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The influences of sexual harassment on health, psychological condition, work withdrawal and turnover intention in South Africa

Maxwell Sandada
University of Zimbabwe, MP 167 Mt Pleasant, Harare, Zimbabwe

Abstract

This study examines the influence of employee sexual harassment on their health condition, psychological condition, workplace withdrawal and intention to quit the job in an African context. Five hypotheses are posited and in order to empirically test these hypotheses, a sample data set of 151 was collected from Gauteng Province of South Africa. The results indicate that sexual harassment positively influences psychological condition, health condition trust and brand attachment in a significant and direct way. The other finding is that sexual indirectly influences workplace withdrawal and turnover intentions. Drawing from the study findings, managerial implications are discussed and limitations and future research directions are suggested. By and large, this study immensely contribute new knowledge to the existing body of sexual harassment literature in Africa - a context that is often most neglected by some researchers in developing countries.

Keywords: Sexual harassment, Psychological condition, Health condition, Workplace withdrawal, Turnover intention, South Africa

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Address Correspondence to: Maxwell Sandada – University of Zimbabwe, MP 167 Mt Pleasant, Harare, Zimbabwe. Email: msandada@commerce.uz.ac.zw

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1.0. Introduction

Over the years, sexual harassment at work has been identified as a serious challenge confronting the South African institutions (Prinslo 2006). The Human Right Watch (2001) reports that in South African schools, girls are raped, sexually abused, sexually harassed and assaulted by male learners and educators resulting in unwanted pregnancies, emotional pressure and self-denial. Prinsloo (2006) reports that South Africa's HIV/AIDS situation is at epidemic proportions due to high sexual harassment incidences. The problem of sexual harassment is also a huge challenge to the business community the world over (Antecol & Cobb-Clark 2009; Norman, Aikins & Binka 2013). The behaviour results in adverse health and psychological conditions as well as intention to withdrawal and quit the job by the victims (Nolfe, Petrella, Blasi, Zontini & Nolfe 2007; Hershcovis, Parker & Reich 2010). According to Fielden, Davidson, Woolnough and Hunt (2010) sexual harassment's effects on individuals are mainly illnesses which include post-traumatic stress, depression and other personal negative effects. Organisations on the other hand experience high costs due to legal litigation, poor performance due to employee absenteeism, low morale and resignations. Therefore if interventions measures are not implemented to arrest sexual harassment this may lead to negative perceptions on the organisations by the stakeholders (Feilden *et al.* 2010).

A literature review of 42 empirical studies on sexual harassment by Cantisano, Dominguez and Depolo (2008) revealed that organisational factors such as social interactions between managers and employees, the extent at which the organisation tolerates harassment and job-gender context, are antecedents of harassment in many organisations. Further the authors found that the consequences of sexual harassment are stress, anxiety, health complaints, job withdrawal intention, poor organisational commitment, and job dissatisfaction. Popovich and Warren (2010) describe sexual harassment as counterproductive because of the way it affects productivity and its violation of organisational norms and the well-being of its employees. A study by Chan, Chow, Lam and Cheung (2008) confirms the negative consequences of sexual harassment such as suppressed immune functioning, increased inflammation, headaches, and sleep disorders. There is a consensus among scholars of sexual harassment that this problem is a global challenge that affects organisations and individuals and therefore needs combined efforts to arrest it. For example, in countries such as United States of America (USA) and The United Kingdom (UK), about 50% of US and 24 % of UK women have reported incidents of sexual harassment in the work place. Latin American countries such as Argentina, Brazil and Chile also experience the same problem (Merkin 2008). A review of literature shows that the incidents of sexual harassment are experienced in various work environments. For example Antelcol and Cobb-Clark (2006) as well as Gill and Febbraro (2013) report sexual harassment experiences in USA and Canadian army respectively. Sexual harassment is also experienced in sport (Fasting, Chroni & Knorre 2012), in schools (Prinsloo 2006), in hospitals (Shields & Price), in legal environments (Laband & Lentz 1998) and also in domestic work environments (DeSousa & Cerqueira 2009).

