Impact of internal and customer sexual harassment on job-related outcomes: The case of female casino employees

ABSTRACT

This study examines the impact of internal and customer sexual harassment on job-related outcomes using a sample of 348 female frontline employees in the context of Macao casinos. The results showed that internal sexual harassment led to lower job satisfaction, as well as higher turnover intention through its impact on job satisfaction. Besides, internal sexual harassment had significant negative impact on female frontline employees exceeding that accounted for by traditional job stressor. Surprisingly, sexual harassment committed by customers exhibited no significant impact on both female employees' job satisfaction and turnover intention. Implications are discussed.

KEYWORDS

Internal sexual harassment; customer sexual harassment; job satisfaction; turnover intention; casino; frontline employees

Introduction

Sexual harassment has been a serious issue in the workplace, along with the fact that an increasing number of women have entered the workforce. According to the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC, 1980), sexual harassment refers to "unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature". Although sexual harassment could occur to both male and female (Das, 2009), an overwhelming majority of victims who suffered sexual harassment are women (Bitton & Shaul, 2013). For example, in 2018, 7,609 sexual harassment claims were filed to the EEOC in the U.S., of which only 15.9% were filed by males (EEOC, 2019). In addition, some research works determined that compared with men, women tend to sense the occurrence of sexual harassment and to interpret the harassing behaviors as inappropriate, severe, and offensive (e.g., Bitton & Shaul, 2013). Not surprisingly, sexual harassment has been identified as one serious career barrier for women (Onsalo et al., 2014). Past research indicates that those who have encountered sexual harassment had a lower job satisfaction level (Hutagalung & Ishak, 2013) and organizational commitment (Buchanan et al., 2014). Sexual harassment in the workplace has been found to cause employees' organizational withdrawal (Gruber, 2003; Magley et al., 1999) including job withdrawal (Kath et al., 2011) and work withdrawal (Dionisi et al., 2012), decreased job performance (Liu et al., 2013), involuntary job loss and career interruption (Fielden et al., 2010; Fitzgerald et al., 1997).

Sexual harassment appears to be a universal issue (Gruber, 2003) and the casino workplace is not an exception. In a service context the frontline employees may suffer sexual harassment by not only people from within an organization (e.g., supervisors or co-workers), or internal sexual harassment (ISH), but also customers, or customer sexual harassment (CSH; see Gettman & Gelfand, 2007). The unique characteristics of the casino work environment, such as sexually provocative uniforms of cocktail servers, the consumption of alcohol by customers and the provision of tips, may induce the incidence and lead to prevalence of ISH, CSH or both. While no official or published statistics showing the level of sexual harassment incidence in Macao casinos, Lourenco and Gutierrez's (2019) study on sexual harassment related to migrant workers in the hospitality industry in Macao revealed that only three out of the nine interviewed respondents did not encounter nor were aware of any sexual harassment incidences in their workplace. In their study, those who have encountered sexual harassment chose to deal with it by avoiding, ignoring or even accepting such behavior to protect their jobs. After the liberalization of the casino gaming industry in 2001, Macao has become the world's largest casino gaming mekka. Given that casino tourism is the largest source of economic revenue for Macao, generating MOP 292.5 billion in gross gaming revenue in 2019 (Gaming Inspection and Coordination Bureau, 2019), a great number of females have entered the casino workplaces. According to Statistics and Census Service (2019), full-time employees engaged in the Macao gaming sector totaled 58,225 in 2019, of which female employees made up 57.5%. Research related to sexual harassment encountered by female frontline employees in the Macao casino context is scarce and thus critically called for.

While there has been a large body of ISH literature and a growing attention to CSH research, no notable attempt has been made to examine the impact of sexual harassment on frontline employees in a comparative way, particularly in a casino setting where job-related outcomes are closely associated with both customers and supervisors/colleagues. Hence, there is a need to investigate whether ISH or CSH has more significant and harsher impact on the victims so as to alert casino operators to pay attention to the sexual harassment matter and devise actionable strategies to counter the problem, besides focusing on making immense profit. To fill the void, this study aims to examine how ISH and CSH experiences are associated with the job attitude and organizational behavior of female frontline employees in Macao casinos. The objectives of this study are to: first, investigate the incidences of ISH and CSH that occurred

in the casino workplace; second, examine how ISH/CSH is related to job satisfaction and turnover intention; and third, compare the impact of ISH on job-related outcomes with those of CSH.

