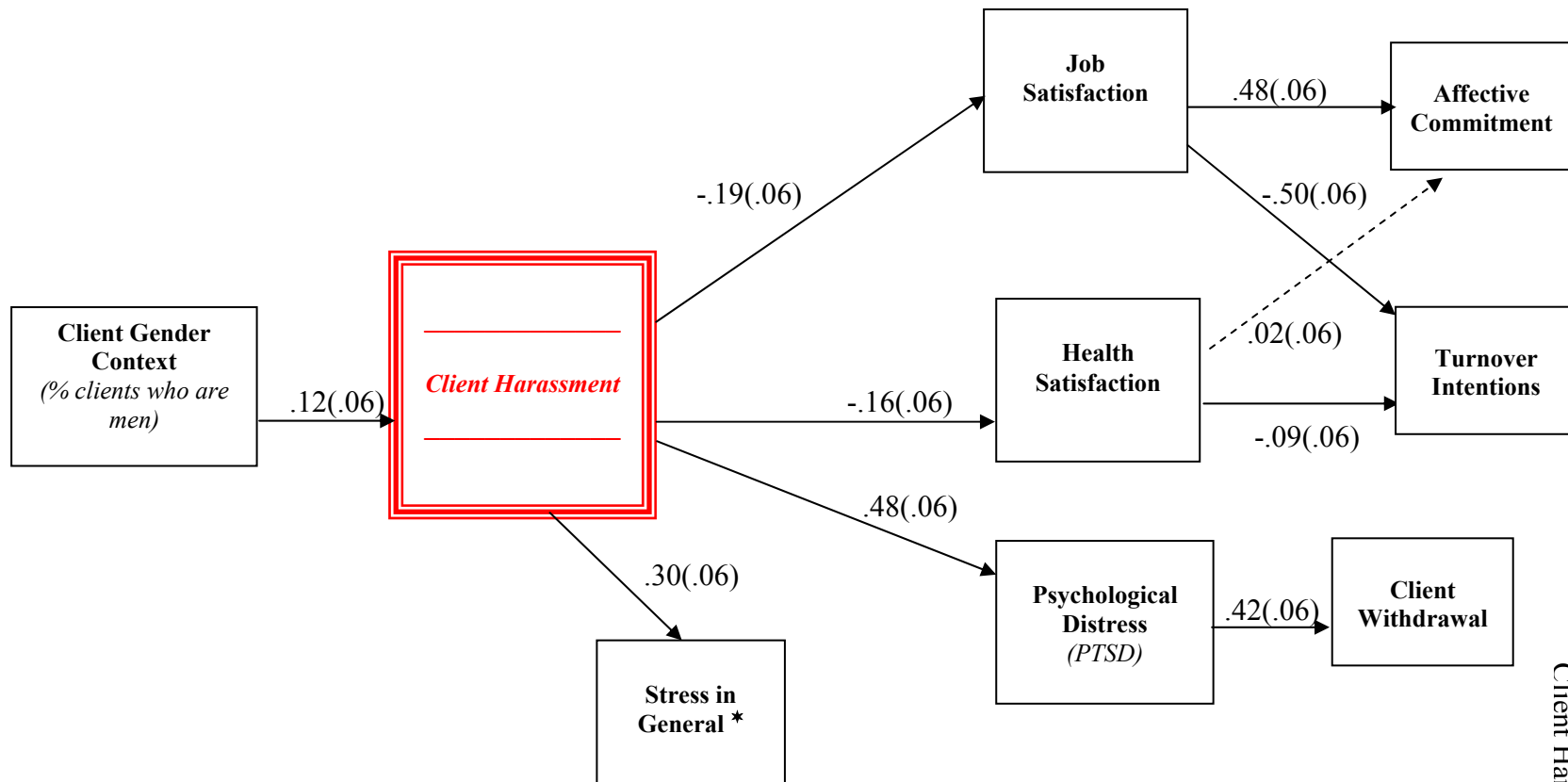
* While not depicted in this illustration, stress was allowed to covary with the six outcome variables.

