

Testing Relationships between Sex of Respondent, Sexual Harassment and Intentions to Reenlist in the U.S. Military

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Abstract

Intentions to reenlist in the U.S. military are analyzed in relation to reported experiences of unwanted, uninvited individualized and more general environmental sexual behaviors and whether or not any such incidents are labeled as sexual harassment. Such behaviors should reduce the likelihood of reenlistment and harassing behaviors are expected to have a greater impact on the intentions of women compared to men. Data, from the "Armed Forces 2002 Sexual Harassment Survey," indicated harassment has a negative impact on reenlistment intentions and affects men and women differently. Environmental harassment is more related to women's reenlistment intentions, while individualized harassment is stronger for men. Accusations of individualized forms of sexual harassment may create a negative image of the organization and be more likely to be concealed. The anonymity of this survey may allow men to state that they experienced sexual harassment. Because of the "Don't ask..." policy, sexual orientation was not measured.

Keywords: retention, sexual harassment, individualized, environmental, military, climate

1. Testing Relationships between Sex of Respondent, Sexual Harassment and Intentions to Reenlist in the U.S. Military

One impact of experiencing sexual harassment in the workplace has largely been neglected in the literature. While the importance of experiencing sexual harassment and some of its negative impacts on individuals (Culbertson & Rosenfeld, 1994; Devilbiss, 1985; Firestone & Harris, 1994, 1999, 2004; Harris & Firestone, 1996, 1997) and organizational climate (Fain & Anderton, 1987; Firestone & Harris, 2004; Rosen & Martin, 1997) are well documented, there is a paucity of research focusing on the relationship between sexual harassment and plans to reenlist.

As an indicator of organizational/workplace climate, sexual harassment ought to be related to other climate variables, such as leadership attitudes/behaviors (Harris, 2011; Groves & LaRocca, 2011), cohesion (Mastroianni, 2005/2006), acceptance of women/minorities (Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2009; Morgan, 2001; Lynch & Stover, 2008), and reporting through official channels (Firestone & Harris, 1994) and their outcomes. One such important outcome is a member's stated intention to reenlist or not. It is clear that any organization such as the military can be sustained only by members continuing to participate. The intent to continue one's work role has been shown to be an important predictor of *actually* continuing that role (Atchison & Lefferts, 1972; Butler & Holmes, 1984; Lakhani, 1988; Segal, Segal, Bachman, Freedman-Doan, & O'Malley, 1998; Van Breukelen, Van Der List, & Steensma, 2004). Similarly, Segal et al. found that "enlistment propensity has the most powerful effect on women's (and men's) actual enlistment" (p. 82). And further that women were less likely than men to enlist; a much smaller percentage expect to enlist than the percentage who indicate they would like to do so. They also argue that the "norm" of masculinity in the military may create a climate in which women fear their opportunities would be limited because of their sex. It seems likely that sexual (and other forms of gender) harassment contribute to these perceptions.

In this research, we assess reenlistment intention by responses to the question "How likely is it you would stay on active duty?" Thus, we are focused on whether respondents intend to make a long term commitment, rather than

merely fulfill their obligation to the current term of service. Early research on organizational commitment also emphasized the self-interest associated with continuing an association, suggesting that individuals will attempt to change or terminate relationships which provide a negative net balance of rewards (Thibaut & Kelley, 1959; Becker, 1960; Kanter, 1968; Schoenherr & Greeley, 1974, Vroom, 1964). Therefore, if experiencing sexual harassment is perceived as part of a negative organizational experience, it seems likely that individuals who say they experienced harassment would be less likely to commit to a long term association with that organization. In addition, because there are a variety of harassment experiences, and some are more severe than others, it may be that the type of harassment experienced (e.g. individualized or environmental – see Firestone & Harris, 1994) may also impact whether individuals are willing to commit to a future association. Importantly, Firestone and Harris have repeatedly found that when no general “environmental” types of harassment are reported, specific “individualized” harassment is extremely rare (Firestone & Harris, 1994, 1999; Harris & Firestone, 1997, 2010).

1.1 Sex and Organizational Commitment

With respect to sex and organizational commitment, the results are inconclusive. For example, Mowday, Steers, and Porter (1979) and Marsden and Kalleberg (1993) cite several studies from the 1970s and 1980s indicating that women are more committed than men, while other work found that women were more likely to express their intentions to leave the organization in which they were currently employed (Bar-Hayim & Berman, 1992; Miller & Wheeler, 1992). Much of the ambiguity in the early analyses have been attributed to using industry compared to individual characteristics as predictors (Miller & Wheeler, 1992). The fact that some of the studies which found significant differences between men and women were conducted in countries other than America (Cotton & Tuttle, 1986) and recent cultural changes in the U.S. with respect to women’s representation in various occupations and positions (e.g., changes in women’s representation and occupational opportunities in the U.S. military) have undoubtedly impacted earlier findings (Miller & Wheeler, 1992). In addition, Miller and Wheeler argued that “overall job satisfaction measures obscure the importance of certain identifiable components of satisfaction which relates to the intention to leave” (p. 476). In more recent examples, Metcalfe and Dick (2002) found no difference in the level of commitment to the police in the U.K. Finally, Singh, Finn, and Goulet (2004) found similar job related attitudes, including commitment, between men and women after controlling for work-related variables (e.g. opportunity for promotion; sex distribution).

