

What Will End the Silence?

Understanding Employee Voice in Cases of Workplace Sexual Misconduct

by

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Abstract

Employee voice has been identified as an integral means of addressing workplace sexual misconduct, yet little is known of the steps organizations can take to promote reporting of these incidents. The current study investigated predictors of target and observer reporting among 3,230 gender harassment, 890 sexual advance harassment, and 570 sexual assault incidents within an organization actively seeking to reduce sexual misconduct prevalence. After controlling for known predictors of employee voice in cases of mistreatment, including factors related to the target (sex, race, tenure) and the incident (frequency of sexual misconduct, past sexual misconduct experience, relative perpetrator power), mutable organizational factors contributed to the prediction of target voice across sexual misconduct contexts. However, the directionality of these effects—including counterintuitive findings related to targets' perceptions of organizational intolerance and reporting trends among visible minority and LGBT targets—incite a nuanced discussion of implications pertaining to target and observer voice.

Keywords: sexual misconduct, employee voice, observer intervention, organizational intolerance, diverse workplaces, workplace training.

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What Will End the Silence? Understanding Employee Voice in Cases of Workplace Sexual Misconduct

Sexual harassment and sexual assault are social justice and human rights issues that remain staunchly embedded in modern culture despite the efforts of activists, researchers, and policy makers. It is of no surprise that sexual misconduct mimics this pattern within organizations, as workplaces are a microcosm of social norms, and tend to reflect the behaviours and beliefs individuals espouse outside their walls. Organizational psychologists and practitioners have made strides in conceptualizing workplace sexual harassment and sexual assault, and have further identified their primary antecedents and consequences (O'Leary-Kelly, Bowes-Sperry, Bates, & Lean, 2009). Primary, secondary, and tertiary intervention and harm prevention programs have been recommended based on both theoretical and empirical work in the field (Quick & McFadyen, 2017). Yet, relatively little is known regarding the outcomes associated with such programs (Holland & Cortina, 2016; Magley, Fitzgerald, Salisbury, Drasgow, & Zickar, 2013), particularly with regards to incident reporting. If organizational psychologists are to continue contributing to the eradication of workplace sexual misconduct, it is necessary that we continue to expand upon our knowledge of this organizational issue.

The current research investigates employees' reporting tendencies within an organization that has recently introduced the goal of eliminating sexual misconduct, and is actively delivering awareness and observer intervention training, and further calling for increased incident reporting, as part of the strategy for achieving this goal. The intent of this research is to examine the role of individual and organizational variables in sexual misconduct reporting; in particular, by examining factors that predict both target and observer reporting of incidents. Reporting is an integral means through which the

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organization may come to learn of, and further dissuade individuals from engaging in, sexual misconduct (Holland & Cortina, 2016). This research aims to improve understanding of employee voice when it comes to organizational sexual misconduct.

Workplace Sexual Misconduct

Constructs. Sexual harassment and sexual assault are two distinct forms of interpersonal mistreatment, and denote a broad spectrum of sexualized behaviours that range from mild and innocuous to deeply offensive and harmful, in nature. As presented in Figure 1, sexual harassment comprises three separate, underlying constructs – gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention, and sexual coercion – which are distinct from the construct of sexual assault, though all may be described together as sexual misconduct (Koss, Wilgus, & Williamsen, 2014). Sexual misconduct is thus considered a pragmatic, rather than theoretical, umbrella term that subsumes all behaviours that constitute sexual harassment or sexual assault (Koss et al., 2014).

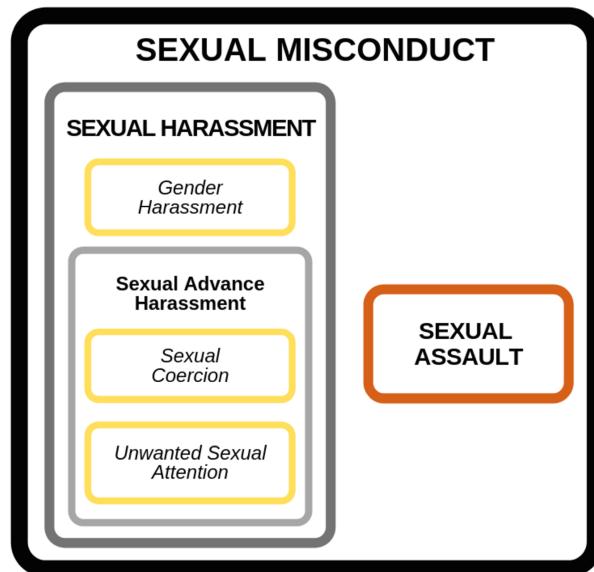


Figure 1. Conceptual overlap of workplace sexual misconduct, sexual harassment, sexual advance harassment, and sexual assault.

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In terms of prevalence, gender harassment is the most frequently perpetrated subdomain of sexual harassment behaviours. Broadly speaking, it involves derogating an individual in sex-based ways, which may include rude and belittling behaviours, demeaning jokes, insults, and disparaging comments that are notably sexual or relate to the target's gender (Fitzgerald, Swan, & Magley, 1997a). More specifically, Leskinen and Cortina (2014) argue there are five dimensions underlying gender harassment: sexist remarks, sexually crude/offensive behaviour, infantilization, work/family policing, and gender policing. Berdahl (2007a) makes the important distinction that though these behaviours are sex-based, they are not necessarily sexual. Finally, several authors note that gender harassment often occurs during informal workplace interaction (i.e., office banter), which makes it difficult to monitor and sanction (Acker, 2006; Wright, 2016).

Though certain behaviours that are considered gender harassment may appear mundane, they are problematic nonetheless. Gender harassment behaviours serve to perpetuate internalized gender role norms, as they tend to be used to convey hostile and offensive attitudes towards those who violate normative gender role expectations (Holland, Rabelo, Gustafson, Seabrook, & Cortina, 2016; Berdahl, 2007b). Moreover, despite their association with deleterious individual and organizational outcomes – such as declines in physical well-being, (e.g., nausea, headaches), psychological well-being (e.g., anxiety, depression, eating disorders), job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (Quick & McFadyen, 2017; Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997b; Harned & Fitzgerald, 2002) – because gender harassment behaviours appear innocuous, they are likely to go unreported. As such, organizations may not be aware of the prevalence of gender harassment within their

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walls, and are thus unlikely to be actively combatting these behaviours.

Compared to gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention and sexual coercion are arguably more stereotypical forms of sexual harassment, and have been described as “more intense yet less frequent harmful experiences” (Sojo, Wood, & Genat, 2016, p. 10). At times, unwanted sexual attention and sexual coercion are referred to jointly as sexual advance harassment (e.g., Leskinen, Cortina, & Kabat, 2011; Holland & Cortina, 2013) – a term which further aids in describing these behaviours.

Unwanted sexual attention includes all romantic and sexual advances directed towards a target that the target does not reciprocate and finds to be unwanted and offensive, such as repeated requests for dates and inappropriate touching (Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995). Unwanted sexual attention creates a hostile work environment, and is likely to interfere with the target’s ability to complete their designated tasks due to the added complexity of coping with these advances, which may include avoiding the perpetrator or navigating uncomfortable social situations that might induce additional stress (Sojo et al., 2016).

Sexual coercion, in turn, constitutes instances when a perpetrator uses threats or incentives to elicit a sexual relationship or sexual activity from a target (Fitzgerald et al., 1995). Common examples include those of a workplace leader threatening to fire a subordinate, or to promote a subordinate, contingent on the subordinate’s willingness to engage in sexual intercourse with the workplace leader. In cases of sexual coercion, targets consent to engaging in these sexual relations, though they are doing so under the pressure of the contingent reward or punishment they believe will result consequentially.

In contrast to sexual harassment, which may only be litigated in civil courts,

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sexual assault is considered a criminal offence. Sexual assault involves physical sexual activity or sexual contact that is forced upon a target against that person's will and without consent (Ferguson, 2006; Koss et al., 2014; Watkins, Bennett, Zamorski, & Richer, 2017). Sexual assault is believed to be one of the most under-reported crimes (O'Brien, Keith, & Shoemaker, 2015; Garrett, 2011), and as such, adversely affects more victims than prevalence rates suggest if only formal reports are considered (McDonald & Charlesworth, 2016).

Foundational theories and primary social drivers. As research and understanding of workplace sexual misconduct have evolved, so too have the underlying theoretical explanations as to *why* such mistreatment persists within organizations. Early theories highlighted the perpetrator's sexual desire for the target (i.e., the natural-biological model; e.g., Crouch, 2001), or the spillover of broader socio-sexual beliefs of men's roles as sexual agents and women's roles as sexual objects (i.e., sex role spillover theory; e.g., Gutek, 1985). However, such theories have been critiqued for their simplicity, as they fail to account for women's agency (Wright, 2016). Moreover, these theories tend to insinuate that perpetrators are necessarily male and largely remove the onus of responsibility from these perpetrators by promoting a *boys will be boys* mentality, which minimizes personal culpability (Berdahl, 2007a; Foote & Goodman-Delahunty, 2005; McDonald & Charlesworth, 2016). They further fail to explain how cases of same-sex sexual misconduct and instances of same-sex peer and/or contrapower (i.e., subordinate harassing a supervisor) sexual harassment arise (Epstein, 1997; McDonald & Charlesworth, 2016).

Researchers now largely agree that sexual harassment is an expression of sexist

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hostility, as the preponderance of cases seem to be directed towards those who violate prescriptive gender ideals (Fiske & Glick, 1995; Burgess & Borgida, 1999). Gender ideals are widespread, implicit beliefs that individuals hold regarding which thoughts, feelings, and behaviours are appropriate for men and for women (Berdahl, 2007b). Feminine ideals include being demure, passive, caring, warm, and understanding, whereas masculine ideals include assertiveness, dominance, bravery, and independence (Leskinen, Rabelo, & Cortina, 2015). Previous research supports that individuals who deviate from these ideals are more likely to experience prejudice across multiple social domains, including the workplace (e.g., Eagly & Karau, 2002; Fiske & Stevens, 1993; Leskinen et al., 2015; Berdahl, Magley, & Waldo, 1996; Berdahl, 2007b; Holland et al., 2016). Social justice movements are beginning to challenge these stereotypes, yet it remains the case that assertive and independently-minded women, and effeminate and demure men, tend to experience harassment more frequently than their respective gender-role adhering counterparts (Berdahl, 2007b; Leskinen et al., 2015; Holland et al., 2016).

Sexual harassment is further believed to be the means through which individuals strive to maintain the gendered status quo within their workplaces (McLaughlin, Uggen, & Blackstone, 2012). Sexual harassment theoretically serves to preserve and enhance the gender hierarchy, social stratification, and the sex-based social status that men possess (Berdahl, 2007a). Those who feel their social identity is threatened when gender role norms are violated may use sexual harassment to police and reinforce these norms; thereby protecting the inherent social privileges these norms afford (Epstein, 1997). It is important to note, however, that these are deeply entrenched norms and notions that implicitly form during early socialization processes (Epstein, 1997; McGuire, 1968).

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Thus, they are likely unconscious at the level of the individual. Furthermore, even though individuals within a given generation receive relatively similar messages about gender roles, these will not manifest identically in each individual (Dekker & Barling, 1998).

Though women form the minority of sexual harassment perpetrators, the dominant theory also provides an explanation for their behaviour (McDonald & Charlesworth, 2016). Women who sexually harass others (both women and men) are theorized to do so to bolster their own power and/or to assert themselves as a good, dominant, or prototypical member of the social group (Berdahl, 2007a; Parks-Stamm, Heilman, & Hearn, 2008). In contrast, women may also engage in gender harassment of others to gain favour with male colleagues (Wright, 2016; Powell, Bagilhole, & Dainty, 2009). In these instances, women tend to disparage their own social group, rejecting what would otherwise be their in-group, in an attempt to gain proximity or acceptance to the men's in-group instead (Wright, 2016). While these motives are in apparent contradiction, prescriptive gender role norms notably underlie both (McDonald & Charlesworth, 2016).

Due to the relative infrequency of the perpetration of workplace sexual assault compared to sexual harassment (e.g., Cotter, 2016; Watkins et al., 2017; Garrett, 2011), and the difficulty of studying this sensitive topic, there is less evidence and more theory outlining its predominant causes. However, similar to sexual harassment, workplace sexual assault should *not* be regarded as merely a means of achieving a sexual end. Indeed, based on correlational patterns that suggest a large degree of similarity between the antecedents and outcomes of both sexual harassment and sexual assault (e.g., Harned, Ormerod, Palmieri, Collinsworth, & Reed, 2002), it can be argued that the underlying causes of both types of mistreatment are likely to be similar. Some authors argue that

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workplace sexual assault should be considered a sub-type of workplace sexual harassment (e.g., Fitzgerald et al., 1988); while others suggest that both lie along the same continuum or spectrum (Medeiros & Griffith, 2019). Harned et al. (2002) succinctly state that sexual harassment and sexual assault are “similar yet different” (p. 174). As such, there is value in continuing to investigate them both together and separately.

Primary organizational driver: Organizational tolerance climate. Though sociocultural factors theoretically underlie the perpetration of sexual harassment more broadly, certain mutable organizational factors have been demonstrated to influence its propagation within a given workplace. One particularly salient organizational antecedent identified in prior literature is the organizational tolerance climate, which is understood to be the primary predictor of workplace sexual harassment (Willness et al., 2007; Harned et al., 2002).

Organizational tolerance for mistreatment is the extent to which interpersonal employee mistreatment is permitted to occur without sanction within an organization (Offermann & Malamut, 2002). In turn, workplace climate is defined as employees’ shared perception of what constitutes normative and acceptable behaviour within an organization, which is established through social learning and socialization processes (Schneider, 1990). Taken together, organizational tolerance climate for sexual misconduct is thus the shared belief or perception that the organization tolerates, and will continue to tolerate acts of sexual harassment (Offermann & Malamut, 2002). If employees believe they are unlikely to be sanctioned for engaging in sexually harassing behaviours, such harassment is more likely to occur (Willness et al., 2007; Dekker & Barling, 1998). For instance, in their meta-analysis of 21 studies that investigated an association between

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organizational tolerance climate and sexual harassment, Willness, Steel, and Lee (2007) found a moderate association ($r = .36$) between these two variables. As such, organizations seeking to address workplace sexual misconduct are advised to foster a climate of sexual misconduct intolerance, wherein individuals perceive that sexual misconduct incidents will be swiftly and appropriately addressed and further denounced, and targets of such behaviours will be supported (Offermann & Malamut, 2002).

Seeking to Address and Prevent Workplace Sexual Misconduct

Within the past decade, researchers have progressed toward exploring, considering, and suggesting means through which organizations can tangibly seek to prevent the occurrence of sexual misconduct in the workplace.

There is evidence to suggest that the introduction of policies explicitly discouraging the commission of sexual misconduct may result in a reduction in incidents (Popovich, 1988; Dekker & Barling, 1998). However, there is extensive research supporting that policies alone are unlikely to prevent future incidents of sexual misconduct (Holland & Cortina, 2016). Notably, as organizational policies denouncing sexual misconduct have become more ubiquitous, there is now mounting research to support that they are only helpful if, and to the extent that, they are enforced (Gruber, 1998; Offermann & Malamut, 2002). In turn, policies can only be enforced if incidents involving the sexual misconduct behaviours outlined these policies are brought to the attention of organizational leaders.

For this reason, employee reporting of sexual misconduct is frequently promoted as an integral means of addressing sexual misconduct within an organization (Holland & Cortina, 2016). Indeed, when organizational leaders act on reports of misconduct and

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adequately address the mistreatment that has taken place, employees can benefit from the consequent sense of resolution proposed to result (Olson-Buchanan & Boswell, 2008).

High-quality voice experiences and use of proactive remedies subsequent to experiences of sexual misconduct have the potential to mitigate detrimental effects on job satisfaction and turnover intentions, as well (Hershcovis, Parker, & Reich, 2010; Bergman, Langhout, Palmieri, Cortina, & Fitzgerald, 2002).

In turn, there is reason to believe there will be downstream effects of high-quality reporting experiences on employees' perceptions of organizational intolerance of sexual misconduct (Knoll, Wegge, Unterrainer, Silva, & Jönsson, 2016). When remedial actions are taken subsequent to employee reporting, these reaffirm the organization's commitment to a harassment-free workplace (Offermann & Malamut, 2002), and may serve as a deterrent to potential future perpetrators (Dekker & Barling, 1998).

Furthermore, they have the potential forge trust in leadership and consequently assuage fears that individuals may have about reporting in the future (Liu, Tangirala, & Ramanujam, 2013), which plausibly could result in increased reporting of incidents over time (Knoll et al., 2016), and perpetuate the beneficial cycle of organizational intolerance. Though it has traditionally been the case that organizations have demonstrated poor reactions to reports of sexual misconduct (Cortina & Magley, 2003; Lonsway, Paynich, & Hall, 2013; Bergman et al., 2002), this does not negate the demonstrated benefits high-quality voice experiences. Thus, if organizations are truly seeking to eliminate sexual misconduct within their workforce, and plan on rectifying cases that are brought to light to the greatest extent possible, promoting employee voice should arguably be considered a key component in this process.

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However, if employees are to report an experience of sexual misconduct, they first need to understand what behaviours organizational policies outline as being inappropriate, and must also learn of the resources available to them should they become the target of these proscribed behaviours. To this end, organizational sexual misconduct training is a strategy that is being utilized with increasing frequency (Cortina & Berdahl, 2008), and is among the most widely prescribed organizational interventions aimed at reducing workplace sexual misconduct (Holland & Cortina, 2016). Such training is delivered with the aim of promoting awareness of sexual misconduct behaviours, as well as related organizational policies and resources, among all employees. Disambiguating such behaviours and explicitly naming them as sexual misconduct might serve to help employees to identify these behaviours, and further encourage individuals to take proactive measures in an effort to mitigate negative consequences, both in the moment and afterward (Cortina & Berdahl, 2008; Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). Sexual misconduct training, when adequately delivered, has the potential to equip the entire workforce with the information they need to seek help for either themselves or colleagues who experience such mistreatment.

Employee Voice

The prevention of workplace sexual misconduct through the promotion of target and observer reporting necessitates an exploration of the literature pertaining to employee voice. Hirschman (1970) first introduced the concept of employee voice as “any attempt to change rather than escape from an objectionable state of affairs” (p. 30). In essence, he proposes that when employees face workplace scenarios that are dissatisfying or detrimental to their well-being (e.g., mistreatment), they have several options, including:

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exiting the organization, voicing their malcontent in hopes of initiating positive change, remaining loyal while silently enduring the objectionable state, or neglecting their duties through withdrawal behaviours (i.e., EVLN model; Hirschman, 1970). Of these actions, the organization can only seek to improve the situation if and when the appropriate leaders become aware of the source of dissatisfaction. In turn, this awareness can only come about if either 1) these leaders witness the event and take it upon themselves to initiate change, or 2) it is brought to leaders' attention through employee voice.

There are many ways in which employees may voice their objections or concerns to the organization. Generally speaking, expressions of voice can be described along three dimensions, and thus, may be: formal or informal, delivered to organizational insiders or outsiders, and may come from a single employee or a collection of many (Knoll et al., 2016). In cases of mistreatment, it can be argued that an additional dimension should be considered, as the act of voice may come from mistreatment targets themselves (target reporting), or from observers who witness the event and desire to bring it to the attention of organizational leaders on behalf of the target (observer reporting).

Research exploring the interface between employee mistreatment and employee voice is ongoing. However, Bowen & Blackmon (2003) posit that factors related to both the individual (e.g., gender, race) and the situational and organizational context (e.g., hierarchical positions of the target and perpetrator, organizational intolerance climate) serve to predict whether a given employee will choose to engage in voice or to remain silent. For example, in instances of sexual misconduct, women are more likely to report than are men (McDonald, 2012), particularly in instances when the perpetrator is in a position of power over them (Bergman et al., 2002; Cortina, 2004; Malamut &

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Offermann, 2001). Additionally, though employees of colour experience workplace harassment and sexual misconduct at disproportionate rates (Berdahl & Moore, 2006), there is evidence to suggest that their acts of voice are less likely to be acknowledged (Kramarae, 1981), particularly in workplaces that lack cultural diversity (Meares, Oetzel, Torres, Derkacs, & Ginossar, 2004), and may more often choose to remain silent as a result (Harlos, 2001). Similar trends have also been demonstrated among members of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) community, who have been shown to experience sexual harassment at disproportionate rates, and are posited to voice less frequently than their heterosexual and cis-gender counterparts (Bell, Özbilgin, Beauregard, & Sürgevil, 2011; Bowen & Blackmon, 2003; Rabelo & Cortina, 2014). Thus, addressing not only the interaction of individual and situational factors, but also considering the intersections of multiple individual social identities (Crenshaw, 1990), is integral when investigating employee voice patterns.

When the interests of one individual are supported to a greater extent than (or at the expense of) the interests of others, that individual is said to hold power (Mumby, 2001). Those who are in power are more likely to voice, and researchers have proposed several reasons for this trend. Those in power may perceive fewer negative repercussions, and/or they may be more likely to believe their voice will result in positive changes (Meares et al., 2004). Those in marginalized social groups are more likely to become muted by the dominant (i.e., powerful) group, and thus are less likely to voice (Kramarae, 1981; Meares et al., 2004). The power of the perpetrator has also been demonstrated to influence employee reporting. Interestingly, though female targets who are sexually harassed by workplace leaders are more likely to report this mistreatment (e.g., Cortina,

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2004), observers are less likely to report powerful perpetrators (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005; Miceli & Near, 1988; Miceli, Near, & Schwenk, 1991).

In instances of sexual assault, O'Brien, Keith, and Shoemaker (2015) suggest that women and men who experience workplace sexual assault may have different reasons for not reporting. In their sample of American military members, female sexual trauma victims more frequently endorsed desire for confidentiality and feelings of discomfort as reasons for not reporting, whereas male victims more commonly cited the negative consequences of reporting as their primary deterrent (O'Brien et al., 2015). However, they did not examine whether this discrepancy predicted disparities in reporting propensity based on target sex. Overall, there is a lack of sexual assault research in the organizational psychology literature, and this gap intensifies when investigating the intersection of workplace sexual assault and employee voice. As such, though it is reasonable to expect the factors influencing voice after sexual assault to approximate those of sexual harassment, evidence supporting this notion is needed.