Figure 3
Partial Model



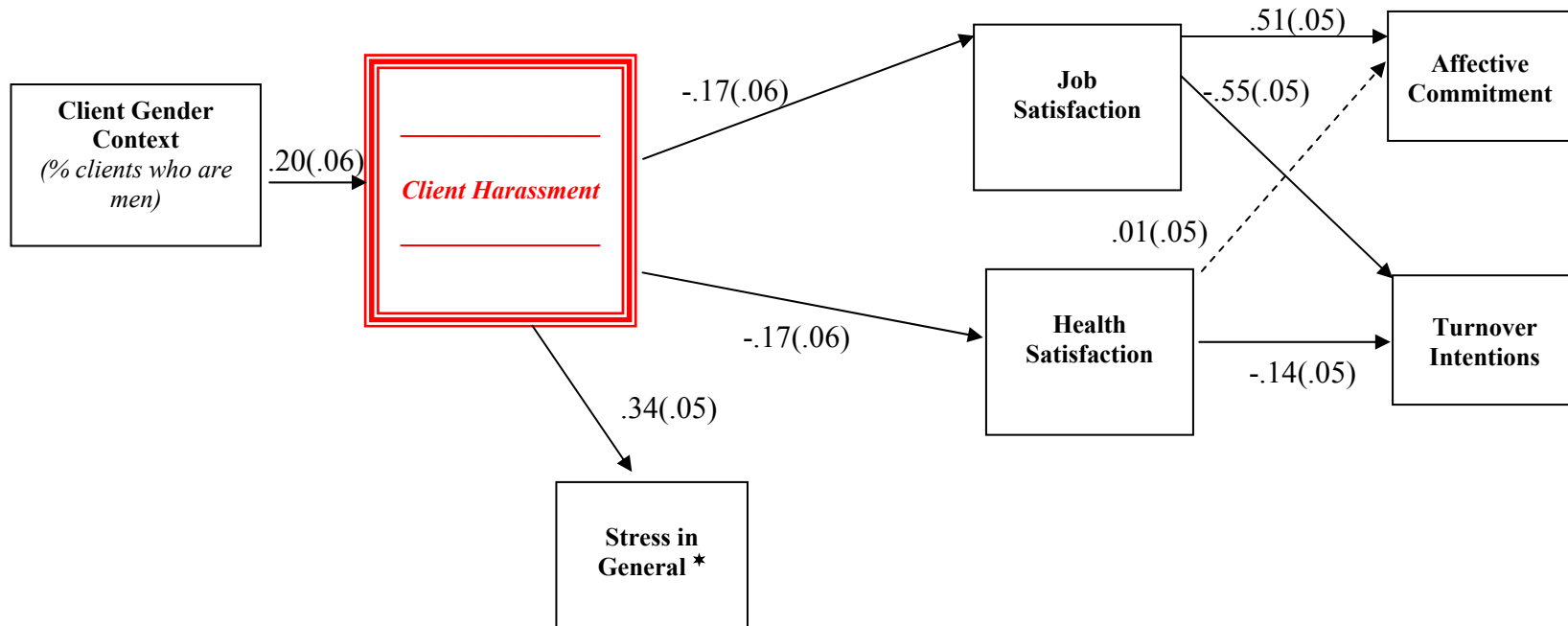
* While not depicted in this illustration, stress was allowed to covary with the six outcome variables.

Figure 4
Entire Model
Mplus estimates of initial structural model coefficients and their standard errors (in parentheses)