In one of the few studies investigating the impact of harassment on organizational commitment, Savicki, Colley, and Gjesvold (2003) found that men and women did not differ in their commitment, however harassment was a pervasive contributor to decreasing commitment and increasing intentions to leave for women but not for men. Their research is based on a relatively small sample (129 men, 60 women) of correctional officers, but the findings are likely to apply to women in other male-dominated occupations such as the military. They contended that the experience of sexual (and other gender-related) harassment created a very different work context for women – one in which work-related stress was higher, and the chronic experience of stress created a negative perception about the job and increased the likelihood of leaving.

1.2 Organizational Climate and Sexual Harassment

In spite of organizational efforts, rates of harassment remain high, indicating that present legal and organizational structures may be inadequate in controlling harassing behaviors (Hulin, Fitzgerald, & Dragow, 1996; Rowe, 1996). The military is no exception to this problem (Firestone & Harris, 1994, 1999, 2004; Harris & Firestone, 1996, 1997, 2010; Miller, 1997). Even if current emphasis on sexual harassment has legitimized claims and thereby increased complaints, the high proportion of respondents still alleging harassment suggests that policies may need better implementation and enforcement (Firestone & Harris, 2004). Furthermore, employees who have been harassed seldom respond by using established grievance procedures (Bingham & Scherer, 1993; Harris & Firestone, 1997; Gruber & Bjorn, 1986; Grundmann, O’Donohue, & Peterson, 1997; Hulin, Fitzgerald & Drasgow, 1996; Riger, 1991), perhaps because they don’t believe current policies will be enforced.

Differential sex role socialization between men and women reinforces the organizational dynamics associated with sexual harassment. The male sex role encourages dominance and aggressiveness while the female sex role encourages subordination and submissiveness which then spills over into the organizational environment (Gutek & Morasch, 1982; Firestone, 1984; Shields, 1988; Tangri & Hayes, 1997; Terpstra & Baker, 1986). One outcome of the gender socialization processes may be to create an environment in which harassing behaviors are consistent with the expectations associated with the male sex role. The U.S. military provides a case in point. While a separate corps for women has been abolished and quotas on the numbers of women who could be recruited were lifted, women are still excluded from holding most positions related to the primary mission of the military, combat roles. While not based on empirical evidence, one important basis for this exclusion is that women are thought to intrude on the male

bonding that is considered necessary for optimum combat performance (Harrell & Miller, 1997; Rosen & Martin, 1997). This process clearly defines women as outsiders to the core military mission. Similar arguments have been used against homosexual men who are accused of intruding on male bonding and damaging its masculine image (Shawver, 1995).

Several elements of military culture may increase the likelihood that sexual harassment occurs and that targets do not report harassment through established channels. First, organizational cohesion is very highly valued within the military; thus divulging negative information about a fellow soldier is considered taboo (Rosen & Martin, 1997). It is well established that men and women have different definitions about what actions become defined as intimidating, hostile, or offensive (Katz, Hannon, & Whitten, 1996; Saal, 1996), and that only individuals who define a situation as sexual harassment will report it (Harris & Firestone, 2010; Malovich & Stake, 1990). Indeed those behaviors accepted as typical social interactions within a particular environment are much less likely to be viewed as sexual harassment and most likely to be viewed differently by men and women (Fitzgerald & Shullman, 1993; Thomas, 1995; Uggen & Blackstone, 2004). Second, these same behaviors have long been a part of military culture exacerbating reporting problems because “tattling” about time-honored practices (e.g. lewd jokes, whistles, obscene gestures) can label individuals as outsiders who do not fit into the organization (Miller, 1997). Third, in an environment where hostile interactions toward and about women are the norm, there may be social pressure on men to engage in such behavior to maintain their standing among peers. Additionally, while cohesion is highly valued in the military, it has been used to exclude rather than include women into the organization (Harrell & Miller, 1997; Rosen et al., 1996; Note 1).

The fact that some women willingly conduct themselves in stereotypically male manners or engage in consensual sexual relations with male colleagues highlights the complex relationships of sex and gender to the masculine military culture. Women who attempt to become “one of the guys” may be expected to accept or even participate in behaviors that demean women. Those women who reject these masculine behaviors may be labeled Lesbian, subject to investigation and being forced out of the military. In other circumstances women who engage in consensual sexual relations with male soldiers may be protected from some harassment and other negative behaviors, but later they can be described as prostitutes. Alternatively, those women who refuse to sleep with male colleagues may again be labeled Lesbian.

