

An Exploratory Study on the Perceived Prevalence and Effect of Sexual Attraction in the South African Workplace

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"A good teacher is like a candle - it consumes itself to light the way for others."

Author Unknown

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"Praise the bridge that carried you over." George Colman

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"Love has no desire but to fulfill itself. To melt and be like a running brook that sings its melody to the night. To wake at dawn with a winged heart and give thanks for another day of loving." Kahlil Gibran

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"If you want children to keep their feet on the ground, put some responsibility on their shoulders." Abigail Van Buren

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"You can kiss your family and friends good-bye and put miles between you, but at the same time you carry them with you in your heart, your mind, your stomach, because you do not just live in a world but a world lives in you." Frederick Buechner

"Time is too slow for those who wait, too swift for those who fear, too long for those who grieve, too short for those who rejoice, but for those who love, time is eternity." Henry Van Dyke

CONTEXT RELATED QUOTES TO CONTEMPLATE

“You taught me to be nice, so nice that now I am so full of niceness, I have no sense of right and wrong, no outrage, no passion.”

Garrison Keillor

“I take it as a prime cause of the present confusion of society that it is too sickly and too doubtful to use pleasure frankly as a test of value. “

Rebecca West

“The total history of almost anyone would shock almost everyone.”

Mignon McLaughlin

“The heart has its reasons that reason knows nothing of.”

Blaise Pascal

“To know when to go away and when to come closer is the key to any lasting relationship.”

Doménico Cieri Estrada

“Friends can be said to “fall in like” with as profound a thud as romantic partners fall in love. “

Letty Cottin Pogrebin

“Platonic love is love from the neck up.”

Thyra Smater Winsolow

“Lust is easy. Love is hard. Like is most important.”

Carl Reiner

“Let us be grateful to people who make us happy, they are the charming gardeners who make our souls blossom.”

Marcel Proust

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ABSTRACT

THE PERCEIVED PREVALANCE AND EFFECTS OF SEXUAL ATTRACTION IN THE SOUTH AFRICAN WORKPLACE

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South African organisations face increasing diversification of the workforce, with the concomitant benefits and potential challenges thereof. Along with the traditional approaches towards the management of diversity, less conventional areas have yet to be explored within the South African context. One such area is that of sexual attraction in the workplace. With the growing need for organisations to become employers of choice, to create organisational competitive advantage and optimally leverage their human capital it is becoming evident that acknowledgment of innate humanity is essential.

The question under exploration was to determine what the perceptions surrounding the prevalence and effects of sexual attraction in the South African workplace are. Employees are human beings, human beings are essentially sexual in nature and therefore it can be said that sexuality and all its composite elements are present in and acting upon organisations. The researcher focused exclusively on self-reported perceptions and experiences surrounding this phenomenon in the workplace, including its perceived effects on productivity; communication; job performance; job involvement; job satisfaction, stress; sexual harassment; morale; the individual and the workgroup. In addition the perceived roles of management in regulating sexual attraction as well as potential perceived motives underlying its initiation in organisations were also explored. The research explored and described differences with regards to these areas of organisational life in respect of age groups; gender; marital status; relationship status; experience of sexual attraction; awareness of sexual attraction and workplace rendezvous experiences.

A self-administered questionnaire was designed specifically for the study by the researcher and was used to gain feedback from 155 respondents in numerous fields and organisations through a mixed methods sampling technique. Analysis of data was statistical in nature, including detailed descriptive or frequency distributions; correlations and inferential statistics.

The research yielded substantial results with regards to perceptions of sexual attraction in the South African workplace, with numerous implications for management and Human Resource practitioners abounding. Sexual attraction in the workplace is perceived to be a prevalent organisational condition amongst respondents with findings revealing that it is viewed as inevitability in the workplace. Personal experience of sexual attraction was alluded to by the majority of respondents. In addition, various organisational factors, such as proximity, similarity and ongoing work requirements were confirmed as having a perceived influence on the prevalence of sexual attraction amongst co-workers. This linked with findings and existing research with regards to aspects of diversity in the workplace, particularly similarity of moral values.

In line with the body of literature, elements underlying sexual attraction were divergent, indicating that attraction is individual specific. Younger respondents indicated that they found physical elements of their co-workers attractive, which was less the case for the older respondent group.

When evaluating findings on the perceived effects of sexual attraction in the workplace it was evident that respondents felt that sexual attraction had a slight positive effect on productivity. Significant differences were observed between age groups as well as personal experience of sexual attraction on this construct. Interestingly, sexual attraction was perceived to have a positive effect on job involvement by respondents, with differences observed due to age groups and amongst individuals whom had been previously sexually attracted to a colleague and those whom had not. Gender differences were also observed herein, with females having higher perceived positive effects on job involvement.

Job satisfaction was perceived to be positively affected by sexual attraction in the workplace by respondents. Significant differences between age groups as well as with regards to marital statuses and relationship statuses were also found with regards to this construct. Mixed perceptions existed around the influence of sexual attraction on the experience of stress, with a respondents age group found to have an influence thereon. In addition thereto, a respondent's marital status also made a difference in this regard. Generally the findings concurred with the available literature on the topic. Moreover, the general affects of sexual attraction on the individual involved in this workplace dynamic were fairly positively perceived by respondents. This finding was evidenced to be influenced to some extent by respondents' experience of prior sexual attraction to a colleague; age; relationship status and marital status. The latter was found to have the largest influence in this regard.

Sexual attraction was perceived by respondents to have a negative effect on communication and job performance. The perception of the latter was found to be significantly different

between individuals whom had been aware of sexual attraction in the workplace and those whom had not indicated that this was the case; as well as with respondents whom reported prior sexual attraction to a colleague having higher perceived positive influences thereof on job performance. Age was also found to be an influential factor on perceptions surrounding job performance. Morale was found to be slightly negatively affected due to sexual attraction according to reported perceptions of respondents. The majority of respondents were inclined to feel that sexual harassment is an important organisational issue, yet the effects of sexual attraction thereupon may not be as negative as one might have thought. Prior sexual attraction to a colleague was found to have an influence on respondent perceptions of sexual harassment, as did the length of marriage for married respondents.

Most respondents perceived sexual attraction to have more of a negative effect on the workgroup surrounding the sexually attracted individuals. Influencing variables in this regard were respondent age and marital status. In addition, motives underlying sexual attraction were negatively perceived by respondents. Marital status was found to have an influence on respondent perceptions of sexual attraction motives.

Findings revealed that respondents in general felt that management has some form of role to play in the regulation of this workplace dynamic. However, the vast majority of respondents felt that it was the responsibility of the individual employee to manage their own sexual attraction in the workplace. Differences in this perception were found between males and females; age groups as well as the length of marriages of married respondents.

The research established that sexual attraction is a prevalent condition in South African organisations. Moreover, substantial effects of sexual attraction were reported on various important areas of organisational functioning.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction and Background

Sexual attraction is commonplace in the work environment, having substantial effects on organisations and group dynamics through its affect on productivity and job satisfaction, amongst others. The value of exploring this topic cannot be understated, as *“sexuality is deeply intertwined with cultural values and organizational politics and most people lack both understanding of and ability to cope with the issue”* (Quinn & Lees, 1984:44). Sexual attraction shapes our thinking and behaviour in order to attract and maintain the relationships we want with certain others, which is echoed in the works of others (Tesser, 1995) thereby contributing towards diversity in the workplace. It expands beyond the visible characteristics of diversity such as sexual orientation, race, gender and physical attractiveness and includes the less visible aspects such as personality, background, values and desires (Ivancevich and Gilbert, 2000; Moore, 1999).

Diversity management as a discipline has received substantial attention in recent years, particularly in South Africa. The work and social environment in South Africa is highly unique with citizens often being referred to as part of the “Rainbow Nation”. With 11 official languages, multiple cultures, races and religions it has probably been thought at some point or the other that every aspect of diversity has been covered. Diversity could also be inferred in South African legislation, with the Employment Equity Act 55 of 1998 prohibiting discrimination against individuals based on their differences from the prevailing norm. This prohibition extends to any arbitrary discrimination but more specifically prohibits discrimination on the basis of race; gender; sex; pregnancy; marital status; family responsibility; ethnic or social origin; colour; sexual orientation; age; disability; religion; HIV status; conscience; belief; political opinion; culture; language or birth. When evaluating these categories for the prohibition of unfair discrimination, it is clear that diversity management has taken its lead from those categories provided and attempted to ensure that discrimination on the basis of differences does not occur through the valuing of diversity.

With the first democratic elections taking place on the 27th of April 1994 in South Africa and the introduction of subsequent legislation, the workforce has become increasingly diverse. Prior to 1994 various social limitations were also placed on South African citizens, including

prohibition of mixed race marriages and separate entrances; ablution facilities; educational districts; entertainment and residential areas. With these barriers in place, the chances of encountering and becoming attracted to someone whom was not from the same walk of life as one self was unlikely. However, with the increasing diversity of the workforce combined with increased opportunities for interaction and a somewhat more westernised mindset, employees from many spheres and backgrounds came into the organisational social mix. The number of women entering the workforce has received substantial attention in this regard, and is covered later on in this paper. Yet it is important to note, that women are no longer purely administrative workers or secretaries. They fill high profile organisational positions and are more than capable of holding their own against their male counterparts in business. The roles of women in the workplace have changed and as a result the opportunities for men and women to become sexually attracted to each other in the workplace have increased.

Society in general has become less conservative in recent years, with a noticeable difference in behaviours being made. Dress codes and unwritten rules for interaction in the workplace have also changed substantially, with many companies adopting casual Fridays and not insisting on its employees wearing suits and ties. Women in turn are also dressing in accordance with the fashion machine driving most of popular culture, particularly in the case of younger females. This often entails dressing to emphasize ones assets and minimise any potential flaws. Together with the influence of hair make-up and fragrances, women could be viewed as keeping up appearances so to speak and being physically more attractive in the workplace. This is not to say that there is anything wrong with dressing well, on the contrary, well groomed personnel are visible ambassadors for their company. However, when considering that most young employees base their perceptions and feelings of sexual attraction upon physical appearance it is more and more evident that sexual attraction in the workplace is on the rise and will continue to do so for the foreseeable future.

Workplaces are primarily social centres, for many employees interacting with their colleagues and having their morning coffee together is an important daily ritual. The mind then begins to think of other social interactions that employees are exposed to in the workplace, including lunch meetings; team lunches; travelling due to work requirements; drinks after work; year end functions; client entertainment and team building events. When adding all of this together, with the extended working hours that most employees are faced with, it is clear that the people that most individuals spend the most time with are their colleagues. For many, the time spent with colleagues can be either enjoyable or just another part of work requirements.

This study focuses on the area of enjoying the presence of ones colleagues, in a fairly unconventional manner which is well known and seldom spoken about. Sexual attraction as

the basis for many mixed gender workplace relationships has been found to have various positive effects on individuals and organisations. In light of the current economic climate and recession it is clear that organisations may need to find new ways of motivating and retaining staff and of remaining competitive in both global and local spheres. One is not suggesting that sexual attraction should be advocated by organisations as a means of reward, but instead recognised as dynamic of human interaction which has motivational potential for those involved. The characteristics associated with a “more than friends yet less than lovers” relationship are similar to those of any deep, caring friendship. It could then be inferred that individuals committed in this “friendship” relationship may have more loyalty to the organisation in which they work and could even have positive effects on productivity of the individuals involved, should the relationship be well managed by the individuals concerned. The literature reveals that sexual attraction has potential effects on productivity; communication; job performance; job satisfaction; job involvement; morale; the workgroup and the individual involved. These are all explored in greater depth in Chapter Three.

The management of sexual attraction is a contentious issue, with various perspectives thereon existing. The type of action required by management would often be contingent upon organisational culture and values and the values of its employees. Various opinions abound with regards to the management of sexual attraction in the workplace. Some authors contend that sexual attraction should be stringently managed and policies put in place aligned with sexual harassment, essentially making the workplace an asexual environment. Others oppose this archaic approach and instead advocate an approach reminiscent of valuing of diversity wherein employees are encouraged to manage their own sexual attraction and the opportunities which this subsequently presents is harnessed by organisational management, leveraging the advantages that the celebration of this human dynamic creates. It is accepted that South Africa may not be as sexually liberal as America, which has initiated studies into sexual attraction in the workplace in the late 1970’s early 1980’s. The management approach adopted by these companies should therefore be customised to the individual organisational context. More on these recommendations are highlighted in Chapter Six, wherein the results of the present study are summarised and contextualised.

1.2 Purpose of the Research

Sexual attraction has both positive and negative effects on employees in the workplace; however it has not been explored due to numerous taboos and general lack of knowledge. Subsequently, sexual harassment is given too much attention as a diversity issue whilst ignoring the potential positive effects of appropriately managed sexual attraction. The study is a significant departure from current theoretical stances. It is an original and innovative approach to a very controversial and overlooked topic. As will be indicated in the literature review, the effects of sexual attraction are substantial and currently unexplored. This is somewhat concerning in that a potentially valuable (and potentially destructive) force is at work in the modern organisation. The aim of this study is to explore and describe the prevalence and perceived effect of sexual attraction in the South African workplace and to begin establishing it as a potential diversity issue. Currently there is scant empirical research on this topic, not only in South Africa but on a global scale as well. Furthermore the focus of most research pertains to the somewhat negative dynamic and issue of sexual harassment. Preliminary research has revealed the importance and impact of sexual attraction in the workplace; this is indicative of a need to begin exploring this topic. The results of this exploratory study could contribute substantially to both academic and business spheres.

In addition, this study aimed to provide the business community with initial insight into and awareness of the perceived prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace and the perceived effects thereof. Subsequently they will be better equipped to recognise and deal with the phenomenon in an appropriate and optimising manner.

In the field of Human Resources and/or Industrial Psychology the research aspired to expand the current nomenclature and knowledge surrounding sexual diversity; with an aim to establish sexual attraction as an integral part thereof. Human Resources Managers have an enormous influence on management and their interpretation and application of legislature (Schultz, 2003). Thus the ultimate aim of the study from the Human Resources/ Industrial Psychology perspective was to take sexual attraction out of the closet and move it away from sexual harassment in order for the full benefits of this inevitable occurrence to be harnessed; and the potential adversities mitigated. Furthermore, this study should stimulate further research to both explore and empirically establish the aforementioned topic as a diversity issue.

1.2.1 Research Questions

In light of the above, various research questions surrounding the topic arose. Due to time and resource constraints those which were most immediately relevant to the study were explored. The research questions for the study were as follows:

1.2.1.1. What is the perceived prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace?

1.2.1.2. What do employees perceive to be the effects of sexual attraction? Namely, do employees perceive sexual attraction to have an effect on:

- A - Productivity
- B - Communication
- C - Job Performance
- D - Job Satisfaction
- E – Stress
- J - Job Involvement
- G – Morale
- H - Sexual Harassment

1.2.1.3 Are there gender differences on (A) – (H)?

1.2.1.4 Are there age differences on (A) – (H)?

1.2.1.5 Are there relationship status differences on (A) – (H)? More specifically, will a participants relationship status (single, dating, married, divorced) yield different results on (A) – (H)?

1.2.1.6 Is there a difference between participants' marital status and (A) – (H)?

1.2.1.7 Is there a relationship between age and (A) – (H)?

1.2.1.8 Is there a relationship between the length of marriage and (A) – (H)?

1.3 *Layout of Research*

This document contains six detailed chapters. An outline thereof is subsequently provided hereunder.

Chapter One provides an introduction and rationale behind the present research study. Research questions are formulated and presented in this section of the document, together with the overall aim of the study being highlighted.

The theoretical background for the study is provided in Chapters Two and Three, with a conceptual and theoretical foundation of sexual attraction and review of available research being made. Chapter Two focuses on first defining diversity and creating the basis for the research argument of the topic at hand. Then the definition of diversity management is provided with the chapter culminating in an argument for the incorporation of sexual attraction into the diversity framework as a management issue.

Chapter Three contains a detailed discussion and presentation of the literature with regards to sexual attraction and its' differentiation from other related concepts. From this point the review identifies what it is that makes an individual attractive and the composite elements of sexual attraction are explored. Identified organisational dimensions affected by sexual attraction are explored and defined for purposes of this study. Thereafter, research findings revealing the prevalence and effects of sexual attraction on individuals, work groups and organisations are consequently examined and compiled herein. Specific emphasis is given to the effects of sexual attraction on productivity, communication, job performance, job involvement and job satisfaction. Other areas explored include morale and sexual harassment. This section of the paper culminates in the importance and orientation of sexual attraction within the diversity framework and a compelling motivation for the study at hand.

Chapter Four follows thereafter with the research approach; design and methodology being discussed. Theoretical standpoints and justifications for the chosen methodology are provided in detail, with all considerations made during the study design being highlighted. An indication is also given to the sample and respondents identified and the procedure for collecting and analysing the data obtained. The procedure behind the design of the questionnaire utilised, the Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction Instrument (PPESAI) is also provided in this chapter, with the necessary background behind questionnaire construction and design being highlighted where appropriate. The ethical issues of the study are then comprehensively discussed.

Chapter Five could be considered the main section of this report with a detailed presentation and discussion of the results of the study being presented herein. The findings obtained are consolidated, summarised and compared with previous research findings. Each construct of the PPESAI is presented item by item and is colour coded according to initial coding given during item construction to each scale.

Thereafter an integrated discussion of results with the available research as well as findings on other scales, correlation and inferential statistics is provided. Each scale or construct and its relevant findings are presented herein. Implications and consequences of the findings of the study are provided for management, the human resources management and diversity management profession as well as for the individual employee. Thereafter, recommendations for future research are also provided in text. Limitations of the study are also discussed. A conclusion is reached and final remarks round off the document.

CHAPTER 2

CONTEXTUALISING SEXUAL ATTRACTION

2.1 Introduction

When one hears about diversity issues in the workplace, the mind almost instinctively turns to thoughts about race, religion, language and gender issues and recognises that diversity has enormous effects on an organisation and society at large (Friday and Friday, 2003). Due to the increasingly even distribution of the sexes in the workplace, gender issues often come to the fore, however these issues usually pertain to the fields of women in the workplace and particularly, to sexual harassment. This is in fact viewed as traditional focus area of scholars in the field of diversity research (Murrell and James, 2002). So much attention has been given to sexual orientation and sexual harassment that other aspects of the diverse myriad of human sexual interaction have been, for the most part, ignored (Williams, Giurffe and Dellinger, 1999). The emphasis in this literature review is on mutual sexual attraction (whether or not in a romantic relationship), which is opposed to the unwanted and one-sided issue of sexual harassment. Sexual integration in the modern workplace has resulted in increasing frequency of interaction between males and females and subsequent increase in opportunities for sexual attraction and tension to develop (Pierce, Byrne and Aguinis, 1996). Moreover, as affiliation is one of the prerequisites for attraction to develop, organisations are natural breeding grounds for relationships to develop and sexual attraction to occur (Quinn, 1977).