It is also important to note that when voice is mishandled, there may be detrimental implications for both employees and the organization. This consideration is particularly important within organizations that are seeking to address workplace sexual misconduct through the promotion of voice. When organizational mistreatment is reported, leaders' actions taken subsequent to voice have been shown to leave a lasting impression on employees (Harlos, 2001). When voice is ignored or when employees who report mistreatment face retribution, this is likely to result in a climate of silence (Morrison & Milliken, 2000). A climate of silence is the collective perception among employees that one should remain silent and not voice discontent to the organization

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(Morrison & Milliken, 2000). Social learning theory (Bandura, 1986) supports how such climates may develop, as it suggests that individuals anticipate the potential consequences of their actions not only through their own past experiences (Vroom, 1964), but through observing the experiences of others (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978). Employees who voice following mistreatment frequently report experiencing social (e.g., ostracism, increased harassment) and/or organizational (e.g., relocation, termination) retribution as a result (Cortina & Magley, 2003; Bergman et al., 2002; Lonsway et al., 2013). In turn, there is evidence to support that those who have poor voice experiences are at increased risk for negative health and workplace well-being consequences, as compared to those who remain silent (Cortina & Magley, 2003; Gutek, 1997). Thus, if individuals perceive that reports of mistreatment are mishandled and/or reporting efforts seem futile or harmful, they themselves may become less likely to report mistreatment events in the future, and the climate of silence develops and perpetuates as a result (Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

Yet, employees working within cultures of silence do not fare any better. For instance, evidence highlighting the impact of the United States' military's "*Don't ask, Don't tell*" policy demonstrates the detrimental influence that a culture of silence can have on a workforce (e.g., O'Brien et al., 2015; Willness et al., 2007). O'Brien and colleagues (2015) theorize that a culture of silence delays targets from seeking treatment, and may also increase feelings of shame and isolation, which are believed to compound the adverse effects of the mistreatment. Taken together, these results suggest that voice should be both encouraged and acted upon within organizations seeking to prevent sexual misconduct.

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Observer intervention and the special case of observer reporting. Observer intervention can be considered a specific type of employee voice—recalling that employee voice is defined as an employees’ objection to a disagreeable state of affairs (Hirschman, 1970). Reporting is just one of many intervention actions an observer can choose to take, though it is arguably that which is most closely related to employee voice.

Bowes-Sperry and O’Leary-Kelly (2005) argue that observer intervention is fundamental to the success of organizational interventions aiming to reduce sexual harassment. They propose that due to targets’ preference for passive coping (e.g., remaining silent/ignoring the event, avoiding the perpetrator, requesting a transfer, voluntary exit; Holland & Cortina, 2017) as opposed to active coping such as reporting, “organizational efforts to end sexual harassment that rely primarily or exclusively on target reporting are unlikely to be successful” (p. 288). Thus, observer intervention – in this case, observer reporting – is a necessary supplement to target reporting, and is vital to the success of a given organizational intervention.

Bowes-Sperry and O’Leary-Kelly (2005) cite Latané and Darley’s (1970) work and suggest that before intervention can take place, observers must: 1) interpret that the situation requires action, 2) decide they have a responsibility to act, and 3) decide what action to take. There are roadblocks inherent at each step – factors that serve to predict and moderate observers’ propensity for intervention. For example, interpreting that a situation requires action may be less likely when the sexual misconduct is ambiguous. Indeed, observers report less frequently in cases of ambiguous sexual misconduct (e.g., derogatory sex-based jokes that are not directed at a particular individual) than in cases of overt sexual misconduct, such as sexual coercion sexual assault (Benavides Espinoza &

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Cunningham, 2010; Ryan & Wessel, 2012; Stangor et al., 2003). Similarly, endorsement of myths related to sexual misconduct may also play a role. For instance, if an observer (incorrectly) believes that a sexually harassing behaviour directed toward a man (as opposed to a woman) does not constitute sexual harassment, or believes that the target behaved in a way that invited the harassment, that observer is proposed to be less likely to intervene (Skarlicki & Kulik, 2004).

Furthermore, social factors such as the relationships between the target and perpetrator, the target and observer, and the perpetrator and observer, have also been shown to influence intervention. It has been demonstrated that the pre-existing relationship between the target and perpetrator influences observers' reactions (Chui & Dietz, 2004; Hershcovis & Bhatnagar, 2017). Observers are less likely to react negatively and to perceive wrong-doing if they believe that the target and perpetrator are otherwise friendly toward one another, as might be the case with an equal power perpetrator in one's same work unit (Chui & Dietz, 2004). Situations such as these introduce ambiguity with regards to the perpetrator's malicious intent, and in turn reduce observers' propensity to act (Bowes-Sperry & Powell, 1999; Ryan & Wessel, 2012). In turn, incidents involving a relatively higher-powered perpetrator and lower-powered target are more readily perceived as constituting deleterious sexual misconduct, and as such, observers are proposed to be more likely to intervene in such cases (O'Reilly & Aquino, 2011).

Organizational culture is another voice antecedent that is similarly proposed to influence observer intervention (cf. Benavides Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010; Bergman et al., 2002), as intervention is less likely in workplaces and/or situations wherein the observer believes their helping behaviour will be seen as unwelcome (Hulin, Fitzgerald,

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& Drasgow, 1996; Morrison & Milliken, 2003). As such, perceptions of tolerance for sexual misconduct within a work unit might inhibit observer reporting, whereas perceptions of intolerance may serve to promote this form of employee voice.

Workplace Sexual Misconduct Training and Its Influence on Employee Voice

Given evidence that, when implemented alone, zero-tolerance workplace policies are largely ineffective in inducing substantive changes that would reduce sexual misconduct (Stockdale, Bisom-Rapp, O'Connor, & Gutek, 2004), workplace training is often recommended as a supplement (Cortina & Berdahl, 2008; Holland & Cortina, 2016). However, despite the fact that it is widely recommended and increasingly used, evidence regarding the efficacy of organizational training programs is mixed (Holland & Cortina, 2016).

The objectives of many training programs include the aim of improving reporting rates and reducing sexual misconduct rates; yet, there is little indication that these objectives are being met (Holland & Cortina, 2016; Buckner, Hindman, Huelsman, & Bergman, 2014; Medeiros & Griffith, 2019). More specifically, though there is evidence to suggest that training programs increase awareness and knowledge of sexual misconduct (e.g., Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2003) – particularly immediately post-training – it is unclear whether this awareness is sustained, predicts change in attitudes, or that it transfers beyond the training context to effect declines in workplace sexual misconduct (Lonsway & Kothari, 2000; Roehling & Huang, 2018; Medeiros & Griffith, 2019).

There is also a dearth of evidence to support that training results in increased target voice and reporting. Magley et al. (2013) found that those who received workplace training were slightly, but not significantly, more likely to file sexual harassment

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complaints with human resources as compared to those who did not receive training. Goldberg (2007) provides evidence to suggest that training might increase targets' propensity to confront the perpetrator in cases of unwanted sexual attention; however, she found no evidence that training influenced the extent to which targets formally reported either gender harassment or unwanted sexual attention. Buchanan et al. (2014) demonstrate that satisfaction with training predicted satisfaction with reporting outcomes among female soldiers. Namely, those who had a more positive perception of training efficacy were more likely to be satisfied with the outcome after reporting that they were mistreated (Buchanan, Settles, Hall, & O'Connor, 2014). In contrast, for women who chose not to report a case of sexual harassment, those who had a less favourable perception of training efficacy (as compared to those with more positive views) were more likely to cite fear of retaliation, feelings of discomfort, lack of knowledge of the reporting process, and being talked out of reporting as reasons for declining to report (Buchanan et al., 2014). Broadly speaking, it is theorized that training will affect reporting indirectly through attitudinal and cultural changes (Roehling & Huang, 2018). However, researchers have yet to provide evidence supporting this claim.

Notably, the research presented above is representative of most training evaluation research in this field, in that it has been restricted to researcher-designed training. It is rare to see an evaluation of workplace sexual harassment training that has actually been implemented in practice (Magley et al., 2013). Additionally, though many organizations are delivering training, few are publicizing data related to this training (Medeiros & Griffith, 2019). As such, the evidence supporting the efficacy of training programs being used in practice is even feebler than the limited support for researcher-designed training

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(Magley et al., 2013).

Despite these empirical gaps and the understanding that training is not a panacea, Medeiros and Griffith (2019) provide an optimistic perspective, explicitly suggesting that psychology research can indeed help improve the efficacy of sexual misconduct training within organizations. They suggest broadening the scope of intervention investigations and examining the organizational environment more broadly post-training to investigate patterns of reporting and sexual misconduct as they unfold over time (Medeiros and Griffith, 2019). Their recommendations fall well within the purview of this investigation.

The Current Study: Target and Observer Reporting Subsequent to Sexual Misconduct Within a Focal Organization

Organizations can best seek to address and prevent workplace sexual misconduct if and when leaders are made aware that such events are taking place. The nature of sexual misconduct is such that it is often challenging to detect and sanction. Thus, within organizations attempting to shift their workplace culture to one intolerant of sexual misconduct, the promotion of employee reporting is an integral intermediary step.

It remains the case, however, that little is known of the predictors of employee voice within an organization that is in the midst of cultural change. While there are known predictors of employee voice in cases of sexual misconduct (e.g., target sex, relative perpetrator power), and while preventive measures such as the introduction of policies and training are established with the purpose of enabling employee reporting, little is known of how these factors indeed influence reporting behaviour. In particular, there is limited understanding of how the combination of these factors serve to predict employee voice in an organization actively seeking to address workplace sexual misconduct.

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To my knowledge, there has yet to be a study that has systematically investigated the predictors of sexual misconduct reporting behaviour within an organization that has recently introduced measures aimed at promoting voice and preventing future incidents. Moreover, studies investigating differences in employee voice across the different types of sexual misconduct, and assessing the incremental contribution of a broad range of individual, contextual, and organizational predictors of voice, continue to be rare. This dearth of evidence further extends to the consideration of voice among employees belonging to marginalized social groups—more specifically, those identifying as Black, Indigenous, and people of colour, as well as members of the LGBT community—despite the fact that they suffer from being perpetually silenced across multiple social contexts. The current research endeavours to address these gaps in the literature.

Focal organization: The Canadian Armed Forces. *“Much has been done, and is currently being done, to address and eventually eliminate this complex cultural affliction, but at this juncture it is still very much a work in progress. There is much yet to be achieved.”* (Canadian Armed Forces, 2019, p. 1)

During August 2015, the Canadian Armed Forces introduced organization-wide training protocols in an effort to eliminate sexual misconduct within their workforce. The revelation of a considerable discrepancy between Canadian Armed Forces’ internal empirical findings regarding sexual harassment and the statistics provided within widely publicized external media reports proved to be a catalyst for change.

Though internal reports had suggested a mere 3% incidence rate of sexual harassment (56 reports across 1,705 participants) and nine cases of reported sexual assault between 2011 and 2012 (Deschamps, 2015), an inflammatory article published in

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Maclean's magazine claimed an estimate of over 1,700 yearly incidents of sexual assault alone (Mercier & Castonguay, 2014). This incongruity was the impetus behind the creation of an External Review Authority in 2014, which sought to determine the true extent of sexual misconduct within the Canadian Armed Forces (Deschamps, 2015). This independent board conducted investigations throughout the latter half of 2014, and produced the Deschamps Report in 2015, penned by Supreme Court Justice Marie Deschamps, declaring their findings. Despite earlier commitments to reduce sexual misconduct (e.g., O'Hara, 1998), the Deschamps Report (2015) concludes that little progress had been made and sexual misconduct remains rampant.

This report led to the establishment of Operation HONOUR – a four-stage plan centered around 1) improving the understanding of behaviours that constitute sexual misconduct, 2) responding to sexual misconduct, 3) supporting the victims of sexual misconduct, and 4) preventing future incidents of sexual misconduct (Chief of the Defence Staff, 2015). Though it is widely acknowledged that sexual misconduct is endemic within many international militaries (e.g., Australia, France, United Kingdom, United States; Australian Government, 2018; Miñano & Pascual, 2014; Rutherford, Schneider, & Walmsley, 2006; Department of Defense, 2018), the Canadian military is devoting an unprecedented amount of resources to this operational initiative.

Measures taken to eliminate sexual misconduct and improve reporting. In an effort to support culture change within the organization, since 2015, the Canadian Armed Forces have begun to direct resources towards the increased recruitment of female members (National Defence, 2017), and the delivery of training pertaining to Gender-Based Analysis Plus (GBA+), diversity and employment equity, and ethical conduct and

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respect in the workplace more broadly (Government of Canada, 2018). Specific to the current study, there have also been extensive efforts made to improve and support target and observer reporting in cases of workplace sexual misconduct.

Firstly, the Sexual Misconduct Response Centre was established in October 2017 as a resource for those who have been affected (either directly or indirectly) by sexual misconduct in the Canadian Armed Forces (National Defence, 2018a). This centre is independent from the Chain of Command of members, which is essential for addressing one of the Deschamps Report (2015) recommendations that members be provided with an avenue for reporting that does not require official complaints to be filed through a workplace leader. It also provides guidance, advice, counseling, and support to not only targets, but also to bystanders and others who wish to provide social support to targets.

Secondly, all Canadian Armed Forces members are required to attend at least one initial Operation HONOUR training session, and follow-up training sessions continue to be delivered through leadership courses (National Defence, 2018b). Initial Operation HONOUR training involved addressing the fundamentals of sexual misconduct in the workplace, including describing the behaviours that constitute sexual harassment, consent, and further discussing expectations of members' behaviours and attitudes (Canadian Armed Forces, 2019). This training also incorporated observer intervention training, wherein appropriate intervention strategies (i.e., intervention scripts; Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005) were introduced to Canadian Armed Forces members in order to enable and promote intervention.

Notably, this training addresses scenarios (e.g., witnessing sexual harassment at a mess dinner) and factors (e.g., the hierarchical nature of the organization) particular to the

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Canadian Armed Forces (Government of Canada, 2018). As such, this training appears to meet researcher recommendations that training should be customized to the specific workplace culture and needs of the organization in question (e.g., Lipnic, 2016).

Evaluation efforts. An additional component of Operation HONOUR was the commitment to obtaining reliable statistical data about the state of sexual misconduct within the Canadian Armed Forces (Cotter, 2016). As such, the Canadian Armed Forces contracted Statistics Canada to enable this data collection and results dissemination (Cotter, 2016). Subject-matter experts and statisticians at Statistics Canada have since designed and implemented the Survey on Sexual Misconduct in the Canadian Armed Forces (SSMCAF). It is a voluntary study that seeks participation from all active Canadian military members, and has the objective of evaluating the state of sexual misconduct every two years, beginning in 2016 (Statistics Canada, 2019).

Multiple authors have described the complexities involved in evaluating the success of sexual misconduct training (e.g., Medeiros & Griffith, 2019; Roehling & Huang, 2018; Magley et al., 2013), and this case is no exception. The SSMCAF merely aims to describe the current landscape of sexual misconduct prevalence within the organization. The evaluation of multiple cross-sections over time—though not strictly a longitudinal evaluation—will permit the observation of trends in prevalence, attitudes, and reporting as efforts toward eliminating sexual misconduct continue.

Hypotheses. The Canadian Armed Forces have specifically identified that one of the intended outcomes of Operation HONOUR training is to improve target and observer reporting behaviour in instances of sexual misconduct (Chief of the Defence Staff, 2015). This would require that training beneficially influence the attitudes of employees,

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tolerance climate, and norms of reporting within the organization to subsequently improve reporting. However, there are innumerable factors that might influence employee voice, including many that have been identified in previous research. As a preliminary step, it is arguably best to establish and understand employees' reporting behaviours, and seek to determine which factors – among both those that are known and those that are theorized – predict employee voice in cases of sexual misconduct within this organizational context. With this goal in mind, the current study seeks to investigate the state of target and observer reporting of sexual misconduct incidents in the Canadian Armed Forces.

Based on the literature described previously, there is reason to believe that factors related to the target and the situation predict both the extent to which that person is likely to report their own experience of sexual harassment and the extent to which that person is likely to have an observer report on their behalf. Moreover, while there is limited evidence to support this notion, there is reason to believe that the introduction of sexual misconduct policies, resources, and training will also beneficially influence reporting.

Target-reported sexual misconduct. With regards to target reporting, previous evidence suggests that reporting behaviours differ along the lines of target sex and race. For instance, in her review of the literature, McDonald (2012) affirms that female targets are more likely to both formally and informally report sexual harassment, as compared to male targets. Within a military sample, Malamut and Offermann (2001) found that women were more likely to engage in advocacy seeking (a coping mechanism that includes reporting the incident) subsequent to sexual misconduct, as compared to their male counterparts. Moreover, as discussed previously, targets belonging to visible minority groups are predicted to be less likely to report events of workplace mistreatment

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that they endure (Meares et al., 2004; Kramarae, 1981). There is also evidence to suggest that factors related to the incident itself, such as the difference in organizational power between the target and perpetrator, predicts targets' propensity to report. Cortina (2004) provides evidence supporting that when perpetrators were more powerful than targets, these targets were more likely to seek social support from friends and family members, and to report the incident to a workplace leader. Similarly, Malamut and Offermann (2001) demonstrate that perpetrator power predicted target coping through advocacy seeking (including reporting the incident) among a military sample. Finally, Bergman and colleagues (2002) found that perpetrator power positively influenced targets' propensity to report sexual harassment, but this effect was stronger for women than for men.

There is evidence supporting the influence of further predictors of target voice in cases of sexual misconduct, yet it is somewhat less conclusive than the evidence for target sex and perpetrator power demonstrated above. For instance, theory supports that those who are in more precarious or less powerful workplace situations (e.g., younger, lower-ranking, part-time work status) will perceive reporting to be riskier than their counterparts (Goldman, 2001; Harlos, 2001), and thus may be less likely to report an experience of sexual misconduct. However, Terpstra and Cook (1985) demonstrate that women in higher-powered, professional occupations (as compared to women in lower-powered, technical occupations) were less likely to report cases of sexual harassment due to the fear of repercussions related to reputation maintenance within their professional network.

Similarly, while there is reason to believe that whether a target has endured a previous experience of sexual misconduct, will have an influence on targets' propensity to report, there is mixed evidence regarding the directionality of the effect. Bergman et al.

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(2002) demonstrate that among women and men, targets' sexual misconduct experience history positively influenced reporting the event. Conversely, those who have previously experienced and reported past mistreatment, and had a poor voice experience, are predicted to be less likely to report a future event despite their re-victimization (Knoll et al., 2016; Pinder & Harlos, 2001; Vijayasiri, 2008).

This reasoning arguably applies to the influence of frequency of exposure to sexual misconduct on reporting behaviours, as well. Bergman et al. (2002) propose that the experience of multiple mistreatment events influence the appraisal of subsequent events, serving to increase perceptions of severity, which then positively influences reporting behaviour. Yet, it is also important to consider Gutek and Koss' (1993) finding that women who perceive that they have successfully navigated prior incidents are more likely to believe they can effectively cope with the experiences of future incidents without the need for additional support. Overall, there is reason to believe that these factors will serve to influence target reporting, yet the effects may not be quite as strong as those demonstrated by target sex and perpetrator power.

Notably, the research cited above is restricted to predictors outside of the organization's control. However, given the desire organizations have that mutable organizational factors (e.g., training) will improve reporting over and above these pre-existing factors, it is important to examine whether this is indeed the case. In particular, it remains to be seen whether factors that organizations introduce in an effort to promote target and observer voice in cases of sexual misconduct demonstrate an influence on reporting propensity beyond known factors, such as targets' demographic and workplace characteristics and factors related to the sexual misconduct incident itself.

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Within organizations seeking to promote employee voice as a means of addressing sexual misconduct, the provision of policies identifying and denouncing inappropriate behaviours is a necessary, but insufficient, step in the process (Holland & Cortina, 2016). While policies provide employees with a foundation upon which to build their complaint, it is necessary that individuals have adequate knowledge of them in order to engage with them (Holland & Cortina, 2016). Indeed, in one of the earliest papers on workplace sexual harassment, Popovich (1988) outlines that it is integral that organizations establish policies denouncing sexual misconduct, and further ensure that employees are aware of their existence and how to make use of them. Logically, it stands to reason that the number of incident reports will increase when individuals have knowledge of what incidents to report and how to do so (Quick & McFadyen, 2017). In addition to policies, organizations often provide employees with resources to support those affected by sexual misconduct. Such resources may include the provision of mediation or counseling, and the establishment of an organization-independent means of gaining more information about sexual misconduct or anonymously reporting incidents (Popovich, 1988; Holland, Rabelo, & Cortina, 2014). Once again, however, these resources will not be used, and cannot benefit employees, if individuals are unaware of their existence. When employees have policies and resources available to them, and when they have the knowledge required to access and maximize the protections and support these policies and resources afford, this combination of factors may plausibly result in an increase in incident reporting. Thus, there is reason to believe that employees' knowledge of organizational policies and resources related to sexual misconduct will serve to predict employee voice.

Though knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources may be fostered

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through word-of-mouth, organizations have increasingly begun to provide workplace training sessions that promote employee awareness of sexual misconduct behaviours and avenues for recourse available to employees should they become affected (Holland & Cortina, 2016). Indeed, Magley et al. (2013) provide preliminary evidence to suggest that sexual harassment training can lead to an increase in employee reports. However, training is only likely to meet this end and indeed foster employee reporting if it is adequate. For instance, Holland, Rabelo, and Cortina (2014) demonstrate within a military sample that although more than 90% of individuals had undergone organizational sexual harassment training, only half of them described their training as comprehensive. Individuals who were comprehensively exposed to training demonstrated significantly more knowledge of sexual misconduct behaviours, resources, and protocols than did individuals who were only minimally exposed to training (Holland et al., 2014). Their findings suggest that employees who receive adequate training are more likely to be appropriately equipped to report an event. However, employees who undergo training, but are left with questions or the perception that training was inadequate, may not possess sufficient knowledge to engage with the reporting process. As such, it is reasonable to predict that the provision of adequate training will serve to foster employee voice subsequent to sexual misconduct.