Contrary to consistent findings that those with more organizational power are more likely to harass (Tangri & Hayes, 1997; Terpstra & Baker, 1986), Firestone and Harris (1994) found that in the military coworkers were more often responsible for harassment than were supervisors. While coworkers and subordinates may lack authority from organizational legitimacy, they may have individual power based on personality, or from controlling and manipulating critical information (Thaker, 1996). Given the strong emphasis on male attributes in defining a “good” soldier, being male may provide enough power to engage in harassing behaviors in spite of their being against military policy.

Additional complicating factors exist because specific organizational characteristics such as type of technology, worker proximity, sex ratios, availability of grievance procedures, etc., may moderate the extent of harassment, the types of responses, and perceptions about adequacy of responses to such behaviors (Gruber & Bjorn, 1986; Hulin, Fitzgerald, & Drasgow, 1996; Gutek & Morasch, 1982; Kanter, 1968; Rowe, 1996; Rossen & Martin, 1997). All of these factors may influence reenlistment intentions.

1.3 Research Questions and Hypotheses

The current study examined key hypotheses and a broader research question pertaining to sexual harassment and reenlistment intentions.

Research Questions: Are uninvited, unwanted sexual experiences related to individual intentions to reenlist in the U.S. Military? Further, do individualistic and more general environmental sexual experiences have different relationships with enlistment intentions, and does labeling experiences as sexual harassment add to our ability to predict reenlistment expectations? These questions are explored for the total sample and for males and females separately.

Hypothesis 1: Females will be less likely to state that they intend to reenlist than males.

Hypothesis 2: Regardless of sex of respondent, we expect individuals who have experienced uninvited and unwanted sexual experiences to indicate lower intentions to reenlist in the U.S. Military.

Hypothesis 3: Regardless of sex of respondent, labeling an incident as harassment should lower intentions to reenlist in the U.S. Military.

Hypothesis 4: Unwanted sexual experiences and labeling an incident as sexual harassment will have stronger relationships with reenlistment intentions for females than for males. This expectation is based on the greater prevalence of such experiences for women.

2. Methods

2.1 Participants

Our research examines a sample of respondents from the "Armed Forces 2002 Sexual Harassment Survey," conducted for the Office of the Secretary of Defense by the Defense Manpower Data Center. This was a "... worldwide scientific survey of how men and women work together in the ... Active-duty Military Services ..." The stated purpose of the survey was "To assess the prevalence of sexual harassment and other unprofessional, gender-related behaviors.... (Lipari & Lancaster, 2003)." The instrument "... was based on the 1995 Form B questionnaire and incorporated further psychometric and theoretical advances in sexual harassment research (Lipari & Lancaster, 2003)."

2.2 Design and Procedure

A single-stage, stratified random sample of 60,415 respondents was drawn for the survey, representing male and female enlisted personnel and officers in the Army, Navy, Marines, Air Force and Coast Guard. Data were collected by mail and via the Web, with one-third of respondents returning responses via the internet. A total of 19,960 usable surveys were returned for a response rate of 36%. The original sample includes 10,235 males and 9,725 females, illustrating the oversampling of women. The sampling frame was stratified by service branch, sex, paygrade, race/ethnicity, likelihood of deployment and geographic location (Elig, 2003). A series of weighting schemes were developed by the original survey team at the Defense Manpower Data Center tied to branch of service, rank, sex and race, and to test for non-response bias. The full weights provide estimated numbers of respondents that approximate the total active force as of December 2001 (Lipari & Lancaster, 2003). For this analysis, the full weight was divided by its mean, retaining proportional adjustments while keeping the weighted cases approximating the actual sample size. To illustrate the impact of the weighting, there are 16,154 weighted male respondents (84.8%) and 2,906 weighted female respondents (15.2%), for a total of 19,060 weighted cases.

2.3 Measures

Reenlistment intention is measured by responses to the question "Assuming you could stay on active duty, how likely is it that you would choose to do so?" Response choices were on a five point scale: 1 - Very Unlikely, 2 - Unlikely, 3 - Neither Likely nor Unlikely, 4 - Likely and 5 - Very Likely. Additionally, the survey furnished a detailed set of statements from which the respondents could evaluate conditions in the work site, including a set of questions which asked them "... about sex/gender related talk and/or behavior that was unwanted, uninvited, and in which the respondent did not participate willingly" (DMDC, 2003). Based on these statements, we identified individualistic forms of sexual harassment that are personal and frequently directly physical in nature, and leave little room for misinterpretation by either the victim or the perpetrator (e.g., sexual assault, touching, sexual phone calls; 11 items, $\alpha=0.83$). This form can be differentiated from a broader category of more public, environmental harassment (e.g., jokes, whistles, suggestive looks; five items, $\alpha=0.73$). The latter actions can be experienced even if directed at another individual, and are ambiguous enough to leave their interpretation dependent on the environmental context. Respondents were classified as having experienced individualistic or environmental unwanted, uninvited sexual behavior, or any form, (individualistic, environmental, or both; Note 2). The individual and environmental dimensions have been supported through principle components factor analysis with varimax rotation (Firestone & Harris, 2009; Harris & Firestone, 2010).

