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I GOT MY VENGEANCE: SEXUAL HARASSMENT, COPING STRATEGIES AND COUNTERPRODUCTIVE BEHAVIOURS IN EGYPT

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ABSTRACT: *Sexual harassment is a prevailing phenomenon in Egypt. However, there is limited research on workplace sexual harassment and its consequences. The current research tries to examine the relationships between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours. Moreover, the moderating effect of coping strategies on these relationship is also investigated. A convenience sample on 260 working women was drawn from different work settings in Cairo, Egypt. They responded to a three-part questionnaire that assesses workplace sexual harassment, coping strategies, and counterproductive work behaviours. The results indicated that workplace sexual harassment was positively correlated with all aspects of counterproductive work behaviours. Moreover, no moderation effects were obtained for different coping strategies. These results were discussed in the light of the extant theoretical and empirical literature. In addition, limitation, future research and conclusion are also reported.*
KEYWORDS: Sexual harassment, workplace, coping strategies, counterproductive work behaviours, Egypt.

Introduction

Sexual harassment in Egypt has reached an unprecedented level. In 2008, some reports indicated that 83 percent of Egyptian women and 98 percent of foreign women were subject to one form or another of sexual harassment (Hassan, Abul Komsan, & Shoukry, 2008). A more recent study conducted by the U.N. Women even showed a higher percent. A sample drawn from rural and urban areas in seven governorates in Egypt revealed that 99% of women had been sexually harassed (Women, U. N., 2013). In addition, an important report by HarassMap about sexual harassment in Greater Cairo has shown that that 95 percent of the surveyed women have suffered from sexual harassment (Fahmy Abdelmonem, Hamdy, Badr, & Hassan, 2014).

The problem may even aggravate due to the absence of legislations criminalising sexual harassment since the penal code in Egypt did not offer any clear description or any definition of the crime of sexual harassment (Komsan, 2009). This insufficient legal definition of sexual harassment can create ambiguous conceptualisation of the sexual harassment problem and its magnitude (FIDH, 2014).

Far from being a simple or a minor issue, it has been frequently reported that sexual harassment can have serious negative outcomes for the victim. These outcomes may include poor physical and mental performances in addition to decreasing women's ability to participate in social and public live (Bowman 1993; Crouch 2009; Fitzgerald 1993; Koss et al., 1994; Richman et al., 1999; Rozée & Koss, 2001; Sadler et al., 2018).

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When occuring in the workplace, sexual harassment can cause several negative psychological, health and job-related outcomes. Psychological and health related outcomes may include humiliation, irritation, anger, anxiety, powerlessness, depression emotional exhaustion, sickness, or even suicide (Astrauskaite, 2009; Astrauskaite, Perminas, & Kern, 2010; Bergman *et al*. 2002; Crocker & Kalembra 1999; Einarsen et al., 2003; Leymann, 1996; Magley *et al*. 1999; McDonald, 2012; Stockdale 1998; Willness *et al*. 2007). Job related outcomes, on the other hand, can include lower job satisfaction, poor job performance, decreased commitment, absenteeism, burnout, team conflict, career interruptions, and turnover (Chan, *et al*., 2008; Charlesworth, 2006; Fitzgerald, *et al*., 1999; Hayes, 2004; HREOC, 2004; Lockwood & Marda, 2014; Raver & Gelfand, 2005).

Furthermore, workplace sexual harassment can have important, well-documented adverse effects on organisations. Direct organisational costs include the cost of lost productivity, unwanted publicity, sick leaves, employees' turnover and in turn, the cost of the new recruitment, selection, training and development, in addition to the legal costs resulting from bringing a sexual harassment case to court. A meta-analysis study revealed that the lost productivity resulting from workplace sexual harassment costs around $22,500 per person (Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). Moreover, the US Equal Opportunity Commission indicated that they handled over 12,000 charges of workplace sexual harassment that cost over $48 million (EEOC 2010).

It can be noticed, nevertheless, that the vast majority of the extant sexual harassment literature was conducted in the western cultures, mainly in the US and to a lesser extent in Europe and Australia. There is a noticeable lack of research in this area in the Arab world, in general, and in Egypt, in particular, the country with the highest sexual harassment rate in the region. Moreover, research on sexual harassment has devoted little attention to the unique experiences of Egyptian women and even less to their coping responses and subsequent outcomes. Different socio-cultural and legal features across national contexts may have significant impact on research findings.