Literature Review

Definitions and Dimensions of Sexual Harassment

Thus far, no consensus on a universally-adopted definition of sexual harassment has been reached (Pina et al., 2009); some viewed such lack of a generally accepted definition as a problem for sexual harassment research (Gutek et al., 2004; Keyton, 1996; Sbraga & O'Donohue, 2000). Nonetheless, sexual harassment can be broadly summarized into three categories, including legal, psychological, and behavioral, and the interpretation of a specific behavior under each category varies (Fitzgerald et al., 1997).

Numerous research works in the sexual harassment literature were guided by the legal definition of EEOC (Willness et al., 2007, p. 131) as "unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature". In terms of legal definition, there are two types of sexual harassment including quid pro quo and hostile environment; the former represents requests for sexual favors through threats of job-related reprisals (e.g., termination) or promises of job-related advantages (e.g., hiring or promotion) (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2009; Pina & Gannon, 2012), whereas the latter denotes sex-related conducts that "unreasonably interfer[e] with an individual's work performance" or form "an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment" (EEOC, 1980).

Psychologists argue that the legal definition fails to consider the psychological experience of a victim and define sexual harassment from the viewpoint of the target (Fitzgerald et al., 1997). From a psychological point of view, sexual harassment is defined as "unwanted sex-related behavior at work that is appraised by the recipient as offensive, exceeding her resources, or threatening her well-being" (Fitzgerald et al., 1997, p. 15). The process of appraisal can be determined by three elements: stimulus factors (i.e., harassing behavior), contextual factors (i.e., organizational context in which the behavior takes place), and individual factors (i.e., individual woman) (Fitzgerald et al., 1997). Under the psychological definition, an individual is considered as the victim of sexual harassment if the recipient feels harassed whether or not the sex-related behavior is illegal (O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2009).

On the other hand, the behavioral definition of sexual harassment reflects the categorization or typology of sexually harassing behaviors. Fitzgerald et al. (1988) proposed a three-dimension typology of sexual harassment: gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion. Gender harassment represents the most common form of sexual harassment, and it encompasses verbal, physical, and indicative behaviors conveying humiliating, antagonistic, and disgraceful manners. Unwanted sexual attention includes, both verbal and nonverbal, uninviting, disrespectful, and unreciprocated conducts, such as sexual demand, touching, or constant requests for dating. Finally, sexual coercion denotes the exaction of sexual cooperation by either menace or reward. In relation to legal definition, the first two dimensions comprise behaviors that constitute hostile environment harassment, while the third one includes those behaviors of quid pro quo harassment (Willness et al., 2007). In this study, the typology described by Fitzgerald et al. (1988) is adopted to investigate the incidences of ISH and CSH that female employees experience in the casino workplace.

Misperception Theory

Misperception theory suggests that sexual harassment is likely to occur when men misperceive friendly behaviors from women as flirtatious and sexy (Stockdale, 1993). By misinterpreting the friendliness of a woman in such way, a man may act in a sexual manner with inappropriate behaviors, such as touching or asking a female out. It has been found that men who have

propensity to misperceive are likely to be sexually aggressive or to hold a sexually harassing belief system (Stockdale, 1993). Saal (1996) showed that men who have high tendency to misperceive friendly behavior from women are more likely to endorse sexual harassment on women by another man and to engage in sexually harassing behaviors.

The old saying that "customer is always right" suggests that the center of a business is customers. Employees are often trained or expected to interact with customers in a friendly manner even facing customer abuse and harassment (Handy, 2006; Hughes & Tadic, 1998). Under this circumstance, the constant friendly behaviors from female employees may lead a male customer to misperceive/misinterpret such friendliness as a possible sign of sexual interest, which then repeats or escalates his sexually harassing behaviors. In addition, due to their job nature the attitude or behavior of frontline female employees toward customers are likely to be friendlier than those toward colleagues, since their job-related attitude/behavior are mandated by service guidelines (Taylor, 2017; Yu & Ngan, 2019). This, in turn, could have contributed to CSH's higher incidence rates than ISH's due to client power as evident in Gettman & Gelfand's (2007) study on professional women. Besides, as noted by Gettman and Gelfand (2007), in a service context female frontline employees spend a significant amount of time dealing with customers, lending them more vulnerable to incidences of CSH than ISH. From the above argument, we thus hypothesize that,

H1: CSH occurs more frequently than ISH in the casino workplace.

