

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

ANTECEDENTS AND WORK-RELATED OUTCOMES OF SEXUAL
HARASSMENT OF HOTEL EMPLOYEES IN ACCRA METROPOLIS

BY

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TOURISM

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DECLARATION

Candidate's Declaration

I hereby declare that this thesis is the result of my own original work and that no part of it has been presented for another degree in this University or elsewhere.

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Supervisors' Declaration

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ABSTRACT

Whereas sexual harassment has been extensively studied elsewhere, the phenomenon has received limited empirical investigation in Ghana's hotel industry. Consequently, little is known about the prevalence and consequences of sexual harassment in hotel workspaces in Accra Metropolis. This study investigated the antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment on hotel employees in Accra Metropolis, focusing on its impact on job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment.

Within a pragmatic research paradigm, 583 respondents from 55 hotels completed self-administered questionnaires after they were selected via a multi-stage sampling procedure. Univariate, biivariate and multivariate statistical tools were used to analyse the quantitative data, while qualitative data was subjected to content analysis. Results show that unwelcomed and unwanted sexual behaviours are common occurrences in hotel workplaces in Accra. Young and unmarried female workers were more likely than older male workers to be confronted with sexual harassment. Job gender context and perceived climate for sexual harassment are inconsequential to vulnerability to sexual harassment.

Dependence on tipping is related to sexual harassment of employees in food and beverage department. Job satisfaction is negatively affected by sexual harassment. Male employees who experience sexual harassment are likely harbour the intentions to quit. It is recommended that sexual harassment policy be formulated and training should be provided to all stakeholders and supported with strict implementation of minimum wage agreement in hotels.

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DEDICATION

To Christopher L. Mensah and in memory of my late Father

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

WTTC	World Travel & Tourism Council
MTCA	Ministry of Tourism and Creative Arts
UNDP	United Nations Development Programme
EUNECA	United Nations Economic Commission for Africa
UNWTO	United Nations World Tourism Organisation
GTA	Ghana Tourism Authority
EEOC	Employment Opportunity Commission
ILO	International Labour Organisation
ICN	International Council of Nurses
WHO	World Health Organisation
PSI	Public Services International
TUC	Trade Union Congress
EC	European Commission
HREOC	Australia Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission
CIPD	Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development
EOC	Equal Opportunities Commission
USMSPB	U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board
HRC	Zealand Human Rights Commission
EFTA	European Free Trade Association
AWLA	African Women Lawyers Association, Ghana
EEOC	U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission

WWU	Working Women United
SMEs	Small and Medium-Sized Enterprises
SMIDEC	Small and Medium Industries Development Corporation
IHG	InterContinental Hotels Group
AUT	Auckland University of Technology

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

Background to the Study

Ghana's hospitality and tourism sector has experienced considerable and consistent expansion since the middle of the 1980s. The sector's total contribution to the country's GDP as of the year 2014 stood at 6.7 percent, supporting about 122,000 direct employment and this is projected to increase to 170, 000 jobs (2.5 percent of total employment) by the close of 2015 (World Travel & Tourism Council [WTTC], 2015). International tourist arrivals reached 827,501 in 2011 with corresponding receipts of US\$1634.3 million (Ministry of Tourism and Creative Arts [MTCA], United Nations Development Programme [UNDP], United Nations Economic Commission for Africa [EUNECA], & United Nations World Tourism Organisation [UNWTO], (2012). The accommodation sub-sector has seen remarkable growth between 1986 and 2013. The number of accommodation facilities in the country has increased from 420 units with 2,321 rooms as of December 1986 to 2, 228 licensed units with 39,752 rooms at the end of 2013 (Ghana Tourism Authority [GTA], 2014).

Hospitality and tourism is a labour-intensive service industry, and the survival of hospitality firms is dependent on competitive advantage through the availability of quality and efficient personnel to deliver, operate, and manage tourist products (Amoah & Baum, 1997). A skilled, enthusiastic, and committed workforce is seen as vital to the success of firms in the industry (Kusluvan & Kusluvan, 2000). As most of the interactions between guests and clients in the industry are in the form of face-to-face exchange

with the service being purchased and consumed at the same time, the standard of service provided is of paramount importance. Employee attitude, performance, and behaviour are key determinants of service quality, which have a direct linkage to guest satisfaction and loyalty (Heskett, Jones, Loveman, Sasser & Schlesinger, 1994).

Human resources are critical for service quality, guest satisfaction and loyalty, competitive advantage, and organisational performance in hospitality and tourism organisations (Kusluvan, Kusluvan, Ilhan, & Buyruk, 2010). Bettencourt and Brown (2003) argue that guest contact employees contribute to service excellence as they deliver on the promises of organisations as well as creating a favourable image for the firm thereby providing better service than the competition. The significance of the human element in business success is supported by many theories and models such as the dynamic capability theory (Eisenhardt & Martin, 2000); competency-based theory (Prahalad & Hamel, 1990); and organisational social capital theory (Leana & Buren, 1999) that stress the critical role of employees in organisations.

Employees require a working environment that enables them to perform their work optimally under non-threatening conditions. However, organisational researchers, feminist scholars and activists, and media reports show that the workplace is plagued by unwelcomed and unwanted sexually harassing behaviours with debilitating consequences for victims as well as organisations. These sexual behaviours are termed sexual harassment, and are conceived as counterproductive work behaviours in organisational

research literature (Hollinger & Clark, 1982; Robinson & Bennet, 1995; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Rotundo & Xie, 2008; Popovich & Warren, 2010)

Sexual harassment has received considerable research attention for close to four decades due to an overwhelming consensus among researchers, policymakers, feminine activists, and legislators that it constitutes a major workplace problem. The origin of the term sexual harassment is linked to North America and its coinage is credited to MacKinnon (1979). According to Pina, Gannon, and Saunders (2009), the definition of what constitutes sexual harassment has been problematic to researchers from the time the practice started receiving academic attention, and researchers, legal scholars, and policy makers around the world have not agreed upon a universal definition. Sexual harassment is defined as unwanted sex-based behaviour that is used as a condition of employment or creates a hostile work environment for targets (those toward whom harassment is directed (Equal Employment Opportunity Commission [EEOC], 1980; Fitzgerald, 1996). Beyond a workplace-based specific definition, sexual harassment is defined as any unwanted, unreciprocated, and unwelcome behaviour of a sexual nature that is offensive to the person involved, and causes that person to be threatened, humiliated, or embarrassed (International Labour Organisation [ILO], International Council of Nurses [ICN], World Health Organisation [WHO], Public Services International [PSI], 2002). Sexual harassment is succinctly, defined as offensive behaviour that has a sexual dimension (O' Donohue, Downs & Yeater, 1998).

Sexual harassment includes gender harassment (nonsexual gender-based experiences, such as comments that women are incompetent),

unwanted sexual attention (unsolicited sex-based comments, gestures, or attempts at physical contact), and sexual coercion (*quid pro quo*; job related threats or benefits used to compel sexual cooperation (Fitzgerald, Shullman, Bailey, Richards, Swecker, Gold, Ormerod, & Weitzman, 1988; Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995). However, Gutek, Murphy, and Douma, (2004) argue that gender harassment does not refer to sexual behaviour and is less considered as sexual harassment. Pinching, patting, sexual remarks, brushing up against another's body, sexually suggestive objects, among others, are considered sexual harassment on condition that the target interprets the act as offensive, unwelcomed and unwanted. Following from these views, what constitutes sexual harassment is surrounded by subjectivism.

Though sexual harassment can occur anywhere, it is pervasive in the workplace, and many researchers all over the world have documented the frequency of its occurrence. However, according to Cogen and Fish (2007), actual incidence rates are difficult to determine because of the differences in the research method employed (e.g. sample size and diversity, definition/categorisation of sexual harassment, and time frame). A research [involving over 13,000 workers in the United States of America \(USA\)](#) found that 42 percent of women and 14 percent of men had experienced some form of sexual harassment while at work (Carrell, Elbert, Hatfield, Grobler, Marx, & Van De Schyf, 2000). In the United Kingdom (UK), a 1999 survey of Trade Union Congress [TUC] women's conference delegates found that 27 percent of women had experienced sexual harassment in the workplace (TUC, 1999). A high incidence of sexual harassment was identified in national surveys carried out in Austria, Germany and Luxembourg, and in

branch studies in Austria, Germany, Norway and the UK with incidence rates varying between 70 percent and 90 percent (European Commission [EC], 1999). A research by the Australia Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission (HREOC, 2008) found that 28 percent of adults (41 percent female and 14 percent male) had experienced sexual harassment. From the documented incidence rates, the propensity for females to experience sexual harassment is higher than males. Regarding perpetrators of sexual harassment, contrary to earlier expectations, co-workers commit most sexually harassing behaviours in the workplace than managers or supervisors (Martindale, 1992; Cleveland, 1994; Crocker & Kalemba, 1999; Cho, 2002; Lin, 2006). Other studies have found clients to be the leading perpetrators of sexually harassing incidents (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Poulston, 2008; Mkono, 2010).

The negative impact of sexual harassment on victims, observers of harassment and organisations has been explored. A recent meta-analysis of 41 empirical studies, involving 41,300 employees showed that sexual harassment negatively affected respondents' jobs, as well as their psychological and physical health (Willness, Steel & Lee, 2007). The potential psychological effects of sexual harassment include lowered self-esteem, difficulty with interpersonal relations, increased stress, depression, frustration and anxiety (Paludi & Barickman, 1991). Feeling of nausea, gastrointestinal disturbances, headaches, exhaustion, insomnia, jaw tightening, among others are some of the negative health implications of sexual harassment (Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997). Sexual harassment can result in illness, apparent lack of commitment, poor

performance, absenteeism, and in some cases, resignation (Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development [CIPD], 2005). Sexual harassment has the potential to damage business performance, dent the company's public image through adverse publicity, and financial strain through potential personal injury claims (Equal Opportunities Commission [EOC], 2005). Employees who witness sexual harassment may conclude that the organisation does not care about the workforce, ultimately leading to negative assumptions regarding organisational norms and behaviours, specifically relating to fairness and justice (Lamertz, 2002).

The coping strategies used by victims of sexual harassment have been a subject of empirical investigation. According to Knapp, Faley, Ekeberg, and Dubois (1997), victim responses to Sexual harassment vary in terms of the focus (self vs. initiator) and the mode of response (self vs. supported), leading to four categories of reactions: (a) avoidance/denial (e.g., simply ignoring what has happened and withdrawing socially); (b) social coping (e.g., discussing the behaviour with colleagues and friends); (c) confrontation/negotiation (e.g., trying to deal directly with the perpetrator of the harassment); and (d) advocacy seeking (e.g., filing a formal complaint). The choice of a reactionary approach to sexual harassing behaviour is influenced by the severity of the behaviour and gender. Bronner, Peretz, and Ehrenfeld (2003) found that when confronted with 'mild' sexual harassment situations, most nurses and nursing students used passive coping strategies, mainly in the form of ignoring the behaviour or getting away from the perpetrator. In 'severe' types of sexual harassment (e.g., forcing the subject to touch someone else intimately and attempts to have sexual relations),

significant gender difference was retained; women were significantly more assertive than men in their reactions (resisting, objecting or reporting the harassing behaviour). A study by the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board [USMSPB] found that the coping strategies usually used by women was ignoring the behaviour (61%), avoiding the harasser (48%), asking the person to stop the behaviour (48%), and making a joke of the behaviour (31%), among other reactions in a descending order (USMSPB, 1981).

The frequency and severity of sexual harassment incidents vary by industry category, and the hospitality and tourism industry, comparatively, reports more sexual harassment incidents than other sectors. According to Poulston (2008), the incidence of sexual harassment in the hospitality industry is of legendary proportions. In a British study of bullying and sexual harassment in workplaces, it was found that 24 percent of hospitality sector respondents experienced unwanted sexual attention at work, which was the highest figure of all participating sectors (Hoel, 2002). In 2000, the New Zealand Human Rights Commission (HRC) analysed sexual harassment complaints received between 1995 and 2000. Of the 284 complaints, 19 percent came from hospitality, although the industry employed only 4.5 percent of the workforce at the time (HRC, 2001). In a report by the European Agency for Safety and Health at Work (2000), the hotel and restaurant sector was the one most frequently noted for sexual harassment complaints in European Union [EU] and European Free Trade Association [EFTA] countries. Woods and Kavanaugh (1994) found that more than 80 percent of men and women they surveyed perceived sexual harassment in the restaurant workplace as an ongoing problem. Using a sample of hospitality

management students on industrial attachment in hotels in Zimbabwe, Mkono (2010) found that about 78 percent of the students were victims of sexual harassment.

Statement of the Problem

The Ghanaian workplace is not without the phenomenon of sexual harassment. Andoh (2001) found that about 74 percent of female employees and 42 percent of male employees in Ghana experience sexual harassment within the working environment. Some of the sexually harassing behaviours reported in the study of Andoh (2001) were unwanted repeated proposals, unwanted sexual teasing, pressure for dates, and demand for sex in exchange for employment opportunities, among others. A study by African Women Lawyers Association, Ghana [AWLA] involving a sample of 789 women in formal and academic settings reported sexual harassment incidence rate of 63 percent (AWLA, 2003). Another study involving predominantly, university students and workers selected from public offices in Accra, Takoradi and Tamale reported that only 25 percent of 298 respondents admitted that they had ever been victims of sexual harassment. This included 47 (30%) of the 154 women participants, compared to 24 (16%) of 144 male participants. The low frequency rate found in the study is not a surprise since only about half of the men and women who had been harassed were willing to discuss their experiences (Aryeetey, 2004). The reluctance to discuss sexual harassment experience was alluded to in an earlier opinion of Coker-Appiah and Cusack (1999) who said that silence and apathy surround sexual harassment in the Ghanaian society. Other studies (Andoh, 2010; Britwum &

Anokye, 2006; Morley, 2011) have explored sexual harassment among female bank employees and students in selected universities in the country.

After over four decades of prolific research on sexual harassment, Africa and largely Ghana, is underrepresented in the sexual harassment literature. Generally, the majority of available literature on sexual harassment originates from the USA, Australia and Western Europe, with most studies focussing on health care professionals, particularly nursing staff (Lawoko, Soares, & Nolan, 2004; Privitera, Weisman, Cerulli, Xin & Groman, 2005). It is further alleged that as of the year 1997, 85 percent of sexual harassment studies had been conducted in the USA and with over 70 percent of the studies using faculty or student samples, consequently, providing somewhat limited perspective on sexual harassment (Mott & Condor, 1997 as cited in Hunt, Davidson, Fielden, & Hoel, 2010). As pointed out by Hardman and Heidelberg (1996), social-sexual behaviours that may constitute sexual harassment in some countries might be acceptable in others. It is therefore tenable to say that findings from these studies may have limited applicability in the Ghanaian workplace in view of the difference in values and cultural norms. Additionally, in spite of the high propensity of the occurrence of sexual harassment in the sector, the Ghanaian hospitality industry has received limited research attention. Sexual harassment of hotel employees in Ghana has remained on the fringes of academic discourse in the country. Research on Ghana's hotel sector has tended to concentrate on hotel location decisions (Adam, 2013; Adam & Amuquandoh, 2013), environmental management (Mensah, 2006; Mensah, 2007; Mensah & Blankson, 2013; Mensah, 2013), and guest issues (Amoako,

Aurthur, Bandoh, & Katah, 2012; Nimako & Mensah, 2013; Amissah, 2013). According to Nkono (2010), research on sexual harassment in African hotel workplaces is scanty. Even though, the hotel sector has attracted research attention in other jurisdictions (Eller, 1990; Chung, 1993; Guerrier & Adib, 2000; Cho, 2002), issues relating to sexual harassment and employee job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment as well as the association between economic dependence on tipping and sexual harassment vulnerability remain unexamined thoroughly.

Britwum and Anokye (2006) argue that most studies exploring the incidence of sexual harassment in Ghana are disproportionately students' dissertations that focus on university campus settings. Consequently, there remains a paucity of research on the incidence of sexual harassment among hotel employees in Ghana. Furthermore, there is little comprehensive research on how sexual harassment affects the job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment of hotel employees in Ghana. It is against this background that the present study seeks to investigate how organisational conditions facilitate the occurrence of sexual harassment as well as how it affects job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitments of employees in Accra metropolis.

Objectives of the Study

The aim of the study was to examine the organisational antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment of hotel employees in Accra Metropolis, focussing on its impact on job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment. The specific objectives of the study were to:

- Investigate the prevalence of sexual harassment in hotel employees' working life;
- Highlight the relationship between employees' personal characteristics and sexual harassment vulnerability;
- Examine the extent to which job and client gender contexts predict sexual harassment levels of hotel employees;
- Explore the influence of organisational context on sexual harassment victimisation of hotel employees;
- Ascertain the influence of perceived dependence on tipping on sexual harassment vulnerability;
- Examine the impact of sexual harassment on employees' satisfaction with their jobs, co-workers, supervisors and clients;
- Assess the effects of sexual harassment on employees turnover intentions;
- Evaluate the impact of sexual harassment on organisational commitment of hotel employees.

Hypotheses

*H*₁: There is no significant relationship between employees' personal characteristics (sex, age, marital status, education, job tenure, department and star rating of hotel) and sexual harassment vulnerability.

*H*₂: Sex mix of employees at a hotel is not significantly related to vulnerability to sexual harassment.

*H*₃: Sex mix of employees' department of work is not significantly related to vulnerability to sexual harassment.

*H*₄: Sex mix of guests in hotels is not significantly related to vulnerability to sexual harassment.

*H*₅: There is no significant relationship between perceived sexual harassment climate and employee vulnerability to sexual harassment

*H*₆: There is no significant relationship between perceived economic dependence on tipping and vulnerability to sexual harassment

*H*₇: There is no significant relationship between sexual harassment and employee job satisfaction (overall job satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, co-worker satisfaction and satisfaction with guest)

*H*₈: There is no significant relationship between sexual harassment and turnover intentions of employees

*H*₉: There is no significant relationship between sexual harassment and organisational commitment of employees.

Significance of the Study

The economic, health and psychological cost of sexual harassment to organisations and employees has been discussed thoroughly in the literature (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Faley, Knapp, Kustsi, & DuBois, 1999; Celik & Celik, 2007). Lowered productivity and morale, higher absenteeism and turnover, and legal fees are some of the effects of sexual harassment in the workplace (Sbraga & O'Donohue, 2000). According to the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission [EEOC], prevention is the best tool to eliminate

sexual harassment in the workplace. The EEOC contends that the best means of prevention is by communicating to employees that sexual harassment will not be tolerated. This communication should be in the form of the creation of formal grievances process and by immediately and appropriately pursuing complaints (EEOC, 2011).

These laudable management measures and procedures can be implemented when there is adequate understanding of sexual harassment by management, policymakers and employees. Conducting studies on sexual harassment is important to show its trends, relevancy, and negative effects on both employees and organisations. It is an initial step to force administrators to think about and to take necessary measures to combat sexual harassment in the hospitality industry in Ghana. These studies create awareness about sexual harassment and its consequences among hospitality employees, employers and policymakers (Celik & Celik, 2007).

Given that studies on sexual harassment in Ghana's hospitality industry are limited, this study will contribute theoretical knowledge as well as providing empirical evidence on the occurrence of sexual harassment in hotel workplaces in Accra.

Organisation of Study

The thesis is organised into nine chapters. The first chapter presents a background to the study, problem statement, objectives and hypotheses, and the significance of the study. Chapter Two focuses on the conceptualisation and theoretical perspectives of sexual harassment as well as issues relating to measurement of sexual harassment, prevalence, typologies of sexual

harassment behaviours, consequences of sexual harassment and victims' reactions to sexual harassment. The third chapter focuses on empirical evidence of sexual harassment studies in Ghana and the hospitality industry. Chapter Four elaborates on the philosophical underpinnings of the study as well as the research design, sources of data, target population, and sample size and sampling techniques. Furthermore, the research instrument, data collection procedures and ethical issues conclude the chapter. Chapter Five examines the profile of the respondents, job and client gender context, job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment of the respondents. Sexual harassment experiences of the respondents, labelling of sexual harassment, structure of sexual harassment and perpetrators of sexual harassment are presented in Chapter Six. Chapter Seven elaborates on a bivariate results pertaining to personal characteristics, job/client gender context, sexual harassment climate and dependence on tipping and sexual harassment vulnerability. Chapter Eight presents a multivariate analysis of the antecedents of sexual harassment as well as the job-related outcomes of sexual harassment. Lastly, Chapter Nine summarises the study by providing the key findings, conclusions, theoretical and practical implications, contribution to knowledge, recommendations, limitations and directions for future studies.

CHAPTER TWO

CONCEPTUALISING SEXUAL HARASSMENT AND THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

Introduction

This chapter is in three sections. The first part examines the concept of sexual harassment and the theories that explain its occurrence in the workplace, and how these models are used as the theoretical foundations of the current study. Organisational and personal vulnerability factors and the psychological, health and job-related outcomes of sexual harassment are discussed. Empirical Ghanaian sexual harassment literature is examined to reveal contextual gaps in knowledge. Furthermore, literature relating to sexual harassment in hospitality workplaces is critically reviewed to reveal areas that require empirical investigations. The chapter concludes with the conceptual framework to evaluate the organisational antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment in hotels in Accra metropolis.

Sexual Harassment Defined

The concept of sexual harassment was coined in the USA through the efforts of feminist legal scholars and women activists who worked through public ‘speak outs’ to draw attention to the harassment and discrimination against women in the workplace. Lin Farley, an American author, journalist and feminist, and described as an expert on sexual harassment is reported to have coined the term, which she defines as “ unwanted sexual advances against women by male supervisors, bosses, foremen or managers” (Crouch, 2001, citing Farley, 1978). Sexual harassment describes a gamut of

unwelcomed, unwanted and unsolicited sexual behaviours considered unacceptable.

In order to appreciate the magnitude and to understand the dimensions of Sexual harassment, it is worthy to note that the phenomenon started receiving attention in the 1970s with the earliest reported research conducted by Working Women United (WWU), a grass-roots organisation at Cornell University in 1975 in the USA (Chung, 1993). With a modest beginning in the 1970s and 1980s, scholarly works on sexual harassment increased rapidly in the 1990s. For instance, of all the articles on the phenomenon in psychology journals, over 85 percent have been published since 1990 (Gettman, 2003). The growing interest in sexual harassment follows the acknowledgement among researchers, policymakers and corporate institutions that the phenomenon constitutes a major challenge in the workplace.

One major difficulty that bedevils sexual harassment is the lack of universally acceptable conceptualisation. Victim subjectivism and interpretation has been one of the major challenges of defining sexual harassment. What constitutes sexual harassment varies from person to person. Moreover, developing a consistent operational definition of sexual harassment is difficult because it refers to a heterogeneous group of behaviours (McCabe & Hardman, 2005). The challenge of defining what constitutes sexual harassment has been problematic to researchers, legal scholars and policymakers around the world (Pina et al., 2009). Consequently, several definitions of sexual harassment abound in the prolific literature on it and Lin (2006) categories sexual harassment definitions into

legal and psychological. The legal definition of sexual harassment treats the phenomenon as an objective construct. That is, two people experiencing the same sexual behaviours would be considered sexually harassed by observers. A psychological conceptualisation on the other hand, is subjective because two people experiencing the same behaviour may arrive at different conclusions about whether sexual harassment has occurred (Lengnick-Hall, 1995).

The early definitions of sexual harassment are legalistic in nature because awareness on the phenomenon was vigorously led by feminist lawyers and activists whose primary motive at the time was to outlaw the behaviour. For instance, strong arguments were put forward by a U.S.A. feminist legal scholar, Catherine MacKinnon that sexual harassment is a form of sex discrimination and as such, actionable under Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 (MacKinnon, 1979). Informed by this line of reasoning, the EEOC defines sexual harassment as unwelcome sexual advances, request for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitutes sexual harassment when this conduct explicitly or implicitly affects an individual's employment, unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance, or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment (EEOC, 2008). To date, this is the most comprehensive and commonly cited definition of sexual harassment.

In framing sexual harassment as resulting from power differentials between men and women, MacKinnon (1979) defines sexual harassment as unwanted imposition of sexual requirements in the context of a relationship of unequal power. In line with earlier conception of sexual harassment as a

gendered phenomenon, Lafontaine and Tredeau (1986) view sexual harassment as any action occurring within the workplace whereby women are treated as objects of the male sexual prerogative. In limiting victimisation to women, sexual harassment is defined as unwanted sex-related behaviour at work that is judged by the recipient as offensive, exceeding her resources or threatening well-being (Fitzgerald, Swan & Magley, 1997). By including the immediate state of a sexual harassment victim, MaCann (2005) considers sexual harassment as a conduct of a sexual nature which is unwelcome to its recipient, which results in feelings of humiliation, embarrassment or intimidation. Beyond a workplace-based specific definition, sexual harassment is defined as any unwanted, unreciprocated, and unwelcome behaviour of a sexual nature that is offensive to the person involved, and causes that person to be threatened, humiliated, or embarrassed (ILO et al., 2002). Sexual harassment is succinctly, defined as offensive behaviour that has a sexual dimension (O' Donohue, Downs & Yeater, 1998).

A cursory examination of the definitions of sexual harassment reveals gender-specific and gender-neutral definitions. Gender-specific definitions (Lafontaine & Tredeau, 1986; Fitzgerald et al., 1997) are influenced by the earlier dominant conception that sexual harassment was gender-specific and that, it is an expression of male oppression against women, and thus women are the only victims of sexual harassment. Indeed, in tandem with this viewpoint, many studies have been carried out with all female samples (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Cho, 2002; Gettman, 2003; Thomas, 2006; Alagappar, Lean, David, Ishak, & Ngeow, 2011). However, gender-neutral definitions (EEOC, 1980; ILO et al., 2002; MaCann, 2005) do not limit

sexual harassment experiences to only women. Empirical evidence (United States Merits Systems Protection Board [USMSPB], 1981 & 1995; Waldo, Berdahl, & Fitzgerald 1998; Lin, 2006) supports this position though some researchers (Wise & Stanley, 1987; Vaux, 1993) have challenged sexual harassment of men.

Following emerging empirical evidence that men are also exposed to varying degrees of unwelcome sexual behaviours, it is now untenable for feminists and other researchers to disregard men's experiences of sexual harassment at the workplace. In line with this empirical evidence, the central argument of this thesis is that sexual harassment can be experienced by both women and men working in hotels in Accra Metropolis. Consequently, the study adopts ILO et al. (2002)'s gender-neutral definition of sexual harassment. Admittedly, it is incontrovertible that overwhelming proportion of sexual harassment victims are women.

Theories of Sexual Harassment

Understanding why sexual harassment occurs is an important step to informing programme and policy formulation to deal with the phenomenon in the workplace. However, according to Welsh (1999), one major weakness of sexual harassment studies is their inability to provide a systematic theoretical explanation of its occurrence. In the view of Tangri and Hayes (1997), sexual harassment studies only provide descriptive models that describe only covariates and not insightful theory of sexual harassment. Though some models and theories have been proffered, it is the view of Skaine (1996) that there is no single cause of sexual harassment nor a theoretical framework that

provides sufficient explanation for its occurrence. This section of the thesis therefore presents some of the theoretical models put forward in the literature to explain the occurrence of sexual harassment. A theoretical review of sexual harassment will be limited to the following models: (a) natural/biological (Tangri, Burt, & Johnson, 1982; Tangri & Hayes, 1997); (b) organisational (Tangri et al., 1982); (c) socio-cultural (Farley, 1978; MacKinnon, 1979); (d) sex-role spillover (Gutek and Morasch, 1982; Tangri and Hayes, 1997); and (e) the four-factor theory (O'Hare and O'Donohue, 1998). The routine activities theory and the Illinois Model are also discussed. These models have been extensively discussed and tested in many empirical studies to ascertain their usefulness in explaining sexual harassment.

The Natural/Biological Model

The natural/biological model rejects the description of sexual behaviours that are labelled as sexual harassment and argues that these sexual behaviours are not harassment; neither are they sexist nor discriminatory and consequently, do not have detrimental repercussions on recipients (Tangri et al., 1982). This perspective posits that the sexual behaviours that have been termed as sexual harassment are natural extensions of mate selection evolutionary theory (Pina et al., 2009). The behaviour labelled 'sexual harassment' is a demonstration of the natural attraction between men and women. This model argues that since men have stronger sex drive than women, they are bound to behave in a sexually aggressive manner in both the workplace and other settings. However, they have no intent to harass the individuals they pursue and some of their behaviours may be perceived as

unwanted but this is a natural consequence of their sexual assertiveness/aggressiveness. This model lacks empirical support and therefore insufficient to explain sexual harassment. It further appears to treat sexual harassment in a very simplistic way, disregarding all societal and personal factors, as well as serving to trivialise sexual harassment as part of a normal reproductive ritual (Tangri et al., 1982). Furthermore, this model does not explain the occurrence of same-sex sexual harassment and situations where women in higher positions harass men of low status rank in organisations, i.e. contrapower sexual harassment (Foote & Goodman-Delahunty, 2005).

The Socio-Cultural Model

The socio-cultural model argues that sexual harassment is the result of traditional differences in power relations between men and women and that harassment exists to maintain this power difference. The socio-cultural model addresses the societal context in which sexual harassment occurs, and it shares feminist principles. The model posits that sexual harassment in the workplace is a manifestation of general male dominance and power over women in society (Farley, 1978; MacKinnon, 1979). According to this model, harassment is one mechanism for maintaining male dominance over women, both occupationally and economically, by limiting their growth or by intimidating them to leave the work arena. The model holds that men and women are socialised in ways that maintain this structure of dominance and subordination. Males are rewarded for aggressive and assertive behaviour, whereas women are socialised to be passive, to avoid conflict, to be sexually

attractive, and to feel responsible for their own victimisation (Tangri et al., 1982).

The Organisational Model

The organisational model argues that institutions facilitate sexual harassment through power differentials created by hierarchical structures (Tangri et al., 1982). Individuals in legitimate positions of authority have the opportunity to abuse their power for their own sexual gratification through the harassment of subordinates. Harassment offers a way for superiors to intimidate and to control their subordinates. This model states that since men disproportionately occupy leadership positions in organisations with women clustering at the lower ranks, men in position of authority will harass women in the workplace. In addition to power differentials, other organisational characteristics are viewed in the model as contributing to the incidence of sexual harassment. These include contact with opposite sex on the job, the ratio of males to females in the work place, occupational norms, job functions, job alternatives, and availability of grievance procedures (O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998). In sum, the organisational model postulates that structural arrangement in organisations facilitates the occurrence of sexual harassment.

Illinois or Integrative Organisational Model

Another strand of the organisational model is what is referred to as the Illinois model or integrated organisational model. According to Fitzgerald, Hulin, and Drasgow (1995), sexual harassment is the result of interaction between organisational and job factors leading to job-related, psychological and health

consequences. However, the relationship between sexual harassment and the outcomes is mediated by personal characteristics of victims as well as their reactions to the sexually harassing behaviour. The model has received empirical verification through studies (Fitzgerald & Shulman, 1993; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Willness et al., 2007). In this model, organisational climate and job gender ratio are two most important antecedents to sexual harassment.

Organisational climate refers to whether or not the organisation has a climate that is supportive of sexually harassing behaviours or not (Sigal, 2006). Organisational climate deals with the environmental tolerance of sexual harassment, the implementation of policies or procedures to combat sexual harassment, and /or the perceived commitment of organisation officials to handling harassment problems (Gruber, 1998). It is the attitude in the workplace that is either supportive of sexual harassment or those attitudes that are definitely and overtly negative toward sexual harassment (Sigal & Jacobsen, 1999). Organisational climate relates to employees' perceptions regarding the provision of resources to sexual harassment victims as well as the provision of sexual harassment training in the workplace (Williams, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 1999). The climate for sexual harassment in a workplace is therefore, measured by employees' perception of the seriousness that is attached to Sexual harassment complaints, the risk of complain and the likelihood of perpetrators being punished (Fitzgerald et al., 1997). The second antecedent of Sexual harassment identified in the Illinois model is job gender-context, which is defined as the gendered nature of the work group and

includes the ratio of male to female workers and the gender traditionality of the job (Harned, Ormerod, & Palmieri, 2002).

Gender ratio in the workplace also explains the occurrence of sexual harassment in organisations. Females working in occupations traditionally considered as masculine will experience more gendered behaviour and higher propensity of sexual harassment (Gutek & Morasch, 1982; European Commission, 1999; Gruber, 1998). Women who work in male-dominated environments are perceived to be violating gender-occupational normalcy and as a result are sexually harassed for taking up a man's job (Ragins & Scandura, 1995). The argument is that if women are harassed in a male-dominated environment, then women who work in female-dominated workplaces will not be sexually harassed. However, the sex-ratio explanation has not been supported by several studies (Gutek & Morasch, 1982; Ragins & Scandura, 1995).

Sex-Role Spillover Model

There are two dimensions of the sex-role spillover theory in explaining the occurrence of sexual harassment in the workplace. Sex-role spillover model attributes sexual harassment to the carryover into the workplace of gender-based expectations that are irrelevant to, and inappropriate for, work (Gutek & Morasch, 1982). The argument of this model is that sexual harassment is most likely to occur in work environments where the sex ratio is skewed in either direction. For women in male-dominated or men in female-dominated work, sex role becomes a more salient feature than work role, thus facilitating sexual harassment. In the male-dominated workplace, a woman's

gender is a salient feature because of her singularity and distinctiveness. Thus, women in the male-dominated workplace stand out, and are perceived in their sex-role over and above recognition in their work role.

For instance, when men in traditionally masculine occupations outnumber women, the latter tend to be noticeable and are perceived as women rather than as workers. People may expect a woman in such an environment to try to act “like one of the guys” and inability to do this may lead to women being subjected to ridicule and harassment. In addition, because a woman’s ‘femaleness’ stands out more when she is one of few women working in such an environment, she may be expected to enact traditional female roles such as ‘mother’ ‘wife’,” and ‘sex object’. Such expectations, especially the latter, would increase the probability that women would be the targets of harassing behaviour (Stockdale, Visio, & Betra, 1999).

In the female-dominated workplace, sex role and work role tends to overlap. Traditional female jobs tend to emphasize aspects of the female sex role. This model holds up well under empirical analysis. Gutek and Morasch (1982) found that women who were employed in non-traditional jobs experienced more sexual harassment behaviour and more negative consequences from sexual harassment than the average working woman.

The Four-Factor Model

According to O’Hare and O’Donohue (1998), each of the preceding models is limited by a narrow focus on only one, or a limited number of the dimensions that may contribute to sexual harassment. Sexual harassment appears to be a phenomenon determined by multiple variables at all levels,

including individual, organisation, and socio-cultural. Thus, a multi-dimensional model is required to adequately describe its etiology. To provide a more integrative model that will take cognisance of all the dimensions of sexual harassment, O'Hare and O'Donohue (1998) put forward the four-factor model. This multi-dimensional model combines individual, organisational and socio-cultural factors in explaining Sexual harassment. The model is based on the assumption that the variables related to Sexual harassment can be grouped into four factors which must be met for harassment to occur: (a) Motivation (e.g., sexual attraction and /or power needs); (b) Overcoming internal inhibitions against harassment (e.g., viewing sexual harassment as illegal or immoral, victim empathy, outcome expectations); (c). Overcoming external inhibitions (e.g., explicit grievance procedures and consequences to harassers); and (d). Overcoming victim resistance (e.g., one's ability to recognise and stop premonitory behaviour to harassment). For sexual harassment to occur, the conditions of all four factors must be satisfied (O'Hare and O'Donohue, 1998). One of the major potential advantages of this model is that it combines and accounts for all of the relevant factors named in the existing models into one comprehensive model. It includes socio-cultural and organisational factors as well as individual factors as they relate to both the harasser and to the potential victim.

Routine Activities Theory

The routine activities approach is capable of providing insightful explanation of the occurrence of sexual harassment in the workplace, though its origin is traced to criminal studies. Routine activity theory argues that

crimes are the product of the coming together in time and space of motivated offenders, suitable targets, and an absence of guardians capable of preventing the offense, and these three factors must be present in order for a criminal event to occur (Cohen & Felson, 1979). The term 'routine activities' references the idea that everyday activities of victims, perpetrators, and potential guardians serve as a starting point for understanding opportunities for deviance, or sexual harassment in the case of the proposed study (Lopez, Hodson, & Roscigno, 2009).

A motivated offender is a person who is willing to commit crime when opportunities are presented through the presence and absence of suitable targets and guardianship respectively (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002). According to Cohen and Felson (1979), target suitability is based on a person's availability as a victim, as well as his or her attractiveness to the offender. Guardianship pertains to: (a) the presence or absence of other people who can help prevent criminal activities, (b) the protectiveness of these other people, and (c) the willingness or ability of potential targets to pursue information and formal mechanisms of social control (Cohen, Kleugel, & Land, 1981).

Routine activities theory is traditionally used in the study of property crimes in the field of criminology, but has also seen application in personal victimisation studies (Clodfelter, Turner, Hartman, & Kuhns, 2010). Fisher, Cullen, and Turner (2002) explored stalking of college students using routine activities approach. Mustaine and Tewksbury (2002) combined feminist perspectives and routine activities theory to investigate sexual assault of college women. In exploring whether tourists' travel preferences contribute to

their being suitable targets for crime, Boakye (2010) used routine activities model as a theoretical framework. De Coster, Estes, and Mueller (1999) combined routine activities perspective and organisational models to specify a theoretical account of the organisational context of the sexual harassment of women in the workplace. More recently, Clodfelter et al. (2010) studied sexual harassment victimisation of emerging adulthood population framed in routine activities perspective and a general theory of crime.

Sexual Harassment in Hotels and Routine Activities Theory

Routine activities theory can be applied to the study of sexual harassment in the hotel sector for several reasons. Potential suitable targets abound in hotels because of the dominance of young, unmarried female, transient, and low status workforce (Baum, 2006). Hotels employ a relatively high proportion of female workers. For example, in the U.K., approximately 60 percent of all hotel employees are female (Lucas, 1995). Extant sexual harassment literature clearly shows that young and unmarried females are victims of sexual harassment in the workplace (Gutek, 1985; De Coster et al., 1999). Hotels are likely to be patronised by motivated offenders. It is posited that travellers often have a sense of anonymity when away from home, and normally upright people often take a 'moral holiday' when staying in a hotel (Poulston, 2008 citing Hayner, 1928). Similarly, guests sometimes presume more of hospitality services than is implied in the products and services sold, and expectation may range from cheerful facade of emotional labour (Hochschild, 1983) to sexual favours and adult movies (Guerrier & Adib, 2000).

It is further argued by Cohen and Felson (1979) that the target must be seen to be suitable by the offender. Judgement on suitability of target is determined by victim's proximity to the offender or the lack of guardianship of the victim. Both of these conditions occur regularly in hotels. There is constant sharing of space among male and female employees and between employees and guests in hotels. Perpetrator opportunity is therefore created under this circumstance because there is a heightened exposure of victims to potential harassers in the course of employees' routine daily work activities (Parish, Das, & Laumann, 2006). For instance, previous research suggests that harassment is particularly common for women in occupations where there is greater contact between guests and co-workers (Hughes & Tadic, 1998; Parish et al., 2006). For example, hotel employees in the front office, housekeeping, waiters/waitresses who have to walk amongst guests to provide services are vulnerable to sexual harassment. According to Guerrier and Adib (2000), hotel staff associated with rooms' function may be vulnerable because hotel rooms provide a potential place for sexual activity whilst hotel restaurants may provide the promise of sexual activity.

The hotel organisational culture portends inadequate guardianship to employees. In the view of Guerrier and Adib (2000), the hotel is not a rational environment where there is agreement over social norms or acceptable behaviour between guests and staff. The hotel is seen as a highly sexualised setting with a 'message' of satisfying every need of guests, which suggests to guests that sexual favours may be included. There is a relaxed and tacit acceptance of sexual harassment in the hotel sector. In a study by Yeung (2004), theft was identified as a more serious ethical issue than sexual

harassment by employees, indicating a surprising prioritisation of property over people (Poulston, 2008). Furthermore, Worsfold and McCann (2000) found that hospitality managers ignore sexual harassment because of the cost involved in establishing sexual harassment programmes that could serve as guardianship to employees. Even in cases where sexual harassment policies and complaints procedures are available they are not communicated to employees (Hoel & Einarsen, 2003). However, social networking and extension of care among employees in a hotel can provide opportunities for guardianship.

Routine activities theory is one perspective that addresses the differential risks for victimisation among individuals (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Cohen & Cantor, 1980). The strength of this theory is that it focuses on the idea regarding situation and place, and it examines how these interact with individual characteristics and behaviours. The routine activities theory can be used to complement the four-factor perspective to highlight why, although all women may be at greater risk for sexual harassment but some women have higher risks than others do. Victimisation is associated with daily routine activities of individuals, which in turn may be linked to demographics. These routines influence the amount of exposure that individuals have with potential offenders and indicate how valuable or how vulnerable they are as a target and whether or how well guarded they tend to be (Mustaine & Tewksbury, 2002). The model enables conceptual explanation of workplace harassment by simultaneously highlighting (1) organisational factors leading to the identification of potential victims, (2) organisational factors encouraging potential perpetrators. Perhaps more

importantly, it also moves beyond victims and perpetrators to also consider, and (3) the role of potential guardians-in this case organisational actors or structures that can act to prevent, disrupt, enable, or otherwise block emerging patterns of incivility and harassment (De Coster et al., 1999).

On the basis of the foregoing discussion on the theoretical models of sexual harassment, the harassment and its job-related consequences on hotel employees in Accra Metropolis is based on the integrated organisational model and the routine activities theory. The integrated organisational model provides a fundamental cognitive linkage between the antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment. Furthermore, it incorporates aspects of various theories to help explain the occurrence of sexual harassment in the workplace. The integrated model accounts for both the etiology of sexual harassment and its outcomes. The routine activities theory is used in explaining variability in hotel employees' vulnerability to sexual harassment. These two models have received empirical validation (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; De Coster et al., 1999; Willness et al., 2007; Clodfelter et al., 2010).

Measurement of Sexual Harassment

The direct query and the indirect measurements are the two main approaches that have been used to measure the prevalence of sexual harassment in empirical studies. Direct query measurement approach relies on the respondents' definition of sexual harassment and asks them to assess whether they have been sexually harassed at work or during the conduct of work-related activities (Culbertson & Rosenfeld, 1994; Lengnick-Hall, 1995).

The direct query method gives an estimate of the incidence of sexual harassment based on respondents' perceptions. In the view of Ilies, Hauserman, Schwochau, and Stibal (2003), this means, reported incidence rates will be influenced by individual characteristics as well as the psychological climate in the organisation and these are considered shortcomings of the direct query approach.

The indirect measurement approach involves providing respondents with a list of behaviours in a questionnaire that are believed to constitute sexual harassment and required to indicate the frequency with which they have experienced specific behaviours (e.g., sexual teasing, jokes, and remarks) using graded-response scales (e.g., never to very often). This approach classifies individuals as being sexually harassed if they endorse at least one item on the questionnaire. It does not ask respondents whether they have been sexually harassed until the end of the questionnaire (Fitzgerald, Magley, Drasgow, & Waldo, 1995; Estrada & Berggren, 1999).