The current study aims at investigating the relationship between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviour. Moreover, the moderating role of the coping strategies in such relationship is examined.

This investigation provides a contribution to the literature in several ways. First, there is insufficient research on workplace sexual harassment in Egypt. Many scholars consider sexually oriented issues as a taboo subject and therefore they are reluctant to examine it (Amin & Darrag, 2011). Second, this research has significant importance taking into consideration the increasing number of women in the workforce. Third, this research addresses the call of Chan, Lam, Chow, & Cheung (2008) in their meta-analytic study to explore the relation between workplace sexual harassment, various coping responses, and the subsequent outcomes. Existing literature about coping with sexual harassment is little and inconsistent. Fourth, Amin & Darrag (2011) argued that a significant area of research that requires attention is how sexual harassment victims react to workplace harassment experiences. This research fills in this gap by investigating the relationship between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours. Studying the latter concept has special importance, taking into consideration its severe negative outcomes on organisations, especially in a developing country such as Egypt.

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Literature underpinning

Workplace Sexual harassment

Workplace sexual harassment was defined by the EEOC as follows: "Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when any of the following conditions are met:

1. Submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of an individual's employment.

2. Submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for employment decisions affecting such an individual.

3. Such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with an individual's work performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive working environment" (Wall, 2001, p. 528).

Based on the previous conditions, two types of workplace sexual harassment can be identified, namely, "quid pro quo" and "hostile work environment" respectively (Tyner & Clinton, 2010; O'Leary- Kelly, Bowes-Sperry, Bates, & Lean, 2009).Workplace sexual harassment often refers to repetitive, persistent and constant behaviour (Hunt, Davidson, Fielden, & Hoel, 2007).

Behaviours that define workplace sexual harassment are diverse and variously classified; they include physical and non-physical behaviours and are often presented on a continuum from seduction, persistence to assault (Bastian *et al*. 1996; Canadian Human Rights Commission 2006; Gelfand *et al*. 1995; McDonald, 2012).

It is worth noting, however, that the extent to which a behaviour is identified as workplace sexual harassment is affected by several factors such as organisational support, the existence of anti-harassment policies, and the cultural norms and mores (Marshall 2005; McCann 2005; Parker 1999). Many working women in Spain, for example, conceptualise unwanted sexual advances as unpleasant but unavoidable 'facts of life' (McDonald, 2012).

Power perspectives suggest that the workplace sexual harassment results from concentrating the economic power among men, which enables them to abuse and intimidate women sexually (MacKinnon & MacKinnon, 1979; Zalk 1990). Samuels (2003) suggests that when "the balance of power lies with men, and even if women are in more senior positions they are made more vulnerable by the fact they are women" (p. 477). Another aspect of power that may explain workplace sexual harassment is when clients or customers have power over an employee because of "customer is the king" philosophy (Gettman & Gelfand 2007; Pfeffer & Salancik 2003; Popovich & Warren, 2010).

In their meta-analytic review on 86,000 respondents in the US, Illies *et al*. (2003) indicated that women in organisations that are characterised by larger power differentials (e.g. military samples) suffer from workplace sexual harassment more than their colleagues in organisations with lower power differentials (e.g. academic sector).

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With respect to power distance, Egypt, in general, has a relatively high score. Therefore, it tends to nurture values that cheer obedience to those in higher authority (Amin & Darrag, 2011). Moreover, according to the GLOBE study, Egyptians have very low scores on gender egalitarianism (Javidan, Dorfman, de Luque, & House, 2006), therefore, Egyptians, in general, believe that men and women are not equal and that they should perform different roles (Amin & Darrag, 2011).

Workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behavior

Counterproductive work behaviours are defined as purposeful behaviours that violate organisational norms and are damaging to the organisation or its members (Bennett & Robinson, 2000; Gruys & Sackett, 2003; Sulea et al., 2015; Treviño et al., 2006). Spector et al. (2006) introduced five specific forms of counterproductive work behaviours: abuse towards others, production deviance, sabotage, theft and withdrawal. Pryor (1995) examined the performance of over 10,000 female military personnel and identified several aspects of counterproductive work behaviours that harassment victims experienced, including declined quality and quantity of work, lack of overall fitness for service, poor teamwork, and negative attitudes toward the job. Many researchers found that workplace sexual harassment is associated with being less friendly to customers, avoiding or ignoring them, losing interest in work, demonstrating a low level of performance, and quitting or transferring (Gettman & Gelfand 2007; Hughes & Tadic, 1998; Morganson & Major, 2008). Some research evidence argued that these aspects of counterproductive work behaviour can be intentional as harassed victims may sometimes engage in destructive behaviours such as task avoidance, neglectfulness, or sabotage (Fitness, 2000; Gruber & Smith, 1995)
Another approach of counterproductive work behaviour that is closely attached to workplace sexual harassment deals with organisational withdrawal (Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007). Two aspects of organisational withdrawal are of special importance, namely, job withdrawal and work withdrawal (Hanisch & Hulin, 1991). Job withdrawal is an indication of the desire or willingness to quit one's job and company (Hanisch et al., 1998). However, many victims of workplace sexual harassment cannot afford job withdrawal, where they seek to detach themselves entirely from their organisations. One astonishing statistic indicated that even when victims suffer from rape, 81% stayed at their jobs (Lundberg-Love & Marmion, 2003). Therefore, sexual harassment victims may be involved more in work withdrawal behaviours.

Work withdrawal includes behaviours that victims can perform without quitting their jobs or the organisation, such as unpunctuality, nonattendance, neglectfulness, decreased productivity, and even individual-level sabotage (Hanisch, Hulin, & Roznowski, 1998; Magley, Hulin, Fitzgerald, & DeNardo, 1999). Harassment victims may suffer from lack of financial resources, they may work in a job market with a few options available to them, or they may feel indebted to their organisations. Consequently, they may view work withdrawal behaviours to be more feasible (Willness, Steel, & Lee, 2007).

The relationship between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours can adequately be explained by the backfire theory. This theory suggests that if a specific behaviour is perceived as unfair, or if it violates social standards, it has the capacity to trigger aggressive behaviours and subsequently backfire on the offender (McDonald & Backstrom, 2008; Scott & Martin, 2006).

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Innumerable research have shown that counterproductive work behaviour is a common response to workplace aggression (Hershcovis & Barling, 2010) Furthermore, Hauge, Skogstad, & Einarsen (2009) found that being a victim is an important factor of becoming an offender. However, the power imbalance between offenders and victims may limit a victim's ability to revenge (Einarsen, Hoel, & Notelaers, 2009), therefore, they may direct their revenge towards the workplace that failed to provide them with safety and protection.

The social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) indicated that individuals may perceive the failure of an organisation to stop or prevent sexual harassment as a sign of lack of support. Accordingly, some individuals may respond to that with increased work or job withdrawal (Magley et al., 1999).

Furthermore, belongingness theory argued that individuals have a basic need to belong (Baumeister & Leary, 1995). When belongingness is threatened, the individual may respond aggressively (Kirkpatrick, Waugh, Valencia, & Webster, 2002; Twenge, Baumeister, Tice, & Stucke, 2001). Victims of sexual harassment may feel excluded or socially rejected, which may threaten their belongingness and can result in higher levels of counterproductive work behaviours (DeWall, Twenge, Gitter, & Baumeister, 2009).

Based on the previous arguments, the first hypothesis can be stated as follows:

H1: There are positive relationships between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours.

Coping strategies as a moderating variable of the relationship between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviour

Research evidence indicated that sufferers from workplace sexual harassment vary in terms of their job-related outcomes. For the same incidents, some of them may experience large adverse effects on their job performance, whereas others may encounter insignificant effects (Kath, Swody, Magley, Bunk, & Gallus, 2009). This suggests that the relationship between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive behaviour may be far from being straightforward. Some personality factors are expected to play a moderating role in the relationship between workplace sexual harassment and job-related consequences.

Fitzgerald and her colleagues have manipulated sexual harassment as a particular type of job stressor. Accordingly, they argues that coping mechanisms may moderate sexual harassment effects. (Fitzgerald, Hulin, & Drasgow, 1994; Fitzgerald, Gelfand, & Drasgow, 1995; Fitzgerald, Drasgow, Hulin, Gelfand, & Magley, 1997). In general, coping includes any mental or behavioural efforts used to alleviate the effects of a stressor (Lazarus & Folkman 1984), such as sexual harassment.