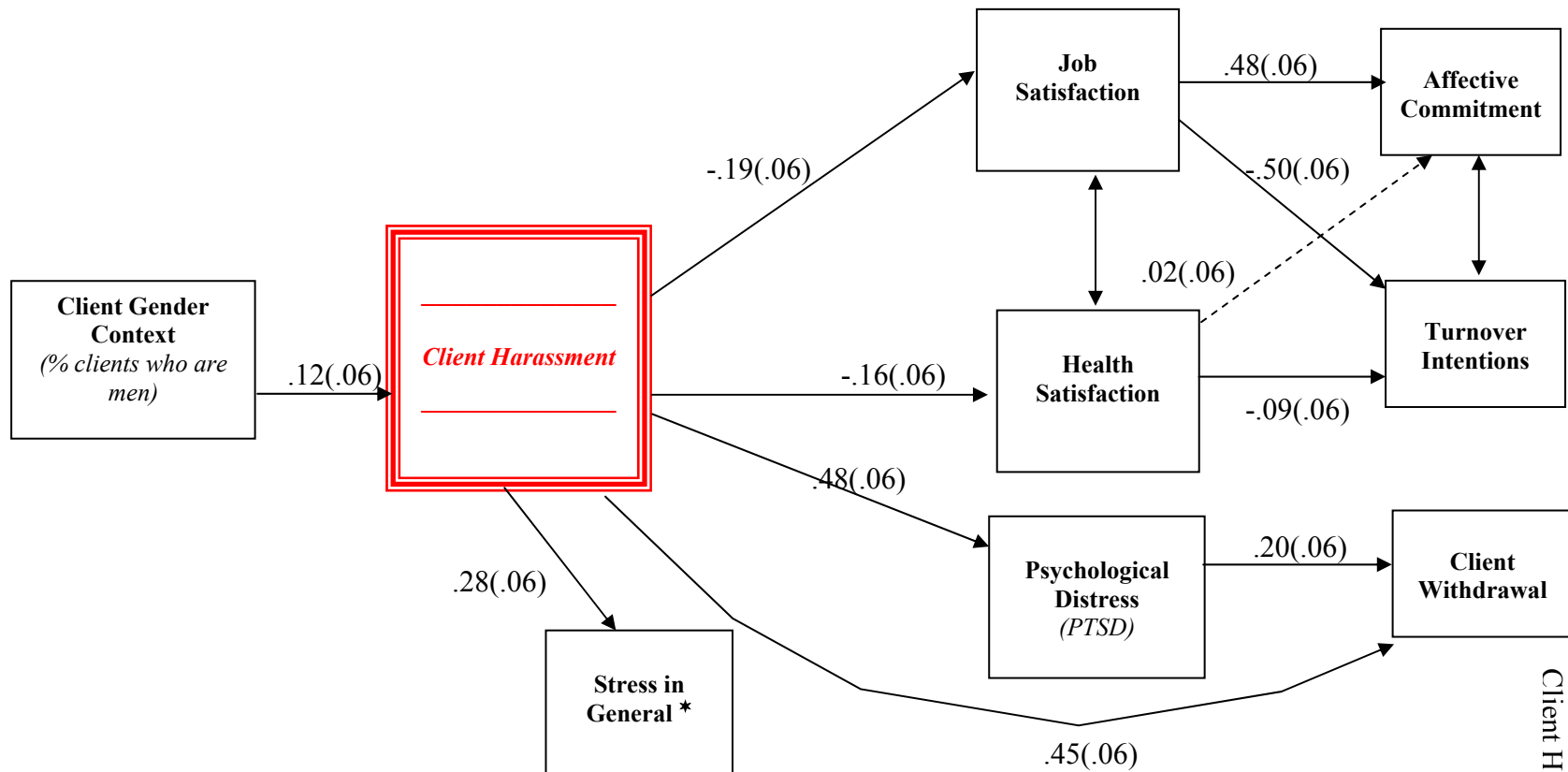
* While not depicted in this illustration, stress was allowed to covary with the six outcome variables.

Figure 5
Partial Model
Mplus estimates of initial structural model coefficients and their standard errors (in parentheses)