In comparing incidence rates using the two approaches, it has been concluded that sexual harassment incidence rates based on direct query tend to be lower than estimates based on indirect measures (Culbertson & Rosenfeld, 1994; Lengnick-Hall, 1995). The direct query yields lower rates because respondents often answer that they have not been sexually harassed, even if they have experienced several types of harassment behaviours, possibly because participants have different definitions of sexual harassment, are reluctant to label their experiences as sexual harassment, or perceive the harassment behaviours to be normal or expected (Sigal, 2006). The advantages of the indirect measure approach are that it minimises respondent perceptual

bias and, if used consistently, allows for comparing incidence rates across studies and time. Furthermore, the indirect approach enables comparability of empirical findings about the incidence of sexual harassment as well as the identification of organisational moderators of this behaviour. Researchers, human resource managers and policy makers will benefit from such a comparable incidence rate (Ilies et al., 2003).

Prevalence of Sexual Harassment

In order to know the enormousness of sexual harassment in society to inform mitigation measures and policies, the literature is inundated with varying incidence rates from different workplace settings as well as countries. As a pacesetter on sexual harassment related issues, most incidence rates emanate from USA followed by Western Europe. The dissimilarity in reported incidence rates makes comparison of estimates an arduous and pointless task to undertake. A number of reasons have been adduced for the wide variation in the reported prevalence rates. The use of different definitions of sexual harassment and variation in methods used in conducting sexual harassment studies explain the difference in reported prevalence rates. Studies that define sexual harassment within the legal context are likely to report lower incidence than those approaching the phenomenon as a psychological construct, which is widely defined as individuals determine what constitutes sexual harassment (Lengnick-Hall, 1995). Methodological causes of variations in incidence rates include sampling procedures, sample size, different survey time periods, survey approach, and research setting (Lengnick-Hall, 1995; Timmerman & Bajema, 1999; Ilies et al., 2003).

In May 1980, the USMSPB conducted a major survey on sexual harassment involving a stratified random sample of 23,964 federal employees in the USA. About 44 percent of women and 15 percent of male employees reported having experienced behaviours they perceived to be harassment within the preceding two years. Another pioneering study on sexual harassment by Gutek (1985), using telephone interviews of a random sample of 827 women and 405 men working in Los Angeles County, California, found that 53 percent women and 37 percent men reported having experienced some form of harassing sexual behaviour. To condense prevalence estimates from the USA, Aggarwal and Gupta (2000) indicate that 40-75 percent of women and 13-31 percent of men have experienced workplace sexual harassment. Sigal (2006) points out that generally accepted statistics show that approximately 50 percent of all women in the USA will experience sexual harassment at some time either in the workplace or in educational settings.

In a sample of 1,990 Canadian working women between 18 and 65

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In a sample of 1,990 Canadian working women between 18 and 65 years of age, Crocker and Kalemba (1999) found that 56 percent of the sample had experienced sexual harassment in the year prior to the survey while an overall lifetime rate was 77 percent. In UK workplaces, the Equal Opportunities Commission (EOC) estimates that sexual harassment happens to about half of all women in the workplace at some time in their working lives (EOC, 2000). In a Norwegian study, a comparatively low incidence was recorded, 25 (1.1%) out of 2349 respondents self-reported sexual harassment incidents over a period of six months prior to the study (Nielsen, Bjørkelo, Notelaers & Einarsen, 2010).

In South Africa, 77 percent of women in civilian employment experience sexual harassment in their working lives (Sexual Harassment Fact Sheet 14, 2005). A survey of 150 workers in both private and public organisations within Lagos in Nigeria revealed 73.7 percent of the respondents had experienced sexual harassing behaviours. Comparing the occurrence of sexual harassment in three Latin American countries, Merkin (2008) found that harassment incidences vary by country, in that employees are most likely to be harassed in Chile (8.7%), followed by Brazil (4.8%), and Argentina (3.5%).

In Australia, 28 percent of adult Australians were found to have experienced sexual harassment at some time (41% women and 14% of men) in a national telephone survey commissioned by the Australian Human Rights and Equal Opportunity Commission (HREOC) in a large random sample of over 1000 respondents (HREOC, 2004). Research involving 1,483 workers drawn from six Malaysian workplaces revealed that 34.9 percent of the respondents reported sexual harassment experiences (Ng & Othman, 2002). In Japan, a national survey of 6,500 working women conducted by a women's organisation in 1989 found that 59.7 percent of respondents had experienced sexual harassment in the workplace. A more recent study involving Japanese hospital nurses in 60 hospitals found that of 464 participants, 260 (56%) reported that they had experienced sexual harassment from patients (Hibino, Hitomi, Kambayashi, Nakamura, 2009).

To provide a better comprehension of the numerous and varied sexual harassment prevalence rates reported in the literature, some researchers have employed meta-analytical procedures to summarise incidence rates. Gruber

(1992) presents a somewhat meta-analytical study to provide a summarised answer to the question of about the prevalence of sexual harassment. From an analysis of eighteen studies, Gruber (1990) estimates sexual harassment incidence rates to be 44 percent, and posited that given that reported harassment extends from 28 percent to 75 percent, the figure 44 percent should be treated as a best estimate of sexual harassment prevalence. Based on reported incidence rates of work-related sexual harassment in the USA, relying on more than 86,000 respondents from 55 probability samples, Ilies et al. (2003) conclude that on average, 58 percent of women report experiences of potentially harassing behaviours and 24 percent report having experienced sexual harassment at work. In a European context, Timmerman and Bajema (1999) conclude that between 17 and 81 percent of employed women reported experiencing some form of Sexual harassment in the workplace after a meta-analytic review of 74 national European studies in 11 European Union member states.

Typologies of Sexual Harassing Behaviours

Behaviours that constitute sexual harassment are varied and heterogeneous, ranging from repeated requests for dates, verbal offensive sexual attacks to physical sexual aggressiveness. In order to develop mutually exclusive grouping of the several behaviours, many classification schemes derived from both legal and psychological sexual harassment literature exist. Following the legal definition of sexual harassment, a distinction is made between two broad types of sexual harassment: quid pro quo harassment and hostile work environment (EEOC, 1990). In fact, the differentiation of the two

general types of sexual harassment follows landmark U.S.A. Supreme Court decisions (*Meritor Savings Bank, FSB v Vinson*, 1986) as a confirmation of earlier suggestion by MacKinnon (1979).

Quid pro quo (this for that) sexual harassment involves an individual with organisational power who either expressly or implicitly ties employment decision or action to the response of an individual to unwelcome sexual advances. Thus, a supervisor or manager in a hotel may promise a reward to a subordinate for complying with sexual requests (e.g., a better work schedule, recommendation for promotion or other work-related benefits) or threaten an employee for failing to comply with the sexual requests. Quid pro quo sexual harassment reflects “do me a sexual favour and I give something (promotion or some work place favour) in exchange”. Refusal to grant the sexual favour might result in consequences such as dismissal, withholding of promotion or training, among others).

In the case of hostile work environment sexual harassment, an employee is subjected to sexual innuendos, remarks and/or physical acts by his or her supervisors, co-workers, clients with the purpose of or effect of unreasonably interfering with the employee’s ability to work or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment. These behaviours include unwanted postings of pornographic pictures or cartoons, sexually explicit comments, lustful jokes or sexual propositions (Guido, 1997).

Within the psychological sexual harassment literature, Till (1980) is credited to have put forward the first comprehensive classification of sexual harassing behaviours into five distinct categories that could be thought of as existing on an approximate continuum of severity. The five-factor typology

for sexual harassment is gender harassment, seductive behaviour, sexual bribery, sexual coercion, and sexual imposition or assault. Gender harassment involves verbal and nonverbal generalised sexist behaviours that are not aimed at soliciting sexual gratification but rather to insult, degrade and denigrate women (Fitzgerald et al., 1995). The use of women in the explanation of gender harassment in the work of Fitzgerald et al. (1995) evidently demonstrates earlier conceptualisation of sexual harassment as a problem for females but not males. According to the EEOC (1990), gender harassment is verbal or physical conduct that denigrates or shows hostility or aversion. In the view of Berdahl (2007), gender harassment is a form of hostile environment harassment that appears to be motivated by hostility toward individuals who violate gender ideals rather than desire for those who meet them. Examples of gender harassment include anti-female jokes, comments that women do not belong in management (Leskinen, Cortina, & Kabat, 2011). These behaviours could also be directed at males perceived as not conforming to masculine expectations.

Seductive behaviour includes unwanted, inappropriate and offensive sexual behaviours. Rejection of these sexual overtures by targets does not result in reprisals by perpetrators. Sexual bribery on the other hand, is the solicitation of sexual activity with the promise of reward for compliance. Sexual coercion is a situation whereby demand for sexual favours is accompanied by either implicit or explicit threats in order to ensure compliance with sexual overtures. For example, a supervisor in a hotel can issue a job-related benefit or threat, such as promising a promotion in exchange of sexual activities or threatening to fire someone for refusing to

comply with sexual requests. Sexual imposition is the most severe form of sexual harassment in Till's typology, and it includes rape and sexual assault.

Another significant effort to provide a classification scheme for the numerous sexually harassing behaviours was made by Gruber (1992). By content analysing sexual harassment categories listed in some 17 surveys, victims' accounts, court decisions and EECO's types of sexual harassment, Gruber (1992) contends that there are 11 types of sexual harassment in three domains: (a) verbal requests (ranging from subtle expressions to promises and threats); (b) sexual remarks (ranging from jokes to solicitation); and (c) nonverbal displays (ranging from gestures and pictures to forced sex).

As a reformulation of Till's (1980) typology of sexual harassment, Fitzgerald et al. (1995) classify sexual harassment into three non-overlapping dimensions: (a) gender harassment, (b) unwanted sexual attention, and (c) sexual coercion. According to Fitzgerald and her colleagues, these three categories are necessary and sufficient to classify any particular incident of harassment and they constitute the irreducible minimum of sexual harassment, as it is currently understood, both legally and psychologically. Gender harassment as named in Fitzgerald et al. (1995) is the same in concept and explanation as used in Till's (1980) five-factor typology. However, some ensuing studies reveal subcategories of gender harassment: (a) sexist hostility that deals with discriminatory hostility based on sex, and (b) sexual hostility that entails hostility shown in a more explicitly sexual way (Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Cortina, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 2002; Gettman & Gelfand, 2007). Unwanted sexual attention is more easily recognised as sexual harassment by most people. It includes both verbal and nonverbal behaviours that are

offensive, unwanted, and unreciprocated aimed at building some form of sexual relationship with the target. These behaviours include repeated, unreturned requests for dates, intrusive letters and phone calls, touching, grabbing, cornering and gross sexual imposition or assault.

In maintaining Till's (1980) sexual coercion as the third category in their three-dimensional construct of sexual harassment, Fitzgerald's et al. (1995) describe sexual coercion as the undisputed example of sexual harassment. However, it is the least common and severe type of sexual harassment and it entails the extortion of sexual cooperation in return for job-related benefits. It is a situation where bribes and threats are used, explicitly or implicitly, to enforce sexual requests. To compare their three-factor structure typology of sexual harassment to the dual-legal classification, Fitzgerald et al. (1995) equate sexual coercion to quid pro quo and gender harassment and unwanted sexual attention to hostile environment harassment. This three-factor structure of sexual harassment has been validated in some studies (USMSPB, 1988; Gelfand et al., 1995; Stockdale & Hope, 1997) and used as the basis of developing the widely used Sexual Experiences Questionnaire [SEQ] (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Fitzgerald et al., 1999). The three-factor model of has been applied in many sexual harassment studies (O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998; O'Connell & Korabik, 2000; Limpaphayom, Williams, & Fadil, 2006; Cagin & Fish, 2007; Gettman & Gelfand, 2007). However, the inclusion of gender harassment as a dimension of sexual harassment is not supported by some study samples, as respondents do not perceive gender harassment as sexual harassment (Loredo, Reid, & Deaux, 1995; Tang, Yik, Cheung, & Cho, 1995; Gutek, Murphy, & Douma, 2004).

A summary of the various classification schemes of sexual harassment is depicted in Table 1.

Table 1: Summary of Sexual Harassment Typologies

Author(s)	Typology of Sexual Harassment
Till (1980)	1. Gender harassment
	2. Seductive behaviour
	3. Sexual bribery
	4. Sexual coercion
	5. Sexual imposition
EEOC (1990)	1. Quid pro quo
	2. Hostile environment
Gruber (1992)	1. Verbal requests
	2. Sexual remarks
	3. Nonverbal displays
Fitzgerald et al. (1995)	1. Gender harassment
	2. Unwanted sexual attention
	3. Sexual coercion
Timmerman & Bajema (1998)	1. Verbal
	2. Non-verbal
	3. Physical behaviours
	4. Quid pro quo
Cortina (2001)	1. Sexual hostility
	2. Unwanted sexual attention
	3. Sexist hostility

From Till (1980); EEOC (1990); Gruber (1992); Fitzgerald (1995); Timmerman & Bajema (1998); Cortina (2001)

Other varying classification schemes that are not too distinct from the preceding discussed typologies have been put forward in the sexual harassment literature. In a study using a Latino sample in the USA, Cortina (2001) proposed a three-factor structure: (a) sexual hostility- included behaviours involving sexually offensive remarks and comments; (b) unwanted sexual attention- ogling, touching, requests for dates; and (c) sexist hostility- comments that were misogynistic but contain no sexual content. Timmerman and Bajema (1998) present four types of sexual harassment: (a) verbal- remarks about physical appearance, sexual jokes and verbal sexual advances; (b) non-verbal including staring and whistling; (c) physical behaviours ranging from unsolicited physical contact to assault/rape, and (d) quid pro quo that includes threats of reprisals if sexual overtures are refused or promises of advantages if sexual overtures are accepted.

Regarding the frequency of occurrence of the various forms of sexual harassment, victims often experience sexually harassing behaviours that fall under gender harassment and unwanted sexual attention much more than sexual coercion. For instance, O'Hare et al. (1998) found gender harassment and certain forms of unwanted sexual attention (e.g., discussion of personal /sex life) as the most prevalent types of sexual harassment among a university female faculty, staff, and students. In a client-based sexual harassment study, Gettman (2003) found that gender harassment-sexist hostility was by far the most common form of sexual harassment by clients experienced by 85 percent of the women surveyed. This was followed by gender harassment-sexual hostility, with 65 percent, then unwanted sexual attention with 51 percent, and finally sexual coercion having been experienced by 8 percent of the women

surveyed. Of 344 sexual harassment incidents reported in the study of McDonald, Backstrom and Dear (2008), 10 percent were quid pro quo sexual harassment while the remaining constituted hostile environment sexual harassment. An even lesser (only one-incident) quid pro quo sexual harassment was reported in White's (2000) study of medical students at a University in Australia.

According to Pina et al. (2009), findings from previous studies clearly show that the most frequently reported forms of sexual harassment are the verbal and non-verbal and the more severe and easily recognisable forms, such as sexual assault and sexual coercion, are reported with significantly lesser frequency. The 1981 version of the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (USMSPB) study on sexual harassment involving federal white women workers found that the most common form of harassment consisted of verbal comments or remarks (33%), followed by physical touching (26%), and being pressured for dates (15%), with nearly 10 percent reporting being pressed for sexual cooperation and a small proportion having experienced sexual assault (Sigal, 2006).

In a Malaysian workplace context, verbal harassment in the form of unwelcome language/messages and unwelcome sexual comments on one's body seems to be the most common form of harassment-reported by 31 percent of respondents (Ng & Othman, 2002). On reporting sexual harassment incidents without using any classification scheme, Celik and Celik's (2007) study of nurses in Turkey found unwanted sexual jokes, stories, questions, or words as the more frequently used sexual harassment type (83.5%). In decreasing order of frequency, Hibino et al. (2009) found sexual jokes and

remarks (64.3%), physical contact (59.7%), gazing at nurses with sexual interest (36.7%), and requests for dates (27.2%) as some of sexually harassing behaviours experienced by 260 out of 464 nurses selected from 60 hospitals in the Ishikawa Prefecture in north-central Japan.

Consequences of Sexual Harassment

The effects of sexual harassment on victims and organisations have been studied extensively. This section of the review highlights empirical evidence relating sexual harassment to the psychological challenges that confront victims. Next, the health implications are also discussed followed by the work-related impacts of sexual harassment. Attention is paid to the effects of sexual harassment on the job satisfaction levels, turnover intentions and organisational commitment of employees.

Psychological Outcomes of Sexual Harassment

The psychological outcomes of sexual harassment on victims have attracted scholarly attention. A strong and negative association between sexual harassment and the psychological well-being of victims is established in the literature (Schneider, Swan, & Fitzgerald, 1997; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Magley, Hulin, Fitzgerald, & DeNardo, 1999; Willness et al., 2007; Chan, Lam, Chow, & Cheung, 2008; de Haas, Timmerman, & Höing, 2009). In a telephone survey of 304 Connecticut women, Loy and Stewart (1984) found that harassed women exhibited symptoms of emotional stress such as nervousness (26%), irritability (20%) and uncontrolled anger (19%). Victims of sexual harassment have been found to experience higher rates of depression and anxiety (Gruber & Bjorn, 1986; Barling, Dekker, Loughlin, Kelloway,

Fullagar, & Johnson, 1996; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Richman, Rospenda, Nawyn, Flaherty, Fendrich, Drum, & Johnson, 1999; Kisa, Dziegielewski, & Ates, 2002). In a study of 209 faculty members selected from a large Midwestern public university in the USA, DeSousa and Fansler (2003) found higher rates of depression and anxiety among respondents who had experienced sexual harassment from students at least once than did respondents who reported never having experienced any sexually harassing behaviour from students. Bronner et al. (2003) report that sexual teasing led to feelings of discomfort, embarrassment or indifference among 60 percent of nurses and nursing students drawn from five medical centres in Israel. Victims of sexual harassment often experience lowered self-esteem (Paludi & Barickman, 1991; Gruber & Bjorn, 1982; Harned & Fitzgerald, 2002). Others experience helplessness, fear and humiliation (Celik & Celik, 2007). Sexual harassment victims also exhibit symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorders (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Dansky & Kilpatrick, 1997; Avina & O'Donohue, 2002; Murdoch, Polusny, Hodges, & Cowper, 2006; Haskell, Gordon, Mattocks, Duggal, Erdos, Justice, & Brandt, 2010; Kimerling, Street, Pavao, Smith, Cronkite, Holmes, & Frayne, 2010; Luterek, Bittinger, & Simpson, 2011). Other studies (Davis & Wood, 1999; Freels, Richman, & Rospenda, 2005; Gradus, Street, Kelly, & Stafford, 2008) have suggested that victims of sexual harassment experiences resort to alcohol abuse. For instance, in a study to find out whether sexual harassment predicts increased drinking independently of the effects of job and life stress, Rospenda, Richman, and Shannon (2009) concluded that sexual harassment was associated with increased frequency of heavy episodic drinking for men but not women.

Health-Related Outcomes of Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment negatively affects the health status of victims (Gutek & Koss, 1993; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Barling et al., 1996; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Willness et al., 2007; Chan et al., 2008). Some of the commonly reported physical symptoms of sexual harassment are headache, insomnia and gastric challenges (Crull, 1982; Gutek, 1985; Barling et al., 1996; Kisa et al., 2002). Of the sexually harassed nurses in the study of Celik and Celik (2007), 40.3 percent mentioned headache including difficulty in sleeping (24.2%) and stomach pain (17.3%) as the health outcomes of sexual harassment experiences. Some studies (Harned & Fitzgerald, 2002; Dhakal, 2009) have also found an association between sexual harassment and loss of appetite. For instance, Harned (2000) found a relationship between sexual harassment and eating disorder symptoms among college women.

Work-Related Outcomes of Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment in the workplace is associated with negative effects on the professional life of victims. The impact of sexual harassment on employee job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions have been investigated (Brown & Peterson, 1993; Wright & Bonett, 2007). One of the commonly investigated work-related outcomes of sexual harassment in the literature is job satisfaction, and it is defined as the outcome of workers' assessment of the extent to which the work environment meets the individual's needs (Dawis & Lofquist, 1984). The interest in job satisfaction is understandable given the impact of higher employee job satisfaction on financial standings of organisations (Aronson, Laurenceau, Sieveking, &

Bellet, 2005). An inverse relationship has been found between sexual harassment and job satisfaction. Higher frequency of sexual harassment experiences in the workplace decreases employee overall job satisfaction as well as supervisor and co-worker satisfaction (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Schneider et al., 1997; Laband & Lentz, 1998; Magley et al., 1999; Chan et al., 2008; Estrada & Berggren, 2009).

Using a military sample, Magley et al. (1999) found that individuals who had experienced sexual harassment were less satisfied with their work, their colleagues and supervisors. Similarly, in a study among female lawyers, Laband and Lentz (1998) concluded that sexual harassment perpetrated by supervisors impacted more negatively on job satisfaction than sexually harassing behaviours emanating from co-workers and clients. In a similar conclusion Laband and Lentz (1998), Thacker and Gohmann (1996) found that the harassment committed by the minority of harassers (supervisors) is more likely to result in a worsening of a victim's feelings about work than co-workers, who perpetrate more harassment than supervisors do. However, in contradiction with the established negative impact of sexual harassment on job satisfaction, Merkin (2008) averred that job satisfaction of Latin American victims selected from Argentina, Brazil and Chile was not affected by sexual harassment experiences.

Another work-related outcome of sexual harassment is lowered commitment of victims and other employees toward the organisation. The affection employees show to their organisations is negatively affected following an experience of sexually harassing behaviours. Sexual harassment victims are most likely to feel their organisations have the ultimate

responsibility of protecting them against such experiences hence tend to blame the organisations for sexual harassment incidents. This emotional reaction to sexual harassment experiences eventually results in victims feeling less committed and attached to the organisation (Stedham & Mitchell, 1998; Magley et al., 1999; Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Chan et al., 2008; Estrada & Berggren, 2009). For example, in a US military setting, Magley et al. (1999) found that individuals who had experienced sexual harassment were less committed to the military. Within a hospitality context, casino employees who were sexually harassed reported a reduction in their commitment to the organisation than non-harassed employees (Stedham & Mitchell, 1998).

The visible sign of lowered commitment and detachment is work or job withdrawal behaviours. Work withdrawal constitutes situations, in which victims exhibit counterproductive work behaviours such as reporting to work late, being neglectful, avoiding tasks, absenteeism and deliberately giving excuses in order to avoid work (Hanisch, Hulin, & Roznowski, 1998; Magley et al., 1999; Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2005). For instance, Merkin (2008) found absenteeism to be higher among victims of sexual harassment than non-targets.

Job withdrawal, on the other hand, relates to turnover and intentions to quit one's job and organisation completely in order to avoid the hostile work environment created due to sexual harassment (Livingston, 1982; Barling et al., 1996; Hanisch et al., 1998; Laband & Lentz, 1998; Rosen & Martin, 1998; O'Connell & Korabik, 2000; Wasti, Bergman, Glomb, & Drasgow, 2000; Merkin, 2008). In their study of women employed in a large regulated utility company on the west coast of USA, Fitzgerald et al. (1999) found that victims

of sexual harassment reported stronger turnover intentions and spent more time mulling over leaving the organisation. A study by Merkin (2008) found that the odds of sexually harassed employees having turnover intentions were 1.6 times greater than employees not experiencing sexual harassment. A study involving female lawyers found that the relationship between sexual harassment and intentions to quit was supported in the case of male supervisor and colleague sexual harassment but not client sexual harassment (Laband & Lentz, 1998). The effects of sexual harassment on turnover intentions differ along gender lines. Using a military sample in the USA, Rosen and Martin (1998) found that sexual harassment was related to turnover intentions for men but not for women. Contradictory to these studies, Stedham and Mitchell's (1998) study among casino employees in the USA found that sexually harassed employees were not likely to quit their jobs

Sims, Drasgow and Fitzgerald (2005) measured the impact of sexual harassment on actual turnover using a sample of 11,521 military service women with turnover data spanning four years and concluded that sexual harassment experiences led to increased turnover. It is important to note that the choice of turnover is dependent on the ease of securing another job. For many victims, turnover will be too expensive in spite of the hostile environment created by sexual harassment. Rather, work withdrawal becomes an appropriate option where they keep the job and adopt various behaviours such as lowering productivity or even engaging in individual-level sabotage to get back at the company (Willness et al., 2007).

With behaviours such as organisational withdrawal and lowered commitment, sexual harassment negatively affects productivity and

performance at both individual and team levels in organisations (Magley et al., 1999; Estrada & Berggren, 2009). Willness et al. (2007) in a meta-analytical study, found a direct relationship between sexual harassment and reduced productivity. By using utility analysis, Willness et al. (2007) estimated the average loss of productivity due to sexual harassment to be \$22,500 per victim. Sexual harassment experiences affect the quality and quantity of work performed by victims (Pryor, 1995). For instance, in a study in two hospitals in Turkey involving 215 nurses, Kisa et al. (2002) found that 45 percent of the victims reported that their productivity levels visibly declined after experiencing sexual harassment. Even subtle sexual harassment during work interviews leads to decreased performance and more negative evaluation of job seekers (Woodzicka & LaFrance, 2005).

Consistently, an organisation plagued with dips in employee productivity and performance, low interpersonal and work satisfaction, work and job withdrawal and low commitment will experience a decline in overall productivity. Attempts have been made by some researchers to put a monetary value on the indirect cost of sexual harassment to organisations. According to Nelson and Quick (2009), sexual harassment costs a typical "Fortune 500" company in the USA about \$6,700,000 million per year in absenteeism, turnover and lost productivity. Within a military setting, Faley et al. (1999) estimate that sexual harassment cost to the US Army is approximately \$250,000,000 million annually. Furthermore, by including costs relating to productivity, incident, absenteeism, administrative, replacement, training and transfer, Faley et al., (2006) estimated the cost of same-sex sexual harassment to the USA Army in 2005 to be \$95,208,757 million.

Other economic consequences of sexual harassment relate to litigation and settlement costs that are incurred by organisations. Foy (2000) describes legal cost of fighting sexual harassment cases in court as astronomical to organisations. For instance, a Burger King franchisee in the USA opted for settlement of a sexual harassment suit that had lasted for 14 years for \$2,500,000 million due to the enormous cost of litigation (EEOC, 2012). Financial awards given to sexual harassment claimants are well documented in both academic and media sources. For example, monetary benefits awarded to complainants of sexual harassment settled by the EEOC in the USA amounted to \$43,000,000 million in 2012 (EEOC, 2012). The state of New York is reported to have spent \$5,000,000 million on the settlement of 11 sexual harassment cases between 2008 and 2010 (Hakim, 2012). Fuchs (2012) catalogues eight largest sexual harassment verdicts in history in the USA with awards ranging from \$7,100,000 million to \$250,000,000 million.

Sexual Harassment Climate and Job Related Outcomes

Results of several studies on sexual harassment climate have shown that perceived climate for sexual harassment influences job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment of men and women across a variety of organisational settings (Willness et al., 2007; Chan et al., 2008; O'Leary-Kelly, Bowes-Sperry, Bates, & Lean, 2009). Hulin, Fitzgerald, and Drasgow (1996) found that ratings of the psychological climate for sexual harassment were correlated with employees' reports of satisfaction, as well as job and work withdrawal. In the study, perceived climate for sexual harassment consistently accounted for more variance in the job related

outcomes beyond that accounted for by an individual's harassment experience (Hulin et al., 1996)

Similarly, Fitzgerald et al. (1999) found that organisational climate perceptions were correlated with ratings of satisfaction with work, coworkers, and supervisors among U.S. military personnel. In another military setting study, Offerman and Malamut (2002) found that women's perceptions of their leaders' intolerance for sexual harassment were associated with greater levels of organisational commitment among U.S. military personnel. In a related study, Law (2011) found that individuals who perceive a supportive organisational climate are less likely to be dissatisfied and have lowered organisational commitment (Law, 2011). Using women selected from the Swedish Armed Forces, Estrada, Olson, Harbke, & Berggren (2011) found that perceptions of the psychological climate for sexual harassment (i.e., intolerance for sexual harassment) were associated with increased job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

The relationship between perceived sexual harassment climate and job related outcomes of job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment have seen limited testing outside the military settings, especially in the hospitality industry. Moreover, most of the studies investigating the effects of perceived sexual harassment climate on job related outcomes have used women samples (Offerman & Malamut, 2002; Estrada et al., 2011). There is therefore the need to test the generalisability of these conclusions in the hotel sector.

Factors that Influence the Extent of Consequences of Sexual Harassment

Researchers have sought to explore whether the effects of sexual harassment on victims will depend on gender, labelling of behaviour as sexual harassment or not. In addition, some studies have argued that the status or profile of the perpetrator within the organisation will determine the extent to which the sexually harassing behaviour will affect victims. Evidence from empirical studies does appear to suggest that whether a person labels an experience as sexual harassment or not the negative impacts due to harassment are still the same. For instance, in an all-female sample selected from private-sector organisation and faculty and staff of a university, Schneider et al. (1997) found that although the majority of the women in the sample did not see themselves as victims of sexual harassment, they still experienced negative outcomes attributable to the situations to which they were exposed.

The extent to which an individual is bothered with a situation largely determines the impact of the situation (de Haas et al., 2009). It is therefore reasoned that individuals who experience sexually harassing behaviours but are not bothered will experience less negative outcomes than those bothered. In their Dutch police service sample, de Haas et al. (2009) found that victims who were bothered with sexually harassing behaviours reported more physical health challenges and were emotionally exhausted than victims who were not bothered. However, victims who were not bothered still reported more physical and burnout complaints compared to non-victims.

Compared to women, most men are hesitant to label sexual behaviours as sexually harassing and are likely to interpret many of the social sexual encounters with women as flattery (Levy & Paludi, 1997). Overall, far too less

men experience sexual harassment than women do (Magley et al., 1999). Additionally, more women than men are confronted with serious forms of sexual harassment (Fitzgerald et al., 1988). On the premise of these research findings regarding men's sexual harassment experiences, it is expected that the negative impacts of sexual harassment on men will be far less severe compared to those of women. However, evidence from empirical investigations is mixed. Some studies have reported different consequences of sexual harassment for men and women. For instance, in the study of DeSouza and Fansler (2003) in an academic setting, female faculty experienced higher levels of depression and anxiety than their male colleagues did.

In examining an association between sexual harassment and eating disorder, Harned and Fitzgerald (2002) found a significantly higher level of eating disorder symptoms in women than in men. On the other hand, Vogt, Pless, King, and King (2005) in a study involving veterans of Gulf War I from United States indicated that sexual harassment had a stronger negative impact on the mental health of men than women. Similarly, Street, Stafford, Mahan, and Hendricks (2008) conclude that at higher levels of sexual harassment, men report poorer mental health than women do. According to Rospenda et al. (2005), more men than women were likely to experience illness, injury, or assault because of sexual harassment. Other studies (Richman et al., 1999; Magley et al., 1999; Bergman et al., 2002; Chan et al., 2008; de Haas et al., 2009; Norman, Aikins, & Binka, 2012) conclude that the health and psychological effects of sexual harassment are powerful for both women and men.

Victims' Reactions to Sexual Harassment

The reactions of victims of sexual harassment have been given some empirical attention. Understanding the reactions of victims is critical to the elimination or minimisation of sexual harassment in the workplace as well as lessening the work-related, psychological and health outcomes on victims. The effectiveness of such reactions will help to either stop or perpetrate the sexually harassing behaviour of harassers. A better understanding of victims' reactions will have practical implications for organisations relating to policy and strategic decisions to deal with what has become a workplace plague. It is therefore not surprising that the behavioural responses of victims to sexual harassment have come under some empirical investigation.

This section of the literature review examines victims' responses to sexual harassment situations, the commonness and effectiveness of the reactions, attempts at providing some organising framework for target responses to sexual harassment and the determinants of target responses to sexual harassment. The words reactions, responses and coping strategies are used interchangeably in the literature to describe what targets do when faced with sexually harassing situations. Target responses or reactions to sexual harassment have been described as coping strategies in the literature following the recognition of sexual harassment as a workplace stressor (Gutek & Koss, 1993; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Willness et al., 2007; Gettman & Gelfand, 2007) and the subsequent contribution of stress literature in the development of target response theory (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Knapp et al., 1997).

Ignoring or doing nothing about sexually harassing situations is the most frequent reaction of victims (USMSPB, 1981; Gruber & Bjorn, 1982;

Dunwoody-Miller & Gutek, 1985; Gruber & Smith, 1995; Cochran, Frazier, & Olsen, 1997; Kisa et al., 2002; Norman et al., 2012). In a study of Canadian women, 23 percent of harassed women ignored the sexually harassed behaviour. Using a sample selected from faith-based organisations in Ghana, Norman et al. (2013) found that more than half of the targets ignored the behaviour. Most victims of harassment also prefer avoiding the perpetrator. For instance, in examining the responses to sexual harassment among a large sample of male and female university students, faculty, and staff on a Midwestern university campus in the USA, 45 percent of victims reacted by avoiding perpetrators. Similarly, about 7 out of 10 women victims of Sexual harassment selected from a university, public, and private sectors in Myanmar chose to avoid their harassers (Kyu & Kanai, 2003). In a US military context study, Firestone and Harris (2003) conclude that in coping with sexual harassment, both men and women targets were most likely to use individual, informal strategies such as ignoring the behaviour, making a joke of the act, or telling the perpetrator to stop. Though ignoring and avoiding the harassment are considered least effective in dealing with sexual harassment, targets frequently use them.

Previous studies report that targets of sexual harassment rarely use formal or informal complaints procedures and processes established within and outside organisations to resolve harassment situations in spite of their perceived effectiveness (Gruber & Bjorn, 1982; Bingham, 1991; Bingham & Scherer, 1993; Kisa et al., 2002; Chaiyavej, 2003; Firestone & Harris, 2003; Kyu & Kanai, 2003; McDonald, 2012). Within an educational setting study, Cochran et al. (1997) found reporting of sexual harassment incidence as the

least common reaction to sexual harassment experiences among male and female university students, faculty and staff at a large Midwestern university in the USA. Similarly, only 13 percent of female target employees of a municipal county government system in the South-eastern USA reported sexual harassment.

Several reasons have been put forward to explain victims' limited preference for formal reactions to deal with sexually harassing situations. Uncertainty about the job-related consequences of reporting the harassment incident (job loss & transfer), fear of retaliation from the harasser, especially in cases where the perpetrator is superior to the target, fear of embarrassment, lack of confidence of complaint receiving the deserved attention from management as well as obtaining just outcomes prevent victims from using formal organisational procedures to cope with sexual harassment. Some victims will not report their sexual harassing experiences because they lack knowledge of their rights or accessibility of external support services (Gutek, 1985; Cultertson et al., 1992; Adams-Roy & Barling, 1998; Hayes, 2004; Handy, 2006). For instance, in the study of McDonald (2012), fear of negative impacts on employment as well as lack of faith in formal processes constituted major factors deterring targets from formally reporting their experiences. Furthermore, fear of reprisals and inadequacy of organisational response to reporting keep victims from formal processes.

Classification of Victim Response Strategies

Efforts have been made by many researchers to provide a theoretical typology of target responses to sexual harassment. Table 2 presents a summary

of the coping typologies.

Table 2: Summary of Victim Coping Typologies

Author(s)	Typology of Response Strategy
Maypole (1986)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Avoidance 2. Defusion 3. Reasoning 4. Confrontation
Gruber (1989)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Avoidance 2. Defusion 3. Seeking social support 4. Negotiation 5. Seeking outside help 6. Confrontation
Fitzgerald & Shullman (1993)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. External (Avoidance, appeasement, social support, reporting) 2. Internal (denial, detachment, reinterpretation of behaviour, enduring the behaviour)
Knapp, Faley, Ekeberg, & Dubois (1997)	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Avoidance/denial 2. Social coping 3. Confrontation/negotiation 4. Advocacy seeking

From Maypole (1986); Gruber (1989); Fitzgerald & Shullman (1993); Knapp et al. (1997)

Maypole (1986) used conflict resolution strategy continuum model (avoidance, defusion, reasoning, and confrontation) to conceptualise responses of victims of sexual harassment in a study involving social workers selected from Iowa chapter of the National Association of Social Workers in the USA. Gruber (1989) also proposes coping strategies consisting of avoidance, defusion, seeking social support, negotiation, seeking outside help and confrontation.

Fitzgerald and Shullman (1993) classify reactions to sexual harassment into external and internal. Reactions that are aimed at dealing with the harassment such as avoidance, appeasement, seeking social support and reporting fall under the external category, and they are responses that seek to address the harassment. Internal responses, on the other hand, direct attention to the target and relates to affective and cognitive processes of handling the harassment. Enduring the behaviour, denial, detachment and reinterpretation of behaviour, and illusory control are examples of internal responses to sexual harassment.

In a review of research on female victims' responses to sexual harassment, Gutek and Koss (1993) suggest that responses to sexual harassment fall into a two-by-two table: direct or indirect responses that are made alone or with the help of others. In what appears to be a dominant typology of targets' responses and coping with sexual harassment, Knapp et al. (1997) proposed a typology that is influenced by theoretical perspectives of whistle-blowing (Near & Miceli, 1995) and stress coping orientation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) in line with a Gruber (1989) and Gutek and Koss (1993) typologies of target responses. Knapp et al. (1997) proposed that target

responses to sexual harassment vary in terms of the focus of response (self or initiator) and the mode of response (self or supported), leading to four coping strategies: avoidance/denial, social coping, confrontation/negotiation, and advocacy seeking.

Avoidance/Denial

Responses to sexual harassment that are directed to the victim rather than the perpetrator fall under this category, and they are described as low-intervention strategies (Knapp et al., 1997). Victims frequently use these strategies though they are ineffective in bringing an end to sexually harassing behaviours (Gruber, 1989; Baker, Terspstra, & Larntz, 1990; Brooks & Perot, 1991). The frequent use of these strategies is because of fear of retaliation from perpetrators with negative job-related consequences for victims if the latter use more direct or active strategies. Examples of responses that fall under avoidance/denial category are quitting one's job or requesting transfer, avoiding the harasser, ignoring the behaviour, treating the behaviour as a joke as well as self-blame.

Social Coping

This is a self-focused and indirect response to sexual harassment because the victim does not tackle the perpetrator but rather seeks assistance from significant others in dealing with the sexually harassing behaviour (Knapp et al., 1997). As a coping strategy, some employees will request the presence of co-workers when coming into contact with the perpetrator (Gutek & Koss, 1993) or some will exchange roles with colleagues in order to avoid attending to client-perpetrators. As with other self-directed responses, this

category of coping strategy is also ineffective at stopping the harassment. However, it provides an opportunity for victims to manage the psychological and somatic outcomes related to the harassment as well as giving them the opportunity to devise further strategies to deal with the harassment. Talking to counsellors and medical consultations fall under this category (Knapp et al., 1997).

Confrontation/Negotiation

Confrontation and negotiation responses to sexual harassment are initiator focused because they address the harasser but with limited external support. Responses under this category are perceived as effective at stopping the harassment (Cochran et al., 1997). For instance, respondents in the study of Bingham and Scherer (1993) were satisfied more with outcomes of their responses to sexual harassment situations when they talked to the harasser than if they did not talk to the harasser. In spite of their perceived efficiency, these coping strategies are rarely used by targets because of uncertainty about the reactions of perpetrators, especially in cases where negative job-related consequences are likely to occur (Knapp et al., 1997). In addition, as pointed out by Livingston (1982), the use of confrontation comes with emotional distress to victims, hence the unpopularity of this strategy among victims. Responses such as asking or telling the perpetrator to stop, threatening the harasser to report, verbal or physical violence constitute confrontation/negotiation coping strategies.

Advocacy Seeking

A range of reactions to sexual harassment that are focused on the perpetrator and heavily supported constitute advocacy seeking strategies. Reactions such as reporting to a supervisor, filing a complaint with the organisation, or external agencies, and asking someone to speak to the harasser are all examples of advocacy seeking coping strategy (Knapp et al., 1997). These responses are effective in stopping sexual harassment behaviours but are rarely used by victims (Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1993; Gutek & Koss, 1993). For instance, only 2 percent of the victim respondents in the study of Cochran et al. (1997) reported the incident, and 26 percent felt the situation would have become worse if they had reported. In a scenario study, respondents rated reporting more significantly effective than talking to a friend and ignoring the behaviour (Sigal, Braden-Maguire, Patt, Goodrich, & Perrino).

Determinants of Target Responses to Sexual harassment

Previous studies have tried to explore patterns and variations in the use of response strategies of targets of sexual harassment. According to Knapp et al. (1997), individual and contextual factors influence targets' choice of coping responses to sexual harassment including reporting process, outcome expectancy, severity of sexual harassment and level of distress. Malamut and Offermann (2001) classified the determinants of coping strategies into: (a) personal (e.g., organisational status, race and gender); and (b) environmental (e.g., climate, severity and power differential). Cortina and Wasti (2005) lament the atheoretical nature of targets coping literature and propose a model

of determinants of coping profile based on ecological or systemic model (Mawson, 1993). Following this perspective, Cortina and Wasti (2005) suggest (a) individual level determinants (e.g., social power); (b) microcontext (e.g., stressor severity); (c) mesocontext (e.g., social support); and (d) macrocontext (e.g., culture).

The demographic variables of age and gender are individual factors that have been examined as determinants of target choice of reactions to sexual harassment. A logical argument often made in the literature is that since the sexual harassment experiences of men and women vary it follows that their reactions to sexually harassing situations will also be different (Bingham & Scherer, 1993). Men were found to be less likely than women to discuss sexual harassment experiences with anyone (Booth-Butterfield, 1986) while women were more likely than men to use social coping strategy (Malamut & Offermann, 2001). Norman et al. (2013) found in their study that males (63.4%) were less likely than females (26.4%) to report sexual harassment incidents to anyone. In a hypothetical study of 242 upper division undergraduate management students, men were more likely than women to quit their jobs, and in addition, men will employ physical reactions more frequently than women (Terpstra & Baker, 1987). Findings regarding the influence of age on targets' choice of coping profiles are conflicting. Results of some studies indicate that younger individuals are more likely to make formal complaints in response to sexual harassment than older workers (Terpstra & Cook, 1985). In contrast, Cortina and Wasti (2005) conclude that older women are more likely than younger women to confront and report when harassed. Education and marital status of respondents in the study of

Cortina and Wasti (2005) were not significant predictors of choice of reactions to sexual harassment.

Other personal characteristics such as self-esteem and personal control are predictors of coping strategy. Women victims of sexual harassment with low self-esteem respond less assertively to sexual harassment than women with high self-esteem (Gruber & Bjorn, 1986; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Knapp et al., 1997). The occupational status and tenure of victims are associated with the choice of coping profiles (Terpstra & Cook, 1985; Knapp et al., 1997; Malamut & Offermann, 2001). For instance, in a military context, Malamut and Offermann (2001) found that targets with low occupational status were more likely than targets with high occupational status to use confrontation and advocacy seeking as a coping strategy to deal with sexual harassment situations. Related to occupational status is the power differential between the target and perpetrator as a predictor of coping strategy (Maypole, 1986; Bingham & Scherer, 1993; Malamut & Offermann, 2001). The greater the power differential between the target and the perpetrator, the more likely the target were to use an avoidance-denial coping strategy (Malamut & Offermann, 2001). According to Gruber and Smith (1995), victims are likely to quit their jobs when harassed by a supervisor, and respond less directly to a supervisor (34.1%) than a client (39.8%) or co-worker (49.1%). In contradiction to the finding of less direct reaction to sexual harassment when the perpetrator happens to be a supervisor, Livingston (1982) found that targets harassed by superiors, as opposed to co-workers, were more likely to report harassment.