Consequences of Sexual Harassment

The integrated model of antecedents and consequences of sexual harassment developed by Fitzgerald et al. (1994) has been widely recognized as the most comprehensive model describing sexual harassment in organizations. In addition to the negative impact on victim's attitudes and behaviors, sexual harassment also negatively influences the psychological and physical well-being of sexually harassed employees (Dionisi et al., 2012; Fitzgerald & Cortina, 2018; Rubin et al., 2019). Previous studies also suggested that negative consequences of sexual harassment can be resulted from indirect exposure of female employees to such misbehavior, which reflect co-victimization of work group members, including witnessing or experiencing others' being victimized (Glomb et al., 1997). In addition to consequences on individual victims of sexual harassment on a personal level, sexual harassment incidences also have significant impacts on the organization as a whole (Clason, 2008; Sojo et al., 2016).

Sexual harassment may negatively influences employees' affective attitudes and organizational behaviors. In the sexual harassment literature, the impact of sexual harassment on job satisfaction has been most frequently examined (Pina & Gannon, 2012), and several studies have revealed that sexual harassment occurrence considerably reduces job satisfaction (Fitzgerald, et al., 1997; Hutagalung & Ishak, 2013; Willness et al., 2007). Some studies examined the relationship between sexual harassment occurrence and job satisfaction through individual facets of job satisfaction, which include satisfaction with work, co-workers and supervisors (Glomb et al., 1999; Schneider et al., 1997; Willness et al., 2007). The meta-analysis of Willness et al. (2007) demonstrated that the effect of sexual harassment occurrence on satisfaction with co-workers and supervisors, which represents the satisfaction of employees with their interpersonal aspects of work, is more harmful than that with work. Besides, organizational withdrawals were revealed as significant job-related behavioral consequences of sexual harassment including work withdrawal and job withdrawal. Work withdrawal represents intent to avoid work duties in connection with the work capacity of an individual while staying within the organization (e.g., skipping work or lateness), whilst job withdrawal refers to partial or whole retreat of an individual from the job from a particular organization (e.g., turnover or retirement) (Dionisi et al., 2012; Kath et al., 2011). We therefore hypothesize

that:

H2: ISH negatively affects job satisfaction.

H3: ISH positively affects turnover intention.

While sexual harassment research has paid much attention on ISH, the occurrence of CSH in the workplace has gained an increasing attention. Gettman and Gelfand (2007) found that CSH is associated with lower job satisfaction, decreased organizational commitment, and high turnover intention. Moreover, service providers who experience CSH may distance themselves from their customers through such actions as refusing to pursue business transactions with the harassing customer and requesting fellow workers to step into her/his shoes (Dana, 2008; Gettman & Gelfand, 2007). These behaviors indicate work withdrawals of service providers from customers, and in extreme cases, CSH may lead to high turnover, which is a characteristic of many service organizations (Dana, 2008; Folgero & Fjeldstad, 1995). We therefore hypothesize that:

H4: CSH negatively affects job satisfaction.

H5: CSH positively affects turnover intention.

In assessing the impact of sexual harassment on turnover intention, under a stimulus-organism-response paradigm Fitzgerald et al. (1997) showed that sexual harassment could also indirectly affect turnover intention via job satisfaction as a mediator. In addition, job satisfaction has also been found to mediate the relationship between turnover intention and its antecedents at individual, group and organization levels (Tongchaiprasit & Ariyabuddhiphongs, 2016). We therefore hypothesize that:

H6: ISH has an indirect positive effect on turnover intention, via job satisfaction.

H7: CSH has an indirect positive effect on turnover intention, via job satisfaction.

Sexual harassment occurrence has also been conceptualized as a type of job stressor (Glomb et al., 1997). Previous research found work stress to be caused by traditional job stressors results in negative attitudinal and behavioral consequences, psychological well-being and physical health (Kelloway & Day, 2005). Given that general work stressors provide a baseline against which sexual harassment can be evaluated, it is sensible to assess the consequences of sexual harassment along with other job stressors in a framework (Brown et al., 2011). In other words, job stress should be included as a control variable to ensure that the impact of job stress are not mistakenly attributed to sexual harassment (Glomb et al., 1997). Thus, as in line with previous sexual harassment research (Cortina et al., 2002; Gettman & Gelfand, 2007), job stress was considered in the model to signify sexual harassment's accounting for outcomes exceeding that attributable to general job stress. Figure 1 shows the conceptual framework for this study. We hereby hypothesize that:

H8: Job stress negatively affects job satisfaction.

H9: Job stress positively affects turnover intention.