Nineteen behaviorally based statements were used to "... represent a continuum of unprofessional, gender-related behaviors-not just sexual harassment-..." (Lipari & Lancaster, 2003). The responses for each item ranged from occurring "never" to "very often." The respondents were provided with a framework that would allow them to make meaningful and reasonably comprehensive judgments about conditions in the work place. The specificity of the list and the questionnaire format means that individuals were reporting about behaviors that they had experienced in the past 12 months, and that they defined as unwanted and uninvited, rather than offering more general statements about whether they had experienced any sexual harassment in general.

Finally, those reporting harassment within the last twelve months were asked which of the incidents had the greatest effect on them as well as a series of questions about the context of that incident and their response to it. While this tiered format allows for detailed analysis of those reporting harassment, it does not allow for predicting harassment because respondents not harassed were not asked the same questions about organizational context.

Among the items in the “Gender Related Experiences in the Military in the Past 12 Months” section of the survey, respondents were asked the following: “In this question you are asked about sex/gender related talk and/or behavior that was unwanted, uninvited, and in which you did not participate willingly. How often during the past 12 months have you been in situations involving: Military Personnel, On- or off-duty or On- or off installations or ship; and/or Civilian Employees and/or Contractors, in your workplace or on your installation/ship. Where one or more of these individuals (of either gender)...” Respondents were then provided the list of 19 items and asked whether each item had occurred “very often,” “often,” “sometimes,” “once or twice,” or “never.” We recoded the first four responses in an “ever” occurred category with a value of 1 due to the extreme skewness of the distributions. “Never” was coded 0. Based on the original statements, we identified individualistic forms of sexual harassment that are personal and frequently directly physical in nature, and a broader category of more public, environmental harassment. The latter actions can be experienced even if directed at another individual, and are ambiguous enough to leave their interpretation dependent on the environmental context. Respondents were initially classified as having experienced individualistic or environmental unwanted, uninvited sexual behavior, or any form, (individualistic, environmental, or both). We focus on the separate categories of environmental and individual harassment for this research.

Respondents were then asked whether they considered “any of the behaviors... which you marked as happening to you ... to have been sexual harassment emphasizes part of original survey”. Responses included: “none were sexual harassment,” “some were sexual harassment; some were not sexual harassment,” and “all were sexual harassment.” This variable was dichotomized to indicate whether “any” events were labeled as sexual harassment, or none were labeled as harassment. Another question asked: “Did you report this situation to any of the following installation/Service/DoD individuals or organizations.” The responses included references to the various official channels for reporting. Individuals who responded “yes” to any of the categories were classified as having used official channels to report the incident. Independent variables utilized include sex of respondent, rank (junior enlisted, senior enlisted, junior officer, senior officer), whether respondent was married, and service branch (all “yes” or included categories were coded 1).

3. Results

For the analyses that follow, the full weight was divided by the mean weight, retaining estimates of the approximate total number of cases in the original survey. First we present the distribution of the dependent variable, “Likelihood of Staying on Active Duty” by sex of respondent. Then each of the variables included in multivariate analyses is displayed separately for males, females and the total sample, with tests for differences in distributions by sex. Staged OLS regressions are used to test whether the independent variables impact the likelihood of staying on active duty and, finally, separate staged regressions are completed for men and for women separately. Based on the directional nature of the hypotheses, one tailed significance tests are employed. With this approach a t-value of 1.645 is statistically significant at the .05 level.

As shown in Figure 1, a larger percentage of men say “very likely” to reenlist, while a larger percentage of women say “very unlikely.” Women are a bit more likely to say both “unlikely” and “likely” or “neither likely nor unlikely.” Given the large sample size, the differences between male and female responses is statistically significant (Chi-Square=45.38, $df=4$, $p < 0.001$). Specific differences in proportions are statistically significant for the very unlikely, neither and very likely categories. This provides support for Hypothesis 1.

Table 1 provides an overview of the variables included in the following multivariate analyses. The means for the dichotomous variables are the proportion of cases reporting the named attribute. For example 0.13 or 13 percent of males report experiencing individualized harassment, compared to 0.36 or 36 percent for females. The value of 0.16 for the total sample illustrates the impact of the larger weighted numbers of male respondents. The column for “Sig.” presents the significance levels for tests of differences in means or proportions between the male and female respondents. Eta is a useful measure of the comparative magnitude of differences, with possible values ranging from 0 to 1. Clearly the largest differences are found for the harassment measures. With an Eta of 0.33, the greatest difference ties to the likelihood of defining any experience as sexual harassment, with 27 percent of women and three percent of men labeling experiences as harassment. Interestingly, 47 percent of women report unwanted, uninvited environmental experiences compared to 21 percent of men, with an Eta of 0.22, but many do not label these experiences as sexual harassment. Similarly, 36 percent of women and 13 percent of men report unwanted, uninvited individualized experiences, producing an Eta of 0.23.