Sexuality has for so long been frowned upon as taboo, as unprofessional and something which should be stopped (Schultz, 2003; Clarke, 2006; Quinn & Lees, 1984). This has resulted in organisations attempting to “sanitize” the workplace, making it essentially asexual, and shutting down harmless sexual attraction between and amongst organisational members. Management is concerned with the control of sexuality and intimacy in the workplace, primarily do to financial and public relations implications resulting from sexual harassment cases (Hurley, 1996). Considering that increasing numbers of employees are unwilling to leave their differences outside of the workplace, an organisations future sustainability and success in a boundaryless marketplace will in all likelihood be highly contingent on its ability to effectively value and manage diversity and aspects of diverse employees in the workplace (Friday and Friday, 2003). One aspect of diversity that should be addressed through Human Resources and Industrial/Organisational Psychology is the explanation and study of emotions in the workplace, considering that emotions and feelings

are central to the human experience and that most individuals spend the majority of their time in the workplace (Muchinsky, 2000).

It is the opinion of the researcher that sexual attraction is both an emotion and feeling which shapes our thinking and behaviour in order to attract and maintain the relationships we want with certain people, which is echoed in the works of others (Tesser, 1995), thereby adding to diversity in the workplace. It expands beyond the visible characteristics of diversity such as sexual orientation, race, gender and physical attractiveness and includes the less visible aspects such as personality, background, values and desires (Ivancevich and Gilbert, 2000; Moore, 1999). Thus it is proposed that sexual attractiveness could be as much of a diversity issue facing managers as are any other aspects arising from diversity.

2.2 Diversity Dynamics

2.2.1 What characterises diversity?

In order to conceptualise sexual attraction as a diversity issue in the workplace, attention first has to be turned to briefly defining diversity with an indication as to where the current topic fits into the diversity tapestry.

McLaughlin (1999:189) quotes James Livingston as stating that "*we need to treat corporations as scenes of ideological struggle, as sources and bearers of cultural meanings as well as of professional solidarities, as institutions through which most working lives are shaped-and therefore as appropriate objects of cultural studies.*" Subsequently the organisation or workplace is the context in which diversity is being approached in this study.

Diversity has become a dominant topic of public and academic debate due to the ever increasing trend of societies to evolve towards positions of increasing heterogeneity and the resultant need for individuals to work with multitudes of people different from themselves (Vinz and Doren, 2007; Iles 1995). Furthermore, it is evident that an increasing percentage of the workforce comprises women and minorities, wherein most of the focus on diversity currently lies (Murrell and James, 2002) and that the workforce is increasing in diversity along numerous dimensions (Jehn, Northcraft and Neale 1999)

Mounting emphasis is being placed on diversity, both within South African and International spheres. Various initiatives are being launched or are operational, aimed at increasing diversity awareness and the diverse composition of the workforce. Affirmative action, quota systems and Employment Equity are common organisational vernacular and are all aimed at rectifying past imbalances and by implication, increase workplace diversity. However, this

does beg the question: how much emphasis is placed on race and gender in diversity management and at what cost are other aspects of diversity ignored?

Numerous definitions of diversity exist from various different perspectives (Ashkanasy; Härtel & Daus, 2002). The Oxford English dictionary defines diversity as “being diverse, unlikeness, different kind, variety”. When defined very broadly, everybody contributes to diversity as all people are different from the majority in at least one way according to Bouville (2008). Subsequently, diversity could refer to anything from race to hair colour yet it is the emphasis placed on the aspect of diversity that causes and stimulates policy.

Friday and Friday (2003:863) chose to adopt the definition of diversity of Williams and O'Reilly (1997) as referring to “*any attribute that happens to be salient to an individual that makes him/her perceive that he/she is different from another individual*”. A very broad definition of diversity could be that of the Monsanto Agricultural group, whereby “*diversity refers to all those ways in which people differ and the effect of those differences on our thinking and behaviour*” (Hayles and Russell, 1997:12). Many organisations go so far as defining and explaining ‘all those differences’, but only refer to the fixed primary dimensions of diversity (Point and Singh 2003). Several authors on diversity (Lorbiecky and Jack, 2000; Ivancevich and Gilbert, 2000; Moore, 1999) contend that diversity is not only composed of fixed primary/visible dimensions of difference (age, ethnicity, gender, physical attributes/abilities, race and sexual orientation), but also encompass fluid secondary/invisible dimensions of difference (educational background, geographical location, income, health, parental status, religious beliefs, background, values, personality and work experience). It is also important to note that one element of diversity does not necessarily reflect any other diversity i.e. age does not necessarily mean that an individual has information diversity or a broader or different knowledge base to colleagues of a different age group nor does it implicate value diversity (Jehn et al 1999). Therefore each individual comprises multiple elements and dimensions of diversity, with a unique thumb print of the multitudes thereof existing for each person.

These dimensions help to distinguish the self from the other, to form a social identity based on the process where one categorises oneself and others by various dimensions of diversity (Ashforth and Mael, 1989 in Point and Singh, 2003). These categories form the basis for the various identities that people have, and some identities are more salient in certain organisational contexts than are others. This type of categorisation results in the inevitable formation of the ‘in-group’ and ‘out-group’ phenomena. The ‘self’ and social identity forms the basis of our thinking and behaviour and the way in which we shape ourselves to attract and maintain the relationships we want (Tesser, 1995). Our desires, social, and for that matter sexual identity are characteristics which pertain to the diversity dynamic and arising from this

we have the complex, yet utterly inevitable, aspect of sexual attraction. Sex and sexuality become incorporated into the cultural worldviews of individuals by the personal meanings and values they attribute to this factor of themselves; wherein it is abstracted to beyond its mere physical nature and can help an individual deal with core human fears (Goldenberg, Cox, Pyszczynski, Greenburg & Solomon 2002). By implication, this concept indicates that those individuals whom are unable to sustain faith in their cultural worldview would be concerned by their corporeality and by sex and the dimensions of sexuality (Goldenberg et al, 2002). These same authors mention that Freud and other clinical theorists have suggested that numerous neuroses emerge from an individual's inability to deal with anxiety associated with sexuality.

With any dynamic, such as diversity, positive and negative implications abound. In order to further embed this issue within the diversity framework, it is important to briefly examine the positive and negative consequences of diversity itself in the workplace.

2.2.2 Benefits of Diversity

Creativity in the workplace increases in the presence of a diverse work team; with more efficient and effective problem solving occurring; greater understanding of consumer and customer markets and; greater occurrence and utilisation of differing knowledge bases and viewpoints (Cox and Blake, 2001 in Haidt, Rosenberg and Hom 2003; Bouville 2008; Harisis and Kleiner, 1993). Some studies showed that diverse groups outperform homogenous groups facing the same task (Jehn et al, 199). A study conducted by the Michigan University revealed that students educated in diverse environments showed greater complex thinking and had a higher motivation to achieve (Gurin, 1999 Haidt et al, 2003:2). Moreover, organisations which foster and encourage the value of differences and diversity in all likelihood will stimulate creativity, learning and innovation enabling the organisation to have greater flexibility and adaptability as opposed to those institutions which stifle diversity. Findings in a research study by Jehn et al (1999) revealed that diversity alone was not enough to stimulate innovation but that the nature of the teams' diversity and their value similarity was essential.

A diverse workforce is also more likely to enable an organisation meet the needs and demands of its consumer market (Iles, 1995). Harisis and Kleiner (1993) also state that diversity makes the workplace more interesting and fun.

Viewing diversity from the perspective of diversity as "intrinsically good" (good in and of itself) Bouville (2008) states that in order to see the concept as such entails a leap of faith as opposed to rational proof. He further states, that whilst there may be benefits to diversity, these may only be marginal and realised in the instance of a "tie-breaker". Thus, all other

things being the same diversity may be the competitive advantage an organisation needs to break free from the pack. Rather, he argues that diversity is a means to an end, and is instrumentally good if it is conducive to “something good”.

2.2.3 Consequences of Diversity

Whilst the benefits of diversity are generally widely held, little empirical evidence thereof exists; with a need existing for organisations to have an awareness of the potential costs of diversity (Haidt, et al, 2003). Research has identified potential concerns arising out of a diversity focus, such as the identification or division of people into groups based on certain characteristics. Furthermore, individuals themselves are inclined to divide into groups resulting in an “in-group out-group” phenomenon culminating in elements of conflict (Tajfel, 1982 in Haidt et al, 2003).

Moreover, should diversity not be actively managed or valued in an organisation, tensions among employees can have numerous negative consequences, such as lowered productivity, low cooperation, high absenteeism and turnover, unrest and harassment lawsuits (Harisis and Kleiner, 1993). Cross cultural misunderstandings and conflicts are another potential concern arising from workplace diversity. Poor communication patterns and conflict has also been found to plague diverse groups more so than their homogenous counterparts (Jehn et al 1999).

Bouville (2008) states that the idea of diversity as intrinsically good is arbitrary, as nothing in and of itself can be viewed as completely beneficial. Furthermore, to discriminate and eliminate categories of diversity by implication indicates that diversity in the broadest sense of the word is based on opinion, and not fact, even if the opinion of the masses becomes law it is still subjective. Subsequently each case or instance of diversity needs to be evaluated to determine the “goodness” thereof, with Bouville (2008) highlighting the need for further research to determine which aspects of diversity are conducive to good. Friday and Friday (2003) argue that it is not the presence or absence of diversity that affects an organisations competitive position or success, but rather the ability or inability of an organisation to create and sustain a culture in which diversity is recognised, valued and managed effectively which will affect how diversity impacts the organisation.

Research indicates that there are different kinds or conceptualisations of diversity (Haidt et al, 2003; Bouville, 2008). Some of these areas or types of diversity are hereafter briefly discussed.

2.2.4 Types of Diversity

Numerous areas and dimensions of diversity are highlighted in abundance in the available literature. The list of dimensions could be re-ordered and prioritized in different ways dependent on the context and situation at hand and could be expanded upon endlessly as society continues to evolve (Vinz and Doren, 2007). This is not to say that because the “list is endless” that attention thereto is not warranted and subsequently those dimensions identified are briefly discussed herein.

Demographic attributes are “*those that are immutable, that can be readily detected during a brief interaction with a person, and for which social consensus can be assumed (e.g., sex, race, ethnicity, age)*” (Jackson, Stone and Alvarez, 1992:56 in Haidt et al, 2003:4). Demographic diversity according to Haidt et al (2003) can be defined as the state of a group when a substantial percentage of its members (20%, perhaps) fall into categories other than the modal category on each of the principal demographic features. Demographic features according to the same authors are socially marked aspects of identity that one did not choose and that cannot be changed easily. This includes race, gender, ethnic or national origin as well as the less emphasized, but no less important, “*social class, religion, sexual orientation, handicapped status and age.*” Vinz and Doren (2007) argue that these presumably fixed categories, such as age and gender, are in fact more amenable to change, open to redefinition and differing meanings. Jehn et al (1999) refer to these demographic characteristics as social category diversity.

Personal attributes differ and are those “*mutable and subjectively construed psychological and interpersonal characteristics (e.g., status, knowledge, behavioral style), which can change as a consequence of socialization processes*” (Jackson, Stone and Alvarez, 1992:56 in Haidt et al, 2003:4). This can also be seen as including individual identities and personalities (Vinz and Doren, 2007). Another dimension elaborated upon refers to interpersonal interaction and group composition.

Research findings with regards to **value diversity** indicate that congruent values between supervisors and subordinates positively affect job commitment and satisfaction (Meglino, Ravlin, & Adkins, 1989 in Haidt et al, 2003). The definition of value diversity can be further expanded to include moral values and work-related values. Jehn et al (1999) define value diversity as differences in perceptions of a group’s task, goal, target or mission.

Informational Diversity, a component already mentioned and included under the broader banner of “personal attribute”, informational diversity is given emphasis by Jehn et al (1999). They state that this aspect of diversity refers to differences in perspectives and knowledge

bases held by individuals in a work group arising out of educational, experience and expertise differences of each of the group members.

Moral Diversity, discussed by Haidt et al (2003:5), has particular reference for the current study. The authors define moral diversity as “*the state of a group when a substantial percentage of its members (20%, perhaps) does not value the most valued moral goods of a community*”. The authors elaborate by stating that moral goods are those “*social, personal, or spiritual obligations (e.g., justice, social harmony, self-actualization, piety, chastity) to which one appeals to justify or criticize the practices and behaviors of others, and which are felt to be binding on all people (or at least on all people in a particular role or position)*”; Shweder & Haidt, 1993; Shweder, Much, Mahapatra, & Park, 1997 in Haidt et al, 2003:5).

Research conducted by Haidt et al (2003) revealed that moral differences reduced desire for interaction amongst university student respondents more so than demographic differences. When considering romantic prospects, individuals were concerned about both demographic and moral similarities. Findings further indicated that social division may occur more so on moral grounds than on demographic ones. The conclusion reached indicated that “*There are different kinds of diversity, and diversity is valued differently in different domains. Debates about multiculturalism, affirmative action, and other public policy issues might be improved by explicitly noting the diversity of diversities*” (Haidt et al, 2003:31). The authors warned that whilst exposing people to moral diversity may have certain benefits that it is important for managers to realise that policies promoting moral diversity may have unintended negative consequences.

In an attempt to simplify the numerous aspects and dimensions of diversity, some authors have tried to condense these into “observable to less observable” (Sepehri and Wagner, 2002 in Vinz and Doren 2007) or “primary to secondary” dimensions of diversity (Loden and Rosener 1991, in Vinz and Doren, 2007). Plummer (2003) even attempted to exclude all aspects of diversity which are not considered “core” elements of diversity such as race, gender, sexual orientation, ethnicity, organisational role, age, religion and mental/physical ability. However these areas are those most easily dealt with or managed and subsequently overcome and numerous other important dimensions of diversity are subsequently excluded.

According to Bouville (2008) **descriptive diversity** entails the bundling of information or facts and a judgement thereof and without taking it to be correct or incorrect. This can subsequently be viewed as another form of diversity.

Diversity or the lack thereof is also viewed by Bouville (2008) as a conceptualisation of diversity, with the presence or absence of diversity being a hint at a deeper underlying

problem or a symptom. This aspect of diversity is referred to as **diversity as a symptom**. For instance, should an organisation employ predominantly white males the random dismissal of these individuals might increase the diversity of the organisation and get rid of the symptom, yet the problem is not addressed. The reason behind the symptom needs to be explored and addressed. In the case of the previous example, perhaps the organisation relies too extensively on an old-boys network or the company culture and reputation may not be desirable for other racial groups and females.

Bouville (2008) argues that in order for one to argue the diversity case of an initiative it should truly be done from a diversity stand point, as opposed to being slightly correlated with it. This is known as **diversity as a side-effect**. The example given by the author indicates that should an initiative aim at redressing imbalances and increasing equity, this is not driven from a diversity perspective.

2.2.5 Diversity Management

Numerous definitions of diversity management exist and continue evolve through the passage of time (Maxwell, Blair and McDougall, 2001). Diversity management for organisational success and change by implication is a strategic concept, aimed at creating multicultural organisations that are able to optimise and capitalise on the myriad of dynamics arising from a heterogeneous workforce (Vinz and Doren, 2007; Iles, 1995). According to Cox (2001 in Vinz and Doren, 2007:371) the ideal of the multicultural organisation is *“characterized by pluralism, full structural and informal integration, elimination or reduction of prejudice and discrimination, as well as a low level of inter-group conflict”*.

Stemming from Human Resource Management, Thompson (1997 in Vinz and Doren, 2007:351) describes the basis of diversity management as the *“recognition of diversity and differences as positive attributes of an organisation, rather than as problems to be solved”*.

Bartz et al (1990:321 in Maxwell et al, 2001:469) define diversity management as involving *“understanding that there are differences among employees and that these differences, if properly managed, are an asset to work being done more efficiently and effectively...”*

Diversity management can be seen as emerging from or incorporating two different perspectives. That which most individuals are familiar with is the equity perspective with the strategic intent behind diversity policies being to eliminate discrimination, reinforce equal opportunities and assist the establishment of the principles of fairness and trust (Vinz and Doren, 2007). This approach and emphasis is recognised as outdated, as its origins lie in political and social spheres (Maxwell et al 2001).

Recent trends in diversity management are focusing on the business perspective, aimed at organisational development and management of workplace diversity for economical reasons, as valuing diversity does appear to make business sense (Iles, 1995); however diversity needs to be effectively, actively managed to realise any of the potential benefits contained therein. Whilst diversity as a business concept does pose some advantages; diversity as an ethical concept is also important (Bouville, 2008). Bouville (2008) argues that diversity is ethical in nature only if it leads to consequences which are ethical in nature and if this is the case, then anyone can expect to contribute towards it. However, if diversity is only enforced as a business concept and an opportunity to make money only those directly affected and likely to benefit will be motivated to contribute towards and increase said diversity.

It is important that the terms valuing diversity and managing diversity are not used interchangeably, as they often have been in the past, as the two are separate concepts (Friday and Friday, 2003). Valuing diversity encompasses a more passive phenomenon, referring to the relative worth or significance of individuals' differences which may or may not lead to visible results, actions or reactions. Friday and Friday(2003) state that the management of diversity is a more active occurrence aimed at directing differences or diversity that individuals bring into an organisation in such a manner as to effectively reach organisational strategic goals.

According to Cunningham (2008:136) past frameworks for diversity have paid attention to the *“desired end state of diversity management strategies (i.e. cultures that value diversity and capitalize on the benefits that differences can bring to the organisation) but have largely failed to highlight the methods of creating such change.”* Friday and Friday (2003) state that whilst many organisations go about implementing diversity initiatives as part of an overall diversity strategy, not many do so in a planned strategic approach integrating the initiatives with the overall strategic organisational objectives. This may in turn be a factor influencing the relative ineffectiveness of most diversity initiatives (Stark, 2001 in Friday and Friday, 2003).

When evaluating organisational cultures relative to diversity, Doherty and Chelladurai (1999 in Cunningham, 2008) illustrate two possibilities; namely a culture of similarity or one of diversity. The culture of diversity is viewed as the desired end state, where organisations and their employees value and ultimately capitalise on the benefits that variation brings to the workplace by having *“a respect for differences, a tolerance of risk and ambiguity and a people-and future-orientation”* (Cunningham, 2008:136). Kozlowski and Klein (2000 in Cunningham, 2008) explain that due to the multilevel nature of organisations activities that take place on various levels will in all likelihood influence other or the same organisational levels and their outcomes. For example, an employee's attitude or prejudices could influence

the outcome or success of a diversity initiative. Similarly, one can extrapolate and propose that an employee's sexuality or feelings of sexual attraction towards other colleagues can influence group and organisational outcomes. The author warns that tackling such issues at a purely macro or micro level is inadequate as it is only through adoption of a holistic approach that the whole story can be told and understood (Cunningham, 2008).