Severity and nature of experienced sexual harassment determines victim's response strategy (Livingston, 1982; Brooks & Perot, 1991; Jones & Remland, 1992; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Gruber & Smith, 1995; Cochran et al., 1997; Munson, Hulin & Drasgow, 2000 Cortina & Wasti, 2005; McDonald, 2012). In examining the reasons for female police officers' responses to sexual harassment, Chaiyavej (2003) found that severity of harassment was the main predictor of assertive reactions to sexual harassment. In addition, Malamut & Offerman (2001) conclude that harassment severity is positively related to the use of both self-and initiator-focused strategies. It is therefore reasonable to expect that targets' responses to sexual coercion and imposition, classified as severe by Till (1980) and Fitzgerald & Hesson-McInnis (1989), to be different from repeated requests for dates, that is considered least severe. For instance, most victims in the study of Terpstra (1986) made formal or informal complaint in situations where sexual harassment was linked to job-related coercion. Furthermore, victims of requests for sexual cooperation were more likely to use confrontation as a coping strategy than were targets of gender harassment (Malamut & Offermann, 2001).

Organisational related contextual variables appear to determine targets choices of coping profiles. Organisational climate and level of tolerance of sexual harassment are important organisational characteristics that determine target reactions to sexual harassment. For instance, work environments that do not discourage inappropriate and unwanted sexual behaviours may prevent targets from pursuing formal institutional procedures and other direct and active strategies of dealing with sexual harassment (Gruber, 1989). Employees who perceived the work climate as more encouraging of sexual harassment

were more likely to talk to family or friends than employees who perceived the work climate as discouraging sexual harassment. In a military context study in the US, Malamut and Offermann (2001) found that the more targets perceived the military to be tolerant of sexual harassment, the more likely they were to use avoidance-denial and social coping strategies. In contrast, organisations that do not tolerate sexual harassment show commitment to reduce the phenomenon by formulating just sexual harassment procedures and processes, which are supported by organisational leadership through fair implementation and respect to complainants. Organisational policies and filing procedures on sexual harassment influence assertiveness of the targets' response to sexual harassment (Gruber & Smith, 1995).

The attitude and responsiveness of organisational leadership toward sexual harassment affect coping profile of targets (Knapp et al., 1997). Targets will avoid using institutional procedures and resort to avoidance/denial and social coping strategies when they perceive managers and executives to be insensitive and unconcerned about sexual harassment complaints. Other organisational characteristics such as size is said to influence the choice reactions to sexual harassment. For example, sexual harassment victims that work in large organisations are more likely than those in smaller firms to report sexual harassment (Gruber & Smith, 1995; Malamut & Offermann, 2001; Cortina & Wasti, 2005). A relationship between type of occupation and behavioural responses to sexual harassment is suggested in the literature. For example, white-collar women were more likely than blue-collar women to report active behavioural responses to sexual harassment, such as getting angry and reporting the harasser (Ragins & Scandura, 1995).

CHAPTER THREE
EMPIRICAL EVIDENCE OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT IN GHANA
AND THE HOSPITALITY INDUSTRY

Introduction

This chapter provides a review of previous sexual harassment studies conducted in Ghana and by so doing point out research gaps regarding the country's sexual harassment literature and highlighting the areas that remain to be explored. In addition, it looks at empirical sexual harassment studies focusing on hospitality samples with particular attention on restaurants and hotels.

Empirical Studies on Sexual Harassment in Ghana

Compared to the Western world, sexual harassment literature on Ghana is scanty and evolving. This is not surprising because empirical investigation and discourse on the phenomenon started in the late 1990s (Aryeetey, 1998; Micah, Britwum & Anokye, 1998; Coker-Appiah & Cusack, 1999). Most of the research works were conducted after the year 2000 (Andoh, 2001; African Women Lawyers Association [AWLA], 2003; Aryeetey, 2004; Britwum & Anokye, 2006; Essel, 2007; Akaab, 2011; Agyepong, Opare, Owusu-Banahene, Yarquah, 2011; Norman et al., 2012; Norman et al., 2013). A critical examination of sexual harassment scholarship in Ghana therefore concentrates on prevalence, victims, perpetrators, forms of sexual harassment as well as effects on victims.

Prevalence of Sexual Harassment in Ghana

Sexual harassment incidence rates reported in Ghanaian research works are also characterised by wide variations as observed in studies emanating from the developed world. With an all-female sample selected from secondary schools in the Kumasi metropolis in Ghana, Agyepong et al. (2011) claim that about 91.8 percent of the 540 respondents had experienced varying degrees of sexual harassment. Another female sample comprising 440 workers and 349 students selected from six of the 10 administrative regions of Ghana found that 63 percent of the 789 respondents reported sexual harassment experiences (AWLA, 2003). In a higher education context study with a diverse research participants of students, teaching and non-teaching staff of five public universities in Ghana, more than half (54.7%) of the 2,175 respondents were victims of sexual harassment (Britwum & Anokye, 2006). As a departure from the selection of samples from educational institutions and workplaces, Norman's et al. (2013) sample of 600 respondents selected from faith-based organisations in Accra and Tema metropolises estimated sexual harassment incidence rate of 25 percent. Using a sample of higher education students in Ghana, Norman et al. (2012) found that only 55 or 6 percent of the 883 research participants had experienced sexual harassment.

As one of the most incontrovertible findings in sexual harassment literature, females are the predominant victims of sexual harassment in Ghana (Andoh, 2001; Britwum & Anokye, 2006; Akaab, 2011; Norman et al., 2012; Norman et al., 2013). Though often doubted by feminist scholars, sexual harassment of males occurs in Ghana. For instance, almost half (49.5%) of the male respondents in the study of Britwum and Anokye (2006) claimed they

were sexually harassed. In addition, Norman et al. (2012) found that 34 percent of sexual harassment victims were males. There are instances where females have perpetrated sexual harassment acts against males (Aryeetey, 2004). Female-to-male sexual harassment constitutes a minority of sexual harassment incidents and scholarship on it is comparatively undeveloped. Some evidence of the occurrence of same-sex sexual harassment has been reported in some studies (Norman et al., 2013; Britwum, & Anokye, 2006).

Beyond gender, other personal vulnerability factors such as age, marital status and education have received limited attention in the Ghanaian sexual harassment literature. Without making any inference to a relationship between age and sexual harassment victimisation, Akaab (2011) asserts that 33 out of 39 student victims of sexual harassment were aged between 18 and 25 years. In this same vein, relying only on percentage differences, Andoh (2001) indicated that female employees in the 21-25 year group were vulnerable to sexual harassment. Only two studies examined the relationship between sexual harassment victimisation and marital status. According to Norman et al. (2013), more married women respondents (58.2%) experienced sexual harassment than their unmarried (25.5%) counterparts. However, in a sharp contrast to this finding, Andoh (2001) concluded that the more frequent victims of sexual harassment were unmarried women. In fact, the finding of Norman et al. (2013) does not only contradict Andoh (2001) but other studies from different countries (e.g., Terpstra & Cook, 1985; Lafontaine & Tredeau, 1986; Fain & Anderton, 1987; Gutek & Dunwoody, 1987; Lee, Gibson & Near, 2004; Merkin, 2008; McDuff, 2008).

As found elsewhere and universally agreed, males are the main perpetrators of sexual harassment in Ghana (Andoh, 2001; Agyepong, 2011; Akaab, 2011; Norman et al., 2012). A further profiling of male perpetrators reveals that peers or colleagues of same status in educational institutions or workplaces happen to be the leading harassers. For instance, in the study of Britwum and Anokye (2006), 54 percent of the female victims mentioned male students as their harassers while only 11 percent said lecturers harassed them. Similarly, Norman et al. (2013) intimated that most sexual harassment acts were perpetrated by co-members (66.6%), senior leaders (20.9%) and junior leaders (12.5%) in their sample of members of faith-based organisations. However, Andoh's study found married male superiors/employers as the most frequent perpetrators of sexual harassment.

The nature of sexually harassing behaviours that are experienced by victims in Ghana has been examined in some of the scholarly works. Verbal sexual harassment appears to be common in the country (Agyepong, 2011; Norman et al., 2013) just as reported in other jurisdictions (Ng & Othman, 2002; Sigal, 2006; Pina et al., 2009, Hibino et al., 2009). For instance, Agyepong et al. (2011) conclude that the most frequent types of Sexual harassment that female students in their sample experienced were unwanted sexual comments or jokes. However, Britwum and Anokye (2006) found physical contact as the most cited sexually harassing behaviour in their study. The most serious forms of sexual behaviours such as rape and sexual assault are less common (Britwm & Anokye, 2006; Norman et al., 2013).

Patterns of reaction to sexual harassment found elsewhere are replicated in the context of Ghana. Victims demonstrate lack of interest in

reporting sexually harassing behaviours. For instance, only 8 percent of victims in the study of Norman et al. (2013) reported the harassment to management while more than half (53%) did not take any action. The choice of these coping strategies by victims of sexual harassment might be due to lack of information, education on regulations and legislation as well as uncomfortable conditions in the environment regarding how they deal with the incidence (Hibino et al., 2009). For example, about 20.3 percent respondents who alleged sexual harassment victimisation in the study of Norman et al. (2013) did not report because they did not know whom to tell. In addition, women do not report harassment due to fear of retaliation or disbelief to fear of losing one's job or making the situation worse (Loy & Stewart, 1984; Schneider, 1991; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Cochran et al., 1997). How victims react to sexual harassment is largely dependent on the severity of the behaviour. Victims are mostly assertive and use confrontational methods in cases involving unwanted physical contact, rape or sexual assault (Britwum & Anokye, 2006).

Sexual harassment has negative effects on victims ranging from psychological, physical, and job-related implications. This aspect of sexual harassment scholarship has attracted considerable empirical investigation (Pryor, 1995; Schneider et al., 1997; Magley et al., 1999; Murdoch et al., 2006; Willness et al., 2007; Cantisano, Dominguez & Depolo, 2008). However, in the case of Ghana, this area of sexual harassment research lacks in-depth investigation. This notwithstanding, Norman et al. (2013) found among their faith-based organisations sample physical injury, psychological trauma, depression and anxiety, and loss of trust for fellow religious members,

and the study concludes that the effects of sexual harassment are powerful for both men and women as well as those bothered or not bothered with sexual harassment. Some victims experience headaches, stomach pains, nervousness, forgetfulness or insomnia leading to tiredness and irritability. Work-related consequences on victims include unfavourable performance appraisal, wrongful dismissals and transfers (Andoh, 2001).

In sum, by far, most of the studies conducted on sexual harassment in Ghana have relied mostly on student samples (AWLA, 2003; Aryeetey, 2004; Britwum & Anokye, 2006; Essel, 2007; Akaab, 2011; Agyepong et al., 2011; Norman et al., 2012). Surprisingly, hospitality workplaces in the country have so far not attracted the attention of sexual harassment researchers in Ghana. Consequently, knowledge regarding the occurrence of sexual harassment in hotels and other hospitality places in the country remains anecdotal evidence.

Empirical Studies on Sexual Harassment in the Hospitality Industry

Many researchers (Eller, 1990; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Gilbert, Guerrier, & Guy, 1998; Guerrier & Adib, 2000; Worsfold & McCann, 2000; Agrusa, Coats, Tanner, & Leong, 2002; Poulston, 2008; Mkono, 2010; Waudby, 2012; Ineson, Yap, & Whiting, 2013) have investigated the extent to which hospitality workers experience sexual harassment. Similar to incidence rates reported in the general sexual harassment literature, estimates of sexual harassment prevalence in hospitality studies are remarkably diverse due to methodological variations.

Lin (2006) used both direct and indirect query methods to measure the occurrence of sexual harassment among 301 Taiwanese hospitality students

after completing internship training in hospitality related firms of which almost 60 percent were in five-star hotels. Approximately, 97 percent of the research participants indicated that they had experienced certain forms of harassment behaviours but only 47.8 percent admitted they were sexually harassed. In a New Zealand hospitality firm sample dominated by students, 24 percent of 543 research participants responded affirmatively to a direct query of whether they had been sexually harassed (Poulston, 2008).

In a comparative study of restaurant workers in New Orleans and Hong Kong, Agrusa et al. (2002) recorded an incidence rate of 48.9 percent but, the occurrence of sexual harassment in the USA sample was more (74.7%) than that of Hong Kong (25.3%). Comparatively, the lowest (8%) of sexual harassment incidence rate is recorded among 650 hospitality workers in the sample of Theocharous and Philaretou (2009). Within the context of UK and Zimbabwe, 57 percent of Worsfold and McCann's (2000) sample of hospitality students said they were sexually harassed while 78 percent of final-year hospitality students said they had been sexually harassed during their internship programme carried out in hotels in Zimbabwe (Mkono, 2010).

Following the trend in other sexual harassment studies, the majority of sexual harassment victims in hospitality empirical studies are females (Eller, 1990; Guerrier & Adib, 2000; Worsfold & McCann, 2000; Weber, Coats, Agrusa, Tanner, & Meche, 2002; Coats, Agrusa, & Tanner, 2004; Lin, 2006; Mkono, 2010). At the same time, empirical evidence shows that vulnerability to sexual harassment in hospitality workplaces is not restricted to women (Eller, 1990; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Coats et al., 2004; Lin, 2006). One

out of three victims of sexual harassment in the study of Theocharous and Philaretou (2009) were males.

Some studies (e.g., Eller, 1990; Chung, 1993) have argued that hospitality workers are more vulnerable to sexual harassment than employees of other sectors. By replicating Gutek's (1985) study among a population of hotel employees in the USA, Eller (1990) concludes that more hotel employees than workers in society-at-large will experience sexual harassment. Three years after the study of Eller (1990), Chung (1993) replicated the study of Gutek by telephone interviewing 69 employees of one hotel property in the USA and the findings confirmed that a higher proportion of hotel industry employees than of individuals in society-at-large experience sexually harassing behaviours in their workplace. Interestingly, employees in hospitality firms are of the opinion that sexual harassment occurs frequently in their workplaces than other work settings (Agrusa et al., 2002; Weber, Coats, Agrusa, Tanner, & Meche, 2002; Coats et al., 2004).

Perpetrator profile regarding position in organisational hierarchy such as being supervisor and/or manager, co-worker of equal status, and guest is reported in the literature. Reported findings on main perpetrators of sexual harassment in hospitality firms are mixed (Table 3). Averagely, as reported in the general sexual harassment studies, colleagues appear marginally the leading perpetrators of sexual harassment in hospitality workplaces. On the other hand, clearly, colleagues were the main cause of sexual harassment in the Asian studies of Lin (2006) and Cho (2002). Guests were the main harassers in the study of Mkono (2010) and Poulston (2008). Nineteen out of 26 incidents of sexual harassment recounted in the qualitative study of

Guierrier and Adib (2000) involved harassment between guests and staff. Supervisors and management appear the leading perpetrators in the study of Worsfold and McCann (2000) because of the aggregation of chefs (11%), supervisors (5%) and management (25%).

Table 3: Category of Perpetrators of Sexual Harassment Reported in Hospitality Studies

Author(s)	Co-workers %	Guests %	Supervisors /Managers (%)
Cho (2002)	37.2	33.0	29.6
Lin (2006)	47.9	25.4	26.8
Poulston (2008)	26.0	39.0	23.0
Mkono (2010)	34.0	44.0	22.0
Worsfold & MaCann(2000)	26.0	29.0	41.0
Average	34.2	34.0	28.4%

Source: From Worsfold (2000); Cho (2002); Lin (2006); Poulston (2008); Mkono (2012).

Forms of Sexual Harassment

Forms of sexual harassment commonly experienced by hospitality workers are reported in the literature with varied classification schemes. Similar to the general sexual harassment studies (Ng & Othman, 2002; Celik & Celik, 2007; Pina et al., 2009; Hibino et al., 2009), verbal sexual harassment appears to be the most commonly experienced by hospitality workers (Worsfold & McCann, 2000; Cho, 2002; White & Hardemo, 2002; Nkono, 2010). Cho (2002) found verbal (e.g., insulting sexual comments and jokes), physical and visual harassment to be the most common in an all-female

dominated sample of employees of seven luxury hotels in Korea. In their two-country study, White and Hardemo (2002) found sexual comments (55%), touching (48%) and threats (20%) as most commonly reported by Swedish and French students in their study. On the other hand, Theocharous & Philaretou (2009) found unwanted contact or touch, pressure to start a relationship, comments about body and pressure for sexual contact as common forms of sexual harassment in their Cypriot study of hospitality workers. In addition, in the study of Lin (2006), gender harassment and seduction were the most commonly reported types of sexual harassment by hospitality students of four Taiwanese colleges returning from an internship programme, while sexual bribery (5.3%), sexual coercion (3.3%) and sexual assault (3%) occurred less among the respondents.

Who is Most Vulnerable to Sexual Harassment in the Hospitality Workplace?

One of the unanimous findings in sexual harassment studies is the overwhelming victimisation of female workers. Being a female in hospitality workplaces is a major risk factor to sexual harassment (Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Guerrier & Adib, 2000; Worsfold & McCann, 2000; Weber et al., 2002; Theocharous & Philaretou, 2009; Mkono, 2010). In contrast, when sexual harassment is measured indirectly, Lin (2006) found that there was no gender difference in exposure to sexual behaviours however, when queried directly, a statistically significant proportion of females (60.4%) than males (28.6%) in the sample of Lin (2006) believed they had been sexually harassed during their practical training. This reaffirms the gender disparity in the labelling of

behaviours, as sexual harassment. Women are much more likely to label social-sexual behaviours as harassment (Chung, 1993).

As portrayed in the general sexual harassment literature, the association between age and sexual harassment experiences is inconclusive in hospitality related studies. In Poulston's (2008) study in New Zealand, the likelihood of being harassed decreases as age increases. On the contrary, age did not influence propensity to be harassed in Lin's (2006) student sample. Education is another demographic characteristic that has received minimal examination in the hospitality sexual harassment empirical studies. Poulston (2008) found an association between reported sexual harassment and education in his study.

Generally, it is common knowledge that hospitality workers are most likely to be confronted by sexual harassment on daily basis at work. However, vulnerability to sexual harassment differs between employees. Beyond personal characteristics, employees in some job positions are more vulnerable to sexual harassment than others. For instance, in the qualitative study of Guirrier and Adib (2000) in a hotel context, female room attendants and female receptionists recorded the highest and serious forms of sexual harassment. In conflict with the conclusion of Guirrier and Adib (2000) regarding the susceptibility of room attendants to sexual harassment, Poulston (2008) found that room employees were least prone to sexual harassment in a New Zealand sample. In explaining the low propensity of room attendants to be sexually harassed, Poulston (2008) alleges that such employees are elderly and wear loose clothing, with little guest contact. These characteristics render them less attractive hence less likely to experience sexual harassment. This

explanation is not tenable and less generalisable because room attendants have been found elsewhere to be young (Saunders & Pullen, 1987; Powel & Watson, 2006). In line with the position of Guierrier and Adib (2000), this thesis contends that room attendants will be more vulnerable to sexual harassment and experience serious forms of sexual harassment because of the privacy provided by the hotel bedroom and the fact that they work mostly alone. Indeed, several reports point to the vulnerability of room attendants to sexual harassment. This same privacy provided by the hotel room renders other room-service waitresses vulnerable to sexual harassment (Eller, 1990).

One particular group of employees in hospitality workplaces said to be most vulnerable to sexual harassment is restaurant-waiting staff, particularly, waitresses (LaPointe, 1992; Hall, 1993; Giuffre & Williams, 1994; Dirks, 2004; Erickson, 2004; Poulston, 2008). According to Guerrier and Adib (2000) restaurant waiting employees are not separated from guests by a counter but move amongst them and this provides an opportunity for physical contact and possible sexual harassment. Beyond academic sources, the media is inundated with the sexual harassment of waitresses in restaurants (Vela, 2000; Kim, 2012; Peterson & Harrington, 2013). For example, two teenage waitresses at a Wisconsin International House of Pancakes [IHOP] were awarded a total of \$105,000 in compensatory and punitive damages following sexual harassment by a manager (Bouboushian, 2012). Empirical studies that have examined the vulnerability of waiting staff to sexual harassment have concentrated on waitresses and waiters in restaurants and other food and beverages workplaces with limited attention on hotel restaurant waiting staff.

Organisational characteristics of hospitality workplaces regarding size and other features such as ownership, organisation of workplace, human resource management practices, conspire to make employees of hotels more vulnerable to sexual harassment. Globally, the hospitality and tourism industry business is overwhelmingly dominated by small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs). SMEs accommodation facilities dominate the Malaysian tourism sector (Small and Medium Industries Development Corporation [SMIDEC], 2006), and Ghana's stock of accommodation properties (Akyeampong, 2007; Mensah & Blankson, 2013). In Mensah's and Blankson's (2013) study, more than two-thirds of hotels had fewer than 20 rooms and only 4 percent had 100 or more rooms. Most of SMEs are both owner-managed and operated as family businesses. Correspondingly, about 80 percent of the hospitality sector workforce is located in SMEs while the remaining 20 percent is located within multinational enterprises (Baum, 2013). Large hotels in the form of multinational and chain hotels manage a substantial number of global outlets and guestrooms capacity. For instance, InterContinental Hotels Group (IHG) was managing more than 650,000 rooms as of the year 2012 (Baum, 2013).

Because of inherent characteristics as well as resource constraints, establishment of organisational structure of small hotels is significantly informed by cost minimisation after having single-handedly raised capital for construction of properties, as usually happens in the case of establishment of small hotel properties in developing countries. Small hotels will therefore pay attention to the establishment of units or departments that are critical to their operational areas. Human resource management practices are accorded limited attention in SMEs hotels. According to Ritchie (1993), generally, hospitality

explanation is not tenable and less generalisable because room attendants have been found elsewhere to be young (Saunders & Pullen, 1987; Powel & Watson, 2006). In line with the position of Guierrier and Adib (2000), this thesis contends that room attendants will be more vulnerable to sexual harassment and experience serious forms of sexual harassment because of the privacy provided by the hotel bedroom and the fact that they work mostly alone. Indeed, several reports point to the vulnerability of room attendants to sexual harassment. This same privacy provided by the hotel room renders other room-service waitresses vulnerable to sexual harassment (Eller, 1990).

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Reported Work-Related Outcomes of Sexual Harassment in Hospitality

Workplaces

Work-related outcomes such as reduction in productivity, absenteeism, and turnover are superficially reported in the literature (LaPointe, 1992; FolgerØ & Fjeldstad, 1995; Gilbert et al., 1998; Worsfold & McCann, 2000; Cho, 2002; Theocharous & Philaretou, 2009; Ineson et al., 2013). Generally, respondents in the study of Cho (2002) believed that sexual harassment causes side effects such as increased absenteeism, lateness, uncertainty regarding their own skills and accomplishment leading to decreased productivity. Ability to work with others, quality of work, and quantity of work were the adverse impacts of sexual harassment on work reported by research participants in the study of Worsfold and McCann (2000) though the majority reported no effect on their work.

Regarding the influence of sexual harassment on turnover in hospitality workplaces, about 19 percent of 32 companies that participated in the study of personnel managers of hospitality firms in the UK reported that staff had resigned due to sexual harassment (Gilbert et al., 1998). Twenty-

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Turnover has been a major personnel management issue in the hotel industry and has attracted widespread investigation because of its effects on organisational performance and finances (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Aksu, 2004; Madanoglu et al., 2004; Yang, 2009; Wang, 2009; Bagri, Babu, & Kukreti, 2010). Turnover has multi-dimensional cost implications in the areas of separation, replacement and, training (Tracey & Hinkin, 2008). Organisations also lose best brains due to turnover (Tanova & Holtom, 2008). Though turnover in hotels has been investigated extensively (Lam, Lo & Chan, 2002; Tracey & Hinkin, 2008; O'Neill & Davis, 2011; Jung & Yoon, 2013; Mohsin, Lengler, & Kumar, 2013), the effect of sexual harassment on turnover in hotels has received less attention from researchers.

The sexual harassment studies (Woods & Kavanaugh, 1994; Gilbert et al., 1998; Cho, 2002; Theocharous & Philaretou, 2009) reporting findings on turnover were not designed to examine the link between sexual harassment and turnover. Turnover was not measured in the studies rather conclusions were drawn relying on respondents' perception of the side effects of Sexual harassment on turnover (Cho, 2002). Furthermore, Woods' and Kavanaugh's

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One important job-related outcome of sexual harassment that appears to have received less empirical attention in the hospitality literature is the effect of sexual harassment on employee job satisfaction though according to Pina and Gannon (2012), this variable has been examined extensively in the general sexual harassment literature. The state of employee job satisfaction is associated with the health and the general well-being of employees (Clark, 1997; John & Saks, 2001) as well as their performance on the job (Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001), organisational citizenship behaviour, absenteeism and turnover rates (Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2003). Sexual harassment has a negative effect on overall job satisfaction of employees as well as the interpersonal job satisfaction with co-workers and supervisors (Laband & Lentz, 1998; Magley et al., 1999; Chan et al., 2008; Willness et al.,

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Furthermore, most studies (Morrow et al., 1994; Donovan, Drasgow & Munson, 1998; Magley et al., 1999; O'Connell & Korabk, 2000; Harned et al., 2002; Sims et al., 2005; Willness et al., 2007; Estrada & Berggren, 2009) examining the relationship between Sexual harassment and employee job satisfaction have focussed on three facts of job satisfaction that is, overall job satisfaction, co-worker satisfaction and supervisor satisfaction. Willness et al. (2007) justified research concentration on interpersonal job satisfaction that is, co-worker and supervisor job satisfaction on the premise that most incidents of sexual harassment emanate from co-workers and people in supervisory positions in the workplace. This justification is tenable because the samples used in the above studies were predominantly military (Newell, Rosenfeld, & Culbertson, 1995; Magley et al., 1999; Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Sims et al., 2005; Estrada & Berggren, 2009) settings, less client-based like hotels. Indeed, evidence from hospitality studies shows that clients constitute an appreciable proportion of perpetrators of sexual harassment, and that, the inclusion of clients as a third dimension of the interpersonal job satisfaction of hotel workers in this thesis is reasonable.

Reactions to Sexual Harassment

The reaction or coping strategies of sexual harassment victims have received some research attention in hospitality settings (Eller, 1990; Worsfold & McCann, 2000; Cho, 2002; White & Hardemo, 2002; Weber et al., 2002; Lin, 2006; Nkomo, 2010). Victims' lack of interest in reporting their experiences to authorities in the workplace found elsewhere (Ragins & Scandura, 1995; Cochran et al., 1997; Kisa et al., 2002; Kyu & Kanai, 2003; McDonald, 2012; Norman et al., 2012) is replicated in the hospitality workplaces. Only 13 out of 60 victims of sexual harassment in the study of Mkono (2010) made formal complaints. In a similar supervised work experience sample, Worsfold & McCann (2000) found that 3 out of 10 victims reported sexual harassment incidents to supervisors. Though low reporting behaviour is observed among victims, more females than males are likely to lodge formal complaints to a supervisor or manager (Weber et al., 2002). Victims have assigned a variety of reasons for their non-reporting behaviour that include fear of ridicule and not being believed (Worsfold & McCann, 2000; Mkono, 2010; White & Hardemo, 2002) as well as fear of repercussions of reporting (Worsfold & McCann, 2000; White & Hardemo, 2002). White's and Hardemo's (2002) study of two-culinary schools in France and Sweden found that victims would report in situations of touching and threats. These behaviours fit Terspstra's & Baker's (1987) examples of severe forms of Sexual harassment. As shown in the literature, severity of the behaviour influences victims' choice of coping strategy (Brooks & Perot, 1991; Jones & Remland, 1992; Cochran et al., 1997; Chaiyavej, 2003).

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Victims of Sexual harassment in hospitality workplaces use a mixture of reactions to deal with their experiences. Ignoring and playing along with the behaviour appears quite common (Eller, 1990; Giuffree & Williams, 1994; Agrusa & Coats, 1998; Seymour, 2000; Dirks, 2004). Other studies have found the use of assertive (Cho, 2002), confrontation and detachment (Guerrier & Adib, 2000), verbal approach to harasser (Worsfold & McCann, 2000), and talking to friends and colleagues (Lin, 2006). Significantly, more females than males will discuss their experiences with significant others while men will usually do nothing (Lin, 2006).

Victims' reaction strategies are not adequately addressed in hospitality studies. Most of the studies (Eller, 1990; Worsfold & McCann, 2000; Weber et al., 2002; Cho, 2002; White & Hardemo, 2002; Lin, 2006; Mkono, 2010) were carried out without the benefit of using any coping strategy typology (Gruber, 1989; Gutek & Koss, 1993; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Knapp et al., 1997; Sigal et al., 2003) to either guide the studies or facilitate interpretation of findings. Clearly, the coping strategies reported in the general sexual harassment literature have not been tested in hospitality settings. Furthermore, beyond the limited examination of gender differences in reporting and coping behaviours, a thorough investigation of other variables (victim characteristics, characteristics of perpetrator, organisational features) influencing the choice of coping strategies are conspicuously unexplored.

Even more surprising is the neglect of the association between tipping and victims' choice of coping strategy in hospitality Sexual harassment empirical studies as well as other influential studies on victims' reactions (Knapp et al., 1997; Munson et al., 2000; Wasti & Cortina, 2002; Cortina &

Wasti, 2005). Characteristically, wages and salaries in hospitality workplaces are comparatively low and employees depend heavily on tips to boost their income (Lynn, 2003; Fernandez, 2004; Azar, 2005; Bujisic, Choi, Parsa, & Krawczyk, 2013). According to Mason (2002), tips sometimes represent 100 percent of waiters and waitresses take home pay. In Southern France, tipping is the sole source of restaurant servers' income (Mealey, 2010).

Employees who are heavily reliant on the tips of guests are therefore likely to be careful in their choice of coping strategy when confronted with sexually harassing behaviour of guests in order not to jeopardize their tips. According to Matulewicz (2013), tipping can lead a server to put up with inappropriate behaviour from guests that she would not otherwise tolerate, and that guests directly affect the income of employees through tipping. A participant in the qualitative study of Erickson (2004) succinctly reveals the influence of tipping on victims' choice of coping strategy as follows "I don't care at all, I mean you can look at my butt all you want, just give me your money." Similarly, Seymour (2000) reports that when workers smile to the sexual misbehaviours of guests this reaction usually earned them higher tips.

Conceptual Framework for the Study

The thrust of this study, as depicted in Figure 1 is to examine the organisational antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment, focussing on its impact on job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment of hotel employees. In generality, the occurrence of sexual harassment in the workplace and other settings is conditioned by larger societal factors that seek to project and sustain the supremacy of men over

women, and sexual harassment becomes a strategy to maintain the patriarchal system. In this conceptualisation, the desire and expression of power becomes the underlying factor driving sexual harassment in the workplace.

The propensity of a hotel employee to report sexual harassment will be determined by personal vulnerability variables such as gender, age, education, marital status, job tenure, department and star rating of the hotel. Secondly, the gender composition of the hotel, department and client base will also contribute to sexual harassment of hotel workers in Accra. A male-dominated hotel, department and client base will present the greatest risk for sexual harassment of female hotel employees. However, since this thesis takes the position that sexual harassment is experienced by females and males in the workplace, male employees in a hotel, department and client based dominated by females are likely to report higher frequency of sexual harassment

Perceived climate for sexual harassment is expected to be related to sexual harassment. Employees who perceive their hotels to possess higher climate for sexual harassment will be more vulnerable to sexual harassment than those who perceive less climate for sexual harassment. Hotel employees who depend on tips from guests are likely to be more tolerant of sexually harassing behaviours from guests hence they will report higher frequency of sexual harassment than employees who perceive less economic dependence on tipping.

When sexually harassed, victims have a variety of response strategies they use in order to deal with sexual harassment situations. These may include ignoring the behaviour, avoiding the harasser, asking the harasser to stop as well as lodging formal complaints. Individual coping strategies can fall into

four broad categories of avoidance/denial, social coping, confrontation/negotiation, and advocacy (Knapp et al., 1997). The choice of a coping strategy will be influenced by demographic characteristics of victims (Terpstra & Cook, 1985; Jones & Remland, 1992; Barak, Fisher, & Houston, 1992; Knapp et al., 1997; Cochran et al., 1997; Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Norman et al., 2013).

Sexual harassment of hotel workers will affect their job satisfaction levels. Sexually harassed employees will report lower levels of overall job satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, co-worker satisfaction and client satisfaction (Barling et al., 1996; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Laband & Lentz, 1998; Magley et al., 1999; Shaffer, Joplin, Bell, Lau, & Oguz, 2000; Mueller, De Coster & Estes, 2001; Willness et al., 2007; Estrada & Berggren, 2009; Nielsen et al., 2010; Hutagalung & Ishak, 2012). In addition, hotel workers who experience sexual harassment will harbour higher turnover intentions (Laband & Lentz, 1998; Rosen & Martin, 1998; O'Connell & Korabik, 2000; Wasti et al., 2000) but lowered organisational commitment levels (Stedham & Mitchell, 1998; Willness et al., 2007; Estrada & Berggren, 2009).

Summary of Review

Results of previous studies demonstrate that sexual harassment occurs in workplaces across several sectors such as the military, educational institutions, public sector agencies as well as the hospitality industry in both developed and developing countries. The literature is replete with studies establishing the relationship between job gender context, sexual harassment climate, individual factors, vulnerability and sexual harassment. Furthermore,

the effect of sexual harassment on employee intentions to quit, job satisfaction and organisational commitment has been established through an integrated model (Fitzgerald et al., 1997). However, an obvious gap in the literature is that the association between job gender/client gender context, perceived climate for sexual harassment and susceptibility to sexual harassment has not been systematically examined in the hospitality industry.

An even more compelling question that remains unanswered is the applicability of the integrated model to explain the occurrence of sexual harassment in Ghana's hotel sector. In addition, the extent to which sexual harassment trigger hotel employees' intentions to quit, lower workers' job satisfaction and organisational commitment has not been explored in hotel spaces in Accra Metropolis. This study partially fills the gaps in knowledge by examining the ability of job/client gender context, organisational context, personal vulnerabilities and economic dependence on tipping to predict sexual harassment of hotel employees in Accra Metropolis.

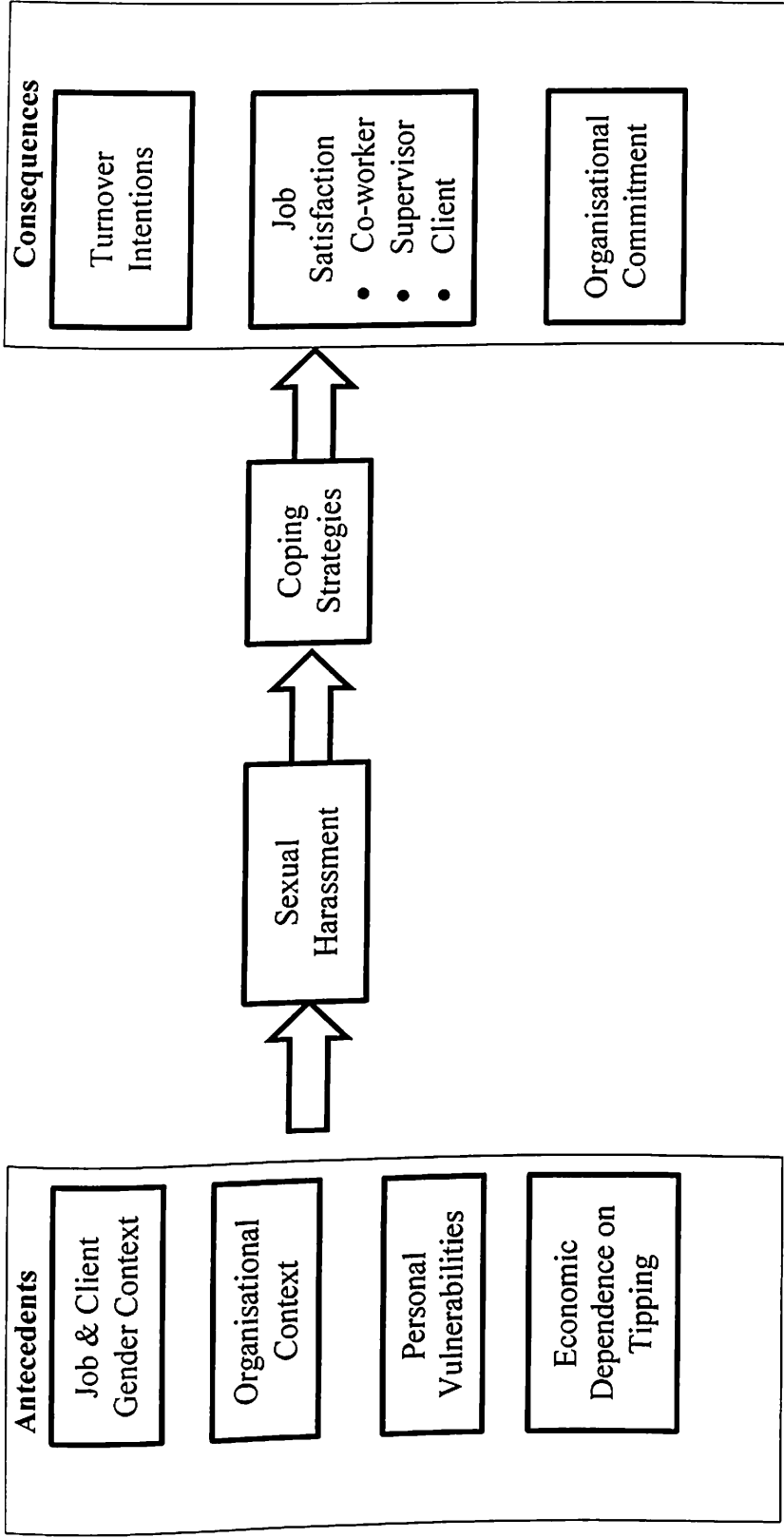


Figure 1: A Revised Illinois Model of Antecedents and Consequences of Sexual Harassment: A Conceptual Framework for the Study. Source: Fitzgerald et al. (1997)

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter describes the methods and the philosophical positions used to explore the antecedents and work-related consequences of sexual harassment of hotel employees in Accra. The chapter starts with an introduction followed by a discussion on research design and the underlying paradigm guiding the study. Next, the various techniques and instruments used in gathering empirical data are discussed and justified. Highlighted are: the sampling procedure and the sample size, the methods of data collection, the scope of analysis, the sources of secondary data, as well as data analysis techniques and process. A presentation on field challenges and limitations of the study concludes the chapter.

Research Paradigm

Worldview positions guide practically all the stages of any research starting from conceptualisation through to operationalisation of concepts to communication of results. In the view of Dzenin and Lincoln (2000), whether consciously or not, a set of beliefs and feelings steer research endeavours. These set of beliefs or worldviews that guide the research process have been commonly described as paradigms in research methodology parlance. In addition, paradigms are differing worldviews or belief systems that guide the decisions that researchers make (Tashakkori & Teddlie 1998). It is also a cluster of beliefs that influence and dictate to scientists in a particular field of discipline what should be studied, how research should be conducted and how

results should be interpreted (Bryman, 2004). There are two principal research paradigms in the social sciences (Punch, 1998; Hyde, 2000; Tribe, 2001) namely, positivism and interpretivism.

Positivism

Positivism is a term credited to Auguste Comte (1798-1857) and the concept is shorthand for Logical Positivism (Schwandt, 2001) and dominated social science research from the 1930s through to the 1960s. Positivism is an epistemological position that advocates the application of the methods of conducting research in the natural sciences to the study of social reality (Bryman, 2008). Its fundamental position is that the social world exists external to researchers, and that its components can be measured directly through observation. Positivists argued that reality consists of what is available to the senses- that is, what can be seen, smelt, touched, among others. Positivists believe that reality is stable and can be measured and described objectively (Levin, 1988).

Several principles underline the scientific-positivist paradigm research. First, it concentrates on positive data, that is, verifiable facts that can survive attempts at falsification using a rigorous scientific method following the formulation of hypothesis that is tested against empirical evidence. Quantitative measurement and experiment are key techniques in a positivist research paradigm. Researchers adhere to the principle of value neutrality. In effect, their role becomes one of a specialist accessing facts. They are in theory replaceable by another researcher who would reach identical results using the same data and methods (Tribe, 2001). The positivist researchers are

most likely to use a well-structured methodology in order to facilitate replication (Gill & Johnson, 2002). Researchers incorporating positivist paradigm generally use quantitative and experimental methods to test theories and to arrive at causal explanations and fundamental laws (Creswell, 2003).

Many criticisms have been leveled against the positivist-scientific method paradigm. The paradigm's claim to value neutrality in the research process has been questioned. In the view of Tribe (2001), adhering to total value free neutrality is practically impossible to achieve in any research process. Furthermore, Walle (1997) argues that the adoption of positivism leads to the tendency to oversimplify reality, elimination of important topics that cannot be studied using the rigorous scientific methods espoused by the paradigm.

Interpretivism

Interpretivism emerged as an alternative paradigm to the study of social reality because of the observed inappropriateness of applying the positivist-scientific paradigm in the understanding of the social world. Interpretivism denotes those approaches to studying social reality as a method of the social sciences which assumes that the meaning of human action is inherent in that action, and that the task of the researcher is to unearth that meaning (Schwandt, 2001). Interpretivism looks for culturally derived and historically situated interpretations of the social life world (Crotty, 1998). The fundamental argument of the interpretive paradigm is that the subject of social research, which is people and institutions, is primarily different from that of the natural sciences and for that matter, the study of the social world therefore

requires a different logic of research procedure, one that reflects the distinctiveness of humans as against the natural order (Bryman, 2008).

The interpretive paradigm assumes that the social world consists of multiple realities, and recognises that reality is largely what people perceive it to be (Jennings, 2001; Neuman, 2006; Walliman, 2006). The contention of the interpretive tradition is that people's subjective experiences are real and should not be ignored, that these experiences can be understood by interacting with the people concerned and listening to what they have to say, and that qualitative research techniques are best suited to gaining an understanding of the subjective experiences of others (Terre Blanche & Durrheim, 1999).

Furthermore, the study of phenomena in their natural environment is fundamental to the interpretivism philosophy. Interpretive researchers acknowledge that they cannot avoid affecting those phenomena they study. They admit that there may be many interpretations of reality, but they maintain that these interpretations are in themselves a part of the scientific knowledge they are pursuing. Interpretivism has a tradition that is no less magnificent than that of positivism. However, the interpretive model places more reliance on the people being studied to provide their own explanations of their situation or behaviour. The interpretive researcher therefore tries to get inside the minds of subjects and sees the world from their point view (Veal, 2006).