Finally, there is mounting evidence to support the notion that the provision of multiple avenues for reporting, and encouraging employees to use them, is pointless if these reports are not actively reinforced (Pearce & DiLullo, 2001; Harlos, 2010). Research consistently supports that it is the quality of voice experiences—and not merely the opportunity to voice—that best predicts voice behaviour (Harlos, 2001; Handel & Levine, 2004; Pyman, Cooper, Teicher, & Holland, 2006). The extent to which

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individuals believe their voice will be acted upon, and subsequently result in beneficial outcomes for themselves and the organization, is a known predictor of employee voice across several contexts (Knoll et al., 2016). Amidst an organization undergoing cultural change towards sexual misconduct intolerance, however, it is vital that employees perceive that not only will their reports will be acted upon, but also that they will not suffer retribution as a result of their voice. There is inherent danger associated with the reporting of sexual misconduct (Cortina & Magley, 2003; Lonsway et al., 2013; Vijayasiri, 2008). Individuals who perceive that the costs associated with reporting outweigh the benefits are unlikely to make themselves vulnerable to such danger, and will stay silent as a result (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Skarlicki & Kulik, 2004). Inherent within the definition of organizational sexual misconduct intolerance is the notion that within such a workplace culture, incident reports are taken seriously and acted upon, and individuals who report are supported throughout the process (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). As such, there is reason to believe that perceptions of organizational intolerance – namely, that the organization is intolerant of sexual misconduct and that incident reports will be taken seriously – will serve to foster employee voice.

In light of the research presented above, I propose the following hypotheses:

H1a: Factors related to the target's demographic and workplace characteristics (sex, race, tenure), in addition to factors related to the sexual misconduct incident (frequency of exposure to sexual misconduct, previous experience of sexual misconduct, and relative perpetrator power) will influence the extent to which a target is predicted to report an incident of sexual misconduct, such that female targets, White targets, those with higher tenure, who have experienced more sexual misconduct and past episodes of

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sexual misconduct, and who are less powerful than their perpetrator will be more likely to report cases.

H1b: After accounting for target demographic and workplace characteristics, and factors related to the sexual misconduct incident, a target's knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources, satisfaction with sexual misconduct training, and perceptions of organizational intolerance will contribute to the prediction of a target reporting the incident. More specifically, targets with greater knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources, higher satisfaction with sexual misconduct training, and more positive perceptions of organizational intolerance will be more likely to report.

Observer-reported sexual misconduct. Regarding observer reporting of sexual misconduct, previous research supports that target sex, and perpetrator power, influence observer reporting behaviour, such that female targets (Berdahl et al., 1996), and events involving relatively more powerful perpetrators (Miceli & Near, 1988; Miceli et al., 1991), are more likely to evoke observer reporting. Beyond these predictors, however, while there is ample theory to support that additional individual factors related to the target and the sexual misconduct event itself influence observer reporting (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005; Goldberg, Clark, & Henley, 2011; Ryan & Wessel, 2012), the evidence in support of their effect is conflicting and rather insufficient.

For instance, Bowes-Sperry and O'Leary-Kelly (2005) suggest that an observer's belief that the event will re-occur is likely to promote intervention. In turn, this perhaps suggests that targets who have previously experienced sexual misconduct will be more likely to have an observer report on their behalf, as the observer might recognize this trend and be more likely to advocate on their behalf. Along these same lines, observers

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who witness a target experience more frequent sexual misconduct may be more likely to perceive that the situation has become harmful (Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005), or that the situation is unjust (Goldberg et al., 2011), which are theorized to promote reporting. Though Ryan and Wessel (2012) demonstrate that recurrence beliefs do predict observer intervention within a vignette study, on the whole, to my knowledge, these theories remain largely untested.

Individuals are also believed to be more likely to intervene if they perceive the target as belonging to their social in-group, due to the notion that mistreatment is more likely to be perceived as deserved when the target belongs to one's social out-group (Feather, 1999; Skarlicki & Kulik, 2004). Similarly, observers are more likely to believe that they themselves can become targets in the future when the target belongs to their own social in-group, which predicts observer intervention (Skarlicki & Kulik, 2004; Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly, 2005). This might present minimal evidence to support the prediction that White targets will have observers report on their behalf more often, as the majority of the workforce in question is also White, and by extension, more likely to belong to a target's in-group.

Finally, individuals are theorized to intervene less frequently if they perceive that those in need of aid have sufficient resources to act on their own (Skarlicki & Kulik, 2004). As such, there may be reason to believe that targets with higher tenure will be perceived as possessing sufficient resources to cope with the situation without observer aid, and will thus be less likely to have an observer report on their behalf.

Thus, I propose to investigate the same predictors mentioned above to determine whether these same target demographic and contextual variables influence observer

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reporting, as they have been theorized to do, and further present directional hypotheses based on extant theories in the absence of demonstrated evidence. This investigation has the potential to illuminate groups of targets who are receiving less observer aid.

H2: Factors related to the target's demographic and workplace characteristics (sex, race, tenure), in addition to factors related to the sexual misconduct incident (frequency of exposure to sexual misconduct, previous experience of sexual misconduct, and relative perpetrator power) will influence the extent to which an observer is predicted to report an incident of sexual misconduct, such that female targets, White targets, those with less tenure, those who have experienced more sexual misconduct and past episodes of sexual misconduct, and those less powerful than their perpetrator will be more likely to have an observer report on their behalf.

These hypotheses will be tested through a series of hierarchical logistic regression analyses, the results of which can be found in Part One of the Results section, as well as in Tables 7-12.

Exploratory research questions. While there is reason to believe that predictors of employee voice might vary across the different subtypes of sexual misconduct, there is little evidence in support of this notion. For instance, while individuals are proposed to report perpetrators who are more powerful than targets more frequently than those who are less powerful, there is a lack of evidence supporting whether this pattern holds across the different sexual harassment subtypes. Overall, amidst the voice literature, most researchers have chosen to focus on mistreatment more broadly, or have investigated sexual misconduct without differentiating between the subtypes (e.g., Knoll et al., 2016). In turn, within the sexual misconduct literature, most investigations have involved

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whether reporting rates differ between sexual misconduct types (e.g., Benavides Espinoza & Cunningham, 2010), but not whether there is any variation in predictors of reporting across these contexts. Due to the sensitive nature of sexual misconduct reporting, this is understandable, yet still presents a gap in our understanding. Thus, I propose the following research question as a means of addressing this gap:

RQ1: Does the influence of factors predicting employee voice vary across the different subtypes of sexual misconduct?

Furthermore, given the call to action to explore the intersections of social identities, in addition to marginalized social identities, as they relate to sexual misconduct and voice in the workplace (e.g., Quick & McFadyen, 2017; Berdahl & Moore, 2006; Bowen & Blackmon, 2003; Bell et al., 2011), it would be beneficial to investigate whether these factors influence reporting. More specifically, exploring whether the interaction between target sex and target race, or whether the target identifies as being part of the LGBT community, influence the reporting of workplace sexual misconduct between groups. I propose the following research questions to direct this investigation:

RQ2: Are a) target reporting rates or b) observer reporting rates influenced by a significant interaction between a target's sex and race?

RQ3: Are a) target reporting rates or b) observer reporting rates influenced by the target's sexual minority status?

These exploratory research questions will be tested through a series of chi-square tests of independence that analyzed differences between the reporting rates among groups and across contests. An overview of the findings can be found in Part Two of the Results section, and the full results are located in Tables 15-16.

Methods

The current study is a secondary analysis of data compiled by Statistics Canada (in partnership with the Canadian Armed Forces), obtained with the purpose of exploring the prevalence, nature, and reporting of sexual misconduct within the Canadian military in 2016 (Statistics Canada, 2019). Methodological details pertaining to data collection have been described in previous publications (e.g., Cotter, 2016), and remain accessible through the Statistics Canada website (e.g., Statistics Canada, 2019), but are also summarized below.

Participants

The participants are active Canadian Armed Forces members who responded to the 2016 iteration of the Survey of Sexual Misconduct in the Canadian Armed Forces survey, who 1) indicated that they were the direct target of a sexual misconduct incident within the 12 months prior to completing the survey, and 2) responded to an item indicating whether or not someone in authority came to learn of the incident. Once weighted, this final sample represents the responses of 10,860 members, which is an estimated 13.3% of the Canadian Armed Forces at the time of the survey, given an approximate population size of 81,700 (Cotter, 2016). Within the study sample of those who reported personally experiencing at least one incident of sexual misconduct and provided information about whether this incident was reported, 66.9% were men ($n = 7,250$), 87.6% were White ($n = 9,480$), and 8.56% identified as being a member of the LGBT community ($n = 930$). Junior Non-Commissioned Member (68.2%, $n = 7,400$) was the most commonly reported rank, followed by Senior Non-Commissioned Member (14.0%, $n = 1,520$), Junior Officer (12.9%, $n = 1,410$), and finally Senior Officer (4.84%,

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$n = 530$). The majority of respondents reported being a member of the Regular Force (63.9%, $n = 6,940$). The youngest age bracket (members aged less than 20 years to 29 years old) was the modal age bracket (48.0%, $n = 5,210$), with a further 32.1% of participants (32.1%) between the ages of 30-39 years, 14.2% ($n = 1,550$) between the ages of 40-49 years, and the final 5.72% ($n = 620$) reporting themselves to be older than 50 years old. The average tenure of participants was 10.9 years ($SD = 8.01$). The weighted descriptive statistics of the overall sample can be found in Table 1.

Measures

The questionnaires that make up the survey were developed based on a review of existing instruments, combined with the expertise of subject matter experts from Statistics Canada. They were further validated using qualitative survey pilot testing led by Statistics Canada's questionnaire Design Resource Centre. The pilot testing involved one-on-one interviews between Statistics Canada employees and demographically and organizationally diverse sample of Canadian Armed Forces members from four separate regions (Ottawa, Trenton, Val-Cartier, and Halifax). Once Statistics Canada and the survey sponsors (including Canadian Armed Forces administration) approved the final version, the survey was administered via electronic questionnaire.

Target demographic and workplace characteristics. Participants self-reported their sex (*Male, Female*), age (*Under 20-29 years, 30-39 years, 40-49 years, 50 or more years*), race (*White; Black, Indigenous, and People of Colour [BIPOC]*), and sexual minority status (*Heterosexual/Cis-gender, LGBT identifying*). They further reported their rank (*Junior Non-Commissioned Member, Junior Officer, Senior Non-Commissioned Member, Senior Officer*), component (*Regular Force, Primary Reserve*), and tenure

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(value reported in years). The coding scheme for all categorical study variables can be found in Table 2.

It should be noted that Canadian Armed Forces rank can be considered a proxy measure of leadership status, as Junior Non-Commissioned Members and Junior Officers are subordinates, and Senior Non-Commissioned Members and Senior Officers are workplace leaders (e.g., Malamut & Offermann, 2001). Thus, when it was necessary to collapse rank categories based on low response rates, they were collapsed into leader (Senior Non-Commissioned member and Senior Officer) and subordinate (Junior Non-Commissioned members and Junior Officer) groups instead of based on their commissioned status. Furthermore, Canadian Armed Forces component designation can arguably be considered a proxy measure of full-time (*Regular Force*) vs. part-time (*Primary Reserve*) occupational status. Primary Reserve employment is often at reduced hours and/or wages compared to employment in the Regular force, and is arguably more tenuous across all classes of service—characteristics that are similar to part-time and full-time employment differentiations.

Sexual misconduct incident characteristics. *Gender harassment* was assessed via six behavioural items (e.g., “*Sexual jokes*”; see Table 3 for the full list of behaviours), and participants indicated how frequently they personally experienced the gender harassment behaviour during the past 12 months on a scale from 0 (*0 times*) to 3 (*10 or more times*). Across all sexual misconduct behavioural scales, participants were to include all behaviours directed at themselves alone, or to many individuals at the same time, that occurred in a military workplace and/or those that occurred outside of the workplace and involved military members, Department of National Defence employees, or Department

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of National Defence contractors. The frequency of gender harassment experiences was calculated as the mean value of these experiences across the reported behaviours.

Unwanted sexual attention was assessed via eight behavioural items (e.g., “*Inappropriate sexual comments about your appearance or body*”; Table 3), and participants indicated how frequently they personally experienced the unwanted sexual attention behaviour during the past 12 months on scale from a 0 (*0 times*) to 3 (*10 or more times*). *Sexual coercion* was assessed via a single behavioural item (“*Offering workplace benefit for engaging in sexual activity or being mistreated for not engaging in sexual activity*”; Table 3), and participants reported their personal experience of this behaviour during the past 12 months using the same 0 (*0 times*) to 3 (*10 or more times*) scale. Given previous literature wherein unwanted sexual harassment and sexual coercion reports were pooled to create a combined measure of sexual advance harassment (e.g., Holland et al., 2016; Nye, Brummel, & Drasgow, 2014; Holland & Cortina, 2013; Leskinen, Cortina, & Kabat, 2011; see also Lim & Cortina, 2005), this procedure was followed in this study due to low response rates to the single-item measure of sexual coercion across demographic groups, which would otherwise prohibit the reporting of this sensitive data due to low cell counts. The frequency of sexual advance harassment experiences was calculated as the mean value of these experiences across the reported behaviours.

Sexual assault experience was assessed via three items (e.g., *Subjected you to sexual activity to which you were not able to consent*; Table 3). Participants indicated how often they experienced this form of sexual misconduct within the past 12 months along a scale of 0 (*No experience*), 1 (*Once*), 2 (*Twice*), and 3 (*Three or more times*). The

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frequency of sexual assault experiences was calculated as the mean value of these experiences across the reported behaviours.

Target characteristics. *Previous exposure to workplace sexual misconduct* assesses whether the participant has experienced any of the above-mentioned sexual misconduct behaviours prior to the past 12 months, but after they joined the military. Participants provided binary response options of *Yes* or *No* to all 18 behavioural items. This was coded as a binary outcome variable ($0 = \text{No previous sexual misconduct experience}$; $1 = \text{Previous experience of any sexual misconduct behaviour}$).

Perpetrator characteristics. *Perpetrator sex* and *perpetrator power* were assessed for sexual misconduct behaviour experience. When participants indicated they had experienced sexual misconduct within the past year, they subsequently provided contextual details of the incident. The details provided included *perpetrator sex* ($0 = \text{Male}$, $1 = \text{Female}$), and *perpetrator power* as it relates to the target's own hierarchical position (i.e., $0 = \text{One of my subordinates, someone I managed, or someone of lower rank than me}$; $1 = \text{One of my peers at the same rank or level as me}$; $2 = \text{One of my work supervisors, unit leader, or someone of higher rank than me}$). Of note, the coding scheme for *perpetrator power* follows that of Malamut and Offermann (2001).

Knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources, satisfaction with training, and perceived organizational intolerance. Participants' *Knowledge of workplace sexual misconduct policies and resources*, was assessed by means of nine items investigating participants' knowledge of sexual misconduct regulations affecting, and resources provided to, Canadian Armed Forces members (e.g., *Operation HONOUR, Sexual Misconduct Response Centre*; Table 4) along a scale of 1 (*Not aware*) to 3 (*Very*

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aware). Notably, the items address policies that are specific to their own organization.

The reliability of this scale was $\alpha = .86$.

Satisfaction with training adequacy was assessed via a single item that asked participants to rate on a scale of 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*) the extent to which they agree with the following statement: “*I have received adequate training on preventing and addressing inappropriate sexual behaviour.*”

Perception of sexual misconduct intolerance was investigated through two items for which participants indicated their perception of the extent to which sexual misconduct is *not* tolerated within their current unit (“*Inappropriate sexual behaviour is not tolerated in my current unit*” and “*Complaints about inappropriate sexual behaviour are (or would be) taken seriously in my current unit*”; Table 4). These items were evaluated on a scale from 1 (*Strongly disagree*) to 5 (*Strongly agree*), and had a reliability of $\alpha = .84$.

Reporting. Reporting behaviours were assessed via the combined responses to two separate questions. First, sexual misconduct incidents were considered to be reported for all cases when participants responded *Yes* to the question “*Did someone in authority find out about this behaviour in any way?*”. Participants subsequently responded to the question “*How did the persons in authority learn about this behaviour?*”. *Target-reported sexual misconduct* was coded when the response “*From me*” was selected for this second question, whereas *Observer-reported sexual misconduct* was coded when participants responded “*Some other way*” to this question.

Design

Primary administration and analysis. The original administration of the survey employed a cross-sectional, census design, and thus sought to sample the entire

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population of approximately 81,700 active members within the Canadian Armed Forces.

The survey was open to participants between April 10th and June 24th, 2016.

An introduction explained to participants the collaboration between the Canadian Armed Forces and Statistics Canada, and they were assured that their participation was voluntary and their responses would remain confidential. Introductory and reminder letters were sent both via Canada Post and to the work email addresses of all individuals for whom these were on file.

Responses were captured online through a secure network, and all responses were encrypted to further enhance data security and ensure confidentiality.

Statistics Canada analysts cleaned the data set: identifying and removing duplicate records, non-responses, and out-of-scope participant records (e.g., individuals who had once been a Canadian Armed Forces member and are now retired, but who retain their Canadian Armed Forces work email address). These analysts further identified instances of questionnaire flow errors (e.g., instances wherein participants were shown questions that did not apply to their particular circumstances), and corrected for these based on a systematic procedure. Data imputation was not required.

Though a census design was employed and the entire population was invited to participate, the 53% overall response rate indicates that a sample of responses was obtained. Thus, non-response adjustments were made to weight the data to account for individuals who chose not to participate. These adjustments were calculated based on the response rates of various weighting classes (i.e., age, sex, and component) in comparison to the target population, and were applied in order to increase the extent to which responses obtained accurately represent the entire population of interest. Bootstrapping

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was used to calculate the estimated variance in responses within each weighting class to inform on the accuracy of the estimates. After weighting, Statistics Canada analysts further performed data accuracy and quality evaluations prior to dissemination.

Secondary data access. I obtained ethics clearance from the Carleton University Research and Ethics Board (CUREB-B #111080; see Appendix A), in addition to permission from Statistics Canada (19-SSH-COOL-6021) prior to accessing the secure data set located at the Carleton, Ottawa, Outaouais, Local Research Data Centre (COOL-RDC) located at the University of Ottawa.

There were several conditions of release of the data, which Statistics Canada statisticians verified through a vetting process before the data was released. The survey weights needed to be applied while computing descriptive statistics and bivariate analyses, but did not need to be applied while performing multivariate analyses. All cells had the minimum requirement of 10 unweighted cases per cell (e.g., a minimum of 10 male employees of colour need to have observers report gender harassment on their behalf in order to run a chi-square analysis using this variable), even though only weighted cell counts were permitted to be released. Finally, all weighted cell counts were required to be rounded to the nearest 10 (e.g., 116 rounded to 120), and all statistical findings were required to be rounded to three significant digits.

Analysis

The data was provided in four separate datasets, which needed to be merged based on a randomly assigned participant case number. Each line of data thus presented the contextual description of one type of sexual misconduct experience, and participants were associated with multiple lines of data if they experienced multiple different types of

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sexual misconduct behaviour during the past 12 months. As such, each case presents the experience of a given type of sexual misconduct behaviour, as opposed to a particular participant, and resulted in a compilation of approximately 27,000 cases of sexual misconduct. Slightly less than half of these cases were removed, as the participants had not provided information regarding whether the event was reported to a person in authority – the key outcome variable in the current study. Five more cases were removed due to participants' lack of response to the predictor variables—having answered fewer than three demographic items and choosing not to provide their perceptions of the knowledge, training, or organizational intolerance items. Due to the large sample size, I was able to isolate cases of sexual assault and sexual harassment for further investigation. Please note that due to the layout of the data, participants were able to appear in both subsets; however, as subsets were analyzed independently of one another, this does not influence the analyses.

The weighted responses of participants within the sexual assault subset (i.e., those who reported experiencing workplace sexual assault during the past 12 months, and who provided information regarding whether someone in authority came to learn of the incident) represent the responses of 1,730 Canadian Armed Forces members. This subset was evenly divided between men (50.2%, $n = 860$) and women (49.8%, $n = 850$), while 82.8% were White ($n = 1,430$), and 13.7% identified as being a member of the LGBT community ($n = 240$). Slightly more than half of the subset comprised Regular Force members (58.3%, $n = 1,010$), and the youngest age bracket (members aged less than 20 years to 29 years old) was the modal age bracket (60.1%, $n = 1,030$). Rank groups were required to be collapsed, and junior-ranking members (Junior Non-Commissioned

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Members and Junior Officers) formed the majority of the subsample (88.1%, $n = 1,520$). The average tenure of participants was 8.79 years ($SD = 6.99$). Across the sexual assault events, 18.1% of participants ($n = 310$) indicated that they themselves reported the incident, and 8.1% ($n = 140$) indicated that an observer reported the incident on their behalf. Complete details of the sexual assault subset can be found in Table 1.

The size of the sexual harassment dataset presents several complications, particularly when performing chi-square tests of independence. Tests of independence, by nature, require that outcomes be independent of one another, and as participants were able to provide contextual information for up to 15 different sexual harassment behaviours, this necessarily violated the principle of independence. Moreover, the size of the dataset suggests that statistically significant results were likely to result from practically insignificant differences between groups. As such, I used G*Power (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007; Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009) to compute the suggested sample size to obtain 85-95% power and minimize Type-II error based on an anticipated small-to-medium effect size of training on reporting (Cohen, 1992; Chen, Cohen, & Chen, 2010), a prior probability of 10% reporting rate, a moderate association with other predictor variables, and a nominal $\alpha = .01$ to minimize Type-I error. Different combinations of these parameters resulted in a range of recommended sample sizes, varying between approximately 2,700 and 4,200 cases – a range that approaches the unweighted number of individuals who provided the data included in this subset. Based on these calculations, and in an effort to maintain independence and reduce bias, I selected the first case for which contextual details were provided for each individual contained within the dataset to comprise the sexual harassment subset.

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The weighted responses of participants within the sexual harassment subset (i.e., those who reported experiencing workplace sexual harassment during the past 12 months, and who provided information regarding whether someone in authority came to learn of the incident) represent the responses of 9,380 Canadian Armed Forces members, and a weighted total of 7,450 cases of gender harassment and 1,930 cases of sexual advance harassment cases (see Table 1). Men formed the majority of this subset (69.2%, $n = 6,480$), while 88.1% were White ($n = 8,240$), and 7.7% identified as being a member of the lesbian, gay, bisexual, and/or transgender (LGBT) community ($n = 720$). Regular Force was the modal component (64.7%, $n = 6,070$), the youngest age bracket (members aged less than 20 years to 29 years old) was the modal age bracket (46.3%, $n = 4,650$), and Junior Non-Commissioned Member was the modal rank (66.8%, $n = 6,260$). The average tenure of participants was 11.2 years ($SD = 8.11$). Across the sexual harassment incidents, 12.4% of participants ($n = 1,160$) indicated that they themselves reported the incident, and 14.9% ($n = 1,400$) indicated that an observer reported the incident on their behalf. Complete details of this subset can be found in Table 1.