The emphasis given in the literature to both management and valuing of diversity can be confusing. In order to clearly illustrate the concept, Friday and Friday (2003) discussed the diversity continuum consisting of a progression from passive acknowledgement of and valuing of diversity towards more active management of diversity. The figure below refers.

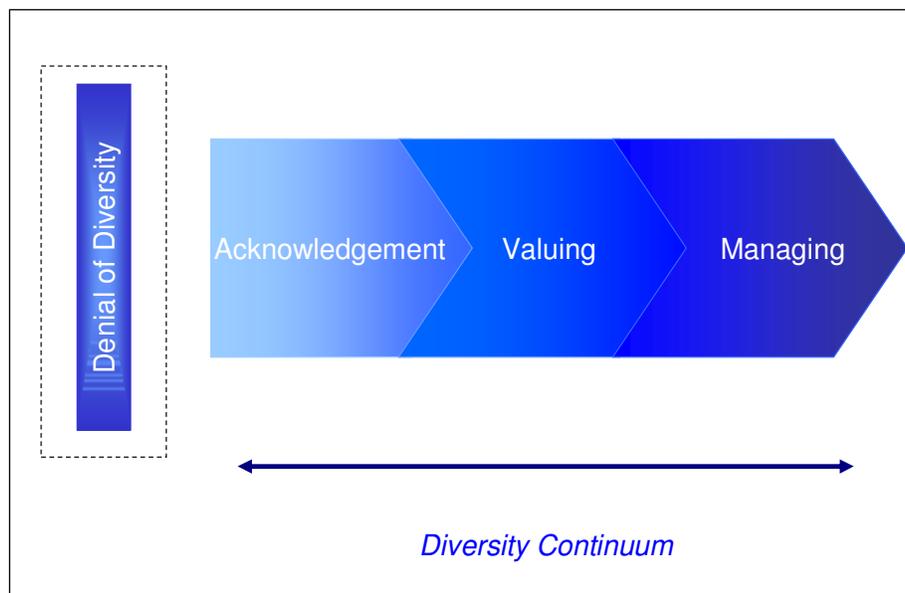


Figure 1: Diversity Continuum

According to Friday and Friday (2003), when confronted with situations in which one has to deal with diverse individuals people either deny the presence of any differences or diversity and avoid dealing with its' existence or they recognise it. This second possibility comprises the diversity continuum with three potential courses of action for dealing with diversity. The acknowledgement of diversity involves the recognition of the existence of differences in individuals that exist in a particular setting. The authors state that in order for true acknowledgement of diversity to occur the individuals need to go through the following steps/components of acknowledgement, namely: exposure to the aspect of diversity in question; experience of diversity; knowledge acquisition and understanding development.

In valuing diversity, individuals need to appreciate and have respect for the differences that diverse colleagues bring with them to the organisational setting. Liff (1997) contends that

valuing diversity is aimed more at the socially constructed aspects of diversity, such as gender and previously disadvantaged groups.

The last component of the continuum entails the management of diversity. Once differences are acknowledged and valued, they can then be effectively managed (planned, organised and led) to enable individual inputs to contribute to larger organisational strategic goal attainment (Friday and Friday, 2003).

Liff (1997) highlights various managing diversity approaches including: dissolving differences; valuing differences and; accommodating and utilising differences. In essence similar to the diversity continuum discussed by Friday and Friday (2003), Liff's (1997) perspective differs slightly in that the dissolution of differences is aimed at stressing individualism. This approach to diversity management involves moving beyond the physical, observable aspects of diversity to incorporate issues of communication styles, problem solving, management levels and work ethics with policies endeavoring to discover individual needs which, if met, could help them work more effectively. The organisation through the diversity policy then attempts to respond to employee needs through exploring manners in which to accommodate these needs and desires. Difference or diversity accommodation and utilization as described by Liff (1997) does not align with the ideal of managing diversity as it currently is viewed today. Accommodation and utilization, whilst important, does not necessarily include the creation of a workplace wherein all employees feel valued and optimally engaged in their work.

2.2.6 Sexual Attraction in the Workplace as a Diversity Issue

"The workplace variety brings with it the likelihood of sexual attraction. It is natural. It is inevitable, hard-wired as we are to respond to certain kinds of stimuli, although it sometimes comes as a surprise to those it strikes" (Eyler & Barindon, 1992).

Workplaces are social centres and sexual attraction is something which most people will experience in the workplace at some or other stage in their lives, and yet it is not acknowledged as a diversity issue (Hurley, 1996). Attention needs to be brought to the fact that people struggle not only with the task dimensions of working in a heterogeneous environment, but also with the socio-sexual aspects of it (Ashkanasy et al., 2002).

Sexual attraction and consequently the extent to which an individual is perceived as attractive may ultimately have an affect on the employees of an organisation, dependent on the culture of the company. Quinn and Lees (1984) propose that if sexual attraction and the

subsequent sexual tension are an important aspect of organisational life, then ones attractiveness can serve as a vital source of power and influence. This then has consequences for those individuals whom are not attractive, as they do not have the same advantages as their attractive co-workers.

In addition to this, as much as people do not like to admit it, people who have an intimate or sexually charged relationship, or who are more attractive than others do get more opportunities in an organisation. Conversely, if sexual attraction is perceived negatively and has harmful consequences, like sexual harassment, then it is often better to be “unattractive”.

The importance of the workplace culture is also highlighted as an organisational factor contributing to the effect and experience of sexual attraction within said workplace. This is indicated in the works of Traeen, Stigum and Sorensen (2002), namely that: *“Culture shapes sexual beings, and what is perceived as normal, natural, true, good, bad, right, or wrong is connected to culture-specific norms, rules, values, and expectancies”* (Traeen et al, 2002).

Traeen et al. (2002) describes sexuality as an aspect of diversity which in itself has many diverse components (sexual attraction etc.) which can be expressed through specific behaviours, attitudes, feelings, and preferences. As mentioned earlier, *“diversity refers to all those ways in which people differ and the effect of those differences on our thinking and behaviour”* (Hayles and Russell, 1997:12); therefore, it can be inferred that from the definitions provided of sexual attraction, that it encompasses all of these dimensions and could thus be a diversity issue. Moreover, sexual health as defined by Robinson et al (2001) encompasses numerous aspects of respect for diversity and further motivation for the inclusion thereof in the diversity framework. This definition is cited herein.

“Sexual health is defined as an approach to sexuality founded in accurate knowledge, personal awareness, and self-acceptance, where one’s behavior, values, and emotions are congruent and integrated within a person’s wider personality structure and self-definition. Sexual health involves an ability to be intimate with a partner, to communicate explicitly about sexual needs and desires, to be sexually functional (to have desire, become aroused, and obtain sexual fulfillment), to act intentionally and responsibly, and to set appropriate sexual boundaries. Sexual health has a communal aspect, reflecting not only self-acceptance and respect, but also respect and appreciation for individual differences and diversity, and a feeling of belonging to and involvement in one’s sexual culture(s). Sexual health includes a sense of self-esteem, personal attractiveness and competence, as well as freedom from sexual dysfunction, sexually transmitted diseases, and sexual assault/coercion. Sexual health affirms sexuality as a positive force, enhancing other dimensions of one’s life” (Robinson et al, 2001 in Edwards & Coleman, 2004:190).

2.3 Sexual Attraction

2.3.1 Sexual Attraction Distinguished

In order to establish sexual attraction as a diversity issue and provide solutions for managing it in the organisation, it is important to understand the continuum of sexuality and its role in relationships in the organisation. This section attempts to distinguish sexual attraction from those interrelated, overlapping and complex issues such as *sexual harassment*, *common sexual interactions*, *sexual energy*, *libido*, *sexual desire*, *arousal*, *emotion*, *passion*, *love* and *intimacy*.

Sexual attraction is ultimately what distinguishes a friendship or professional relationship from an emotional relationship which will influence interactions in the organisation, as will subsequently be indicated (Berman, 2006). It is important to note that sexual attraction in the workplace is also not limited to heterosexual relationships, but includes the homosexual dynamic as well (Pierce et al, 1996).

Individuals can and do make distinctions between *sexual harassment* and assault on the one hand, and pleasurable, mutually desired sexual interactions and relationships on the other (Williams et al., 1999:75). The key difference between sexual attraction and sexual harassment is that with sexual attraction, the behaviours are mutually agreed upon; the sexual advances and flirtations are welcomed by both parties (Brown, 1993:199). Various explanations for sexual harassment exist as highlighted by Terpstra (1997), including sexual harassment as a result of: biological forces or physical attraction (Tangri et al, 1982 in Terpstra, 1997); “*the exhibition of learned or conditioned behaviors that are in accord with existing societal sex-role attitudes*” (Henley & Freeman, 1975 in Terpstra, 1997:489); a conscious, intentional act by men to allow them to maintain their status or position of power or organisational characteristics (status and power differentials, sex-ratios and sex-role attitudes).

Distinguishing between sexual harassment and sexual consent, and understanding how behaviour comes to be labelled as consensual or coercive is not easy as they are interrelated and overlapping in a complex and context-specific process, depending on the individuals involved and their perceptions regarding sexual interactions (Williams et al., 1999). What can be said is that: “*Attraction is something that can be expressed in a thousand ways. Harassment is something an individual knows very well is intimidating, but carries on anyway. It's done to 'prove a point'*” (Sunoo, 2000). However, sexual harassment is beyond the scope of this study and these fundamental questions are not going to be explored.

Sexual interactions include a wide range of behaviours, including flirting with co-workers or clients, sexual joking, bantering and touching, and co-worker dating, sexual affairs, cohabitation and marriage (Williams et al., 1999). Sexual interactions can result from sexual attraction and the effect of these interactions on the organisation will be discussed in the following sections.

Sexual energy could become sexual attraction and research findings in Heinrich (1991) prove that sexual attraction which exists in effective relationships can be transformed into sexual energy. This energy, or vital impulse, often acts as the motivating factor underlying human behaviour, also referred to or defined as “*libido*” (Fisher, 1994). Sexual energy is also closely linked with *sexual desire*, sexual urges, lust and *passion*, the need to seek out or engage in sexual activities (Diamond, 2004).

Sexual desire is something which can be and is experienced at the same time as romantic love, yet the two are fundamentally different, having evolved from different underlying processes with *love* being a much broader concept and feeling than desire (Diamond, 2004). According to Diamond (2004) sexual desire differs in males and females and such differences may be due to biological and cultural circumstances.

Sexual arousal has been identified as an *emotion* and as such is difficult to conceptualise and describe, let alone measure. Research findings report that there is a substantial body of evidence suggesting that sexual attractions and ultimately sexual arousal occur with increased frequency during states of strong emotion (Singer, 1984).

Finally, what is meant by *sexual attraction*? The word ‘attraction’ derived from the Latin word meaning to draw was defined as ‘drawing another by exerting a powerful influence’ (Heinrich, 1991). This ‘power to influence’ lies in the fact that one or both persons are physically, emotionally, psychologically and/or spiritually drawn to the other whom is viewed as a potential mate or dating partner (Riggio et al, 1991). It ultimately involves feelings of intimacy, emotion, respect, passion, and incorporates sexual energy, sexual desire and arousal to some degree. This type of interpersonal attraction is further divided into attraction felt for friends and colleagues as well as “snap judgements” whereby initial evaluations are made about an individual and a culminating decision on their relative attractiveness (Riggio et al, 1991). Sexual attraction in the workplace is defined herein aligned with Pierce et al’s (1996:6) definition of a workplace romance and encompasses a “*heterosexual relationship between two members of the same organisation that entails mutual sexual attraction.*” Quinn (1977:30) echoes these sentiments, although does not refer explicitly to heterosexual relationships, merely defining organisational romance as “*a relationship between two*

members of the same organisation that is perceived by a third party to be characterized by sexual attraction”.

Interpersonally sexual attraction could manifest in:

- an intense passionate desire to be in the presence of the other;
- a shared intimate exchange of personal disclosures, affection and respect;
- pleasant emotional states such as need satisfaction, happiness, and sexual gratification; the warmth, empathy and caring characteristic of any deep friendship; and
- physiological arousal and the desire for sexual interactions such as kissing, touching etc., and in some instances it results in a consensual relationship reflecting positive expressions of sexual desire, (Brown, 1993; Heinrich, 1991; Pierce et al., 1996; Williams et al., 1999).

Sexual attraction is generally not manifested, for most, in romantic attraction in a work team and instead is the result of a “natural biological mechanism” (Eyler and Barindon, 1992b). Sexual feelings are natural and Quinn and Lees (1984) state that this phenomenon is implicit in most group situations, the workplace included. Hazan and Shaver (1994) define attraction as a desire to be physically or psychologically close to someone and state that not all attractions develop into relationships, concurring with Eyler and Barindon (1992b). However, the common denominator is the presence of a relationship, whether platonic; sexually charged or otherwise. Close relationships are among the greatest origins of subjective well-being according to Hazan and Shaver (1994); with the absence or loss of socioemotional linkages having detrimental effects on health (physical) and happiness (psychological) as well as job achievement and performance (organisational) (Baruch et al, 1983 in Hazan and Shaver 1994).

Moreover, it is important to delineate the *organisational or workplace romance* and the interrelationship with sexual attraction. Sternbergs (1986 and 1988 in Pierce et al, 1996) triangular theory of love encompasses intimacy, passion and commitment which in differing combinations result in five kinds of love important to take cognisance of in the organisational context. When considering the intimacy component alone, liking emerges and usually occurs in the beginning stage of a workplace relationship when two employees are getting to know each other. Infatuated love can also be described as “love at first sight” and immediate physiological arousal or sexual attraction to another employee, including only the passion component of Sternbergs theory. Romantic love involves employees whom are sexually attracted to each other and share an emotional connection. Fatuous love occurs when two employees are sexually attracted to each other and make the decision to commit to each other without considering intimacy or bonding. The type of love that encompasses all three

components is described as consummate love and is manifested in long term romantic relationships between employees (Pierce et al, 1996).

2.3.2 Elements of Sexual Attraction

2.3.2.1 Physical Appearance

Attractive individuals are generally evaluated more favourably and achieve more favourable outcomes than others (Riggio; Widaman; Tucker & Salinas, 1991; Ross & Ferris, 1980). Furthermore, those individuals whom are perceived as attractive in turn are also perceived to have positive personality traits as well as to be more successful in both their work and personal lives (Dion, Berscheid and Walster, 1972 in Poran 2002). However, slightly different results were obtained by other researchers whom revealed that attractive individuals (both male and female) were evaluated as having reached their status or position by virtue of their social skills, as opposed to competence (Wilson, Crocker, Brown, Johnson, Liotta and Konat, 1985). Yet, unattractive individuals were evaluated as low in both competence and social skills (Wilson et al, 1985). Poran (2002) stated that physical attractiveness is a major component of interpersonal interaction, beginning with a general perception held by many that “beauty is good” a concept explored by (Dion et al 1972 in Poran, 2002). Important to note, is that the perception of physical attractiveness differs across gender and race (Poran, 2002).

Beauty or ones *physical appearance* has for centuries been assumed to be the precursor to and instigator of love and sexual attraction. In the 13th century Capellanus proposed that the source of love was “visible beauty, and therefore those whom were deprived of sight were not capable of love. Furthermore Finck (1899 in Beigel, 1953) stated that the aesthetic component of an individual was by far the strongest of all ingredients of amorous attraction. However beauty is in the eye of the be-holder and according to Mantegazza, “*beauty appears the more perfect the more it arouses sexual desire*” (Beigel, 1953). Furthermore, the sheer volume of heterogeneous characteristics and features that are found attractive in others is well known amongst researchers (Hazan and Shaver, 1994)

Most authors covered in this section agree that people who like each other are apt to become sexually attracted if they evaluate each other’s overt body characteristics positively. Similarity in physical characteristics or features has also been shown to be a precursor of attraction (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). Attractiveness lies not only in facial structure, but in other aspects of an individual such as body attractiveness and ones clothes, hair and general personal grooming (Riggio et al, 1991). Ones hair is a “sexual flag”, and a good indicator as

to the state of one's health, especially for women; it is a very strong sexual signal (Etcoff in Gonzales, 2005).

Evolutionary psychologists state that both men and women evaluate symmetrical physical features favourably (Mestel, 1999); the rationale behind this being that humans evolved under numerous stresses and faced disease and parasites which affected development which is indicated by the absence of physical symmetry. Subsequently the hormones required for good disease resistance and a highly effective immune system could only result in highly attractive appearances by individuals whom were highly immunocompetent (Thornhill and Gangestad, 1996). Furthermore, symmetrical features (facial and bodily) are also indicative of high IQ's, by implication that the nervous system itself is also undergoing better development (Mestel, 1999; Thornhill and Gangestad, 1996). The ratio most commonly known is 36-24-36, or a hip to waist ratio of 0.7, according to Devendra Singh (Mestel, 1999) being one which is most likely to inspire men to be sexually attracted to a woman. The reason for this being that women with this hip ratio are not pregnant (which makes no sense for men to be attracted to women unable to bear their child) and are most likely to be near a reproductive age, are healthy and hormonally normal. Facial symmetry and body symmetry is generally preferred and evaluated a lot more positively by others than asymmetrical appearances (Thornhill and Gangestad, 1996).

2.3.2.2 Non-physical Attributes

Looking deeper, this multi-faceted construct includes attributes such as: nonverbal expressive behaviour, conversational skills, receptiveness and responsiveness to others, the ability to engage in honest and reciprocal self disclosure, extroversion and openness, expertise and knowledge (Beigel, 1953; Eyer and Baridon, 1992; Pierce et al., 1996; Riggio et al 1991; Ross and Ferris, 1980; Tesser, 1995). People are more disposed towards being attracted to those whom have a good sense of humour, whom smile frequently and whom are able to make them laugh (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). Riggio et al (1991) describe this type of attractiveness as "dynamic attraction", involving elements such as tone of voice; speech; facial expressions; physical movement; personality dimensions (extraversion and exhibition); basic communication skills (emotional and verbal expressiveness) and other perceptions made about an individual.

Men are often evaluated by women as being more desirable and attractive if they are able to display evidence of social status. This includes elements such as, popularity; material and/or monetary wealth and intelligence (Buss 1985 in Hazan and Shaver, 1994).

2.3.2.3 Biological Elements of Attraction

On a more biological and scientific note attraction has to do with hormone created appearances; tall, muscular men with strong chins and full-figured women with well-developed breasts and wide hips being deemed to be attractive (Dreher, 2001; Mestel, 1999). Oestrogen production in women is indicative of fertility, which manifests in these physical characteristics, as well as full lips and a small chin as oestrogen is involved in jaw production, making them smaller (Mestel, 1999). According to various authors, smell also has a lot to do with attraction; with pheromones, ones “unique odour” and the perfume people wear being attractive to the opposite sex (Dreher, 2001; Dobson, 2006).