Interpretivists view reality as a multiple, socially and psychologically constructed phenomenon, where the knower and the known are inextricably connected to each other. It challenges the traditional notion of the absolute truth of knowledge by arguing that "reality exists, but can never be fully

apprehended. It is driven by natural laws that can be only incompletely understood” (Guba, 1992). Interpretivism seeks understanding and meanings from the perspectives of the architects of social phenomena that are the subject of investigation. The disadvantage of this paradigm is that it tends to subscribe to only one approach, qualitative, to collecting and analysing data (Creswell, 2003).

Sexual harassment is a complex phenomenon that cannot be reduced to simple objectification for investigation as advocated in the positivist paradigm. Subjectivity surrounds the interpretation and labelling of sexual harassment to the extent that perspectives of what constitute sexual harassment vary from person to person. The lack of objective definition of sexual harassment is because of the influence of contextual variations. The same behaviour perpetrated by a supervisor that is labelled as sexual harassment might not be labelled as such when perpetrated by a co-worker. Following from the subjective and complex nature of sexual harassment, a wholly positivist scientific approach and its recommended quantitative rigorous methods might not provide a sufficient understanding and meaning hotel employees ascribe to sexual harassment.

On the other hand, an application of an interpretivist paradigm to the understanding of sexual harassment of hotel employees will not adequately address the objectives of the study which are seeking to know the extent of prevalence of the phenomenon; which category of workers in hotels are most vulnerable; the influence of gender job/client gender context and the psychological climate for sexual harassment on vulnerability to sexual harassment; and predicting the likelihood of an employee being sexually

harassed. In sum, the study is interested in measurability and predictability of sexual harassment among hotel employees and necessitates the use of the positivist paradigm. However, I seek to explore these objectives mindful of the subjective nature of the interpretation and conceptualisation of sexual harassment. It was therefore considered significant to seek to understand the interpretation and meaning employees ascribe to sexual harassment. This therefore necessitates a pragmatic approach to the study of sexual harassment without necessarily holding on to the positivist-interpretivist divide, hence the conduct of the study within the pragmatism paradigm. Neither the tools of positivism nor interpretivism can exclusively provide sufficient understanding of the dynamics of sexual harassment.

Pragmatism

Pragmatism is a relatively old philosophy but one that has seen a recent revival. Pragmatism was founded by American philosophers Charles Pierce (1839-1941) William James (1842-1910) and John Dewey (1859-1952) at the beginning of the twentieth century in an attempt to help American society face the many problems it was confronting at the time. Pragmatists focus not on whether a proposition fits a particular ontology, but whether it suits a purpose and is capable of creating action (Rorty, 1998). Pragmatism as a worldview arises out of actions, situations, and consequences rather than antecedent conditions. There is a concern with applications- what works- and solutions to problems (Patton, 1990). Instead of focusing on methods, researchers emphasize the research problem and use all approaches available to

understand the issue under investigation. Pragmatism is the philosophical underpinning for mixed methods studies.

The use of mixed methods design is appropriate when either the quantitative or the qualitative approach by itself is inadequate to provide comprehensive understanding of a research problem or harmonising the strengths of both quantitative and qualitative research to provide the best understanding (Creswell, 2008). Gill and Johnson (2002) are of the view that a mixed methods approach provides greater validity and reliability when compared to a single methodological approach. The use of mixed methods will satisfactorily overcome the shortcomings associated with purely quantitative or qualitative approaches (Gelo, Braakmann, & Benetka, 2008). The use of quantitative and qualitative data in tourism and hospitality research complements each other (Davies, 2003).

Research Design

Research design is a blueprint, model or framework that guides an entire research endeavour. Research design is the logical sequence that connects the empirical data to the study's research questions and ultimately to its conclusions (Inkoom, 1999). In the choice of a research design, control of bias, objectivity in the research process and conclusion to be drawn are critical (Kumar, 2005). Ultimately, the function of a research design is to minimise the chance of drawing incorrect causal inferences from empirical data. It constitutes the blueprint for the collection, measurement, analysis of data and conclusions. Research design is needed because it facilitates the smooth implementation of the various research operations, thereby making research as

efficient as possible and yielding adequate information with minimal expenditure of resources (Kothari, 2004).

In view of the nature of the current study, cross-sectional design was deemed appropriate for the objectives it seeks to achieve out of the myriad of research designs that are discussed in the research methodology textbooks. Cross-sectional design involves the collection of data on more than one case at a particular point in time. It also entails the collection of a body of quantitative or quantifiable data in connection with more variables, which are then examined to detect patterns of associations (Fayorsey, 2010). The current study sought to examine variation in respect of sexual harassment experiences across personal characteristics and different job/client gender situations. This variation can be established when data is collected from many hotel employees. Furthermore, with a cross-sectional design, it is possible to examine relationships between variables influencing sexual harassment vulnerability. Given the time requirement for the submission of the study and resource constraints, a cross-sectional design was considered suitable for the study.

Sources of Data

Both primary and secondary sources of data were solicited to facilitate the attainment of the objectives of the study. Primary data was collected from research participants via the use of questionnaires and interview guides. Secondary data in respect of the list of licensed accommodation facilities in Greater Accra Region as of the year 2013 that formed the basis for the selection of hotels was obtained from Ghana Tourism Authority.

Target Population

A target population is the entire group under study as specified by the research objectives to which results of the study would be generalised (Bradley, 2007). The population of interest for the study consisted of all employees of hotels in Accra (Accra Metropolitan area) licensed by the Ghana Tourism Authority ranging from 5 star to budget accommodation facilities (see Table 4 for classification) as of the period of data collection.

Table 4: Rating of Hotels in Ghana

Hotel category	Description
Budget	Provides the barest minimum of furnishing with no facilities, amenities, or guest services.
Guest house	Meets all the requirements of a star-rated facility but has less than 11 rooms.
One star	Provides basic furnishing and very limited or no facilities, amenities, and guest services (hot and cold water in room, central heating, etc.).
Two star	Provides more furnishing and some facilities, amenities, and guest services (breakfast/dining, room, TV lounge, etc.).
Three star	Provides better quality furnishing and a more extensive range of facilities, amenities, and guest services (private bath/shower, lounge area, bar, restaurant, staff assistance throughout the day, etc.).

Table 4 Continued

Four star	Provides superior quality furnishing and a complete range of facilities, amenities, and guest services (all rooms with bath, direct dial telephone, radio and TV set, individual control heating and air conditioning, full room service, some shops and sporting facilities, etc.).
Five star	Provides deluxe accommodation and marked superiority in the extent and quality of facilities, amenities, and guest services (mini bar in rooms, 24-hour laundry service, several bars, restaurant and lounges, health club, shopping arcade, etc.).

Source: Ghana Tourism Authority

For the purposes of sampling, it was considered important to know the size of the target population. However, the Ghana Tourism Authority could not provide data on the number of hotel employees in the Greater Accra Region as of the period of data collection but rather data was available for the year 2009 (Table 5).

Table 5: Employees in Hotels in Greater Accra Region by Hotel Class

Hotel Class	Number of Rooms	Number of Employees		Total	Employee to room ratio (ERR)
		Male	Female		
5 Star	104	135	69	204	1.96

Table 5 Continued

4 Star	676	460	253	713	1.05
3 Star	652	596	337	933	1.43
2 Star	1649	751	402	1153	0.69
1 Star	1524	583	419	1002	0.65
Guesthouse	478	245	128	373	0.78
Budget	4234	1500	855	2355	0.55
Total	9317	4270	2463	6733	

Source: Ghana Tourism Authority, 2010

In the absence of an up-to-date data on employees in hotels in Accra, the number of hotel employees as of 2013 year ending was estimated using the calculated labour to room ratio for the year 2009 (Table 5) since data on accommodation facilities and number of rooms for the 2013 year ending was available (Table 5). In a survey of hotel employees in Oslo and Akershus in Norway, Aasland & Tyldum (2011) found that the best approximation of hotel workers was to use the number of rooms reported in each hotel since a complete list of employees in hotels in the two cities was not available, similar to the case of employees in hotels in Accra. They contended that although not a completely accurate measure of the number of hotel employees, due to differences in hotel types (conference hotels, hotels with/without restaurants, hotel quality, etc.) it was the best approximation that could be obtained. The estimated labour to room ratios (Table 5) for the class of the various accommodation facilities are within the ratios measured elsewhere. Employee to room ratio varies per the development status of countries. The labour to room ratio in Bahia, Brazil is low in higher category of hotels (0.64 for five-

star hotels and 0.66 for four-star facilities), these ratios are similar to developed countries such as Northern Europe (0.6 to 0.8). However, for developing countries, the employee to room ratio could be as high as 1.8 for four to five-star hotels (Becherel, 2001) just similar to the estimate for Greater Accra as of the year 2009 (Table 5).

According to Vallen and Vallen (2012), budget properties without restaurants or other amenities such as bars or room service operate with as few as one-half employee per room (0.5:1) and this rate is similar to Greater Accra's estimate for budget hotels in the case of hotel personnel data in 2009 (See Table 4). Furthermore, the United Nations World Tourism Organisation [UNWTO] makes recommendations for the ideal number of staff per 10 rooms in different categories of accommodation facilities. For 10 rooms in three-star hotels, 8 employees are required (0.8:1), 12 employees for four-star hotels (1.2:1) and 20 employees for five-star hotels (2:1). Following from the above exposition, the employee to room ratio estimates for Greater Accra for the year 2009 was used to estimate the number of hotel employees in Accra for the year ending 2013. Using the employee to room ratio, the number of employees working in the 538 hotels in Accra was calculated to be 7108 (Table 6).

Sampling Technique and Sample Size

Having determined the population size, the next important considerations are the number of employees to survey and the number of hotels from which to select the respondents. The multi-stage sampling procedure was employed in the selection of research participants. Cluster,

stratified and convenience sampling techniques were used to select 583 employees from 55 out of 538 hotels to participate in the study though the initial estimated sample size was 367.

A representative sample of hotel employees is cardinal to the study in view of the expectant accuracy and extrapolation of the findings to the wider population. Sample size is one of the four inter-related features of a study design that can influence the detection of significant differences, relationships or interaction (Bartlett, Kotrlik, & Higgins, 2001). There are many approaches to sample size estimation: non-statistical estimations, statistical computations and estimation through tables (Sarantakos, 2005). Krejcie's and Morgan's (1970) table was used to determine the sample for the study just as previous researchers (Ng and Othman, 2002; Amisah & Amenumey, 2015) have done. Table 5 provides information regarding the estimated population size for each hotel class, proportion of each hotel class to the total population of hotel employees as well as estimated average employee per hotel class.

Table 6: List of Registered Hotels in Accra

Hotel class	Unit	Rooms	Employees (ERR*Rooms)	% of Employees by Hotel Class	Average Employee per Hotel Class
5 star	2	424	831	11.6	416
4 star	5	746	783	11.0	157
3 star	7	720	1030	14.4	147
2 star	73	1899	1310	18.4	18

Table 6 Continued

I star	77	1353	879	12.3	11
Guesthouse	51	313	244	3.4	5
Budget	323	3692	2031	28.5	6
Total	538	9147	7108	100	11

Author's construct based on GTA data

Given a population size of 7108 and reading from the Krejcie's and Morgan's (1970) table the sample size for the study is determined to be 367 (Table 7).

Table 7: Determining Sample Size from a Given Population

N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S	N	S
10	10	100	80	280	162	800	260	2800	338
15	14	110	86	290	165	850	265	3000	341
20	19	120	92	300	169	900	269	3500	246
25	24	130	97	320	175	950	274	4000	351
30	28	140	103	340	181	1000	278	4500	351
35	32	150	108	360	186	1100	285	5000	357
40	36	160	113	380	181	1200	291	6000	361
45	40	180	118	400	196	1300	297	7000	364
50	44	190	123	420	201	1400	302	8000	367
55	48	200	127	440	205	1500	306	9000	368
60	52	210	132	460	210	1600	310	10000	373
65	56	220	136	480	214	1700	313	15000	375
70	59	230	140	500	217	1800	317	20000	377

Table 7 Continued

75	63	240	144	550	225	1900	320	30000	379
80	66	250	148	600	234	2000	322	40000	380
85	70	260	152	650	242	2200	327	50000	381
90	73	270	155	700	248	2400	331	75000	382
95	76	270	159	750	256	2600	335	100000	384

Note: N=Population size; S=Sample size

Source: Krejcie and Morgan (1970)

Stratified sampling by proportional allocation was used to determine the number of respondents to select from each strata of class of hotels (Table 8).

Table 8: Sampled Hotels, Respondents, and Participation

Hotel class	Hotels		Employees	
	Sample	Participation	Sample	Participation
5 star	2	1	43	33
4 star	5	4	40	84
3 star	7	5	53	160
2 star	10	10	68	172
1 star	10	4	45	18
Guesthouse	5	21	13	64
Budget	21	10	105	51
Total	60	55	367	583

However, because hotels in the 5 star to 3 star categories were not many in the sample of hotels, all 5 star to 3 star hotels were initially included in the sample but some declined participation in the study (See Table 8 for actual participation by class of hotel). This sampling technique was used in order to ensure that respondents from all classes of hotels are proportionately represented in the sample. The next stage of the sampling dealt with the number of hotels to select from each stratum of hotels.

The average number of employees in each stratum of hotel and the allocated sample of respondents informed the choice of the number of hotels to select from each stratum of class of hotels. The number of hotels and allocated sample of respondents to select from each stratum as well as the number of participating hotels and respondents in the study are shown in Table 8.

The next stage of the sampling procedure selected specific hotels from each stratum of class of hotels in the range of 5star to budget hotels from which research participants were selected. Hotels were purposefully selected from Accra Metropolitan Assembly's clustering of towns in Accra into first, second, third and fourth class residential areas. Hotels with physical location address in each of the four classes of residential areas in Accra were selected. Location of a hotel was not expected to influence vulnerability to sexual harassment but the clustering was used to select hotels for the purposes of ensuring effective data collection as well as minimizing cost. The last stage of the sampling dealt with the selection of respondents in the chosen hotels. In view of the reluctance of managers of hotels to grant access to employee data that could serve as a basis of constituting a sampling frame to facilitate the use of probability sampling to select respondents, the convenience sampling

technique was used to select the respondents. Packets of questionnaires were handed over to human resource departments (3 to 5 star hotels) and in some cases managers (lowly rated hotels) to see to the administration of the questionnaires with a request that they ensure fair representation of all groups in the sample. This approach has been used in previous studies (Aksonnit, 2014; Agrusa et al., 2002; Coats et al., 2004).

The convenience sampling technique has inherent disadvantages of introducing potential bias in the data with consequential effects on validity of results and conclusions thereof. Handing over questionnaires to human resource departments and managers on a sensitive topic of sexual harassment has the tendency to make respondents withhold information with the fear that management will become aware of their responses that might have negative job consequences. Furthermore, there is also the possibility of censoring of completed questionnaires by managers to remove questionnaires they might perceive to be revealing unpalatable and sensitive information. In spite of its weaknesses, the convenience sampling technique appears to be a commonly used technique in hotel employee related studies (Agrusa et al., 2002; Cho, 2002) as hotels are reluctant to grant researchers access to employees on the premise of busy schedules and complaints that completion of questionnaires will distract employees.

Recruiting sufficient number of respondents way beyond the estimated sample size for the study was expected to neutralise the effects of bias that might have been introduced into the study because of the sampling technique used in selecting respondents. Many researchers (Poulston, 2008; Amissah &

Amenumey, 2015) have consistently lamented the refusal and non-cooperation that characterise the collection of surveys in hotels.

Research Instruments

The study sought to investigate the prevalence of sexual harassment in hotel spaces in Accra Metropolis and explore how sexual harassment experiences affect employee job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment. Given that subjectivism typifies the interpretation of sexual harassment, the study was conducted using a mixed methodological approach within the pragmatism paradigm. In line with this approach, questionnaires and semi-structured interview schedules were used to collect data to test the research hypotheses.

Questionnaire

A self-administered questionnaire divided into five sections was used as the principal method of collecting data from the respondents. The first section elicited information on job/client gender context and hotel characteristics. In respect of the job/client gender context, respondents were requested to indicate the gender of their immediate supervisors on a dichotomized (yes/no) response format. In addition, job/client gender context was assessed in respondents' workgroup (department), hotel and guest-base using a 7-point Likert Scale ranging from 7 (*all men*) to 1(*all women*) (Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Glomb et al., 1999). Responses to the three items were combined to create a three-category ordinal variable male-dominated, gender-neutral, and female-dominated for both bivariate and multivariate analysis.

Hotel characteristics were assessed with questions relating class of hotel, number of employees and guestrooms.

The 16-item shortened Sexual Experiences Questionnaire-Department of Defence (SEQ-DoD-s) was used to assess sexual harassment experiences of hotel employees (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Stark, Chernyshenko, Lancaster, Drasgow, & Fitzgerald, 2002). The Questionnaire uses the behavioural list approach to measure sexual harassment. The SEQ-DoD-s contains multiple items assessing respondents' experiences of four types of sexual harassment in their hotels within the past 12 months: Unwanted Sexual Attention (Unwanted Sexual Attention e.g., "someone tried to have a sexual affair with you even though you said no"); and Sexual Coercion (Sexual Coercion e.g., "someone promised you a reward or special treatment if you have a sexual affair with the person"); Crude Sexual Behaviour (Crude Sexual Behaviour e.g., "repeatedly told sexual stories or jokes that were bad/nasty to you") Gender Harassment (Gender Harassment e.g., "someone put you down because you are a woman or man"). Responses on the SEQ were anchored on a five-point Likert scale 0 (*never*) to 4 (*very often*). The SEQ-DoD-s which has been used extensively (O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998; Sims et al., 2005; Berdahl & Moore, 2006; Buchanan & Fitzgerald, 2008) is described as the most psychometrically sound measure of sexual harassment (Arvey and Cavanaugh, 1995) with alpha reliabilities ranging between 0.75 and 0.89 (Fitzgerald et al., 1988). Respondents who endorsed any of the behaviours were requested to identify the perpetrator of the act out of a checklist consisting of supervisor, co-worker and guest.

Following from the model of Fitzgerald et al. (1999) and Estrada and Berggren (2009), respondents were considered to have been sexually harassed if they endorsed at least one item on the SEQ-DoD-s while those who did not endorse any of the 16 items were deemed not to have been sexually harassed. For the purposes of conducting bivariate and logistic regression, responses were categorised into yes and no (yes-all respondents endorsing at least one item of the 16 and no-all respondents not endorsing any of the 16 items). In order to assess sexual harassment labelling attitude of the respondents, a direct measure of sexual harassment was included at the end of the questionnaire “Have you ever been sexually harassed in the past 12 months while working in this hotel” on a dichotomous response format “yes or no” (Culbertson & Rosenfeld, 1993; Lengnick-Hall, 1995).

The next section of the questionnaire assessed respondents’ reactions to sexual harassment. Respondents who endorsed any of the items on the SEQ-DoD-s were provided with a checklist of 17 reaction behaviours derived from Knapp et al. (1997) that represent their reaction after experiencing a sexually harassing behaviour while those who answered never to all the 16 sexually harassing behaviours were routed out of this section. The scale included various types of coping strategies ranging from the more direct and assertive style, such as “I slapped, hit, pushed the person” or “I asked the person to stop”, to the less assertive ones, such as, “I didn’t do anything about it” or “I ignored the behaviour” (Gruber & Smith, 1995; Cochran et al., 1997).

Job-related outcomes of sexual harassment experiences were assessed in the next section. Four items were used to measure job satisfaction with each measuring a facet of job satisfaction. The items were presented in a Likert-

type format in which respondents indicated their level of satisfaction with the various facets of their job (e.g., overall work satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, co-worker satisfaction and client satisfaction) on a five-point scale ranging from 5 (*very satisfied*) to 1 (*very dissatisfied*). These were subsequently constituted into composite scores to undertake correlational analysis. Single-item measurement of job satisfaction (Wanous, Reichers, & Hudy, 1997; Oshagbemi, 1999; Nagy, 2002) was used instead of a multiple-item (O'connell & Korabik, 2000; Estrada et al., 2011) approach because of the need to design a parsimonious but an effective instrument that will not deter respondents from answering the questions in the questionnaire given the general reluctance of people to participate in studies due to bulkiness of questionnaires.

Organisational commitment was assessed on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). An example from the 2-item scale is, "I am glad to be employed in this company" (Thomas & Nagalingappa, 2012; Abdul-Nasiru, Mensah, Amponsah-Tawaiah, & Simpeh, 2014). The two items were averaged for each respondent and then composited for bivariate and correlational analysis. Four items were used to measure turnover intentions (Cammann, Fichman, Jenkins, & Klesh, 1979; Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis, & Cammann, 1982) on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). An example from the 4-item scale is "I think a lot about stopping the work in this hotel". Economic dependence on tipping from guests was measured using two items anchored on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). To assess climate for sexual harassment, three statements derived from Hulin et

al's. (1996) conceptualisation of organisational climate for sexual harassment were used. Respondents were required to indicate their agreement or disagreement on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). An example from the 3-item scale is "It would be risky for me to report sexual behaviours to management for action". Table 9 provides a summary of the measures and their Cronbach alpha values.

Table 9: Reliability Analysis of Measures

Measure	Cronbach's Alpha
Job Satisfaction	.74
Organisational Commitment	.75
Turnover Intentions	.91
Dependence on Tips	.85
Sexual Harassment Climate	.83

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Questions relating to the demographic characteristics of the respondents were asked at the end of the questionnaire. These included gender, age (categories of four), marital status, educational background, department of work and job tenure. Following these questions was the direct measure of sexual harassment. Questions on availability of sexual harassment policy and posters/leaflets on sexual harassment as well as organisation of seminars/workshops on sexual harassment were also asked.

Pre-Testing of Questionnaire

Pre-tests are small tests of single elements of a research instrument that are predominantly used to check its “mechanical structure” (Sarantakos, 2005). The purpose of pre-test is to refine the questionnaire so that respondents will not have problems in answering the questions and to prevent problems in recording the data (Saunders et al., 2009). Pre-testing of a questionnaire prior to administration helps to ascertain the suitability of questions to produce the expected data as well as an opportunity to identify possible content limitations that need improvement (Altinay & Paraskevas, 2008). In re-echoing the absolute significance of pre-testing, According to Bell (2005), it is absolutely important to test run a questionnaire as without such an exercise it is difficult to know whether the questionnaire will succeed or not.

In line with good practice of questionnaire construction, a pre-testing exercise was undertaken at Ho involving 25 hospitality workers selected from hotels and restaurants. The essence of the pre-test was to enable the detection of any errors relating to wording of questions and clarity, duration of completion of questionnaires by respondents and internal consistency of scale items. The pre-test led to a revision of the questionnaire. For instance, reliability analysis of measures led to the deletion of some items from the questionnaire. The initial reliability analysis of the pre-test data including a 5-item measurement of turnover intentions yielded a Cronbach alpha value of .65 with the deletion of “I plan to remain with this hotel for at least a few years” the reliability of the turnover intention scale improved to .80. An initial 6-item measurement scale for organisational commitment was revised to 2-items following an iterative reliability analysis process of the pre-test data.

After expunging 4 items from the organisational commitment scale, the Cronbach alpha increased considerably from 0.30 to 0.75.

Semi-Structured Interviews

Themes and issues discussed in the interviews were related to questions asked in the self-administered questionnaire surveys: demographic characteristics, sexual experiences and narrations, and reactions to sexually harassing behaviours. The priority of the interviews was to gain more insight into the sexual harassment experience narrations of the research participants. It was expected that the information to be derived from the interviews will supplement the quantitative data obtained via the questionnaires. In addition, the questions were aimed at providing the opportunity to encourage the research participants to clarify and provide detailed information on their reactions to sexually harassing situations in systematic and comprehensive manner as a measure of supplementing the quantitative data (Patton, 1990). The interviews took averagely about 45 minutes to complete. Data was captured through note-taking as interviewees declined to be audio-taped due to the sensitive nature of the topic under discussion. The interviews were held at the hotel premises of the participants after they had closed or when the interviewees were less busy.

Thirty-three of the female employees who completed the questionnaires were conveniently selected to participate in the interviews to provide additional information about their experiences with sexual harassment. Most (24) of the research participants were aged 20 to 25 years with a few (6) in the 26 to 29 and 3 of them were aged 30 or more. The

average age of the research participants was 24.2years. The research participants had varied experiences working in many departments in the hotels. The interviewees were expected to mention their current and previous departments of work. The restaurant was the most affiliated department (23) followed by the housekeeping department (22) and kitchen (21) and the front office (14). A few of the participants had experiences in the bar (2), accounts (2), conference/banquet (2) and stores (1).

Data Collection Procedures

Undoubtedly, conducting fieldwork is one of most challenging stages of the research process, especially in a developing country such as Ghana that requires careful planning and execution for a successful data collection experience. According to Altinay and Paraskevas (2008), one of the most significant problems that researchers face is gaining access to organisations. The issue of access is even daunting in the case of hotels because they are busy places with high pressure on workers. In the view of Underthun, Hellvik, Loge and Jordhus-Lier (2012), outsiders are not always welcome in organisations, particularly those asking what might be perceived as sensitive and awkward questions. Sexual harassment is a sensitive phenomenon and its mention was expected to engender refusal to participate in the survey. In order to facilitate access to hotels, an introductory letter was obtained from Ghana Tourism Authority, national headquarters. As a licensing authority, a letter of introduction from the institution was considered appropriate to facilitate access and elicit cooperation from hotels. In addition, personal networks and those of friends were relied upon to gain access to the hotels.

The fieldwork was undertaken from February to April 2014 with the aid of four field assistants whose main responsibilities were to distribute, make follow-ups and collect questionnaires at the respective hotels under the supervision of the author. Upon arriving at the hotel, a meeting with a manager (in the case of small hotels) or head of human resource departments (large hotels) was held where the objectives of the study were discussed as well as issues regarding confidentiality. There were instances where hotels refused to participate in the study because of time pressure and absolute disinterest in the survey because of the sensitive nature of the topic. Clear directions were provided on distribution of questionnaires to employees to ensure adequate representation of respondents from varied backgrounds in the study. As discussed earlier, the reliance on managers and human resource department officials to oversee the distribution of questionnaires raises questions of bias in the dataset. However, under the circumstances of strict inaccessibility of employees to the researcher and field assistants, particularly in large hotels, this approach was considered unavoidable given time constraints and unsuitability of other methods of administering questionnaires such as web-based or via mailing.

To take care of non-responses, misplacement of questionnaires and refusals, though the estimated sample size was 367, 1000 questionnaires were printed but 800 were distributed across 55 hotels in Accra. Out of the 800 questionnaires, 711 were retrieved but 89 were missing. Five Hundred and Eighty-Three of the questionnaires were considered to contain sufficient data for the analysis while 128 were discarded for not containing adequate data to warrant their use. It is common for researchers to overprint and distribute

questionnaires over and above the estimated sample size. For instance, Poulston (2008) estimated a sample size of 1000 but printed 2000 questionnaires but eventually achieved 534 usable questionnaires.

Challenges Encountered During Fieldwork

One major challenge encountered during the conduct of fieldwork was obtaining organisational access and this was particularly profound in the case of the large and formalised hotels. It was difficult to go pass the front desk to meet with managers of hotels to discuss the research agenda and procedures. Managers were consistently unavailable to meet with the researcher because they were in a meeting, too busy or out of the hotel premises. To overcome this obstacle, personal networks and those of friends were used to facilitate the distribution and collection of questionnaires. Easterby-Smith, Thorpe, & Lowe, 2002 recommends the use of existing contacts as one of the strategies of gaining access to organisations to collect data. Buchanan et al. (1988, cited by Saunders et al., 2009) allege they have been most successful in data collection in institutions where we have a friend, relative or student working in the organisation.

Another difficulty has to do with outright refusal of managers of some selected hotels to allow their workers to participate in the study. One of the main reasons that appeared to inform the refusal decisions was the sensitive nature of the phenomenon under investigation. Sensitive topics have been defined as those that include areas that are private, stressful, sacred, or which potentially expose information that is stigmatising or incriminating (Lee, 1993). Undoubtedly, sexual harassment constitutes a sensitive topic as it deals

with behaviours that could be considered private by individuals who experience it. Managers were apprehensive about the likelihood of employees revealing experiences that might cause embarrassment to their hotels. According to Saunders et al. (2009), organisations are less likely to cooperate where the topic of the research might have negative implications in case of public disclosure. In spite of the assurance of confidentiality and anonymity of the presentation of the results, some managers were not convinced and the best option for them was to refuse to participate in the study. Selected hotels that declined participation were replaced with other facilities nearby.

Some managers displayed disregard for the research endeavour probably due to research fatigue and lack of appreciation for the significance of research and how the hotels could benefit from the results of the study. In a country where there is a wide gap between research endeavour and practice, it is difficult for practitioners to appreciate the important implications of research on their operations. Given this mentality, reluctance, hesitancy and apathy characterised the attitude and behaviour of hotel operators and managers during the data collection stage of the study as well as misplacement and non-completion of questionnaires.

Ethical Considerations

Ethical issues are critical to the success of the research endeavour that requires sufficient attention in the design of research. In the view of Saunders et al. (2009), researchers need to think carefully about ethical concerns that could arise in relation to the conduct of the entire research process. In conformity with the ethical issue of anonymity, the questionnaire used for the data collection did not require names of respondents and their respective

hotels. Respondents were explicitly assured of anonymity and confidentiality. Furthermore, the sort of data collected reflected the need to protect the anonymity and confidentiality of the respondents. For instance, demographic questions were limited to the most basic in order to reassure both respondents and hotels of confidentiality and anonymity.

In view of the sensitive nature of the topic under research, assurance of confidentiality and anonymity was significant in obtaining the cooperation of some hotels to grant access for the collection of data. Accordingly, the issue of confidentiality and anonymity were particularly stressed in meetings that sought to solicit access to the hotels.

Data Processing and Analysis

Data analysis deals with the act of unearthing important trends in a data set (Bradley, 2007). The key processes of data analysis include distillation, classification, identification and communication (Lancaster, 2005). In the opinion of Creswell (2008), data analysis fundamentally aims at examining the data to address the research problem and hypotheses. Data emerging from useable questionnaires was analysed quantitatively. Prior to feeding the data into a computer, the questionnaires were examined to ensure consistency, edited and coded. The editing was undertaken with the objective to ensure accuracy and precision of the data (Malhotra & Birks, 2006). The responses of the respondents were assigned numeric values and entered into IBM Statistical Product for Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics version 22 for statistical analysis.

In order to ensure that raw data are in a form that facilitates the testing of hypotheses as well as interpretation of results, some variables were

manipulated. For instance, attributes of marital status were re-categorised into unmarried and married. In another instance, age of respondents was collapsed into two that is, 29 or less and 30 or more because over 90.6 percent of the respondents were aged between the age brackets of 21 to 29 and 30 to 39. The data analysis of the study involved five steps.

The first step of the analysis involved the use of descriptive statistics. The two common forms of descriptive statistics are frequencies and central tendencies. According to Veal (2006), frequencies provide simple counts and percentages for a range of quantitative variables, and central tendencies represent average value, useful only for numerical or scale variables. Frequencies were used to explore and describe demographic variables as well as sexual harassment behaviours. Frequencies also allowed calculation of the percentage of respondents in each response category ('Yes', 'No') regarding the availability of sexual harassment policy, perpetrators of sexual harassment and direct measurement of sexual harassment. In the second step, the 16 sexually harassing behaviours were factor analysed.

Factor analysis is a statistical technique used to uncover the underlying constructs that summarise a set of variables (Ford, MacCallum, & Tait, 1986). This analytical tool was employed as a useful procedure to facilitate understanding of the structure of the latent variable, sexual harassment. Factor analysis also helps to reduce a large number of variables to a parsimonious and interpretable number of factors (Kachigan, 1986). In order to explore the structure of sexual harassment, factor analysis using IBM SPSS 22.0 was applied to the 16-item scale. In this study, factors were retained only if they

had values greater than or equal to 1.0 of eigenvalue and a factor loading greater than 0.4.

Thirdly, bivariate analysis using Chi-square test of independence, Mann Whitney U Test, Kruskal Wallis Test, Independent T-Test and Correlational statistical tools were used to assess differences among groups as well as exploring associations between variables. The non-parametric tools were used in situations where dependent variables were not normally distributed. The Chi-square tests were mostly used in exploring the influence of demographic characteristics on sexual harassment vulnerability. The choice of Chi-square was informed by the categorical nature of the data. Mann-Whitney U Test was applied to examine the effects of sexual harassment on job-related outcomes. Spearman correlation was used to explore the relationship between perceived climate for sexual harassment and job-related outcomes.

Lastly, hierarchical binary logistic regression analysis was employed to examine the correlates of sexual harassment. Logistic regression can be used to explore associations between a categorical outcome variable, in this case sexual harassment, and one or more categorical or continuous predictor variables (Peng, Lee, & Ingersoll, 2002). It approximates the likelihood of a certain event occurring by calculating changes in the log odds of the dependent variables (Garson, 2006). A 11-predictor logistic model was fitted to the data, using hierarchical logistic regression to examine the research objective regarding the relationship between the likelihood that a hotel employee in Accra will be sexually harassed and demographic characteristics,

job/client gender context, climate for sexual harassment and perceived economic dependence on tipping.

This multivariate analytical tool was chosen because it does not require the dependent variable to be normally distributed and allows the use of predictor variables ranging from continuous to categorical variables in the modelling process (Pallant, 2010). For the dependent variable of sexual harassment, all respondents who endorsed at least, one of the 16 sexually harassing behaviours were categorised as having been sexually harassed (Yes) and respondents who did not endorse any of the behaviours were classified as not experiencing sexual harassment (No) thereby creating a dichotomous categorical dependent variable suitable for logistic regression modelling. The logistic regression analysis was carried out by the Logistic procedure in IBM SPSS version 22.0. Previous studies (Richman et al., 1999; Celik & Celik, 2007; Hibino et al., 2009; Eshetu, 2015) on sexual harassment have employed the binary logistic regression to examine vulnerability to sexual harassment.

CHAPTER FIVE
SOCIO-DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF RESPONDENTS
AND WORKPLACE RELATED ISSUES

Introduction

This chapter presents the personal characteristics of the respondents. Demographic variables such as gender, age, education, marital status, among others, are presented. The sex composition dynamics of the hotels, supervisors, departments and guests are also highlighted. The chapter concludes with respondents' work satisfaction, supervisor satisfaction, guest satisfaction, organisational commitment as well as turnover intentions.

Profile of Respondents

The demographic characteristics of respondents are summarised in Table 10. Of the 579 respondents who provided data on their gender, 51.1 percent were male and 48.9 percent females. The gender distribution of the sample is quite representative of the population of Ghana's accommodation sector which is marginally male-dominated (Akyeampong, 2007). This disparity is attributed to the tendency of hotel managers and owners to employ males instead of females because of the multiple tasks utility of male employees compared to women (Akyeampong, 2007). However, on the global level, female participation in hotel, catering and tourism employment is 55.5 percent with wide variations from country to country. About 83.9 percent of women are employed in Mali's hospitality sector whereas 33.7 percent work in Botswana while less than half are employed in Greece, Italy, Mexico and Turkey (Baum, 2013).

Table 10: Demographic Characteristics of Respondents

		N	(%)
Sex	Male	296	51.1
	Female	283	48.9
	Total	579	100
Age	20 and below	17	2.9
	21-29	329	56.4
	30-39	209	35.8
	40-49	24	4.1
	50+	4	.7
	Total	583	100
	Marital Status	Unmarried	364
Married		165	30.3
Divorced		3	.6
Widowed		7	1.3
Separated		6	1.1
Total		545	100
Education level	Basic	9	1.6
	Sec/Voc/Tech.	274	47.8
	Tertiary	290	50.6
	Total	573	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

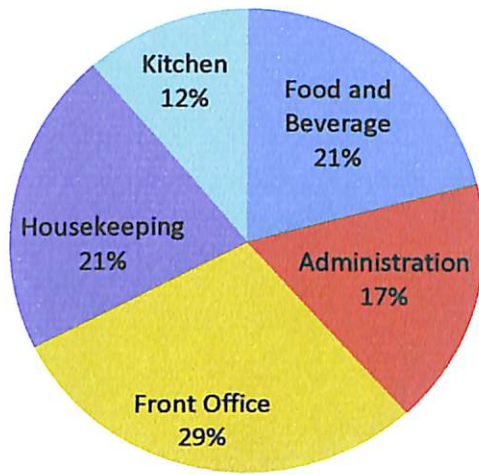
More than half (56.4%) of the sample was represented by employees in the age group of 21-29, followed by the 30-39 cohort whilst those aged 40 years or more constituted 4.8 percent of the respondents with those in the age bracket of 20 years or below being in the minority (2.9%). The youthful nature of the sample appears characteristic of hotel employees in the country (Ghana Tourism Authority, 2010). The absence of a large proportion of mature age hotel workers indicates that employees in hotels in Accra are not staying within the hotel throughout their working career. The world over, employment

in the hospitality sector is oriented towards people under 35 years of age, half of whom are 25 years or under (Baum, 2013). In this study, male respondents were significantly more likely to be aged 40 years or more (7.6%) than were the female respondents (1.8%) (χ^2 (3, N=571) =22.38, $p=0.000$). Furthermore, the proportion (41.2%) of male respondents was higher than females (30.7%) in the 30 to 39 age group. These results seem to suggest that female employees in Accra are more likely to be younger than males.

The majority (66.8%) of the respondents were unmarried with 30.3 percent being married while those widowed (1.3%), separated (1.1%) and divorced (0.6%) were in the minority. The dominance of unmarried respondents in the sample is similar to that reported in previous contemporary hotel employee studies (Okumus, Sariisik & Naipaul, 2010; Hwang, Hyun & Park, 2013; Gamor, Amisshah & Boakye, 2014). These findings seem to suggest that unmarried employees dominate hotel workplaces. Noticeably, however, the married respondents in the sample were significantly more likely to be males (59.6%) than females (40.4%) (χ^2 (1, N=571) =6.53, $p=0.011$). Perhaps, married female workers shy away from hotel workspaces due to work-related problems of irregular and unsocial working hours, and less time for family responsibilities (Burgess, 2003; Kusluvan, 2003; Doherty, 2004). With the role of women as primary caregivers with added responsibility of household organisation, marriage will continue to limit the participation of married women in hotel workplaces. For instance, a study of 571 women working in five-star hotels in Turkey found that unmarried women were more interested in and enjoyed working in the sector than married women (Okumus et al., 2010).

Employees with tertiary education were slightly more (50.6%) than those with secondary/vocational/technical educational attainment (47.8%) with only 1.6 percent having attained basic education. The educational characteristic of the sample is atypical of educational background of hotel employees in Accra and the entire country. The world over, hotel employees characteristically possess low level of education but the situation might be a bit different in Ghana because of generally low wages and high graduate unemployment. High graduate unemployment coupled with low cost of labour means that hotels could afford to hire people with high educational attainment, especially star rated accommodation facilities. Employees in luxury hotels (4 & 5 star rated) were significantly more (73.5%) likely to possess tertiary educational attainment than those (48.6%) in the mid-market segment (2 & 3 star) and economy segment (35.4%) ($\chi^2=36.16$, $df=2$, $p<.000$). The apparent over representation of employees with tertiary educational background in the study is because employees from star rated hotels were relatively more in the sample. This is justifiably so because the luxury hotels in Accra have more rooms with a correspondingly higher number of employees.

Regarding department of work, the sample is marginally (29.4%) dominated by employees in the front office department (Figure 2) followed by equal representation of housekeeping (21.1%) and food and beverage staff (21.1%). About 17.1 percent of the respondents were administrative staff whereas those who identified themselves as kitchen workers were in the minority (11.4%).



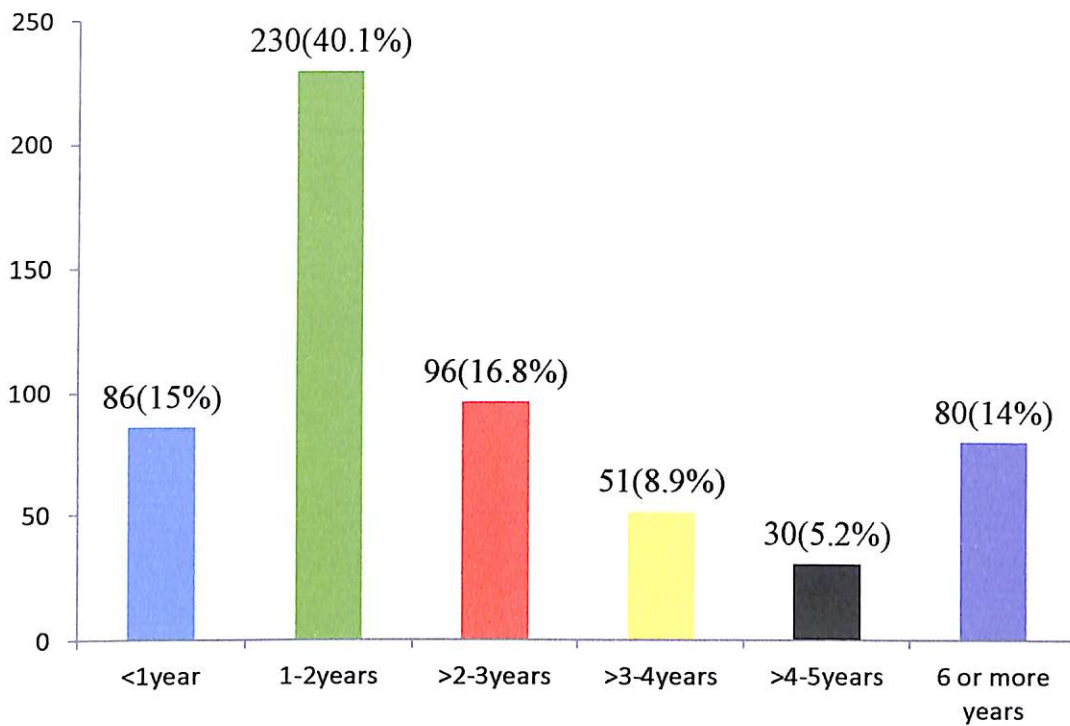
Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 2: Distribution of Respondents by Department

Departmental representation of the sample appears apt because respondents were selected from hotels that provide both limited and full services. Front office respondents outnumber workers of other departments in the sample probably because front office personnel are usually employed in spite of the level of service provided by an accommodation facility. For instance, guest house or budget rated hotels that provide limited services are likely to employ front office and housekeeping personnel compared to food and beverage workers unlike mid to upscale accommodation facilities that have more people in the food and beverage and kitchen departments because of the provision of full service.

Job Tenure

The length of employment of respondents in the hotels as of the time of the survey is depicted in Figure 3.



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 3: Length of Employment of Respondents

Respondents with between 1 and 2 years of working experience dominate the sample followed by those who had 2 to 3 years of working experience (Figure 3). About 15 percent had worked for less than a year. Respondents with 6 or more years of work experience constituted about only 14 percent of the sample. Results of an independent t-test to find out whether job tenure will vary by gender revealed that mean month work experience differs between males ($M=43.16$, $SD=52.15$, $n=287$) and females ($M=35.21$, $SD= 35.20$, $n=274$) at .05 level of significance ($t=2.10$, $df=559$, $p<.05$, 95 CI for mean difference .535 to 15.36). The inference to draw from this gender disparity in work tenure is that male hotel employees had longer hotel work experience than females. Cumulatively, most (85.9%) respondents had worked for 5 or less years and the mean work experience for the sample prior to categorising the response is 39.17 months or 3.2 years. The low tenure of work

experience of the sample is comparable to other contemporary hotel studies on employees (Lam, Zhang, & Baum, 2001; Weber et al., 2002; Choi, 2006; Nadiri & Tanova, 2010). This is not surprising given that high labour turnover plagues the hotel workplace (Hinkin & Tracey, 2000; Madanoglu et al., 2004; Wang, 2009; Kuria et al., 2012). Furthermore, the limited work hospitality work experience of the sample might be explained by the youthful nature of the sample.