Research also indicates that women are at great risk of sexual harassment in workplaces where men outnumber their female counterparts than in workplaces where there is gender balance. It has also been reported that in some cases sexual harassment victims do not report these

experiences (O'Leary-Kelly, Bowes-Sperry Bates & Lean 2009). The reasons for not reporting include fear of being regarded as a whistle blower, fear of losing a job and lack of trust in the organisational disciplinary system. This shows that sexual harassment is a global problem needing serious attention. What is even disturbing is the fact that incidents of sexual harassment are even escalating and alarmingly common in todays' workplaces (Subani & Azmat 2012). A deeper understanding of this behaviour has therefore become a topic of interest to human resources practitioners and academics. A cross examination of the literature has shown that research on the effect of sexual harassment on health, psychology conditions, withdrawal and turnover intentions is scant in the African context. Most of the studies that have examined the impact of sexual harassment are mostly from the western countries. It is a serious shortcoming to assume that the results of earlier similar studies in developed countries are applicable to developing countries like South Africa. Against this background, it is the purpose of this study to fill up the gap by examining the effects of sexual harassment on health, psychological conditions, withdrawal and turnover intentions of harassed employees.

The following is how the rest of the paper is organised. Literature reviews as well as the framework and hypothesis formulation are provided. This will be followed by presentation of the results of the study. Finally, the managerial implications of the study results and future research directions are also provided.

2.0. Theoretical literature review

2.1. Sexual harassment

Various definitions of sexual harassment have been proposed in the literature. Allard, Nunnick, Gregory, Klest and Plattl (2011) describe sexual harassment as any verbal or physical contact of sexual nature that is unwanted. The authors proceed to mention that persistently asking for sexual favours and touching someone's body parts without his/her agreement are forms of sexual harassment. According to Stuchevskaia (2011) sexual harassment refers to bothering or violating an individual's private life or dignity by continuously pursuing unwanted advances with sexual motives. Butler and Chung-Yan (2011) contend that sexual harassment falls into three categories. The first one is gender harassment happens both verbally and nonverbally by showing derogatory and hostile attitudes towards women. The second category is the unwanted sexual attention such as unwanted sexual behaviours, for example persistent requests for a date. The final is sexual coercion where a victim is promised a certain favour for sexual cooperation.

Scholars have reported that sexual harassment happens in a variety of forms. For example a study by Norman *et al.* (2013) presents findings that the sexually harassed individuals experienced unwanted physical contacts, rape, unwanted sexual comments and jokes, inappropriate or unwanted gifts, provocative looks and offer of help if sexual demands are met. Similarly, Fielden *et al.* (2010) who examined the sexual harassment of women in the United Kingdom (UK) workplace found that women were sexually harassed through touching, grabbing,

hugging, sitting too close and being provocatively looked at. In a similar vein, Shell (2003) mentions that sexual harassment takes place by displaying obscene or pornographic materials, repeated and nonreciprocal requests for dates, intrusive letters and phone calls, and cornering. The reported forms of sexual harassment as reported in a study by De Haas and Timmerman (2010) are offensive remarks about someone's appearance, sending sex messages through emails, unwanted attempts to fondle someone, displaying tainted photos or films, threatening with retaliation for refusing sex advances, forcing sexual activity and being discriminated sex request refusals.

2.2. Health conditions

Health conditions relate to the physical well-being of an individual (DeSousa & Cerqueira 2009). It has been proven that nonsexually harassed people have better physical conditions than the sexually harassed individuals (DeSousa & Cerqueira 2009). Sexual harassment affects the health condition of victims in a variety of ways. An individual's general health conditions relates to illness, injury, mood disorder, eating disorder, irritability and anger (Respenda *et al.* 2005). Chan *et al.* (2008) also suggest other health conditions namely suppressed immune functioning, inflammation, headaches and sleep disorders. Nolfe, Petrella, Blasi, Zontini and Nolfe (2007) studied the psychopathological dimensions of sexual harassment in the workplace in Italian hospitals. The study found that individuals who were exposed to sexual harassment experienced health problems namely, mood disorder, anxiety disorder, personality as well as eating disorders. A study by Norma *et al.* (2013) reports mentions health effects of sexual harassment such as physical injury, irritability at other people and anger.