Anthropologically speaking, human beings have been imprinted with the *mating behaviours* which have attracted males and females for thousands of years. This ingrained sexual urge thus has to be tamed in the workplace, where it is often triggered abruptly despite our relatively more sophisticated state; and which if kept unchecked could result in sexual interactions in the workplace (Eyler and Baridon, 1992b). Thus sexual attraction is completely natural; however it is assumed that as human beings are above lower-level animals they have the opportunity to make a choice as to how these hormones affect their behaviour (Dreher, 2001; Gonzales, 2005; Goldenberg, Cox, Pyszczynski, Greenburg & Solomon 2002).

2.3.2.4 Personal Preference

Once again it is reiterated that beauty is in the eye of the be-holder and admitting that someone is physically attractive does not necessarily entail sexual attraction or the need to enter into a relationship with that person (Eyler and Baridon, 1992a). There is more to sexual attraction than only physical and anthropological aspects. Research conducted by Paron (2002) revealed that 54 percent of women feel that beauty is a combination of ones personality and physical appearance with only seven percent of respondents indicating that beauty lay in an individuals’ physical characteristics. A commonly raised opinion in open ended responses was the influence of personal preference, and what may be beautiful or attractive to one person will not necessarily apply to others.

Attraction has also been found to be linked to the type of relationship that an individual is looking for and the underlying needs and desires that need to be satisfied (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). This is elaborated upon in the proceeding paragraphs.

2.3.2.5 Behavioural Systems

According to Hazan and Shaver (1994); behavioural systems have arisen in order to allow for important need satisfaction for both survival and reproduction. Types of behavioural systems important within attachment theory and the context of attraction include: attachment; care giving and sexual/mating. The authors elaborate by stating that within the care giving system an individual whom has a desire to provide care will be attracted by child-like features, vulnerability and self-disclosure of fear (indicative of distress) in others whom display a need to receive care or be cared for (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). Similarly, a person who has a sexual needs or desire gratification needs will in all likelihood be attracted to an individual whom appears sexually available and is physically attractive, although the latter differs across cultural contexts and genders.

Hazan and Shaver (1994) warn that misunderstanding and confusion can arise should one attribute noticing another's responsiveness; need to be taken care of or the extent to which they are a "turn on" to being in love. They state that responsiveness on the part of another does not always infer sexual interest or attraction and similarly sexual attraction is not always indicated by responsiveness.

2.3.2.6 Organisation as Filtering Function

Tesser (1995) elaborates on the fact that people are drawn to others who are similar to them - *similarity* in attitude, age, education, background, hobbies, religion and health. Pierce et al (1996) also reports a substantial amount of empirical evidence which suggests that the greater the proportion of similar attitudes shared between two individuals, the more likely they are to feel attracted towards each other. Research findings indicate that attraction to another person is likely to increase with familiarity, similarity and the likelihood of a positive response (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). This is due to an individual whom is similar to oneself, has a liking for another, smiles or makes one laugh is more likely to be perceived as safe and approachable and, in the context of this study more importantly, attractive. Moreover, individuals at work tend to be well dressed and groomed whilst conducting themselves well, generally putting their best foot forward so to speak and subsequently inadvertently making themselves more attractive to their colleagues (Quinn and Lees, 1984).

An interesting theory put forward in this regard is that an organisation acts as a filtering function, accepting individuals into employment whom are aligned with the organisational culture, thus selecting relatively like-minded individuals and thereby creating the potential for sexual attraction (Eyler and Baridon, 1992a; Quinn and Lees, 1984). According to Eyler and Barindon (1992) and Fisher (1994) people whom are similar in age, socio-economic status and educational backgrounds are thrust together by organisations and in this manner sexual

attraction in the workplace is ultimately inevitable as ultimately these individuals have the same values and aspirations. However, this is not to posit that all organisations stimulate sexual attraction amongst colleagues with Quinn and Lees (1984) stating that organisations differ in terms of facilitating environments conducive to sexual attraction. Some companies have strict norms, rules and standards prohibiting any intimacy in the workplace whilst others may seem to provide increased opportunities for interaction and cultivate sexual attraction.

Without “*the opportunity for interaction there will be no attraction*” (Byrne & Newman in Pierce et al, 1996), as propinquity was found to decrease social barriers and increase sexual feelings in work-related contexts (Pierce et al, 1996). Therefore *propinquity or spatial proximity* also plays a role; the closer the proximity of the individuals and the greater the intensity of the work interaction between them, the higher the likelihood that both parties will develop sexual attraction towards each other (Diamond, 2004; Mainiero, 1986; Quinn and Lees, 1984; Loftus, 1995). Three types of proximity were identified in research conducted by Quinn (1977), namely:

- Continuous geographic proximity based on positions of employees workstations with this being a factor in the development 63 percent of workplace romances;
- Proximity due to ongoing work requirements such as business trips, training, supervising and workplace social activities and events which was present in 77 percent of workplace romances arising in Quinn’s (1977) study; and
- Sporadic contact or temporary proximity.

According to Quinn and Lees (1984:36), these work relationships “*stimulate familiarity and sometimes lead to empathy, understanding and concern.*” Employees working near one another on related work tasks are more apt to interact and therefore, potentially become attracted to one another (Pierce et al., 1996). This description includes physical proximity or the actual distance between employees and functional proximity which refers to how easy it is to interact with each other on a project; with both forms having an effect on the likelihood of attraction and romantic relationships between employees arising. “*Work is becoming a major source of interaction ... physical proximity of working side by side, the stimulation of professional challenge, and the powerful passions of accomplishment and failure*” (Eyler & Barindon, 1992). The close working relationships that individuals are faced with also encourage the sharing of confidences and stimulate trust and familiarity development amongst colleagues. Moreover the development and implementation of the internet and internal company networks and email has taken proximity effect to another level as a precursor of sexual attraction in the workplace (Loftus, 1995).

Furthermore, research has shown that *repeated or increased exposure* to a colleague can lead to a more positive, or less negative, evaluation of that colleague (Pierce et al., 1996;

Zajonc in Hazan and Shaver, 1994). Also, in order for colleagues to establish effective and *productive relationships*, the dilemma exists that they become overly intimate, trusting and dependant, resulting in sexual tensions (Brown, 1993). Attachment theorists postulate that attachment in human relationships begins with proximity seeking, as attachments are hypothesized to develop in a context of physical closeness (Hazan and Shaver, 1994), tying up with the proximity dimension already discussed.

Quinn and Lees (1984) state that *power* can be an intimacy stimulant, with influential individuals being perceived as attractive. According to previous research conducted by Quinn (Quinn & Lees, 1984), in 74 percent of work place romances the man in the relationship holds a higher position in the organisation than the woman. The authors conclude that power and attractiveness have a major role to play in workplace relationships (Quinn & Lees, 1984).

Mentorships can lead to sexual dynamics playing out in the mentor-mentee relationship with the intensity of the mentorship relationship perhaps leading to sexual attraction (Hurley, 1996). Unfounded accusations often arise should a young woman's mentor be a male of a higher or more influential rank. This mentorship dynamic itself could be attributable for cross-gender sexual attraction in workplace relationships according to Hurley (1996). This theory postulates that gender or sex roles and assumptions are carried over into the workplace resulting in perceptions of colleagues being other than that of a co-worker. For example, a male whom does not view women as having a place in the world of work may associate a young attractive female co-worker with other roles of females in his life such as a daughter, sex-object, wife or lover.

Research conducted by Heinrich (1991) established that the *type of advisor/mentor* plays an important role in sexual attraction. Results indicated that advisors that take on a masculine approach (charismatic and confident, managing by means of a powerful personality and message) and Casanova-sex advisement (flaunts knowledge and utilise gestures and interactions laden with sexual innuendo) caused sexual tensions. On the other hand, advisors with an androgynous (asexual or genderless) approach to advisement (benevolent, warm, supportive and directive) were able to handle the energy constructively where sexual feelings and attraction was transformed into a nurturing, respectful, protective and professional relationship (Heinrich, 1991). Other research indicates that the development of a romantic relationship between female sub-ordinates and their immediate supervisor or senior peers is likely because women face more difficulties and barriers to mentorship relationships in organisations (Ragins and Cotton, 1991 in Murrell and James 2001). This concurs with a statement made by Sargent (in McLaughlin, 2002:209) that "*sexuality poses a special problem in the development of androgynous behaviour. When men and women work together, the issue of sexual attraction is always present. It may be ignored, but it won't go*

away. *Members of both sexes usually appraise each other sexually. They may or may not be attracted to each other, but the sexual issue is always there.*" The antecedents of sexual attraction in the workplace can be distinguished from factors that incite liking or interpersonal attraction and those that incite loving or romantic attraction; however this has not been fully explored and separated in available research (Pierce et al, 1996).

Some authors argue against androgyny, stating a basic incompatibility with androgyny and heterosexuality and that the gender gap should be celebrated instead of being bridged (Norman, 1994 in McLaughlin, 2002). The following comment by Norman (1994) clearly indicates this sentiment: *"Richness of variety -- there's a phrase sure to rankle all those culturally correct cooks stirring their sexless stews"* (Norman, 1994).

Sexual attraction can also stem from *work factors* such as time deadlines, competitive demands, success and performance, physical exertion, dangerous working conditions and other anxiety-provoking situations (Pierce et al., 1996:14). Singer (1984) argues that exposure to *anxiety* provoking work related tasks and highly emotional events can be misinterpreted as sexual attraction and physiological arousal. Nonetheless, anxiety has been found to enhance attraction and the desire to affiliate (Hatfield and Rapson 1987 in Hazan and Shaver, 1994). The rationale thereof lies in the intensification of a need to be near a person due to the anxiety provoking situation; within attachment theory anxiety is an indicator to "get closer".

2.3.3 Gender Differences

Numerous gender differences in perceptions and experiences of sexual attraction and elements thereof have been found in the available literature. According to Thornhill and Gangestad (1996) men place more value on physical attractiveness than do their female counterparts, although both consider it important. This concurred with other research findings, with males being more concerned for physical attractiveness and females for more personal qualities (Morse, Gruzen and Reis, 1974).

Interestingly the idea of sexual attraction forming the basis of a nonsexual workplace relationship is generally more easily understood and accepted by women than it is by men (Eyler and Barindon, 1992a). When considering potential gender differences in sexual attraction in the workplace it has generally been found that females are more opposed to sexual intimacy in the workplace than their male counterparts (Pierce et al, 1996; Pierce, 1998); however non-significant results were observed between gender and sexual attraction. Moreover, a study by Levesque, Nave and Lowe (2006) revealed that men think in more sexual terms than do women. However, the prevalence of the socialisation effect was

highlighted by the authors in that females may be socially pressured to not display sexual interest or underreport sexual judgements and perceptions (Levesque et al, 2006).

2.3.4 The Suppression of Sexuality

The inspiration for the present study lay in the fairly negative and restrictive views of sexuality that the researcher was exposed to in both academic and working contexts. Which begged the question, why should this prominent aspect of human behaviour and identity be ignored and what necessitated the prolonged restrictive stance towards the matter even in the fairly “liberal” society that exists today?

To answer that question it is necessary to delve into the roots of the status quo. The *suppression of sexuality* is a long standing religious and philosophical tradition that aims to elevate mankind above animals to a higher, more meaningful spiritual plane by espousing control over ones body, desires and emotions (Aristotle in Goldenberg et al, 2002). The ancient Greeks viewed the body and sexuality as obstacles to spiritual and intellectual development.

From an evolutionary perspective, Becker (1962 in Goldenberg et al 2002) argued that our primate ancestors required sexual restrictions and regulation due to group living and monthly menstrual cycles and the propensity for disruption to harmony and cooperation as result of numerous receptive women and arguments over access to them. All cultures and religions to this day somehow restrict and confine sexuality and sexual behaviour, although some to greater extents than others. Social deprivation in this matter has been identified as harmful according to Bowlby (in Hazan and Shaver, 1994:15) as it *“thwarts the satisfaction of inborn needs. Powerful emotional cues signal when these crucial needs are not being met, and the result is a subjective state of anxiety and discomfort.”*

This is not to say that some regulation and restriction is not necessary, far from it when we evaluate the negative consequences of sexual attraction. A study conducted by Goldenberg et al (2002) revealed that rules and restrictions over sexual behaviour protect people from dealing with the more “animal” side of themselves and the recognition that, like animals, they too have to face their own mortality. The authors recognised that restrictions arose and continue to propagate due to evolutionary and sociological reasons, which are not unfounded. The crux of the matter is the extent to which behaviour is regulated and the cost at which sexuality is ignored and denied. Sexuality and the recognition and valuation thereof is important to the health of individuals, both psychologically and physically according to Langfeldt and Porter (1986:5 in Edwards and Coleman, 2004:191) with their definition of sexuality succinctly explaining the importance of this concept; namely that *“[Sexuality is] an*

integral part of the personality of everyone: man, woman, and child. It is a basic need and an aspect of being human that cannot be separated from other aspects of life. Sexuality is not synonymous with sexual intercourse, it is not about whether we have orgasms or not, and it is not the sum total of our erotic lives. These may be part of our sexuality but equally they may not. Sexuality is so much more: it is in the energy that motivates us to find love, contact, warmth and intimacy; it is expressed in the way we feel, move, touch and are touched; it is about being sensual as well as being sexual. Sexuality influences thoughts, feelings, actions and interactions and thereby our mental and physical health.”

Sexuality has unfortunately been restricted and suppressed in organisations to the detriment of the study thereof (Riach & Wilson, 2007). Subsequently the study at hand aims to delve into and explore various attributes of workplace sexuality and attraction to better understand and manage this phenomenon in the modern organisation.

2.4 Conclusion

This chapter focused on defining diversity and sexual attraction within the diversity framework. The following chapter builds on this diversity foundation and expands the review of literature into sexual attraction in the workplace. Possible components of workplace attraction are explored together with potential benefits and consequences there upon.

CHAPTER 3

SEXUAL ATTRACTION IN THE WORKPLACE

3.1 *Prevalence of Sexual Attraction*

“Corporate romance is as inevitable as earthquakes in California”

Westhoff, 1985 (Pierce et al., 1996:5)

The amount of empirical research on sexual attraction in the workplace is significantly limited; with most interest and emphasis being placed on sexual harassment, the aspect of mutual attraction has been by and large ignored. Whilst society may regard sex as less of a taboo in recent years, substantial difficulties still remain with regard to collecting appropriate data on the presence of sexual attraction in the workplace (Mainiero, 1986; Pierce, 1998).

With the increasing numbers of women entering the workforce, it is only a natural assumption that the incidence of workplace romances and sexual attraction between co-workers will increasingly occur (Mainiero, 1986; Pierce et al, 1996; Eyler and Baridon, 1992; Jones, 1999; Quinn 1977; Riach & Wilson, 2007; Loftus, 1995). This is an obvious inference when we look at what sexual attraction is, how it is defined and the increasing diversity of the workforce. Pierce et al (1996) state that approximately 80 percent of employees in the U.S report having some form of social-sexual experience with their co-workers, which included “mutually desired, fun-loving and passionate affiliations” with nearby co-workers.

Workplaces are primarily social centres with one third of social relationships beginning in the organisational context (Hurley, 1996). Other survey findings indicated that about 60 percent of people are involved in at least one workplace “rendezvous” and 92 percent of them had been in a workplace where they had witnessed or been aware of a sexual relationship between other employees (Leonard, 2001). These findings should hardly come as a surprise; human beings do not abandon their sexual feelings at the door as they enter the workplace each morning and cannot be expected to do so (Quinn & Lees, 1984).

Sexual attraction can occur between co-workers on the same level, or between members of an organisation on different hierarchical levels (Jones, 1999). It can occur between colleague advisor-colleague advisee relationships and there may be situations where the mentor and protégé find themselves sexually attracted to each other (Heinrich, 1991; Brown,

1993). It should furthermore be noted that the presence of sexual attraction or romantic relationships does not have to be declared to the organisation or work group concerned in order for it to have an effect on the behavioural dynamics of the group (Mainiero, 1986). A study by Quinn (1977) revealed that a work group can pick up on subtle changes in behaviour between the individuals whom were sexually attracted to one another, even if they only suspect that something is going on. Subsequently romance and attraction at work is an organisational issue (Pierce et al, 1996).

Of concern, is the general tendency of management to ignore, suppress or generally avoid management of workplace sexuality (Quinn and Lees, 1984). Moreover, sexual attraction and workplace romances have long been viewed as wholly negative resulting in favouritism, fatal attraction and sexual harassment (Loftus, 1995). Whilst a quarter of cases reviewed by Quinn and Lees (1984) indicated that management intervention does take place, this was not linked with the severity of the involvement and subsequent workplace impacts. This could be explained by conflicting values and norms in organisational management as both managers and adults, the discussion of intimacy in the workplace can cause conflicting emotions and uncertainties on the part of management. After all, Quinn and Less (1984) argue, people have a right to privacy and their own sexual behaviour however employees still need to contribute to the organisation effectively and management needs to ensure the interests of the company are met and maintained. The antecedents and consequences of sexual attraction are best visually depicted in figure 2, adapted from Pierce et al (1996: 9). The components therein are discussed in greater detail in the remainder of this chapter.

It is important to note that the stage of the relationship in question is an important factor of consideration, with stage models of friendship postulating that as friendships evolve and individuals spend more time together and develop/gain awareness of more common similarities, intimacy will increase (Pierce et al, 1996). Subsequently individuals involved in casual relationships or friendships with colleagues are less likely to have developed an emotional bond and resultant sexual chemistry as more intense working relationships and friendships. These dimensions are discussed in greater detail in the sections to follow hereafter.

3.2 Effects of Sexual Attraction in the Workplace on the Organisation

Modern culture is saturated with concern for human attractiveness, accomplishment, intimacy and sexual fulfilment (Quinn & Lees, 1984). Sexual attraction at the workplace is most certainly a prevalent organisational condition and it ultimately has an effect, either positive or negative, on several aspects of organisational functioning and effectiveness. Quinn and Lees (1984) posit that sexual attraction is an important organisational characteristic in both positive and negative spheres. Namely, should attractiveness and sexual tension be valued, managed appropriately and harnessed to realise the potential benefits therein, it will be an asset allowing one to engage in organisational activities which have implications of a personal, interpersonal and organisational nature. Inversely, should attractiveness and attraction be suppressed and viewed as a negative factor in a workplace then unattractiveness would be an asset (Quinn & Lees, 1984).