Job and Client Gender Context

Quite expectantly, the majority (60.6%) of the respondents intimated the sex of their direct supervisors to be male (Table 11).

Table 11: Job and Client Gender Context

		n	(%)
Sex of Supervisor	Male	346	60.6
	Female	225	39.4
	Total	571	100
Sex mix of workers	Male dominated	362	61.7
	Gender neutral	120	20.4
	Female dominated	105	17.9
	Total	587	100
Sex mix of workers at department	Male dominated	374	63.4
	Gender neutral	76	12.9
	Female dominated	140	23.7
	Total	590	100

Table 11 Continued

Sex mix of guests	Male dominated	401	68.4
	Gender neutral	153	26.1
	Female dominated	32	5.5
	Total	586	100

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

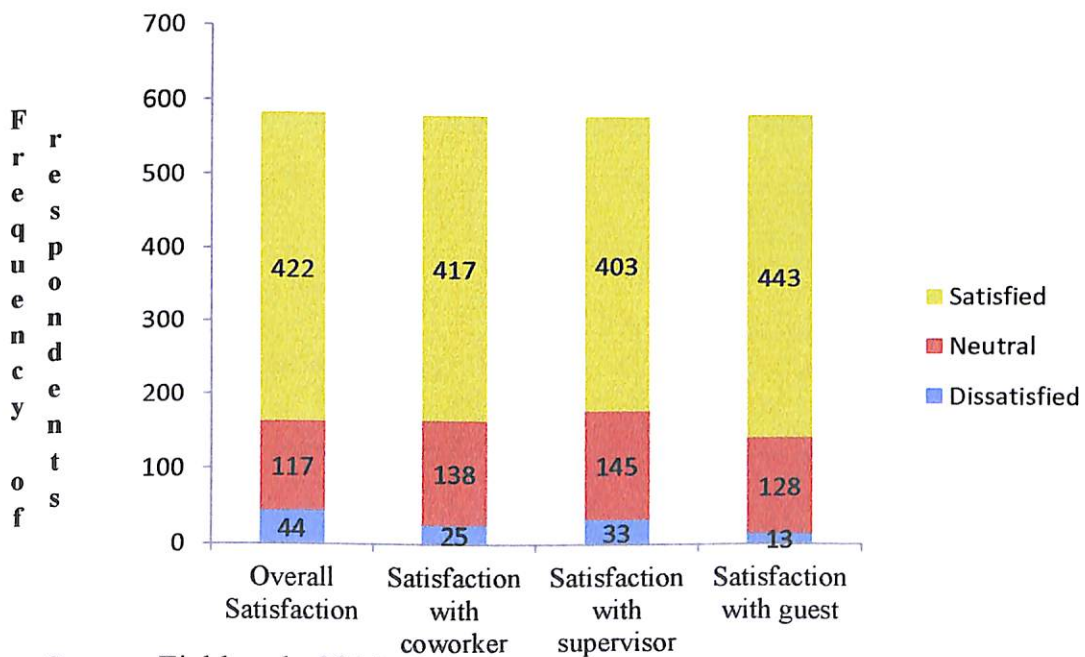
About 39.4 percent worked under the direct supervision of females. This finding is in line with reported under-representation of women in managerial and supervisory positions in the hospitality industry (Guerrier, 1986; Biswas & Cassell, 1996; Wood et al., 1998). For instance, in the case of Ghana, about 70 percent of hotel managers in Accra were found to be men in the study of Mensah and Blankson (2013). The exclusionary male practices and the subtle, transparent and seemingly impenetrable barrier prevent women from moving up the management hierarchy, the so-called glass ceiling metaphor (Altman, Simpson, Baruch, & Burke, 2005).

Regarding the sex mix of workers in the hotels, 61.7 percent described the personnel to be predominantly male whereas 20.4 percent labelled the workforce as gender-neutral with a minority (17.9%) asserting that their workplaces were female-dominated. On departmental basis, another 63.4 percent worked in male dominated department with 23.7 percent portraying their affiliated section as largely female while 12.9 percent worked in a gender-neutral department. About 68.4 percent of the respondents said that guests to their accommodation facilities were mainly male whereas 26.1 percent thought there were equal representations of both male and female guests. Nevertheless, 5.5 percent considered their client-base to be female

bias. Guests' profile reported in client-based hotel empirical studies in Ghana seems to suggest a male dominance of guests in hotels in the country (Amoako, Arthur, Bandoh, & Katah, 2012; Amissah, 2013; Nimako & Mensah, 2013). From the foregoing results, there is compelling evidence to describe the hotel work environment in Accra to be male dominant.

Job satisfaction, Commitment and Turnover Intentions

Respondents' rating of satisfaction with overall work, supervisors, co-workers and guests is presented in Figure 4. Guests received the highest satisfaction evaluation (443 or 75.8%) followed by overall work (422 or 72.4%), co-workers (417 or 71.9%) and supervisors (403 or 69.4%). Generally, respondents highly rated all the four dimensions of satisfaction measured in the study but satisfaction with supervisors was comparatively lower. Notably, considerable proportions of the respondents were indifferent toward each of the satisfaction dimensions.



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 4: Respondents' Evaluation of Satisfaction Dimensions

Table 12 presents respondents' agreement and disagreement with statements relating to organisational commitment, turnover intentions and dependence on tips. Generally, most (81.9%) respondents were glad to be employed in the hotels with 80.2 percent having the feelings of being part of the hotel.

Table 12: Commitment, Turnover Intentions and Dependence on Tips by Respondents

Work-Outcomes	% in Agreement and Disagreement		
	Agree	Neutral	Disagree
Organisational Commitment			
I am glad to be employed in this company	81.9	15.7	2.4
I feel myself to be part of this company	80.2	14.2	5.6
Turnover Intentions			
I think a lot about stopping the work in this hotel	27.4	23.1	49.5
I am actively searching for a job in another company	28.1	24.1	47.8
As soon as it is possible, I will stop working in this hotel	27.2	23.9	48.9
I will stop working in this hotel in a year or less	23.5	24	52.1
Dependence on Tips			
My income will not be sufficient for my upkeep without tips from guests	44.3	13.1	42.6
It will be difficult to take care of my basic needs without tips from guests	35.5	15.4	49

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

However, less than half (49.5%) were not thinking about stopping work at their current hotels whereas 27 percent were giving it a thought with some 23.1 percent being indifferent. Only about 47.8 percent of the respondents were not searching for work in another company as against 28.1 percent who agreed to doing so. Less than half (44.3%) of the respondents were of the opinion that their income will not be sufficient for their upkeep without tips from guests whereas 42.6 percent dissented (Table 12). However, about 49 percent disagreed with the assertion that it will be difficult for them to take care of their needs without tips from guests while 35.5 percent concurred with the statement. This result illustrates the significance of tipping as a source of income for hotel workers in Accra. Given that wages paid to hotel employees in the country have remained generally low just as in the USA where bartenders, waiting staff, room service often make less than the required minimum wage and supplement their incomes with guest tips (Bujisic et al., 2013).

Availability of Sexual Harassment Policy and Educational Materials

Table 13 presents results relating to the availability of sexual harassment policy, posters/leaflets and organisation of training programmes. A little over half (58%) of respondents indicated the presence of sexual harassment policies at their hotels while about 42 percent said such policy documents did not exist at their workplaces.

Table 13: Availability of Sexual Harassment Policy

Sexual harassment Climate Indicators	Yes	No
Availability of Sexual harassment Policy	336 (58%)	243(42.0%)
Availability of Posters/Leaflets on Sexual harassment	90(15.5%)	491(84.5%)
Organisation of workshops/Seminars on Sexual harassment	121(20.4%)	454(79%)

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

This finding is comparable to previous hospitality related studies (Agrusa & Coats, 1999; Coats et al., 2004). This result reflects a recent recommendation of Aboagye (2015) that there is a need for corporate institutions in Ghana to adopt workplace policies on sexual harassment. Regarding posters and leaflets on sexual harassment, the majority (84.5%) said such educational materials were not available. Almost 8 out of 10 respondents said workshops and seminars on sexual harassment were not organised for employees in the hotels.

Comparison of Sexual harassment Policy by Categories of Hotels

As shown in Table 14, 4 & 5 star hotel respondents in the sample indicated availability of sexual harassment policy in their hotels than those drawn from guesthouse/budget facilities (62.5%) followed by 1 & 2 star rated hotels (57.8%) and 3 star hotel respondents (50.6%).

Table 14: Sexual Harassment Policy by Class of Hotel

Class of hotel	Availability of Sexual harassment Policy		Count
	Yes	No	
Guest House/Budget	62.5	37.5	112
1&2 Star	57.8	42.2	187
3 star	50.6	49.4	158
4&5	66.1	33.9	112
Total	58.3	41.7	569

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 ($\chi^2 (3, N=569) = 7.44, p=.059$)

However, the differences in the responses of the respondents were not statistically significant ($\chi^2 (3, N=569) = 7.44, p=.059$). The result is quite surprising because it was anticipated that highly rated hotels (3, 4 & 5) will rather have sexual harassment policies because they are expected to possess the organisational structures to see to the formulation of such documents. Guesthouses and budget facilities that are small and informal operational structures were expected not to have sexual harassment policies. It is therefore revealing that more respondents working in guesthouses and budget hotels indicated availability of sexual harassment policy compared to even 3 and 1 & 2 star rated hotels. Perhaps, respondents in the lower rated facilities exhibited social desirability response (SDR) bias by over-reporting the availability of sexual harassment policy, which in their view might be perceived as ‘a good behaviour’. According to Nedehof (1985), between 10 percent and 75 percent of the variance in respondents’ responses can be explained by social desirability response bias thereby suppressing or obscuring relationships between variables.

Results about educational materials on sexual harassment at hotels are presented in Table 15.

Table 15: Posters/Leaflets on Sexual Harassment by Class of Hotel

Class of Hotel	% of Respondents		Count
	Yes	No	
Guest House/Budget	11.6	88.4	112
1 & 2 Star	7.9	92.1	189
3 star	17.2	82.8	157
4 & 5	31.0	69.0	113
Total	15.8	84.2	571

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

$(\chi^2 (3, N=571) = 30.11, p < .000)$

A statistically significant higher proportion of 4 and 5 star hotel respondents affirmed the availability of posters and leaflets on sexual harassment than respondents in 3 star (17.2%) and guesthouse and budget (11.6%). Posters and leaflets on sexual harassment appear unavailable in the hotels from which the sample was drawn. Respondents' answers to a question relating to the organisation of seminars and workshops on sexual harassment in their respective hotels are presented in Table 16. More (30.3%) respondents in 3 star hotels than 4 & 5, guesthouse/budget (14.2%) and 1 & 2 accommodation facilities said such training programmes are organised in their respective workplaces.

Table 16: Workshops/Seminars on Sexual Harassment by Class of Hotel
 Organisation of Workshops/Seminars on Sexual Harassment

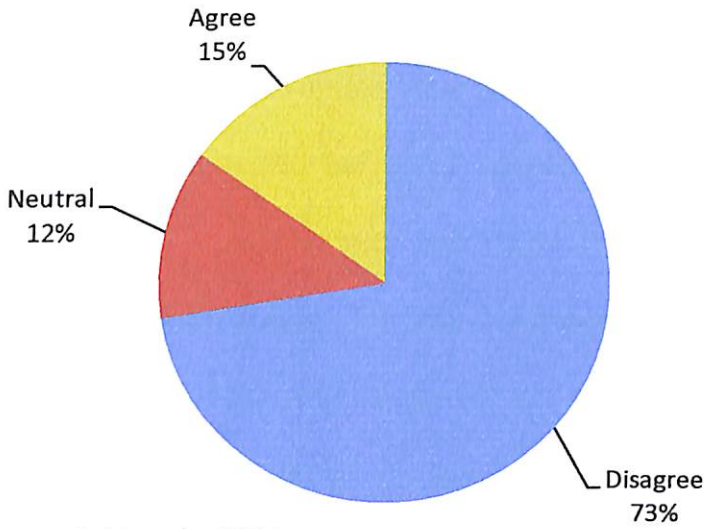
Class of hotel	% of Respondents		Count
	Yes	No	
Guest House/Budget	14.2	85.8	113
1&2 Star	13.4	86.6	186
3 star	30.3	69.7	155
4&5	28.8	71.2	111
Total	21.2	78.8	565

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

(χ^2 (3, N=565) =21.61, p<.000)

Perceived Sexual Harassment Climate

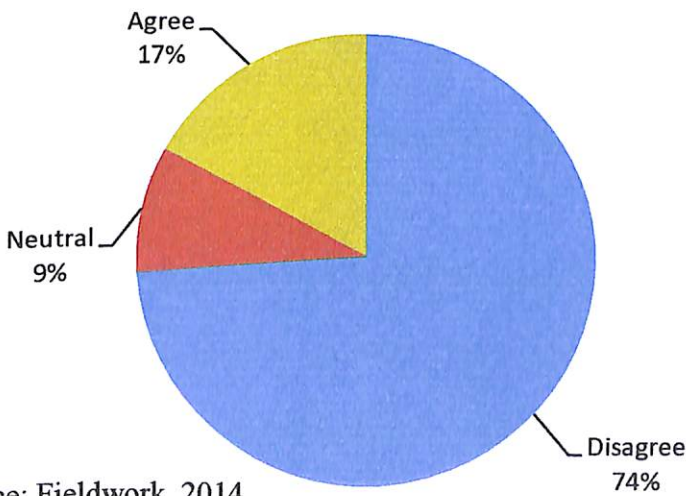
Respondents were further required to indicate the extent to which they agreed or disagreed with three statements that sought to measure perceived climate for sexual harassment in their respective hotel workplaces (Figure 5). As shown in Figure 5, a greater proportion (73%) of the respondents disagreed with the statement that it would be risky for them to report sexual behaviours to management for action whereas 15 percent concurred with the statement with 12 percent being indifferent.



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 5: Risk of Reporting Sexual Behaviours to Management

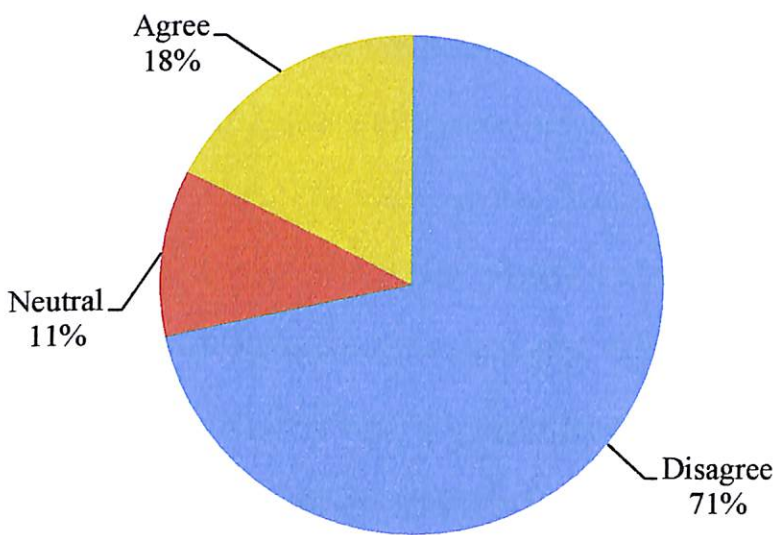
Responses to a statement that sought to measure management’s reaction to reports of sexual behaviours are presented in Figure 6. The majority (74%) of the respondents rejected the assertion that management would not take sexual misbehaviour complaints seriously but 17 percent agreed with a minority (9%) remaining neutral.



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 6: Management Would Not Take Sexual Behaviour Complaints Seriously

Regarding punishment for sexual harassment behaviours, 71 percent of the respondents were of the opinion that people who behaved inappropriately sexually would be punished but about 18 percent did not share the same sentiment whiles 11 percent were indifferent (Figure 7). Taken together, respondents' perceived climate for sexual harassment appears low. In other words, the majority of the respondents did not perceive a higher climate for sexual harassment in the hotels. A composite score of sexual harassment climate generates a mean score of $M=1.41$ on a 3-point scale anchored on agree=3, neutral=2, and disagree=1.



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 7: Likelihood of Management Punishing Sexual Misbehaviours

Perceived Sexual harassment Climate by Categories of Hotels

A non-parametric one-way between-groups analysis of variance (Kruskal Wallis) was conducted to find out whether perceived sexual harassment climate will vary by hotel category of respondents' as measured by

harassment & 2 (Mdn=1.28) and Budget/Guest house (Mdn=1.14). Pairwise comparisons correcting for the multiple comparisons indicated that the perceived sexual harassment climate in 3 star hotels was significantly higher than the other categories of hotels. The pairwise comparison between the other categories of hotels was not statistically significant. This finding is contradictory to arguments made in the extant literature that SMEs and, for that matter, lowly rated hotels will rather possess higher climate for sexual harassment due to the informal routinisation of their operations (Scott et al., 1989).

The Kruskal Wallis Test employed to explore the difference in median sexual harassment climate across respondents' department of affiliation (Table

total perceived sexual harassment climate score. Participants were divided into budget/guest house, 1 & 2 star, 3 star and 4 & 5 star hotels (Table 17).

Table 17: Sexual Harassment Climate by Class of Hotel

Hotel Category	N	Median
Budget/Guest House	115	1.14
1 & 2 Star	184	1.28
3 star	147	1.57
4 & 5 Star	108	1.23

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in sexual harassment climate for the four hotel categories: ($\chi^2 (3, N=571) = 33.7, p < .005$). Respondents in 3 star hotels perceived higher (Mdn=1.57) sexual harassment climate than those in 4 & 5 star hotels (Mdn=1.23), followed by 1 & 2 (Mdn=1.28) and Budget/Guest house (Mdn=1.14). Pairwise comparisons correcting for the multiple comparisons indicated that the perceived sexual harassment climate in 3 star hotels was significantly higher than the other categories of hotels. The pairwise comparison between the other categories of hotels was not statistically significant. This finding is contradictory to arguments made in the extant literature that SMEs and, for that matter, lowly rated hotels will rather possess higher climate for sexual harassment due to the informal routinisation of their operations (Scott et al., 1989).

The Kruskal Wallis Test employed to explore the difference in median sexual harassment climate across respondents' department of affiliation (Table

17) in the hotels revealed a significant difference across departments (χ^2 (3, N=571) =33.7, p<.05).

Table 18: Department and Sexual Harassment Climate

Department	N	Median
Food and Beverage	121	1.37
Administration	99	1.18
Front Office	169	1.23
Housekeeping	123	1.47
Kitchen	66	1.31

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Pairwise comparisons of the five groups indicate that the housekeeping department respondents' perceived median (Mdn=1.47) sexual harassment climate was significantly higher than the reported sexual harassment climate for the respondents working in the administration department (Mdn=1.18). Compared to the respondents in the front office (Mdn=1.23) department, housekeeping department respondents reported higher perceived sexual harassment climate but other pairwise comparisons between the other departments were not statistically significant.

Dependence on Tips and Perception of Sexual harassment Climate

The mean sexual harassment climate for respondents who agreed with the statement that their income will not be sufficient for their upkeep without tips from guests was significantly higher (M=1.55, SD=.50, n=324) than those

who disagreed with the statement ($M=1.18$, $SD=.50$, $n=238$) at .05 level of significance ($t=-6.26$, $df=560$, $p=.000$, 95 CI for mean difference $-.49$ to $-.25$). Similarly, regarding the statement that it would be difficult for them take care of their basic needs without tips from guests, respondents who concurred with the statement reported higher mean of sexual harassment climate ($M=1.58$, $SD=.82$, $n=294$) than those who opposed the statement ($M=1.22$, $SD=.57$, $n=281$) at .05 level of significance ($t=-5.97$, $df=573$, $p=.000$, CI for mean difference $-.47$ to $-.23$). The results of the t-test analysis provide strong evidence to suggest that respondents who depend economically on tips from guests perceived higher levels of sexual harassment climate. Probably, economic dependence on tips from guests exposes such respondents to several sexually harassing behaviours. Spearman's Rho correlation analysis using a composite score of dependence on tipping and sexual harassment climate generated a statistically significant positive relationship between the two variables ($r=.269$, $p<0.01$) indicating that the more respondents depend on tipping the higher the perceived sexual harassment climate.

CHAPTER SIX

SEXUAL HARASSMENT EXPERIENCES: EVIDENCE FROM HOTEL EMPLOYEES

Introduction

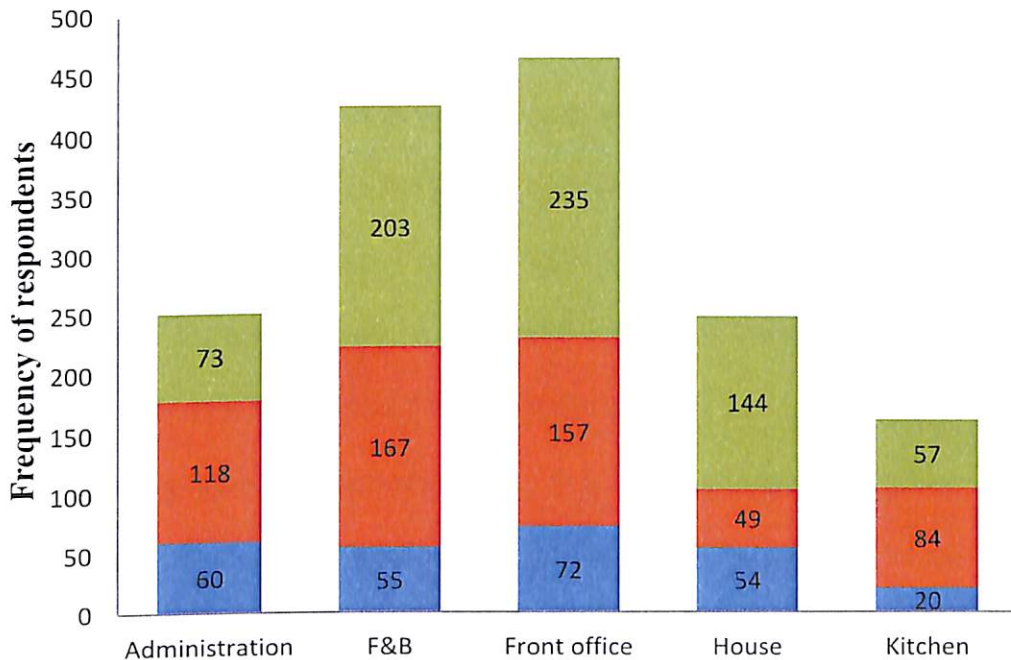
This chapter presents results of the study regarding sexual harassment experiences of the respondents. First, prevalence of sexual harassment, as measured by both direct and indirect measures is expounded followed by labelling of sexual harassment and gender differences. Second, factor analysis results assessing the structure of sexual harassment are explicated followed by an examination of perpetrators of sexual harassment. Third, results of bivariate analysis of the antecedents of sexual harassment are presented. The chapter concludes with an exploration of respondents' reactions to sexual harassment.

Perpetrator by Department

Figure 8 displays results regarding perpetrators of sexual harassment by department. As shown in the Figure 8, in the administration (118 or 47%) and kitchen (84 or 52%) departments, co-workers were the leading perpetrators of sexual harassment. One of the interviewees narrates an incidence that occurred in the kitchen in the hotel she works as follows:

A Togolese Chef consistently requested to establish a sexual relationship with me but I declined-I was talking to him one day in the kitchen then he touched my breast. I was furious and confronted him-Togo chefs are fond of such behaviours-Other workers have experienced such behaviours from them.

A 25-year old female kitchen staff in budget facility



Source: Fieldwork, 2014 ■ supervisor ■ co-worker ■ Guest

Figure 8: Perpetrator of Sexual Harassment by Department

However, in the case of front office (235 or 50%), food and beverage (48%) and housekeeping (144 or 58%) departments, guests presented the greatest risk to being sexually harassed. Sexual harassment threats pose by guests at the front office department was recounted during the interviews as follows:

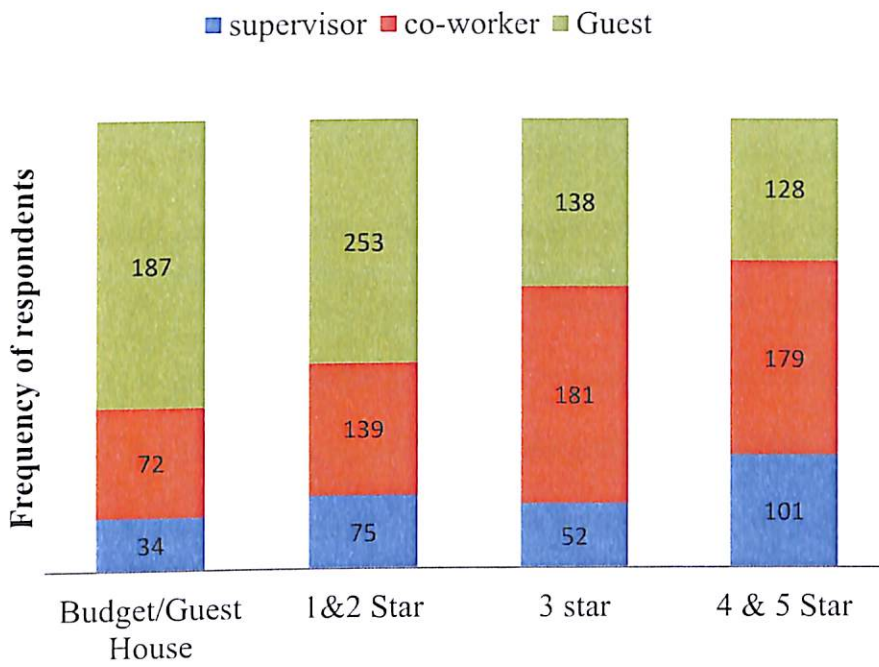
I was working at the front desk and required to accompany a guest to a room –he started by complimenting me that I am a nice girl-subsequently requested that I gave him a massage and then asked that I kept him company in his room”. After politely declining his requests with the excuse that I was on duty and could not do that, he subsequently called the front desk requesting that I came over to check an air conditioner in the room that was not functioning.

A 32-year old female 2 star hotel front office staff

The observed variation in the category of harasser by department can be explained by the contact hypothesis. This model has been used to explain sexual harassment of women in the workplace. The greater the degree of contact women have with males in the work environment, the greater the likelihood of being sexually harassed. By extension of this proposition, whomever you meet frequently in the line of duty will determine the category of sexual harassment perpetrator. Administration and kitchen staff have minimal contact with guests hence it is therefore not surprising that guests were least identified as harassers of respondents in these two departments. Since they are high guest contact employees, it is expected that front office and food and beverage respondents would be harassed more by guests because they have higher contact with guests in their line of duty.

Perpetrator and Class of Hotel

Results of simple frequency analysis showed that guests frequently (187 or 64%) perpetrated sexually harassing behaviours in budget/guesthouse facilities (Figure 9) followed by co-workers (72 or 25%) with supervisors being in the minority (34 or 12%) of harassers.



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 9: Perpetrator Profile by Hotel Star Rating

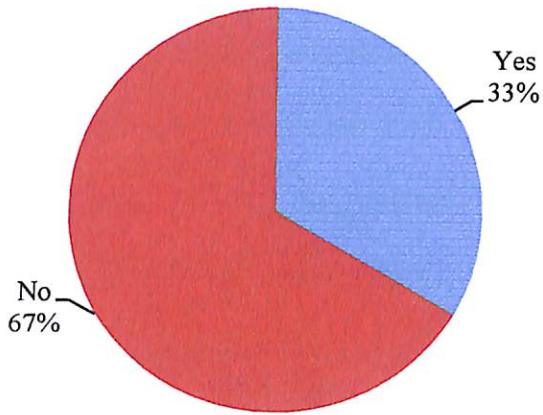
Similarly, regarding 1 & 2 star facilities, guests (253 or 54%) were lead initiators of sexually harassing behaviours followed by co-workers (139 or 30%) and supervisors (75 or 16%) in that order. However, in the case of 3 star hotels, co-workers committed more (181 or 49%) sexual harassment behaviours than guests (138 or 37%) and supervisors (52 or 14%). Just like their counterparts in the 3 star facilities, 4 & 5 star facility respondents identified co-workers (179 or 44%) as main perpetrators of sexual harassment followed by guests (128 or 31%) and supervisors (101 or 25%). The results seem to suggest that guests pose the greatest risks for sexual harassment in smaller accommodation facilities. The informal nature of small accommodation facilities probably facilitates extended communication and contact between workers and guests with a resultant effect of higher propensity of sexual harassment. Informal structures and less strict regulations

guiding the interaction between workers and guests lead to casual straying of both guests and workers into the working and private spaces of each other.

In the medium to large accommodation facilities such as those of 3star to 5 star hotels, the hotel spaces are guided by stricter regulations and formalized structures steer interaction and communication between workers and guests. The formalized structures and regulations provide few opportunities for extended informal social interaction between guests and workers beyond permissible levels for the purposes of providing service to guests. Consequently, relatively fewer opportunities exist for sexual harassment emanating from guests. These explanations notwithstanding, the seemingly observed pattern of perpetrator type by class of hotel requires further empirical investigation.

Prevalence of Sexual Harassment

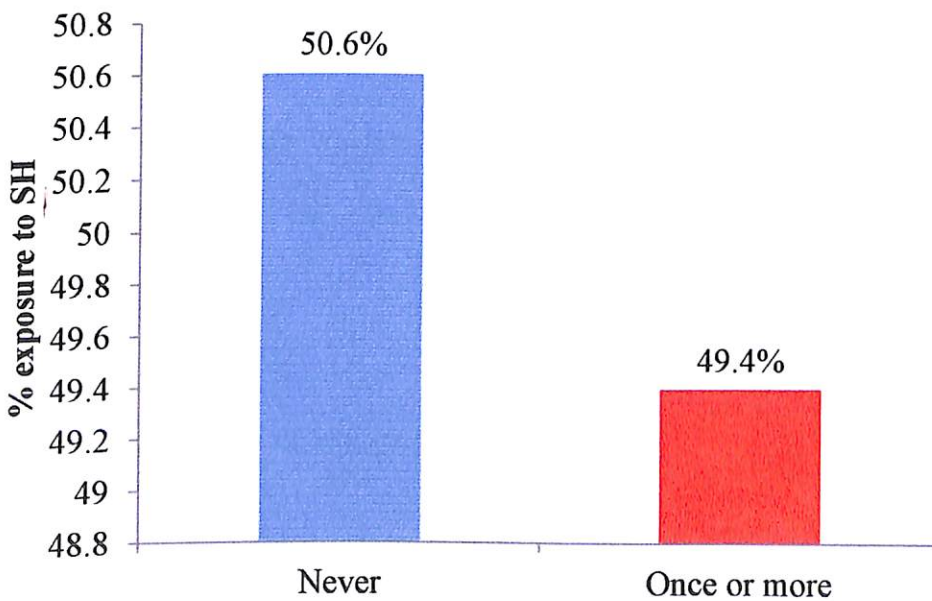
Both direct and indirect measurement approaches were employed to estimate sexual harassment incidence rate among hotel employees in Accra. Respondents were asked directly whether they had ever been sexually harassed while working with their current employer in the past 12 months and the responses are presented in Figure 10. About one third (33%) of the respondents self-reported having been sexually harassed in the past 12 months prior to the survey. This prevalent rate is comparable to contemporary hospitality sexual harassment studies (Worsfold & McCann, 2000; Agrusa et al., 2002; Lin, 2006) and similar to incidence rate found in earlier studies (AWLA, 2003) conducted in Ghana.



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 10: Sexually Harassed on the Job in the Past 12 Months

However, when measured via the behavioural exposure approach, almost half (49.4%) of the respondents in the study reported having been sexually harassed (Figure 11).



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 11: Reported Sexual Harassment by Behavioural Approach

However, as has been the trend in previous sexual harassment studies (Legnick-Hall, 1995; Illies et al., 2003; Lin, 2006; Estrada & Berggren, 2009), indirect measurement of sexual harassment in the current study yielded a higher incidence rate (49.4%) compared to the direct query (33%). This difference in incidence rates by measurement approach was found to be statistically significant (χ^2 (1, N=544) =69.41, $p<.000$). This result confirms the assertion in the literature that direct measures of sexual harassment tend to be lower than estimates based on indirect measures (Gruber, 1992; Culbertson & Rosenfeld, 1993). The inference to draw from this disparity is that most respondents declined to describe the sexually harassing behaviours they experienced as harassment (Table 18), as reported in previous studies (Fitzgerald et al., 1988; Stockdale & Vaux, 1993; Magley et al., 1999). The non-labelling of sexually harassing behaviours has been attributed to reasons ranging from sexual orientations, race, organisational position of the harasser and organisational culture (Giuffree & William, 1994; Folgero & Fjeldstad, 1995).

Of the 236 respondents who were exposed to some form of sexually harassing behaviour, only 50.7 percent labelled their experiences as sexual harassment (Table 19).

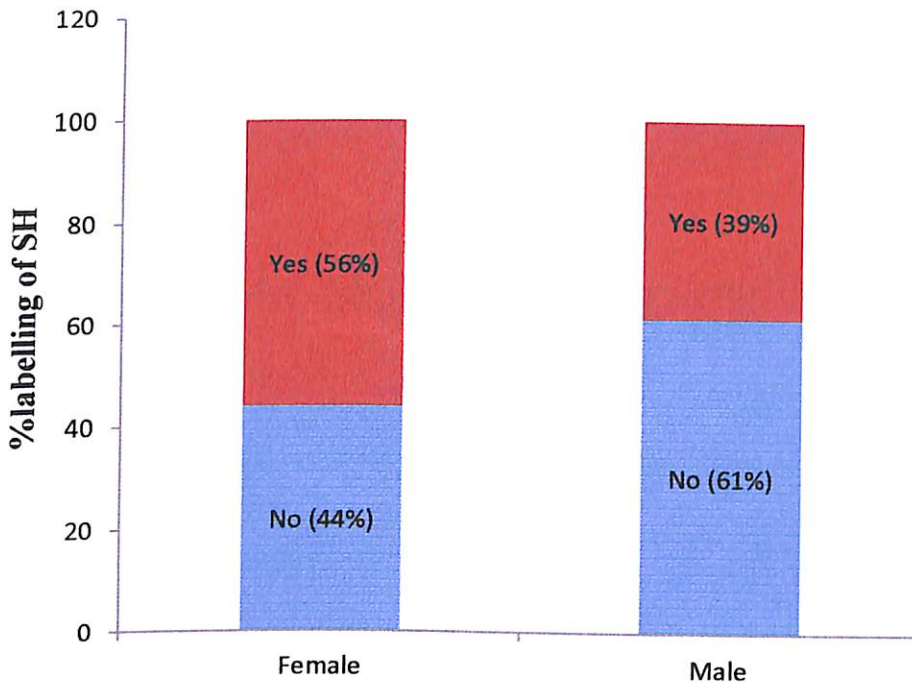
Table 19: Labelling of Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment (Indirect)	Sexual harassment (Direct)		P-value
	Yes	No	
At least Once	50.7	49.3	.000*
Never	16.7	83.3	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 *sig. $p<.01$

Gender and Labelling of Sexual Harassment

Gender difference in labelling of sexual harassment was examined using Pearson Chi-square test for independence. As shown in Figure 12, female respondents were more (56%) likely than males (39%) to label socio-sexual behaviours as sexual harassment ($\chi^2 (1, N=236) = 6.69, p = .010$).



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 12: Gender and Labelling of Sexual Harassment

The inclination of females in the study to label socio-sexual behaviours as sexual harassment confirms the results of earlier studies (Gutek, 1995; Stockdale et al., 1995; York, Barclay, & Zajack, 1997; Golden, Johnson, & Lopez, 2002). The gender difference in labelling of sexual harassment is attributed to gender-role socialisation (Quinn, 2002) as well as differences in women's and men's experiences (Kalof, Eby, Matheson, & Kroska, 2001). It has also been suggested that males feel flattered and actually enjoy socio-

sexual behaviours initiated by females hence will rarely label such experiences as sexual harassment (Levy & Paludi, 1997; Chan et al., 2008).

Frequency of Experienced Sexually Harassing Behaviours

A respondent is considered to have experienced a particular sexually harassing behaviour if he or she reports experience with behaviour at least once. Table 20 presents respondents' experiences of sexually harassing behaviours. Obviously, the most reported behaviour was "requests for dates" (M=.34).

Table 20: Frequency of Experienced Sexually Harassing Behaviour

Behaviour	Endorsement Rate (%)	M	SD
Requests for dates	33.9	.34	.47
Touched in uncomfortable way	28.2	.28	.45
Sexual discussion or comment on sex life	26.9	.27	.44
Sexual stories and jokes	22.7	.23	.42
Requests for sexual affair	22.4	.22	.42
Attempts to kiss, caress, fondle	20.7	.21	.41
Promised reward in exchange of sexual affair	17.9	.18	.38
Offensive remarks about appearance	17.4	.17	.38
Sexual gestures	16.1	.16	.37
Promised faster promotion in exchange of sexual affair	14.2	.14	.35

Table 20 Continued

Bad sexual comments that people of your sex are not suited for some works	12.6	.13	.33
Threatened to sack for refusal of sexual advances	11.9	.12	.32
Insulting comment about people of your sex	11.9	.12	.32
Treated differently because of your sex	11.7	.12	.32
Treated badly for refusing to have sexual affair	11.2	.11	.32
Someone put you down because you are a woman or man	8.0	.08	.27
Source: Fieldwork, 2014		<i>Scale: never=0, at least once=1</i>	

The second most occurring sexually harassing behaviour experienced by the respondents was “touching in uncomfortable way” (M=.28). The third most occurring behaviour was “sexual discussion or comments about sex life” (M=.27). Of the 16 behaviours, in decreasing order of frequency, “Treated differently because of your sex” (M=.12), “someone put you down because you are a woman or man” (M=.08) and “treated badly for refusing to have sexual affair” (M=.11) were the bottom three reported sexually harassing behaviours.

Assessing Structure of Sexual Harassment

The four-structure model of sexual harassment as proposed in previous studies (Fitzgerald, 1996; Stark et al., 2002; Lipari & Lancaster, 2004; Buchanan et al., 2008) using the 16-item shortened version of the SEQ-DoD was assessed via exploratory factor analysis because it was theoretically

unclear whether sexual harassment in a Ghanaian hotel context would differ significantly from developed country setting studies. The results of the factor analysis are presented in Table 21.

Table 21: Results of Factor Analysis

Factor	Loading	Eigen value	% of variance explained
Factor 1: Unwanted Sexual Attention		7.19	21.66
Sexual Attention			
Unwanted attempts to establish sexual affair	.798		
Unwanted requests for dates	.782		
Touched in uncomfortable way	.781		
Unwanted attempts to kiss, fondle, caress or kiss	.707		
Promise of special treatment in exchange of sexual affair	.650		
Factor 2: Sexual Coercion		1.72	16.07
Threatened with a sack for refusing to have sexual affair	.803		
Treated badly for refusing to have a sexual affair	.739		
Promised faster promotion for sexual compromise	.739		

Table 21 Continued

Factor 3: Crude Sexual behaviour Crude	1.14	16.02
Sexual Behaviour		
Sexual jokes or stories	.726	
Discussion of sexual matters, comments and sex life	.758	
Bad comments about appearance, body or sexual activities	.695	
Embarrassing sexual gestures	.637	
Factor 4: Gender Harassment Gender	1.00	15.48
Harassment		
Insulting comments about gender	.702	
Treated differently because of gender	.797	
Bad sexist remarks- e.g., women/men not suitable for some jobs	.684	
Put down because you are a woman or man	.750	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

KMO: 0.92; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity: 4572; Sig: 0.000; Total Variance Explained: 69.2%

Exploratory factor analysis with Varimax rotation was used in order to allow the factors to correlate. The 563 participants included in the final data set for this analysis provided a ratio of 35.18 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 Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin sampling adequacy for the analysis was .92, which is way above the

recommended limit of 0.50. The Bartlett's test of sphericity ($\chi^2 (120) = 4570$, $p < .000$), revealed that correlations between items were sufficiently large for the conduct of principal component analysis.

The principal component analysis revealed the presence of four factors with eigenvalues exceeding 1, cumulatively explaining 69.2 percent of the variance in sexual harassment. The first factor labelled "unwanted sexual attention" captured 21.6 percent of the variance (eigenvalue=7.19) and includes behaviours such as exposure to attempts to have sexual affair, unwanted requests for dates and making attempts to kiss or stroke another person against their will. The second factor, "sexual coercion" captured 16.0 percent of the variance (eigenvalue=1.72) and it encompasses behaviours such as promising promotion in exchange for sexual activities or threatening to dismiss someone for refusing to give in to sex-related requests. The third factor, "crude sexual behaviour" contributed 16.0 percent of the variance (eigenvalue=1.14) with behaviours such as making sexual gestures or jokes and discussion of sexual matters. Lastly, the fourth factor, "gender harassment" explained 15.5 percent of the variance (eigenvalue=1.00) with behaviours such as statements that insult the gender of both women and men or comments that suggest that men or women are not fit to do certain types of work. The data for the current study provides empirical support for the four-factor structure of sexual harassment using the shortened version of the SEQ-DoD as suggested by Fitzgerald (1996), Stark et al. (2002), Lipari & Lancaster (2004), and Buchanan et al. (2008).

Reliability Analysis

In order to assess the internal consistency of the entire scale and that of the extracted factors, Cronbach's coefficients alpha were estimated (Table 22). The 16-item SEQ yielded a Cronbach's coefficient alpha of .91, comparable to that found in some studies (Stark et al., 2002; Gettman, 2003). The extracted four factors: unwanted sexual attention (consisting of five items), sexual coercion (three items), crude sexual behaviour (four items) and gender harassment (four items) exhibited acceptable reliability with Cronbach coefficient alphas of .89, .84, .79 and .78 respectively. All the alpha coefficients were within the threshold level of .70 recommended by Nunnally (1978).

Table 22: Reliability Statistics

Factor	Cronbach's Alpha
Unwanted Sexual Attention	.89
Sexual Coercion	.84
Crude Sexual behaviour	.79
Gender Harassment	.78
Sexual Harassment	.91

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Frequency of Occurrence and Perpetrators of Categories of Sexual Harassment

Table 23 presents the frequency of occurrence of the four categories of sexual harassment and their perpetrators.