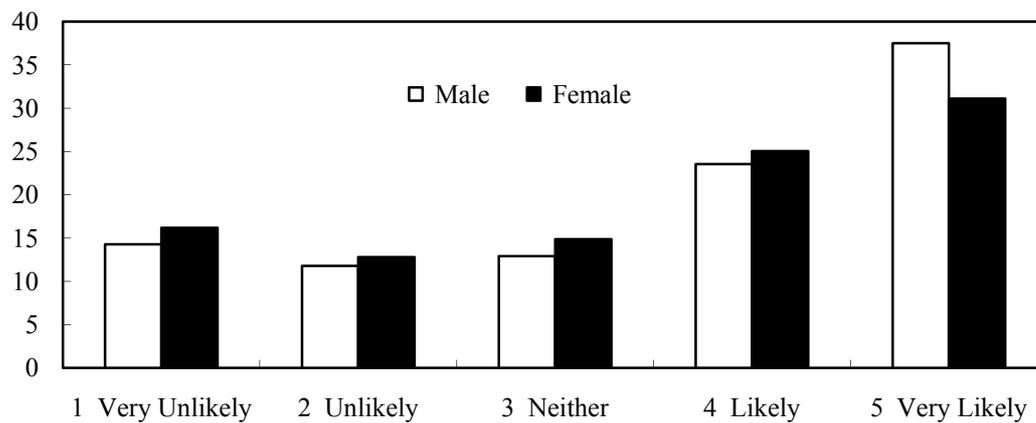


Figure 1. Likelihood of Staying on Active Duty by Sex

Description: Chi-Square=45.377, df=4, $p=0.001$. The differences are statistically significant for the very unlikely, neither and very likely categories.

Table 1. Distributions of Variables by Sex of Respondent

	Male			Female			Total			M/F Diff.	
	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Mean	S.D.	N	Sig.	Eta
Intent to Reenlist	3.58	1.44	16078	3.42	1.45	2890	3.56	1.45	18968	0.00	0.04
Individualized Harassment	0.13	0.33	16154	0.36	0.48	2906	0.16	0.37	19060	0.00	0.23
Environmental Harassment	0.21	0.41	16154	0.47	0.50	2906	0.25	0.43	19060	0.00	0.22
Label Experience as Harassment	0.03	0.18	16154	0.27	0.44	2906	0.07	0.26	19060	0.00	0.33
Hispanic	0.11	0.31	16151	0.11	0.31	2905	0.11	0.31	19056	0.85	0.00
African American	0.17	0.37	16151	0.30	0.46	2905	0.19	0.39	19056	0.00	0.13
High School Diploma	0.50	0.50	16013	0.55	0.50	2872	0.50	0.50	18885	0.00	0.04
BA/BS degree	0.20	0.40	16013	0.22	0.42	2872	0.21	0.40	18885	0.01	0.02
Married	0.63	0.48	16074	0.49	0.50	2888	0.61	0.49	18962	0.00	0.11
Army	0.33	0.47	16154	0.34	0.47	2906	0.33	0.47	19060	0.15	0.01
Navy	0.27	0.44	16154	0.25	0.43	2906	0.27	0.44	19060	0.06	0.01
Marines	0.13	0.34	16154	0.05	0.22	2906	0.12	0.32	19060	0.00	0.09
Air Force	0.25	0.43	16154	0.33	0.47	2906	0.26	0.44	19060	0.00	0.07
Coast Guard	0.03	0.16	16154	0.02	0.14	2906	0.03	0.16	19060	0.02	0.02
Junior Enlisted	0.36	0.45	16152	0.45	0.50	2905	0.38	0.49	19057	0.00	0.06
Senior Enlisted	0.47	0.50	16152	0.39	0.49	2905	0.45	0.50	19057	0.00	0.05
Junior Officer	0.09	0.28	16152	0.10	0.29	2905	0.09	0.28	19057	0.08	0.01
Senior Officer	0.07	0.26	16152	0.06	0.23	2905	0.07	0.25	19057	0.01	0.02

Description: all variables are dichotomous, coded 1 for the named attribute and 0 for all other possibilities, except for Intent to Reenlist which is coded on a five point scale (see Figure 1).

A larger proportion of females are African American, but there is no difference in the representation of Hispanics. (Only African Americans and Hispanics are identified as distinct race or ethnic groups in the dataset.) Among the other statistically significant differences, males are more likely to be married, and have higher proportions in the Marines and among senior enlisted personnel. Women have a higher proportion in the Air Force and, importantly,

among the junior enlisted personnel who are among those most likely to report unwanted, uninvited sexual experiences (Firestone & Harris, 1994). These different distributions may influence the likelihood of harassment experiences and any link with reenlistment intentions.