Pierce and Aguinis (2001) propose that the motives and the individual's social power play a critical role in influencing the likelihood that sexual attraction will have a negative effect on the organisation. Four possible motives have been identified, namely: love motives (a genuine desire for commitment, sincere love and a possible long term relationship); ego motives (desire for excitement or sexual experiences); job motives (increased job security or financial rewards) and power motives (desire for increased power or visibility) (Anderson and Hunsaker, 1985; Pierce and Aguinis, 2001; Mainiero, 1986; Quinn, 1977). The perception that colleagues have the motives of individuals involved in a sexually charged workplace relationship will have resultant differing effects on the group and its willingness to accept this behaviour and environment. The perception of a high job motive by participants in sexual attraction is generally evaluated negatively by co-workers as it may appear to attempt to intertwine both task and social goals deemed inappropriate (Dillard, Hale & Segrin, 1994). Similarly, should observers perceive the motives behind the sexually charged relationship to be love driven it is more likely that these colleagues will report positive outcomes as a result. It should be noted that research reveals that one motive or multiple motives may exist or be

exhibited by any individual with regards to workplace relationships. This is to say that ego and love motives can co-exist and serve to motivate an individual's relationship with another in the workplace (Dillard et al, 1994).

The classification of workplace cross gender relationships identifies three categories for consideration according to Lobel et al (1994 in Hurley, 1996); namely: non-sexual, psychologically intimate relationships, workplace romances (sexually intimate relationships) and sexual harassment. Quinn and Lees (1984) further state that there are three kinds of workplace romances, namely:

- True love, characterised by sincere involvement and long term interest often culminating in marriage. Dillard et al (1994) further divide this into passionate love (comprising love and ego motives) and companionate love (desire for affection and long term companionship);
- Flings, wherein partners are initially deeply excited and involved yet these feelings of passion fade with the progression of time and the relationship ends. Dillard et al (1994) state that this type of relationship is based primarily on ego motives of both parties involved; and
- Utilitarian relationships, described as the most volatile, wherein a female subordinate is viewed as being power, security and advancement driven as much as she is by love/intimacy motives. The male in this relationship is seen as being interested in sexual satisfaction, ego stimulation and adventure as much as he is interested in the female in question. The authors warn that this type of relationship often results in the most extreme reactions by other organisational members (Quinn & Lees, 1984).

The areas or dimensions affected by sexual attraction in the workplace are hereafter defined. Thereafter the subsequent advantages and disadvantages of sexual attraction in the workplace are discussed.

3.2.1 Organisational Dimensions Affected by Sexual Attraction

3.2.1.1 The individual

An individual refers to an employee within an organisation or workplace, working in a team or independently. An individual involved in a work place relationship will usually alter their behaviour in the aforementioned environment. Behavioural changes amongst individuals in a sexually charged relationship include: shifts in power balances in the work group with the male possibly displaying favouritism towards the female in question and vice versa (Quinn & Lees, 1984).

3.2.1.2 The work group or team

The general organisational trend is to move towards group-based highly interactive structures (Jones, 1999). Groups are the cornerstone of the modern organisation, and whilst bringing numerous advantages to the workplace they also present problems of their own in terms of communication, conflict, coordination and motivation (Gladstein, 1984 in Jehn et al 1999). The diversity that group members bring to the organisation needs to be effectively managed if all the cumulative benefits of group work are to be realised. Determinants of group performance have been found to be contingent on the ability of a group to embrace; experience and manage differences and the subsequent conflicts therein, that arise (Jehn et al 1999). Mischel and Northcraft (1997 in Jehn et al, 199) acknowledged that a workgroup's success is also dependent on its capability to handle its own communications, cooperation and coordination effectively. Results from a study conducted by Jehn et al (1999) revealed that value diversity among group members causes the most problems in group performance and also contains the greatest potential for group morale and performance enhancement.

Quinn and Lees (1984) state that a work group easily picks up on changes in behaviour amongst other group members and are alerted to emerging intimate relationships and dynamics amongst male and female colleagues. Gossip tends to ensue amongst the members of a work group whom are not involved in a sexually charged relationship, often to the complete oblivion of those in the "relationship". Some signs that are readily observed include: long lunch breaks; business trips; physical displays of affection; chats behind closed doors and being seen away from work together. Effects on work group dynamics are most noticeable with the social climate within the group and communication between group members (Dillard, Hale & Segrin, 1994).

Moreover, the characteristics of the workgroup have been found to have as much of an effect on the formation of organisational relationships and sexual attraction as any other factor discussed in this body of literature (Quinn, 1977). Aspects of workgroups to hold in consideration include the following: "*rules and expectations, closeness of supervision, closeness of interpersonal relationships, and intensity or criticalness of the work or mission*" (Quinn, 1977:36).

3.2.1.3 Productivity

The definition for productivity differs from job to job and across occupation types. In front line employee situations productivity refers to the quantifiable output of the employee in question aligned with performance, behavioural and service standards (Singh, 2000). Other authors simply describe productivity as the output per capita (Lazear, 2004). However this output

cannot always be relied upon to be consistent as employees are victims of the human condition, often unpredictable and not always rational (Langbein and Jorstad, 2004). Subsequently various aspects of the individual, their workgroup and the organisation in which they operate influence the productivity levels of employees. Some of these influencing elements include levels of trust that exist between and amongst groups' communication (Langbein and Jorstad, 2004). Productivity can be improved in various ways according to Lazear (2004), namely by either increasing the skills that employees have, providing them with more or better capital or equipment to work with or through the novel creation of combining capital and the workforce. The latter is the area that the current research is concerned with, the creation of new ways of interacting in the workplace to increase productivity.

3.2.1.4 Communication

The literature available on communication is substantial with many different theories existing in abundance. One thing that can be agreed upon is that communication is the central cog of an organisation. It has an essential role to play in important organisational processes (Gizir and Simsek, 2005). Communication behaviours have been evidenced to separate good managers from mediocre ones (Barry and Crant, 2000). In evaluating organisation communications many stances can be taken by the researcher. One could focus on patterns of communication or organisational factors that underpin information sharing; alternatively one could draw ones attention to the message that the communication centres upon (Barry and Crant, 2000). From an interpretivist perspective organisational communications involves *"patterns of coordinated behaviors that have the capacity to create, maintain, and dissolve organizations"* (Gizir and Simsek, 2005:200). The present study however deals more with the research of Barry and Crant (2000) whom postulated that an important area of attention in terms of organisational communications is the social-cognitive dynamic of ongoing interpersonal relationships in an organisational context. This involves delving into the perceptions that employees have regarding their workplace relationship and the effects of these perceptions on organisational communications and subsequent outcomes.

Organisational communication can be conducted through various channels and media, the most information rich is face-to-face communications with other channels available including telephone conversations; personal written messages; formal written messages; numerical documents and email (Barry and Crant, 2000). These authors go further to state that the individual will choose the communication media in accordance with the level of ambiguity surrounding the topic or subject of the communication (Russ et al, 1990 in Barry and Crant, 2000). One should not limit the understanding of organisational communication to pertain

only to the spoken, written or debated word, nay it encompasses a myriad of other organisational behaviours and human processes, including thinking and evaluating communications and the understanding or perceptions thereof. Subsequently organisational behaviour and communications can be viewed as inextricably interwoven (Porterfield, 1976).

When looking at the employee as involved in various interactions and relationships with their fellow employees, communications can also be viewed from a relational perspective. According to Stohl and Reading (1987 in Barry and Crant, 2000:651), "*communication is a negotiated process through which communicators reciprocally define their interpersonal relationships*". This type of communication is viewed as evolutionary moving from a more superficial level to deeper levels of understanding as affiliation and relationships develop. This evolution is characterised by employees becoming more friendly and casual eventually being able to predict behaviour and response of those whom they are social or friendly with. Subsequently they will also be able to pick up on subtle behavioural changes (Barry and Crant, 2000); this has implications particularly with close working groups. Well-developed organisational relationships, even in the absence of intimacy, often have perceived instrumental value to the individuals involved with regards to its contribution to organisational goals and objectives (Barry and Crant, 2000)

3.2.1.5 Job Performance

Job performance can be an extremely difficult construct to measure, as most modern organisations and the subsequent occupations therein are multifaceted and as such performance on a job includes numerous different interdependent activities; subsets and contingencies thereof. In addition the measurements of most aspects of job performance are done in a subjective manner (Siders, George & Dharwadkar 2001). It can be defined succinctly as "*an individual's overall performance/task proficiency or as performance on specific dimensions, such as the quality and quantity of work*" (Siders et al, 2001:572). Viswesvaran and Ones (2000:216) define job performance as "*scalable actions, behaviours and outcomes that employees engage in or bring about that are linked with and contribute to organizational goals.*"

Barrick and Mount (1991) identified three dimensions of job performance in their review of literature. Job proficiency as a dimension contains areas of performance pertaining to performance ratings and productivity data. Training proficiency was another area of relevance to job performance which was measured solely by training performance ratings. The final area of importance pertained to personnel data, which included a diverse amount of information including work sample data, time taken to complete work related tasks, salary levels, status changes, tenure and turnover. Models of job performance evaluated by Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) included stand alone dimensions of job performance which

can be uniformly applied across all jobs, more specifically task performance, interpersonal behaviours, organisational citizenship behaviours and counterproductive behaviours. Additional criteria need to be looked at when evaluating job specific performance.

Conscientiousness has been found to be a valid predictor of job performance, with individuals whom exhibit traits of persistence, strong obligatory senses and have a strong sense of purpose outperforming their counterparts lacking in this personality dimension (Barriack ad Mount, 1991; Viswesvaran and Ones, 2000). Siders et al (2001) states that levels of employee commitment contribute towards job performance; with employees whom have strong internal loci of commitment to the organisation having higher levels of job performance. That is to say, individuals whom have a strong sense of commitment to an organisation or its members will be more likely to exhibit behaviours to help the organisation reach its goals and these subsequent behaviours will result in improved job performance. These findings went further to state that commitment to one supervisor is often a more powerful predictor of job performance (Siders et al, 2001). Additional research has found that the presence of organisational support, or even perceived organisational support will increase job performance of the individuals involved although these findings have been disputed (Randall; Cropanzano; Bormann & Birjulin, 1999).

According to Dillard et al (1994) components of job performance affected by sexual attraction in the workplace include punctuality, attendance and overall performance. The effects thereof on job performance could be linked to emotional stability of the individuals involved, with emotionally stable individuals being more likely than emotionally unstable individuals to have a negative effect on job their job performance in critically emotionally unstable situations (Barrick and Mount, 1991).

3.2.1.6 Job Satisfaction

This organisational phenomenon has been generally considered as the most prominent indicator of quality of work life of an individual employee (Igbaria, Parasuraman and Badawy, 1994). It is most commonly described as an affective response or the degree to which an employee likes their job (Muchinsky, 2000). Munchinsky (2000) goes further to state that it is the manifestation of workplace emotions. Job satisfaction is multifaceted and consists of more than merely participating actively in ones job (Saleh and Hosek, 1976). A measure of Job Satisfaction, namely the Job Descriptive Index described by Muchinsky (1977) can be measured along five dimensions, namely satisfaction with ones work, supervision, pay, promotion and co-workers. Interestingly enough, however, some researchers say that workplace friendships have little affect on the level of job satisfaction an individual will experience (Winstead et al, 1995 in Barry and Crant, 2000). Research has shown job

satisfaction to be negatively affected by the presence of workplace politics, which can be described as the study of “*power in action*” or “*unsanctioned influence attempts that seek to promote self-interest at the expense of organizational goals*” (Randall et al, 1999:161).

3.2.1.7 Stress

Stress emerged as a concept in the field of mechanics in the 19th century and was first mentioned in the field of psychology in the Second World War by Grinker and Spiel to describe what had mistakenly and misleadingly referred to as nostalgia and shell-shock (Meier, 1972). Stress can be evidenced by a general state of discomfort which should stimulate various reactions, be they of a reactive or adaptive nature (Meier, 1972).

Stress in an organisational context can take on many forms, either as a threat; harm or challenge to the individual (Latack and Havlovic, 1992). When faced with stressful situations employees will engage in coping behaviours according to Latack and Havlovic (1992), the definition thereof is also subject to much debate. The definition of coping behaviour best suited to the present research is that of Coyne et al (1971 in Latack and Havlovik, 1992: 481) ‘*Coping refers to efforts, both cognitive and behavioral, to manage environmental and internal demands and conflicts affecting an individual that tax or exceed that person’s resources*’. When faced with a stressful tension inducing work related situation Burke and Belcourt (1984 in Latack and Havlovik, 1992:161) identified the process of coping with job tension as involving either changing or redirecting ones energy into a non-job related task or activity; engage in problem solving and analysis of the problem/stressor; temporary withdrawal from the situation; working harder and/or talking the situation through with ones colleagues.

Fenwick and Tausig (1994) stated that the experience of work stress occurs when there is a discrepancy between the elements of an environment and the characteristics of the individual in question. Muchinsky (2000) warns that job stress is a complex construct and should not be misconstrued as merely the opposite of job satisfaction. Drawing on strong emotional components, elements identified include: despair; frustration; anger and irritation. In addition to this, the experience and felt effects of stress; perceived stressors as well as subsequent coping mechanisms differ across occupations, occupational levels and gender differences have been reported (Narayanan; Menon & Spector, 1999). Inter and intrapersonal conflict within women has been well documented as being higher than that experienced by men (Narayanan et al, 1999). This factor should be kept in mind when interpreting results in the present study.

3.2.1.8 Job Involvement

Job involvement, according to Dubin (1956 in Saleh and Hosek 1976), refers to the extent to which an individual finds their job to be a central interest in their life and a substantial contributor to satisfaction of their major needs. Gurin et al (1960 in Saleh and Hosek, 1976) further refined this definition stating that such involvement was contingent upon the degree to which the employee in question seeks actualisation and self expression in their job. Saleh and Hosek (1976) summarise available literature by conceptualising job involvement as existing in an individual employee when: work is a central life interest; they actively participate in their job; they perceive their work performance as essential to their self esteem and they perceive performance as congruent with their self concept. Furthermore, job involvement is situation specific and differs as an employee moves from job to job (Kanungo, 1982 in Igbaria et al, 1994). Later studies revealed that employees job involvement, perceptions of their work environment and their reactions to their job is heavily influenced by the social context they work in; most importantly by the extent to which they perceive organisational membership to exist (Igbaria et al, 1994). Subsequently, job involvement could also be viewed as the emotional reaction and attachment that an individual has to a job and its subsequent motivating facets. Moreover, Igbaria et al (1994) postulated that job involvement was related to work experiences; demographic characteristics; job components and career expectations that an individual holds.

3.2.1.9 Sexual Harassment

Sexual harassment, according to Quinn and Lees (1984) is one of the easier to define aspects of sexuality in the workplace. Interestingly, studies have found that sexual harassment has nothing to do with *“physical attraction, provocative behaviour or even sex”* (Quinn & Lees, 1984:41). Rather, findings from numerous studies cited reveal it to be *“coercion, extortion, verbal rape, nonreciprocal behavior from more powerful to less powerful, and a communication of dominance”* (Quinn & Lees, 1984:41). Samoluk and Pretty (1994) define direct sexual harassment as being interpersonal and directed at a specific individual, involving physical contact, coercion or even force (Samoluk and Pretty, 1994). They go further to define environmental sexual harassment wherein individuals may not be directly harassed, but by nature of the environment in which they work as bystanders they are victims or recipients of unwanted socio-sexual behaviours and tensions. Models of sexual harassment also differ and are discussed by Samoluk and Pretty (1994) with the Natural-Biological model postulating that sexual harassment may just be the natural expression of sexual attraction in the workplace, not intended to hurt or be offensive to women. The Organisational Model attributes the antecedents of sexual attraction to be organisation related based on power structures and organisation-specific norms and the Sociocultural model highlights the power differences between individuals (Samoluk and Pretty, 1994).

Samoluk and Pretty (1994) explain that various different labels are given to the same socio-sexual behaviours in the workplace, and as such much confusion abounds surrounding this controversial topic. Therefore, what is perceived by one individual to be non-harassing in nature may be entirely evaluated entirely differently by someone whom finds the actions or behaviours as offensive or potentially interfering with their job and future in the organisation (Samoluk and Pretty, 1994). It is well understood that males and females have different perceptions and attributions of socio-sexual behaviour in the workplace and have a broader definition and conceptual framework of what constitutes sexual harassment than their male counterparts do (Isbell, Swedish & Gazan, 2005).

The fear of sexual harassment cases or accusations being brought against individuals is still present in organisations today, with potentially adverse consequences. These can be described as follows: *“The fear of a sexual harassment charge-with the humiliating personal implication and the potentially devastating professional consequences-may well discourage many employees from taking the first hesitating step toward an office romance. This may make the workplace a less collegial and inviting place, as men and women socialize less with their co-workers and turn their energies toward meeting people elsewhere”* (Kozinski in Hadfield, 1995:1155). Whilst a comprehensive discussion thereof is beyond the scope of the present research and is not the focus of thereof, it is important to understand this dynamic of sexuality in the workplace and to hold it in cognisance throughout the study.

3.2.1.10 Morale

Baynes (1967 in Johnsrud, Heck and Rosser, 2000:36) defined morale as a *“quality of mind and spirit”*. Further authors define morale as an attitudinal response to work which affects the behaviour of employees (Kanter, 1977 in Johnsrud et al, 2000). Research conducted by Baehr and Renck (1958) revealed five factors of employee morale. Those identified included:

- Organisation, management and the image or representation thereof in the mind of the employee;
- Immediate supervisor;
- Material rewards
- Fellow employees and interpersonal relations there between at work; and
- Job satisfaction.

Recent literature reveals that this is in fact a fairly fluid, ill defined concept most often referring to the general level of well-being that an individual employee or workgroup is experiencing with regards to their work life and is at best a multidimensional construct

(Johnsrud et al, 2000). However, research reveals that whilst residing at primarily an individual level (and based on individual perceptions); there is also a group component and conceptualisation of morale in organisations (Johnsrud et al, 2000).

3.2.2 Advantages of Sexual Attraction in the Workplace

The idea that men and women can never be good friends or have a meaningful relationship without progression into romance is fairly archaic and stems from an era where men were at work and women at home (Chatterjee, 2001). Numerous advantages and good reasons to explore possibilities of becoming “more than friends but less than lovers” exist and are discussed hereunder.

3.2.2.1 The individual

Sexual attraction and any subsequent intimate involvement amongst employees, under certain conditions, can actually be beneficial to the individuals involved (Pierce, 1998; Eyer and Baridon, 1992). Heinrich (1991) found that the interpersonal dimensions of sexual attraction in effective relationships was characterised by the warmth, empathy and the caring characteristic of any deep friendship, and the task dimensions was exciting and creative for both parties. Sexual attraction furthermore triggers the release of chemical stimulants in the brain which results in the unleashing of mental energy and physical potential which would not have otherwise been released (Eyer and Baridon, 1992a).