Table 23: Category of Sexual Harassment by Perpetrator

Category of Sexual Harassment	Mean	Perpetrator	N	%	% of Cases
Unwanted Sexual Attention	.42	Supervisor	70	12.4	35.7
		Co-worker	19	34.	99
			4	3	
		Guest	301	53.3	153.5
<i>Total</i>			565	100	288.2
Sexual coercion	.19	Supervisor	78	34.7	71
		Co-worker	43	19	39.4
		Guest	107	46.3	98.16
<i>Total</i>			228	100	208.56
Gender Harassment	.22	Supervisor	49	21.1	46.7
		Co-worker	88	38	88.8
		Guest	95	41	90.5
<i>Total</i>			232	100	226
Crude Sexual behaviour	.38	Supervisor	28	9.3	17.5
		Co-worker	166	55.2	103.7
		Guest	107	35.5	74.37
<i>Total</i>			301	100	195.57

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

*Multiple response set

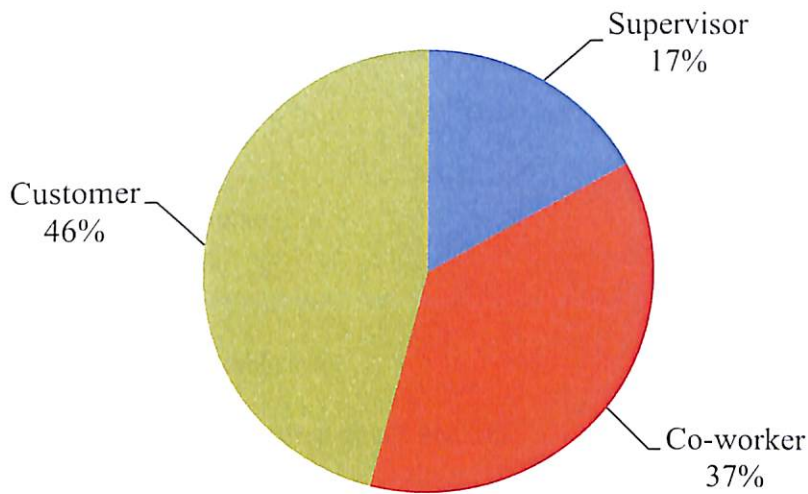
Unwanted sexual attention (M=.42) was the most common type of sexual harassment reported by hotel employees in Accra and predominantly

committed by guests (53.3%) followed by co-workers (34.3%). Crude sexual behaviour ($M=.38$) was the second most occurring type of sexual harassment with co-workers (55.2%) being the leading perpetrators followed suit by guests (35.5%). Contradictory to results of previous studies (O'Hare & O'Donohue, 1998; Gettman, 2003; Buchanan et al., 2008), gender harassment ($M=.22$) was infrequently reported by respondents in the current study with guests (41%) being marginally ahead of co-workers (38%) and supervisors (21.1%) as perpetrators.

The generally less popularity of sexual coercion ($M=.19$) in sexual harassment literature (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Buchanan et al., 2008; Pina et al., 2009) is replicated in the study. Interestingly, guests (46.3%) and supervisors (34.7%) were the leading initiators of sexual coercion. Behaviours relating to promise of promotion or special treatment in exchange for sexual cooperation could logically be perpetrated by people in position to make good such promises, it is therefore not surprising that guests and supervisors were identified as the leading perpetrators of sexual coercion.

Perpetrators of Sexual Harassment

Figure 13 displays the profile of perpetrators of sexually harassing behaviours as identified by respondents. Victims identified guests as the leading culprits of sexual harassment (46%) followed by co-workers (37%) and supervisors (17%) in a descending order.



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 13: Perpetrators of Sexual Harassment

The identification of guests as the leading sexual harassers in the study is comparable to the studies of Mkono (2010) and Poulston (2008). A plausible explanation of this finding lies in the constant face-to-face interaction between guests and hotel employees coupled with the feeling of being away from home and the ‘morale holiday’ that characterises the stay at places away from home.

Behaviours and Category of Perpetrators

As depicted in Table 24, “requests for dates” was frequently made by guests (54.4%) followed by co-workers (34.9%) with supervisors being the least perpetrators (10.7%). Again, guests (50.7%) were found to be the leading initiators of “touching in uncomfortable way”. More explicit sexual behaviours such as “attempt to kiss, caress and fondle” were perpetrated more by guests (57.5%) followed by co-workers (34.9%) and a minority (7.5%) of supervisors.

Table 24: Frequency of Sexually Harassing Behaviours by Perpetrators

Behaviour	Perpetrator (%)		
	Supervisor	Co-worker	Guest
Request for dates	10.7	34.9	54.4
Touched in uncomfortable way	12.8	36.5	50.7
Sexual discussion or comment about sex life	10	54.6	35.4
Sexual stories and jokes	5.2	55.7	39.1
Requests for sexual affair	17.4	29.5	53
Attempts to kiss, caress, fondle	7.5	34.9	57.5
Promised reward in exchange of sexual affair	24	16.3	59.6
Offensive remarks about appearance	11.6	58.1	30.2
Sexual gestures	10.9	51.1	38
Promised faster promotion in exchange of sexual affair	34.1	15.9	50
Bad sexual comments that people of your sex are not suited for some works	18.2	36.4	45.5
Threatened to sack for refusal of sexual advances	39.7	17.6	44.6
Insulting comments about people of your sex	5.3	50.9	43.9
Treated differently because of your sex	36.5	33.3	30.2
Treated badly for refusing to have sexual affair	29.4	25	45.6
Someone put you down because you are a woman or man	21.4	28.6	50

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The perpetration of behaviours such as “promise of reward in exchange of sexual affair” was attributed more to guests (59.6%) than people in supervisory positions (24%) and co-workers (16.3%). Again, a related behaviour of “promising faster promotion in exchange of sexual affair” had guests being the leading perpetrators (50%) followed by supervisors (34.1%) and co-workers (15.9%). However, regarding “sexual discussion or comments about sex life” co-workers were the main culprits (54.6%). In the same manner, co-workers were found to be the leading initiators (55.7%) of “sexual stories and jokes” just as in the situations of “offensive remarks about appearance (58.1%)” and “sexual gestures (51.1%)”. Of the 16 behaviours, supervisors (36.5%) were identified as the leading perpetrators of “treating employees differently because of their sex”. Mandated with supervisory and managerial responsibility, supervisors are in the position to commit such acts within the background of a strong patriarchal Ghanaian society and gender expectation norms against the backdrop that supervisory positions have been found to be male-dominated.

CHAPTER SEVEN
PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS AND SEXUAL HARASSMENT
VULNERABILITY

Introduction

This chapter presents bivariate analysis conducted to explore the influence of personal characteristics on vulnerability to sexual harassment of hotel employees in Accra. Beyond demographic dynamics, results relating to how department of work, class of hotel and work tenure affect reports of sexual harassment are also presented. Results relating to job/client gender context and sexual harassment vulnerability of hotel workers in Accra are presented. In addition, the chapter highlights the reaction of respondents when confronted with sexually harassing behaviours. The chapter concludes with findings regarding the relationship between perceived economic dependence on tips from guests and employees' vulnerability to sexual harassment.

Gender and Sexual Harassment

Table 25 reports results of gender differences in reported sexual harassment as measured by both direct (subjective self-appraisal) and indirect (behavioural experience) approaches. As one of the most consistent findings reported in the sexual harassment literature, significantly more females (42.3%) than males (24.6%) perceived that they were sexually harassed (χ^2 (1, N=574, =20.41, $p<.000$). Again, when measured using the indirect approach, more females (62.4%) than males (37.6%) reported exposure to sexually harassing behaviours (χ^2 (1, N=537, =32.85, $p<.000$).

Table 25: Gender and Sexual Harassment by Measurement Approach

Measurement Approach		Sexual Harassment %	
		Yes	No
Direct	Male	24.6	75.4
	Female	42.3	57.7
Indirect	Male	37.6	62.4
	Female	62.4	37.6

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

This finding is one of the consistent results reported in the sexual harassment literature (Stockdale et al., 1999; Weber et al., 2002; Theocharous & Philaretou, 2009, Mkono, 2010). Females in the current study are vulnerable to Sexual harassment just as reported in previous studies conducted in Ghana’s educational institutions (Agyepong et al., 2011), faith-based organisations (Norman et al., 2013) and public institutions (Andoh, 2001). Furthermore, the study provides evidence to support the findings of other studies (Cochran et al., 1997; Britwum & Anokye, 2006; Norman et al., 2012; EEOC, 2012) that men are also sexually harassed.

A Chi-square test for independence was conducted to investigate gender differences in the frequency of sexual harassment experiences of each of the 16 behaviours measured in the study. Clearly, as shown in Table 26, endorsement of each of the 16 behaviours for female respondents was statistically higher than their male counterparts.

Table 26: Endorsement of Sexual Harassment Behaviours by Gender

Sexually harassing Behaviour	Male	Female	P-
	% of endorsement		Value
Unwanted attempts to establish sexual affair	14.2	31.1	0.000
Unwanted requests for dates	17.6	51.4	0.000
Touched in uncomfortable way	17.3	40.3	0.000
Unwanted attempts to kiss, fondle, caress	12.9	29.5	0.000
Promise of special treatment in exchange of sexual affair	8.8	27.9	0.000
Threatened with a sack for refusing to have sexual affair	6.5	18.2	0.000
Treated badly for refusing to have a sexual affair	4.4	18.8	0.000
Promised faster promotion for sexual compromise	7.8	21.6	0.000
Sexual jokes or stories	14.3	31.7	0.000
Discussion of sexual matters, comments and sex life	19.3	34.8	0.000
Bad comments about appearance, body or sexual activities	13.4	22.1	0.006
Embarrassing sexual gestures	10.6	21.9	0.000
Insulting comments about gender	7.8	16.7	0.001
Treated differently because of gender	7.5	16.7	0.001
Bad sexist remarks- e.g., women/men not suitable for some jobs	8.1	17.6	0.001
Put down because you are a woman or man	4.7	11.8	0.002

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

As shown in Table 26, female respondents were frequently confronted with unwanted request for dates, touched in uncomfortable ways and subjected to discussion of sexual matters and comments about their sex life. On the other hand, a minority of male respondents were also confronted with discussion of sexual matters and comments about their sex life as well as some exposure to unwanted requests for dates and touching in uncomfortable ways. However, in line with the literature (Waldo, Berdahl, & Fitzgerald, 1998; Street et al., 2008) gender differences regarding behaviours that relate to crude sexual behaviour and gender harassment were not statistically significant.

Gender and Types of Sexual Harassment

A Chi-square test for independence was carried out to find out whether experiences with sexual harassment and its four subtypes vary by gender. As anticipated, more female respondents were significantly largely susceptible to sexual harassment than their male counterparts, $\chi^2 (1, N=537) = 32.85, p < .000$ (Table 27).

Table 27: Gender and Sexual Harassment

	Response	% of respondents		P-Value
		Male	Female	
Sexual harassment	No	62.4	37.6	.000*
	Yes	37.6	62.6	
Unwanted Sexual Attention	No	72.4	42.1	.000*
	Yes	27.6	57.9	

Table 27 Continued

Sexual Coercion	No	88.7	71.4	.000*
	Yes	11.3	28.6	
Crude Sexual Behaviour	No	70.9	51.8	.000*
	Yes	29.1	48.2	
Gender Harassment	No	85.0	70.1	.000*
	Yes	15.0	29.9	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 *sig. $p < .01$

Regarding the types of sexual harassment they experience, as indicated in Table 27, women reported significantly more unwanted sexual attention (57.9%) compared with men (27.6%). Similarly, women's exposure to sexual coercion was significantly higher (28.6%) than that reported by men (11.3%). The results suggest that the magnitude of difference in these two categories of sexual harassment between women and men is greater as found in previous studies (Waldo et al., 1998; Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Cortina et al., 2002; Street et al., 2008). This result confirms the conclusions of earlier studies that men rarely experience unwanted sexual attention and sexual coercion with the exception of Berdahl et al. (1996) where men in their study mentioned unwanted sexual attention most often.

Regarding crude sexual behaviour ($\chi^2 (1, N=537) = 21.32, p < .000$) and gender harassment ($\chi^2 (1, N=567) = 18.21, p < .000$), the difference between female and male victims was statistically significant. Other studies (Berdahl et al., 1996; Waldo et al., 1998) have noted higher proportions of men reporting gender harassment. The propensity of men to experience crude sexual

behaviour and gender harassment is motivated by the enforcement of traditional gender role norms (Waldo et al., 1998; Stockdale et al., 1999).

Marital Status and Sexual Harassment

Exposure to individual sexually harassing behaviours by marital status is presented in Table 28. Unmarried and married respondents differed significantly on reported frequency of exposure to eight out of the 16 sexually harassing behaviours measured in the study.

Table 28: Marital Status and Sexually Harassing Behaviour

Sexually harassing Behaviour	Unmarried	Married	P-
	% of endorsement		Value
Unwanted attempts to establish sexual affair	26.6	12.0	0.00*
Unwanted requests for dates	37.1	22.9	0.00*
Touched in uncomfortable way	31.8	17.9	0.00*
Unwanted attempts to kiss, fondle, caress or kiss	24.5	13.1	0.00*
Promise of special treatment in exchange of sexual affair	20.8	8.6	0.00*
Threatened with a sack for refusing to have sexual affair	13.2	8.6	0.12
Treated badly for refusing to have a sexual affair	13.9	6.3	0.01*

Table 28 Continued

Promised faster promotion for sexual compromise	17.2	5.7	0.00*
Sexual jokes or stories	26.1	15.5	0.00*
Discussion of sexual matters, comments and sex life	28.3	24.0	0.29
Bad comments about appearance, body or sexual activities	17.9	14.9	0.38
Embarrassing sexual gestures	16.8	10.6	0.05*
Insulting comments about gender	12.8	9.2	0.22
Treated differently because of gender	13.4	8.0	0.07
Bad sexist remarks- e.g., women/men not suitable for some jobs	13.6	11.0	0.39
Put down because you are a woman or man	7.4	8.6	0.60

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.05 **p<.01

Unmarried respondents appear to be exposed more to behaviours that relate to unwanted sexual attention compared with married respondents. Unmarried respondents reported more (26.6%) exposure to “unwanted attempts to establish sexual affair” compared with married respondents (12.0%). Unwanted requests for dates were directed more toward unmarried (37.1%) than married respondents (22.9%), just as unmarried respondents reported a statistically significant proportion (31.3%) of “touching in uncomfortable way” than their married counterparts (17.9%).

Furthermore, unmarried respondents (24.5%) were more likely to experience “unwanted attempts to kiss, fondle, caress or kiss” than married

respondents (13.1%). “Promise of special treatment in exchange of sexual affair” was experienced more (20.8%) by unmarried respondents compared with married participants (8.6%). Unmarried respondents were more (13.9%) likely to report having been treated badly for refusing to have a sexual affair than their married counterparts (6.3%). Likewise, “promised faster promotion for sexual compromise” was experienced frequently by unmarried respondents (17.2%) compared with the unmarried research participants (5.7%). The unmarried respondents in the study significantly reported experiencing more (26.1%) “sexual jokes” than the married respondents (15.5%).

Marital Status and Sexual Harassment and Subtypes

Results of a Chi-square test of independence to examine differences in exposure to sexual harassment experiences and the four types of sexual harassment are depicted in Table 29. Overall, experience with sexual harassment is segregated by marital status.

Table 29: Marital Status and Sexual Harassment and Subtypes

Behaviour	Response	% of respondents		χ^2 Value
		unmarried	Married	
Sexual harassment	No	47.1	60.7	p<.0*5 8.25
	Yes	52.9	39.3	
Unwanted Sexual Attention	No	54.9	68.8	P<.05* 9.31
	Yes	45.1	31.2	

Table 29 Continued

Sexual Coercion	No	77.7	87.4	P<.05*
	Yes	22.3	12.6	7.16
Crude Sexual Behaviour	No	58.7	70.5	P<.05*
	Yes	41.3	29.5	6.75
Gender Harassment	No	76.0	81.9	p> .05
	Yes	24.0	18.1	2.30

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.05

Unmarried respondents reported higher (52.9%) exposure to sexually harassing behaviours than married respondents (39.3%) and this difference was statistically significant, (χ^2 (1, N=53) =8.25, p<.004). In addition, unmarried respondents were more (45.1%) susceptible to unwanted sexual attention compared with married respondents (31.2%), (χ^2 (1, N=530) =9.31, p<.002). Again, unmarried respondents were more (22.3%) likely than their married counterparts (12.6%) to report having experienced sexual coercion (χ^2 (1, N=539) =7.16, p<.007). Married respondents were less (29.5%) likely to experience crude sexual behaviour compared with unmarried respondents (41.3%), (χ^2 (1, N=524) =6.75, p<.009). In the case of gender harassment, marital status did not appear to influence experiences with gender harassment as the recorded difference between married (18.1%) and unmarried (24.0%) was not statistically significant (χ^2 (1, N=534) =2.30, p=.129).

However, it is worthy to note that gender appears to moderate earlier observed relationship between marital status and sexual harassment. The effect of marital status on vulnerability to sexual harassment was statistically insignificant in the case of unmarried and married male respondents (χ^2 (1,

N=263) =.138, p=.710). Conversely, the influence of marital status on reported sexual harassment rates was stronger in the instance of unmarried and married female respondents, (χ^2 (1, N=234) =11.77, p<.001). Marital status seems to buffer female married respondents (χ^2 (1, N=248) =10.68, p<.001) against unwanted sexual attention but not male married respondents (χ^2 (1, N=275) =.053, p=.818).

This result is in line with several earlier studies (Andoh, 2000; Lee et al., 2004; McDuff, 2008; Merkin, 2008). Female married hotel employees comparatively reported lower sexual harassment rates probably because perpetrators accorded them respect due to the perceived sacredness of marriage because married women are the “properties” of other men. Within the Ghanaian highly patriarchal society, a play that bothers on sexuality with married women are highly unacceptable compared to unmarried females. Perpetrators are therefore a bit restrained and restrictive in the manner of sexual overtures they direct toward married female employees. This same cautious approach is not extended to unmarried female employees hence this might explain why they report more sexual harassment incidence rates than the married females.

Age and Sexual Harassment Vulnerability

To examine the relationship between sexual harassment and age of respondents, the age groups of the respondents were re-categorised into two that is, 29 or less and 30 or more because over 90.6 percent of the respondents were aged between the age brackets of 21 to 29 and 30 to 39. A Chi-square test for independence was conducted to compare reported sexual harassment

experiences and subtypes for victims aged 29 or less, and those in the 30 or more years age cohort (Table 30).

Table 30: Comparison of Reported Sexual Harassment and Subtypes by Age Groups

Behaviour	Response	% of respondents		χ^2 Value
		29 or less	30 or more	
Sexual Harassment	No	44.5	59.6	P<.05*
	Yes	55.5	40.4	11.81
Unwanted Sexual Attention	No	53.2	64.7	P<.05*
	Yes	46.8	38.3	7.51
Sexual Coercion	No	77.7	84.7	P<.05*
	Yes	22.3	15.3	4.31
Crude Sexual Behaviour	No	57.1	68.0	P<.05*
	Yes	42.9	32.0	6.82
Gender Harassment	No	73.7	83.8	P<.05*
	Yes	26.3	16.2	8.18

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.05

As shown in Table 30, there appears to be an association between age and propensity to be sexually harassed as respondents aged 29 or less self-reported higher proportions of sexual harassment as well as the subtypes of sexual harassment than respondents aged 30 or more years. However, when controlling for the effect of gender, sexual harassment vulnerability was not segregated by age in the case of male respondents (χ^2 (1, N=277) =.77, p=.379). Difference in the reported sexual harassment was significant for

female respondents ($\chi^2 (1, N=252) =7.27, p<.007$). This result suggests that the propensity to be sexually harassed decreases with advancement in age for female respondents but not for males and this is in tandem with previous studies (Fain & Anderton, 1987; Oconnell & Korabik, 2000; Poulston, 2008). Younger female employees are more likely to be vulnerable to sexual harassment compared to their older colleagues because of a conflation of inexperience, attractiveness and their unmarried status. For instance, unmarried respondents in the study were significantly more likely to be aged 29 or less (81.5%) than those aged 30 or more (18.5%) ($\chi^2 (1, n=258) =57.34, p<.000$).

Education and Vulnerability to Sexual Harassment

As shown in Table 31, education slightly appears to be associated with vulnerability to sexual harassment and crude sexual behaviour. Clearly, from the results, respondents with tertiary education background reported a higher proportion of sexual harassment and crude sexual behaviour compared with those with secondary education attainment.

Table 31: Education and Sexual Harassment

Behaviour	Response	% of respondents		χ^2 Value
		secondary	Tertiary	
Sexual Harassment	No	56.2	45.7	P<.015*
	Yes	43.8	54.3	5.88

Table 31 Continued

Unwanted Sexual Attention	No	60.9	55.6	p>.203
	Yes	39.1	44.4	1.62
Sexual Coercion	No	82.1	79.4	p>.426
	Yes	17.9	20.6	.63
Crude Sexual Behaviour	No	67.9	56.2	P<.005*
	Yes	32.1	43.8	8.04
Gender Harassment	No	80.0	76.6	p>.328
	Yes	20.0	23.4	.95

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 Sig.* p<.05

Further analysis of the results controlling for the effect of gender, however, revealed that education is related to sexual harassment ($\chi^2 (1, n=275) = 5.17, p=.023$) and crude sexual behaviour ($\chi^2 (1, n=278) = 4.82, p=.028$) for male respondents but not for female respondents. Taken together, it appears male respondents with tertiary education background alleged more exposure to sexually harassing behaviours than their counterparts with lower education levels. Perhaps, with their higher level of education, the male respondents were more sensitive to label social-sexual encounters as sexual harassment. Quite surprisingly, exposure to sexually harassing situations is not segregated by level of education for female respondents. Rather, male respondents with more education reported higher levels of sexual harassment contradictory to some previous studies (Valente & Bullough, 2004; Celik & Celik, 2007; Merkin, 2012).

Sexual Harassment and Department

Kruskal-Wallis tests were conducted to examine the influence of department of work of respondents and sexual harassment vulnerability.

Table 32: Sexual Harassment and Subtypes and Department

Category of Sexual Harassment	Department	Median score	χ^2 Value
Sexual Harassment	Food & Beverage	.55	
	Administration	.48	P<.005*
	Front Office	.58	14.97
	Housekeeping	.36	
	Kitchen	.45	
United Sexual Attention	Food & Beverage	.52	
	Administration	.35	P<.001**
	Front Office	.49	18.08
	Housekeeping	.29	
	Kitchen	.41	
Sexual Coercion	Food & Beverage	.28	
	Administration	.16	
	Front Office	.19	P<.049*
	Housekeeping	.12	9.52
	Kitchen	.20	

Table 32 Continued

	Food & Beverage	.50	
Crude Sexual Behaviour	Administration	.34	
	Front Office	.42	P<.000**
	Housekeeping	.21	25.89
	Kitchen	.45	
	Food & Beverage	.29	
Gender Harassment	Administration	.19	p>.329
	Front Office	.22	4.61
	Housekeeping	.19	
	Kitchen	.21	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. p<.05 **p<.01

Results of the analysis as reported in Table 32 seem to show that respondents who identified with the front office department reported a statistically significant higher (Mdn=0.58) frequency of sexual harassment than those in the food and beverage (Mdn=0.55), administration (Mdn=0.48) kitchen (Mdn=0.45) and housekeeping departments (Mdn=0.36). Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences in reported sexual harassment among the five departments, controlling for Type I error across tests by using Bonferroni approach. Results of these tests (Table 33) indicated a significant difference between respondents in the housekeeping and food & beverage departments as well as housekeeping and front office departments but not significant difference between other pairs of departments (p<.05)

Table 33: Pairwise Comparisons of Vulnerability to Sexual Harassment by Department

Department	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig	Adj. Sig
Housekeeping vs. Kitchen	-24.20	21.63	-1.11	.26	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Admin	31.78	19.08	1.66	.096	.958
Housekeeping vs. Food & Beverage	51.88	18.20	2.85	.004	.044*
Housekeeping vs. Front Office	58.72	16.32	3.59	.000	.003*
Kitchen vs. Admin	7.58	22.76	.33	.739	1.000
Kitchen vs. Food & Beverage	27.68	22.03	1.25	.209	1.000
Kitchen vs. Front Office	34.52	20.51	1.68	.092	.924
Admin vs. Food & Beverage	20.09	19.54	1.02	.304	1.000
Admin vs. Front Office	26.94	17.80	-1.51	.130	1.000
Food & Beverage vs. Front Office	-6.84	16.85	-.406	.685	1.000

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. p<.05 **p<.01

Regarding Unwanted Sexual Attention, respondents in the food and beverage department reported higher unwanted sexual attention compared to respondents working in the front office, administration, kitchen and the housekeeping departments. As in the case of Sexual harassment, housekeeping department respondents were found to be less likely to report unwanted sexual

attention relative to respondents from the other departments (Table 33). Just as in the pairwise results of sexual harassment, significant differences between housekeeping and front office and housekeeping and food & beverage were observed (Table 34). Differences between other pairs were not statistically significant ($p > .05$).

Table 34: Pairwise Comparisons of Vulnerability to United Sexual Attention by Department

Departments	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig	Adj. Sig
Housekeeping vs. Admin	17.46	19.15	.912	.362	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Kitchen	-34.44	21.97	-1.56	.117	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Front Office	56.98	16.77	3.39	.001	.007*
Housekeeping vs. Food & Beverage	64.36	18.27	3.52	.000	.004**
Admin vs. Kitchen	-16.98	22.86	-.743	.458	1.00
Admin vs. Front Office	-39.51	17.91	-2.20	.027	.274
Admin vs. Food & Beverage	46.90	19.33	2.42	.015	.153
Kitchen vs. Front Office	22.53	20.90	1.07	.281	1.00
Kitchen vs. Food & Beverage	29.92	22.13	1.35	.176	1.00
Front Office vs. Food & Beverage	7.38	16.97	.435	.664	1.00

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. $p < .05$ ** $p < .01$

For sexual coercion, food and beverage respondents reported higher frequency of susceptibility while housekeeping employees were the least vulnerable group of respondents. Post hoc test results (Table 35) showed a significant difference in reported Sexual Coercion between housekeeping and food & beverage respondents ($p < .05$) but not significant differences between other pairs ($p > .05$).

Table 35: Pairwise Comparisons of Vulnerability of Sexual Coercion by Department

Departments	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig	Adj. Sig
Housekeeping vs. Admin	6.21	15.45	.402	.688	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Front office	15.96	13.58	1.17	.240	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Kitchen	-17.45	17.57	-.99	.321	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Food and Beverage	42.62	14.76	2.88	.004	.039*
Admin vs. Front Office	-9.74	14.45	-.674	.500	1.00
Admin vs. Kitchen	-11.23	18.25	-.616	.538	1.00
Admin vs. Food and Beverage	36.41	15.57	2.33	.019	.194
Front Office vs. Kitchen	-1.48	16.69	-.089	.929	1.00
Front Office vs. Food and Beverage	26.66	13.71	1.94	.052	.519
Kitchen vs. Food and Beverage	25.17	17.67	1.42	.154	1.00

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The post hoc results conducted to ascertain which pairs of groups differ significantly from one another showed that housekeeping respondents were significantly less likely to experience Crude Sexual Behaviour than Front Office, Kitchen and Food and Beverage department respondents (Table 36)

Table 36: Pairwise Comparisons of Vulnerability to Crude Sexual Behaviour by Department

Departments	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig	Adj. Sig
Housekeeping vs. Admin	61.06	18.88	1.95	.051	.506
Housekeeping vs. Front Office	61.05	16.33	3.73	.000	.002**
Housekeeping vs. Kitchen	-69.45	21.52	-3.22	.001	.012*
Housekeeping vs. Food and Beverage	83.17	17.90	4.64	.000	.000**
Admin vs. Front Office	-24.13	17.59	-1.37	.170	1.00
Admin vs. Kitchen	-32.53	22.49	-1.44	.148	1.00
Admin vs. Food and Beverage	46.25	19.06	2.42	.015	.153
Front Office vs. Kitchen	-8.40	20.39	-.412	.680	1.00
Front Office vs. Food and Beverage	22.12	16.53	1.33	.181	1.00
Kitchen vs. Food and Beverage	13.71	21.76	.633	.527	1.00

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Gender harassment was experienced more by food and beverage respondents however, differences among the various departments were not statistically significant.

Sexual harassment by Department and Gender

Additional analysis was conducted to find out whether gender moderated the relationship between sexual harassment and department. To do this, Chi-square tests of independence were conducted for separate male and female samples. The results for the male respondents are presented in Table 37.

Table 37: Sexual Harassment and Department by Gender (Male)

Category of Sexual harassment	Department	Median Score	χ^2 Value
Sexual Harassment	Food and Beverage	.49	
	Administration	.42	P<019
	Front Office	.39	14.97
	Housekeeping	.20	
	Kitchen	.42	
United Sexual Attention	Food and Beverage	.42	
	Administration	.24	P<.018
	Front Office	.26	11.93
	Housekeeping	.16	
	Kitchen	.37	

Table 37 Continued

	Food and Beverage	.13	P<.165
	Administration	.05	5.32
	Front Office	.09	
	Housekeeping	.06	
	Kitchen	.19	
Crude Sexual Behaviour	Food and Beverage	.44	
	Administration	.26	
	Front Office	.30	P<.001**
	Housekeeping	.10	19.12
	Kitchen	.42	
Gender Harassment	Food and Beverage	.21	
	Administration	.15	p>.176
	Front Office	.13	6.32
	Housekeeping	.08	
	Kitchen	.26	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. p<.05 **p<.01

As found in the unsegregated data, male respondents in the food and beverage department reported higher levels of sexual harassment than those in the other departments with particularly, housekeeping respondents reporting lower levels of vulnerability. Post-hoc analysis shows that Food and Beverage department respondents reported higher sexual harassment incidence than their counterparts in the housekeeping department (Table 38) but there were no statistically significant difference between other pairs of departments ($P>.05$).

Table 38: Pairwise Comparisons of Vulnerability to Sexual Harassment by Department (Male)

Departments	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig	Adj. Sig
Housekeeping vs. Front Office	26.63	11.55	2.30	.021	.212
Housekeeping vs. Admin	30.94	12.58	2.46	.014	.139
Housekeeping vs. Kitchen	-31.23	15.97	-1.95	.051	.505
Housekeeping vs. Food and Beverage	40.72	12.69	3.20	.001	.013*
Front Office vs. Admin	4.31	11.73	.363	.713	1.00
Front Office vs. Kitchen	-4.59	15.31	-.30	.764	1.00
Front Office vs. Food and Beverage	14.09	11.85	1.18	.235	1.00
Admin vs. Kitchen	-.28	16.09	-.018	.986	1.00
Admin vs. Food and Beverage	9.78	12.85	.761	.447	1.00
Kitchen vs. Food and Beverage	9.49	16.19	.587	.557	1.00

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig.* p<.05 **p<.01

Similar to sexual harassment, male respondents working at the Food and Beverage department reported a significantly higher United Sexual Attention than their colleagues in the housekeeping department following the conduct of post-hoc analysis using Bonferroni approach (Table 39).

Table 39: Pairwise Comparisons of Vulnerability to Unwanted Sexual Attention by Department (Male)

Departments	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig	Adj. Sig
Housekeeping vs. Admin	11.17	11.64	.960	.337	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Front Office	13.79	10.95	1.26	.208	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Kitchen	-30.42	15.00	-2.02	.043	.426
Housekeeping vs. Food and Beverage	37.79	11.94	3.16	.002	.015*
Admin vs. Front Office	-2.61	10.90	-.240	.810	1.00
Admin vs. Kitchen	-19.24	14.96	-1.28	.199	1.00
Admin vs. Food and Beverage	26.62	11.89	2.23	.025	.252
Front Office vs. Kitchen	-16.62	14.43	-1.15	.250	1.00
Front Office vs. Food and Beverage	24.00	11.22	2.13	.032	.325
Kitchen vs. Food and Beverage	7.37	15.20	.485	.628	1.00

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. p<.05 **p<.01

Based on the results of pairwise comparison analysis, housekeeping male respondents were significantly less likely to experience Crude Sexual Behaviour compared to their colleagues in the kitchen and Food and Beverage

departments (Table 40). Other pairwise comparisons among other departments were not statistically significant.

Table 40: Pairwise Comparisons of Vulnerability to Crude Sexual Behaviour by Department (Male)

Departments	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig	Adj. Sig
Housekeeping vs. Admin	23.00	11.86	1.93	.052	.525
Housekeeping vs. Front Office	28.88	10.89	2.65	.008	.080
Housekeeping vs. Kitchen	-45.55	15.06	-3.02	.002	.025*
Housekeeping vs. Food and Beverage	47.74	11.86	4.02	.000	.001**
Admin vs. Front Office	-5.88	11.06	-.532	.596	1.00
Admin vs. Kitchen	-22.54	15.18	-1.48	.137	1.00
Admin vs. Food and Beverage	24.73	12.01	2.05	.040	.393
Front Office vs. Kitchen	-16.66	14.43	-1.15	.248	1.00
Front Office vs. Food and Beverage	18.85	11.06	1.70	.088	.883
Kitchen vs. Food and Beverage	2.18	15.18	.144	.885	1.00

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. p<.05 **p<.01

Results of the Kruskal-Wallis test conducted for the female sample are depicted in Table 41. The difference in sexual harassment experiences by

department for the female respondents was statistically significant. Thus, front office female respondents were more likely to be vulnerable to sexual harassment and United Sexual Attention than female respondents in the food and beverage, administration, housekeeping and kitchen departments. Differences among the groups for Sexual Coercion, Crude Sexual Behaviour and Gender Harassment were not statistically significant

Table 41: Sexual Harassment by Department and Gender (Female)

Category of Sexual harassment	Department	Median score	χ^2 Value
Sexual harassment	Food and Beverage	.65	
	Administration	.57	P<.012*
	Front Office	.75	12.77
	Housekeeping	.53	
	Kitchen	.45	
United Sexual Attention	Food and Beverage	.64	
	Administration	.55	P<.006*
	Front Office	.70	14.63
	Housekeeping	.42	
Sexual Coercion	Kitchen	.46	
	Food and Beverage	.42	
	Administration	.23	
	Front Office	.29	p>.109
	Housekeeping	.22	7.55

Table 41 Continued

	Kitchen	.22	
Crude Sexual Behaviour	Food and Beverage	.59	
	Administration	.49	p>.077
	Front Office	.52	8.44
	Housekeeping	.33	
	Kitchen	.44	
Gender Harassment	Food and Beverage	.39	
	Administration	.28	p>.216
	Front Office	.30	5.78
	Housekeeping	.32	
	Kitchen	.16	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.05 **p<.01

In order to ascertain which pairs of groups differ significantly from one another, post hoc tests were conducted for the Kruskal-Wallis omnibus test (Table 42).

Table 42: Pairwise Comparisons of Vulnerability to Sexual Harassment by Department (Female)

Departments	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig	Adj. Sig
Kitchen vs. housekeeping	9.27	13.62	.680	.496	1.00
Kitchen vs. Admin	14.29	15.61	.916	.360	1.00

Table 42 Continued

Kitchen vs. Food and Beverage	25.31	13.93	1.81	.069	.694
Kitchen vs. Front Office	37.67	12.63	2.98	.003	.029*
Housekeeping vs. Admin	5.02	14.04	.358	.721	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Food and Beverage	16.03	12.15	1.31	.187	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Front Office	28.39	10.63	2.66	.008	.076
Admin vs. Food and Beverage	11.01	14.34	.768	.443	1.00
Admin vs. Front Office	-23.37	13.08	-1.78	.074	.741
F& B vs. Front Office	-12.36	11.03	-1.12	.263	1.00

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.05 **p<.01

Results of these tests indicated that female Front Office respondents were significantly more likely to report that they had been sexually harassed than female kitchen respondents (Table 42) but no statistically significant difference was found among other pairs of departments ($p>.05$). Regarding United Sexual Attention, housekeeping female respondents were less vulnerable than their counterparts in the Front Office department but no statistically significant difference was found among other pairs of departments (Table 43).

Table 43: Pairwise Comparisons of Vulnerability to United Sexual Attention (Female)

Departments	Test Statistic	Std. Error	Std. Test Statistic	Sig	Adj. Sig
Housekeeping vs. Kitchen	-4.89	14.39	-.340	.734	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Admin	16.85	14.65	1.15	.250	1.00
Housekeeping vs. Food and Beverage	29.38	12.49	2.35	.019	.187
Housekeeping vs. Front Office	38.41	11.39	3.37	.001	.007*
Kitchen vs. Admin	11.96	16.26	.763	.462	1.00
Kitchen vs. Food and Beverage	24.49	14.34	1.70	.088	.877
Kitchen vs. Front Office	33.52	13.39	2.50	.012	.123
Admin vs. Food and Beverage	12.53	14.61	.858	.391	1.00
Admin vs. Front Office	-21.55	13.67	-1.57	.115	1.00
Food and Beverage vs. Front Office	-9.02	11.33	-.79	.426	1.00

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.05 **p<.01

Tenure and Sexual Harassment

A Chi-square test for independence revealed a statistically significant difference in reported sexual harassment across three different work experience groups ($\chi^2 (2, N=534)=12.34, p=.002$ (Table 44). Employees with 1 to 5 years work experience recorded a higher proportion (53.7%) of sexual harassment than those employees with below 1 year work experience (35.4%) and the more than 5 years (38.7%) work experience group. The differences were statistically significant for both female (2, N=249) =7.83, p=.020 and male (2, N=275) =5.96, p=.040 sub-samples.

Table 44: Job Tenure and Sexual Harassment

Tenure	Response %		χ^2 Value
	No	Yes	
Less than 1 year	61.6	35.4	12.34
1-5 years	46.3	53.7	
>5 or more	61.3	38.7	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Class of Hotel and Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment experiences by hotel rating are presented in Table 45. Results of a Chi-Square test for independence conducted to assess the effect of hotel category on reported sexual harassment revealed a statistically significant difference in the reported sexual harassment rates across the four categories of hotel facilities, (χ^2 (3, N=538) =12.43, p=.007).

Table 45: Class of Hotel and Sexual Harassment

Class of hotel	Sexual harassment %		χ^2 Value
	Yes	No	
Budget/Guesthouse	58.9	41.1	
1 & 2 star	46.6	53.4	P<.007*
3 star	40.7	59.3	12.14,
4 & 5 star	58.0	42.0	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.05 **p<.01

Respondents working in budget/guesthouse facilities marginally reported higher rates (58.9%) of sexual harassment compared with 4 & 5 star hotels (58.0%). Research participants selected from 3 star hotels

comparatively reported lower (40.7%) incidence of sexual harassment than those in the 1 & 2 rated facilities. Generally, reported sexual harassment by workers in lower rated accommodation facilities was expected. The result confirms the argument that sexual harassment will be rife in such workplaces because they are characterized by informal structures and constrained by unavailability of resources to invest in structures to prevent the occurrence of sexually harassing behaviours. Under this circumstance, employees will report more sexual harassment situations. However, contrary to expectation, the reported sexual harassment incidence rate by respondents working in 4 to 5 star hotels was higher than anticipated since such workplaces are perceived to have the resources to invest in programmes and human resource capacity to deal with sexual harassment situations as well as formalisation of institutional structures.

Job/Client Gender Context and Sexual Harassment

The sex composition of a hotel and vulnerability to sexual harassment was examined with Chi-square test of independence. Though not statistically significant, as shown in Table 46, respondents who identified their workplaces as female-dominated, rather unexpectedly reported higher proportion (55.3%) of sexual harassment compared to male-dominated (50.3%) and gender-neutral (43.8%) hotel workspaces. This result appears somehow contradictory to the assertion in the literature that female dominated workplaces are less risky for sexual harassment compared to male-dominated workplaces (Guttek et al., 1990; De Coster et al., 1999; Jackson & Newman, 2004).

Table 46: Sex Mix of Hotel and Sexual Harassment

Sex Mix at Hotel	Sexual Harassment %		χ^2 Value
	Yes	No	
Male-Dominated	50.3	49.7	2.81
Gender- Neutral	43.8	56.3	
Female-Dominated	55.3	44.7	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

In order to ascertain the moderating effect of gender on sex mix at hotel and sexual harassment, Chi square test of independence was computed separately for male and female respondents. Quite different from the aggregated results, females who perceived their workplaces to be male dominated reported more (65.7%) sexual harassment than gender-neutral (60.0%) and female- dominated (58.6%) hotel workplaces however, the recorded differences were not statistically significant. Clearly, this finding appears to suggest that hotel workplaces dominated by males pose the greatest risk to female employees as far as sexual harassment is concerned as asserted in previous studies (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Cortina et al., 2002; Harned et al., 2002; Willness et al., 2007).

Alternatively, for the male sample, respondents working in female-dominated hotels self-reported more (48.0%) sexual harassment than those in hotels with more males (38.2%) and gender-neutral (30.2%) workplaces (Table 48). The differences between the three sex mix groups were not statistically significant. A workplace dominated by females will present the greatest opportunity for sexual harassment of male hotel workers.

Table 47: Respondents' Gender by Sex Mix at Hotel and Sexual Harassment

Gender	Sexual harassment %	Sexual harassment %		χ^2 Value
		Yes	No	
	Gender Mix at Hotel			
	Male-Dominated	65.7	34.3	p>.569
	Gender Neutral	60.0	40.0	.128
Female	Female-Dominated	58.6	41.4	
	Male-Dominated	38.2	61.8	p>.219
	Gender Neutral	30.2	69.8	3.07
Male	Female-Dominated	48.0	51.4	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Sex Mix of Workers in Department and Sexual Harassment

Results of respondents' immediate workgroup, measured as the sex mix of respondents' department of work and self-reported sexual harassment are presented in Table 48.

Table 48: Sex Mix of Workers in Department and Sexual Harassment

Sex Mix at Hotel	Sexual harassment %		χ^2 Value
	Yes	No	
Male-Dominated	49.7	50.3	p<.010*
Gender- Neutral	35.2	64.8	9.12
Female-Dominated	57.7	42.3	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.05

Results of the Chi-square test of independence indicated a statistically significant difference in the reported sexual harassment for respondents working in female-dominated (57.7%), male-dominated (49.7%) and gender-neutral (35.2%) hotel workplaces. Those respondents who identified their immediate workgroups to be predominantly female self-reported higher sexual harassment compared to those in male and gender-neutral workplaces.

To ascertain the mediating effect of gender on the preceding results, Chi-square tests for independence were conducted separately for female and male samples (Table 49). For the female sample, the differences in sexual harassment incidence rates reported by respondents in the three sex compositions groups by departments were not statistically significant.

Table 49: Respondents' Gender by Sex Mix at Department and Sexual Harassment

Gender	Hotel	Sexual harassment		χ^2 Value
		Yes	No	
	Male-Dominated	64.4	35.6	p>.438
	Gender Neutral	52.9	49.1	1.65
	Female-Dominated	64.3	35.7	
Female	Male-Dominated	40.0	60.0	p>.089
	Gender Neutral	20.6	79.4	4.83,
Male	Female-Dominated	40.5	59.5	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

However, females working in departments dominated by males marginally reported higher proportion of sexual harassment than those in the female-dominated hotels.

In the case of the male sample, just as found with the female sample, differences in reported sexual harassment incidence rates were not statistically significant. This notwithstanding, it appears male workers in female-dominated departments marginally reported higher sexual harassment incidence rates than those who identified their departments to be male-dominated.