Table 2. The Relationships of Sex of Respondent and Measures of Sexual Harassment on Intentions to Reenlist (OLS Regressions)

	Stage 1			Stage 2			Stage 3			Stage 4			Stage 5		
	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	β												
Sex (Female=1, Male=0)	-0.16	0.03	-.04***	-0.13	0.03	-.03**	-0.09	0.03	-.02**	-0.02	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.03	-0.01
Hispanic	-	-	-	.03	.03	.01	.12	.03	.03***	.12	.03	.03***	.12	.03	.03***
Black	-	-	-	.28	.03	.08***	.25	.03	.07***	.25	.03	.07***	.25	.03	.07***
High School Degree	-	-	-	.18	.02	.06***	-.06	.03	-.02*	-.05	.03	-.02*	-.05	.03	-.02*
BA/BS Degree	-	-	-	.35	.03	.10***	-.23	.05	-.06***	-.21	.05	-.06***	-.21	.05	-.06***
Married	-	-	-	.57	.02	.19***	.33	.02	.11***	.32	.02	.11***	.32	.02	.11***
Army	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.25	.03	-.08***	-.24	.03	-.08***	-.24	.03	-.08***
Navy	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.15	.03	-.05***	-.13	.03	-.04***	-.13	.03	-.04***
Marine	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.27	.04	-.06***	-.26	.04	-.06***	-.26	.04	-.06***
Coast Guard	-	-	-	-	-	-	.03	.07	.00	.04	.07	.01	.04	.07	.01
Junior Enlisted	-	-	-	-	-	-	-1.13	.05	-.38***	-1.09	.05	-.37***	-1.09	.05	-.36***
Senior Enlisted	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.39	.05	-.13***	-.36	.05	-.12***	-.36	.05	-.12***
Junior Officer	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.35	.05	-.07***	-.34	.05	-.07***	-.34	.05	-.07***
Individual Harassment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.22	.03	-.06***	-.20	.03	-.05***
Environmental Harassment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.09	.03	-.03**	-.08	.03	-.02**
Label Harassment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.09	.05	-.01*

Description: R^2 – Stage 1=0.002; R^2 – Stage 2=0.057; R^2 – Stage 3=0.113; R^2 – Stage 4=0.118; * p < 0.05; ** p < 0.01; *** p < 0.001. Reference categories for the dummy variables are: non-Black, non-Hispanic; less than high school degree; not married; Air Force and Senior Officer.

In the full sample (including both men and women) staged regressions, presented in Table 2, we find that sex of respondent is initially significant and negative indicating that women are more likely to say they will not remain on active duty. Sex remains significant and negative through Steps 2 (controlling for demographic indicators) and 3 (controlling for demographic indicators, service branch and rank). However, in Step 4, which also controls for both individual and environmental harassment, sex becomes non-significant, and remains so when both types of harassment and whether the event was labeled harassment are controlled. Supporting Hypothesis 2 and providing insight into our research question, both individual and environmental harassment have a significant and negative impact on likelihood of staying on active duty. In support of Hypothesis 3, labeling the event as harassment also has a small but significant negative impact. In addition, the impact of being Hispanic is not significant in Step 2, but becomes significant in Steps 3, 4 and 5. Being in the Coast Guard is not significant for any of the Steps in which branches of service are controlled. The full regression equation explains about 12% of intentions to remain on active duty for all respondents ($R^2=0.12$).

Interestingly, but not surprisingly, our findings are different when separate regressions are completed for men and women. For men (see Table 3), the results for being Hispanic and being a member of the Coast Guard are consistent with the overall results. This is likely due to the fact that in sheer numbers of military members, men

drive the results of the survey (see the numbers of cases in Table 1). However it is interesting to note that in spite of the fact that men report less harassment (of both types), experiencing both types of harassment has a significant and negative impact on the likelihood that they say they will remain on active duty. These results support Hypothesis 2 and, similar to the previous analysis, address the broader research question. These results hold up even when the influence of labeling an event as harassment is controlled, although both experiencing environmental harassment and labeling harassment have only small coefficients ($\beta=0.01$ and $.02$ respectively). Thus, supporting Hypothesis 3, labeling an incident as harassment lowers intentions to reenlist. The full regression equation including all sets of controls explains about 13% of the variability in intentions to remain on active duty for men ($R^2=0.13$).

Table 3. The Relationships of Measures of Sexual Harassment on Intentions to Reenlist for Men (OLS Regressions)

	Stage 1			Stage 2			Stage 3			Stage 4		
	B	SE	β									
Hispanic	.02	.04	.01	.11	.04	.02***	.12	.04	.03**	.12	.03	.03**
Black	.29	.03	.08***	.27	.03	.07***	.27	.03	.07***	.27	.03	.07***
High School Degree	.17	.03	.06***	-.06	.03	-.02*	-.05	.03	-.02*	-.05	.03	-.02*
BA/BS Degree	.32	.03	.09***	-.24	.05	-.07***	-.22	.05	-.06***	-.22	.05	-.06***
Married	.65	.02	.22***	.65	.03	.13***	.38	.03	.13***	-.38	.03	.13***
Army	-	-	-	-.24	.03	-.08***	-.24	.03	-.08***	-.24	.03	-.08***
Navy	-	-	-	-.16	.03	-.05***	-.15	.03	-.04***	-.15	.03	-.05***
Marine	-	-	-	-.27	.04	-.06***	-.24	.04	-.06***	-.24	.04	-.06***
Coast Guard	-	-	-	.05	.07	.01	.06	.07	.01	.06	.07	.01
Junior Enlisted	-	-	-	-1.11	.06	-.37***	-1.06	.05	-.36***	-1.06	.05	-.36***
Senior Enlisted	-	-	-	-.38	.06	-.13***	-.35	.06	-.12***	-.35	.06	-.12***
Junior Officer	-	-	-	-.30	.05	-.06***	-.30	.05	-.06***	-.30	.05	-.06***
Individual Harassment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.28	.04	-.06***	-.26	.04	-.06***
Environmental Harassment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.07	.03	-.02*	-.06	.03	-.01*
Label Harassment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.12	.07	-.02*