Coping strategies can be, generally, classified into two main categories. The first category includes the types of coping that can be described as direct, active, approaching, engaging, confronting, externally focused or problem focused coping in which people who confront a stressful situation (e.g., sexual harassment) try to manage or change the situation. The second category, in contrast, contains the coping tactics that can be described as indirect, passive, avoiding, disengaging, withdrawing, internally focused or emotionally focused coping in which people who confront a

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stressful situation try to manage their feelings or thoughts about the event without dealing with the situation itself (Fitzgerald, Swan, & Fisher, 1995; Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Sigal, Braden-Maguire, Patt, Goodrich, & Perrino, 2003).

Knapp et al. (1997) proposed one of the most commonly comprehensive and well-cited model of coping with workplace sexual harassment. This model suggested a bi-dimensional framework of coping strategies. Based on how much support the victim looks for, the first dimension describes two aspects of coping: self vs. supported responses. While the second dimension, based on whether coping tackles the perpetrator or not, describes two manifestations of coping: self vs. initiator focus. Accordingly, four coping strategies can be identified. Avoidance/denial coping strategy is obtained by integrating self-response and self-focus (e.g., self-blame, quitting), social coping strategy is resulting from integrating supported response and self-focus (e.g., seeking social support from others), advocacy seeking coping strategy (e.g., reporting the incident) is obtained by integrating supported response and initiator focus, and finally confrontation/negotiation coping strategy is brought about by integrating self-response and initiator focus (e.g., confronting the offender directly).

Research has emphasised the significance of the stress and coping model to women's experiences with workplace sexual harassment (e.g., Ayres, Friedman, & Leaper, 2009; Cortina & Wasti, 2005; Kaiser & Miller, 2004). However, there is a conflicting pattern of results in this respect. Some researchers argued that problem-focused coping is related to better job-related consequences (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Pape & Arias, 1995), while others suggested that problem-focused coping is associated with higher risk of confrontation with the higher authority offenders and therefore may result in poorer job-related outcomes (Sigal, Braden-Maguire, Patt, Goodrich, & Perrino, 2003). Based on the previous argument, the second hypothesis can be formulated as follows:

H2: Coping strategies moderate the relationships between sexual harassment and counterproductive behaviours.

The conceptual model for the current study can be found in figure 1.

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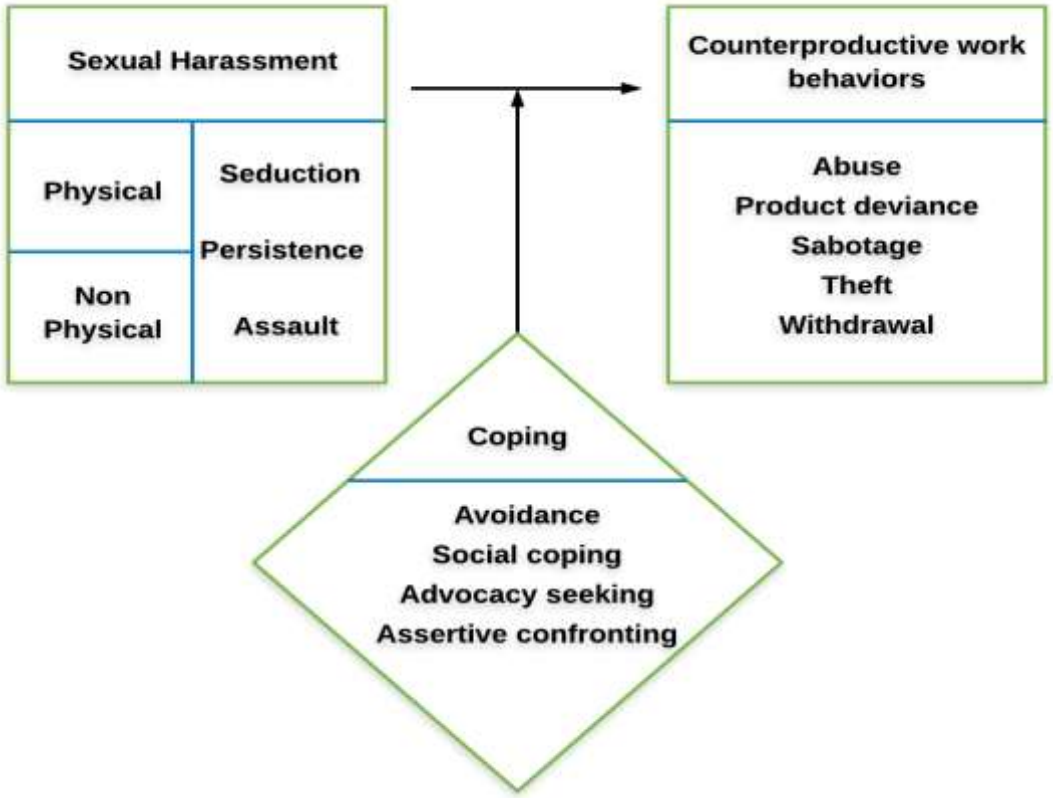