Sex Mix of Guests and Sexual Harassment

Generally, in the hospitality industry, clients are an important part of the working environment of hospitality workers. Hence, it is expected that the sex composition of guests in hotels will also influence the susceptibility of hotel workers to sexual harassment. Just as has been reported in the earlier results of Chi-square tests on sex mix at the hotel and departments of respondents, the differences in sexual harassment reported by respondents in the three sex compositions of guests to the hotels were not statistically significant (Table 50). However, as has been observed already, respondents working in female-dominated guest-based hotels reported a slightly higher (51.7%) sexual harassment incidence rate than the male-dominated guest hotels (50.1%) with respondents who identified their workplaces dominated by gender-neutral guest reporting a relatively lower incidence rate (46.9%).

Table 50: Sex Mix of Guests and Sexual Harassment

Sex Mix at Hotel	Sexual Harassment %		χ^2 Value
	Yes	No	
Male-Dominated	50.1	49.9	p>.774
Gender- Neutral	46.9	53.1	.513,
Female-Dominated	51.7	48.3	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Controlling for the effect of gender, though not statistically significant (Table 51), accommodation facilities with guests dominated by females present the least (46.2%) threat of sexual harassment to female hotel workers whereas hotels populated by males will portend higher risk (64.1%) of sexual harassment more than gender-neutral guest-base (61.1%) hotels.

Table 51: Sex Mix of Guest at Hotels by Gender and Sexual Harassment

Gender	Gender Mix at Hotel	Sexual Harassment %		χ^2 Value
		Yes	No	
Female	Male-Dominated	64.1	35.9	p>.425
	Gender Neutral	61.1	38.9	1.71,
	Female-Dominated	46.2	53.8	
Male	Male-Dominated	38.3	61.7	p>.475
	Gender Neutral	33.3	66.7	1.48,
	Female-Dominated	50.0	50.0	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Just as has been the trend in the earlier results relating to the male samples, male respondents in hotels frequented more by women reported more (50.0%) sexual harassment than those working in hotel dominated by male guests (38.3%) and gender-balanced guest-base hotels (33.3%). It is instructive to note that without disaggregating the data by gender, the results seem to suggest that female-dominated hotel spaces rather present the greatest chance of sexual harassment, which is remarkably contradictory to the commonly expressed view in the sexual harassment literature that male-dominated workplaces present the greatest possibility of sexual harassment. However, this position of male-dominated workplaces being breeding grounds for sexual harassment is even gender-discriminatory. Though difficult to draw conclusive inferences because the results did not reach statistical significance levels, it is worthy to note that for male respondents, a hotel, department and client base dominated by females is a breeding ground for sexual harassment.

Following on this, it might not be entirely accurate for the assertion that only male-dominated workspaces are breeding grounds for sexual harassment. Of course, studies that approach sexual harassment as a gendered phenomenon (female-only issue) and use female samples for their studies will arrive at such conclusions. However, this current study adopted a gender-neutral approach with the perspective that both sexes are vulnerable to sexual harassment. This notwithstanding, the study could not find support for the job-client/gender context model as reported in some previous studies (Gutek & Morasch, 1982; Ragins & Scandura, 1995; De Coster et al., 1999). The hotel sector is not distinctively a masculine occupation like manufacturing plants and military sectors (Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Berdahl,

2007) from which samples were studied to provide empirical support for job gender context and sexual harassment relationship. Following from the foregoing discussion, sex composition at hotel work spaces might have limited influence in sexual harassment vulnerability in hotels. However, given the pattern of results observed in the current study, the job/client gender and sexual harassment model will tremendously benefit from further studies in the hotel sector to provide validation or otherwise for the current results.

Sexual Harassment Climate and Reported Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment climate will exist at workplaces where hotel managers do not take complaints of sexual misbehaviours seriously and do not punish those who behave badly in a sexual way towards others and in situations where employees consider reporting of sexual harassment behaviours risky. Employees in hotels where management is perceived to be unsupportive, unresponsive and unsympathetic towards sexual harassment complaints will report higher frequency of sexual harassment because there are no negative consequences for perpetrators. On the other hand, workplaces that take sexual misbehaviours seriously and punish sexual offenders are less risky for victims to report sexual harassment. Such workplaces are considered intolerant to sexual harassment hence workers in such working environments will report low sexual harassment rates. It was therefore expected that sexually harassed respondents will perceive higher sexual harassment climate than those who do not report sexual harassment.

In order to explore the relation between sexual harassment climate and reported sexual harassment, a Mann Whitney U Test was conducted using a

composite score of sexual harassment climate calculated from the three statements that measured sexual harassment climate in the study. Results of the study showed that respondents who were sexually harassed perceived higher (Mdn=1.30, n=268) sexual harassment climate than those who were not sexually harassed (Mdn=1.28, n=271). However, the difference was not statistically significant, $U=32733$, $z=-.422$, $p=.673$. Based on the Mann Whitney U Test, it appears perceived sexual harassment climate is less influential in affecting the likelihood of an employee being sexually harassed. The perceived sexual harassment climate was found to be the same for both respondents who claimed they were sexually harassed as well as those who said they were not sexually harassed. For instance, tying in the results regarding the relationships between department and perceived climate for sexual harassment, and sexual harassment incidence rates showed that housekeeping employees who perceived higher sexual harassment climate as reported earlier (Table 16) rather reported lower levels of sexual harassment (Table 32).

This finding is contradictory to several previous studies (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Glomb et al., 1997; Hesson-McInnis & Fitzgerald, 1997; Gruber, 1998; Willness et al., 2007) that have concluded that perceived climate for sexual harassment is a strong antecedent of sexual harassment. A plausible explanation for the lack of support for the hypothesized relationship between sexual climate and reported sexual harassment could be attributed to the inherent sexualized and eroticised nature of the hotel environment (Pritchard & Morgan, 2006). In this context, there is tacit tolerance of sexualised behaviours by both workers and management to the extent that most workers

do not consider reporting sexual misbehaviours as a first choice coping strategy. In this regard, issues about risk of reporting, management action or inaction on sexual harassment issues might not generally be relevant to hospitality workers hence the lack of association between perceived climate for sexual harassment and sexual harassment experiences.

Sexual Harassment Policy and Reported Incidence Rate

The development of sexual harassment policy has been advocated as one of the strategic measures that will help reduce the incidence of sexual harassment in workplaces. Based on this, it was predicted that workers in hotels without sexual harassment policies would report higher rates of harassment than those in workplaces that have sexual harassment policies. As shown in Table 52, respondents who indicated availability of sexual harassment policy at their workplaces reported higher exposure to harassment than those working at hotels with policies.

Table 52: Sexual Harassment Policy and Sexual Harassment

Behaviour	Response	Sexual Harassment Policy		χ^2 Value
		Yes	No	
Sexual harassment	No	48.4	54.1	p> .198
	Yes	51.6	45.9	1.65
United Sexual Attention	No	56.4	60.3	p> .356
	Yes	43.6	39.7	.85

Table 52 Continued

Sexual Coercion	No	76.9	85.8	P<.007*
	Yes	23.1	14.2	7.16
Crude Sexual Behaviour	No	59.7	65.9	p>.133
	Yes	40.3	34.1	2.25
Gender Harassment	No	74.5	82.7	P<.021*
	Yes	25.5	17.3	18.21

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.05

Of the respondents self-reporting sexual harassment experiences, most (51.6%) were likely to claim availability of sexual harassment policy in their hotel workplaces compared with those without sexual harassment policy (45.9%). However, this difference was not statistically significant. Similarly, in the case of unwanted sexual attention and crude sexual behaviour, quite surprisingly, respondents who said sexual harassment policies existed in their hotels rather reported higher proportions of sexual harassment incidence rate compared to respondents without sexual harassment policies at their hotels even though the differences were not statistically significant. However, regarding sexual coercion and gender harassment, respondents working in hotels with sexual harassment policy reported higher (23.1%) incidence of sexual coercion than those without sexual harassment policy (14.%)

Interestingly, a bivariate analysis using Chi Square test of independence between availability of sexual harassment policy and subjective sexual harassment rate (direct measure) revealed a statistically significant difference (Table 53). More (39.9%) respondents who worked in hotels with sexual harassment policy self-labelled themselves as victims of sexual

harassment than employees in hotels without sexual harassment policy (26.3%).

Table 53: Sexual Harassment Policy and Sexual Harassment (Direct Measure)

	Have you ever been sexually harassed in the past one year while working in this hotel?		Sig.
	Yes %	No %	
Availability of Sexual Harassment Policy			.001
• Yes	39.9%	60.1%	
• No	26.3%	73.7%	

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Taken together, the results regarding sexual harassment policy and sexual harassment incidence rate seems to suggest that the mere availability of policy in the hotels does not necessarily insulate workers against sexual harassment. Other studies (Agrusa et al., 2002; de Haas, Timmerman, Hoing, Zaagsma & Vanwesenbeeck, 2010) have reported similar findings. A plausible explanation for the finding could be that availability of sexual harassment policy creates awareness among employees and for that matter are able to identify behaviours that constitute sexual harassment hence the reportage of higher frequency of sexual harassment compared with workers in hotels without sexual harassment policy.

Subjective Economic Dependence on Tips and Sexual Harassment

Mann-Whitney U Test was conducted to assess the relationship between the degree of economic dependence on tipping and sexual harassment victimization. To conduct this test, the two statements that measured the degree of economic dependency on tipping were constituted into a composite score. Economic dependence median score (Mdn=1.61, n=267) for respondents who were sexually harassed was higher than respondents who were not sexually harassed (Mdn=1.51, n=272). However the difference was not statistically significant, $U=3367$, $z=-1.60$, $p=.108$. This result suggests that sexual harassment vulnerability is not influenced by dependence on tips from guests.

Based on the reasoning that the dependency on tipping might differ by department of affiliation defined by the extent to which an employee has contact with guests or not, separate Mann-Whitney Tests were conducted by departments in order to find out whether department of affiliation will influence the association between economic dependency on tipping and sexual harassment. In the Food and Beverage department, respondents who reported sexual harassment asserted higher (Mdn=1.82, n=59) dependency on tipping than those who were not sexually harassed (Mdn=1.48, n=46), $U=932$, $z=-3.13$, $p=.002$. Conversely, in the case of respondents who identified themselves as administrative staff, economic dependence on tipping did not differ between those who were sexually harassed (Mdn=1.25, n=42) and respondents who were not (Mdn=1.26, n=46), $U=950$, $z=-.156$, $p=.876$. Similarly, no statistical significance results were recorded for respondents selected from the front office ($U=3126$, $z=-.826$, $p=.409$); housekeeping

($U=1461$, $z=-.918$, $p=.359$) and kitchen ($U=336$, $z=-1.63$, $p=.101$) departments.

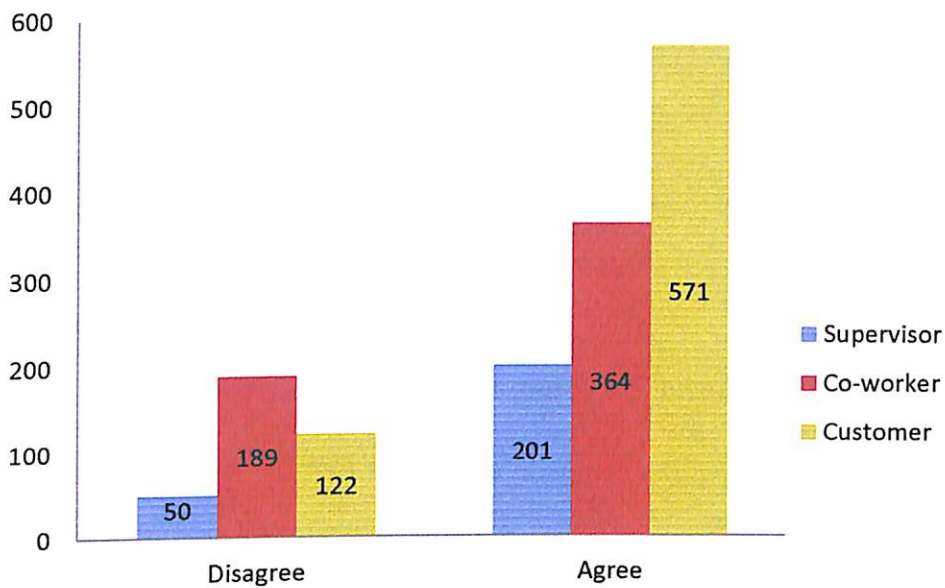
The inference to be drawn from the foregoing results is that, the data showed that the degree of an employees' subjective economic dependence on tips is associated with the frequency of sexual harassment victimisation of respondents working in the food and beverage department. To explain this association, the economic dependency and domestic violence model will be useful in the context of economic dependency on tips and sexual harassment victimisation. Economic dependency is the extent to which one relies on another for financial support. It also describes situations in which one member of a dual interaction has exclusive (or near-exclusive) control over financial resources (Woffordt, Mihalic, & Menard, 1994; Alvi & Selbee, 1997).

Subjective economic dependency is a person's subjective perception of financial reliance or vulnerability (Kalmus & Straus, 1982). In the field of domestic violence, many empirical studies validate the economic dependency and increased risk of abuse association (Woffordt et al., 1994; Rusbult & Martz, 1995; Basu & Famoye, 2004). In the context of the current study, hotel employees' subjective perception of financial reliance on tips from guests will lead to tolerance of sexually harassing behaviours and consequently a higher frequency of reported sexual harassment incidence rates. Therefore, in the hotel industry, economic dependency on tips is a significant risk factor to sexual harassment. This finding therefore provides quantitative and empirical confirmation of the hunch of Mkono (2010) on the impact of tipping culture on the incidence of sexual harassment in the hotel industry. However, the

extent of influence will depend on affiliated department. Food and beverage employees are in constant interaction with guests as they provide food and drinks and more likely to receive more tips from guests compared with workers in other departments.

Dependency on Tips and Perpetrator of Sexual Harassment

Figure 14 presents results regarding perpetrators of sexual harassment and the statement “my income will not be sufficient for my upkeep without tips from guests”. Respondents who agreed with this statement identified guests as being the lead perpetrators (571 or 50%) of sexually harassing behaviours against them whereas those in opposition with the statement were mostly sexually harassed by co-workers (189 or 52.3%). Perceived economic dependency on tips means exposure to sexually harassing behaviours of guests and tolerance and consequently higher risk of sexual harassment.



Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Figure 14: Dependence on Tips and Perpetrator

Reactions to Sexual Harassment

Victims' reactions to sexually harassing behaviours are presented in Table 54.

Table 54: Reported Reactions to Sexual Harassment

Reaction	Responses	
	N	Percent
Ignored the behaviour	187	67.4
Tried to avoid the person	166	59.1
Tried to stay away from the person	161	57.6
Asked the person to stop	156	55.4
Didn't do anything about it	117	42.4
Threatened to report	115	40.9

Table 54 Continued

Discussed the behaviour with co-workers	111	39.9
Assumed it wasn't anything serious	98	34.8
Reported to my supervisor/manager	91	32.6
Considered the behaviour to be a joke	91	32.2
Pretended as though it did not bother me	85	30.4
Discussed the behaviour with friends and family members	84	30.1
Harshly spoke to or warned the person	80	28.3
Slapped, hit, pushed the person	59	21.4
Requested transfer to another department	56	20.3
Blamed myself	54	19.2
Played along/put up with the behaviour	49	17.8
Total	1760	629.7

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 **Respondents could indicate multiple reactions*

As has been the case of prior research (Gruber & Smith, 1995; Cochran et al., 1997; Kisa et al., 2002; Norman et al., 2012) respondents in the study frequently used coping strategies relating to avoidance/denial: “ignoring the behaviour” (67.4%), “tried to avoid the person” (59.1%), and “tried to stay away from the person” (57.6%). The only confrontation/negotiation related reaction in the top five most occurring coping strategies was found to be “asked the person to stop” (55.4%). The least preferred response strategies, in descending order, were “harshly spoke to or warned the person” (28.3%), “slapped, hit, push the person” (21.4%), “requested for transfer to another department (20.3%)”, “blamed myself (19.2%)” and “played along/put-up

with the behaviour” (17.8%). Most victims of sexual harassment in the study did not consider playing along with the sexually harassing situation an appropriate response strategy nor indulge in self-blame. This might be an indication of their intolerance of sexual harassment in their hotels. However, respondents preferred threats to report behaviour (40.9%) to actual reporting (32.6%) for remedial action. In the qualitative component of the study, out of nine research participants who self-labelled their experiences sexual harassment, only three made formal complaints to either managers or supervisors. This lack of interest of victims to report their experiences found in the current study is similar to that found in previous studies (Worsfold & McCann, 2000; Nkomo, 2010; Norman et al., 2012).

For reasons of retaliation with possible unpleasant job consequences, victims of sexual harassment in the study least preferred lodging formal complaints with management. Furthermore, it was revealed during the qualitative interviews that some research participants did not report sexual harassment incidence because management of the hotels would not act on their complaints because managers would not want to lose their guests. This belief that the hotel was more interested in responding to guests’ demands more than to those of the employees mirrors the findings of Aksonnit (2014). The non-reporting behaviour of victims on the conviction that nothing will be done about complaints in the current study has been reported in earlier studies (Cortina, 2004; Cortina & Wasti, 2005). In support of this viewpoint, another research participant recounts a manager’s response to her complaints:

He said to me that in this hotel work, I must know how to handle regular and rich guests.

32 year old female restaurant staff

Though not commonly used by sexual harassment victims (Aksonnit, 2014), one participant intimated reporting sexual harassment incidence to the Ghana Police Service since the alleged perpetrator of the harassing behaviour was the general manager of the hotel. Reporting sexual harassment cases to organisations outside the institution of work is a rare occurrence. The research participant resorted to reporting to an external organisation because the incidence involved the head of the hotel and do not see how she could get redress from the subordinates of the general manager if she reported to her direct supervisor or other division managers.

Results of the interviews with the research participants revealed the use of social coping strategies such as requesting the presence of colleagues in anticipation of having to deal with potential sexual harassment situations when coming into contact with either guests or co-workers they perceived might harass them. One of the participants amply demonstrated this coping strategy as follows:

He requested for room service however, in view of his previous harassing behaviour, I sought the company of a colleague when I was going to his room. After knocking on the door, he opened the door for me but he was naked. After realizing that I was in the company of another colleague, he ran into the bathroom. The presence of my colleague helped to avert a potentially harassing situation.

36 year old female restaurant staff

During the interviews, one striking social coping strategy of involving a spouse was revealed. According to a married female participant, following a

persistent sexual harassment from a guest without action on a complaint, she reported the situation to her husband who decided to confront the manager of the hotel about the situation. The intervention of the husband led to the expulsion of the guest from the hotel.

Gender and Reactions to Sexual Harassment

Results of a Chi-square test for independence conducted to explore gender differences in reaction to sexually harassing situations are presented in Table 55. Male and female victims differed significantly in only three out of the 16 reactions measured in the study. More females (66.9%) significantly than males (48.0%) were likely to use “Tried to stay away from the person” as a choice of reaction to sexually harassing situations ($\chi^2 (1,254) =9.10, p=0.003$).

Table 55: Gender and Reactions to Sexual Harassment

Reaction	Response	% of respondents		χ^2
		Male	Female	
Ignored the behaviour	Yes	63.9	72.6	.143
	No	36.1	27.4	
Tried to avoid the person	Yes	54.5	63.4	.155
	No	45.5	36.6	
Asked the person to stop	Yes	52.0	60.1	.201
	No	48.0	39.9	
Didn't do anything about it	Yes	49.5	38.8	.089
	No	50.5	61.2	

Table 55 Continued

	No	50.5	61.2	
Tried to stay away from the person	Yes	48.0	66.9	
	No	52.0	33.1	.003*
Pretended as though it did not bother me	Yes	39.6	25.8	
	No	60.4	74.2	.020*
Assumed it wasn't anything serious	Yes	40.0	35.2	
	No	60.0	64.8	.440
Reported to my supervisor/manager	Yes	37.5	31.9	
	No	62.5	68.1	.358
Threatened to report	Yes	36.5	46.6	
	No	63.5	53.4	.110
Discussed the behaviour with co-workers	Yes	36.5	45.1	
	No	63.5	54.9	.176
Considered the behaviour to be a joke	Yes	35.1	31.5	
	No	64.9	68.5	.554
Played along/put up with the behaviour	Yes	32.3	11.3	
	No	67.7	88.8	.000*
Discussed the behaviour with friends and family members	Yes	28.1	33.7	
	No	71.9	66.3	.348
Harshly spoke to or warned the person	Yes	25.0	32.3	
	No	75.0	67.7	.215
Blamed myself	Yes	24.7	17.4	
	No	75.3	82.6	.159
Requested transfer to another department	Yes	17.7	23.5	
	No	82.3	76.5	.276
Slapped, hit, pushed the person	Yes	17.7	25.3	
	No	82.3	74.7	.157

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.05 **p<.01

However, males (39.6%) were more likely than females (25.8%) to “pretend that the sexually harassing episode did not bother them” (χ^2 (1,254)

=5.40, $p=0.020$). This choice of reaction emphasizes a display of lack of emotional response that conforms to the stereotypical masculinity behaviour of men. Furthermore, results of the Chi-square test indicated that males were more (32.3%) likely than females (11.3%) to “play along or put up with the behaviour” ($\chi^2(1, 254) = 17.16, p=0.000$). As pointed out in the literature, men have the propensity to view social sexual behaviours as flattery and it is therefore not surprising that male victims in the study chose such a reaction strategy. This confirms the view expressed in previous studies that males are comparatively more tolerant of sexually harassing situations than females and less likely to label social sexual behaviours as sexual harassment (Blumenthal, 1998; O’Connor, 1998; Rotundo et al., 2001).

CHAPTER EIGHT

ANTECEDENTS AND JOB-RELATED OUTCOMES OF SEXUAL HARASSMENT

Introduction

Following bivariate analysis conducted in the earlier sessions of the study, this chapter presents results of a multivariate analysis conducted to simultaneously examine the influence of personal characteristics, job/client gender context, sexual harassment and dependence on tipping to predict sexual harassment vulnerability of employees in hotels in Accra. First, results of a hierarchical logistic regression involving the entire respondents of the study are presented. Secondly, findings of direct logistic regression conducted separately for male and female subgroups of the sample are presented. Separate direct logistic regression models were conducted for male and female respondents in order to find out whether the predictor variables will operate separately for male and female respondents.

This chapter presents results relating to the impact of sexual harassment and perceived perception of sexual harassment climate on work satisfaction and its facets of supervisor, co-worker and guest satisfaction. The effects of sexual harassment on turnover intentions and organisational commitment are presented. Furthermore, investigation of the influence of perceived sexual harassment climate on job-related outcomes of job satisfaction, turnover intentions and respondents' commitment concludes the chapter.

Determinants of Sexual Harassment

Hierarchical logistic regression was performed to assess the impact of personal characteristics, job/client gender context, organisational climate and dependence on tips on the likelihood that respondents would report that they had been sexually harassed. Four successive models were tested to determine the best combination of predictor variables for sexual harassment. The results for all the four models predicting sexual harassment are presented in Table 57. The first model of the hierarchical logistic regression used personal vulnerability factors such as gender, age, education, marital status, job tenure, department and class of hotel to predict the likelihood of respondents being sexually harassed.

Results of the first model comprising the personal vulnerability factors were statistically significant, ($\chi^2(13,430) = 76.53, p = 0.000$) indicating that the model was able to distinguish between respondents who reported and those who did not report sexual harassment. The model as a whole explained between 16.3 percent (Cox and Snell R square) and 21.7 percent (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in sexual harassment, and correctly classified 66 percent of cases. As shown in Table 56, four of the variables were found to be significant predictors of sexual harassment after controlling for all other variables in the model: gender, job tenure, department and class of hotel. The likelihood of males reporting that they had been sexually harassed was approximately 0.33 less compared to females. In other words, female respondents were about 67 percent more likely to be sexually harassed compared to male respondents. This finding is a confirmation of the bivariate analysis earlier reported in this study.

Job tenure was found to be another significant predictor of sexual harassment. Respondents who had worked between one to five years were about 2.68 times more likely to report that they had been sexually harassed compared to those with less than a year work experience in their respective hotels as of the time of the survey. Concerning the department of work, the odds ratio of respondents working in the housekeeping department reporting that they had been sexually harassed was 0.33 times less than respondents in the Food and Beverage department was. This result suggests that the frequency of being sexually harassed for housekeeping staff was lower compared to those in the food and beverage department. Class of hotel was found to be a strong predictor of sexual harassment. Respondents working in the 3 star hotel facilities were found to be about 0.33 times less likely to report that they had been sexually harassed compared to respondents working in budget/guesthouse facilities. Again, the odds of reporting sexual harassment for 1 & 2 star accommodation facilities was about 0.42 times less than budget/guesthouse respondents.

Table 56 Continued

<i>Job Tenure</i>												
<1 year (ref)												
1-5years	.98	.31	2.68* ⁱ	1.04	.32	2.85*	1.07	.32	2.92*	1.05	.32	2.86*
>5 or more	.60	.44	1.83	.70	.45	2.03	.77	.46	2.17	.75	.46	2.13
<i>Department</i>												
<i>Housekeeping (ref)</i>												
Administration	.60	.36	1.82	.58	.37	1.80	.65	.38	1.91	.74	.39	2.10
Kitchen	.43	.38	1.54	.49	.39	1.63	.50	.39	1.65	.57	.40	1.78
Food and Beverage	.92	.33	2.51*	.98	.35	2.67*	.99	.34	2.69*	.98	.34	2.68*
Front Office	.73	.30	2.08*	.81	.30	2.26*	.84	.31	2.33*	.88	.31	2.41*
<i>Class of hotel</i>												
<i>Budget/Guesthouse (ref)</i>												
1&2 star	-0.86	.30	.42*	-0.83	.31	.43*	-0.88	.32	.41*	-0.86	.32	.42*
3 star	-1.19	.35	.33**	-1.26	.33	.28**	-1.40	.34	.24**	-1.37	.35	.25**
4&5 star	-0.35	.35	.70	-0.52	.37	.59	-0.57	.37	.56	-0.53	.38	.58

*p<.05 **p<.01

Table 56 Continued

Variable	Model 1			Model 2			Model 3			Model 4			
	B	SE	OR	B	SE	OR	B	SE	OR	B	SE	OR	
Sex mix at hotel													
Male-Dominated (ref)													
Gender-Neutral		.35	.37	1.42	.34	.37	1.41	.35	.37	1.42	.36	1.42	
Female-Dominated		.50	.35	1.65	.50	.36	1.65	.50	.36	1.65	.36	1.65	
Sex mix at department													
Male-Dominated (ref)													
Gender- Neutral		-.84	.44	.43	-.78	.44	.45	-.82	.44	.43	.44	.43	
Female-Dominated		.02	.34	1.02	.01	.34	1.01	.01	.34	1.01	.34	1.01	
Sex mix of guests													
Male-Dominated (ref)													
Gender-Neutral		-.03	.27	.96	-.04	.27	.97	-.02	.28	1.02	.28	1.02	
Female-Dominated		.31	.55	1.37	.24	.55	1.28	.29	.55	1.34	.55	1.34	
Sexual Harassment													
Climate													
Tips													
											.27	.25	1.31

Table 56 Continued
Constant

Chi-Square	76.53	8.56	2.8	5.85
-2 Log Likelihood	519.34	510.77	507.91	506.77
Cox & Snell R Sq.	.163	.180	.185	.187
Nagelkerke R. Sq.	.217	.239	.247	.250

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

*p<.05 **p<.01

In the second step, factors relating to job/client gender (sex mix composition at the respondents' hotel, department as well as sex composition of clients to the hotels) context were added to the model. However, the block model was not statistically significant, ($\chi^2 (16, N=430) = 8.56, p > 0.05$) but the full model was statistically significant, ($\chi^2 (19, N= 430) = 85.09, p \leq 0.000$), explaining between 18.0 (Cox and Snell R square) and 23.9 percent (Nagelkerke R squared) of the variance in sexual harassment. The inclusion of job/client gender context related variables led to an improvement in the explanatory power of the model by only between 1.7 percent and 2.2 percent. Just as in the first model, gender, department, job tenure and class of hotel continued to be the only significant contributors to the model. Most importantly, the results of the second model indicate that the likelihood of respondents reporting sexual harassment is not determined by the gender composition in the hotels, departments as well as the gender composition of clients to the hotels. This finding is contrary to expectation as reported in previous studies.

As shown in Table 56, at the third step of the hierarchical logistic regression, sexual harassment climate was added to the model. The block of sexual harassment climate was not statistically significant, ($\chi^2 (1, N= 430) = 2.86, p > 0.05$). However, the full model was found to be statistically significant, ($\chi^2 (19, N= 430) = 85.09, p \leq 0.000$) explaining between 18.5 percent (Cox & Snell R^2) and 24.7 percent (Nagelkerke R^2) variance in sexual harassment. Just as in the preceding models, gender, department, job tenure and class of hotel remained the only significant predictors of sexual harassment. Job/client gender context and perceived sexual harassment

climate were not significant predictors of sexual harassment. This finding is incongruous with the conclusions of previous studies. Probably, in the hotel working environment, perception of sexual harassment climate is immaterial to vulnerability to sexual harassment due to the pervasiveness of the phenomenon in the hospitality workspaces.

In order to assess the power of dependence of tipping to predict sexual harassment, the fourth model included dependence on tipping. Against expectation, the block model of tipping was not statistically significant holding all other variables constant, (χ^2 (1, N= 430) =1.13, $p>=0.05$). The full model was statistically significant, (χ^2 (21, N= 430) =89.09, $p<=0.01$) explaining between 18.7 percent (Cox & Snell R^2) and 25 percent (Nagelkerke R^2) variance in sexual harassment. The predictive power of the overall model improved marginally by about 0.2 percent and 0.3 percent with the addition of dependence of tipping variable.

Results of separate logistic regression conducted for female and male subgroups of the sample are presented in Table 57.

Table 57: Personal Characteristics, Job/Client Gender Context, Sexual Harassment Climate, and Tipping Correlates of Sexual Harassment

Variable	Female =206			Male =234		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	OR	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	OR
Age						
29 or less(ref)						
30 or more	-.55	.40	.57	-.24	.40	.78

Table 57 Continued

Marital Status						
Unmarried (ref)						
Married	-.84	.41	.43	-.14	.42	.86
Age*Marital status	-1.01	.45	.36*			
Education						
Secondary(ref)						
Tertiary	-.49	.35	.60	.40	.34	1.50
Job Tenure						
<1 year (ref)						
1-5years	.94	.43	2.56*1.36	1.23	.52	3.44*
>5 or more	.31	.64		.98	.66	2.68
Department						
Housekeeping (ref)						
Administration	.87	.63	2.40	.81	.56	2.24
Kitchen	-.34	.54	.70	1.33	.64	3.79*
Food and Beverage	.14	.50	1.16	1.73	.51	5.68*
Front Office	1.12	.46	3.09*	.96	.48	2.61*
Class of hotel						
Budget/Guesthouse						
(ref)	-.11	.53	.89	-1.29	.42	.27*
1&2 star	-.92	.55	.39	-1.61	.48	.19*
3 star	-.32	.57	.72	-.99	.52	.37
4&5 star						

Table 57 Continued

Sex mix at hotel						
Male-Dominated (ref)						
Gender-Neutral	.09	.53	1.09	.31	.54	1.36
Female-Dominated	-.48	.52	.61	.91	.50	2.48
Sex mix at department						
Male-Dominated (ref)						
Gender-Neutral	-.65	.62	.51	-.90	.67	.40
Female-Dominated	.53	.46	1.71	.10	.53	1.11
Sex mix of guests						
Male-Dominated (ref)		.40	1.05	.00	.40	1.00
Gender-neutral	.04	.40	1.05	.00	.40	1.00
Female-Dominated	-.24	.88	.78	.58	.71	1.79
Sexual Harassment	.18	.24	1.20	.22	.22	1.25
Climate						
Tips	.28	.39	1.33	.49	.35	1.63
Constant						
Chi-Square	31.39		40.67			
-2 Log Likelihood	240.91		271.14			
Cox & Snell R Sq.	.141		.160			
Nagelkerke R. Sq.	.193		.217			

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 *p<.05 **p<.01

Following the insignificant contribution of job/client gender context, sexual harassment climate and dependence on tips of making statistically significant contribution as a block model as well as to the general model, all

the independent variables were entered into the model simultaneously without conducting hierarchical logistic regression. For the female subgroup, a test of the full model versus a model with intercept only was statistically significant, (χ^2 (12, N=201) =32.76, $p<0.05$). The model was able to classify correctly about 71.1 percent of the cases explaining between 14.1 percent (Cox & Snell R^2) and 19.3 percent (Nagelkerke R^2) variance in sexual harassment. Employing a .05 criterion of statistical significance, an interaction between marital status and age, department and job tenure made a statistically significant contribution to predicting sexual harassment of female respondents. The odds ratio for the interaction between marital status and age indicated that when holding all other variables constant, a married female respondent aged 30 or more years is 0.36 times less likely than unmarried female respondents aged 29 or less to report that they have been sexually harassed.

Regarding job tenure, female respondents with between 1 to 5 years work experience were about 2.56 times higher than those with less than a year work experience to report that they have been sexually harassed. Again, female respondents working in the front office department were 3.09 times more likely to experience sexual harassment compared to housekeeping female respondents. Personal characteristics variables of education and class of hotel were not significant predictors of sexual harassment of female respondents. In addition, sex composition dynamics at the hotel, department and client base did not predict vulnerability to sexual harassment. Perceived sexual harassment climate and dependence on tips from guest did not influence reported sexual harassment of female respondents in the study.

In the case of the male subgroup, the full model containing personal characteristics, job /client gender context, sexual harassment climate and dependence on tipping was statistically significant, ($\chi^2 (19, N=234) =40.67, p<0.05$) indicating that the model was able to distinguish between respondents who reported and did not report sexual harassment. The model explained between 16.0 percent (Cox & Snell R^2) and 21.7 percent (Nagelkerke R^2) of the variance in sexual harassment, and correctly classified 67.1 percent of cases.

As shown in Table 56, only three of the independent variables made a unique statistically significant contribution to the model (job tenure, department and class of hotel). Similar to the female subgroup, male respondents with between 1 and 5 years work experience were 3.44 times higher than those with less than a year work experience to report that they had been sexually harassed. The odds ratio of male respondents working in the Food and Beverage department to report sexual harassment was 5.68 times more than their male counterparts in the housekeeping department.

Furthermore, while the front office male respondents were about 2.61 times more likely to report sexual harassment compared with male housekeeping department respondents, the odds of kitchen male respondents reporting sexual harassment were 3.79 more than housekeeping male respondents, controlling for all other predictors in the model. Again, male respondents working in 1 & 2 star accommodation facilities were about 0.27 times less likely to report sexual harassment than their counterparts in budget/guesthouse facilities. Similarly, the odds of 3 star hotel male

respondents to experience sexual harassment were 0.19 times more likely than budget/guesthouse male respondents.

Both age and education were not significant predictors of sexual harassment for both male and female respondents. While marital status was an important significant predictor of sexual harassment in the case of female respondents it was not in the case of male respondents. Class of hotel was significant in predicting sexual harassment of male respondents but not females. For both male and female groups, job/client gender context, sexual harassment climate and dependence on tipping were not significant predictors of sexual harassment just as revealed in the earlier models involving a sample of both male and female respondents. Per the results of the separate logistic regression models for male and female respondents, it appears the personal characteristics of respondents operate separately in predicting sexual harassment of male and female respondents in the study.

Employees in the front office and food and beverage departments are high guest contact employees as they provide services to guests, selling rooms and food and drinks respectively. In addition to dealing with their co-workers, they also come into contact with guests and it is therefore not surprising that respondents in these two departments reported higher sexual harassment over those in the other departments, particularly the housekeeping. Housekeeping staff, especially room attendants, work in guest rooms and they are also vulnerable to sexual harassment, however, the frequency of them being sexually harassed is comparatively lower because they work in the rooms, especially when guests are either out or have checked out. In the case of front

office staff or food and beverage workers, they discharge their services and responsibilities when guests are present in the restaurant or bars.

Results of the qualitative component of the study regarding department workers most vulnerable to sexual harassment are contradictory to the results of the quantitative analysis of the survey. The qualitative research participants identified in descending order food and beverage, housekeeping and front office as the top three departments whose workers are more vulnerable to sexual harassment. Food and beverage department was frequently (17) mentioned by the respondents followed by housekeeping (16) and front office (9). On justifying the perceived vulnerability of the food and beverage staff, the research participants cited the high contact between food and beverage staff and guests as well as the provision of room service. In the view of the participants, the frequent contact between food and beverage employees and guests provides an opportunity for the former to be sexually harassed.

Regarding the vulnerability of the housekeeping staff, the contention of the research participants was that women who perform their core job tasks in the rooms of guests dominate the department. The position of the research participants was that in some cases workers in the department going to clean the rooms of guests come into contact with the guests and this provides an opportunity for sexual harassment due to the privacy provided by guestrooms. The observed contradiction between the quantitative and qualitative results regarding department workers most vulnerable to sexual harassment can be explained by the fact that the quantitative survey measured respondents' exposure to sexually harassing behaviours while in the qualitative interviews,

participants were asked about their perception of department workers most susceptible to sexual harassment.

Sexual Harassment and Job Satisfaction

The effect of sexual harassment on employee job satisfaction was examined using Mann Whitney U Tests (Table 58). Hotel employees who experienced sexually harassing behaviours reported a significantly lower (Mdn=2.64, n=267) overall job satisfaction levels than those who indicated that they were not sexually harassed (Mdn=2.75, n=275), $U=3336$, $z=-2.34$, $p<.05$.

Table 58: Sexual Harassment and Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	Yes	No			P-Value
	Job Satisfaction		U	z	
Overall job satisfaction	2.64	2.75	3336	-2.34	.019*
Satisfaction with co-workers	2.74	2.68	3448	-1.29	.197
Satisfaction with supervisor	2.66	2.69	3523	-.825	.409
Satisfaction with guests	2.77	2.73	3551	-.978	.328

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. * $p<.05$

Suggesting a negative relationship between sexual harassment and work satisfaction, increasing sexual harassment experience results in a decreasing job satisfaction. This finding is in tandem with several others (Glomb et al., 1999; Gettman, 2003; Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2006; Estrada & Berggren, 2009; Nielsen et al., 2010). However, regarding satisfaction with

co-workers, supervisors and guests, sexual harassment does not seem to affect them (Table 58).

Separate Mann-Whitney U tests were conducted for the various subtypes of sexual harassment and overall job satisfaction and its facets to explore variation in the association between job satisfaction and the subtypes of sexual harassment.

Unwanted Sexual Attention and Job Satisfaction

As shown in Table 59, unwanted sexual attention is strongly related to overall job satisfaction but not satisfaction with co-workers, supervisors and guests.

Table 59: Unwanted Sexual Attention and Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	Yes	No	P-Value		
	Job Satisfaction		U	z	
Overall job satisfaction	2.62	2.77	3428	-3.38	.001*
Satisfaction with co-workers	2.73	2.70	3760	-.922	.357
Satisfaction with supervisor	2.64	2.70	3711	-1.27	.201
Satisfaction with guests	2.77	2.74	3840	-.797	.426

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.01

Respondents who reported having experienced unwanted sexual attention indicated lower levels (Mdn=2.62, n=238) of overall job satisfaction

compared with those who did not report experiences of unwanted sexual attention (Mdn=2.77, n=331), $U=3428$, $z=-3.38$, $p<.001$.

Sexual Coercion and Job Satisfaction

Respondents' experience with sexual coercion does not seem to affect overall job satisfaction as well as co-worker and guest satisfaction (Table 60).

Table 60: Sexual Coercion and Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	Yes	No	P-Value		
	Sexual Coercion		U	z	
Overall job satisfaction	2.67	2.71	2471	-.647	.518
Satisfaction with co-workers	2.75	2.70	2400	-.958	.338
Satisfaction with supervisor	2.58	2.70	2263	-2.06	.039*
Satisfaction with guests	2.71	2.77	2443	-1.11	.263

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. * $p<.05$

However, respondents in the study who reported that they experienced sexual coercion were more likely to indicate lower levels (Mdn=2.58, n=108) of satisfaction with their supervisors than those who did not experience sexual coercion (Mdn=2.70, n=467). This result seems to imply that respondents' supervisor satisfaction was negatively affected by sexual coercion. This could mean that the perpetration of sexual coercion by supervisors might have decreased victims' satisfaction with their them. As reported in the earlier parts of the study, supervisors were identified as the second leading perpetrators of sexual coercion after guests.

Crude Sexual Behaviour and Job Satisfaction

Results of a Mann-Whitney U Test conducted to find out whether crude sexual behaviour affects job satisfaction and its facets are illustrated in Table 61. Clearly, respondents who self-reported crude sexual behaviour significantly reported lower (Mdn=2.62, n=212) overall job satisfaction than respondents who did not report experiences with the behaviours (Mdn=2.75, n=349), $U=3304$, $z=-2.71$, $p<0.05$.

Table 61: Crude Sexual Behaviour and Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction	Yes	No	P-Value		
	Job Satisfaction		U	z	
Overall job satisfaction	2.62	2.75	3304	-2.71	.007*
Satisfaction with co-workers	2.70	2.70	3654	-.043	.966
Satisfaction with supervisor	2.61	2.71	3328	-2.30	.021
Satisfaction with guests	2.76	2.75	3698	-.135	.893

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. * $p<.05$

In addition, the results further show that experiences of crude sexual behaviours significantly affected victims' (Mdn=2.61, n=211) supervisor satisfaction than were non-victims (Mdn=2.71, n=348), $U=3328$, $z=-2.30$, $p<0.05$. However, co-worker and guest satisfaction levels were not significantly affected by experiences with crude sexual behaviours (Table 61). This result is somehow surprising given that co-workers and guests were found to be the leading perpetrators of crude sexual behaviour in the study.

Gender Harassment and Job Satisfaction

Following a Mann-Whitney U test, gender harassment appears to be related to overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with supervisor (Table 62). Respondents who self-reported gender harassment were less (Mdn=2.57, n=123), satisfied with their work than respondents who did not report gender harassment (Mdn=2.73, n=449), $U=2384$, $z=-2.95$, $p<.05$.

Table 62: Gender Harassment and Job Satisfaction

	Yes	No			P-Value
Job Satisfaction	Job Satisfaction		U	z	
Overall job satisfaction	2.57	2.73	2384	-2.95	.003*
Satisfaction with co-workers	2.67	2.72	2653	-.835	.404
Satisfaction with supervisor	2.55	2.71	2385	-2.91	.004*
Satisfaction with guests	2.70	2.77	2611	-1.42	.154

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. * $p<.05$

Furthermore, research participants who experienced gender harassment were significantly more likely (Mdn=2.55, n=125) to be dissatisfied with their supervisors than those who did not (Mdn=2.71, n=446), $U=2384$, $z=-2.95$, $p<.05$.

A nonparametric Spearman Rho correlation was used to comprehensively explore the association between sexual harassment and its subtypes and job satisfaction, including the three facets of job satisfaction (Table 63). The correlation coefficients indicate a negative but small evidence

of association between sexual harassment, unwanted sexual attention, crude sexual behaviour, gender harassment and overall job satisfaction.