In addition to the consequences on individual sexual harassment victims, sexual harassment

incidents may also have significant impact on an organization to which the victims belong. The costs associated with legal issues may place a heavy financial burden on the involved organizations. In the case of lost lawsuit, the organization may be required to pay compensatory damages, which refer to reimbursement for lost wages or medical treatments that incurred as a result of sexual harassment, and punitive damages, the price of which may be unpredictable and potentially costly (Clason, 2008). Along with the legal costs, loss of productivity is also a significant organizational cost associated with sexual harassment (Willness et al., 2007). The sexually harassed employees may experience various forms of productivity problems, such as diminished quality and quantity of work, decreased ability to work with others, and negative attitudes about doing a good job (Pryor, 1995). In addition, sexual harassment victims may engage in unacceptable behaviors, such as task avoidance, neglect of duties, and sabotage (Fitness, 2000; Gruber & Smith, 1995). The productivity, not only of an individual but also of the entire work group, may be adversely affected by sexual harassment (Bergman & Drasgow, 2003; Fitzgerald et al., 1999). Other organizational costs related with sexual harassment include low employee morale, increased absenteeism, high turnover (Clason, 2008; Willness et al., 2007), and loss of credibility (Keyton, 1996).

[Insert Figure 1 here]

Methodology

This study examines whether or not sexual harassment (internal and customer) occurrence toward female frontline employees affect their job satisfaction and turnover intention in the Macao casino context. The selection of Macao casinos as a study context was due to the fact that a great number of females have entered the casino workplaces in the Macao gaming sector but little research touched upon the topic of sexual harassment related to frontline female employees. In testing the hypotheses advanced, a survey questionnaire was developed for collecting requisite data. The scales used to measure ISH/CSH occurrence, job satisfaction, turnover intention, and job stress were drawn from previous studies.

Survey Instrument

This study used a self-administered questionnaire as the data collection instrument, which consisted of four sections. The first section asked how often the respondents have experienced specific sexually harassing behaviors from both supervisor/co-workers and customers in the past 2 years. The second section contained items asking about their job satisfaction and turnover intention. The third section solicited their perceptions on job stress. Lastly, the final section asked demographic profile and job-related information, such as position and monthly salary.

The Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) developed by Fitzgerald et al. (1988) is likely the most widely used scale to measure sexual harassment. Given that the purpose of this study is to compare the impact of ISH with those of CSH, SEQ was modified to ensure that it can be used properly for both cases of CSH and ISH. The modified version, SEQ-Internal/Customer (SEQ-IC), was the questionnaire completed by the participants. SEQ-IC contained 16 items, which assess the three dimensions of sexual harassment (Fitzgerald et al., 1988): eight items for gender harassment (e.g., “How often have you been in a situation where (1) a male supervisor/co-worker and (2) customer told offensive sexual stories or jokes?”), four items for unwanted sexual attention (e.g., “How often have you been in a situation where (1) a male supervisor/co-worker and (2) customer touched you in a way that made you feel uncomfortable?”), and four items for sexual coercion (e.g., “How often have you been in a situation where (1) a male supervisor/co-worker and (2) customer made you feel threatened

with some sort of retaliation for not being sexually cooperative?). All items were written in behavioral terms, and the term *sexual harassment* was not used to circumvent prejudicing participants and to ameliorate reliability (Fitzgerald et al., 1997). The participants responded using a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*many times*), based on their experiences/encounters within the last 2 years.

Job satisfaction was assessed using a three-item job satisfaction scale adopted from Cammann et al. (1983); sample items included "All in all, I am satisfied with my job" and "In general, I don't like my job," and the latter was reverse-coded. Turnover intention was measured with a three-item turnover intention scale adopted from Cammann et al. (1979); a sample item was "I will likely actively look for a new job in the next year." Responses were made on a five-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). High scores represented high job satisfaction or high turnover intention.

Perceived Stress Scale (PSS) developed by Cohen et al. (1983) was used to measure job stress. The 4-item PSS included two negative items (e.g., "How often have you felt difficulties were piling up so high that you could not overcome them?") and two positive items (e.g., "How often have you felt that things were going your way?"), and the positively stated items were reverse-coded. The participants were requested to rate on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (*never*) to 5 (*very often*), about their feelings and thoughts in the past month.

Given the diversity of the nationalities of Macao employees, the questionnaire went through a translation-back-translation exercise and was presented in both English and Chinese. Prior to distribution, a pilot test among 35 hospitality postgraduate students who were working in casinos or had worked in casinos was conducted to ensure that the questions are clear and comprehensive.