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Table 1

Weighted descriptive statistics of the overall sample, sexual assault subset, and sexual harassment subset.

Study Variables	Overall Sample		Sexual Assault Subset		Sexual Harassment Subset	
	%	n	%	n	%	n
<u>Sex</u>						
Male	66.9	7,250	50.2	860	69.2	6,480
Female	33.1	3,590	49.8	850	30.8	2,890
<u>Race</u>						
White	87.6	9,480	82.8	1,430	88.1	8,240
BIPOC	12.4	1,350	17.2	300	11.9	1,110
<u>Age</u>						
Less than 20-29 years	48.0	5,210	60.1	1,030	46.3	4,650
30-39 years	32.1	3,480	26.2	450	32.9	3,090
40-49 years	14.2	1,550	9.80	170	14.8	1,380
50 years or older	5.72	620	3.90	70	5.98	560
<u>LGBT</u>						
Heterosexual, cis-gender	91.4	9,900	86.2	1,480	92.3	8,630
LGBT identifying	8.56	930	13.8	240	7.72	720
<u>Rank</u>						
Junior Non-Commissioned Member	68.2	7,400	88.1	1,520	66.8	6,260
Junior Officer	12.9	1,410			13.4	1,260
Senior Non-Commissioned Member	14.0	1,520	11.9	210	14.7	1,380
Senior Officer	4.84	530			5.14	480
<u>Component</u>						
Regular Force	64.0	6,940	58.2	1,010	64.7	6,070
Primary Reserve	36.0	3,910	41.6	720	35.3	3,310
<u>Target-reported sexual misconduct</u>						
Yes			18.1	310	12.4	1,160
No			81.9	1,420	87.6	8,220

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Table 1 (continued).

Study Variables	Overall Sample		Sexual Assault Subset		Sexual Harassment Subset	
	%	n	%	n	%	n
<u>Observer-reported sexual misconduct</u>						
Yes			8.1	140	14.9	1,400
No			91.9	1,590	85.1	7,980
<u>Sexual harassment type</u>						
Gender harassment					79.5	7,450
Sexual advance harassment					20.5	1,930
Tenure	$M = 10.9$	$SD = 8.01$	$M = 8.79$	$SD = 6.99$	$M = 11.2$	$SD = 8.11$

Note. The overall sample represents the total (weighted) number of individuals who provided data meeting the study requirements (i.e., experiencing sexual misconduct within the past 12 months and providing information about whether the event was reported). Participants could fall into both subsets, and as such, the sum of the subset totals may not be equal to the overall total frequency values. Rows were collapsed across groups when the unweighted count failed to meet the minimum threshold.

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Table 2

Study Variable Coding Scheme

Variable	Response Coding
Sex	0 = Male 1 = Female
Age	0 = Under 20 to 29 years 1 = 30 to 39 years 2 = 40 to 49 years 3 = 50 years and over
Race	0 = White 1 = Black, Indigenous, and People of Colour (BIPOC)
Sexual Minority Status	0 = Heterosexual, Cis-gender 1 = LGBT Identifying
Rank	0 = Junior Non-Commissioned Member 1 = Junior Officer 2 = Senior Non-Commissioned Member 3 = Senior Officer
Component	0 = Regular Force (Full-Time) 1 = Primary Reserve (Part-Time)
Perpetrator Sex	0 = Male 1 = Female
Perpetrator Power	0 = One of my subordinates, someone I managed, or someone of lower rank than me 1 = One of my peers at the same rank or level as me 2 = One of my work supervisors, unit leader, or someone of higher rank than me
Gender Harassment, Sexual Coercion, and Unwanted Sexual Attention Frequency	0 = 0 times 1 = 1 to 4 times 2 = 5 to 9 times 3 = 10 or more times
Sexual Assault Frequency	0 = 0 times 1 = 1 time 2 = 2 times 3 = 3 or more times
Previous Workplace Sexual Misconduct Experience	0 = No 1 = Yes
Target-Reported Sexual Misconduct	0 = No 1 = Yes
Observer-Reported Sexual Misconduct	0 = No 1 = Yes

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Table 3

Sexual Misconduct (Gender Harassment, Unwanted Sexual Attention, Sexual Coercion, and Sexual Assault) Scale Items

Sexual Misconduct Behaviour Items
<u>Gender Harassment</u>
1. Sexual jokes
2. Suggestions that you do not act like a [man/woman] is supposed to act
3. Being insulted, mistreated, ignored, or excluded because you are a [man/woman]
4. Comments that you are either not good at a particular job or should be prevented from having a particular job because you are a [man/woman]
5. Being insulted, mistreated, ignored, or excluded because of your sexual orientation or assumed sexual orientation
6. Being insulted, mistreated, ignored, or excluded because you are (or are assumed to be) transgender
<u>Unwanted Sexual Attention</u>
1. Unwanted sexual attention, such as whistles, calls, suggestive looks, gestures, or body language
2. Inappropriate sexual comments about your appearance or body
3. Inappropriate discussions about their sex life, your sex life, or someone else's sex life
4. Display, showing, or sending you sexually explicit messages or materials, or directing you to view sexually explicit materials online
5. Taking and/or posting inappropriate or sexually suggestive photos or videos of you, without your consent
6. Indecent exposure or inappropriate display of body parts
7. Repeated pressure from the same person for dates or sexual relationships
8. Unwelcome physical contact, such as hugs or shoulder rubs, or getting too close
<u>Sexual Coercion</u>
1. Offering workplace benefit for engaging in sexual activity or being mistreated for not engaging in sexual activity
<u>Sexual Assault</u>
1. Forced you or attempted to force you into any unwanted sexual activity, by threatening you, holding you down, or hurting you in some way.
2. Touched you against your will in any sexual way.
3. Subjected you to sexual activity to which you were not able to consent.

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Table 4

Knowledge of Sexual Misconduct Policies and Resources, Satisfaction with Training, and Perceived Organizational Intolerance Scale Items

Scale Items
<u>Knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources</u>
1. Operation HONOUR
2. Sexual Misconduct Response Centre (SMRC)
3. Defence Administrative Orders and Directives (DAOD) 5012-0 Harassment Prevention and Resolution
4. DAOD 5019-5 Sexual Misconduct and Sexual Disorders
5. Defence Ethics Program
6. Duty with Honour: The Profession of Arms in Canada Manual (Military Ethos)
7. Alternate Dispute Resolution Process
8. Leadership in the Canadian Forces: Doctrine Manual
9. Canadian Forces Employment Equity Regulations
<u>Satisfaction with training adequacy</u>
1. I have received adequate training on preventing and addressing inappropriate sexual behaviour.
<u>Perception of organizational sexual misconduct intolerance</u>
1. Inappropriate sexual behaviour is not tolerated in my current unit.
2. Complaints about inappropriate sexual behaviour are (or would be) taken seriously in my current unit.

Results

Table 5 contains the zero-order correlation coefficients for the relationships between study variables within the sexual assault subset, and Table 6 contains this same information as it relates to the sexual harassment subset. Part One of this results section contains the findings related to the hypothesis tests that were conducted, whereas Part Two presents findings of the exploratory data analyses outlined in the introduction.

Part One: Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analyses

The primary goal of this study was to gain a deeper understanding of employee voice through the investigation of which factors influence employee reporting subsequent to workplace sexual misconduct. In particular, examining whether mutable organizational factors related to employees' knowledge of policies and resources, sexual misconduct training, and organizational intolerance predict reporting once accounting for factors known to influence employee voice (see Figure 2). As such, I performed a series of hierarchical logistic regression analyses to determine whether the influence of workplace training (knowledge of policies and resources, and satisfaction with training adequacy) and perceptions of sexual misconduct intolerance within the organization contribute to the prediction of target reporting of sexual misconduct after first accounting for predictors related to the target and the sexual harassment context. Furthermore, the nature of the dataset permitted the investigation of whether factors related to the target (sex, race, tenure) and the sexual misconduct context (targets' frequency of sexual misconduct experience, targets' previous experience of sexual misconduct, perpetrator power) influenced the extent to which observers were predicted to report the incident. Thus, I performed six separate hierarchical logistic regression analyses, assessing predictive

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models of target reporting and observer reporting in cases of gender harassment, sexual advance harassment, and sexual assault, respectively.

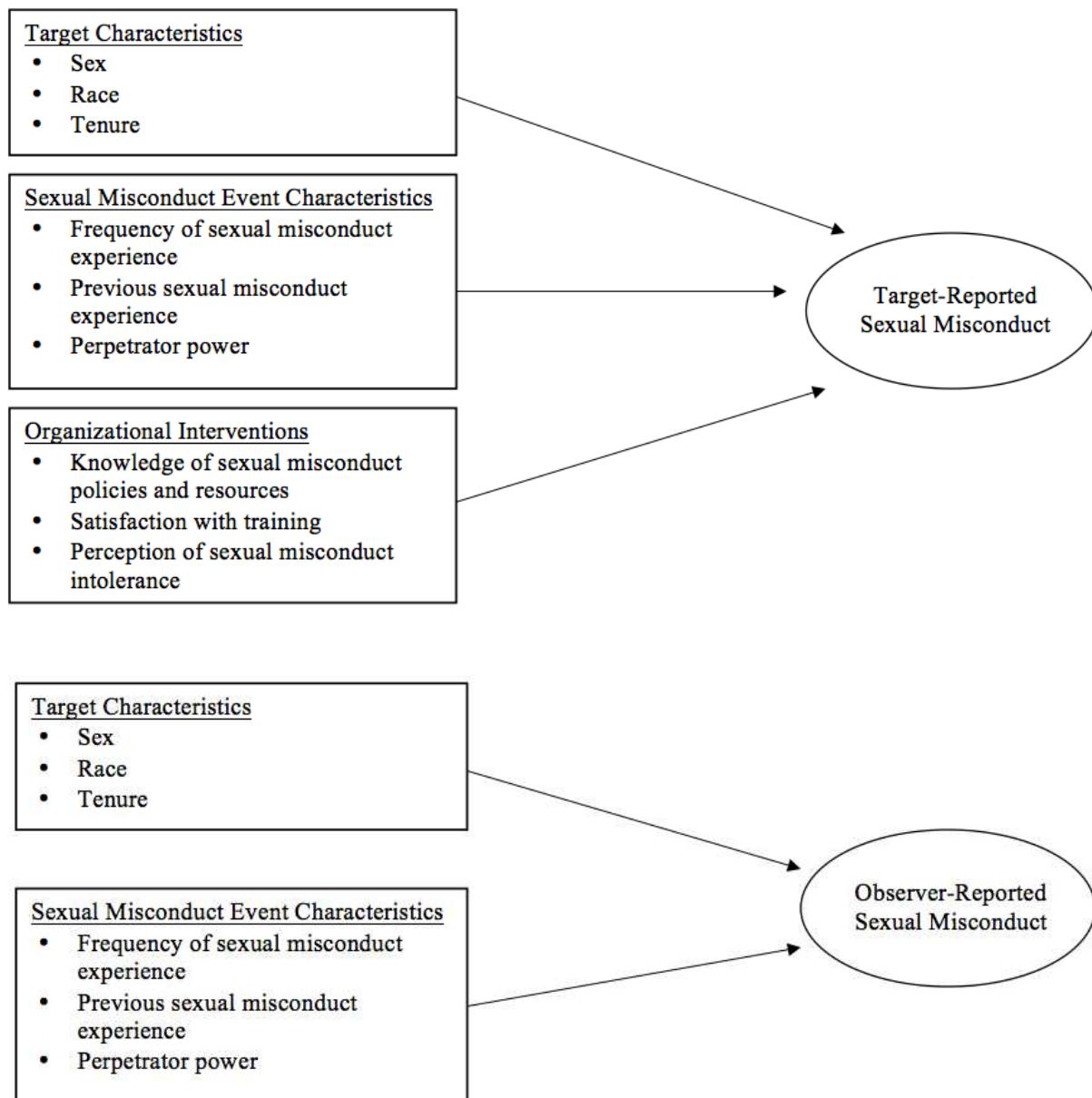


Figure 2. Proposed predictors of target and observer reporting of workplace sexual misconduct incidents.

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Table 5

Bivariate Correlations of Study Variables Within the Sexual Assault Subset

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16
1. Sex	-															
2. Race	-.029	-														
3. Age	-.012	-.107**	-													
4. Sexual minority status	.100**	.049*	-.142**	-												
5. Rank	.037	-.020	.499**	-.069**	-											
6. Component	.149**	.136**	-.265**	.085**	-.124**	-										
7. Tenure	-.082**	-.105**	.763**	-.102**	.627**	-.198**	-									
8. Sexual assault frequency	-.284**	-.014	.042	-.032	-.031	-.117**	.053*	-								
9. SH ^a frequency	-.066*	.057*	-.085**	.052	-.104**	-.082**	-.064*	.378**	-							
10. Previous SM ^b experience	.020	-.031	.015	.031	.022	-.024	.069**	.162**	.112**	-						
11. Perpetrator sex	-.457**	-.056*	.109**	-.058*	.087**	-.124**	.150**	.080**	-.105**	-.024	-					
12. Perpetrator power	.119**	.020	.065*	-.030	-.028	-.093**	.028	.130**	.223**	.007	-.050	-				
13. Policy/resource knowledge	-.020	.003	.208**	-.047	.233**	-.137**	.273**	-.067**	-.121**	.044	.038	-.001	-			
14. Satisfaction with training	-.063**	-.069**	.062*	-.015	.114**	-.040	.099**	-.064*	-.200**	-.054**	.061*	-.057*	.382**	-		
15. SM intolerance ^c	.073**	-.012	-.057*	.026	.015	.091**	-.038	-.174**	-.277**	-.157**	.015	-.150**	.162**	.442**	-	
16. Target-reported SM ^b	.150**	.041	.041	.014	.016	.025	.009	.036	.020	-.038	-.057*	.120**	.081**	-.051*	.020	-
17. Observer-reported SM ^b	.022	.050*	-.006	.011	.052*	-.054*	.008	.004	.076**	.023	-.037	.100**	.040	-.007	-.102**	.241**

Note. See Table 2 for variable coding scheme. Due to low cell counts, perpetrator power was reclassified into two groups (0 = *Less or equally powerful*; 1 = *More powerful*), and target rank was reclassified into two groups (0 = *Junior Non-Commissioned Member, Junior Officer*; 1 = *Senior Non-Commissioned Member, Senior Officer*).

^a Sexual harassment

^b Sexual misconduct

^d Perceived sexual misconduct intolerance

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

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Table 6

Bivariate Correlations of Study Variables Within the Sexual Harassment Subset

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	
1. Sex	-																	
2. Race		-.038**	-															
3. Age		.045**	-.070**	-														
4. Sexual minority status		.134**	.007	-.075**	-													
5. Rank		.070**	-.038**	.507**	-.069**	-												
6. Component		.044**	.077**	-.220**	.067**	-.120**	-											
7. Tenure		-.060	-.085**	.778**	-.086**	.626**	-.137**	-										
8. GH ^a frequency		-.157**	.024*	-.152**	.017	-.142**	-.037**	-.121**	-									
9. SAH ^b frequency		.001	.020	-.031**	.032**	-.081**	-.082**	-.044**	.401**	-								
10. Sexual Harassment Type		.177**	-.034**	.118**	-.028**	.120**	.003	.095**	-.511**	-.102**	-							
11. Previous SM ^c experience		.103**	.005	.020	.039**	.045**	-.044**	.055**	.115**	.080**	-.096**	-						
12. Perpetrator sex		-.274**	-.023	.186**	-.038**	.124**	-.105**	.165**	-.118**	-.043**	.158**	-.108**	-					
13. Perpetrator power		.039**	.029**	-.105**	.063**	-.184**	.005	-.123**	.201**	.153**	-.181**	.126**	-.182**	-				
14. Policy/resource knowledge		-.016	-.031**	.211**	-.044**	.289**	-.156**	.275**	.026*	-.002	-.005	-.014	.114**	-.086**	-			
15. Satisfaction with training		-.156**	-.050**	.035**	-.079**	.058**	-.028**	.066**	.055**	-.049**	-.056**	-.075**	.042**	-.100**	.347**	-		
16. SM intolerance ^d		-.132**	-.030**	.024*	-.075**	.099**	-.006	.056**	-.037**	-.144**	.046**	-.107**	.068**	-.206**	.221**	.493**	-	
17. Target-reported SM ^c		.111**	.026*	.067**	.064**	.031**	-.025*	.056**	.028**	.091**	.011	.034**	-.044**	.099**	.043**	-.057**	-.169**	
18. Observer-reported SM ^c		-.031**	.001	-.043**	-.003	-.020*	-.028**	-.034**	.140**	.130**	-.092**	.086**	-.012	.175**	-.006	-.050**	-.151**	.208**

Note. See Table 2 for variable coding scheme.

^a Gender harassment

^b Sexual advance harassment

^c Sexual misconduct

^d Perceived sexual misconduct intolerance

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

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In cases of target-reported sexual misconduct, the predictor variables were entered in a sequence of hierarchical steps such that the first step accounted for demonstrated voice predictors across various contexts (including, but not restricted to, mistreatment); the second step contributed known predictors related to voice in cases of sexual harassment; and the third step progressed to consider factors relevant to a workplace that is actively attempting to address sexual misconduct. Thus, the variables entered in Step 1 considered the predictive ability attributable to the target's socio-demographic and employment characteristics: target sex, target race, and target tenure. It is important to note that tenure was chosen as a predictor based on: 1) previous research indicating that those with more tenure are predicted to report more frequently (Malmut & Offermann, 2001; Holland & Cortina, 2016), and 2) in an effort to both account for the significant relationships between reporting and target age and rank, and to reduce multicollinearity between predictors. In turn, Step 2 incorporated variables pertaining to the sexual misconduct event itself, as it relates to the target (frequency of experiencing that type of sexual misconduct during the past 12 months, and previous exposure to workplace sexual misconduct), and to the perpetrator (perpetrator power).

As such, in cases of target-reported sexual misconduct, when the training and perceived intolerance variables (*Knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources*, *Satisfaction with training adequacy*, and *Perception of sexual misconduct intolerance*) were entered in Step 3, variables representing target individual differences and contextual effects of the sexual misconduct incidents themselves had already been accounted for, and the contribution of training and organizational intolerance to the predictive model could be considered beyond these factors.

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In turn, when testing the predictive model for observer-reported sexual misconduct, I conducted a hierarchical regression based on the nature of the predictors in question. During Step 1, target characteristics (sex, race, tenure) were entered into the model, and were followed by characteristics related to the sexual misconduct incident (targets' frequency of sexual misconduct experience, targets' previous sexual misconduct experience, perpetrator power) in Step 2.

The categorical variables were contrasted using indicator (i.e., dummy) coding, and the outcome was coded as 1 for a reported case and 0 for an unreported case.

Regression on target-reported gender harassment. When considering target reporting in cases of workplace gender harassment (Table 7), 3,230 cases were included in the analysis. Step 1 was significant, providing an increase in model fit over the constant-only model, $\chi^2(3) = 56.4, p < .001$, and all three variables – target sex, $B = -0.68, SE = 0.11$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 41.2, p < .001$, $e^b = 0.51$ (95% CI [0.41, 0.62]), target race, $B = -0.42, SE = 0.15$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 7.61, p = .006$, $e^b = 0.66$ (95% CI [0.49, 0.89]), and tenure, $B = 0.02, SE = 0.01$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 14.4, p < .001$, $e^b = 1.02$ (95% CI [1.01, 1.03]) – individually, significantly contributed to the prediction of the target-reporting outcome.

When Step 2 variables were entered into the equation, there was a further significant increase in model fit, $\chi^2(4) = 86.9, p < .001$. The likelihood ratio tests were significant for target sex, $B = -0.64, SE = 0.11$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 34.5, p < .001$, $e^b = 0.53$ (95% CI [0.43, 0.65]), race, $B = -0.40, SE = 0.16$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 6.63, p = .010$, $e^b = 0.67$ (95% CI [0.50, 0.91]), tenure, $B = 0.03, SE = 0.01$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 17.1, p < .001$, $e^b = 1.03$ (95% CI [1.01, 1.04]), gender harassment frequency, $B = 0.15, SE = 0.07$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 5.41, p = .020$, $e^b = 1.16$ (95% CI [1.02, 1.32]), and perpetrator power

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(equal power compared to the more powerful reference group), $B = -1.08$, $SE = 0.14$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 63.9$, $p < .001$, $e^b = 0.34$ (95% CI [0.26, 0.44]), but none of the other predictor variables significantly contributed to the predictive model.

Step 3 incorporated predictor variables related to the target's knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources, satisfaction with training, and perceived sexual misconduct intolerance within their unit, which caused a significant increase in model fit $\chi^2(3) = 59.6$, $p < .001$. The final model fit, $\chi^2(10) = 202.9$, $p < .001$, resulted in final Cox and Snell and Nagelkerke pseudo- R^2 statistics of .061 and .111, respectively. In the final model, target sex, $B = -0.48$, $SE = 0.11$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 18.1$, $p < .001$, $e^b = 0.62$ (95% CI [0.50, 0.83]), race, $B = -0.33$, $SE = 0.16$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 4.45$, $p = .035$, $e^b = 0.72$ (95% CI [0.53, 0.98]), and tenure, $B = 0.02$, $SE = 0.01$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 13.6$, $p < .001$, $e^b = 1.02$ (95% CI [1.01, 1.04]), as well as gender harassment frequency, $B = 0.14$, $SE = 0.07$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 4.49$, $p = .034$, $e^b = 1.15$ (95% CI [1.01, 1.31]), and perpetrator power (equal power compared to the more powerful reference group), $B = -0.92$, $SE = 0.14$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 43.6$, $p < .001$, $e^b = 0.40$ (95% CI [0.31, 0.53]), significantly, independently contributed to model fit. Additionally, knowledge of policies and resources, $B = 0.42$, $SE = 0.18$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 5.48$, $p = .019$, $e^b = 1.52$ (95% CI [1.07, 2.15]), and perceived intolerance, $B = -0.36$, $SE = 0.06$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 43.1$, $p < .001$, $e^b = 0.70$ (95% CI [0.63, 0.78]), were also significant predictors of target reporting behaviour. Thus, in cases of gender harassment, knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources significantly improved the odds of target reporting over and above known predictors of employee voice. In contrast, contrary to the predicted effect, a positive perception of organizational tolerance decreased the odds of target reporting.