2.3. Psychological condition

Research has indicated that sexual harassment negatively affects an individual's psychological condition such as emotional stress and post-traumatic stress disorder (Merkin 2008). Chan *et al.* (2008) opine that psychological condition shows an individual's self-esteem, satisfaction with life, depression and anxiety. According to Mellor and Golay (2012) the psychological distress symptoms that are prevalent in people are feeling of downheartedness, feeling tense and liking to cry. Duff, Wareham and Walsh 2004) report problems such as psychological trauma, disturbing memories, emotional breakdowns, embarrassment, fear, confidence and image damaging. A study of men harassment by Funk and Werhuns (2011) reveals that men, who have been sexually harassed feel shameful, become anxious and violent, feel that their cognitive ability has been compromised and they also lose self-control.

2.4. Intention to withdrawal and to quit

Employees who have been exposed to sexual harassment usually intent to withdraw from the work place and to quit their jobs due to embarrassment (Hershcovis *et al.* 20100. The authors reasoned that the positive correlation between sexual harassment and employee intention to withdraw or quit is a demonstration that sexual harassment massively costs the organisation as sexually harassed employees have a tendency to quit and withdraw from their workplaces. According to a study of sexual harassment in the United States of American (USA) army by Antecol and Cobb-Clark (2009), sexual harassment led to job dissatisfaction and consequently

increased cases of soldier turnover. Similarly, Laband and Lentz (1998) state that sexual harassment has an effect of undermining someone's dignity and therefore leads to absenteeism, turnover, low productivity and low motivation. Due to self-esteem impairment, Cantisano *et al* (2008) mention that employees tend to lack organisational commitment, are dissatisfied by their job and consequently plan to withdraw and to quit the job.

3.0. Conceptual Model and Hypothesis Development

Based on review of literature, the conceptual model was developed as depicted in Figure 1. Five basic constructs which were discussed in the preceding section make up the model. The constructs are sexual harassment, health conditions, psychological conditions, work withdrawal and turnover intentions. The relationships between the proposed constructs in the conceptual model are as follows, sexual harassment provides the starting point of the model and it directly impacts on health and psychological conditions of employees which will both influence work withdraw. Finally, an employee's intention to withdraw will lead to and intention to quit the job. The hypotheses that were developed explain the relationships among the constructs in detail.

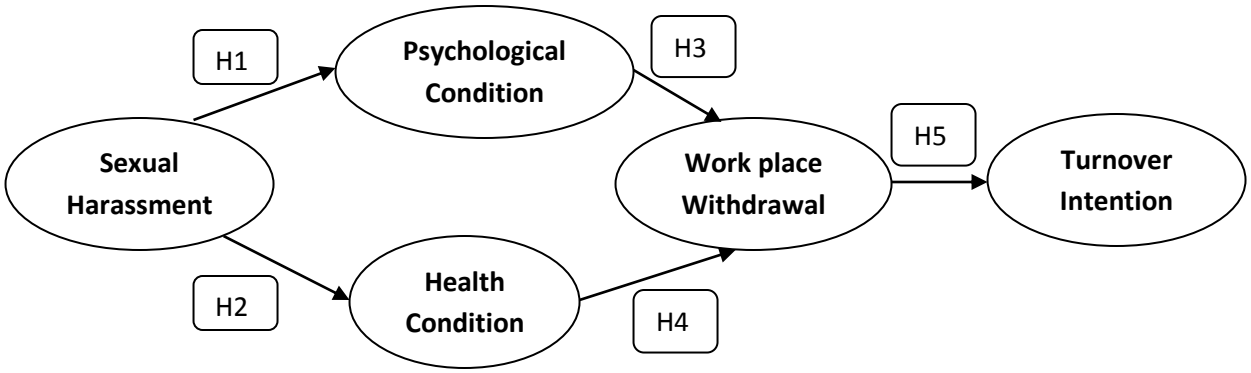

Figure 1: Conceptual Model

3.1 Sexual harassment and psychological conditions

When an individual is sexually harassed, there is a possibility of unwanted pregnancy, emotional pressure and impaired self-respect (Prinsloo 2006) and will experience increased anxiety and depression (Gill & Febbraro 2013). According to Rospenda *et al.* (2009), psychological distress leads to loss of emotional control and excessive drinking. The other downside of sexual harassment in relation to is that it results in increased rates of post-traumatic stress symptoms, feeling too tense and discouragement (Mellor & Golay 2012). The other previous studies that showed a positive relationship between sexual harassment and psychological condition are (Cantisano *et al.* 2008; Chan *et al.* 2008; DeSouza & Cerqueira 2008), and thus it can be postulated that:

H1: High levels of sexual harassment are positively associated with high levels of psychological distress in South Africa

3.2 Sexual harassment and health conditions

According to a study of Latin American countries by Merkin (2008), the negative health consequences of sexual harassment are illness, injury and disorder in eating. Cantisano *et al.* (2008) reviewed 42 empirical papers on the antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment and also found that those exposed to sexual harassment reported poor health than those not harassed. Similar results are also reported in a study of the frequency rates and consequences of sexual harassment among the Brazilian domestic workers by DeSousa and Cerqueira (2009). The results revealed that the nonharassed women had no health problems whereas the harassed women had poor physical well-being. Further, Chan *et al.* (2008) confirm that sexual harassment experiences have serious effects on the victim's health well-being. Mellor and Golay's (2012) study also found a positive association between sexual harassment and mental health problems. Other scholars such as Rospenda *et al.* (2009) who studied the prevalence and mental health correlates of sexual harassment in the USA workplace report that sexual harassment leads to drinking problems and mental health problems. Sexual harassment also contributes to the escalating cases of HIV/AIDS in South African schools (Prinslo 2006). This demonstrates that sexual harassment has a direct influence on health conditions of the victims. Therefore it can be posited that

H2 Sexual harassment in the workplace is positively related to the health conditions of the harassed individual.

3.3 Psychological condition and work withdrawal

According to O'Leary-Kelly *et al.* (2009), individuals who are sexually harassed tend to withdraw from work due to adverse health and psychological effects caused by sexual harassment. Cantisano *et al.* (2008) also confirm that job withdrawal intention is one of the consequences of sexual harassment. Similarly, Shields and Price (2002) report findings of a study of harassment, job satisfaction and intentions to withdraw in the British Nursing profession. The results indicate that harassment leads to job dissatisfaction which in turn influences intentions to quit the job. The implication is that higher levels of sexual harassment lead to an intention to withdraw from work. Employees will try to avoid an unpleasant work environment by being absent, reporting late for work or look for alternative work environments (Stedham & Mitchell 1998) and therefore it can be proposed that:

H3 Higher levels of sexual harassment are positively related to high levels of poor psychological conditions which in turn lead to work withdrawal.

3.4 Health condition and turnover intentions

Sexually harassed employees are less satisfied with their job and hence have low levels of organisational commitment and consequently are likely to quit the job (Stedham & Mitchel 1998). Antecol and Cobb-Clark (2006) studied the sexual harassment of female soldiers in the USA and found that sexual harassment behaviour was positively correlated to low levels of job satisfaction and high levels of intentions to leave the military. Similar findings are also reported in a study by Shields and Price's (2002) which states that sexual harassment results in turnover intention as a result of a reduction in job dissatisfaction. Previous empirical studies therefore

agree that sexual harassment is an antecedent of an intention by the victims of such behaviour (Laband & Lentz 1998; Buchanan, Settles & Langhout 2007; Merkin 2009), thus it can be hypothesised that:

H4 Employees who are sexually harassed experience poor health conditions and are likely to withdraw from work.

3.5 Work withdrawal and turnover intention

Sexual harassment leads to work withdrawal by employees and this eventually increases the turnover intention. Antecol and Cobb-Clark (2006) posit that sexual harassment affects employee job satisfaction and hence chances of work withdrawal and intentions to quit. According to Stedham and Mitchell (1990), sexually harassed employees make efforts to avoid an unpleasant work environment by being absent and eventually by looking for alternative work environments (Stedham & Mitchell 1998) and therefore it can be proposed that

H5*: Employees who have experienced sexual harassment are likely to withdraw from work thereby leading to turnover intention.*

4.0. Research Methodology

4.1 Sample and data collection

The target population for the study was South African employee in Gauteng. The sampling unit was the employee. Of the total of 170 questionnaires distributed, 151 usable questionnaires were retrieved for the final data analysis, representing a response rate of 89 per cent. To eliminate differences in response patterns due to different reference points, all respondents were prompted to answer the questionnaire with reference to sexual harassment. In this regard, the respondents were asked to identify incidents in which they had been sexually harassed. Respondents were then asked indicate to what extent they agreed with statements from the questionnaire about the effects of sexual harassment on their psychological conditions, health conditions, and workplace withdrawal and turnover intentions, guided by the research assistants.