Data collection and analysis

The target study population was female frontline employees working in Macao casinos; in other words, female employees working in other sectors, such as hotel, restaurant, retail stores, and convention centers that belong to casino hotels or casino-based integrated resorts, were not considered. Only female employees were surveyed as studies have shown that most sexual harassment victims are females (EEOC, 2019; Das, 2009). A convenience sampling approach was adopted. The questionnaires were distributed to female employees at the staff entrance of five casinos on both weekday and weekend from 9 am to 9 pm during January 26 2015 and February 11 2015. The questionnaire started with a cover letter describing the aim of the study and the confidentiality of the responses. The respondents completed a questionnaire, entitled "A Survey on Interpersonal Issues in Casinos", and were informed to respond to questions regarding their jobs and interactions with supervisors/co-workers and customers. Given that individual participants might have their own definitions of sexual harassment or any opinion regarding the topic that could influence the responses, the term, sexual harassment, was not used on the title as well as throughout the whole survey process, which adheres to the standard practice in sexual harassment research (Fitzgerald et al., 1995).

To test the hypotheses of the model shown in Figure 1, EQS statistical program was used. Data analysis incorporated both a measurement model and a structural model. Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed to assess the relations of the observed indicators to the latent constructs. Second-order CFA was carried out to confirm that both ISH and CSH load into three factors, including gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention and sexual coercion. Structural equation modeling (SEM) was conducted to assess the proposed relationships among the latent constructs. A number of goodness-of-fit indices were examined to determine the model fit, including the ratio of χ^2 to degrees of freedom, comparative fit index (CFI), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA) and the non-normed fit index (NNFI). Standardized path coefficients were assessed to determine the degree to which the constructs

being related to each other in the model. Common method bias was checked by performing the Harman's single-factor test.

Results

Respondents' Profiles

A total of 348 female frontline employees participated in the survey. The age of respondents ranged from 20s to 50s, in which 60%, 25%, 10%, and 5% of them were in their 20s, 30s, 40s, and 50s, respectively. 58% of the respondents were single, followed by married (39%), and divorced or widowed (3%). Moreover, 72% were local employees (i.e., Macanese) whereas 28% were non-locals. In terms of education level, 43% of the respondents held at least a college degree, 39% were high school graduates, and 17% quitted or were not able to finish high school. Most of the respondents worked as either a host (41%) or dealer (37%); 22% of the sample held other jobs (most of them did not reveal their job, probably to protect their anonymity). Of the sample, 84% were junior staff members, 12% were supervisors, and 4% were managers. Furthermore, 4% had monthly salaries of less than MOP10,000 (USD1=MOP8), 66% were earning salaries ranging from MOP10,001 to 20,000, 25% from MOP$20,001 to 30,000, and the remainder (5%) earned higher than MOP$30,001.

Incidence of ISH and CSH

Table 1 shows the number and percentage of women experiencing ISH and CSH. Gender harassment was the most typical type of ISH in our sample, with 73% of the respondents having experienced this form at least once in the past two years, followed by unwanted sexual attention (53%) and sexual coercion (42%). For the cases of CSH, similar results were observed; gender harassment (85%) occurred the most frequently, followed by unwanted sexual attention (66%) and sexual coercion (52%). In summary, 79% of the respondents experienced any forms of ISH at least once, whereas 87% of the respondents experienced CSH. In particular, the frequencies of overall and all three dimensions of CSH were appreciably higher than those of ISH, thus supporting Hypothesis 1a.

[Insert Table 1 here]

Preliminary Data Analysis

Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) noted that parameter estimates and chi-square tests of fit in structural equation modeling (SEM) are sensitive to sample size due to the fact that SEM is based on covariances. Examination of histograms, multivariate kurtosis and Mardia's coefficient suggested non-normality of the data distribution and therefore, we adopted Satorra-Bentler scaled statics for chi-square tests. Besides, considering that the determinant of the matrix (0.12423D-10) was greater than zero in the EQS output, no singularity was present.

As shown in Table 2, a CFA model specifying two second-order factors: ISH and CSH and three other factors including job stress, job satisfaction, and turnover intention, for a total of nine constructs, was performed. In particular, ISH loaded on three factors, including internal gender harassment (IGH), internal unwanted sexual attention (IUSA), and internal sexual coercion (ISC). The correlation coefficients among the three first-order factors were between 0.885 to 0.960; the second-order factors significantly explained the variances (R^2) in the corresponding first-order factors, ranging from 0.836 to 0.984. The other second-order factor, CSH, also loaded on three perceptional factors, i.e. customer gender harassment (CGH), customer unwanted sexual attention (CUSA), and customer sexual coercion (CSC). The three first-order factors' between-factor correlations were between 0.741 to 0.918; the first-order factors' variances (R^2) were all significantly accounted for by the corresponding second-order factors, ranging from 0.87 to 0.99. Cronbach's alpha ranging from 0.666 to 0.92 showed the

reliabilities of multi-item constructs (see Table 3). Except for the construct of job stress, all the other constructs' reliability levels exceeded the critical value of 0.7 as suggested by Nunnally (1978).