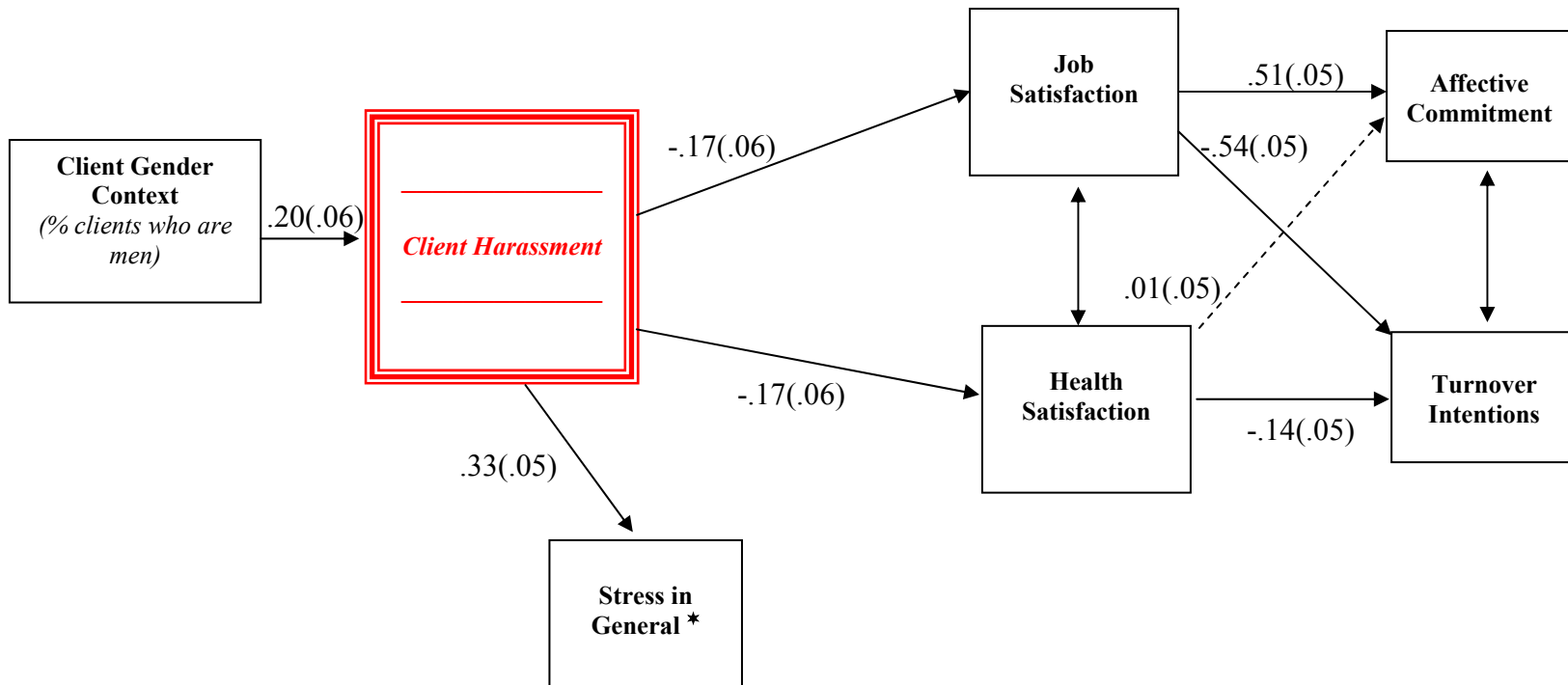
* While not depicted in this illustration, stress was allowed to covary with the six outcome variables.

Figure 6
Entire Model with Revisions
Mplus estimates of initial structural model coefficients and their standard errors (in parentheses)



* While not depicted in this illustration, stress was allowed to covary with the six outcome variables.

Figure 7
 Partial Model with Revisions
 Mplus estimates of initial structural model coefficients and their standard errors (in parentheses)



* While not depicted in this illustration, stress was allowed to covary with the six outcome variables.

Figure 8
Interaction between client harassment and labeling on health satisfaction

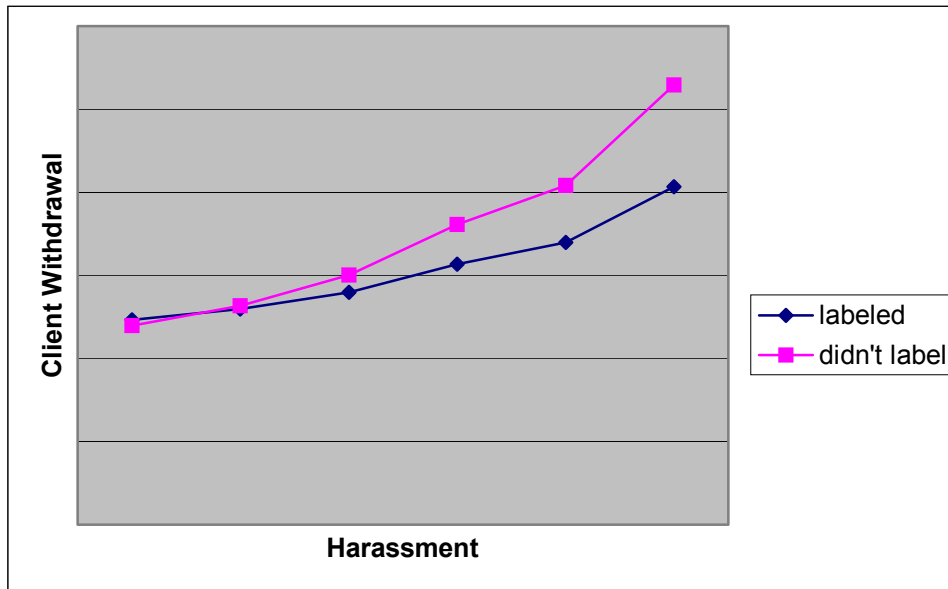


Figure 9
Interaction between client harassment and labeling on customer withdrawal