4.2 Measurement Instrument and Questionnaire Design

Research scales were operationalized on the basis of previous work. Proper modifications were made in order to fit the current research context and purpose. "Sexual harassment" measure used seven-item scale while "Psychological condition" used six-item scales all adapted from Sahina, Zehir, and Kitapç (2011). "Health Condition" used a five-item scale measure adopted from He, Li and Harris (2012). Workplace withdrawal used five measurement instruments adapted from Smith (2006). Finally, “Turnover intention” was measured using a five-item scale adapted from Tsai (2011). All the measurement items were measured on a five-point Likert-type scales that

was anchored by 1= strongly disagree to 5= strongly agree to express the degree of agreement. Individual scale items are listed in Appendix 1.

4.3 Respondent Profile

Table 1 presents the description of the participants. The respondents were asked to report their demographic information, including gender, age, marital status, and education. The respondents were predominantly females (57.6%). The median age group of the respondent was that of less than 30 years (54.3%). 57% of the respondents were single. About 71% of the respondents had either high school (43.7%) or university level of education (27.2%) and the remainder had primary school (19.9) or postgraduate level of education (0.09%).

Table 1: Sample Demographic Characteristics

Gender	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Male	64	42.4%
Female	87	57.6%
Total	**151**	**100%**
Age	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
≦30	82	54.3%
31-60	51	33.8%
≧ 60	18	11.9%
Total	**151**	**100%**
Marital status	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Married	65	43.0%
Single	86	57.0%
Total	**151**	**100%**
Level of Education	**Frequency**	**Percentage**
Primary School	30	19.9%
High School	66	43,7%
University	41	27.2%
Postgraduate	14	0.09%
Total	**151**	**100%**

5.0. DATA ANALYSIS

The purpose of this section is to statistically analyse the research model and tests our hypotheses. In order to assess the measurement model and the structural model, the researcher used Smart PLS software – a PLS-based structural equation modeling (SEM) technique. According to Koçoglu, Imamoglu, Ince, and Keskin (2011), the measurement model refers to the linkages between the research constructs (latent variables) and their indicators (manifest variables), while the structural model captures the hypothesized causal relationships among the research

constructs. Smart PLS has emerged as a powerful approach to study causal models involving multiple constructs with multiple indicators (Liljander, Polsa & van Riel, 2009). Among some of the strengths of Smart PLS approach to SEM are its ability to model latent constructs that are uncontaminated by measurement error under conditions of non-normality and small-to-medium sample sizes, and to handle complex predictive models, which is preferable to techniques such as regression which assumes error-free measurement (Ringle, Wende & Will 2005). Besides, Smart PLS approach is the most appropriate SEM approach to use when the aims of the study are predictive applications and/or theory building (Chin & Newsted, 1999). Since the current study sample size is relatively small (151) Smart PLS was found more appropriate and befitting the purpose of the current study.

5.1. Measurement model

The researcher checked the measurements' reliability and validity. Reliability was mainly checked using the Composite Reliability (CR) and Cronbach's alpha value. To ensure convergent validity, the researcher checked if items loaded on their respective (a priori) constructs with loadings greater than 0.5, while discriminant validity was checked by Average Variance Extracted (AVE) value and ensuring that there were no significant inter-research variables cross-loadings (Chin 1998). Smart PLS performs a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) while estimating the structural model (SEM). The CFA results are reported in Table 2 and Figure 2, while the SEM results are presented in Table 4 and Figure 2.