Figure 1. The conceptual model of the study relationships.

Method:

Participants: The target population in this study was the working women in manufacturing and service industries in Cairo, Egypt. Five private organisations and five public organisations working in Greater Cairo were chosen. The total number of permanent staff in these organisations was 4315 employees, and the total number of working women was 1942. A convenience sample procedure was used to recruit three working women. Only two hundreds and sixty of them responded positively with a response rate of (86.6%). Their main characteristics are shown in table1.

Table 1. Sample characteristics.

Characteristic	Description
Age	Range : 18-to-59 M = 31 ± SD = 8.5
Sector: Public Private	 58% 42%
Education: Postgraduate Bachelor High school	 19.2% 67.7% 19.2%
Organisational position: Entry level Middle management Top Management	 48.1% 31.9% 20%

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These characteristics indicate a reasonable mix of demographic groups represented in the collected data.

Measures: A three-part questionnaire was used to assess the study variables. Workplace sexual harassment was measured using a 53-item scale developed by the author (Mohamad, 2016) to measure six aspects of workplace sexual harassment, namely, physical seduction, physical persistence, physical assault, nonphysical seduction, nonphysical persistence and nonphysical assault (Bastian *et al*. 1996; Canadian Human Rights Commission 2006; Gelfand *et al*. 1995; McDonald, 2012). The frequency (how frequent in the last six months) and the intensity (how disturbing and annoying) of each item were measured on a five-point Likert scale. The score of each item was obtained by multiplying its frequency times its intensity. Based on the model developed by Knapp et al. (1997), four coping strategies with workplace sexual harassment, namely, avoidance, social coping, advocacy seeking, and assertive confrontation, were measured using a 20-item scale developed by Wasti & Cortina (2002). Each item was assessed on a five point Likert scale. Answers ranged from 1 (I never use it) to 5 (I always use it). Finally, five aspects pf counterproductive work behaviours, abuse, production deviance, sabotage, theft and withdrawal, were measured using a 32-item scale developed by Spector (2006). Each item was assessed on a five point Likert scale. Answers ranged from 1 (I never do it) to 5 (I do it daily). Moreover, demographic variables, including age, sector, education and organisational position, were also included. Descriptive statistics and reliability coefficient of these measures are shown in table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics and reliability coefficients of study variables.

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Cronbach's Alpha
Physical Seduction (PS)	47.97	29.96	.849
Physical Persistence (PP)	35.43	26.96	.861
Physical Assault (PA)	34.08	23.49	.837
Nonphysical Seduction (NPS)	56.88	34.34	.863
Nonphysical Persistence (NPP)	60.86	40.41	.848
Nonphysical Assault (NPA)	29.81	21.54	.836
Workplace Sexual Harassment (WSH)	265.05	160.86	.888
Avoidance/denial (AD)	15.43	4.83	.824
Social Coping (SC)	13.02	5.78	.838
Advocacy Seeking (AS)	9.28	5.30	.852
Assertive Confrontation (AC)	11.43	5.08	.863
Abuse (AB)	25.43	6.91	.871
Production Deviance (PD)	4.84	2.07	.755
Sabotage (SA)	4.45	1.87	.784
Theft (TH)	6.63	2.41	.826
Withdrawal (WD)	8.01	3/50	.819
Counterproductive Work Behaviour (CWB)	49.36	14.15	.861

It can be noticed that all reliability coefficients were reasonably high. Furthermore, to test the validity of the used measures, two procedures were used. First, the three-part questionnaire was reviewed by a panel of eight experts who assessed the content of each part and evaluated the appropriateness of this content to the Egyptian culture. The comments of all experts indicated that the used questionnaires are valid and culturally

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appropriate. Second, a confirmatory factor analysis, using AMOS 22, was conducted to confirm the factor structure of the used scales in the target population as shown in tables from 3 to 5.