[Insert Table 2 here]

Convergent and discriminant validity of the nine constructs in the CFA model were assessed as shown in Table 3. In checking discriminant validity, the correlation coefficients among IGH, IUSA, and ISC were excessively high, ranging from 0.885 to 0.960 and supporting the existence of a higher-order factor among them; therefore, a second-order factor (ISH) was justified. That is, the presence of a higher-order factor asserted the validity of ISH measurement by such three dimensions as IGH, IUSA, and ISC. On the other hand, the correlation coefficients among CGH, CUSA, and CSC (ranging from 0.741 to 0.918) also asserted the presence of a second-order factor for them. The presence of a second-order factor supported that CGH, CUSA, and CSC are effective surrogates for CSH. Consequently, the higher-order factor (CSH) was created to load on CGH, CUSA, and CSC. The estimated correlation coefficients among the five factors (i.e. ISH, CSH, job satisfaction, job stress, and turnover intention) were fairly low to denote that they were clearly distinct.

[Insert Table 3 here]

Measurement Model Results

As determined previously, the measurement model identified two higher-order factors (ISH and CSH), as well as three other factors: job stress, job satisfaction, and turnover intention. We constrained every indicator in the model to only load onto the factor it was intended to measure; we also fixed all the indicators' residual terms to be uncorrelated. Besides, no equality constraints on the factor loadings were placed, and the factor covariances were free to be estimated. This model demonstrated a good fit to the data [Satorra-Bentler Scaled $\chi^2(333, n = 348) = 648.7861$; $p < 0.001$; NNFI = 0.931, CFI = 0.939; IFI = 0.939, and RMSEA = 0.052 (Confidence interval = 0.046~0.058)]. The constructs significantly accounted for the corresponding indicators' variances (R^2), ranging from 0.387 to 0.880 (See Table 4 for the CFA results).

[Insert Table 4 here]

When examining the correlation coefficients among the five factors, the largest one ($r = .794$) was between ISH and CSH, and the second largest one ($r = -0.678$) was between job satisfaction and turnover intention. In the contrary, the smallest factor correlation coefficient ($r = 0.144$) was between ISH and turnover intention, and the second smallest one ($r = -0.208$) was between job stress and job satisfaction.

Structural Model Results

When examining the proposed model's goodness of fit, we re-specified a measurement model by imposing the structure of each construct and the results are summarized in Table 5. The fit indices show that the model fit the data well [Satorra-Bentler Scaled $\chi^2(332, n = 348) = 550.189$; $p < 0.001$; NFI = 0.901, NNFI = 0.952, CFI = 0.958; IFI =0.958; RMSEA = 0.044 (Confidence interval = 0.037~0.050)]. With the above satisfactory fit indices, significant parameter estimates, and the model's parsimonious and meaningful paths, our proposed model has a very good model fit (see Figure 2).

[Insert Table 5 here]

[Insert Figure 2 here]

The data analysis results permit construction of two structural equations resulting from decomposition of the model's variables:

$$Y_{job\ satisfaction} = -0.219\,(\text{internal sexual harassment}) - 0.149\,(\text{customer sexual harassment}) - 0.427\,(\text{job stress}) + D_{10}$$

$$Y_{turnover\ intention} = -0.231\,(\text{internal sexual harassment}) + 0.132\,(\text{customer sexual harassment}) + 0.246\,(\text{job stress}) - 0.637\,(\text{job satisfaction}) + D_{11}$$

Besides, the results also show that all indirect effect were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$), except for the direct effect of CSH on job satisfaction and turnover intention. As shown in Figure 2, the SEM results reflect that our proposed path structure is relevant. In particular, the indirect effect of job stress via job satisfaction on turnover intention is significant. This model explains approximately 39% of the variance in job satisfaction and 57.9% of the variance in turnover intention, respectively. Table 6 summarizes the direct, indirect and total effect, and R^2.

[Insert Table 6 here]

Table 7 summaries the hypotheses testing results. ISH exerted a significant, negative effect on both job satisfaction ($\beta = -.219$, $p<.05$) and turnover intention (($\beta = -.231$, $p<.05$), signifying that a higher level of ISH would be related to lower job satisfaction and lower turnover intention, thus supporting H2 but not H3. However, it appears that ISH had a significant, indirect positive effect on turnover intention ($\beta = 0.14$, $p<.05$) mediated by job satisfaction, thus supporting H8. Nevertheless, our results failed to back up the proposed direct effect of CSH on either job satisfaction or turnover intention, and the proposed indirect effect of CSH on turnover intention mediated by job satisfaction, thus failing to support H4, H5 and H7. Although the results showed that CSH occurred more frequently than ISH in the casino workplace, compared to CSH, ISH was found to exhibit significant, more harmful impact on female frontline employees.