Description: R^2 – Stage 1=0.067; R^2 – Stage 2=0.120; R^2 – Stage 3=0.125; R^2 – Stage 4=0.125; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. Reference categories for the dummy variables are: non-Black, non-Hispanic; less than high school degree; not married; Air Force and Senior Officer

In addition, the strength of the impact of variables differs by sex. Looking at the full equation (Step 4), for men being in a junior enlisted rank has the strongest impact ($\beta=0.36$) such that those who are classified as junior enlisted are less likely to say they will remain on active duty. Being married has the second strongest and positive impact ($\beta=0.13$) such that married men are more likely to say they will remain on active duty. Being a senior enlisted member has the third strongest and also negative impact ($\beta=-0.12$). Being Black has the fourth strongest impact such that Black men are more likely to say they will remain on active duty ($\beta=0.07$). Having a bachelor's degree is negatively associated with intentions to remain on active duty for men ($\beta=-0.06$). Experiencing individualized harassment has the sixth strongest impact, and the impact is negative ($\beta=-0.06$), closely followed by being a junior level officer ($\beta=-0.06$). While, statistically significant and negative, experiencing environmental harassment and labeling events as harassment have among the weakest relationships in the Step ($\beta=-0.02$ for environmental harassment; $\beta=-0.02$ for labeling).

Table 4. The Relationships of Measures of Sexual Harassment on Intentions to Reenlist for Women (OLS Regressions)

	Stage 1			Stage 2			Stage 3			Stage 4		
	B	SE	β									
Hispanic	.03	.09	.01	.12	.09	.03	.12	.09	.03	.12	.09	.03
Black	.18	.06	.06*	.16	.06	.05**	.14	.06	.04*	.14	.06	.04*
High School Degree	.17	.07	.06*	-.10	.07	-.03	-.09	.07	-.03	-.08	.07	-.03
BA/BS Degree	.41	.08	.12***	-.17	.12	-.05	-.17	.12	-.04	-.17	.12	-.05
Married	.16	.05	.05**	.04	.05	.01	.02	.05	.01	.02	.05	.01
Army	-	-	-	-.31	.06	-.10***	-.27	.07	-.09***	-.27	.07	-.09***
Navy	-	-	-	-.11	.07	-.03***	-.08	.07	-.02	-.07	.07	-.03
Marine	-	-	-	-.44	.12	-.07***	-.39	.12	-.06**	-.40	.12	-.06**
Coast Guard	-	-	-	-.12	.19	-.01	-.09	.19	-.01	.09	.19	.01
Junior Enlisted	-	-	-	-1.18	.15	-.40***	-1.12	.15	-.39***	-1.12	.15	-.39***
Senior Enlisted	-	-	-	-.40	.14	-.13***	-.37	.14	-.12***	-.38	.14	-.13***
Junior Officer	-	-	-	-.59	.13	-.12***	-.55	.13	-.11***	-.55	.13	-.11***
Individual Harassment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.06	.07	-.02	-.01	.07	-.00
Environmental Harassment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.19	.06	-.07**	-.15	.07	-.05*
Label Harassment	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-.14	.08	-.04*

Description: R2 – Stage 1=0.015; R2 – Stage 2=0.084; R2 - Stage 3=0.090; R2 - Stage 4=0.091; * $p < 0.05$; ** $p < 0.01$; *** $p < 0.001$. Reference categories for the dummy variables are: non-Black, non-Hispanic; less than high school degree; not married; Air Force and Senior Officer

For women, being a junior enlisted member has by far the strongest ($\beta = -0.39$) and negative impact on stated intentions to remain on active duty. Being senior enlisted rank has the second strongest and negative impact ($\beta = -0.13$). Being a junior officer in rank has the third strongest and negative impact ($\beta = -0.11$). Being a member of the Army or the Marine Corp have the fourth ($\beta = -0.09$) and fifth strongest ($\beta = -0.06$) and negative impacts. Most interesting, individualized harassment is not significant for women ($\beta = -0.00$; $p > 0.10$), but experiencing environmental harassment has the sixth strongest and negative impact ($\beta = -0.05$) on stated intentions to remain on active duty. Labeling events as harassment has the ninth strongest impact ($\beta = -0.04$) which is also negative, following having a bachelor's degree ($\beta = -0.05$) and similar to being Black ($\beta = -0.04$). These different results for men and women do not support the expectation of stronger relationships for females as stated in Hypothesis 4. Directly contradicting the hypothesis, individualized harassment has a stronger influence for men ($t = 2.99$, $p < 0.001$, for test of differences in slopes).