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Table 3. Confirmatory factor analysis for workplace sexual harassment scale

Item	Physical Seduction		Physical Persistence		Physical Assault		Nonphysical Seduction		Nonphysical Persistence		Nonphysical Assault	
	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value
1	.696	13.54**	.643	12.78**	.587	11.83**	.788	15.11**	.673	12.67**	.527	11.56**
2	.568	11.52**	.585	11.87**	.583	11.76**	.665	12.14**	.793	13.25**	.765	13.87**
3	.673	12.88**	.722	14.12**	.865	16.26**	.743	13.88**	.704	12.89**	.647	12.24**
4	.547	11.21**	.554	11.33**	.782	15.11**	.653	12.21**	.673	12.63**	.667	12.69**
5	.589	11.83**	.752	14.35**	.805	15.63**	.815	17.36**	.789	13.18**	.677	12.87**
6	.570	11.61	.535	10.87**	.665	12.65**	.755	14.47**	.647	12.63**	.784	13.54**
7	.603	11.92	.674	12.92**	.597	11.84**	.564	11.72**	.673	12.84**	.654	12.31**
8	.583	11.76			.744	14.35**	.632	12.68**	.668	12.71**	.668	12.66**
9	.612	12.11					.675	12.98**	.598	11.91**		
10	.768	14.88					.742	13.27**	.564	11.34**		

Table 4. Confirmatory factor analysis for coping strategies with workplace sexual harassment scale

Item	Avoidance/denial		Social Coping		Advocacy Seeking		Assertive Coping	
	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value
1	.702	13.56**	.654	12.44**	.666	12.53**	.654	12.48**
2	.657	12.53**	.673	12.56**	.675	12.62**	.663	12.63**
3	684	12.78**	.659	12.48**	.643	12.29**	.672	12.87**
4	.678	12.67**	.687	12.84**	.651	12.24**	.648	12.29**
5	.584	11.88**	.723	13.86**				
6	.612	12.47**	.684	12.73**				

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Table 5. Confirmatory factor analysis for counterproductive work behaviours

Item	Abuse		Theft		Withdrawal		Sabotage		Production Deviance	
	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value	Estimate	t-value
1	.565	11.56**	.625	12.87**	.631	12.13**	.644	12.56**	.731	13.56**
2	.576	11.69**	.593	12.22**	.670	12.45**	.665	12.62**	.655	12.88**
3	.559	11.58**	.579	11.92**	.643	12.28**	.679	12.77**	.705	13.23**
4	.672	12.66**	.623	12.81**	.658	12.37**				
5	.593	11.92**	.597	12.31**						
6	.643	12.28**								
7	.650	12.37**								
8	.594	11.98**								
9	.610	12.15**								
10	.615	12.28**								
11	.554	11.51**								
12	.586	11.87**								
13	.603	12.09**								
14	.635	12.21**								
15	.580	11.77**								
16	.543	11.43**								
17	.562	11.61**								

It can be shown from the confirmatory factor analysis results that all questionnaire parts have significant factor loadings on their latent variables. The fit indices for these factor structures are shown in table 6.

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Table 6. Fit indices for the factor structures of the used instruments

Variable	CMIN/DF	GFI	AGFI	NFI	CFI	RMSEA
Physical Seduction (PS)	1.987	.981	.977	.978	.975	.043
Physical Persistence	2.112	.973	.967	.971	.972	.051
Physical Assault (PA)	2.061	.979	.972	.977	.976	.049
Nonphysical Seduction	1.892	.985	.981	.984	.982	.041
Nonphysical Persistence	1.877	.988	.983	.986	.984	.039
Nonphysical Assault	2.224	.971	.966	.969	.970	.052
Avoidance/denial (AD)	2.115	.975	.972	.974	.972	.051
Social Coping (SC)	2.234	.969	.964	.967	.968	.052
Advocacy Seeking (AS)	2.461	.961	.959	.960	.961	.054
Assertive Confrontation	2.443	.964	.960	.963	.962	.052
Abuse (AB)	1.363	.982	.974	.977	.981	.033
Production Deviance	2.225	.965	.958	.962	.964	.049
Sabotage (SA)	2.257	.966	.961	.963	.965	.051
Theft (TH)	2.314	.968	.963	.966	.967	.054
Withdrawal (WD)	2.138	.965	.958	.962	.965	.052