The path from job stress to job satisfaction was -.427 ($p<.01$) and to turnover intention was 0.246 ($p<.01$), respectively, indicating that female frontline employees who reported higher levels of job stress felt less satisfied and higher turnover intention with their jobs, thus supporting H8 and H9. Additionally, female frontline employees' job satisfaction appeared to exert a significant and negative effect on turnover intention ($\beta = -.637$, $p<.01$), illustrating that higher job satisfaction is pertaining to lower turnover intention, echoing the previous literature on the relation between job satisfaction and turnover intention. It is also noted that job stress had a positive and indirect effect on turnover intention ($\beta = .272$, $p<.01$), mediated by job satisfaction.

[Insert Table 7 here]

Last, common method bias was assessed for any bias caused by nuisance during the data collection process (Podsakoff et al., 2003). A significant common method bias is said to exist when more than 50% of the variance in the model can be explained by a single factor (Lings & Greenley, 2005). The Harman's single factor test result showed that common method bias is not a serious issue in our study as the single factor structure accounted for only 48.9% of the variance in the model.

Implications

Theoretical implications

While studies related to sexual harassment, whether internal or external, have been prevalent, this study is the first to include ISH and CSH in the same model by treating them as unique job stressors and comparing their impacts on the job-related consequences in the context of a service industry. Surprisingly, although CSH is more prevalent than ISH in Macao casinos, ISH showed more serious impact on the female frontline employees' job-related consequences. The female frontline employees' ISH experiences were related to lower job satisfaction and higher turnover intention mediated by job satisfaction. It is also important to note that the negative effect of ISH on job satisfaction was still observed even after general job stress was accounted for, partially recapitulating Glomb et al.'s (1997) conceptualization of sexual harassment occurrence as a unique type of job stressor. Our study showed that ISH indeed exerts a significant and negative impact on female frontline employees in addition to traditional job stressors.

CSH in our study did not significantly influence female frontline employees' job satisfaction nor turnover intention. Moreover, CSH was not found to account for unique variance in job outcomes exceeding that accounted for by general job stressor, which is not in line with Glomb et al. (1997). This finding is in contrast to previous literature suggesting that CSH has several potential costs including lower job and health satisfaction, heightened turnover intention, diminished organizational attachment, and increased psychological distress (Gettman & Gelfand, 2007). Nevertheless, the lack of significant detrimental effect of CSH found in the current study may be due to contextual factors making female frontline employees less sensitive to sexual harassment behavior committed by customers. Up to date verbal and non-contact sexual harassment not being considered as a crime in Macao, coupled with the misperception of customers' sexually harassing behavior as friendly gesture, might be the reasons behind why the victims' CSH experiences did not have significant impact on their job satisfaction and turnover intention. Or, they may simply not want to heighten CSH situations to protect their job security (Lourenço & Gutierrez, 2019).

Surprisingly, the results showed a significant negative effect of ISH on turnover intention, which is counterintuitive. Given the high incidence rate of sexual harassment in the casino workplace evident in our study, it is possible that female frontline employees might either sense sexually harassing behaviors to be unavoidable in their work environment or have a tendency to regard such behaviors as friendly collegiality gesture. We caution interpretation of this result and urge future studies to verify whether the same result holds.

Practical implications

The results of the present study showed that both ISH and CSH are a common occurrence in the casino workplace in Macao. Although previous sexual harassment research indicates that between 40% to 68% of women had experienced sexually harassing behaviors in the workplace (Schneider et al., 1997), relatively high numbers of female frontline employees surveyed in our study reported experiencing ISH and CSH in their casino workplace, echoing our initial attempt in conducting such a study. Especially, in terms of the comparison between ISH and CSH, CHS occurred with higher frequency (87%) than ISH (79%) as evident in our study.