Beyond the difference in the male and female coefficients associated with individual harassment, two other differences are statistically significant. Black males are significantly more likely than Black females to indicate a higher likelihood of reenlisting ($t = 1.98$, $p < 0.05$), and married males are significantly more likely than married females to indicate higher chances of reenlistment ($t = 6.05$, $p < 0.001$).

4. Discussion of Results

The results indicate that women express lower intentions to reenlist, supporting Hypothesis 1. This result remains significant even controlling for demographic and organizational variables. However, controlling for sexual harassment experiences reduces the difference between men and women and the coefficient is no longer significant. Measures of both individualized and environmental harassment are significant, with individualized harassment having the stronger negative relationship with reenlistment intentions. This supports Hypothesis 2 with a refinement of the relative importance of the variables. Actually labeling an unwanted, uninvited event as sexual

harassment also has a small but significant negative influence on stated likelihood of reenlistment, supporting Hypothesis 3. Different relationships are found in separate analyses for men and women, though the results do not support the expectation of stronger influences for women compared to men (Hypothesis 4). In contrast, individualized harassment has a significantly stronger relationship for the men. While the data do not allow identification of (real or perceived) sexual preference, this result might emerge if men perceived to be homosexual are more likely to experience individualized harassment. Overall, experiencing harassment and labeling the incident as harassment lower intentions to reenlist in the U.S. Military. Moreover, our results suggest that type of harassment has an important impact on whether individuals express intentions to remain on active duty, for both men and women. Men who experience any type of harassment are less likely to say they intend to remain on active duty, even after other controls for individual characteristics and organizational context (e.g., service branch, rank). While this relationship holds for both men and women, the results for Step 4 explain more of the variability in intentions to reenlist for men ($R^2=0.13$ compared to $R^2=0.09$ for women). In addition, experiencing individualized harassment is not significant for women, while experiencing environmental harassment is significant ($p=0.02$). It may be the case that experiencing individualized types of harassment is more likely to be associated with other types of personal threats which could seem more threatening to women than men (Savicki, Colley, & Gjesvold, 2007). This could lead some women to experience high levels of stress and mean they are more likely to leave the military early and, therefore, they may be less likely to be included in the analysis. Stander, Merrill, Thomsen, Crouch and Milner (2007), for example, found that women experiencing rape prior to enlistment were more likely to leave the military early. This would be exacerbated if the perpetrator of the harassment were a superior who could retaliate against anyone reporting incidents, especially if it is the target's word against the superior's. Because environmental harassment often occurs in a more public setting it may be the case that it is easier to corroborate, and therefore easier to report officially, targets may be more likely to remain at least through their required tour of duty.

Also worthy of note is that being married was not a significant predictor of intentions to remain on active duty for women, but is a significant, positive and strong predictor for men. Because men are socialized to be breadwinners and the military provides benefits such as health care, men do not want to "make waves" for fear of having to leave the service. Finally, as Segal, et al., (1998) noted, it may be the case that women either perceive or experience difficulty in fulfilling their roles as mothers while on active duty (see also Miller, 1997; Metcalfe & Dick, 2002). Men on the other hand are far less likely to experience difficulties in fulfilling military roles and family responsibilities. Furthermore, the negative impact of individualized harassment may have a significant impact on men because they have been socialized to believe that "real" men will not be targeted. This could be offset by the anonymity of the survey.

Our findings reinforce one more time the importance of sexual harassment in general, and the specific forms of harassment in understanding the organizational context of the U.S. military. If the future reenlistment (or lack of turnover) of military men and women, who have received training and experience, is important for the integrity of the military, it seems clear that eradicating sexual harassment is an important component to keeping service members on active duty. In particular, with respect to retaining women, dealing with environmental harassment, which is often classified as more difficult to identify and therefore to regulate, may be an important part of the organizational climate which impacts individuals intentions to remain on active duty.

5. Limitations of Study

This study suffers from the typical limitations of survey research. The cross-sectional design makes it very difficult to establish "cause and effect" relationships. Another concern is that those not stating that they experienced harassment were not asked workplace context measures. Perhaps of greatest concern is the possibility that victims of severe harassment have already left the military suggests that these findings understate the extent of the relationships.

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Notes

Note 1. We acknowledge that there are multiple masculinities within the military culture (based on rank, race, ethnicity, age and branch of service). However, they are still based on the idea of the military as a "manly" organization (see for example, Barret, 1996; Herbert, 1998; Mumby, 1998).

Note 2. See Firestone and Harris (1994) for a more detailed discussion of the statements which classify harassment as individualized or environment.