Regression on target-reported sexual advance harassment. When considering target reporting in cases of workplace sexual advance harassment (Table 8), 890 cases were included in the analysis. Step 1 was significant, providing an increase in model fit over the constant-only model, $\chi^2(3) = 12.9, p = .005$, though only target sex, $B = -0.63, SE = 0.20$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 10.4, p = .001, e^b = 0.53$ (95% CI [0.36, 0.78]), individually, significantly contributed to the prediction of the target reporting outcome.

When Step 2 variables were entered into the equation, there was once again a significant increase in model fit, $\chi^2(4) = 25.0, p < .001$. The likelihood ratio tests were significant for target sex, $B = -0.55, SE = 0.20$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 7.27, p = .007, e^b = 0.57$ (95% CI [0.39, 0.86]), and perpetrator power (equal power compared to the more powerful reference group), $B = -1.11, SE = 0.25$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 19.5, p < .001, e^b = 0.33$ (95% CI [0.20, 0.54]), but none of the other predictor variables significantly contributed to the predictive model.

The addition of Step 3 variables related to mutable organizational factors produced a significant increase in model fit $\chi^2(3) = 24.6, p < .001$. The final model fit, $\chi^2(10) = 62.5, p < .001$, resulted in final Cox and Snell and Nagelkerke pseudo- R^2 statistics of .068 and .120, respectively. In the final model, target sex, $B = -0.60, SE = 0.21$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 7.98, p = .005, e^b = 0.55$ (95% CI [0.37, 0.83]), perpetrator power (equal power compared to the more powerful reference group), $B = -1.03, SE = 0.26$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 16.2, p < .001, e^b = 0.36$ (95% CI [0.22, 0.59]), and target's perceived intolerance $B = -0.56, SE = 0.12$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 23.7, p < .001, e^b = 0.57$ (95% CI [0.46, 0.72]), were the only predictors that significantly, independently contributed to model fit. Thus, in contrast to the predicted effect, in cases of sexual advance harassment,

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when controlling for known predictors of employee voice, perceived sexual misconduct intolerance predicted the reduced likelihood of target reporting.

Regression on target-reported sexual assault. When considering target-reported sexual assault (Table 9), 570 cases were included in the analysis. Step 1 was significant, providing an increase in model fit over the constant-only model, $\chi^2(3) = 8.42, p = .038$, though only target sex, $B = -0.61, SE = 0.22$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 7.78, p = .005, e^b = 0.54$ (95% CI [0.35, 0.83]), significantly contributed to the prediction of target reporting.

When Step 2 variables were entered into the equation, there was an increase in model fit, $\chi^2(4) = 24.0, p < .001$. The likelihood ratio tests were significant for target sex, $B = -0.75, SE = 0.24$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 9.44, p = .002, e^b = 0.48$ (95% CI [0.30, 0.76]), sexual assault frequency, $B = 0.35, SE = 0.14$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 6.64, p = .010, e^b = 1.42$ (95% CI [1.09, 1.86]), target's previous sexual misconduct experience, $B = -0.67, SE = 0.32$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 4.28, p = .039, e^b = 0.51$ (95% CI [0.27, 0.97]), and perpetrator power (equal power compared to the more powerful reference group), $B = -0.84, SE = 0.25$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 11.5, p = .001, e^b = 0.43$ (95% CI [0.27, 0.70]).

The addition of variables related to mutable organizational factors in Step 3 did not result in an increase in model fit $\chi^2(3) = 2.91, p = .406$. However, the final model fit was significantly improved over the constant-only model, $\chi^2(1) = 35.3, p < .001$, and resulted in final Cox and Snell and Nagelkerke pseudo- R^2 statistics of .060 and .093, respectively. In the final model, the same predictors as in the previous step retained their significance. Thus, target sex, $B = -0.71, SE = 0.24$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 8.54, p = .003, e^b = 0.49$ (95% CI [0.31, 0.79]), sexual assault frequency, $B = 0.37, SE = 0.14$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 7.17, p = .007, e^b = 1.45$ (95% CI [1.10, 1.91]), target's previous sexual

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misconduct experience, $B = -0.66$, $SE = 0.33$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 4.06$, $p = .044$, $e^b = 0.51$ (95% CI [0.27, 0.98]), and perpetrator power (equal power compared to the more powerful reference group), $B = -0.86$, $SE = 0.25$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 11.9$, $p = .001$, $e^b = 0.42$ (95% CI [0.26, 0.69]), contributed to the prediction of target reporting in cases of sexual assault. Neither training outcomes (knowledge, satisfaction), nor perceived intolerance, influenced the likelihood of targets reporting an incident of sexual assault.

Regression on observer-reported gender harassment. When considering observer-reported gender harassment (Table 10), 3,230 cases were included in the analysis. Step 1 was significant, providing an increase in model fit over the constant-only model, $\chi^2(3) = 8.41$, $p = .038$. However, target tenure, $B = -0.01$, $SE = 0.01$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 5.63$, $p = .018$, $e^b = 0.99$ (95% CI [0.98, 1.00]), was the only variable that independently contributed to the prediction of observer reporting.

In turn, when Step 2 variables were entered into the equation, there was a demonstrated increase in model fit, $\chi^2(4) = 201$, $p < .001$. The likelihood ratio tests indicated that in addition to target sex, $B = 0.26$, $SE = 0.11$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 5.72$, $p = .017$, $e^b = 1.29$ (95% CI [1.05, 1.59]), each of the Step 2 variables significantly contributed to the predictive model. Frequency of gender harassment, $B = 0.23$, $SE = 0.06$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 16.3$, $p < .001$, $e^b = 1.26$ (95% CI [1.13, 1.41]), and target's previous sexual misconduct experience, $B = 0.37$, $SE = 0.15$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 6.45$, $p = .011$, $e^b = 1.45$ (95% CI [1.09, 1.92]), increased the likelihood than an observer reported the incident, whereas less powerful perpetrators, $B = -0.75$, $SE = 0.24$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 9.56$, $p = .002$, $e^b = 0.47$ (95% CI [0.30, 0.76]), and equal power perpetrators (compared to more powerful perpetrators), $B = -1.40$, $SE = 0.13$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 120$, $p < .001$, $e^b = 0.25$ (95%

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CI [0.19, 0.32]), decreased the odds of observer reporting in this model. The final model provided a significant fit for the data, $\chi^2(7) = 209, p < .001$, and resulted in final Cox and Snell and Nagelkerke pseudo- R^2 statistics of .063 and .105, respectively.

Regression on observer-reported sexual advance harassment. When considering observer-reported sexual advance harassment (Table 11), 890 cases were included in the analysis. Step 1 did not significantly increase model fit over the constant-only model, $\chi^2(3) = 0.61, p = .895$.

When Step 2 variables were entered into the equation, there was a significant increase in model fit, $\chi^2(4) = 10.1, p = .038$. However, target's previous sexual misconduct experience, $B = 0.64, SE = 0.31$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 4.33, p = .037, e^b = 1.90$ (95% CI [1.04, 3.48]), was the only variable that significantly contributed to outcome prediction. The final model resulted in Cox and Snell and Nagelkerke pseudo- R^2 statistics of .012 and .026, respectively, and did not provide a significant increase in fit over the constant-only model, $\chi^2(7) = 10.8, p = .150$.

Regression on observer-reported sexual assault. When considering observer-reported sexual assault (Table 12), 570 cases were included in the analysis. Similar to the predictive model of observer-reported sexual advance harassment, the variables entered in Step 1 did not improve model fit over the constant-only model, $\chi^2(3) = 0.85, p = .837$. Moreover, in cases of observer-reported sexual assault, there was also no demonstrated increase in model fit once the Step 2 variables were entered into the model, $\chi^2(4) = 2.49, p = .647$. The final model fit, $\chi^2(7) = 3.34, p = .852$, resulted in final Cox and Snell and Nagelkerke pseudo- R^2 statistics of .006 and .012, respectively.

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Table 7

Hierarchical Logistic Regression Predicting Target-Reported Workplace Gender Harassment

Predictor	<i>B</i> (SE)	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3			
		Wald's χ^2	<i>p</i>	e^b [95% CI]	<i>B</i> (SE)	Wald's χ^2	<i>p</i>	e^b [95% CI]	<i>B</i> (SE)	Wald's χ^2	<i>p</i>
Target Characteristics											
Sex (Male)	-0.678 (0.106)	41.2	.000	0.51 [0.41, 0.62]	-0.641 (0.109)	34.5	.000	0.53 [0.43, 0.65]	-0.480 (0.113)	18.1	.000
Race (White)	-0.421 (0.153)	7.61	.006	0.66 [0.49, 0.89]	-0.399 (0.155)	6.63	.010	0.67 [0.50, 0.91]	-0.333 (0.158)	4.45	.035
Tenure	0.022 (0.006)	14.4	.000	1.02 [1.01, 1.03]	0.025 (0.006)	17.1	.000	1.03 [1.01, 1.04]	0.024 (0.006)	13.6	.000
Sexual Misconduct											
Frequency of GH ^a				0.152 (0.065)	5.41	.020	1.16 [1.02, 1.32]	0.141 (0.066)	4.49	.034	1.15 [1.01, 1.31]
Previous SM ^b Exposure (Yes)				0.017 (0.150)	0.01	.908	1.02 [0.76, 1.37]	-0.073 (0.152)	0.23	.633	0.93 [0.69, 1.25]
Perpetrator Power					63.9	.000			44.1	.000	
Perpetrator Power (Less)				-0.242 (0.218)	1.24	.266	0.79 [0.51, 1.20]	-0.097 (0.221)	0.19	.660	0.91 [0.59, 1.40]
Perpetrator Power (Equal)				-1.08 (0.136)	63.9	.000	0.34 [0.26, 0.44]	-0.915 (0.139)	43.6	.000	0.40 [0.31, 0.53]
Organizational Interventions											
Policy/Resource Knowledge								0.416 (0.177)	5.48	.019	1.52 [1.07, 2.15]
Satisfaction with Training								-0.038 (0.054)	0.48	.488	0.96 [0.87, 1.07]
Perception of Intolerance								-0.360 (0.055)	43.1	.000	0.70 [0.63, 0.78]
Constant	-1.36 (0.168)	64.8	.000	0.26	-1.34 (0.234)	33.0	.000	0.26	-0.838 (0.475)	3.12	.077
											0.43

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Table 7 (continued).

Target-Reported Gender Harassment	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3	
<u>Overall Model Evaluation</u>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>
Step	56.4	.000	86.9	.000	59.6	.000
Model	56.4	.000	143.4	.000	202.9	.000
<u>Model Summary</u>						
-2LL	2499.2		2412.3		2352.8	
Cox & Snell R ²	.017		.043		.061	
Nagelkirke R ²	.032		.079		.111	

Note. N = 3,230

^a Gender harassment

^b Sexual misconduct

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Table 8

Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Target-Reported Workplace Sexual Advance Harassment

Predictor	<i>B</i> (SE)	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3			
		Wald's χ^2	<i>p</i>	e^b [95% CI]	<i>B</i> (SE)	Wald's χ^2	<i>p</i>	e^b [95% CI]	<i>B</i> (SE)	Wald's χ^2	<i>p</i>
Target Characteristics											
Sex (Male)	-0.632 (0.196)	10.4	.001	0.53 [0.36, 0.78]	-0.551 (0.204)	7.27	.007	0.58 [0.39, 0.86]	-0.595 (0.211)	7.98	.005
Race (White)	-0.132 (0.347)	0.14	.704	0.88 [0.44, 1.73]	-0.252 (0.355)	0.50	.478	0.78 [0.39, 1.56]	-0.289 (0.361)	0.64	.423
Tenure	0.019 (0.010)	3.43	.064	1.02 [1.00, 1.04]	0.017 (0.011)	2.62	.105	1.02 [1.00, 1.04]	-0.017 (0.011)	2.18	.140
Sexual Misconduct											
Frequency of SAH ^a					0.314 (0.211)	2.21	.137	1.37 [0.91, 2.07]	0.307 (0.213)	2.06	.151
Previous SM ^b Exposure (Yes)					-0.075 (0.227)	0.11	.741	0.928 [0.60, 1.45]	-0.119 (0.233)	0.26	.609
Perpetrator Power						19.6	.000			16.9	.000
Perpetrator Power (Less)					-0.259 (0.243)	1.13	.288	0.78 [0.48, 1.24]	-0.098 (0.251)	0.15	.698
Perpetrator Power (Equal)					-1.11 (0.251)	19.5	.000	0.33 [0.20, 0.54]	-1.03 (0.256)	16.2	.000
Organizational Interventions											
Policy/Resource Knowledge									0.425 (0.352)	1.45	.228
Satisfaction with Training									0.129 (0.107)	1.47	.226
Perception of Intolerance									-0.559 (0.115)	23.7	.000
Constant	-1.65 (0.368)	20.0	.000	0.19	-1.38 (0.466)	8.76	.003	0.25	-0.510 (0.971)	0.28	.600
											0.60

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Table 8 (continued).

Target-Reported Sexual Advance Harassment	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3
<u>Overall Model Evaluation</u>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	χ^2
Step	12.9	.005	25.0	.000	24.6
Model	12.9	.005	37.9	.000	62.5
<u>Model Summary</u>					
-2LL	727.0		702.0		677.4
Cox & Snell R ²	.014		.042		.068
Nagelkirke R ²	.025		.074		.120

Note. N = 890

^a Sexual advance harassment

^b Sexual misconduct

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Table 9

Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Target-Reported Workplace Sexual Assault

Predictor	<i>B</i> (SE)	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3			
		Wald's χ^2	<i>p</i>	e^b [95% CI]	<i>B</i> (SE)	Wald's χ^2	<i>p</i>	e^b [95% CI]	<i>B</i> (SE)	Wald's χ^2	<i>p</i>
Target Characteristics											
Sex (Male)	-0.614 (0.220)	7.78	.005	0.54 [0.35, 0.83]	-0.750 (0.243)	9.44	.002	0.48 [0.30, 0.76]	-0.710 (0.243)	8.54	.003
Race (White)	0.044 (0.303)	0.02	.885	1.04 [0.58, 1.89]	-0.015 (0.311)	0.00	.962	0.99 [0.54, 1.81]	0.029 (0.316)	0.01	.926
Tenure	0.011 (0.013)	0.70	.413	1.01 [0.99, 1.04]	0.009 (0.013)	0.41	.523	1.01 [0.98, 1.04]	0.004 (0.014)	0.08	.782
Sexual Misconduct											
Frequency of Sexual Assault				0.354 (0.137)	6.64	.010	1.42 [1.09, 1.86]	0.372 (0.139)	7.17	.007	1.45 [1.10, 1.91]
Previous SM ^a Exposure (Yes)				-0.668 (0.323)	4.28	.039	0.51 [0.27, 0.97]	-0.662 (0.329)	4.06	.044	0.52 [0.27, 0.98]
Perpetrator Power					11.5	.003			11.9	.003	
Perpetrator Power (Less)				-0.218 (0.339)	0.41	.520	0.80 [0.41, 1.56]	-0.253 (0.342)	0.55	.458	0.78 [0.40, 1.52]
Perpetrator Power (Equal)				-0.837 (0.247)	11.5	.001	0.43 [0.27, 0.70]	-0.863 (0.251)	11.9	.001	0.42 [0.26, 0.69]
Organizational Interventions											
Policy/Resource Knowledge								0.527 (0.365)	2.09	.149	1.69 [0.83, 3.47]
Satisfaction with Training								-0.118 (0.099)	1.40	.236	0.89 [0.73, 1.08]
Perception of Intolerance								0.074 (0.094)	0.62	.433	1.08 [0.90, 1.29]
<u>Constant</u>	-1.25 (0.314)	15.9	.000	0.29	-0.889 (0.465)	3.66	.056	0.41	-2.06 (0.970)	4.53	.033
											0.13

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Table 9 (continued).

Target-Reported Sexual Assault	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3
<u>Overall Model Evaluation</u>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	χ^2	<i>p</i>	χ^2
Step	8.42	.038	24.0	.000	2.91
Model	8.42	.038	32.4	.000	35.3
<u>Model Summary</u>					
-2LL	577.5		553.5		550.6
Cox & Snell R ²	.015		.055		.060
Nagelkirke R ²	.023		.086		.093

Note. N = 570

^a Sexual misconduct

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Table 10

Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Observer-Reported Workplace Gender Harassment

Predictor	<i>B</i> (SE)	Step 1			<i>B</i> (SE)	Step 2		
		Wald's χ^2	<i>p</i>	e^b [95% CI]		Wald's χ^2	<i>p</i>	e^b [95% CI]
<u>Target Characteristics</u>								
Sex (Male)	0.178 (0.103)	2.96	.085	1.19 [0.98, 1.46]	0.256 (0.107)	5.72	.017	1.29 [1.05, 1.59]
Race (White)	0.031 (0.149)	0.04	.836	1.03 [0.77, 1.38]	0.078 (0.153)	0.26	.609	1.08 [0.80, 1.46]
Tenure	-0.014 (0.006)	5.63	.018	0.99 [0.98, 1.00]	-0.010 (0.006)	2.49	.115	0.99 [0.98, 1.00]
<u>Sexual Misconduct</u>								
Frequency of GH ^a					0.231 (0.057)	16.3	.000	1.26 [1.13, 1.41]
Previous SM ^b Exposure (Yes)					0.369 (0.145)	6.45	.011	1.45 [1.09, 1.92]
Perpetrator Power						123.6	.000	
Perpetrator Power (Less)					-0.748 (0.242)	9.56	.002	0.47 [0.30, 0.76]
Perpetrator Power (Equal)					-1.40 (0.128)	119.9	.000	0.25 [0.19, 0.32]
Constant	-1.55 (0.169)	84.1	.000	0.21	-1.91 (0.231)	69.0	.000	0.15
<u>Observer-Reported Gender Harassment</u>								
Step 1								
Overall Model Evaluation		χ^2		<i>p</i>		χ^2		<i>p</i>
Step		8.41		.038		201.4		.000
Model		8.41		.038		209.8		.000
<u>Model Summary</u>								
-2LL			2960.4				2759.0	
Cox & Snell R ²			.003				.063	
Nagelkirke R ²			.004				.105	

Note. $N = 3,230$

^a Gender harassment

^b Sexual misconduct

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Table 11

Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Observer-Reported Workplace Sexual Advance Harassment

Predictor	Step 1			Step 2				
	B (SE)	Wald's χ^2	p	e^b [95% CI]	B (SE)	Wald's χ^2	p	e^b [95% CI]
Target Characteristics								
Sex (Male)	-0.142 (0.232)	0.38	.539	0.87 [0.55, 1.37]	0.023 (0.238)	0.01	.924	1.02 [0.64, 1.63]
Race (White)	0.108 (0.444)	0.06	.807	1.11 [0.47, 2.66]	0.095 (0.448)	0.05	.832	1.10 [0.46, 2.64]
Tenure	-0.004 (0.013)	0.12	.730	1.00 [0.97, 1.02]	-0.005 (0.013)	0.14	.706	1.00 [0.97, 1.02]
Sexual Misconduct								
Frequency of SAH ^a					0.073 (0.263)	0.08	.782	1.08 [0.64, 1.80]
Previous SM ^b Exposure (Yes)					0.643 (0.309)	4.33	.037	1.90 [1.04, 3.48]
Perpetrator Power						4.64	.098	
Perpetrator Power (Less)					-0.569 (0.334)	2.90	.089	0.57 [0.29, 1.09]
Perpetrator Power (Equal)					-0.468 (0.265)	3.11	.078	0.63 [0.37, 1.05]
Constant	-2.24 (0.468)	22.9	.000	0.11	-2.59 (0.596)	18.9	.000	0.08
Observer-Reported Sexual Advance Harassment								
Step 1								
<u>Overall Model Evaluation</u>								
Step		χ^2		p		χ^2		p
Model	0.61			.895		10.1		.038
<u>Model Summary</u>								
-2LL			551.0				540.9	
Cox & Snell R ²			.001				.012	
Nagelkirke R ²			.001				.026	

Note. N = 890

^a Sexual advance harassment

^b Sexual misconduct

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Table 12

Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Observer-Reported Workplace Sexual Assault

Predictor	Step 1			Step 2				
	B (SE)	Wald's χ^2	p	e^b [95% CI]	B (SE)	Wald's χ^2	p	e^b [95% CI]
Target Characteristics								
Sex (Male)	-0.111 (0.283)	0.15	.696	0.90 [0.51, 1.56]	-0.049 (0.304)	0.03	.871	0.95 [0.52, 1.73]
Race (White)	-0.227 (0.372)	0.37	.541	0.80 [0.38, 1.65]	-0.229 (0.374)	0.38	.539	0.80 [0.38, 1.65]
Tenure	0.012 (0.017)	0.50	.477	1.01 [0.98, 1.05]	0.010 (0.017)	0.36	.548	1.01 [0.98, 1.04]
Sexual Misconduct								
Frequency of Sexual Assault					0.041 (0.178)	0.05	.819	1.04 [0.74, 1.47]
Previous SM ^a Exposure (Yes)					0.274 (0.496)	0.31	.581	1.32 [0.50, 3.48]
Perpetrator Power						1.82	.403	
Perpetrator Power (Less)					-0.375 (0.459)	0.67	.414	0.69 [0.28, 1.69]
Perpetrator Power (Equal)					-0.390 (0.310)	1.58	.208	0.68 [0.37, 1.24]
Constant	-2.06 (0.394)	27.3	.000	0.13	-2.20 (0.652)	11.4	.001	.111
Observer-Reported Sexual Assault								
Step 1								
<u>Overall Model Evaluation</u>								
Step		χ^2		p		χ^2		p
Model		0.85		.837		2.49		.647
<u>Model Summary</u>								
-2LL			379.3				376.8	
Cox & Snell R ²			.001				.006	
Nagelkirke R ²			.003				.012	

Note. N = 570

^a Sexual misconduct

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Post-hoc analyses: Regression on targets' satisfaction with the outcome of the reporting process. While the goal of this study was to contribute to the understanding of what predicts organizational sexual misconduct reporting, the given findings suggested that it might be valuable to probe further in an effort to better understand target outcomes subsequent to organizational reporting. More specifically, given the finding that across several contexts, targets' negative perceptions of organizational intolerance (i.e., believing that sexual harassment is tolerated and reports are not taken seriously in their unit) predicted having reported the sexual misconduct event, I was interested in further investigating the experience of reporting for the group of individuals who reported the incident or for whom the incident was reported.