Macao casino management should be aware of the seriousness and significant negative consequences of sexual harassment on their female frontline employees as evident in our study. Low job satisfaction caused by sexual harassment incidents, particularly in the form of ISH, not only harm the career of women but also may result in unwanted organizational costs (Clason, 2008; Willness et al., 2007). Given that more than half of the workforce in Macao casinos consists of women (Statistics and Census Service, 2019), the negative impact and costs

associated with sexual harassment should not be neglected. Although this study did not examine the organizational tolerance of sexual harassment, high incidence rates of sexual harassment as evident in our study could likely be attributed to organizational tolerance as sexual harassment is not a punishable offence in Macao prior to 2018 (Lourenço & Gutierrez, 2019). Organizational tolerance of sexual harassment affects well-being outcomes, such as work and life satisfaction beyond the effect of direct experience of sexual harassment (Hulin et al., 1996). Employees increasingly believe that protecting employees by implementing strict policies, preventative education, and proper procedures to deal with sexual harassment issues is the responsibility of the organization (Hogler et al., 2002; Willness et al., 2007). Therefore, the absence of such conditions may lead to the anger of employees toward not only the harasser but also the organization, thereby resulting in more detachment from the organization (Willness et al., 2007). Therefore, the effective policies and appropriate procedures must be implemented by casinos to protect their employees and ultimately, to decrease the incidence and prevalence of sexual harassment. It should also be noted that a law related to sexual harassment passed in Macao in 2017 stipulates "Whoever harasses another person by compelling him/her to …physical contact of a sexual nature through any parts of the body or objectives" (Macao SAR Legal Affairs Bureau, 2017) only considers physical contact as a crime and ignores verbal and non-physical contact sexual harassment behavior (Lourenco & Gutierrez, 2019). Casinos should take a step further than the law to make effort in avoiding both physical and verbal sexual harassment incidences.

According to Pryor et al. (1993), when the environment is tolerant of sexual harassment, men who have a high tendency to sexually harass others are more likely to behave in a sexually harassing way toward women. Although significant impact of CSH were not found in the study, the high incidence of CSH may extend to the situation in which male workers also engage in such behaviors toward female frontline employees. Even if CSH issues are quite difficult and tough to handle because of the intricacies of customer relationships and financial considerations, casinos should provide practical and continuing trainings for both male and female employees to help them fully understand clear definitions of unacceptable behaviors, reporting procedures, strict regulations, and legal responsibility of employers.

Conclusion

This study is an initial attempt in comparing the impact of ISH and CSH on job-related outcomes in the casino context by proposing a model explaining the relationships among ISH and CSH, job stress, job satisfaction and turnover intention applying the misperception theory of sexual harassment. The findings showed that that female frontline employees encountered CSH more frequently than ISH; however, it was ISH, rather than CSH, that caused harmful impact on their job-related consequences. This emphasizes the importance of interpersonal relationships within organization as far as sexual harassment issues are concerned. Undoubtedly sexual harassment is one serious obstacle to the career success of female employees.

This study is not without limitations. In comparing the impact of ISH and CSH, this study simply separated the perpetrators as organizational insiders and customers. However, in regard to the extent to which sexual harassment affects frontline employees, sexual harassment by supervisors may exert different levels of impact on female employees as compared with that by co-workers. Similarly, sexually harassing behaviors by customers who have considerable influence over employees or who have repeated encounters with service staffs may exert different impacts than those customers who do not. Accordingly, there may be different correlations resulted from sexual harassment by different types of perpetrators. Future research may need to investigate and compare the impact of sexual harassment by defining perpetrator groups in meaningful ways with such factors as degree of power and dependency and the

amount of time spending with perpetrators in the workplace.

Another limitation is a possible self-selection bias in the sample. As shown earlier, the occurrence rates of both ISH and CSH – particularly internal and customer sexual coercion (42% and 52% compared with less than 10% in general) – were substantially higher than the typical rates of sexual harassment in the workplace. However, considering that the expression of sexual harassment didn't appear throughout the survey procedure, the self-selection bias problem may not be that serious in the present study. Rather, the significantly high rate would reflect the prevalence of ISH and CSH in the casino workplaces. Future study could investigate whether the incident rates and patterns of sexual harassing behaviors vary across different service sectors.

Finally, the respondents answered to the survey based on their "sexual harassment" experiences within the last two years, and thus, recall bias might have occurred in the sample. There is possibility that the respondents underestimated the frequency of sexual harassment or failed to recall sexual harassment experiences accurately which may affect the overall results. Longitudinal studies on sexual harassment toward female employees who work in the environment where sexual harassment is prevalent by multiple perpetrator groups can be another area for future research. The cultural elements related to the perception, attitude and response toward sexual harassment in the casino workplace in Macao and their impacts on the job-related outcomes could be another interesting area to explore (Zimbroff, 2007) as employees from multiple cultural backgrounds are employed by Macao casinos whose owners and management are also from the cultures of Western, Asian or both.

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