Appendix A

Original SEQ

In this part of the questionnaire, we would like to know about your experiences here at this organization. **For each item, please circle the number that most closely describes your own experience with MALE co-workers and supervisors DURING THE LAST 24 MONTHS.** Please answer as frankly and completely as you can; remember that YOUR ANSWERS ARE COMPLETELY CONFIDENTIAL.

DURING THE PAST 2 YEARS at this organization, have you been in a situation where any of your MALE supervisors or co-workers:

	Never	Once or twice	Some- times	Often	Many times
1) told offensive sexual stories or jokes?	0	1	2	3	4
2) made unwelcome attempts to draw you into discussion of sexual matters?	0	1	2	3	4
3) treated you differently because of your sex?	0	1	2	3	4
4) made offensive remarks about appearance, body or sexual activities?	0	1	2	3	4
5) made gestures or used body language of a sexual nature that offended you?	0	1	2	3	4
6) displayed, used, or distributed sexist or suggestive materials?	0	1	2	3	4
7) made offensive sexist remarks?	0	1	2	3	4
8) made unwanted attempts to establish a romantic relationship with you despite your efforts to discourage him?	0	1	2	3	4
9) continued to ask you for dates, drinks, dinner, etc., even though you said "No"?	0	1	2	3	4

Appendix A, continued

10) made you feel like you were being bribed with a reward to engage in sexual behavior?	0	1	2	3	4
11) made unwanted attempts to stroke, fondle, or kiss you?	0	1	2	3	4
12) touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable?	0	1	2	3	4
13) propositioned you?	0	1	2	3	4
14) made you feel threatened with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative?	0	1	2	3	4
15) treated badly for refusing to have sex?	0	1	2	3	4
16) implied better treatment if you were sexually cooperative?	0	1	2	3	4
17) put you down or condescending to you because of your sex?	0	1	2	3	4
18) actually rewarded prior to sexual cooperation?	0	1	2	3	4
** Have you been sexually harassed?	Yes	No			

Appendix B

Interview Questions

OPENING:

Tell me about any incidents with clients where you were made to feel uncomfortable, or felt your were treated inappropriately.

[Depending on the response given, ask follow-up questions regarding the following]

Actual Harassment

- What exactly happened?
 - What specifically did he do/say?
 - Verbal? How explicit?
 - Physical?
- What context did it occur in?
- Over what time period did it occur?
 - Frequency?
- Was anyone else aware of the behavior?
- Any other incidents?

Characteristics of harasser, and victim's relationship to the harasser

- What was your relationship with the client like prior and during the harassment?
- What position did the harasser hold with the client company?
- How much business did the client company bring to your company?
- Did the harasser have the power to take the business elsewhere?
- How much of your personal business portfolio was reliant on the client?(i.e., 50%)
- If you lost that business/were moved off the case/etc, would your career suffer?

How she dealt with harassment (action)

- Ignore the behavior?
- Confront the harasser?
- Go along with it / tolerate it to avoid confrontation?
- Attempt to avoid the harasser? In what ways?
- Report the behavior to anyone? To whom?
- Did you think your organization would take your complaint seriously?

Effects of Harassment

Professional:

- Relationship with client changed?
- Lost client's business?

Got reassigned?
Absenteeism?
Less motivated at work?
“Client Withdrawal” behaviors

Personal:

Depression
Self-esteem
Illness

Compare CSH to SH

→ In your view, how do CSH & SH compare? How are they similar? How are they different?

Time permitting, also ask about observations of CSH happening to others.

Appendix C

Job Descriptive Index

Job in General

Think of your job in general. All in all, what is it like most of the time?