Table 63: Spearman’s Rho Correlation Matrix among Sexual Harassment, Sexual Harassment Subtypes and Job Satisfaction

	Sexual harassment	United Sexual Attention	Sexual Coercion	Crude Sexual Behaviour	Gender Harassment
Overall job satisfaction	-.101*	-.142**	-.027	-.115**	-.124**
Co-worker satisfaction	.056	.039	.040	-.002	-.035
Supervisor satisfaction	-.036	-.054	-.086*	-.097*	-.122**
Guest satisfaction	.042	.033	-.047	.006	-.060

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). * Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Increasing experience with sexual harassment, unwanted sexual attention, crude sexual behaviour and gender harassment will likely lead to a decreasing overall job satisfaction of the respondents. With statistically significant results, there is small evidence to suggest that hotel workers in Accra who experience sexual harassment, unwanted sexual attention, crude sexual behaviour and gender harassment will have lower levels of overall job

satisfaction than their colleagues who do not experience sexual harassment its subtypes with the exception of sexual coercion. This finding confirms the results of previous studies (Magley et al., 1999; Chan et al., 2008; Estrada & Berggren, 2009) that suggest employees who experience sexual harassment report lower levels of job satisfaction. Furthermore, sexual harassment and sexual coercion do not appear to be related to satisfaction with supervisors (Table 64). However, results of the correlation coefficients show that there is a very weak but statistically significant association between sexual coercion, crude sexual behaviour, gender harassment and supervisor satisfaction. The results further indicate an inverse relationship between gender harassment and supervisor satisfaction. This means that higher levels of exposure to gender harassment will lead to declining satisfaction with supervisors.

Separate nonparametric Spearman Rho correlations were conducted for male and female samples to find out whether job satisfaction and sexual harassment relations will vary for male and female respondents. Spearman Rho correlations coefficients for sexual harassment and job satisfaction for the male sample are reported in Table 64.

Table 64: Spearman's Rho Correlation Matrix among Sexual Harassment and Subtypes with Job Satisfaction (Male Sample)

Job satisfaction and its facets	Sexual harassment and Subtypes				
	Sexual harassment	United Sexual Attention	Sexual Coercion	Crude Sexual Behaviour	Gender Harassment
Overall job satisfaction	-.102	-.160**	-.067	-.158**	-.188**

Table 64 Continued

Satisfaction	.062	.052	.050	.009	-.061
with co- workers					
Satisfaction	-.034	-.053	-.043	-.080	-.084
with supervisor					
Satisfaction	.082	.111	.062	.045	.025
with guests					

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Overall job satisfaction of male respondents is affected by unwanted sexual attention, crude sexual behaviour and gender harassment. The results provide sufficient but weak evidence to show that male respondents who report unwanted sexual attention, crude sexual behaviour and gender harassment will experience lower overall job satisfaction. Clearly, analysis of the correlation coefficients shows that sexual harassment and its subtypes were not related to co-worker, supervisor and guest satisfaction.

Regarding the female sample, unlike their male counterparts, overall job satisfaction of the female respondents was not significantly related to sexual harassment and its subtypes (Table 65). However, just like the male respondents, satisfaction with their co-workers was not significantly affected by sexual harassment, unwanted sexual attention, sexual coercion and gender harassment.

Table 65: Spearman's Rho Correlation Matrix among Sexual Harassment and Subtypes with Job Satisfaction (Female Sample)

Job	Sexual Harassment and Subtypes				
	Sexual Harassment	United Sexual Attention	Sexual Coercion	Crude Sexual Behaviour	Gender Harassment
Overall satisfaction with work	-.064	-.088	.026	-.049	-.064
Satisfaction with co-workers	.053	.039	.052	.002	-.007
Satisfaction with supervisor	-.042	-.069	-.128*	-.100	-.157*
Satisfaction with guests	-.015	-.057	-.135*	-.022	-.126*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

In sharp departure from the reported correlation results for their male colleagues, female respondents' satisfaction with their supervisors was significantly impacted by sexual coercion and gender harassment. In other words, female respondents who experienced sexual coercion and gender harassment were likely to report lower satisfaction with supervisors. Interestingly, there appears to be a relation between some form of sexual harassment and satisfaction with guests. Females' experience of sexual

coercion and gender harassment is inversely related to satisfaction with guests just as has been found in the study of Laband and Lentz (1998).

Sexual Harassment and Turnover Intentions

The effect of sexual harassment on turnover intentions of the respondents was explored using Mann-Whitney U Tests (Table 66). Prior to undertaking these tests, the four statements that measured turnover intentions in the study were constituted into a continuous composite score in order to facilitate the use of the U tests. Since sexual harassment incidence in the workplace creates hostile working environment for employees, it was expected that respondents who report sexual harassment would have higher turnover intentions than those who were not sexually harassed. Respondents reporting sexual harassment indicated higher (Mdn=1.72, n=267) turnover intentions than those who were not sexually harassed (Mdn=1.45, n=273), $U=3285$, $z=-2.10$, $p=.035$.

Table 66: Sexual Harassment and Turnover Intentions

Behaviour	Yes	No			P-Value
	Turnover Intentions		U	Z	
Sexual harassment	1.72	1.45	3285	-2.10	.035*
Unwanted Sexual Attention	1.79	1.44	3469	-2.62	.009*
Sexual Coercion	1.75	1.56	2434	-.984	.325
Crude Sexual Behaviour	1.84	1.45	3184	-3.04	.002*
Gender Harassment	2.01	1.47	2236	-3.58	.000*

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

This result indicates a positive relationship between sexual harassment and turnover intentions as increasing sexual harassment will result in higher turnover intentions thereby confirming the conclusions of previous studies (Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Willness et al., 2007; Merkin, 2008; Swarnalatha, 2013).

Further analysis was conducted to find out whether turnover intentions would be varyingly related to the subtypes of sexual harassment. The median score for those who reported having experienced unwanted sexual attention was higher (Mdn=1.79, n=240) than respondents who did not report unwanted sexual attention (Mdn=1.44, n=329), $U=3469$, $z=-2.62$, $p=.009$. However, sexual coercion did not appear to be related to turnover intentions, $U=2434$, $z=-.984$, $p=.325$. Respondents reporting crude sexual behaviour indicated higher intentions to turnover (Mdn=1.84, n=215) than those who did not experience crude sexual behaviour (Mdn=1.45, n=346), $U=3184$, $z=-3.04$, $p=.002$. Furthermore, respondents who experienced gender harassment indicated higher (Mdn=1.84, n=125) turnover intentions than respondents who did not report gender harassment (Mdn=1.47, n=446), $U=2236$, $z=-3.58$, $p=.000$. The results suggest that gender harassment is relatively strongly related to turnover intentions compared with crude sexual behaviour and unwanted sexual attention. This is not surprising given that gender harassment deals with statements that question the capability of particular gender to perform certain tasks at the workplace. These statements have the propensity to provoke feelings of quitting since gender harassment behaviours inspire a feeling of undesirability among employees who experience such behaviours.

Sexual Harassment and Turnover Intentions by Gender

The study further sought to find out whether the observed relationship between sexual harassment and turnover intentions would be mediated by sex. In line with this objective, separate Mann-Whitney U Tests were conducted for male and female samples. As depicted in Table 67, somehow surprisingly, for the female sample, sexual harassment was not related to turnover intentions.

Table 67: Sexual Harassment and Turnover Intentions by Sex

Sex	Behaviour	Turnover Intentions		U	Z	P-value
		Yes	No			
Female	Sexual harassment	1.70	1.56	6761	-.803	.422
	Unwanted Sexual Attention	1.77	1.51	7825	-1.11	.266
	Sexual Coercion	1.82	1.64	7262	-.647	.518
	Crude Sexual Behaviour	1.80	1.54	7886	-1.39	.163
	Gender Harassment	1.70	1.58	6502	-1.80	.071
Male	Sexual harassment	1.72	1.39	8021	-1.96	.056
	Unwanted Sexual Attention	1.81	1.40	7061	-2.36	.018*
	Sexual Coercion	1.50	1.48	3976	-.40	.689
	Crude Sexual Behaviour	1.81	1.39	6845	-2.40	.016*
	Gender Harassment	2.06	1.41	3785	-3.25	.001*

Source: Fieldwork, 2014 sig. *p<.05

Neither sexual harassment nor any of the four subtypes was related to turnover intentions of female respondents. However, in the case of the male sample, respondents who experienced unwanted sexual attention significantly

reported higher (Mdn=1.81, n=80) turnover intentions compared with their colleagues who did not experience unwanted sexual attention (Mdn=1.40, n=212).

Regarding experiences with crude sexual behaviour, males confronted with this behaviour reported higher (Mdn=1.81, n=81) intentions to turnover than those who did not experience it (Mdn=1.39, n=201). Male respondents who did not experience gender harassment were significantly less (Mdn=1.41, n=248) likely to harbour turnover intentions than those who experienced the behaviour (Mdn=2.06, n=43).

The results suggest that the effect of sexual harassment on turnover intentions is stronger for males than female respondents. This finding is quite surprising, given that previous studies (Fitzgerald et al., 1999; Merkin, 2008) have pointed out that sexually harassed female employees harbour higher turnover intentions. Perhaps, female respondents working in hotels in Accra have come to accept and tolerate sexually harassing behaviours in hotels as a normative behaviour hence might not be forced out of the hotels workspace because of sexual harassment. A plausible explanation for the lack of influence of sexual harassment on the turnover intentions of female respondents in the study might also be explained by the limited job opportunities in Ghana. They will rather consider managing sexual harassment situations instead of abandoning their jobs when they are least certain about seeking another job opportunity.

Sexual Harassment and Organisational Commitment

Results of a Mann-Whitney U Test conducted to investigate the influence of sexual harassment and its subtypes on the organisational commitment of the respondents are presented in Table 69. Following results of previous studies, it was anticipated that respondents who report sexual harassment would indicate lower levels of organisational commitment. However, as shown in Table 66, neither sexual harassment nor the subtypes were found to affect organisational commitment of the respondents.

Table 68: Sexual Harassment and Organisational Commitment

	Yes	No			P-Value
Behaviour	Organisational		U	Z	
	commitment				
Sexual harassment	2.86	2.85	3625	-.134	.893
United Sexual Attention	2.85	2.85	3924	-.161	.872
Sexual Coercion	2.88	2.84	2418	-1.49	.135
Crude Sexual Behaviour	2.84	2.86	3631	-.604	.546
Gender Harassment	2.83	2.86	2682	-.728	.467

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

Even in some instances, the organisational commitment of respondents who reported sexual harassment was higher (Mdn=2.86, n=265) than those who did not experience (Mdn=2.85, n=275) the phenomenon, though statistically insignificant. This finding is contradictory to the conclusions of several previous studies (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007; Chan et al., 2008).

Further analysis was conducted by segregating the respondents by gender to find out whether the effect of sexual harassment experiences on organisational commitment will be different for male and female respondents (Table 70). Just like when the data was not segregated by gender, the results did not provide evidence of a relationship between sexual harassment experiences and organisational commitment of both male and female respondents.

Table 69: Sexual Harassment and Organisational Commitment

Gender		Median scores		U	Z	P-value
		for commitment				
		Yes	No			
Female	Behaviour					
	Sexual harassment	2.85	2.83	7105	-.426	.670
	United Sexual	2.84	2.84	8491	-.161	.872
	Attention					
	Sexual Coercion	2.82	2.89	6860	-1.76	.078
	Crude Sexual	2.85	2.84	8738	-.195	.845
Male	Behaviour					
	Gender Harassment	2.86	2.84	7358	-.394	.694
	Sexual harassment	2.87	2.85	8933	-.345	.730
	United Sexual	2.86	2.85	8476	-.060	.952
	Attention					
	Sexual Coercion	2.87	2.85	4099	-.412	.680
	Crude Sexual	2.85	2.86	8002	-.299	.765
	Behaviour					
	Gender Harassment	2.79	2.86	4721	-1.29	.196

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

The results seem to suggest that the organisational commitment of respondents is not negatively impacted by sexual harassment. Sexual harassment does not affect the commitment levels of hotel employees in Accra.

Sexual Harassment Climate and Job-Related Outcomes

As shown in Table 70, a positive significant correlation was found between perceived sexual harassment climate and turnover intentions, $r=.45$, $p<0.01$. Respondents who perceived their workplaces to be tolerant of Sexual harassment were most likely to harbour higher turnover intentions.

Table 70: Spearman Correlations between Sexual Harassment Climate and Overall, Co-Worker, Supervisor and Guest Satisfaction, Turnover Intentions and Organisational Commitment

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Sexual harassment	-	-.15**	-.25**	-.26**	-.23**	.45**	-.30**
Climate							
Works Satisfaction	-.15**	-	.38**	.45**	.26**	-.38**	.49**
Co-worker satisfaction	-.25**	.38**	-	.53**	.41**	-.30**	.25**
Supervisor satisfaction	-.26**	.45**	.53**	-	.52**	-.33**	.34**
Guest satisfaction	-.23**	.26**	.41**	.52**	-	-.22**	.24**
Turnover Intentions	.45**	-.38**	-.30**	-.33**	-.22**	-	-.43**
Organisational	-.30**	.49**	.25**	.34**	.24**	-.43**	-
Commitment							

Source: Fieldwork, 2014

* $p<.05$ ** $p<.01$

Results of the analysis further depict a negative significant correlation ($r = -.30, p < 0.01$) between organisational commitment and perceived sexual harassment climate. Even though a weak association, the finding indicates that as hotel employees perceived higher sexual harassment climate their organisational commitment towards the organisation decreases.

The association between sexual harassment climate and the four dimensions of job satisfaction was examined through a bivariate correlation analysis and the correlation coefficients are reported in Table 70. Sexual harassment climate was negatively correlated with all the four dimensions of job satisfaction albeit low correlation coefficients. Perceived higher levels of sexual harassment climate will result in a decreased supervisor satisfaction ($r = -.26, p < 0.01$). Similarly, satisfaction with co-workers also recorded a negative relationship with sexual harassment climate ($r = -.25, p < 0.01$). The third highest correlation coefficient was recorded for guest satisfaction ($r = -.25, p < 0.01$) while the lowest coefficient of the four dimensions of job satisfaction was overall job satisfaction ($r = -.15, p < 0.01$).

The association between sexual harassment climate and job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover intentions is consistent with extant theory on psychological climate for sexual harassment, which proffers that working in an environment that is perceived to be tolerant of sexually harassing behaviours negatively affects employee job outcomes (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Willness et al., 2007; Chan et al., 2008; Estrada et al., 2011). For instance, Fitzgerald et al. (1999) found that organisational climate perceptions were correlated with ratings of satisfaction with work, co-workers, and supervisors among U.S. military personnel. The observed association

between sexual harassment climate and job-related outcomes is particularly a noteworthy contribution of the study, as the majority of previous studies examining the relationship between perceived sexual harassment climate and employee job outcomes have been limited to military samples and women (Fitzgerald et al., 1997; Estrada et al., 2011). To the best of my knowledge, this study is among the first studies to document the generalisability of the sexual harassment climate-work outcome relationships to the hospitality industry within a Ghanaian context.

CHAPTER NINE

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Introduction

This chapter provides a synthesis of the issues investigated in the study based on the accumulated empirical evidence provided by the research participants. Particular attention is paid to the objectives and research questions of the study as well as the procedures and methods used to accomplish the objectives. Significant findings of the study and conclusions thereof are also discussed. The chapter also highlights the theoretical and practical implications of the results as well as the limitations of the study and direction for future studies.

Summary of the Research

In the absence of empirical research on the incidence of sexual harassment in Ghana's hotel sector, this study was undertaken to partially fill this lacuna in the literature. The general objective of the study was to examine the organisational antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment of hotel employees in Accra metropolis, focussing on its impact on job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment. The specific objectives of the study were to:

- Investigate the prevalence of sexual harassment in hotel employees' working life;
- Highlight the relationship between employees' personal characteristics and sexual harassment vulnerability;

- Examine the extent to which job and client gender contexts predict sexual harassment levels of hotel employees;
- Explore the influence of organisational context on Sexual harassment victimisation of hotel employees;
- Ascertain the influence of perceived dependence on tipping on Sexual harassment vulnerability;
- Examine the impact of Sexual harassment on employees' satisfaction with their jobs, co-workers, supervisors and clients;
- Assess the effect of Sexual harassment on employees turnover intentions;
- Evaluate the impact of Sexual harassment on organisational commitment of hotel employees.

Given that sexual harassment is both an objective and subjective phenomenon, it was considered more appropriate to study the sexual harassment of hotel employees in Accra using a mixed methodology approach within the paradigmatic framework. In this regard, self-administered questionnaires and interview guides were used to collect data from 583 respondents for the quantitative component of the study and 33 research participants for the qualitative part of the study. A multistage sampling approach was utilised in the selection of the respondents. A combination of univariate, bivariate and multivariate statistical tools were used to analyse the data facilitated by SPSS version 22.0. The qualitative data was examined via the use of content analysis.

Main Findings of the Study

Within the context of the results and discussion, the key findings of the study are:

- a) Regarding the prevalence of sexual harassment, clearly the results of the study indicate that the phenomenon frequently occurs in hotels in Accra with almost half (49.4%) of employees being exposed to sexually harassing behaviours, but, more females (62.4%) than males (37.6%) will be sexually harassed. Nearly half of hotel workers who are exposed to some form of sexual behaviour will not label their experiences as sexual harassment. The data finds support for the assertion in the literature that sexual harassment rates will vary as a function of measurement approach, with direct measurement yielding lower rates (33%) than indirect measures (49.4%). Female hotel workers are more (42.3%) likely than male (24.6%) employees to label their experiences as sexual harassment. The results of the study show that sexual harassment is not limited to females but a sizeable proportion of male hotel workers are confronted with the phenomenon.
- b) Unwanted sexual attention behaviours such as “requests for dates” “touching in uncomfortable way” and “sexual discussions or comment on sex life” are frequent occurrences in hotels in Accra. On the other hand, behaviours relating to sexual coercion and gender harassment are rarely perpetrated against hotel workers. Particularly interesting result is the rarity of gender harassment in the study which runs contradictory to previous studies. Gender harassment appears not to be common in hotel work settings in Accra.

- c) Customers are the main source of sexual harassment in hotels in Accra as they usually initiate behaviours relating to unwanted sexual attention, sexual coercion and gender harassment. However, co-workers frequently perpetrate behaviours pertaining to crude sexual behaviour. But supervisors tended to “treat workers differently because of their sex”. By departments, co-workers are the leading perpetrators of sexual harassment in administration and kitchen departments. However, in the Food and Beverage and front office departments, customers are the main harassers. In lowly rated hotels, customers pose the greatest risk for sexual harassment while co-workers initiate sexually harassing behaviours in mid-range to luxury hotels. Interesting conclusions of these results are that the type of perpetrator of sexual harassment in hotels will vary by the department and the class of the accommodation facility.
- d) Being young and an unmarried female hotel employee signifies sexual harassment in hotel workplaces. However, susceptibility of male hotel employees to sexual harassment is not related to age and marital status. Data for the study did not provide support for the hypothesised association between education and sexual harassment vulnerability. This is not surprising given the inconsistency that surrounds previous findings on the association between the two variables. However, an interesting observation is noted in the logistic models for male and female samples regarding the opposing direction of beta coefficients for the variable, education. Though not statistically significant, this result seems to suggest that female employees with higher education reported lower levels of sexual harassment compared to their colleagues with secondary education while

in the case of the male respondents, those with higher education rather reported higher frequency of sexual harassment.

- e) In respect with job tenure and vulnerability to sexual harassment, hotel workers with less than a year stay at the workplace will report lower levels of sexual harassment while the phenomenon peaks with 1 to 5 years work experience but will plunge beyond 5 years. Females who work in the front office department in hotels in Accra are more likely to be sexually harassed compared to their colleagues in the housekeeping department. Being high guest contact staff, it is not surprising that front office females are relatively more susceptible to sexual harassment. Though not statistically significant, with a negative beta value (see Table 56), female kitchen employees appeared to be the least vulnerable to sexual harassment. In the case of the male employees, food and beverage employees are exposed to more sexually related behaviours followed by kitchen staff and front office in descending order with housekeeping male workers being the least vulnerable to sexually harassing behaviours.
- f) Regarding the influence of class of hotel on sexual harassment vulnerability, male workers in low rated accommodation facilities in Accra are more susceptible to sexual harassment than their colleagues in 3, 2 and 1 star facilities. This notwithstanding, it was expected that workers in 4 & 5 star hotels will rather record significantly low levels of sexual harassment but the results did not provide support for this position. Even more surprising is the model for the female workers, the results indicate that sexual harassment of female hotel workers in Accra is not discriminated by class of hotel. By implication, it appears the class of hotel

does not protect female hotel workers against sexual harassment. This notwithstanding, caution is recommended in the generalisation of this finding given that 4 & 5 star employees were inadequately represented in the study because of management's refusal to participate in the study. Data for the study provides partial rejection of Hypothesis 1 regarding gender, marital status, job tenure, department and hotel rate and sexual harassment vulnerability.

- g) Though previous studies (Lafontaine & Tredeau, 1986; Terpstra & Baker, 1986) have indicated that women are at greater risk of sexual harassment in work situations where more men than women are employed, results of the present study did not support the anticipated association between sex composition at the hotel, department and client base and sexual harassment vulnerability. Neither the sex composition at the hotel, department nor the client base predicts sexual harassment vulnerability of hotel employees in Accra, indicating acceptance of Hypotheses 2, 3 and 4. Though not statistically significant, an interesting revelation is that male employees who work in female-dominated hotel workspaces experience higher frequency of sexual harassment.
- h) Empirical results regarding the three statements that measured sexual harassment climate in the study showed that hotel workers in Accra perceived less sexual harassment climate and it is therefore not surprising that the reported association between sexual harassment climate and frequency of sexual harassment in the literature could not be replicated in the study. Quite intriguing is that, though some respondents reported sexual harassment experiences, the perceived climate for sexual

harassment was low. Perhaps, in the hotel sector, perception of sexual harassment climate is irrelevant to vulnerability. The results of the study did not provide empirical evidence for the rejection of Hypothesis 5. Contrary to expectation, perceived economic dependence on tips from customers did not predict sexual harassment vulnerability of hotel workers in Accra thereby failing to reject hypothesis 6. This notwithstanding, dependence on tipping is associated with sexual harassment vulnerability of food and beverage workers. Hotel employees who depend economically on customer tips will perceive higher climate for sexual harassment.

- i) In a display of tacit tolerance of sexually harassing behaviours, when confronted with sexual harassment, hotel workers in Accra prefer to use passive coping strategies, mainly in the form of ignoring the behaviour, avoiding or staying away from the perpetrator. It is gratifying to note that self-blame and playing along with the behaviour were rarely patronised as coping strategies. Significant gender differences were found in three of the 16 coping strategies: women were significantly more likely to opt to stay away from the harasser than men in their reactions; male hotel workers in Accra have the tendency to pretend as though the harassing behaviour did not bother them than their female counterparts; and following from this coping strategy, male hotel workers will usually play along/put up with sexually harassing behaviours more than their female counterparts.
- j) Sexual harassment experiences were found to negatively affect overall job satisfaction of hotel workers in Accra, thus rejecting Hypothesis 7. The more workers are exposed to sexual harassment, unwanted sexual

attention, crude sexual behaviour and gender harassment, the lower their overall job satisfaction with work. Results of the study further suggest that satisfaction with supervisors is negatively impacted by gender harassment, crude sexual behaviour and sexual coercion. For male respondents, experiences of unwanted sexual attention, crude sexual behaviour and gender harassment lead to lower satisfaction with work but not satisfaction with co-workers, supervisors and customers. Importantly, finding of the study shows that the overall work satisfaction of male hotel workers is negatively affected by sexually harassing behaviours. In the case of female workers on the other hand, their overall job satisfaction and satisfaction with co-workers do not seem to be affected by sexual harassment and its subtypes. However, experiences with sexual coercion and gender harassment negatively affect their satisfaction with supervisors and customers. In sum, female workers appear bothered by sexually harassing behaviours that relate to sexual coercion and gender harassment perpetrated by supervisors and customers leading to their dissatisfaction.

- k) An interesting result regarding job-related outcomes and sexual harassment is the failure of the data to provide support for the rejection of the commonly held position in the literature that sexual harassment experiences fuel turnover intentions of female employees. Rather male workers who are confronted with unwanted sexual attention, crude sexual behaviour and gender harassment exhibit intentions to turnover, providing partial rejection of Hypothesis 8. It is clearly demonstrated by the results of the study that in the context of hotel spaces in Accra, male workers consider quitting when challenged with gender harassment, crude sexual

behaviour and unwanted sexual attention. The data for the study failed to confirm the argument that sexual harassment negatively affects the organisational commitment of employees. In the current study, employees' affective commitment towards the hotels does not deteriorate because of sexual harassment experiences, failing to reject Hypothesis 9.

- 1) Climate for sexual harassment is related to employee job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment. Relative to sexual harassment, the effect of perceived climate for sexual harassment on job satisfaction, turnover intentions and organisational commitment was stronger than sexual harassment. The perception that it would be risky to report sexual harassment, management's unwillingness to punish sexual misbehaviours and lack of seriousness towards sexual harassment complaints is stronger in stimulating turnover intentions rather than sexual harassment itself. A perceived higher climate for sexual harassment in the work places leads to a decline in the organisational commitment of hotel employees in Accra but not the experience of sexual harassment. What this means is that victims of sexual harassment do not really attribute responsibility for their experiences to the hotels. However, in the case of climate for sexual harassment, they blame management of hotels hence the effect of perceived climate for sexual harassment on their commitment to the hotels.

Conclusions

Survey results provide evidence to show that unwelcomed and unwanted sexual behaviours are common events in hotel work places in Accra.

Personal characteristics are critical risk factors to vulnerability to sexual harassment in hotels. It is clear that young and unmarried female hotel workers are confronted with sexually harassing behaviours from customers, co-workers and supervisors more than male workers. In Accra hotel spaces, sex mix compositions of a hotel, department and guests are inconsequential to vulnerability to sexual harassment. Furthermore, perceived climate for sexual harassment does not appear to portend sexual harassment experiences. Perceived economic dependence on tipping is related to sexual harassment of employees in food and beverage department but not workers in other departments. Overall job satisfaction of employees who experience sexual harassment is negatively affected. Male employees who experience sexual harassment exhibit intentions to turnover but not female workers. In spite of sexual harassment, employees would remain committed to the hotels.

Overall, results of the study indicate that job and client gender context, organisational context and economic dependence on tipping offered little explanation for the sexual harassment experiences of hotel employees in Accra Metropolis. Personal characteristics appear more tenable in explaining sexual harassment vulnerability of hotel workers in Accra Metropolis than gender ratio and perceived climate for sexual harassment. Regarding the work-related outcomes, sexual harassment will affect the job satisfaction and turnover intentions of hotel workers in Accra Metropolis. Consequently, the results of the study provide partial support for the integrated model in explaining the occurrence of sexual harassment in hotel workplaces in Accra Metropolis. With origin in military samples, the integrated model might have limited explanation power in the hospitality industry. The observed difference in

sexual harassment experiences based on department of affiliation provides some support for the routine activities theory. Employees' area of tasks execution in the hotel exposes them to the risk of sexual harassment.

Contributions to Knowledge

This thesis makes interesting and significant contributions to the sexual harassment literature. Theoretically, it tests the applicability of the integrated model of sexual harassment in explaining the phenomenon in the hospitality-working environment, adding to the study of Aksonnit (2014). The results of the study raise fundamental questions about the potency of job/client gender context and perceived climate for harassment to predict sexual harassment vulnerability of hotel employees. Though sexual harassment has been studied in Ghana (Micah et al., 1998; Andoh, 2001; Aryeetey, 2004; Britwum & Anokye, 2006; Norman et al., 2013), this study constitutes the first attempt to undertake a structured and comprehensive academic research on sexual harassment in Ghana's hotel sector. Hence, the study contributes a developing country data to the hospitality sexual harassment literature.

To the best of my knowledge, this study is the first to quantitatively test the association between perceived economic dependence on tipping and sexual harassment vulnerability of hotel employees. In addition, previous hospitality sexual harassment studies have only concentrated on the category of perpetrator, such as customer, manager/supervisor and co-worker. However, this study went beyond results concerning category of perpetrators to explore differences in the type of perpetrator by department and class of

hotel albeit simplistically, adding to the literature on profiling of perpetrators of sexual harassment in hospitality workplaces.

Recommendations

Based on the key findings of the study and the conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are suggested for consideration. The results of the study have interesting policy, practical and research implications. The study has provided considerable empirical evidence to show that sexual harassment is an occurrence in hotel workplaces in Accra affecting job satisfaction, and stimulating turnover among male workers.

Given that results of the study show that sexual harassment policies were apparently not sufficiently available in most hotels, it is suggested that hotel management should urgently initiate the process to formulate sexual harassment policies in their workplaces and ensure their easy availability to employees. This should be done in collaboration with the Ghana Tourism Authority to provide assistance to lowly rated accommodation facilities that have limited human resources capacity to undertake such an exercise. Sexual harassment policies should clearly spell out complaints processes and procedures to encourage victims to lodge formal complaints to management to ensure appropriate action is taken.

As a matter of policy, Ghana Tourism Authority must incorporate the availability of sexual harassment policy as one of the requirements for the licensing renewal process of accommodation facilities or as one of the documents required for granting of operational licensing for accommodation facilities. The results of the study also clearly show that hotels pay limited or no attention to sexual harassment training or education. Hotel management

will benefit from the training of employees on sexual harassment. The Ghana Tourism Authority could put this training together for the hotels. An important element of the training programme should stress coping strategies when confronted with sexual harassment. Victims should be impressed upon not to use ineffective coping strategies such as ignoring of behaviour or avoidance of perpetrators but should report such behaviours to management for action. This will ensure that sexual harassment is not normalised in hotels. In addition, hotel management should invest in the publication of educational materials such as leaflets, posters that will serve as warning to workers and guests against inappropriate sexual behaviours.

Limitations of the Study

All research works have certain limitations and the current study is no exception. There are several limitations related to this study that must be discussed. The challenge of getting access to hotel employees necessitated the use of the convenience sampling technique to administer questionnaires resulting in methodological concerns regarding the use of such a technique instead of random samples. Specific issues of non-generalisability of results have been raised against the use of convenience samples and limitation to the setting in which they take place (Fitzgerald, 1990; Arvey & Cavanaugh, 1995). Concerns of the convenience sample are neutralised with quite a respectable sample size used in the study. For instance, the estimated sample size of 367 was increased to 583. In spite of concerns about convenience samples, the results of the study are comparable to previous studies that used random samples thereby reposing confidence in the conclusions of the study.

Consequently, the use of convenience sample for the study does not invalidate the conclusions of the study thereof however, caution is advised in generalising the results.

Another limitation of the study emanates from the retrospective measurement of sexual harassment. Respondents were requested to recall incidence of sexual harassment in the past 12 months and this makes the data retrospective self-report measures, which can be subjected to common method bias. In addition, as a retrospective measure, there is a possibility of underreporting of incidence rates due to inability to recall unless in the case of dramatic sexual harassment encounters. Poor recall of past events can lead to inconsistent estimates increasing bias, and reducing reliability of results.

Another limitation of the study stems from the use of cross-sectional design for the study. The implication for the use of this design is that causal relationships cannot be determined from these results. Furthermore, the design precludes an examination of the consequences of sexually harassing experiences over time.

Areas for Future Research

Future studies on sexual harassment in Ghana should utilise samples from other parts of the country in order to understand a nationwide perspective of the magnitude of the phenomenon in hotels and to determine the generality of the results of the study. The study explored associations between type of perpetrator and department and class of hotel using simple frequency and percentage, this area of research could benefit from the application of statistical significance testing in order to make generalisation possible and make the results robust. Future research could go further on this avenue by

soliciting information on the gender of perpetrators in order to examine the issue of same-sex sexual harassment in the country.

Another fruitful area for further research is the job/guest gender context. The current study used respondents' perceived sex composition to measure the job/guest gender context. Alongside this measure, future studies should consider determining the sex composition based on employee and guest secondary data for the purposes of triangulation. The lack of association between job/guest gender context and sexual harassment could have been caused by the measurement approach. Another measurement issue that future studies could consider is about questions of sexual harassment policy at the hotel. Future researchers should request sexual harassment policy in the determination of its availability or not in a hotel instead of relying on respondents. This approach will minimise the likelihood of social desirability responses with its contamination of the results.

The contribution of customer tipping to sexual harassment has been strongly suggested by earlier researchers (Seymour, 2000; Erickson, 2004; Mkono, 2010; Matulewicz, 2013) however, the current study could not find a significant relationship between the two variables. In the study, perceived dependence on tipping was measured. This area of research could benefit from additional investigation by measuring actual tip levels of respondents in addition to perceived economic dependence on tipping in order to further explore the influence of the culture of tipping and sexual harassment vulnerability in the hotel sector.

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APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HOTEL EMPLOYEES

DEPARTMENT OF HOSPITALITY AND TOURISM MANAGEMENT

UNIVERSITY OF CAPE COAST

SOCIAL-SEXUAL BEHAVIOURS IN HOTEL WORKPLACES IN ACCRA

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HOTEL WORKERS IN ACCRA

Dear Sir/Madam,

Thank you for agreeing to take part in this survey on social-sexual behaviours in hotels in Accra. This survey forms part of a PhD research being undertaken at the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, University of Cape Coast. You are assured that all responses will be kept strictly confidential and your anonymity guaranteed. Please try to answer every question, even if you are not percent sure of your answer. Please do not hesitate to contact the researcher on telephone numbers: 0244653941 or 0208201642 or narhyo@yahoo.co.uk if you have further questions.

Note: Questions are printed on both sides of paper (front and back) making 4 pages in all.

Christopher Mensah, Lecturer, Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, Ho Polytechnic

SECTION A: HOTEL CHARACTERISTICS

1. What is the classification of your hotel? (I) Budget (ii) Guest house (iii) 1 star (iv) 2 star (v) 3 star (vi) 4 star (vii) 5 star
2. What is the sex of your immediate/direct supervisor?
(i) Male (ii) Female
3. Which statement best describes the sex mix/combination of workers in your hotel?
a. All men b. Almost totally men c. More men than women
d. Equal numbers of men and women e. All women
f. Almost totally women g. More women than men

4. Which statement best describes the sex mix/combination of workers in your department

- a. All men b. Almost totally men c. More men than women d. Equal numbers of men and women e. All women f. Almost totally women g. More women than men

5. Which statement best describes the sex mix/combination of customers of your hotel?

- a. All men b. Almost totally men c. More men than women d. Equal numbers of men and women (e). All women f. Almost totally women g. More women than men

SECTION B: GENDER RELATED BEHAVIOURS

During the past 12 months at work, how often have you experienced any of the under-listed behaviours, and who did it?

0=Never; 1=Once/twice; 2=sometimes; 3=Often; 4=Very Often

Behaviours	0	1	2	3	4	If at least once, who did this?		
						Supervisor /manager	Co-worker	Guest
6. Someone tried to have a sexual affair with you even though you said No								
7. Someone keeps asking you for dates, even though you said No								
8. Someone touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable								
9. Someone made unwanted attempts to caress, fondle, or kiss you								

4. Which statement best describes the sex mix/combination of workers in your department

- a. All men b. Almost totally men c. More men than women
- d. Equal numbers of men and women e. All women
- f. Almost totally women g. More women than men

5. Which statement best describes the sex mix/combination of customers of your hotel?

- a. All men b. Almost totally men c. More men than women
- d. Equal numbers of men and women (e). All women
- f. Almost totally women g. More women than men

SECTION B: GENDER RELATED BEHAVIOURS

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						Supervisor /manager	Co-worker	Guest
6. Someone tried to have a sexual affair with you even though you said No								
7. Someone keeps asking you for dates, even though you said No								
8. Someone touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable								
9. Someone made unwanted attempts to caress, fondle, or kiss you								

10. Someone promised you a reward or special treatment if you have a sexual affair with the person									
11. Someone threatened to sack you or get back at you for refusing to accept a request for sexual affair									
12. Someone treated you badly for refusing to have sex with that person									
13. Some promised faster promotions or better treatment if you have sexual affair with them									
14. Repeatedly told sexual stories or jokes that were bad/nasty to you									
15. Someone tried to get you to discuss sexual matters (for example, attempted to discuss or comment on your sex life)									
16. Someone made bad comments about your appearance, body, or sexual activities									
17. Someone made sexual gestures that									

10. Someone promised you a reward or special treatment if you have a sexual affair with the person												
11. Someone threatened to sack you or get back at you for refusing to accept a request for sexual affair												
12. Someone treated you badly for refusing to have sex with that person												
13. Some promised faster promotions or better treatment if you have sexual affair with them												
14. Repeatedly told sexual stories or jokes that were bad/nasty to you												
15. Someone tried to get you to discuss sexual matters (for example, attempted to discuss or comment on your sex life)												
16. Someone made bad comments about your appearance, body, or sexual activities												
17. Someone made sexual gestures that												

embarrassed you								
18. Someone referred to people of your sex in insulting or bad ways								
19. Treated you "differently" because of your sex (for example, mistreated, slighted, or ignored you)								
20. Made bad sexual remarks (for example, suggesting that people of your sex are not suited for the kind of work you do)								
21. Someone put you down because you are a woman or man								

SECTION C: REACTIONS

When you experienced the above behaviours, which of the following did you do? (Select as many as are applicable). CONTINUE TO MODULE D IF YOU ANSWER 'NEVER' TO ALL QUESTIONS IN MODULE B

Action	Tick (✓)
22. I didn't do anything about it	
23. I ignored the behaviour	
24. I tried to avoid the person(s)	
25. I tried to stay away from the person	
26. I asked the person to stop	
27. I threatened to report	
28. I pretended as though it did not bother me	

29.	I reported to my supervisor/manager	
30.	I discussed the behaviour with co-workers	
31.	I discussed the behaviour with friends and family members	
32.	I Played along/put up with the behaviour	
33.	I assumed it wasn't anything serious	
34.	I requested for transfer to another department	
35.	I slapped, hit, pushed the person	
36.	I harshly spoke to or warned the person	
37.	I considered the behaviour to be a joke	
38.	I blamed myself	

SECTION D: WORK-RELATED OUTCOMES

39. Overall, how satisfied are you with your work? (i) Very satisfied
 (ii) Satisfied (iii) Neutral (iv) Dissatisfied (v) Very Dissatisfied

40. How satisfied are you with your relationship with your co-workers?
(i) Very satisfied (ii) Satisfied (iii) Neutral (iv) Dissatisfied
(v) Very Dissatisfied

41. How satisfied are you with your relationship with your supervisor?
 (i) Very satisfied (ii) Satisfied (iii) Neutral (iv) Dissatisfied
(v) Very Dissatisfied

42. How satisfied are you with your relationship/interaction with customers?
(i) Very satisfied (ii) Satisfied (iii) Neutral
(iv) Dissatisfied (v) Very Dissatisfied

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly
--	-----------------	--------------	----------------	-----------------	-----------------

29.	I reported to my supervisor/manager	
30.	I discussed the behaviour with co-workers	
31.	I discussed the behaviour with friends and family members	
32.	I Played along/put up with the behaviour	
33.	I assumed it wasn't anything serious	
34.	I requested for transfer to another department	
35.	I slapped, hit, pushed the person	
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SECTION D: WORK-RELATED OUTCOMES

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40. How satisfied are you with your relationship with your co-workers?
(i) Very satisfied (ii) Satisfied (iii) Neutral (iv) Dissatisfied
(v) Very Dissatisfied
41. How satisfied are you with your relationship with your supervisor?
(i) Very satisfied (ii) Satisfied (iii) Neutral (iv) Dissatisfied
(v) Very Dissatisfied
42. How satisfied are you with your relationship/interaction with customers?
(i) Very satisfied (ii) Satisfied (iii) Neutral
(iv) Dissatisfied (v) Very Dissatisfied

To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements?

	Strongly	Agree	Neutral	Disagree	Strongly
--	-----------------	--------------	----------------	-----------------	-----------------

	agree				disagree
43. I am glad to be employed in this company					
44. I feel myself to be part of this company					
45. I think a lot about stopping the work in this hotel/restaurant					
46. I am actively searching for a job in another company					
47. As soon as it is possible, I will stop working in this hotel					
48. I will stop working in this hotel/restaurant in 1 year or less					
49. I worry about being able to keep my job					
50. I am worried about becoming unemployed					
51. My income will not be sufficient for my upkeep without tips from customers					
52. It will be difficult to take care					

of my basic needs without tips from customers					
53. It would be risky for me to report sexual behaviours to management for action					
54. Sexual behaviour complaints would not be taken seriously by management					
55. Individuals who behave badly in a sexual way towards others are not likely to be punished					

SECTION E: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

56. What is your gender? Male Female
57. Which age group do you belong? 20 and below 21-29
30-39 40-49 50 and above
58. What is your marital status? Single (never married) Married
Widowed Separated Divorced
59. Highest educational attainment: Basic Vocational/Technical
Secondary Tertiary Other (specify).....
60. Which department of the hotel do you work?
.....
61. What is the job title of your occupation?
62. How long have you been working in this hotel?

of my basic needs without tips from customers					
53. It would be risky for me to report sexual behaviours to management for action					
54. Sexual behaviour complaints would not be taken seriously by management					
55. Individuals who behave badly in a sexual way towards others are not likely to be punished					

SECTION E: DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS

56. What is your gender? Male Female
57. Which age group do you belong? 20 and below 21-29
30-39 40-49 50 and above
58. What is your marital status? Single (never married) Married
Widowed Separated Divorced
59. Highest educational attainment: Basic Vocational/Technical
Secondary Tertiary Other (specify).....
60. Which department of the hotel do you work?
.....
61. What is the job title of your occupation?
62. How long have you been working in this hotel?

63. Have you ever been sexually harassed while working in this hotel?
(i) Yes (ii) No
64. Does your hotel have a written sexual harassment policy and regulations?
(i) Yes (ii) No
65. Have you seen posters/leaflets on sexual harassment in your hotel?
(i) Yes (ii) No
66. Does your hotel organise seminars/workshops on sexual harassment for workers?
(i) Yes (ii) No

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW GUIDE

General Information

1. Date of interview:.....
2. Interview start time.....
3. Interview end time.....
4. Total time for interview (total number of minutes)

This interview forms part of a PhD work being undertaken at the Department of Hospitality and Tourism Management, University of Cape Coast. I shall be seeking your experiences of socio-sexual behaviours at the hotel you undertook the recent industrial attachment during the vacation.

You are assured that all individual responses will be kept strictly confidential and your anonymity. Should you have the urge to discontinue with the interview, feel free to draw my attention to it. Please try to answer every question, even if you are not percent sure of your answer.

A. General Questions

1. What is your gender?.....
2. How old are you?.....
3. What department(s) have you been attached to in this hotel?.....
4. Kindly tell me more about the behaviours you experienced?.....
.....
.....

5. How did you react when you experienced the behaviour?.....

.....
.....
.....

6. What category of workers in the hotel are more susceptible to sexual harassment?.....

.....
.....
.....

7. Have you ever been sexually harassed at the hotel you currently work?

Yes No