TABLE 2: Accuracy Analysis Statistics

Research Construct		LV Index Value	R-Squared Value	Cronbach's α value	C.R. Value	AVE Value	Communality	Factor Loading
SH	SH1	4.304	0.000	0.924	0.940	0.693	0.693	0.672
	SH2							0.825
	SH3							0.885
	SH4							0.758
	SH5							0.935

	SH6							0.903
	SH7							0.820
PC	**PC 1**	4.321	0.238	0.877	0.907	0.620	0.620	0.717
	PC 2							0.677
	PC 3							0.809
	PC 4							0.791
	PC 5							0.852
	PC 6							0.862
HC	**HC 1**	4.319	0.370	0.789	0.852	0.539	0.539	0.808
	HC 2							0.807
	HC 3							0.785
	HC 4							0.628
	HC 5							0.615
	WW 1	4.479	0.516	0.880	0.926	0.807	0.807	0.900
	WW 2							0.927
	WW 3							0.867
TI	**TI 1**	4.161	0.222	0.829	0.877	0.589	0.589	0.772
	TI 2							0.790
	TI 3							0.803
	TI 4							0.801

	TI 5							0.664

Note: SH = Sexual Harrassment; PC = Psychological Condition; HC = Health Condition; WW = Workplace Withdrawal,
TI = Turnover Intentions; C.R.: Composite Reliability; AVE: Average Variance Reliability
* Scores: 1 – Strongly Disagree; 3 – Neutral; 5 – Strongly Agree

As can be seen (Table 2), all items have loadings greater than 0.6 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994), indicating that they explain at least 60% of what they expected to measure (convergent validity). The lowest AVE value is 0.539 which exceeds the recommended 0.5 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981) – an indication of the existence of discriminant validity. However, to guarantee sufficient discriminant validity between the research constructs, the square root of the Average Variance Extracted (AVE) of each factor should exceed the correlations between that factor and all other factors (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). In this study, the least squared root of AVE is 0.782 while the highest inter-construct correlation value is 0.610. This, therefore, further confirms the existence of discriminant validity. Using the composite reliability (CR) value and Cronbach's alpha value, the measurement instruments reliability was assessed and values ranged between 0.789 and 0,924, which exceed the recommended acceptable value of 0.7 (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994). All in all, these results confirm the reliability and validity of the measurement used in this study.

TABLE 3: Inter-Construct Correlation Matrix

RESEARCH CONSTRUCTS	HC	PC	SH	TI	WW
Health Condition (HC)	1.000				
Psychological Condition (PC)	0.694	1.000			
Sexual Harassment (SH)	0.609	0.488	1.000		
Turnover Intention (TI)	0.565	0.726	0.407	1.000	
Workplace Withdrawal (WW)	0.669	0.652	0.443	0.471	1.000

Note: SH = Sexual Harrassment; PC = Psychological Condition; HC = Health Condition; WW = Workplace Withdrawal, TI = Turnover Intentions

Smart PLS software does not provide goodness-of-fit measures for the full path model as like LISREL and AMOS, but it provides only R^2 values for the dependent variables. However, a

method to calculate a global goodness-of-fit (GoF) measure was proposed by Amato, Vinzi, and Tenenhaus (2004), and this method takes into account both the quality of the measurement model and the structural model (Tenenhaus, Vinzi, Chatelin & Lauro, 2005; Streukens, 2008). The global goodness-of-fit (GoF) statistic was calculated using the following equation:

$$GoF = \sqrt{\overline{AVE} * \overline{R^2}}$$

Where AVE represent the average of all $\overline{AVE}$ values for the research variables while R^2 represents the average of all R^2 values in the full path model

The calculated global goodness of fit (GoF) is 0.53, which exceeds the recommended threshold of GoF>0.36 suggested by Wetzels, Odekerken-Schröder & van Oppen (2009). Thus, this study concludes that the research model provides an overall goodness of fit.

5.2. Testing of the hypotheses

The results in Table 4 and Figure 2 provide support for all the five (5) hypotheses. Hypothesis 1 posited a positive relationship between sexual harassment and the psychological condition of employees, while hypothesis 2 posited a positive association between sexual harassment and employee health condition. Consistent with Hypothesis 1and 2, results indicated that higher levels of sexual harassment will lead to higher levels of poor psychological condition (0.488). This finding is also confirmed by other scholars (Mellor & Golay 2012; Gill & Febbraro 2013). The results indicated in Table 2 and Figure 4 also agree with H2 which states that high levels of sexual harassment positively influence high levels of a poor health condition of employee (0.608). The results are consistent with the research findings of studies by Chan *et al.* (2008) and Rospenda *et al.* (2009).