A consistent finding among the sexual misconduct and voice literature is that perceptions of organizational intolerance should promote reporting (Bergman et al., 2002; Hershcovis et al., 2010). As such, the above finding was rather contradictory, and seemed to suggest that perhaps factors related to engaging with the reporting process might have influenced perceptions of organizational intolerance. Given the nature of the data that was collected, I was able to do this through the investigating the predictors of targets' satisfaction with the actions of the voice manager (i.e., the individual in authority to whom the incident was reported; Landau, 2009) subsequent to incident reporting.

There is ample evidence in support of the notion that a negative voice experience can exacerbate the deleterious effects of a sexual misconduct experience (Bergman et al., 2002; Cortina & Magley, 2003; Lonsway et al., 2013). Moreover, if an individual endures a poor voice experience, that individual is predicted to be unlikely to report an event in the future (Harlos, 2001; Pinder & Harlos, 2001), and their experience may also serve to

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dissuade others from reporting (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Morrison & Milliken, 2000).

Negative voice experiences serve to reinforce the belief that voice is dangerous or futile, and can perpetuate a culture of silence within an organization (Morrison & Milliken, 2000, 2003; Pinder & Harlos, 2001; Bell et al., 2011). In contrast, those who are satisfied with the outcome of their voice experience have been shown to predict satisfaction with work more broadly (Offermann & Malamut, 2002), and may serve to establish trust with the voice manager and promote future voice (Liu et al., 2013; Landau, 2009).

In essence, promoting future voice among individuals who have already engaged with the incident reporting process is likely to require that the individual had a more positive experience. Knoll et al. (2016) aptly note that the decision to voice is part of a dynamic social process that incorporates both past experiences and future expectations. Thus, gaining an understanding of which factors serve to predict satisfaction (or dissatisfaction) with a voice experience is arguably of value to organizations seeking to promote and support voice across various contexts, including sexual misconduct.

As a post-hoc investigation, I examined the same factors used in the previous models predicting target voice to further explore whether these same factors served to predict targets' satisfaction with the actions taken subsequent to incident reporting. There is some evidence to suggest that women (Buchanan et al., 2014), and that targets who are visible minorities (Meares et al., 2004; Kramarae, 1981), are less likely to be satisfied with the outcome of a reported event of sexual misconduct. Targets with greater tenure and more organizational power are more likely to perceive that their voice will have an influence on the workplace environment (Islam & Zyphur, 2005), which suggests they have expectations about their report achieving a desired outcome. Furthermore, those who

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are repeatedly victimized (i.e., experience more frequent sexual misconduct, or who have experienced sexual misconduct in the past), and targets who are less powerful than their perpetrators, are likely to appraise the situation as more threatening (Bergman et al., 2002; Settles, Buchanan, Yap, & Harrell, 2014). Klaas, Olson-Buchanan, and Ward (2012) suggest that the desire to restore justice through justice-oriented voice (e.g., grievance filing) is greater when the perceived injustice is more severe. In turn, if justice is not restored through actions taken subsequent to incident reporting, then these factors related to the sexual harassment context could plausibly have an indirect influence on employees' satisfaction with the process overall (Harlos, 2001). Finally, as the organization has no influence on the factors presented above, but may have some influence over factors such as employee knowledge of policies and resources, satisfaction with training, and perceptions of intolerance, it would be beneficial to investigate whether these mutable factors contribute to the prediction of satisfaction with the actions taken subsequent to employee voice. Overall, there is value in using the same predictive model to investigate whether factors that have otherwise been demonstrated to influence employee voice also serve to influence satisfaction with the outcome of this voice process.

A single item – “*Overall, how satisfied were you with the actions taken by the person in authority?*” – was asked only to those participants who indicated that a person in authority came to learn of the sexual misconduct event (i.e., those who indicated the event was reported). These participants rated their satisfaction on a scale from 1 (*Very dissatisfied*) to 5 (*Very satisfied*).

In light of previous research and the findings of the current study, I chose to conduct a hierarchical regression using the same predictors as indicated above to

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determine whether these same factors predicted targets' satisfaction with the outcome of sexual misconduct incident reporting. Diagnostic tests revealed that the distribution of this outcome variable was strongly negatively skewed (i.e., toward high satisfaction) both for those who reported the event themselves and for whom someone reported on their behalf. Given that several predictor variables (e.g., *Knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources; Perceived organizational intolerance*) also violated the assumption of normality, I chose to dichotomize the dependent variable, separating the individuals into two categories (0 = *Neutral or dissatisfied*, 1 = *Satisfied or very satisfied*), and proceed to employ a hierarchical logistic regression analysis. As mentioned, the predictors were entered in the same steps as in the previous analyses. The sample sizes of the target-reported and observer-reported sexual harassment groups were sufficient to perform these analyses separately, but not sufficient to be further broken down into gender harassment and sexual advance harassment specific subgroups.¹

Regression on targets' satisfaction with target-reported sexual harassment voice outcome. When considering the prediction of targets' satisfaction with the outcome of target-reported sexual harassment (Table 13), 470 cases were included in the analysis. Step 1 was significant, providing an increase in model fit over the constant-only model, $\chi^2(3) = 10.6, p = .014$, and variables target sex, $B = 0.49, SE = 0.19$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 6.49, p = .011$, $e^b = 1.63$ (95% CI [1.12, 2.37]), and target race, $B = 0.64, SE = 0.30$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 4.53, p = .033$, $e^b = 1.89$ (95% CI [1.05, 3.38]), significantly contributed to the prediction of the target's satisfaction subsequent to their incident report.

¹ The sexual assault subgroup sample size was insufficient, and did not meet the Statistics Canada thresholds for data release.

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Step 2 variables also significantly increased model fit when added, $\chi^2(5) = 16.5$, $p = .005$. The likelihood ratio tests were only significant for target sex, $B = 0.54$, $SE = 0.20$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 7.31$, $p = .007$, $e^b = 1.71$ (95% CI [1.16, 2.53]), and less powerful perpetrators (as compared to the more powerful perpetrator reference group), $B = 1.21$, $SE = 0.35$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 11.8$, $p = .001$, $e^b = 3.36$ (95% CI [1.68, 6.71]).

Step 3 incorporated predictors related to the target's knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources, satisfaction with training, and perceived sexual misconduct intolerance within their unit, which caused a significant increase in model fit, $\chi^2(3) = 90.7$, $p < .001$. The final model fit, $\chi^2(11) = 118$, $p < .001$, resulted in final Cox and Snell and Nagelkerke pseudo- R^2 statistics of .222 and .297, respectively. In the final model, less powerful perpetrators (as compared to the more powerful perpetrator reference category) $B = 0.97$, $SE = 0.38$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 6.60$, $p = .010$, $e^b = 2.64$ (95% CI [1.26, 5.52]), target's satisfaction with training, $B = 0.37$, $SE = 0.11$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 11.5$, $p = .001$, $e^b = 1.45$ (95% CI [1.17, 1.81]), and target's perceived intolerance, $B = 0.66$, $SE = 0.11$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 34.1$, $p < .001$, $e^b = 1.93$ (95% CI [1.55, 2.41]), significantly contributed to the prediction of targets' satisfaction. Thus, for those who reported a personal experience of sexual harassment, increased satisfaction with the adequacy of sexual misconduct training and positive perception of intolerance improved the odds of being satisfied with the outcome of their voice experience.

Regression on targets' satisfaction with observer-reported sexual harassment voice outcome. When considering observer-reported sexual harassment and the prediction of targets' satisfaction with the outcome of such a report (Table 14), 507 cases were included in the analysis. Step 1 was significant, providing an increase in model fit over

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the constant-only model, $\chi^2(3) = 28.4, p < .001$, with target sex, $B = 0.78, SE = 0.20$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 15.8, p < .001, e^b = 2.18$ (95% CI [1.49, 3.21]), and target race, $B = 1.07, SE = 0.33$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 10.7, p = .001, e^b = 2.92$ (95% CI [1.54, 5.55]), contributing to the prediction of targets' satisfaction with the actions taken subsequent to observer voice.

When Step 2 variables were entered, there was no demonstrated increase in model fit, $\chi^2(5) = 10.4, p = .065$. However, the likelihood ratio tests were significant for target sex, $B = 0.74, SE = 0.20$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 13.4, p < .001, e^b = 2.09$ (95% CI [1.49, 3.10]), target race, $B = 1.02, SE = 0.33$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 9.56, p = .002, e^b = 2.76$ (95% CI [1.45, 5.25]), and equal power perpetrators (as compared to more powerful perpetrators), $B = 0.67, SE = 0.25$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 7.43, p = .006, e^b = 1.96$ (95% CI [1.21, 3.18]).

Step 3 incorporated predictor variables related to mutable organizational factors, which caused a significant increase in model fit $\chi^2(3) = 94.8, p < .001$. The final model fit, $\chi^2(11) = 134, p < .001$, resulted in final Cox and Snell and Nagelkerke pseudo- R^2 statistics of .232 and .310, respectively. In the final model, target sex, $B = 0.56, SE = 0.22$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 6.46, p = .011, e^b = 1.75$ (95% CI [1.14, 2.70]), target race, $B = 1.08, SE = 0.36$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 9.11, p = .003, e^b = 2.94$ (95% CI [1.46, 5.91]), satisfaction with training adequacy, $B = 0.34, SE = 0.11$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 9.76, p = .002, e^b = 1.40$ (95% CI [1.13, 1.73]), and target's perceived intolerance, $B = 0.63, SE = 0.11$, Wald's $\chi^2(1) = 30.9, p < .001, e^b = 1.88$ (95% CI [1.51, 2.35]), significantly contributed to model fit. Thus, amongst targets for whom an observer reported their experience of sexual harassment, increased satisfaction with sexual misconduct training adequacy and more positive perception of organizational intolerance, increased the likelihood that a target was satisfied with the outcome this observer report.

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Table 13

Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Targets' Satisfaction with Actions Taken Subsequent to Target-Reported Sexual Harassment

Predictor	Step 1			Step 2			Step 3					
	B (SE)	Wald's χ^2	p	e^b [95% CI]	B (SE)	Wald's χ^2	p	e^b [95% CI]	B (SE)	Wald's χ^2	p	e^b [95% CI]
Target Characteristics												
Sex (Male)	0.487 (0.191)	6.49	.011	1.63 [1.12, 2.37]	0.537 (0.199)	7.31	.007	1.71 [1.16, 2.53]	0.217 (0.223)	0.95	.330	1.24 [0.80, 1.92]
Race (White)	0.635 (0.298)	4.53	.033	1.89 [1.05, 3.38]	0.531 (0.305)	3.04	.081	1.70 [0.94, 3.09]	0.447 (0.334)	1.80	.180	1.56 [0.81, 3.01]
Tenure	-0.007 (0.011)	0.46	.497	0.99 [0.97, 1.01]	-0.015 (0.011)	1.62	.203	0.99 [0.96, 1.01]	-0.010 (0.013)	0.58	.448	0.99 [0.97, 1.02]
Sexual Misconduct												
Frequency of GH ^a				0.015 (0.128)	0.02	.904		1.02 [0.79, 1.31]	0.186 (0.144)	1.67	.196	1.20 [0.91, 1.60]
Frequency of SAH ^b				-0.023 (0.141)	0.03	.873		0.98 [0.74, 1.29]	0.038 (0.159)	0.06	.813	1.04 [0.76, 1.42]
Previous SM ^c Exposure (No)				0.323 (0.275)	1.38	.240		1.38 [0.81, 2.37]	0.205 (0.298)	0.47	.493	1.23 [0.68, 2.20]
Perpetrator Power					11.8	.003				8.23	.016	
Perpetrator Power (Less)				1.21 (0.353)	11.8	.001		3.36 [1.68, 6.71]	0.969 (0.377)	6.60	.010	2.64 [1.26, 5.52]
Perpetrator Power (Equal)				0.101 (0.249)	0.17	.684		1.11 [0.68, 1.80]	-0.226 (0.270)	0.70	.404	0.80 [0.47, 1.36]
Organizational Interventions												
Policy/Resource Knowledge									-0.295 (0.352)	0.70	.402	0.74 [0.37, 1.49]
Satisfaction with Training									0.374 (0.110)	11.5	.001	1.45 [1.17, 1.81]
Perception of Intolerance									0.659 (0.113)	34.1	.000	1.93 [1.55, 2.41]
Constant	-0.961 (0.325)	8.73	.003	0.38	-0.977 (0.396)	6.09	.014	0.38	-4.33 (0.979)	19.5	.000	0.01

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Table 13 (continued).

Satisfied with Actions Taken Subsequent to Target-Reported Sexual Harassment	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3
<u>Overall Model Evaluation</u>	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2
Step	10.6	.014	16.5	.005	90.7
Model	10.6	.014	27.1	.001	117.8
<u>Model Summary</u>					
-2LL	632.8		616.2		525.6
Cox & Snell R ²	.022		.056		.222
Nagelkirke R ²	.030		.075		.297

Note. N = 470

^a Gender harassment

^b Sexual advance harassment

^c Sexual misconduct

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Table 14

Hierarchical Logistic Regression Analyses Predicting Targets' Satisfaction with Actions Taken Subsequent to Observer-Reported Sexual Harassment

Predictor	<i>B</i> (SE)	Wald's χ^2	Step 1		<i>B</i> (SE)	Wald's χ^2	Step 2		<i>B</i> (SE)	Wald's χ^2	Step 3	
			<i>p</i>	e^b [95% CI]			<i>p</i>	e^b [95% CI]			<i>p</i>	e^b [95% CI]
Target Characteristics												
Sex (Male)	0.780 (0.196)	15.8	.000	2.18 [1.49, 3.21]	0.737 (0.201)	13.4	.000	2.09 [1.49, 3.10]	0.560 (0.220)	6.46	.011	1.75 [1.14, 2.70]
Race (White)	1.07 (0.327)	10.7	.001	2.92 [1.54, 5.55]	1.02 (0.328)	9.56	.002	2.76 [1.45, 5.25]	1.08 (0.357)	9.11	.003	2.94 [1.46, 5.91]
Tenure	-0.015 (0.012)	1.64	.200	0.99 [0.96, 1.01]	-0.013 (0.012)	1.20	.273	0.99 [0.96, 1.01]	-0.021 (0.014)	2.38	.123	0.98 [0.95, 1.01]
Sexual Misconduct												
Frequency of GH ^a				0.206 (0.124)	2.75	.097	1.23 [0.96, 1.57]	0.209 (0.139)	2.27	.132	1.23 [0.94, 1.62]	
Frequency of SAH ^b				-0.109 (0.138)	0.62	.431	0.90 [0.69, 1.18]	0.032 (0.155)	0.04	.837	1.03 [0.76, 1.40]	
Previous SM ^c Exposure (No)				0.219 (0.307)	0.51	.476	1.25 [0.68, 2.27]	0.125 (0.333)	0.14	.708	1.13 [0.59, 2.17]	
Perpetrator Power					7.59	.022			1.84	.398		
Perpetrator Power (Less)				0.346 (0.439)	0.62	.431	1.41 [0.60, 3.35]	0.042 (0.466)	0.01	.928	1.04 [0.42, 2.60]	
Perpetrator Power (Equal)				0.672 (0.247)	7.43	.006	1.96 [1.21, 3.18]	0.361 (0.267)	1.82	.177	1.43 [0.85, 2.42]	
Organizational Interventions												
Policy/Resource Knowledge								0.453 (0.345)	1.73	.189	1.57 [0.80, 3.10]	
Satisfaction with Training								0.336 (0.108)	9.76	.002	1.40 [1.13, 1.73]	
Perception of Intolerance								0.631 (0.114)	30.9	.000	1.88 [1.51, 2.35]	
Constant	-1.54 (0.369)	17.5	.000	0.21	-1.79 (0.412)	18.8	.000	0.17	-6.71 (1.00)	45.0	.000	.001

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Table 14 (continued).

Satisfied with Actions Taken Subsequent to Observer- Reported Sexual Harassment	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3
<u>Overall Model Evaluation</u>	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2
Step	28.4	.000	10.4	.065	94.8
Model	28.4	.000	38.8	.000	133.6
<u>Model Summary</u>					
-2LL	666.6		656.2		561.4
Cox & Snell R ²	.055		.074		.232
Nagelkirke R ²	.073		.099		.310

Note. N = 507

^a Gender harassment

^b Sexual advance harassment

^c Sexual misconduct

Part Two: Chi-Square Tests of Independence on Reporting Rates by Group

To address the exploratory research questions, I performed a series of chi-square tests of independence to explore whether target and observer reporting rates differed between various groups of targets. Recall that participants indicated whether they themselves had reported the sexual misconduct to an authority figure (i.e., target-reported), whether someone had reported it on their behalf (i.e., observer-reported), or if the event went unreported for each experience of sexual misconduct (i.e., each item within the scales they indicated having experienced), which facilitated the use of this categorical data analysis.²

Table 15 provides the complete results (i.e., reporting rates across groups and sexual misconduct types, non-parametric test results) for target-reported workplace sexual misconduct, and Table 16 provides this same information as it relates to observer-reported workplace sexual misconduct. Based on previous research, reporting rates were compared across groups divided based on: target sex, target race, an interaction between target sex and target race, target age, target sexual minority status, target rank, target component, previous sexual misconduct experience, perpetrator sex, and perpetrator power.

It is important to note, however, that four variables (target age, target rank, perpetrator power, and the target sex by race interaction) included more than two comparison groups, and I decided *a priori* to further investigate all pairwise comparisons in these cases. To control the family-wise error rate across multiple comparisons, I chose to apply a Bonferroni correction while evaluating the statistical significance of these

² Due to the data release requirements, the counts and proportions presented represent the weighted findings obtained from the data, and were required to be rounded before release.

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comparisons (Wilkinson, 1999; Abdi, 2007). As there were three comparisons to be with regards to perpetrator power, I divided the nominal $\alpha = .05$ by three and assessed the p -values against an adjusted threshold of $\alpha = .017$. In turn, there were six comparisons made when considering target age, target rank, and the sex by race interaction, necessitating that the nominal $\alpha = .05$ be divided by six. As such, I employed an adjusted threshold of $\alpha = .008$ when evaluating these comparisons.

Sexual assault. There were significant differences in target reporting rates based on target sex, as men reported their experience of workplace sexual misconduct in just 12.0% of cases, which was significantly less than women's 23.4% rate of reporting. Within this sample, female targets reported their own experience of sexual assault 2.34 times more frequently than were men. Additionally, targets reported sexual assault incidents involving male perpetrators (20.8%) significantly more frequently than did targets who experienced sexual assault involving a female perpetrator (15.0%).

Target age and perpetrator power were also found to be related to target reporting. Pairwise comparisons revealed that cases wherein the perpetrator was more powerful than the target were reported 1.92 times more frequently than cases wherein the target and perpetrator were of equal power (24.7% vs. 14.5%). Moreover, targets aged 50 years and older (29.9%) were significantly more likely to report their sexual harassment experience than were targets in the 30-39 year old age group (14.4%). Additional pairwise comparisons failed to meet the Bonferroni-corrected thresholds of significance.

The anticipated effect of race on target reporting in cases of sexual assault was not seen. Targets who identify as Black, Indigenous, and people of colour (BIPOC) reported their experience of sexual assault to an authority in 21.6% of cases, a rate comparable to

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the reporting rate of White targets (17.4%). Similarly, there was no relationship between target sexual minority status and target reporting of sexual assault, as the differences between LGBT targets' reporting rates (19.4%) and heterosexual, cis-gender targets' reporting rates (17.9%) were negligible. The cell counts for the sex by race interaction were insufficient to examine its relationship to target and observer reporting in cases of sexual assault.

There was no significant relationship between targets' reporting of sexual assault and target component, target rank, nor targets' previous sexual misconduct experience.

The limited number of individuals for whom an observer reported an incident of sexual assault on their behalf restricted the extent to which pairwise comparisons of reporting rates could be compared across several groups. More specifically, it was not possible to obtain information on the relationship between perpetrator sex, previous sexual harassment experience, nor the interaction between target sex and target race, and observer reporting in cases of sexual assault. Furthermore, the categorical groups within the target rank, target age, and perpetrator power variables were collapsed to ensure adequate cell counts and permit these comparisons.

Target race, component, rank, and perpetrator power were related to observer reporting in cases of sexual assault. Observers more commonly reported the event when perpetrators were more powerful than targets (12.2%), as compared to cases of equally or less powerful perpetrators (6.7%). Targets in the Regular Force (9.4%) more commonly had an observer report on their behalf than targets in the Primary Reserve (6.4%).

In contrast to theory and previous evidence, BIPOC targets (11.1%) more frequently had an observer report on their behalf than did White targets (7.4%), and those

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of senior rank (Senior Non-Commissioned Members and Senior Officers; 12.1%) also received a higher proportion of observer reporting than those of junior rank (Junior Non-Commissioned Members and Junior Officers; 7.5%). In addition, target sex, age, and sexual minority status were not significantly related to observer-reported sexual assault.

Sexual harassment. When evaluating reporting tendencies based on sexual harassment type, observers were 2.18 times more likely to report cases of gender harassment on behalf of targets (16.6% of 7,450 cases), than they were to report sexual advance harassment (8.5% of 1,930 cases). However, there was no significant difference in the extent to which those who experienced gender harassment (12.2%) and those who experienced sexual advance harassment (13.1%) reported their experience.

Target sex was related to target reporting both in cases of gender harassment and sexual advance harassment, with women reporting their experiences more than twice as frequently as men. Female targets reported gender harassment experiences in 18.5% of cases, significantly more than the 9.9% reporting rate of male targets. While women reported a slightly smaller proportion of sexual advance harassment experiences (16.4%), this was still a significantly greater proportion than men's 10.2% reporting rate in such cases. There was no relationship, however, between target sex and observer-reported gender harassment (women = 17.1%; men = 15.3%) or observer-reported sexual advance harassment (women = 8.9%; men = 8.1%).