As shown in the previous table, all fit indices were above the recommended level of acceptance. Accordingly, it can be concluded that the factor structures of the used instruments are confirmed in the target population.

Data collection procedures*:* Participants were approached in their workplace and were asked to complete the questionnaire. Before completing the questionnaire, all participants were assured that their participation was voluntary, and anonymity was guaranteed. Latin square procedure was used to control the order of presenting the three-part questionnaire and to minimise the common method bias.

Results:

To test the first hypothesis, assuming that there are significant positive relationships between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours, Pearson correlation coefficient were calculated as shown in table 7. It was shown that all correlation coefficients between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive behaviours were significant with 99 per cent confidence. Accordingly, the first hypothesis is sustained.

Table 7. Pearson correlation coefficients between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours.

	Abuse	Production deviance	Sabotage	Theft	Withdrawal	CWB
Physical Seduction (PS)	.627**	.516**	.535**	.497**	.565**	.587**
Physical Persistence (PP)	.590**	.444**	.443**	.391**	.479**	.493**
Physical Assault (PA)	.646**	.486**	.562**	.471**	.556**	.587**
Nonphysical Seduction	.565**	.451**	.403**	.393**	.543**	.525**
Nonphysical Persistence	.567**	.490**	.453**	.379**	.584**	.556**
Nonphysical Assault	.559**	.444**	.530**	.432**	.477**	.521**
Workplace sexual harassment	.567**	.478**	.465**	.422**	.478**	.511**

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Correlation coefficient is significant at 0.01 level

To test the second hypothesis, assuming that coping strategies moderate the relationship between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours, a multiple regression procedure was applied using the standardised scores of workplace sexual harassment total score, counterproductive behaviours total score and the interaction between them as independent variables as shown in tables from 8 to 11.

Table 8. Multiple regression analysis to test the moderation effect of avoidance denial coping strategy.

Independent variables	Regression coefficient	t-value	R-square	F
Z-WSH	9.66	14.89**	.465	74.29**
Z-AD	-.372	-.584		
Interaction	.089	.136		

** Coefficient is significant at .01 level, CWB is the independent variable

Table 9. Multiple regression analysis to test the moderation effect of social coping strategy.

Independent variables	Regression coefficient	t-value	R-square	F
Z-WSH	8.99	13.55**	.492	82.71**
Z-SC	-2.34	-3.53**		
Interaction	.991	.719		

** Coefficient is significant at .01 level, CWB is the independent variable

Table 10. Multiple regression analysis to test the moderation effect of assertive confrontation coping strategy.

Independent variables	Regression coefficient	t-value	R-square	F
Z-WSH	9.73	14.63**	.467	74.88**
Z-AC	-.266	-.386		
Interaction	.829	1.16		

** Coefficient is significant at .01 level, CWB is the independent variable

Table 11. Multiple regression analysis to test the moderation effect of advocacy seeking coping strategy.

Independent variables	Regression coefficient	t-value	R-square	F
Z-WSH	9.42	14.77**	.493	82.87**
Z-AS	-2.36	-3.65**		
Interaction	1.096	1.52		

** Coefficient is significant at .01 level, CWB is the independent variable

The multiple regression analyses indicated that there were no significant interactions between workplace sexual harassment and different coping strategies. Therefore, the second hypothesis is rejected with confidence level of 99 per cent.

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Discussion:

Workplace sexual harassment is a form of violence against women that creates an environment that is threatening, antagonistic, demeaning and humiliating with the underlying risk of further and increasing violence. In this way, it may impair the performance of working women and can result in increasing counterproductive work behaviours (Amnesty International, 2015).

The current research tried to add to our understanding of the relationships between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours by examining the moderating role of coping strategies to such relationships. The results of the current study indicate that there are significant positive relationships between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours. However, the moderating roles of coping strategies were not sustained.