The standardized coefficient of psychological condition and work withdrawal (0.362) is positive and significant. This is consistent with the prediction of H3 and is supported. Thus, a higher level of a poor psychological condition is associated with higher levels of work withdrawal. Similar findings are also reported in studies by Shields and Price (2002) and Castisano *et al.* (2008). The results in Table 4 and Figure 2 are in line with H4 and support the reasoning that the higher the levels of poor health conditions the employees experience, the higher are chances of work withdrawal (0.418). Therefore, H4 is strongly supported. Confirming this hypothesis, O'Leary-Kelly (2009) contends that due to the adverse health conditions caused by sexual harassment, employees seek to withdraw from work. Finally, the standardized coefficient of work withdrawal and employee intention to quit is positive and significant (0.471). This is consistent with the predictions of H5— higher levels of intention to withdraw by employees are associated with their higher levels intention to quit. This seemingly robust result indicates the strength of intention to quit results when the employees seek to withdraw from work. Therefore, H5 is strongly supported.

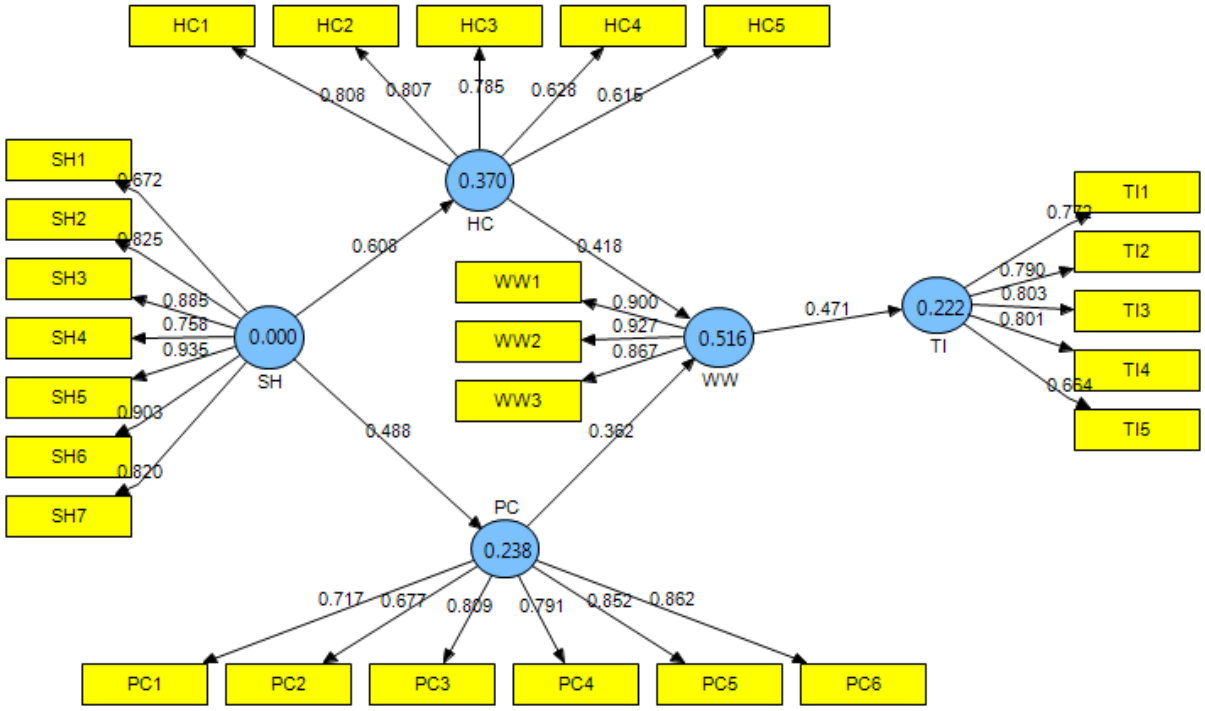

Figure 2: Measurement and Structural Model Results

Note: SH = Sexual Harrassment; PC = Psychological Condition; HC = Health Condition; WW = Workplace Withdrawal, TI = Turnover Intentions

Table 4 provides the T-statistics for the hypothesised relationships. The minimum t-statistics for the path coefficients is 3.066 and therefore exceeds the recommended threshold of 2. This means that all the posited positive relationships are supported and are statistically significant.