For each word, chose:

“Yes” if it describes your work

“No” if it does not describe your work

“?” if you cannot decide

- ☐ Pleasant
- ☐ Bad
- ☐ Ideal
- ☐ Waste of time
- ☐ Good
- ☐ Undesirable
- ☐ Worthwhile
- ☐ Worse than most
- ☐ Acceptable
- ☐ Superior
- ☐ Better than most
- ☐ Disagreeable
- ☐ Makes me content
- ☐ Inadequate
- ☐ Excellent
- ☐ Rotten
- ☐ Enjoyable
- ☐ Poor

Appendix D

Job Withdrawal
(Hanisch & Hulin, 1990)

The following questions ask you about leaving your current job. Please answer them as honestly as possible – remember, your answers are **completely confidential**

How often do you think about QUITTING your job?

- A) Never
- B) Seldom
- C) Sometimes
- D) Often
- E) Constantly

How likely is it that you will QUIT your job in the NEXT SEVERAL MONTHS?

- A) Very Unlikely
- B) Unlikely
- C) Neither likely or unlikely
- D) Likely
- E) Very likely

All things considered how desirable is it for you to QUIT your job?

- A) Very desirable
- B) Desirable
- C) Neutral; neither desirable nor undesirable
- D) Undesirable
- E) Very Undesirable

How likely is that you will explore job opportunities by checking job listings or want ads, or visiting job placement centers in the NEXT SEVERAL MONTHS?

- A) Very Unlikely
- B) Unlikely
- C) Neither likely or unlikely
- D) Likely
- E) Very likely

Appendix E

Affective Commitment
(Meyer, Allen & Smith, 1993)

The following questions ask you about the **organization where you currently work**. (If you are self employed, please read the questions as referring to working for yourself).

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization.

Strongly Agree	•	•	•	•	•	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

2. I really feel as if this organization's problems are my own.

Strongly Agree	•	•	•	•	•	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

3. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organization.

Strongly Agree	•	•	•	•	•	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

4. I do not feel emotionally attached to this organization.

Strongly Agree	•	•	•	•	•	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

5. This organization has a great deal of personal meaning for me.

Strongly Agree	•	•	•	•	•	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

6. I do not feel like part of the family at my organization.

Strongly Agree	•	•	•	•	•	Strongly Disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Appendix F

Health Satisfaction Index Subscale of the Retirement Descriptive Index

The following questions pertain to your perceptions of your HEALTH.

For each word choose:

“Yes” if the item describes your HEALTH

“No” if the item does not describe your HEALTH

“?” if you cannot decide.

Have a lot of minor ailments	a) Yes	b) No	c) ?
Need little or no medical care	a) Yes	b) No	c) ?
Feel tired all the time	a) Yes	b) No	c) ?
Must be careful what I do	a) Yes	b) No	c) ?
Excellent	a) Yes	b) No	c) ?
Never felt better	a) Yes	b) No	c) ?
Poor	a) Yes	b) No	c) ?
Better condition than most people my age	a) Yes	b) No	c) ?

Appendix G

Crime Related Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder Scale

Below is a list of problems and complaints that people have in response to stressful experiences. In Section 9, you were asked about certain experiences that you have had with clients. We would like to know if you had any of the following reactions to those experiences.

	Not at all	A little bit	Modera tely	Quite a bit	Extrem ely
1. You had repeated, disturbing memories, thoughts, or images of this situation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. You had repeated, disturbing memories, thoughts, or images of this situation	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. You suddenly acted or felt as if the situation were happening again (as if you were reliving it).	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. You felt very upset when something reminded you of this situation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. You had physical reactions (e.g., heart pounding, trouble breathing, sweating) when something reminded you of this situation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. You avoided thinking about or talking about this situation or avoided having feelings related to it.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. You avoided certain activities or situations because they reminded you of this situation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. You had trouble remembering important parts of this situation.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix G, continued

9. You experienced a loss of interest in activities that you used to enjoy.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
10. You felt distant or cut off from other people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
11. You felt emotionally numb or unable to have loving feelings for those close to you.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12. You felt as if your future somehow would be cut short.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
13. You had trouble falling or staying asleep.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
14. You felt irritable or had angry outbursts.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
15. You had difficulty concentrating.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16. You were super-alert or watchful or on guard.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
17. You felt jumpy or easily were startled.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Appendix H

Client Withdrawal Scale

In the previous section, you were asked about certain experiences that you have had with clients/customers. With regard to any of those client or customer behaviors that **YOU PERSONALLY experienced**, think about your reaction. Please indicate how descriptive each statement is of your reactions.