However, just because individuals are sexually attracted to each other does not mean that it will inevitably lead to sex, it is possible that a “sexually energised but strictly working relationship” can exist. Thus, whilst men and women may be aware of sexual tension existing between them, this does not mean that everyone will react to it in the same way. Some individuals are concerned by it and worry it will ruin a friendship or working relationship whereas others enjoy it and describe it as adding zest to their relationship (Monsour; Harris; Kurzweil & Beard, 1994). Such a relationship between co-workers has shown to have released a lot of creative energy, which benefits both the sexually charged individuals and the organisation (Eyer & Barindon, 1992). Some benefits according to Eylers & Barindon (1991) include: not having to choose between consummation or withdrawal if a satisfying intimate way of interacting with others is created; sublimation of sexual tension; making sexual attraction and its inevitability known to others and in so doing enable the harnessing of its motivational potential.

Sex-based differences can have a hampering effect which if not harnessed and managed correctly can be detrimental to a group; however, by allowing freedom of sexual identity and

controlled, managed sexual attraction, those differences can bring enormous benefits to the organisation as well as the individual (Eyler and Barindon, 1992b).

3.2.2.2 Productivity and communication

Sexual attraction between co-workers has been found to have an effect of increasing productivity, regardless of whether they chose to act upon it or not (Fisher, 1994; Prince et al., 1996). This can be especially so when employees maintain a healthy balance between intimacy and distance, channelling their sexual energy into something constructive, the task at hand (Eyler and Barindon, 1992a; Prince et al., 1996). This concurs with findings by Warfield (1987 in Riach & Wilson, 2007) whom indicated that mild, enjoyable attractions can enhance productivity and work relationships in an organisation. Productivity is boosted as attraction enhances cooperation, work flow and communication processes because of the stimulating effects of sexual attraction and the desire to impress (Pierce et al., 1996; Loftus, 1995).

Various studies have shown that between nine to 21 percent of individuals whom are attracted to each other, have an increase in productivity (Prince et al., 1996); this can be especially so when employees maintain a “more – than – friends – less – than – lovers” relationship and achieve a healthy balance between intimacy and distance. Fisher (1994) also states that people who are attracted to each other often begin coming to work earlier and leaving later, embrace work with a new fervour and show an unexpected burst of enthusiasm for life in general. Communication within the workgroup can improve and interdepartmental cooperation and communication could show great improvements if the individuals whom are attracted to each other work in different divisions or units of the company (Loftus, 1995).

3.2.2.3 Job performance

Mixed-sex work teams perform at a higher, more efficient and creative level than do single-sex teams (Fish, 1994; Fenwick and Neale 2001 in Cunningham 2008). It has been further found in gender diverse teams that sexual tension makes individuals undertake more of an effort to understand, and possibly impress, one another (Fish, 1994). Findings by Pierce (1998) also indicate that an individual whom is involved in a sexually charged relationship with a co-worker will generally have a higher level of self-rated job performance. The theory behind this being, that such an involvement may be “arousing, stimulating and consequently have a positive influence on performance”. The competitive health of organisations which accommodate love and sexual health among employees has been shown to improve therewith (Loftus, 1995).

3.2.2.4 Job satisfaction

Non-loving intimate relationships have many positive benefits, benefit which would not be attained if the individuals were in fact lovers. Eyley and Barindon(1992) identified these as a certain passion and dedicated abandon to ones work which would not be achieved if a loving relationship had to be maintained both in and out of the work environment. Furthermore, involvement or experience of sexual attraction in the workplace may also result in increased intrinsic satisfaction with ones job (Pierce et al., 1996; Pierce, 1998); with study findings indicating a significant relationship between the presence of sexual/ romantic feelings for a co-worker and intrinsic work motivation, satisfaction with the type of work one is conducting and job involvement.

3.2.2.5 Stress

Williams et al. (1999) report that sexual bantering and touching forms an important part of the job because it helps employees to cope with the stressful nature of their work. In addition to this the partners to a sexually charged work relationship do not have to feel guilty and thus are happier employees whom do not waste or steal work time hiding and deceiving others. Cross-sex friendships and relationships often have elements of sexual attraction underlying the relationship; however participation in such a relationship has been shown to be emotionally rewarding and assists in dealing with stressful situations (Chaterjee, 2001).

3.2.2.6 Morale

When participants in a workplace romance or who are sexually attracted to each other are able to move past their initial feelings of attraction their morale can increase (Loftus, 1995). The rationale there being that love and attraction transforms people, with this positive energy spilling over into their work life and experience thereof.

3.2.2.7 Job involvement

Employees experiencing sexual attraction and who have a love motive, increase their job involvement in order to impress and increase the opportunity to interact with the other (Pierce et al., 1996). Beyond that, employees whom are sexually attracted to their co-workers willingly work longer hours and get more involved in projects; exert extra effort and generally experience greater work-life satisfaction in companies that allow them to utilise the natural power of attraction to give their work that “extra edge” (Eyley and Baridon, 1992b).

3.2.3 Disadvantages of Sexual Attraction in the Workplace

The consequences arising from sexual attraction are numerous, dependent on the individuals involved and their various circumstances. Various disadvantages discovered throughout the literature are summarised herein.

3.2.3.1 The individual

Individuals getting involved with their superior may experience negative reactions from others as boss-subordinate relationships are generally more frowned upon and have more negative consequences for the organisation than do peer-peer relationships (Jones, 1999). Heinrich (1991) also found that females who develop sexual attraction towards male advisors with a masculine approach often feel like they need to prove themselves, and experience referent power, not really taking responsibility of their own. They tend to build their confidence on being associated with the masculine advisor and being personally supported by that person, instead of building confidence based on professional knowledge and adequacies (Heinrich, 1991). In case such a relationship turns sour, those women are often left being considered as 'weak', consequently leaving them powerless and embarrassed (Williams et al, 1999).

Mainiero (1986); Quinn and Lees (1984) and Leonard (2001) identified consequences of people who are sexually attracted to each other and conduct in sexual interactions as a lack of respect from other staff members. For some individuals issues pertaining to self esteem and image may be adversely affected as they may not be sure if they are doing well in the organisation because of their performance or because of another's attraction towards them. Furthermore the internal relationship dynamics are affected due to role conflict between the parties whom are sexually attracted / involved with each other in terms of social and business role expectations (Mainiero 1986).

3.2.3.2 Morale

Hierarchical romances negatively affect co-worker moral, leaving others with the feeling that some employees are being favoured, possibly receiving additional benefits and will be evaluated positively based on their sexuality (Pierce et al., 1996; Loftus, 1995). Pierce et al. (1996) also found that employees who are perceived as sexually attracted towards each other are more likely to create gossip, especially if a subordinate is perceived as maintaining a job-related motive. Some individuals express their sexuality and sexual desire in order to exercise power. In some organisations this is culturally acceptable, but in others it is fraught with contradiction and value conflict, having a negative effect on organisation morale (Williams et al., 1999). Moreover, observers of a sexually charged relationship may become anxious about its existence, paranoid about coalitions forming which could affect their own

future in the company due to information being passed privately down the hierarchy (Dillard et al, 1994). Attractive individuals are generally evaluated more favourably and achieve more favourable outcomes than others, causing inequality and dissatisfaction (Riggio et al., 1991).

3.2.3.3 Productivity and communication

Mainiero (1986) have found conflicting results regarding the effects of workplace attraction on productivity and workplace motivation, indicating that those involved may have lower quality of work and productivity. Quinn and Lees (1984) stated that in one third of the cases studied, productivity and effectiveness of involved individuals actually decreases. Communication also seems to centre on gossip in nearly 70 percent of cases (Quinn, 1977) and had a slight tendency to become distorted (approximately 25% of respondents indicating this).

3.2.3.4 Work group

A work group can in fact initially tolerate and approve of sexual tension and even a sexually charged relationship amongst members of the work group/division (Quinn & Lees, 1984) with Quinn (1977) finding most members (approximately 60%) more likely to tolerate the relationship than approve of it (approximately 26% being in approval for the male in the relationship and approximately 15% in approval for the female). Thereafter the authors indicated that the situation and reactions of group members deteriorate from offering friendly advice to complaining to their own superiors; possibly making attempts to undermine the work of participants in a sexually charged relationship; resigning from their own jobs and even resorting to forms of blackmail and threats directed towards these colleagues in severe cases, with extreme hostilities emerging in about a third of cases reviewed (Quinn and Lees, 1984).

These effects are compounded should colleagues perceive the motives behind such a relationship as being job oriented with research indicating that work groups would be more likely to report lower levels of group functioning and individual performance in this instance (Dillard et al, 1994). Additional reported negative effects on the workgroup included things such as hostility; distorted communication, lowered output and productivity, slower decision making, threatened image or reputation of the unit, redistribution of work, lowered morale, gossip, and acts of sabotage, blackmail, ostracism and retaliation (Quinn, 1977; Mainiero, 1986; Leonard, 2001; Dillard et al, 1994).

3.2.3.5 Job performance

Often, job performance and productivity decrease instead of an individual becoming more effective in the workplace when involved in a sexually charged relationship (Quinn & Lees, 1984). Initially performance could be inhibited because of sexual attraction as a distraction. As the relationship matures however, both performance and productivity increases (Pierce et al, 1996). However, research conducted by Dillard et al (1994) revealed that observers of sexually charged relationships perceived female subordinate performance to decline as a result thereof. Moreover, possible conflict of interest, biased decision making and the likes could have the effect of harming the careers of employees involved in a workplace romance or sexually charged relationship as well as having a negative effect on performance (Riach & Wilson, 2007).

3.2.3.6 Stress

The consequences of sexual attraction are certainly different when both parties are single than when one or both parties are in committed relationships. Research has shown differences in perceptions of sexual challenges in supposedly platonic relationships dependent on a respondent's relationship status. Although significant, the differences were small but nonetheless, single individuals surprisingly indicated more difficulty in dealing with a sexual dimension of a relationship than did those in committed relationships (Monsour et al, 1994). Moreover, if an employee is in a relationship with someone outside of the work environment, it is likely that they will invest less in these relationships if they are having an emotional affair/ sexually charged relationship with someone at work (Berman, 2006; Mainiero 1986). For this reason most people will try to keep such a relationship or attraction hidden from others; together with a desire not to violate office or organisational norms.

It is likely that by keeping their sexual attractions towards others in the workplace hidden the individual would cause some sort of stress and tension in the team and within themselves (Berman, 2006; Mainiero 1986; Eyer and Baridon, 1992b; Loftus, 1995). This type of "adulterous" interaction may place third party observers under an ethical dilemma, particularly if they feel that the interactions they are observing are in violation of their own personal moral and values (Jones, 1999). Thereby, sexual attraction amongst colleagues may place their co-workers in a stressful conundrum of sorts (Berman, 2006; Mainiero 1986). Dillard et al (1994) propose that this type of relationship may cause alterations in work group behaviour and functioning and subsequently change the social climate of the work group.

3.2.3.7 Job involvement

Initially job involvement decreases as a person experiences attraction towards another. Also, when people enter the workplace with an ego or power motive, job involvement could be inhibited when there are feelings of sexual attraction (Pierce et al., 1996).

3.2.3.8 Sexual harassment

A study has shown that women do not send clear rejection signals to men and in fact often give men sexually explicit signals without necessarily being interested in the man (Martin, 2001). Furthermore there are definitely gender differences in inferring sexual interest, with males reading a lot more into ambiguous verbal and nonverbal cues made by women after even just brief encounters with them (Levesque et al, 2006). Men also tend to think about the sexual dimension of their cross-sex relationships more than women; are more likely to misconstrue friendly female behaviour as sexual interest and generally perceive more situations as sexually charged or oriented than do women (Monsour et al, 1994). These attraction issues could form the basis for sexual harassment cases in the workplace. Linked still to the possibility of sexual harassment cases being brought against an organisation is the potential for a consensual fling, flirtation or intimate interaction of sorts to go sour, with the aggrieved party then claiming sexual harassment (Fisher 1994; Clarke, 2006). A 1998 study revealed that approximately 24 percent of workplace romances would lead to sexual harassment cases in the United States of America (Wilson et al in Riach 2003 and Wilson, 2007).

Murrell and James (2001) broach the topic of sexual harassment and gender; illuminating findings by Gutek and Morasch (1982) which suggested that sex-role spillover occurs when gender roles either substitute or contend with work-related roles and expectations. Sexual harassment experiences were found to be more likely to occur within highly sexualized environments or those wherein the salience of gender roles is high. This could be extrapolated to argue that *“women in nontraditional, male dominated occupations and men in nontraditional, female-dominated occupations are more likely to experience sexual overtures at work compared to women and men working in traditional jobs”* (Murrell and James, 2001:248). Gutek, Cohen, and Konrad (1990:101 in Murrell and James, 2001:248) argue that often *“male sexuality becomes incorporated into male-dominated work environments.”* This type of orientation may result in an increase in stereotypical viewpoints of men and women being perpetuated and subsequently increased incidence of sexual harassment.

3.3 Conclusion

Sexual attraction in the workplace is a commonly occurring, presently ignored and unmanaged phenomenon. This Chapter explored available literature on the topic at hand which helped to formulate the research questions upon which empirical research was based. Before embarking upon statistical analyses the methodology underlying the present study needs to be explored in greater depth. Chapter Four contains a detailed discussion of the present study's methodology, with empirical results being presented in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS

4.1 Introduction

In light of the scarcity of empirical research that has been and is being conducted on sexual attraction in the workplace, a commonly observed and acknowledged phenomenon (Pierce et al, 1996), the research design and methodology is aimed at addressing this gap in existing research. Furthermore, the topic itself does not really enable comprehensive research methods to be utilised in an exploratory study (Quinn, 1977).

This chapter will involve a detailed discussion surrounding the decision of the appropriate research strategy and design utilised in the present study. The overarching research paradigm employed will be delved into and its applicability to the research made evident. Thereafter the implications of the chosen research design for reliability and validity are presented. For purposes of this research, a customised questionnaire was devised and subsequently the selection and development thereof is discussed herein. A well-planned sample selection procedure is then discussed, including the appropriateness of the sample for the research. The methods for capturing, computerising and analysing the data obtained from the sample in question is expanded upon as well as the statistical analysis processes employed.

4.2 Research Paradigm

“The way in which we think and talk about the world in the head is inseparable from the ways in which we study the same world...” (Downs, 1982:115 in Couclelis & Golledge, 1983)

With any research study undertaken, it is important to first reach a decision with regards to which language and pedagogy will be useful and applicable to the study in question. Guba and Lincoln (1994:105) define a paradigm as *“...the basic belief system or worldview which guides the investigator, not only in choice of method but in ontologically and epistemologically fundamental ways”*. The authors go on to explain that beliefs are fundamental in that they are acknowledged purely on the basis of faith (Guba and Lincoln, 1994; Schrag, 1992). This, in itself is a complicated aspect of the human condition, as it cannot be proved or disproved beyond any doubt and as such one cannot say which “faith”

or belief or paradigm is correct. Guba and Lincoln (1994) suggest that all paradigms are products of the human mind and as such are prone to human error, therefore no one paradigm or method will be “perfect”.

Guba and Lincoln (1994) propose that the nature of a paradigm employed can be determined by answering three questions. The first of which is ontological, basically “*what is the form and nature of reality and, therefore, what can be known about it?*” The second question is epistemological in nature “*what is the nature of the relationship between the knower, or would-be-knower and what can be known?*” the answer to which is bound or linked to the answer to the first question. The final question is methodological, namely “*How can the inquirer go about finding out whatever he or she believes to be known?*” All of the answers to these questions lead inextricably to each other and subsequently the methodology chosen will be influenced by what the researcher feels is real and what they can ultimately “know”.

The quantitative flavour of the research in question falls within the ambit of positivism (attempts to verify) and post-positivism; wherein the latter is an attempt to falsify hypotheses which are usually quantifiable by some mathematical measure which can be indicative of some form of relationship once appropriately converted (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). The answer to the ontological question in the case of the current research is realism, in that the research attempts to “converge on the true state of affairs” by arriving at a true conclusion about perceived prevalence and effects of sexual attraction in the South African workplace. However, the post-positivism approach was also included in the present study as reality was assumed to exist, but was evaluated more critically by the researcher. Thus on this level it included both aspects of positivism. Moreover, on the epistemological level, the present study appears to be dualistic and objective in that the researcher and the respondents in the study are understood to have been independent throughout the research (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Subsequently the researcher and respondents are considered to have no influence over each other and inquiry is uni-directional. As was the case with the current study, any threat to the validity of the results was attended to as far as possible. These steps are discussed in greater detail throughout this chapter. Once again, this is not strictly the case, as objectivity is also a key component of post-positivism, and the researcher did attempt to ensure that current findings were linked back to the existing body of knowledge regarding sexual attraction in the workplace. The methodology employed involved the proposition of questions and the subjection thereof to various empirical tests for their verification. Post-positivism once again came to the fore in the methodology employed in the study as the researcher attempted to gain situational or contextual information for all the respondents in the study and made allowances for qualitative responses (Guba and Lincoln, 1994).

To further entrench the perception of the operating paradigms in this study, Guba and Lincoln (1994) provide further delineating factors to consider when evaluating a paradigm in practical situations. The nature or objective of the inquiry at hand was exploration and explanation (positivist and post-positivist); the nature of knowledge is considered to be commensurate to “*nonfalsified hypotheses which could be regarded as probable facts...*” (Guba and Lincoln, 1994:113) which is considered to be post-positivist. The accumulation of knowledge in the present study follows the positivist/post-positivist paradigm, as “*each fact (or probable fact) serv(ed) as a kind of building block that, when placed in its proper niche, adds to the growing edifice of knowledge*” (Guba and Lincoln, 1994:14). As will become clear later in this chapter, the manner through which the goodness of this inquiry was determined is through means of “rigour”, with internal validity, external validity, reliability and objectivity being paramount. The role of values in the present research is slightly more blurred in terms of their application to the research paradigm. The reason for this statement is that whilst values were intended to be excluded from the research (positivist and post-positivist); the researcher did hold this in cognisance and in fact attempted to account for some aspects of respondents attitude towards commitment and sexual attraction in the workplace in some of the items in the customised questionnaire, which would appear to lend itself more to a constructivist research paradigm (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Ethics were of paramount importance to this study, and were predominantly extrinsic (positivist and post-positivist) yet also intrinsic (constructivist and critical theory) in that the researcher had their own internal ethics in cognisance.

Quantitative research is generally considered to follow a positivist paradigm (Perry, 2002). This paradigm is generally considered to be the dominant view of scientific inquiry for well over 400 years (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). However, some authors are of the opinion that any research paradigm may be appropriately applied to both qualitative and quantitative research (Guba and Lincoln, 1994) and that in many instances can exist in a complimentary relationship with and between each other in practical contexts (Salomon, 1991).