The backfire theory suggests that if a specific behaviour (e.g. workplace sexual harassment) is perceived as unfair, or violates social standards, it has the capacity to trigger aggressive behaviours and subsequently backfire (e.g., by being involved in counterproductive way) on the offender (McDonald & Backstrom, 2008; Scott & Martin, 2006). Moreover, the social exchange theory (Blau, 1964) indicated that some individuals may quit work or withdraw from their jobs when they perceive the failure of their organisations to stop or prevent sexual harassment (Magley, et al., 1999). In addition, belongingness theory argued that victims of sexual harassment may feel excluded or socially rejected, which may threaten their belongingness and can result in higher levels of counterproductive work behaviours (DeWall, Twenge, Gitter, & Baumeister, 2009).

Furthermore, the positive relationships between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours are supported by a significant body of empirical research. In the military context, Pryor (1995) found significant relationship between workplace sexual harassment and declined quality and quantity of work, lack of overall fitness for service, poor teamwork, and negative attitudes toward the job. Moreover, customer sexual harassment appeared to be associated with being less friendly to customers, avoiding or ignoring them, losing interest in work, maintaining low performance levels, and quitting or transferring (Gettman & Gelfand 2007; Hughes & Tadic, 1998; Morganson & Major 2008). Moreover, it seems that victims of workplace sexual harassment have strong intentions to react destructively towards their work setting (Fitness, 2000; Gruber & Smith, 1995).

As for the moderating effect of coping strategies with respect to the relationships between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours, the current study failed to sustain it. It seems that the effects of workplace sexual harassment on counterproductive work behaviours are too intense to be moderated by the victim's individual coping strategy.

Workplace sexual harassment is associated with counterproductive work behaviours regardless of the individual's coping strategies. Although some researchers argued that confrontive, problem-focused coping is related with better job-related consequences (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984; Pape & Arias, 1995), other researchers had indicated that problem-focused coping is also associated with higher risk of retaliation by the offender (Sigal, Braden-Maguire, Patt, Goodrich, & Perrino, 2003) and therefore may result in poor work-related outcomes. When the victim is in a low power position in the

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organisation, adopting assertive coping strategies can endanger her occupational status and development opportunities. Coles (1986) found that firing or resignation were the outcomes of formally reporting sexual harassment complaints of many victims. Moreover, Stockdale (1998) found that women employees who suffered from frequent workplace sexual harassment and who used assertive coping tactics were more likely to experience poor job-related outcomes. Avoiding, emotion-focused coping, on the other hand, is also associated with counterproductive work behaviours since it is correlated with a higher risk of revictimisation and consequently poor job-related outcomes (Iverson et al., 2013).

Limitations and future research:

Although the current study has some important contributions to the extant literature of workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours in Egypt, it has, like any other study, some limitations that are worth noting. First, the sample size is a typical concern of many research. Different results may be obtained from a larger or a more diverse sample.

Second, cross-sectional data was used in the current research, accordingly, detecting causal relationships is not possible. Moreover, it is argued that workplace sexual harassment may result in counterproductive work behaviours, however, it is also possible that women's counterproductive behaviours may shape the work environment that trigger sexual harassment. Therefore, using longitudinal panel data may be important to help untangle the chronological sequence of workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours.

Third, although the sample used in the current research was fairly large and reasonably heterogeneous, one limitation of the generalisability of the results to the whole population of Egyptian working women concerns the place in which data were collected. All data collection had taken place in Greater Cairo (The capital). Therefore, collecting data from different governorates from upper and lower Egypt is necessary for assuring the generalisability of results.

Finally, the current study did not take into account the various organisational factors that may exist in the culture of the organisations that may allow or prevent workplace sexual harassment.

Conclusion:

Given the prevalence of sexual harassment in Egypt, the current research tried to tackle the relationships between workplace harassment and counterproductive work behaviours. Our findings highlighted the significant positive relationships between sexual harassment and counterproductive work behaviours. Moreover, the findings indicated that these relationships are substantial regardless of the coping strategies used by victims. Different coping strategies did not moderate the relationships between workplace sexual harassment and counterproductive behaviours. It is suggested, therefore, that more institutionalised combating efforts are needed to prevent sexual harassment and its negative work-related outcomes.

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