Table 4: Results of Structural Equation Model Analysis

Proposed Hypothesis Relationship	Hypothesis	Path Coefficients	T-Statistics	Rejected / Supported
Sexual Harassment (SH) → Psychological Condition (PC)	**H1**	**0.488**	**6.167**	**Supported**
Sexual Harassment (SH) → Health Condition (HC)	**H2**	**0.608**	**8.188**	**Supported**
Psychological Condition (PC)→ Workplace Withdrawal (WW)	**H3**	**0.362**	**3.066**	**Supported**

Health Condition (HC)→ Workplace Withdrawal (WW)	**H4**	**0.418**	**3.701**	**Supported**
Workplace Withdrawal (WW)→ Turnover Intention (TI)	**H5**	**0.471**	**5.581**	**Supported**

Note: SH = Sexual Harrassment; PC = Psychological Condition; HC = Health Condition; WW = Workplace Withdrawal, TI = Turnover Intentions

6.0. Conclusion and Discussion

The purpose of this study was to investigate the influence of sexual harassment on health and psychological conditions, work withdrawal and consequently intention to quit. In particular, five hypotheses were postulated. To test the proposed hypotheses, data were collected from Gauteng Province in South Africa. The empirical results supported all the posited research hypotheses in a significant way.

Important to note about the study findings is the fact that sexual harassment has stronger effects on health condition (0.608) than on psychological condition (0.488). However, brand satisfaction strongly influences relationship brand trust (0.547). Notably, too, the relationships between psychological condition and workplace withdrawal (0.362) as well as between health condition and workplace withdrawal (0.418) are robust. There is also a strong relationship between workplace withdrawal and turnover intention (0.471). By implication, this finding indicates that sexual harassment can have a strong influence on workplace withdrawal and turnover intentions via adverse psychological and health conditions. Perhaps this could be due to the fact that employees are likely to feel humiliated and hence intend to withdraw and quit the workplace when they are experiencing health and psychological problems caused by sexual harassment.

6.1. Implications of the study

When employees are sexually harassed at work, they are likely to experience adverse health and psychological conditions. Therefore, in order to arrest sexual harassment tendencies, managers ought to invest in strategies that do away with such behaviour. The current study is an attempt to investigate the influence of sexual harassment as a predictor of employee health and psychological conditions which eventually leads to the intention to withdraw and quit the work in an often most neglected context – the African context. By and large, the findings of this empirical study are expected to have to provide fruitful implications to both practitioners and academicians.

On the academic side, this study makes a significant contribution to the sexual harassment literature by systematically exploring its impact psychological and health conditions as well as its influence on workplace withdrawal and turnover intentions in South Africa. Overall, the current study findings provide tentative support to the proposition that sexual harassment should be recognized as significant antecedents for health, psychological conditions, workplace withdrawal and intention to quit in South Africa.

On the practitioners' side, the significant influence of sexual harassment and the mediating role of psychological condition, health condition and workplace withdrawal in South Africa is highlighted. This study, therefore, submits that managers can benefit from the implications of these findings. For instance, given the robust relationship between sexual harassment and psychological condition (0.488) and also between sexual harassment and health condition (0.608), marketers ought to pay attention to negative consequences of sexual harassment in order to minimise turnover intentions. For example, by reducing sexual harassment incidents, managers reduce health and psychological problems experienced by employees and employees are likely to be fit psychologically and health wise. Eventually, the employees will be willing to continue working for the organisation.

6.2. Limitations and Future Research

Despite the usefulness of this study aforementioned, the research has its limitations. First and most significantly, the study can be strengthened by increasing the sample size and including participants in other geographical areas. Second, the current study was limited to South Africa. For results comparisons, subsequent researchers should contemplate replicating this study in other developing countries. All in all, these suggested future avenues of study stand to immensely contribute new knowledge to the existing body of sexual harassment literature in Africa - a context that is often most neglected by some researchers in developing countries.

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