Each paradigm has its own constraints and critiques; the quandary with qualitative research lies in its validation and quality for this researcher. Therefore, whilst the researcher was able to see the value of qualitative research, the wide held assumption that the validity and quality of quantitative data is ultimately greater than that of “softer”, qualitative data had an important role to play in the selection of the research design for this study (Sechrest, 1992 in Guba and Lincoln, 1994). This is of course, not to say that there are not some critiques against this research paradigm. In fact, numerous opponents to positivism have arisen over the years of scientific enquiry. Guba and Lincoln (1994) state that the positivist world view is flawed in that it strips the context of the research situation (the subject themselves and the environment in which they operate) and thereby in fact decrease the relevance of the

findings made. This could further be inferred to mean that the positivist paradigm reduces human beings to mechanistic objects of study (Schrag, 1992). This flaw in the paradigm was attended to by the researcher through allowing qualitative responses and inserting items which may explain or account for some extraneous variables having an affect on the respondents in the research study. Further criticisms of the positivist paradigm include its exclusion of meaning and purpose through which human beings attach to their actions; thoughts and behaviours (Asdal, 2005; Guba and Lincoln, 1994). In addition, individual cases can not be summarily be applied to general data as what is true in the majority of cases is not necessarily true for all respondents (Guba and Lincoln, 1994). Finally, Guba and Lincoln (1994) state that quantitative, positivist research can exclude the aspect of discovery from the enquiry, in that allowance for creative exploration is not made. Conversely, and perhaps controversially, Asdal (2005:253) states that the many criticisms laid against positivism by social scientists could in fact be an attempt or excuse for the social sciences to “*defend a room of their own.*” Latour (1991: 5 in Asdal) could further elaborate on this thought by stating that these criticisms levied against positivist by social scientists could be seen as “*a way of defending themselves, in the nineteenth century, against the arrogant, triumphant, and reductionist belief in positivist scientific method. If departments of history, sociology, literature, and art wanted to survive against the growing departments of chemistry, physics, and biology, they had to safeguard their borders against invasions. The human was their realm. To you Nature, but to us Culture!*” was their battle cry.”

The researcher had to agree with a comment made by Schrag (1992: 6), namely “*despite the attacks levelled against it, the positivist paradigm is hard to avoid.*” The value of the positivist paradigm to this study is evident; however this is not to say that this paradigm was the sole influence on the researcher. It is also clear that some aspects of the behaviourist paradigm were operating in the research being conducted, as the researcher was acutely aware that she was not merely a passive observer of objective reality. However, due to the minimal contact that the researcher had with the respondents in the study, the behavioural aspect of the research was held mostly in cognisance as opposed to being the primary operating paradigm of thought as the researcher did caution against the over quantification of human behaviour and perception associated with a purely positivist approach.

4.3 Research Strategy and Design

Pinsonneault and Kraemer (1993) describe research design as the strategy for answering the questions which initially inspired the study. The concept behind the research in question is the perceived prevalence and effects of sexual attraction in the South African workplace on various aspects of the work environment. The perceived effects thereof on these various

aspects in turn form even more concepts, which once formed in quantitative research, must be measured (Bryman, 2004). Such a concept(s) can be defined as the “*building blocks of theory and represent the points around which social research is conducted*” (Bryman, 2004:65). The means through which this concept was explored refers to the research strategy and design. In the case of the subsequent research a quantitative, non-experimental, cross-sectional survey research design was used. This type of design, according to Ruane (2005:93), obtains information from a single group of respondents at a single point in time without any attempt to follow-up.

In executing a cross-sectional study, the researcher asked a series of questions (via a survey, as in this case) of a broad cross-section of people in order to address the topic of interest, namely the perceived prevalence and effect of sexual attraction in the workplace. Cross-sectional research is thus a reasonable strategy for pursuing many descriptive and exploratory research projects. This is the best method to utilise because the researcher would not have to consider the effects of subject mortality/attrition or other considerations linked with longitudinal designs. The disadvantage, however, lies in the fact that the design is inappropriate for researching change over time. Furthermore, there were insufficient resources available at the researchers’ disposal to conduct either an experimental or longitudinal study as all expenses were incurred personally by the researcher and no funding or grant was given.

Time was also considered to be of the essence, as this project had to be completed within a specific time frame, due to various constraints and requirements placed on the researcher. Subsequently, anything other than a cross-sectional, quantitative design in these circumstances would have been impractical.

The survey was conducted by distributing questionnaires, to available and willing individuals (units of analysis) currently employed in the organisations in question. This was a once off survey, without the intent of following up. The rationale for distributing the questionnaires in both electronic and hard copy is simply because it is convenient and expedient with the likelihood of a higher response rate. The data obtained was then analysed, interpreted and made known, with the goal of increasing awareness regarding the influence of sexual attraction in the workplace.

To further understand the research design employed, definitions and discussions surrounding survey research designs are presented hereafter. Moreover, in order to evaluate and determine the suitability of the study’s research design, it is essential to consider issues of validity and reliability pertaining to the aforementioned research design. This is subsequently discussed in the sections to follow.

4.4 Survey Research

4.4.1 Definition and Contextualisation of Survey Research

Behavioural and social science survey research gained extensive acceptance from the early 1950's onwards as one of the most efficient ways of collecting information from individuals (Weisberg et al, 1996 in Duke and Mallette, 2004). Survey research has however existed in some form for over 2 millennia (Hutchinson, 2004). Some authors claim that the advent of the formal survey is the most important tool of social research (Verba, 1993). Pinsonneault and Kraemer (1993) differentiate between a survey a means of "*gathering information about the characteristics, actions, or opinions of a large group of people, referred to as a population*" and survey research which is viewed as a means of advancing scientific knowledge.

When attempting to define survey research, King and He (2006) adopt the definition proposed by Pinsonneault and Kraemer (1993, in King and He, 2006: 15) which focuses on the "*purpose of the survey being to produce quantitative descriptions of some aspect of the studied populations by asking people structured and predefined questions using a sample of the population.*" In keeping with this, researchers can limit themselves to areas of interest as they relate to positivist research. However, some researchers state that the inherent nature of the survey as a research instrument is neither fundamentally qualitative nor quantitative; or positivist or constructivist (Hutchinson, 2004).

Hutchinson (2004:285) prefers to define survey research simply, as "*a means of gathering information, usually through self-report using questionnaires or interviews*". She goes on further to state "*survey research is not a design, per se; instead, surveys are more commonly considered the medium used for data collection. However, most survey research falls within the framework of non-experimental or correlational research designs in which no independent variable is experimentally manipulated. When used in this context, information gathered from surveys is typically used either for purely descriptive purposes or for examining relationships between variables*" (Hutchinson, 2004: 285). Verba (1993:55) describes survey research as "*...any research design that depends upon asking questions of a systematically selected group of respondents with a relatively standardized research instrument, and that involves analysis of the data by quantitative techniques*". This concurs with the definition by Baker (1988:452). When evaluating and considering all the varied definitions of survey research available, they all have key elements in common, namely they involve collecting information from a select sample by means of a questionnaire or similar instrument with the aim of answering a specific research question or burning issue. The results of which can be generalized to the intended population in context.

Various aspects of human interpretation and recall of information need to be held in cognisance with survey research as this type of research focuses on the individual or aggregates of individuals (Verba, 1993). Namely, the retrieval of information and decay of memory are widely known phenomena with survey methodologists (Ford and Norris, 1991). Moreover, recency, saliency and vividness of some memories can result in certain information being retrieved more frequently and having an effect on the responses of respondents in a survey study (Ford and Norris, 1991; Schaeffer and Presser, 2003).

Various types and manners of administering surveys exist in research, with an evaluation of data collection methods employed being one of the most common ways of discerning between types of surveys (Duke and Mallette, 2004; Hutchinson, 2004). These authors go further to state that the choice of the type of survey to be utilised in research is based on the type and content of information to be collected, the nature and size of the population and required sample in question and the length or complexity of the questionnaire/tasks the respondents need to complete.

Types of surveys which could have been utilised in this research study were numerous. The value of face-to-face surveys is well documented. The richness of information which can be obtained and the flexibility that lies with the option of follow-up questions for clarification are useful for a researcher, dependent on the purpose of the research (Duke and Mallette, 2004). This combined with high response rates makes this a preferred method of survey research for many researchers. However, this is often highly qualitative and time consuming in nature; it also has resource implications (financial) which were a factor in this not being chosen by the current researcher.

Telephonic surveys could have been utilised, this involves administration of a questionnaire via telephone which is useful when many interviews need to be conducted and the geographical distribution of respondents is problematic (Duke and Mallette, 2004). A major downfall of this type of survey is that as a result of mass telemarketing, telephonic surveys have very low response rates with increasing refusal rates and non-response bias (failure to represent the views of non-respondents) playing a major part towards this type of method not being utilised by the researcher in question.

The proliferation of the personal computer and the information age allowed the possibility of technology assisted survey methods to develop. This can include email surveys wherein respondents are emailed a survey to which they have the opportunity of responding. Alternatively surveys can also be posted on the internet. These methods of the advantages

of low cost and fast distribution rates; however the population is limited to those whom are technologically compatible and have access to computers (Duke and Mallette, 2004).

The methodology and procedures followed in survey research need to be replicable and allow for similar study by other researchers (Duke and Mallette, 2004). In addition, various assumptions underlie survey research. According to Hutchinson (2004) these include survey responses which in fact represent the reality of the respondents. This further assumes principles of honesty and accuracy on the part of respondents.

4.4.2 Application of Survey Research in Current Study

The research at hand may be considered to be of a sensitive nature by some; however some authors postulate that the study of sexuality and aspects thereof are no more problematic than any other types of research (Ford and Norris, 1991). Subsequently, data collection concerns in other research are fundamentally similar to those faced by sexuality based research.

Utilisation was made of a self-report questionnaire, which incorporates the desired constructs of measurement pertaining to prevalence and the perceived effects of sexual attraction in the workplace. The employment of self-report questionnaires has been considered to be the preferred method for gathering information pertaining to attitudes and behaviours (Schwartz et al, 1999 in Hutchinson, 2004). This questionnaire was distributed to the respondents, aiming to measure the prevalence and perceived effects of sexual attraction issues in the workplace. A questionnaire or survey is applicable for all the aims of the proposed research, both descriptive and exploratory (Ruan, 2005). However, the PPESAI as an instrument had items designed primarily to elicit responses around perceived behaviours and the effects thereof. Subsequently the extent to which these responses can be considered to be a true reflection of reality would be predicated on the accurate reporting of these perceived behaviours and the effects thereof (Hutchinson, 2004).

The items of the questionnaire were close-ended because there were insufficient resources available for the analysis and integration of open-ended questions which would not only be very time consuming, but also does not always produce useful results (Ruane, 2005). In addition to this, the questionnaire is still in the development stage and thus it is important to minimize the number of errors that can occur. There would be far too many responses to analyse on a qualitative basis and thus the use of close-ended questions suits the purpose of the study.

Consent was obtained and a detailed consent form was signed by all respondents. Furthermore, ethical issues were explained to the candidates prior to their answering the questionnaire and an information sheet accompanied each questionnaire.

The questionnaire was emailed to each participant, with the option of having the questionnaire given to them in hard copy by hand. A two week time frame for response was given, with numerous follow-ups and electronic reminders being sent to the various respondents. Respondents were not requested to provide any identifying details about themselves (names; contact details and so on). This should ensure that anonymity was maintained and anxiety on the part of respondents minimised.

Biographical data was obtained by means of a categorical response format, with respondents being able to choose only one answer for variables pertaining to: gender; relationship status; personal experiences/perceptions of sexual attraction. The other sections of the questionnaire consist of items that respondents will have to respond to on a numerical six-point scale. The purpose thereof was to allow for better statistical analysis. The rating scale provided for a standardized response set, which is useful for analysis and comparisons between groups of respondents.

The advantages of this data collection procedure include: decreased time taken for data collection; increased response rate; anonymity could be ensured thereby generating more honest responses; bias due to personal characteristics of the interviewer is reduced, and the quality of answers is enhanced. The questionnaire is the most appropriate method of data collection for the study due to the constraints already mentioned in terms of time and finances. It provided for the most comparable source of information for exploratory and descriptive purposes of the proposed research. The utility; flexibility and applicability of survey research has been well established (Hutchinson, 2004) and as such was the most applicable means of data collection for the present study. Due to the questionnaire being developed exclusively for this study, it was designed with this sample group and the desired constructs in mind. The disadvantage of this procedure on the other hand is that the researcher was only able to provide limited guidance regarding responses.

Moreover, due to the nature of the topic and the human nature of respondents, events which they might either have guilty feelings about or feel insecure with regards thereto may create the perception of a threat to themselves personally. Subsequently these respondents could have tainted responses to certain items on the survey/questionnaire as a measure of self-preservation (Cannell et al, 1977 in Ford and Norris, 1991). This was held in cognisance by the researcher in question. Another area of important consideration is the construction and retrieval of memories and autobiographical information in that if a respondent is able to recall

a particular event with ease they may report it to be something which occurs frequently, which may not be the case (Schaeffer and Presser, 2003). This is particularly relevant as respondents in the present study need to report on the perceived prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace, which could be affected by their ability to recall memories of certain incidences relating to the fact.

4.5 Application of Criteria for Reliability

The reliability of the instrument and therefore of the findings obtained by the study were determined once all the data had been collected and analysed by means of the SPSS programme. Reliability for the purposes of the study refers to the internal consistency of the instrument and therefore the degree of generalisability across the items within the instrument (Welman and Kruger, 2001). This important area of consideration is covered in far greater detail in the discussion of the PPESAI, its reliability and that of each of its scales in the sections to follow.

4.6 Application of Criteria for Validity

4.6.1 Possible threats to internal validity not covered by chosen design

The choice of a non-experimental research design and a mainly exploratory and descriptive approach, the extent to which variables may co-vary cannot be fully ascertained. This has implications for the internal validity of the study, with it most likely being quite low. Threats to internal validity for the proposed study could include the following issues discussed hereunder.

- *Temporal requirement of causality.* A threat exists with the use of cross sectional correlational survey research design as regards the temporal requirement of causality. Namely the researcher would not be able to determine if changes in the dependent variable were in fact due to the independent variable unless all other avenues of determining this were pursued (Welman and Kruger, 2001). For this the researcher would have to have made more extensive use of retrospective questions (some of which were accounted for in the PPESAI in Section A) which, due to resource constraints, was not possible. However, reference can be made to the previous body of research and some of the open ended and categorical responses made in the current research to enhance the results gleaned from the responses made by the respondents. Findings could indicate a need for further research as *causal relationships* are hard to determine with a cross-sectional survey design. Thus the researcher did not attempt to determine if a causal relationship does exist, but merely the presence of a relationship between the dependent and independent variables was explored and ascertained.

- *History.* According to Welman and Kruger (2001) the events which take place concurrently with an intervention (the proposed study) may affect the dependent variable. Therefore changes in the dependent variable cannot be attributed to the independent variable in question. This is particularly the case for the current study, due to the nature of the topic it is possible that respondents could be influenced by uncontrolled variables. For example, a participant could have been a victim of sexual harassment or may currently be involved romantically with a colleague which may influence their responses on the questionnaire. This will be partially accounted for in the sections of the questionnaire which will have items pertaining to the perceived prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace; personal experience thereof as well as a biographical category for respondents' current relationship status. Respondents were also encouraged to give open ended responses, which were coded according to the extent to which respondents were more negative or positive to the concept of sexual attraction in the workplace. However the items in the current study were not extensive enough to account for all possible effects of historical influences on respondents, as any number of incidents could have had an effect on the responses that they made to the items on the PPESAI. Furthermore, just recently flirting with a colleague or hearing gossip about office romance could have had an influence in the attitude of the respondents as they approached answering the questionnaire.
- *Selection bias.* The internal validity of the current study could be threatened by selection bias as individuals were not selected entirely at random. As such individuals may have characteristics that are common in their groups/business units/professions that may not occur across all categories of respondents. This could possibly result in differences in the perceived prevalence and effect of sexual attraction in the workplace in ways not anticipated.
- *Other third variable problems.* It is impossible to exercise control over all manners of potential nuisance or intervening variables. Therefore the results of the current study will be less internally valid than if the researcher was conducting experimental research.
- A further aspect of internal validity of the current study, according to Welman and Kruger (2001:106), is construct validity which refers to the "*degree to which procedures intended to produce the independent variable of interest indeed succeed in generating this variable rather than something else*". The various constructs assessed in the study already mentioned include the perceived effect of sexual attraction on: Productivity;

Communication; Job Performance; Job satisfaction; Stress; Job involvement; Morale; and Sexual Harassment.

Threats to construct validity (and therefore to internal validity) of the study were mitigated by ensuring that the following were taken into consideration in all activities leading up to and during the collection of responses in the proposed study.

- *The subject effect or impression management issues* Due to the fact that respondents' will be aware that their perceptions and experiences with regards to sexual attraction in the workplace are being assessed they may have answered questions in such a way that they appear in a favourable light (Ford and Norris, 1991). Namely, they may respond in a socially acceptable manner stating that they have never been sexually attracted to a colleague and find that it is unacceptable in the workplace, which would indicate a tendency to want to appear morally upstanding and socially acceptable behaviour, when in fact they have been attracted to colleagues before and do not find it as negative as they are purporting to (demand characteristics). Moreover, each individual will have different levels of exposure to sexual attraction in the workplace. As such those with more experience or exposure to this phenomenon might have different conceptions surrounding what is and is not socially acceptable as opposed to those individuals in a fairly gender neutral environment, or young employees just entering the workforce for example. However, not all individuals are concerned with self-presentation (Berinsky, 2004).

This concept can also be seen as a threat of measurement reactivity, as respondents' will be aware they are being assessed by the questionnaire and as such may record their response in light of this fact on either a conscious or unconscious level. Whilst the majority of respondents did not personally know the researcher, it is possible that some may want to jeopardise the study because of personal feelings they may hold towards the researcher in question, perhaps resentment or just wanting to make it difficult for the researcher to achieve the intended aims of the proposed study. Moreover, the effect of the interviewer/researcher familiarity with the respondents has been shown to have an influence on social desirability within the ambit of sexually related research with more familiar researchers prompting higher socially desirable response than unfamiliar researchers (Mensch and Kendal, 1988 in Ford and Norris, 1991). Effort was made by the researcher in question to alleviate this potential risk through the utilisation of further snowball sampling in conjunction with distribution of the questionnaire to the select sample group.

- *The experimenter effect.* This is a possible threat in that the researcher could already have formulated expectations as to what the final results should be and thus may

manipulate and interpret data and statistics that are generated in order to confirm these expectations. Fortunately, this is something which the researcher is acutely aware of and due to the substantial literature review, with many perspectives being considered and available for consideration; every attempt was made to avoid this to the furthest possible extent.