Target race was only significantly related to reporting in the case of target-reported gender harassment. Contrary to previous empirical findings, BIPOC targets reported gender harassment experiences (15.2%) significantly more often than White targets (11.8%). Moreover, the target sex by target race interaction was significantly

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related to target-reported gender harassment, but Bonferroni-adjusted pairwise comparisons revealed that the patterns of reporting were different than anticipated (see Figure 3). In the case of target-reported gender harassment, BIPOC women (21.0%) were significantly more likely to report than BIPOC men (13.5%), and White men (9.4%). In turn, White women (18.3%) were also significantly more likely to report incidents than White men and BIPOC men. BIPOC men reported their own experiences of gender harassment significantly more often than White men. However, there was no significant difference between the reporting rates of BIPOC women and White women.

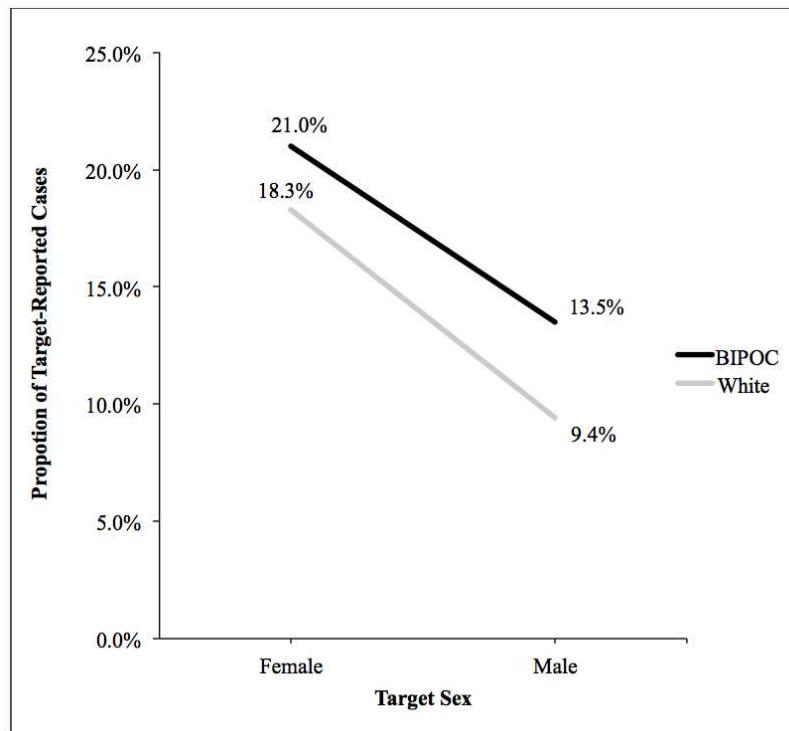


Figure 3. Weighted proportions of gender harassment reporting across groups related to the intersection between target sex (female, male) and target race (White, BIPOC). Participants who indicated they had experienced gender harassment in the workplace subsequently reported whether they reported the event to a person in authority. BIPOC women's (21.0% of 210 cases) and White women's (18.3% of 1,760 cases) reporting rates did not significantly differ. Both BIPOC and White female targets reported incidents significantly more frequently than both groups of men. BIPOC men (13.5% of 710 cases) reported incidents significantly more frequently than White men (9.4% of 4,730 cases).

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In turn, there was no significant relationship between target race and observer-reported gender harassment, nor target race and target-reported sexual advance harassment. Finally, low cell counts prohibited investigating the relationship between target race and observer reporting in cases of sexual advance harassment, and the target sex by target race interaction in cases of both target- and observer-reported sexual advance harassment.

Targets who self-identified as belonging to the LGBT community demonstrated significantly different patterns of reporting than targets who identify as heterosexual and cis-gender with regards to both target-reported gender harassment and sexual advance harassment. However, these effects were in the opposite direction to that anticipated based on previous research. LGBT targets (19.4%) reported gender harassment more frequently than their heterosexual, cis-gender counterparts (11.6%). This pattern held in cases of sexual advance harassment (20.7% vs. 12.5%). There was no difference in the extent to which LGBT members (16.3%) and their counterparts (16.5%) had an observer report on their behalf in cases of gender harassment, and due to low cell counts, this relationship could not be examined in cases of observer-reported sexual advance harassment.

Perpetrator power was related to reporting across all contexts in patterns similar to those demonstrated within previous research. Bonferroni-corrected pairwise comparisons indicated that compared to perpetrators of equal power (6.3%), targets more commonly reported gender harassment committed by more powerful perpetrators (16.2%), and less powerful perpetrators (14.1%). Similar differences were also seen between target-reported cases of sexual advance harassment, with events involving equal power perpetrators

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(6.7%) being less commonly reported than those involving more powerful perpetrators (19.0%), and less powerful perpetrators (16.2%). In cases of observer-reported gender harassment, events involving more powerful perpetrators (23.4%) more often received observer reporting when compared to cases involving equal power (7.8%), or less powerful perpetrators (11.4%). This same pattern held with regards to observer-reported sexual advance harassment, with observers reporting cases involving more powerful perpetrators (12.4%), comparatively more often than those involving equally powerful (6.9%), and less powerful perpetrators.

Target age was related to reporting across several different contexts, including target-reported gender harassment, target-reported sexual advance harassment, and observer-reported gender harassment. Bonferroni-corrected pairwise comparisons revealed that across contexts, younger targets reported a smaller proportion of their sexual harassment experiences than did older targets. Namely, targets aged less than 20 to 29 years old reported in 10.5% of gender harassment cases, significantly less those 40-49 years old (16.0%), and those older than 50 years (16.0%). Targets aged 30-39 years (12.5%) reported gender harassment events less often than those aged 40-49 years. There was no significant difference between the reporting rates of the other groups in such cases. In cases of target-reported sexual advance harassment, the youngest cohort reported in fewer cases (9.8%) than 40-49 year olds (16.4%), and those 50 years and older (18.4%), but all other reporting rates were comparable. However, this trend reversed in cases of observer-reported gender harassment, as it was found that targets aged 50 or older received the smallest proportion of observers reporting on their behalf (8.9%), which was significantly less than those in the less than 20-29 (16.8%), 30-39 (18.1%), and

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40-49 age groups (14.9%). In cases of observer-reported sexual advance harassment, there was no significant difference in reporting rates across groups.

Targets' experience of previous sexual misconduct was significantly related to reporting across several contexts. Targets who indicated they had previously experienced sexual misconduct, and who experienced gender harassment, were significantly more likely to report the case themselves (12.8%) than were targets who had not previously experienced sexual harassment (9.6%). This pattern held true in cases of observer-reported gender harassment (18.3% vs. 10.6%), and observer-reported sexual advance harassment (9.7% vs. 6.2%). However, there was no relationship between target's previous sexual misconduct experience and target-reported sexual advance harassment (previous experience = 13.3%; none = 11.8%).

Targets in the Regular Force (i.e., those with full-time status) had an observer report on their behalf in 17.3% of cases of gender harassment, which was slightly but significantly more often than the 15.2% observer-reporting rate of targets in the Primary Reserve (i.e., those with part-time status). However, there was no relationship between component and reporting in instances of target-reported gender harassment or sexual advance harassment, or in cases of observer-reported sexual advance harassment.

Target rank was related to reporting in cases of target-reported gender harassment, and observer-reported sexual advance harassment, but in the other cases, reporting rates did not significantly differ across target rank groups. In cases of target-reported gender harassment, only the comparison between Junior Non-Commissioned Members (14.8%) and Senior Non-Commissioned Members (11.7%) was significant, as all other pairwise comparisons failed to reach the Bonferroni-corrected significance threshold. Similarly,

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pairwise comparisons revealed no statistically significant inter-group differences in cases of observer-reported sexual advance harassment, despite the significance of the comparison across all groups.

Perpetrator sex was related to reporting only in cases of target-reported gender harassment, such that events involving male perpetrators (15.5%) were more commonly reported than those involving female perpetrators (6.5%). However, in instances of target-reported sexual advance harassment, observer-reported gender harassment, and observer-reported sexual advance harassment, cases involving male and female perpetrators were reported in similar proportions.

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Table 15

Target-Reported Sexual Misconduct Reporting Rates and Tests of Independence

Demographic Category	Target-Reported Sexual Misconduct											
	Gender Harassment			Sexual Advance Harassment			Sexual Assault			χ ²		
	Yes	No	Rate	Yes	No	Rate	Yes	No	Rate			
<u>Target Sex</u>												
Male	540	4920	9.89%	100	920	10.2%	100	760	12.0%	38.6 **		
Female	370	1620	18.5%	150	760	16.4%	200	650	23.4%			
<u>Target Race</u>												
White	770	5740	11.8%	230	1500	13.2%	250	1180	17.4%	2.96		
BIPOC	140	780	15.2%	20	160	12.4%	60	230	21.6%			
<u>Target Sex * Race</u>												
White Men	440	4290	9.38%									
White Women	320	1440	18.3%									
BIPOC Men	100	610	13.5%									
BIPOC Women	40	170	21.0%									
<u>Target Age</u>												
Under 20-29 Years	380	3250	10.5%	70	640	9.83%	190	850	17.9%	11.9**		
30-39 Years	300	2130	12.5%	90	570	13.2%	70	390	14.4%			
40-49 Years	160	840	16.0%	60	320	16.4%	40	130	21.8%			
50 Years or Older	60	320	16.0%	30	150	18.4%	20	50	29.9%			
<u>Target Sexual Minority Status</u>												
Heterosexual, Cis-gender	790	6040	11.6%	230	1580	12.5%	270	1220	17.9%	0.327		
LGBT Identifying	120	490	19.4%	30	100	20.7%	50	190	19.4%			
<u>Target Rank</u>												
Junior NCM ^a	610	4590	11.7%	130	930	12.5%	270	1250	17.6%	0.403		
Junior Officer	100	790	11.5%	50	330	12.1%						
Senior NCM ^a	160	900	14.8%	50	280	14.3%	2.88					
Senior Officer	40	270	13.7%	30	150	16.5%	40	170	19.4%			
<u>Target Component</u>												
Regular Force	610	4220	12.7%	180	1060	14.1%	170	830	17.1%	0.998		
Primary Reserve	300	2330	11.2%	80	610	11.3%	140	580	19.0%			

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Table 15 (continued).

Demographic Category	Gender Harassment				Target-Reported Sexual Misconduct						χ^2	
	Yes	No	Rate		Yes	No	Rate		Yes	No	Rate	
<u>Previous Sexual Misconduct</u>												
None	140	1340	9.59%		70	500	11.8%		50	160	22.3%	
Previous Experience	740	5030	12.8%	11.4**	170	1130	13.3%	0.766	260	1230	17.6%	2.65
<u>Perpetrator Sex</u>												
Male	430	2360	15.5%		160	1180	12.1%		240	910	20.8%	
Female	20	210	6.55%	13.5**	40	260	11.8%	0.020	40	230	15.0%	4.53*
<u>Perpetrator Power</u>												
Less Powerful	40	560	14.1%		50	250	16.2%		30	140	17.3%	
Equal Power	170	2510	6.25%	148**	50	620	6.73%	46.2**	90	530	14.5%	21.6**
More Powerful	660	3390	16.2%		140	580	19.0%		160	490	24.7%	

Note. Frequency counts represent the weighted number of participants in each group who reported (Yes), or did not report (No) the incident, and are rounded to the nearest 10. Rates represent the proportion of individuals in the given group who did report the incident. Rows were collapsed when unweighted cell counts were insufficient. Missing values are omitted due to insufficient unweighted cell counts. Test statistics are rounded to three significant digits.

^a Non-Commissioned Member

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

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Table 16

Observer-Reported Sexual Misconduct Reporting Rates and Tests of Independence

Demographic Category	Observer-Reported Sexual Misconduct											
	Gender Harassment			Sexual Advance Harassment			Sexual Assault			χ ²		
	Yes	No	Rate	Yes	No	Rate	Yes	No	Rate			
<u>Target Sex</u>												
Male	930	4530	17.1%	3.31	80	940	8.12%	0.328	70	800	7.56%	0.705
Female	300	1680	15.3%		80	820	8.85%		70	780	8.67%	
<u>Target Race</u>												
White	1080	5430	16.5%	0.088					110	1320	7.43%	
BIPOC	160	770	16.9%						30	260	11.1%	4.56*
<u>Target Sex * Race</u>												
White Men	800	3930	17.0%									
White Women	270	1490	15.5%	3.52								
BIPOC Men	130	580	17.7%									
BIPOC Women	30	180	14.3%									
<u>Target Age</u>												
Under 20-29 Years	610	3020	16.8%		70	650	9.41%		80	950	7.95%	
30-39 Years	440	1990	18.1%	22.5**	50	600	8.22%	1.54	40	410	8.22%	0.033
40-49 Years	150	850	14.9%		30	350	7.39%		20	220	8.05%	
50 Years or Older	30	350	8.90%		10	170	7.82%					
<u>Target Sexual Minority Status</u>												
Heterosexual, Cis-gender	1130	5700	16.5%	0.024					120	1360	7.96%	0.222
LGBT Identifying	100	500	16.3%						20	220	8.86%	
<u>Target Rank</u>												
Junior NCM ^a	870	4330	16.6%		100	960	8.55%		110	1400	7.52%	
Junior Officer	150	740	16.3%	6.48	20	350	5.38%	8.12*				5.19*
Senior NCM ^a	190	870	17.8%		20	300	7.17%		20	180	12.1%	
Senior Officer	40	270	11.7%		20	160	10.8%					
<u>Target Component</u>												
Regular Force	840	3990	17.3%	5.35*	110	1120	9.14%	2.21	90	910	9.35%	4.87*
Primary Reserve	400	2230	15.2%		50	630	7.17%		50	670	6.41%	

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Table 16 (continued).

Demographic Category	Yes	Gender Harassment			χ^2	Observer-Reported Sexual Misconduct			χ^2	Sexual Assault		
		No	Rate	Yes		No	Rate	Yes		No	Rate	
<u>Previous Sexual Misconduct</u>												
None	160	1320	10.6%		50.6**	40	530	6.17%				
Previous Experience	1060	4720	18.3%			130	1180	9.74%	6.36*			
<u>Perpetrator Sex</u>												
Male	360	2430	12.9%		2.07	90	1250	6.91%				
Female	20	210	9.52%			30	270	9.80%	2.98			
<u>Perpetrator Power</u>												
Less Powerful	30	270	11.4%			20	280	6.40%				
Equal Power	210	2460	7.78%	287**		50	620	6.88%	16.1**	50	740	
More Powerful	950	3100	23.4%			90	630	12.4%		80	570	

Note. Frequency counts represent the weighted number of participants in each group for whom someone reported (Yes), or for whom no one reported (No), the incident on their behalf, and are rounded to the nearest 10. Rates represent the proportion of individuals in the given group for whom someone reported the incident on their behalf. Rows were collapsed when unweighted cell counts were insufficient. Missing values are omitted due to insufficient unweighted cell counts. Test statistics are rounded to three significant digits.

^a Non-Commissioned Member

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

Discussion

Workplace sexual misconduct is known to be detrimental, yet there is little existing evidence supporting what measures organizations should take to effectively address such mistreatment from their workplaces (Magley et al., 2013). The pervasive and enduring nature of sexual misconduct indicates that simply ignoring the problem is not a plausible solution. Though it may seem impossible to shift attitudes that are largely based on gender role norms learned and held since childhood, all individuals deserve to work in an environment free of sexual misconduct. The current study endeavored to examine the predictors of target and observer reporting of sexual misconduct within an organization that is actively addressing such mistreatment through the promotion of employee voice.

One of the primary research questions directing the current study was whether mutable organizational factors (knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources, satisfaction with training adequacy, and perceived sexual misconduct intolerance within the organization) demonstrated an influence on employee incident reporting in cases of sexual misconduct. Indeed, it was found that in cases of target-reported gender harassment, targets' knowledge of organizational policies and resources related to sexual misconduct predicted that an incident was reported to someone in authority, even when controlling for known predictors of voice. However, this was the only sexual misconduct and reporting context in which targets' knowledge of policies and resources significantly influenced the prediction of employee voice. Gender harassment is the most common form of workplace sexual misconduct, yet it is also the form of sexual misconduct that diverges most from stereotypical sexual harassment behaviours. It may be the case that delivering organizational training that promotes awareness of the behaviours that

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constitute gender harassment and introduces the policies and resources that support employee voice, could serve to promote the reporting of this pervasive form of sexual misconduct.

Interestingly, in cases of both gender harassment and sexual advance harassment, targets' perception of sexual misconduct intolerance within the organization contributed to the prediction of target reporting in the opposite direction as was anticipated. Namely, targets who had a more negative perception of intolerance (i.e., believe that complaints are *not* taken seriously, and that misconduct *is* tolerated, in their unit) were *more* likely to report the incident. Initially, this may appear counterintuitive, as it stands to reason that individuals who perceive that sexual misconduct is tolerated, and that reports are not taken seriously, might be more inclined to believe that reporting is futile. It has been theorized that when reporting seems futile, individuals are predicted to abstain from reporting the incident (Morrison & Milliken, 2000; Bell et al., 2011). Conversely, the literature on organizational voice in contexts beyond mistreatment suggests that those who are more dissatisfied with the state of the organization will be more likely to voice (Knoll et al., 2016). Indeed, the very definition of employee voice conceptualizes such action as a response to "an objectionable state of affairs" within an organization (Hirschman, 1970, p. 30). Thus, employees who perceive that the organization tolerates sexual misconduct, and who object to this state, may perhaps be more prone to voice, as reporting is a means of addressing and attempting to change this organizational state (Knoll et al., 2016). Finally, it should be noted that this is not the first instance wherein perceived organizational intolerance has been negatively related to employee reporting of sexual misconduct incidents (e.g., Malamut & Offermann, 2001). As such, this finding

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may not be as counterintuitive as it initially appears to be.

Incidentally, the findings from the post-hoc test result may serve as a launching point for future studies further investigating the finding presented above. In instances of target-reported and observer-reported sexual harassment, among targets who reported the event or had an observer report on their behalf, those 1) who were more satisfied with the adequacy of the sexual misconduct training they received, and 2) who had a more positive perception of organizational intolerance, were more likely to report being satisfied with the outcome of their voice experience. Thus, though the findings demonstrate that these factors had little influence on whether a report was made, for those who *did* report or had someone report on their behalf, training satisfaction and perceived intolerance predicted a satisfying voice experience outcome. Notably, Buchanan et al. (2014) provide evidence supporting the association between women's satisfaction with training adequacy and their satisfaction with mistreatment reporting outcomes, and as such, the current findings both replicate and extend these results. While there exists only limited evidence to suggest that organizational training has a notable influence on outcomes beyond sexual misconduct awareness, these findings highlight that there may be peripheral benefits to training that have yet to be explored. Moreover, given ample evidence supporting the benefits of positive voice experiences (e.g., Knoll et al., 2016) and the detriments of negative experiences (e.g., Cortina & Magley, 2003), these study findings suggest that adequate organizational training and taking actions that reinforce intolerance, may serve to mitigate some of the harm that might otherwise result from both experiences of sexual misconduct and employee voice.

In support of previous literature, the current study findings suggest that target sex,

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target tenure, and perpetrator power serve to predict target reporting behaviours, such that women, those who have been employed longer, and those who endure sexual misconduct perpetrated by a more powerful individual, were more likely to report the experience.

In contrast to previous research, however, race was a significant predictor of reporting in the opposite direction than was anticipated. More specifically, BIPOC targets were more likely to report in cases of gender harassment than were White targets. Relatedly, the non-parametric test results revealed that LGBT employees more frequently reported incidents of gender harassment and sexual advance harassment, as compared to their heterosexual, cis-gender counterparts. There are several reasons why this might be the case. Individuals of marginalized social identities have been shown to experience incivility and microaggression at a greater rate than individuals socially privileged groups (Cortina, 2008; Zurbrügg & Miner, 2016; Holland & Cortina, 2016). Lim and Cortina (2005) demonstrate how the combined experience of both incivility and sexual harassment serves to exacerbate negative outcomes for targets. There is also previous research to support that the sexual misconduct events that targets of marginalized social groups endure may be more discriminatory, and therefore perceived to be more severe and harmful, than the experiences of their colleagues (Berdahl & Moore, 2006). Perceived offensiveness of the event is a known predictor of incident reporting (Brooks & Perot, 1991; Malamut & Offermann, 2001), and as such, may underlie this effect; however, this particular information could not be captured within the current study.

Furthermore, the current study findings indicate that race was positively associated with gender harassment frequency, suggesting that BIPOC targets endured more incidents, which provides more events that could be reported. The experience of a greater

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number of mistreatment events is theorized to provide a target with increased reason to report any given incident, as well (Brooks & Perot, 1991). Within the current sample, being a BIPOC or LGBT-identifying target of sexual harassment was negatively associated with perceived organizational intolerance. As discussed, it may be the case that those who are more dissatisfied with the state of the organization will be more apt to report an incident, and this relationship might provide some insight into the rather contradictory findings. While it may be encouraging to discover than individuals from these socially marginalized groups indeed overcame silence to report incidents more frequently than their socially privileged counterparts, it is important to remember that poor voice experiences have the potential to exacerbate the harm of the sexual misconduct experience itself (Harlos, 2001; Meares et al., 2004). Thus, it does not serve to have individuals of socially marginalized groups reporting more frequently, if indeed they are suffering more greatly as a result.

Indeed, when investigating the predictors of targets' satisfaction with the actions taken after target and observer reporting in cases of sexual harassment, it was found that BIPOC targets had a reduced likelihood of being satisfied with the outcome, as compared to White targets. Organizations should take note of these results, and investigate whether changes can be made to improve existing voice management systems in order to provide additional support to BIPOC targets when they do report events. Though it was not investigated in the current study, providing additional support to LGBT employees during the voice management process would likely also be beneficial for these employees. When employees are provided with voice opportunities, but their voice falls on “deaf ears”, employees are prone to becoming more frustrated and upset than they would otherwise

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have been had they not had the opportunity to voice at all (Harlos, 2010; Gollan, Kaufman, Taras, & Wilkinson, 2014). Meares and colleagues (2004) further demonstrate how individuals from marginalized groups risk becoming increasingly disengaged and resigned if repeatedly silenced over time (see also Houston & Kramarae, 1991). As such, it is arguably of particular importance to foster a positive voice experience for employees in such cases.