Please be as honest as possible - your answers are **completely confidential**

1. I tried to get a co-worker handle interactions with that client.

Not descriptive at all	•	Moderately descriptive	•	Extremely descriptive
1	2	3	4	5

2. I told him I didn't like what he was doing.

Not descriptive at all	•	Moderately descriptive	•	Extremely descriptive
1	2	3	4	5

3. I no longer pursued new business with the client as aggressively.

Not descriptive at all	•	Moderately descriptive	•	Extremely descriptive
1	2	3	4	5

4. I avoided contact with the client as much as possible.

Not descriptive at all	•	Moderately descriptive	•	Extremely descriptive
1	2	3	4	5

5. I tried not to be with the client alone (i.e., made sure there will be other people around when meeting with the client, brought co-worker to meetings, etc.)

Not descriptive at all	•	Moderately descriptive	•	Extremely descriptive
1	2	3	4	5

6. I acted cold or unfriendly toward the client in order to discourage his behavior.

Not descriptive at all	•	Moderately descriptive	•	Extremely descriptive
1	2	3	4	5

Appendix I

General Information & Demographics

1. Educational Degree(s)
 - ☐ Associates
 - ☐ BA/BS
 - ☐ MA/MS
 - ☐ MBA
 - ☐ JD
 - ☐ PhD
 - ☐ MD
2. Total years of full time work experience (in all fields you've worked in):
3. What is your primary field/occupation?
 - ☐ Accounting
 - ☐ Architecture / Engineering
 - ☐ Banking / Finance
 - ☐ Entrepreneur
 - ☐ Business
 - ☐ Computer & Mathematical
 - ☐ Consulting
 - ☐ Education / Training
 - ☐ Government
 - ☐ Insurance
 - ☐ Healthcare
 - ☐ Legal
 - ☐ Life, Physical & Social Sciences
 - ☐ Lobbying / Political Action
 - ☐ Management
 - ☐ Media / Publishing
 - ☐ Personal Care & Services
 - ☐ Pharmaceuticals
 - ☐ Retail
 - ☐ Sales
 - ☐ Telecommunications
4. The above categories do not adequately describe every person's field. If this is the case for you, please describe your field/occupation in your own words.
5. Years in this field:
6. Current Job Title (position):
7. Years in current position:
8. How many people work in your organization (or branch if there is more than one location)?
9. Are you self-employed?
10. What state do you work in?

11. Please estimate how many hours PER WEEK (on average) you spend engaged in the following contact with clients:

	None	0-2	2-5	5-10	10-15	15-20	20+
On the phone (including conference calls)	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Face to face with them at YOUR place of business	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Face to face with them at the CLIENT'S place of business	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
At social / networking events	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Corresponding via email	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

12. Approximately what percentage of your clients are men?

13. Do you have children?

14. If yes, how many?

15. What is your annual salary (including bonuses, commissions, etc.)?

16. Approximately what percentage of your household income is your salary?

17. What is your age?

18. What is your race / ethnicity? (please check all that apply)

- | | |
|-------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> White/Caucasian | <input type="checkbox"/> South Asian (i.e. Indian, Pakistani) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Black/African decent | <input type="checkbox"/> Native American |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Hispanic | <input type="checkbox"/> Arab/Middle Eastern |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Asian/Pacific Islander | <input type="checkbox"/> Other (please specify) |

19. Are you a U.S. citizen?

20. If No, how many years have you lived in the U.S.?

Appendix J

Stress in General Scale

Do you find your job stressful? For each of the following words or phrases, think of your job in general. Please be as honest as possible – your answers are **completely confidential**.

Next to each word choose

“Yes” if it describes your job, 2 for “No” if it does not describe your job, or 3 for ? if you cannot decide.

	Yes	No	?
Demanding	1	2	3
Hectic.....	1	2	3
Calm	1	2	3
Relaxed.....	1	2	3
Many things stressful.....	1	2	3
Pushed.....	1	2	3
Pressured.....	1	2	3
Way too busy.....	1	2	3
Irritating.....	1	2	3
Under control.....	1	2	3
Nerve-racking.....	1	2	3
Hassled.....	1	2	3
Comfortable.....	1	2	3
More stressful than I'd like..	1	2	3
Smooth-running.....	1	2	3
Overwhelming.....	1	2	3