Though it was predicted that men, younger (or less tenured) employees, and those who endured sexual misconduct committed by an equal-power colleague, would less frequently report cases of sexual misconduct they endure, the revelation of this finding in the current study suggests there is still work that needs to be done with regards to encouraging individuals to report experiences of mistreatment. Past research supports that cultural socialization processes and masculine gender role norms discourage men from reporting distress of any kind, a notion that becomes particularly salient when applied to cases of sexual misconduct and victimization (Hlavka, 2017). In turn, being young and less-tenured is associated with low perceived immunity to the harm that might result if stakeholders are hostile to employee voice (Klaas & Ward, 2015; Miceli & Near, 1988). Thus, younger and less-tenured targets may be more wary of the social or organizational consequences that might result as a consequence of their report, as compared to their older or more-tenured colleagues, and engage in quiescent silence as a result. Finally, cases involving equal power colleagues present a challenge to reporting, as the target often must continue working (at times in close proximity) with the perpetrator until such a time that the complaint is resolved, if actions are indeed taken at all (Vijayasiri, 2008). This has the potential to cause emotional discomfort and stress; potentially exacerbating the negative

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emotions a target might feel subsequent to sexual misconduct.

Past research largely supports that previous exposure to sexual misconduct predicts reporting an event (Bergman et al., 2002). Indeed, this pattern was seen in cases of target-reported gender harassment and sexual advance harassment within the current study. Conversely, however, it was found that targets of sexual assault who had previously experienced sexual misconduct were *less* likely to report an event. As such, those who have experienced sexual victimization in addition to past experiences of misconduct are not seeking help from the organization, nor are they seeking to ameliorate the situation to avoid future re-victimization. Further research is needed to investigate this pattern among this vulnerable group of individuals, and to determine ways to best help them obtain the support they require. It is important that individuals take action subsequent to sexual assault in order to attempt to both prevent future experiences, and to seek aid in an effort to minimize psychological harm (to whatever extent is possible), which has been shown to compound over time if left untreated (O'Brien et al., 2015; Watkins et al., 2017). Moreover, there is evidence to support the additive effects of exposure to multiple types of harassment, discrimination, and violence (Pimplott-Kubiak & Cortina, 2003). As such, silence among individuals who have experienced multiple workplace sexual misconduct events (including sexual assault) should be considered particularly deleterious, and efforts should be put forth to understand and support this high-risk group.

Workplace training could make note of these segments of the workforce who are particularly vulnerable to the pull of silence, as well as to the aforementioned impediments to reporting. Attempts should be made to combat any misperceptions related

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to sexual misconduct and incident reporting, and to provide additional support to these individuals when they do voice their experiences. Furthermore, it would be worthwhile for leaders to become aware of these patterns, explicitly encourage voice from employees – particularly those belonging to these groups – and act swiftly (but fairly) when cases of misconduct are reported. Of note, providing a safe environment for reporting (Edmondson, 1999), as well as demonstrating openness to voice and taking action in response to voice (Detert & Burris, 2007; Harlos, 2010), are empirically supported measures leaders can take to help improve employee voice within their workforce (Morrison, 2011, 2014). If voice is to be encouraged, it is vital to support those who voice, both through the reporting process and afterward (Herschovis et al., 2010; Bergman et al., 2002).

Surprisingly, there were few differences seen between different groups as it relates to observer-reported sexual misconduct. In cases of workplace gender harassment, the regression results revealed that, when both target and situational characteristics were taken into account, target sex, frequency of gender harassment experience, previous experience of sexual misconduct, and perpetrator power significantly contributed to the predictive model. However, this was not the case for the models predicting observer reporting in cases of sexual advance harassment and sexual assault. In these models, there was limited increase in model fit over the constant-only model when all predictors were included. Expected differences between observer reporting rates across target sex, target race, and target sexual minority status groups did not manifest in the pairwise comparisons either. There are many reasons why this may be the case, yet perhaps the most plausible is that the low rates of observer reporting hindered the statistical power

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required to observe these effects. The overall number of observer reports and proportion of cases that received observer reporting were less with regards to incidents of sexual advance harassment and sexual assault, as compared to gender harassment.

It is important to note that observers should not necessarily be faulted for these low reporting rates. The low base rate of these sexual harassment subtypes (as compared to gender harassment) inherently limits the number of events that could be reported. Furthermore, and more importantly, the nature of sexual advance harassment and sexual assault, are such that they more likely to occur in private, away from observers, and by extension, this would necessarily preclude observer intervention. In turn, perpetrators may not feel the need to be as covert with their behaviour in cases of gender harassment, leading them to be more observable overall. As such, it is possible that several individuals could witness an instance of gender harassment, which increases the probability that any one individual would report the incident. Overall, while observer reporting should still be encouraged, it is not particularly surprising that the rates of observer reporting in cases of sexual advance harassment and sexual assault were low and perhaps inhibited the detection of significant predictors.

Conversely, the results of the tests of independence reveal the consistent finding that observer reporting rates were comparatively low in cases of sexual misconduct involving perpetrators who were less powerful, or of equal power, as the target. Bowes-Sperry & O'Leary-Kelly (2005) propose that the most prominent observer inhibitors include: not perceiving that the situation requires action, not sensing a personal responsibility to act, not knowing which action to take, and perceiving that the action has a high cost (e.g., social, emotional) for the observer themselves (see also Stewart,

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Pedersen, & Paradies, 2014). It would be worthwhile to investigate which barriers are proving to be most influential in obstructing observer reporting in such cases, and to further determine how best to help observers overcome them. For instance, it could be that observers are more willing to implicitly pardon sexual misconduct involving an equal- or lesser-powered perpetrator, and not see the situation as requiring action. Perhaps they believe the target could or should take control of the situation, and not perceive responsibility to act. Perhaps observers fear the social costs that may result from reporting a peer. In contrast, it might be the case that observers are not comfortable reporting on behalf of targets, but may feel comfortable taking another action to aid the target. If this is the case, then certainly this should be promoted. Further research is needed to examine the effects of these known barriers to observer reporting, and training should be tailored to address them and encourage individuals to aid targets across all contexts.

Strengths, Limitations, and Future Directions

Overall, the current study contributes to the extant workplace sexual misconduct and employee voice literature in several ways. Primarily, given the dearth of research suggesting benefits beyond awareness for organizational sexual misconduct training, the findings of this study suggest that knowledge of policies and resources related to sexual misconduct (which can be acquired during training) may contribute to targets' propensity to voice in cases of gender harassment. Moreover, the provision of adequate training, and employees' perception that the organization is intolerant of sexual misconduct, may serve to improve targets' satisfaction with the actions taken subsequent to a reported event. With increasing calls for organizations to take direct action to combat workplace sexual misconduct, and with increasing consequences for organizations that fail to act, workplace

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sexual harassment training is rapidly becoming ubiquitous despite the lack of evidence of its efficacy. The results of the current study provide preliminary evidence to support that certain benefits could arise from the introduction of such training.

Furthermore, as Magley et al. (2013) highlight, there is a lack of research investigating the influence of sexual misconduct training that is actively being delivered within an organization. They further suggest that most literature related to workplace sexual misconduct training involves a small, and often researcher-designed, intervention. While such works have undoubtedly advanced our understanding of workplace training interventions, there exists a gap between academic research and practice in the field. The current study permitted the marriage of research and practice through an investigation of target and observer reporting of sexual misconduct within an organization that has designed its own training, and wherein training is ongoing.

Due to the nature of sexual misconduct, and sexual assault in particular, obtaining data on this sensitive topic presents a considerable challenge. Arguably, this challenge compounds when seeking sensitive data from participants from marginalized social groups. The diversity of the sample employed during the current investigation contributed a unique perspective as it relates to employee voice in cases of sexual misconduct. Employee voice behaviours among employees who identify as visible minorities and members of the LGBT community were opposite to those that were predicted. Namely, across several contexts, employees from these groups more often reported incidents of sexual misconduct than their counterparts. However, BIPOC targets were also less likely to be satisfied with the outcome when sexual misconduct was reported, and being a BIPOC- or LGBT-identifying employee was similarly negatively associated with the

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perception of organizational sexual misconduct intolerance. These findings highlight novel findings related to organizational voice among employees from socially underprivileged groups. Moreover, they further serve to suggest that promoting voice among employees most vulnerable to the pull of silence is insufficient if individuals are exposed to poor voice experiences. While this second insight is in line with previous research (e.g., Harlos, 2010), it arrived within an unforeseen pattern of sexual misconduct reporting, and thus advances our understanding of employee voice.

Furthermore, it was invaluable to investigate both target and observer voice behaviours (and not simply behavioural intentions) across a broad range of sexual misconduct behaviours. Once again, given the difficulty of accessing sensitive data related to sexual assault in particular, little is known of the differences between voice patterns in cases of gender harassment, sexual advance harassment, and sexual assault. Indeed, the study findings suggest that though there are several similarities in voice across sexual misconduct sub-types, notable differences also arose. For instance, there was a significant relationship between target sexual minority status and target incident reporting in cases of gender harassment and sexual advance harassment, but not in instances of sexual assault. Similarly, there was a significant relationship between perpetrator sex and target reporting in cases of gender harassment and sexual assault, but not in instances of sexual advance harassment. Finally, in cases of gender harassment and sexual advance harassment, targets who had previously experienced sexual misconduct were more likely to have had an observer report the event on their behalf, whereas in cases of sexual assault, targets' previous experience of sexual misconduct reduced the likelihood that a target would report the incident. Employee voice is dynamic, and this notion is

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particularly relevant in contexts of sexual misconduct, which is notoriously under-reported both inside and outside the workplace. Thus, providing evidence to support that not all sexual misconduct behaviours should be treated equally during investigations of employee voice is a valuable contribution to future research.

Finally, as previously mentioned, sexual misconduct training is ongoing within the focal organization, and evaluation such training will be continued, as well. While the current investigation was cross-sectional in nature, it employed a census design and will be repeated at regular intervals. As such, it can also be considered as the first of a series of repeated measures within the same population over time. This will allow for the comparison of patterns in reporting rates, reporting predictors, and perceptions of policy and resource knowledge, training satisfaction, and organizational intolerance, over time. Moreover, the job-gender context within the Canadian Armed Forces—wherein the vast majority of employees, and workplace leaders in particular, are men—is similar to many other organizations that continue to demonstrate high rates of sexual misconduct (Willness et al., 2007). As such, the findings from the current study, and potential future investigations, may serve as a guide for other organizations, particularly those that are male-dominated, seeking to address such mistreatment.

However, despite the benefits of investigating target and observer voice within the Canadian Armed Forces, the use of a single organization wherein training was designed by organizational members and may not yet have been fully delivered to all employees, limits the generalizability of the findings. It is likely that patterns of reporting will vary across organizations with different job-gender context profiles, or wherein there is a lower baseline rate of sexual misconduct. Moreover, little information has been publicized

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regarding the exact training that is being delivered to organizational members, and there is no indication that efforts were made to ensure training conditions were held constant across presentations. As such, there may have been differences in delivery across units that have not been accounted for during the analyses. The insights gained with regards to such training also may not apply to organizations employing different training. Future research should conduct replications across different organizational environments, and subsequent to different types of training, to test the accuracy and reliability of the results presented herein.

The narrow operationalization of employee voice—both target and observer reporting—within the current study presents another limitation. Target reporting was considered to be present in instances wherein targets indicated that someone in a position of authority came to learn of the sexual misconduct incident from them. In turn, observer reporting was considered to be present when the target indicated that someone in a position of authority came to learn of the sexual misconduct incident in some way other than their own reporting. The current study was a secondary analysis of data – a research methodology known to impose certain constraints and limitations. In this case, a variable that was not of interest to the original researchers was the primary outcome variable investigated in the secondary analysis. In reality, there are many ways that a target could report the occurrence of an incident, including anonymous whistle-blowing, informal reporting to a third-party organization, filing a grievance, or even initiating a lawsuit. Similarly, observers have a multitude of ways of reporting an incident, and also have a wide array of intervention behaviours that they may choose to engage in that do not include reporting. Taken together, in the current study, targets may have chosen a

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different reporting avenue, or may have received aid from an observer through means that were not adequately captured by the operationalization of the study variables. However, it arguably remains the case that there was a strong match between the available data and the research questions being asked. Namely, the data permitted the investigation of employee voice in cases of sexual misconduct, even if the operationalization of voice was narrow.

Another limitation to address is the fact that all data originated from targets and was self-reported data. As such, it could be the case that an observer indeed reported the event, and the target did not come to learn of this report, resulting in the omission of this observer report from the dataset. Furthermore, such data collection introduces limitations to construct validity related to mono-method bias.

While future iterations of the Survey on Sexual Misconduct in the Canadian Armed Forces aims to seek the perspectives of observers who have intervened, the implementation of the current methodology necessarily limits the findings produced from this iteration. Once observer responses are collected, it will be possible to test whether the influence of mutable organizational factors, such as knowledge of policies and resources, satisfaction with the adequacy of training, and perceptions of organizational intolerance influence observer reporting over and above known factors. Due to the nature of the data collected within the current iteration, however, this was not possible.

Moreover, while attempts to reduce bias were made while selecting the sexual harassment sub-sample, there are inherent limitations to the chosen method. Selecting the first case individuals reported resulted in a subset that over-represented the first sexual harassment behaviour listed in the survey—sexual jokes. As such, while the subset did

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include cases related to all sexual harassment behaviours that targets could possibly have described, it did not adequately reflect the relative proportions of these sexual misconduct experiences. Building a subset based on representing the relative proportions of sexual misconduct behaviours would have required that multiple cases from several individuals be considered within the analyses, which violates the principle of independence required for data analysis. Ideally, the data would have been organized in such a way that allowed for the consideration of all sexual harassment events that targets experienced and detailed within the survey. In the future, multi-level modeling techniques should be considered to permit the unbiased analysis of a dataset of this kind. A multi-level model would allow for the inclusion of all cases, while further introducing an investigation of any within-person variation in reporting behaviour. For instance, it could be the case that particular individuals reported sexual misconduct in certain circumstances, but not in others; however, the analysis methodology implemented in the current study did not permit this investigation. Future studies should consider the use of multi-level modeling to investigate both the intra- and inter-individual factors that influence target and observer reporting of workplace sexual misconduct.

A final limitation of the current research was the cross-sectional nature of the study, which necessarily leads to questions about causality. For instance, it might be the case that targets who reported an incident initially had low levels of perceived organizational sexual misconduct intolerance, and these improved subsequent to reporting, yet were still lower than the intolerance perceptions of those who did not report. It might also be the case that employees' knowledge of sexual misconduct policies and resources and their perception of intolerance was unaffected by training. If this is the

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case, then there would be no evidence of an effect of training on targets' satisfaction with the actions taken subsequent to incident reporting. Finally, as training was ongoing at the time of the study, it is possible that the experience of sexual misconduct, incident reporting, and leaders' actions taken subsequent to reporting all occurred prior to a given target's receipt of organizational training. In the absence of longitudinal methodology, it is impossible to rule out time-based confounds – a limitation inherent to all cross-sectional study designs.

Several suggestions for future research have been noted above. Nevertheless, there are several more which would serve to further address the gap in our understanding of employee voice subsequent to workplace sexual misconduct.

As it relates to the current study, continued investigation of voice behaviours of BIPOC and LGBT individuals is of the utmost importance. Individuals from these social groups have been shown to be at high risk of experiencing discrimination and mistreatment of all kinds, including workplace sexual misconduct. Gaining an understanding of how best to promote voice, and how to maintain a safe and supportive context for employees who do come forward with their experiences, will be invaluable in ongoing efforts to support individuals of these marginalized groups. As organizations continue to diversify, the provision of organizational environments that seek to protect those who are most vulnerable to the detrimental effects of mistreatment will continue to be of the utmost importance. Further research is needed to uncover how best to foster and maintain such environments.

While the current study investigated target and observer reporting behaviours, it did not consider the reasons *why* a given individual chose to report or not to report an

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incident. It could be that some individuals chose to report an event in a genuine effort to improve the organization (i.e., prosocial voice), whereas others may have done so to impose hardships on the organization that permitted this event to occur as a form of retribution (i.e., justice-oriented voice; Klaas, Olson-Buchanan, & Ward, 2012). The reasons for employee silence—in particular, differentiating between quiescent and acquiescent (Pinder & Harlos, 2001) motivations—would likewise be a suitable area for future study. Exploring whether there are systematic differences between individuals or contexts wherein employees have decided to remain silent out of fear of retribution or other negative outcomes, as compared when they perceive voice to be futile, but not dangerous, would advance our understanding of employee voice and silence. In turn, it may also be the case that certain individuals may not have been offended to the extent that they believed reporting was necessary, while others may not know the process of bringing such an event to light. The reasons why employees choose to engage in voice or silence are innumerable, and our understanding of these factors remains limited, especially in cases of workplace sexual misconduct. Investigations into the factors that serve to promote or obstruct reporting over a broad variety of incident contexts and target backgrounds should be undertaken to further this understanding. This has the potential to provide organizations with factors to address within their own workplaces that might serve to promote voice and reduce silence in such cases.

Previous research demonstrates that it is not merely the provision of multiple channels for reporting that promotes voice, but the quality of voice management within an organization that plays the greatest role (Gollan et al., 2014; Harlos, 2010). Authors advocate for providing a variety of voice mechanisms to employees, as there is great

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interpersonal variability in preference of reporting mechanism (Landau, 2009), however, there has been little research investigating which voice mechanisms are most effective in cases of workplace sexual misconduct (Klaas et al., 2012; Knoll et al., 2016). For instance, it may be the case that anonymous reporting, or the opportunity to report to an organizational outsider will be more effective at increasing reporting rates than requiring individuals to report the incident to their most proximal leader. Indeed, the provision of a reporting avenue outside of one's Chain of Command was among the recommendations made to the Canadian Armed Forces (Deschamps, 2015) – a recommendation that they have since implemented (National Defence, 2018a). Yet, it may not be the case that all organizations could establish such a voice mechanism, and there may be voice mechanisms that are even more effective in promoting this specific form of employee voice. Investigation into voice mechanisms that serve to both improve reporting rates and employees reporting experiences in cases of sexual misconduct has the potential to increase the promotion and adoption of such mechanisms, and further promote these beneficial outcomes.

Finally, it remains the case that the field as a whole lacks information on the interrelations between sexual misconduct training, incident reporting, and the prevalence of sexual misconduct within an organization. Leading scholars suggest that training should promote knowledge and perceptions of intolerance, and further advocate for the creation of supportive environments to improve employee voice experience, theorizing that these conditions should result in reduced sexual misconduct prevalence (Holland & Cortina, 2016). However, little is known of whether this is indeed the case, and even less is known of how best to achieve such conditions (Holland & Cortina, 2016). Though

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more recent works demonstrate some progress, there are still knowledge gaps related to understanding how training influences sexual misconduct prevalence over time (Medeiros & Griffith, 2019), and authors continue to call for more research (Roehling & Huang, 2018). Meanwhile, practitioners are continuing to provide training of unknown value within organizations, spending resources on interventions that may not help, and may indeed be harmful in certain circumstances (Breitenbecher, 2000). Further research is needed to uncover the most effective ways to address sexual misconduct within organizations.

Conclusion

Sexual misconduct remains a pervasive social issue that must be addressed through extensive, systemic change beyond the walls of modern workplaces. Though the overwhelming goal of social justice reform is simply too great for any organization to undertake on its own, this should not preclude the introduction of feasible steps that can be taken along the way. Encouraging employees to report their experiences, and fostering a supportive environment for their voice may be one intermediary step to help promote this necessary change. The current study provides preliminary evidence related to predictors and barriers to employee reporting within an organization seeking to shift its workplace culture to one more intolerant of sexual misconduct. Despite the understanding that it is impossible to completely rid all workplaces of sexual misconduct, employee voice in cases of sexual misconduct will always carry some inherent risk, and sexual misconduct training is by no means a panacea, concerted empirical and practical efforts should still be dedicated toward mitigating this deleterious organizational affliction.

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Appendix A



Office of Research Ethics
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CERTIFICATION OF INSTITUTIONAL ETHICS CLEARANCE

The Carleton University Research Ethics Board-B (CUREB-B) has granted ethics clearance for the research project described below and research may now proceed. CUREB-B is constituted and operates in compliance with the *Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans* (TCPS2).

Ethics Protocol Clearance ID: Project # 111080

Research Team: Ms. Chelsie Smith (Primary Investigator)
Dr. Kathryn Dupre (Research Supervisor)

Project Title: Promoting Voice and Intervention

Funding Source (If applicable):

Effective: June 04, 2019

Expires: June 30, 2020.

Please ensure the study clearance number is prominently placed in all recruitment and consent materials: CUREB-B Clearance # 111080.

Restrictions:

This certification is subject to the following conditions:

1. Clearance is granted only for the research and purposes described in the application.
2. Any modification to the approved research must be submitted to CUREB-B via a Change to Protocol Form. All changes must be cleared prior to the continuance of the research.
3. An Annual Status Report for the renewal of ethics clearance must be submitted and cleared by the renewal date listed above. Failure to submit the Annual Status Report will result in the closure of the file. If funding is associated, funds will be frozen.
4. A closure request must be sent to CUREB-B when the research is complete or terminated.
5. During the course of the study, if you encounter an adverse event, material incidental finding, protocol deviation or other unanticipated problem, you must complete and submit a Report of Adverse Events and Unanticipated Problems Form, found here:
<https://carleton.ca/researchethics/forms-and-templates/>

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Failure to conduct the research in accordance with the principles of the *Tri-Council Policy Statement: Ethical Conduct for Research Involving Humans 2nd edition* and the *Carleton University Policies and Procedures for the Ethical Conduct of Research* may result in the suspension or termination of the research project.

Upon reasonable request, it is the policy of CUREB, for cleared protocols, to release the name of the PI, the title of the project, and the date of clearance and any renewal(s).

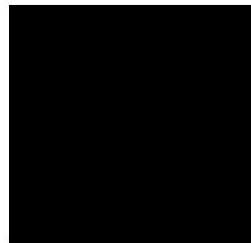
Please contact the Research Compliance Coordinators, at ethics@carleton.ca, if you have any questions.

CLEARED BY:

Date: June 04, 2019



Bernadette Campbell, PhD, Chair, CUREB-B



Natasha Artemeva, PhD, Vice-Chair, CUREB-B