- *Pre-test sensitisation.* Pre-test sensitisation may occur should the individuals whom participate in the construction of the questionnaire partake in the final administration of the questionnaire and subsequent analysis. This would be even more of a threat should the original questionnaire not have changed dramatically from the final questionnaire. Therefore the respondents would have some experience with regards to answering it and thus may answer differently than they would have should they not have been exposed to it. In addition to this, they would have had more time to think about their responses than those whom had not been exposed to the questionnaire before. This ties in with measurement reactivity as these respondents may remember their answers and could intentionally or unintentionally alter them. The threat of pre-test sensitisation was minimised through the use of a small representative sample for the discussion of the questionnaire and its items and ensuring that the aforementioned group were not included in the final sample.
- *Face Validity.* Face validity is generally not concerned with or meant to replace any statistical validation of the instrument, rather it involves *“the suitability of the content of a test or item(s) for an intended purpose as perceived by test takers, users, and/or the general public”* (Secolsky, 1987:82). It is also an important feature of any test which is intended for practical use according to Nevo (1985) and has an influence on test attitudes and reactions of test takers (Chan; Schmitt; DeShon; Clause and Delbridge, 1997). For purposes of the study face validity of the measurement instrument utilised, namely the customised questionnaire, will be inferred by the nature of the items comprising the questionnaire and the extent to which review by an expert panel concluded it to be so. Face validity was considered to be an important factor of the compilation and presentation of the PPESAI, as research has shown that high face validity of an instrument is more likely to engender co-operation and motivation amongst potential respondents (Secolsky, 1987). It was also important to ensure that some concerns surrounding face validity were addressed, as the explanation of face validity according to Jackson (1979 in Secolsky, 1987:82) *“implies that the respondents have hypotheses regarding the relationship of the test to the relevant criteria. Therefore, face validity judgments made by respondents with no knowledge of (or only second-hand experience with) the criterion of interest can be misleading”*. Subsequently the panel of experts involved in evaluating the PPESAI were all

provided with the detailed literature review and given exposure to the topic or criterion being measured in the current study.

4.6.2 Possible threats to external validity not covered by chosen design

External validity is an important consideration in any research project undertaken and even more so in the case of quantitative studies (Hutchinson, 2004); it implies the extent to which ones research results can be applied across different contexts and samples in the same situations. Moreover, it refers to the generalizability of the sample results of study “*to the population of interest, across different measures, persons, settings or times*” (King and He, 2006: 16). Aspects of external validity to be considered in the current research are discussed hereunder.

Population validity, wherein the findings obtained for the sample of the study can be generalised to the total population applicable in terms of the research questions and hypotheses (Welman and Kruger, 2001) may have been affected by the sampling strategy afforded by the research design. The extent to which the results may be generalised to the population at large (namely all South African employees) is questionable. Due to the fact that the sample was taken from an experimentally accessible population and thereafter snowball sampling strategy expansion of the sample in question, the results can only be generalised to and across this population of respondents. However, in light of the of the simple random sampling strategy used to determine the units involved in the study it is safer to generalise these results to the sampling frame than if more non-probalistic methods were utilised (for example, if only units that worked on the same premises/most accessibly located to the researcher were used). Thus it can be said that the population validity is increased by means of random selection probability sampling (Welman & Kruger, 2001).

Participation in the study was purely voluntary and no individual was pressured to complete the PPESAI. Subsequently, whilst the questionnaire was distributed to a much larger sample than responded, those whom did respond could be considered volunteers. As such the use of volunteers in research can have an effect on the population, and therefore external, validity of the study as the characteristics if respondents whom volunteer for research projects may not be the same as for the target population (Welman & Kruger, 2001). Seeing as the study was done for exploratory and descriptive purposes only, subsequent generalisation to the rest of the population will not be possible. External validity might thus be low. This must be kept in mind when interpreting the results obtained from the research.

Guba and Lincoln (1994) (in Trochim, 2002) describe transferability as the degree to which the results of research can be generalised or transferred to other contexts or settings, also known as **ecological validity** (Welman and Kruger 2001). Ecological validity cannot be ascertained because no form of field or realistic research was done or afforded by the chosen design. Thus the threats to internal validity already discussed, namely subject and experimenter effect, will affect the extent to which the results obtained may be generalised to the target population and thus have an adverse effect on ecological validity. However, the sampling strategy which is discussed within this chapter may alleviate this to some extent in that it affords greater ecological validity. It should be cautioned that due to the sample size, it would still be unwise to generalise the results obtained to the population at large.

Sources of error with regards to survey research affecting external validity were also considered in the present study, namely: sampling error; measurement error; coverage error; and non-response error (King and He, 2006). The propensity for sampling error exists in any case where a sample is drawn from a population and cannot be determined and mitigated if the sample is not drawn randomly. Errors of measurement can occur due to the make-up of the instrument utilised to collect information. This can be partially mitigated when pilot or pre-testing is done, along with additional statistical analyses (King and He, 2006). According to King and He (2006); coverage error occurs in survey research when the sample is drawn from a frame which does not contain all the characteristics of the population it is supposed to represent. Basically, this involves assumptions that individuals are representative of all individuals in the same profession as themselves, or are representative of the organisation in which they are employed (in the case of organisational research settings).

Finally, non-response error occurs when respondents whom do participate in the research are different in terms of study relevant characteristics from those individuals whom decline to participate or are not involved in the research.

To account for this, control variables can be introduced into the survey instrument and can have the same effect as control variables in experimental research (King and He, 2006). Some types of control variables which can be included are those which are not of focal interest to the theory in question in the research being conducted; background variables such as environmental or demographic factors; variables which may be analysed in a way that supports the main analysis of the study and those which have a previously established empirical relationship to the dependent variable under investigation (King and He, 2006).

4.7 Considerations in utilising the research approach

The methods utilised in this study could be considered a fairly mixed approach; with categorical, close ended and open ended (qualitative) response being gathered by means of a carefully designed questionnaire which was distributed by hand and via email. Easterby-Smith (1991:31 in Perry 2002) argues that the adoption of a mixed methodology is beneficial as *“one should attempt to mix methods to some extent because it provides more perspectives on the phenomena being studied”*. Due to resource constraints it was not possible to take this consideration to another level through utilisation of small group discussions or focus groups. This would also go beyond the scope of the intended study; however through allowing qualitative responses in the PPESAI it was possible to incorporate some aspects of a mixed methodology approach in this regard.

4.8 Population and Sample

The population parameter in a research study is a value or term which describes the population under study (Duke and Mallette, 2004). The population from which the sampling frame was chosen consisted of diverse workers employed within South Africa organisations whose core business was consultant engineering to the public and government sectors. However, as in most cases, it was not practical to conduct a census of all individuals in this population, subsequently it is common practice to draw a sample, or subset of individuals, from this population for research purposes (Duke and Mallette, 2004; Hutchinson, 2004). Therefore from the research population, a minimum of 100 individuals/employees or more specifically, public sector consultants (intended units of analysis) were asked for their participation. The sampling techniques utilised are discussed in greater depth hereunder. The size of one's sample is an important consideration when planning ones research, as it has important implications for statistical analysis of the results generated from respondents (Duke and Mallette, 2004). This sampling size is sufficient for descriptive and exploratory research.

4.8.1 Unit of Analysis

The unit of analysis of the research study is the individual, economically active employee in public sector consulting companies and the teaching profession. Additional categorisation of respondents in the form of industry and profession specifications was also conducted. The original intended scope of the research was to focus specifically on public sector consultants; however upon commencing the research process it was decided that snowball sampling would be utilised. As a result thereof, numerous responses from teachers were also obtained.

4.8.2 Sampling Technique

A multi stage sampling method was chosen for the proposed study. The strategies identified as appropriate for the study, and subsequently followed included the following:

- *Simple random sampling* to determine the business units to be included in the study. Random sampling has been found to be a highly effective means of sampling for representivity and has an influence on the external validity of the study (Hutchinson, 2004);
- *Census*. Once the business units were randomly selected all individuals within those units had an opportunity to complete the questionnaire (Welman & Kruger, 2001; Ruan 2005); and
- *Non-probability/snowball sampling*, namely heterogeneity sampling, was used for the purposes of this study after the business units had been determined randomly and responses on the questionnaire obtained. This followed a form of “quota sampling”; in that additional respondents were reached by the most accessible means to ensure that the sample size was sufficient for quantitative research (should an insufficient response rate have occurred). This sampling technique allowed for the researcher to include a broad spectrum of opinions or views, without being concerned about representing these views proportionately. Non-probability sampling also has an added advantage of convenience and economy (Welman and Kruger, 2001); another term for this is sampling for diversity. All individuals within the Public Sector Consulting companies involved in the research were requested to kindly forward the questionnaire to additional colleagues or any other economically active individuals that they felt would not mind participating in the research and to request of them to do the same. However this could also be considered a form of volunteer or self-selected sampling which has its own inherent problems, particularly if the respondents’ reason for responding and participating in the study differs from the remainder of the population (Hutchinson, 2004).

As already mentioned, as result of this the sample group expanded to include professionals in areas other than public sector consulting, with numerous responses being obtained from teachers. This created a unique opportunity to compare the perceptions of a predominantly female oriented work environment to those of a more mixed gender environment.

4.8.3 Sampling Procedure

“Sampling is concerned with drawing individuals or entities in a population in such a way as to permit generalization about the phenomena of interest from the sample to the population”

(Pinnesault and Kramer, 1993: 12).

The population under study is theoretically all economically active individuals in the public sphere in South Africa. The sampling frame available to the researcher was technically all individuals employed in the public sector consulting companies which agreed to participate in the research. There were also various business units which could be included in the study

Due to the fact that it would not have been practical to survey every one of these employees, a simple random sample of the various business units was conducted. This aimed to ensure that each business unit had an equal chance of being selected and therefore each employee had an equal probability of being selected. Justification of the utilisation of this method lies in the insurance that the sample is to some extent representative of the sampling frame (Welman & Kruger 2001).

Each business unit was typed into an excel spreadsheet and thereafter randomly re-ordered and the first four business units were then chosen to be sampled. These units were:

- Systems and Information Technology;
- Institutional Support;
- Transport; and
- Marketing and Communications.

All potential respondents in the initial target group were given the opportunity to complete the questionnaire in hard copy or electronically. In addition, various avenues for response and return of completed questionnaires were allowed including:

- Anonymous dropping off at a placed collection box at the researchers place of business;
- Postage to researchers address;
- Faxing of completed questionnaires;
- Emailing electronic completed questionnaire to researcher; and
- Scanning and emailing hard copy completed questionnaire to researcher.

The expected sample population for the public sector consulting companies was roughly 250 employees, with approximately this number of individuals being contacted to partake in the research. A census of all employees in the randomly selected business units was undertaken in a non-probabilistic manner (Welman & Kruger, 2001).

The lower the response rate the greater the likelihood that the quality of the findings will be found wanting. This can also have an effect on the types of statistical analyses which can be done and can be found to increase confidence intervals (King and He, 2006). When considering research on email and questionnaire response rates divergent views exist on this topic, however it appears that a response rate of about 30 percent is the accepted “norm”.

Whereas some other researchers argue that the nature and purpose of the research defines the acceptable parameters for response rates, namely should the purpose of the research be exploratory some researchers state that no minimum response rate is required; whereas if the purpose of the research is descriptive or explanatory a minimum response rate of between 60 percent-70 percent is required (Pinsonneault and Kraemer, 1993). Some researchers' feel that, as a rule of thumb, between 100 to 350 respondents is sufficient for Masters research (Perry, 200). However, this would imply that only about 75 individuals would respond, which is too small of a sample to utilise for the purposes of this research. Response rates for email versus posted surveys differ from study to study, with no resolution on the matter being reached apart from the recommendation that such surveys should be distributed to individuals with a tertiary education (Hutchinson, 2004). In light of this, together with the cost effectiveness of electronic dissemination of the majority of the questionnaires, it was decided that this would be the best technique to employ.

Subsequently the non-probability or snow-ball sampling technique was employed in conjunction with the census of employees in randomly selected units of the public sector consulting companies. With each Information letter attached to the questionnaire was a request to also forward the PPESAI to their colleagues or other individuals that respondents felt would participate in the research. For an example of the information letter and letter of consent distributed to respondents please refer to Appendix B.

This method was chosen as it ensures that enough respondents exist to do statistical analysis of data and hopefully further ensure that the sample is representative of the population being measured, as well as being more representative of age and relationship groups. If further random selection of employees from these business units was to be conducted the sample size would not be sufficient for proper statistical analysis, which is important for this study as a questionnaire has been specifically devised for the study and as such statistical data on its validity still has to be determined. Therefore, whilst the method may not be perfectly ideal for the proposed study when considering time constraints, expertise and resources at the researchers' disposal, this is the best method available.

The data collection method was an important consideration for this study, as it has time and additional resource implications (Pinsonneault and Kraemer, 1993). The distribution of mail questionnaires has been found to be a rich source of data, but may not cover all the necessary areas of analysis. However, this method was chosen as the best possible data collection method under the circumstances. All those individuals whom received a questionnaire via email or hand-delivery were given two weeks to complete the PPESAI and return it the researcher. Follow-up and reminder emails were sent out after one week and then again two days before the deadline for submission and on the final day for those

individuals whom had not responded or submitted their completed questionnaire to the researcher. This has been found to be a good method to employ with survey research (King and He, 2006). The final number of respondents obtained included 152 individuals; this indicates a response rate of approximately 60 percent. This is considered a fairly good response rate, as most of the returned questionnaires were obtained via email and is in line with the parameters set by the relevant body of knowledge (Pinsonneault and Kraemer, 1993).

4.9 Questionnaire Construction and Design

4.9.1 Introduction

The present research study adopted a survey research approach and as such the theory behind survey research and the design of a survey or questionnaire is relevant at this point, the former of which has already been discussed in preceding paragraphs. Baker (1988), states that there are four possible options available to a survey researcher with regards to the construction of items in his/her questionnaire. These options include the utilisation of open or close-ended questions; contingency questions or matrix questions. The first two possibilities are in all likelihood the ones which most are generally familiar with. The latter (matrix questions) are more complex and involve allowing respondents in a research study to answer questions or items with another set of questions, typically using a Likert-type, ordinal scale and making only one response on this scale per question (Baker, 1988; Guy and Norvell, 1977).

It is not uncommon to find questionnaires with a combination of these four options, as open ended responses in particular allow for a greater depth of information about a particular topic to be gathered. The disadvantage behind open-ended items is the amount of time and effort taken to code the responses made by research respondents, as well as the amount of extra time it will actually take the participant to make the response. Baker (1988) cautions about the construction of open-ended items, as research has shown that respondents are more likely to respond to close-ended (such as demographical and categorical items) and matrix type questions than they are to open ended questions. This is even more the case should the space available for the open ended response be perceived as too long, as well as if questions which are perceived as threatening appear early on in the instrument. Thus Baker (1988) cautions against these potential pitfalls and advocates proposition of interesting items early on in the questionnaire or instrument and utilisation of a smaller number of available lines for open-ended questions to encourage respondents to respond.

The remainder of this section covers the process of development of the PPESAI. Moreover, the relevant theory behind the development decisions made is provided in the relevant paragraphs hereunder.

4.9.2 Process of Development

A questionnaire was developed specifically for the research study in question. A substantial literature review was conducted from which previous research findings, examples of qualitative research constructs and definitions of alternative identified constructs to be assessed were analysed in depth. Information was found regarding sexual attraction in the workplace and its affects on employees and work groups in an American context. All of this information, contained in the preceding literature review, was utilised in the development of the PPESAI. The PPESAI is included herein as Appendix A.

It was important to keep in mind human information processing errors, in that even in instances when questions are appropriately posed and understood, there can be differences in interpretation which would subsequently have an effect on reliability and validity issues as a result of the irregularity of human information processing (Ford and Norris, 1991). This information was most helpful in constructing the items and developing the format of the questionnaire. Subsequently, the process of item generation is discussed in the section to follow.

4.9.3 Item Generation

A substantial literature review was conducted and from this body of information, previous research findings and alternative methods utilised to assess similar constructs as those of the study, various themes emerged. Information was found on the prevalence and effects of sexual attraction in the workplace and these findings formed the basis of the constructs which the questionnaire intends to measure. The researcher needs to ask themselves many questions and have to make numerous decisions when writing a survey item (Schaeffer and Presser, 2003). This process is fundamental to the generation of good quality items. Some of the considerations posed by Schaeffer and Presser (2003) include the provision of definitions surrounding some events and behaviours as well as the provision of a reference period in which a respondent should contextualise their responses. The issue herein lies with the recency effect previously mentioned. The purpose of the current research was not to look within a specific timeframe, but more over the course of the respondent's professional life and thus a reference period was not specifically given. The provision of definitions would also have been very time consuming and made the PPESAI appear lengthier in nature, which could have had detrimental effects on response rates.

With this theory in mind, research was conducted on the theory behind the development of such a questionnaire. When developing a questionnaire one of the most important things to consider is the purpose of that questionnaire (Owen & Taljaard, 1996). The purposes of the questionnaire in this study were to determine:

- Personal experience/observation of sexual attraction in the workplace along various identified dimensions/constructs;
- Perceived influence of sexual attraction on work related experiences and behaviours; and
- Management's perceived role in regulating / controlling sexual attraction in the workplace.

These purposes were kept in mind when constructing the items of the questionnaire. In addition to this, the advice of Schaeffer and Matell (2003) was also held in cognisance, namely thinking about the end-user, the participant to the research study. Basically, when a respondent is faced with an item or question they construct their own meaning surrounding that question which they incorporate into the interpretation thereof, together with why it is being posed to them and what might be considered an acceptable response. In order to construct the items for the questionnaire a very detailed summary of the literature review was made and from this summary a preliminary item pool was generated.

This item pool was narrowed down to form the questionnaire, named the PPESAI (Perceived Prevalence and Effect of Sexual Attraction Inventory). Whilst no formal pilot was conducted in which statistical results were generated, pre-testing of the PPESAI was conducted, discussed in greater detail in section 4.9.7

Items were designed with the constructs under study in this research in cognisance. As such, 10 items per construct or scale were generated and underwent a process of refinement until at least five items per scale remained with a total of 80 items ultimately comprising the PPESAI. These items were numbered and colour coded per scale in an excel spreadsheet. This item list was then randomly re-ordered to ensure further reliability of the PPESAI. This theme was carried throughout the data analysis process and is evident in the results presentation in Chapter Five, with each construct or scale colour coded according to the initial excel spreadsheet colours.

4.9.4 Composition of PPESAI Scales

The PPESAI scales devised were in line with the research questions for the study. Biographical information was also captured. The PPESAI scales consisted of a combination of positively and negatively worded items, those which had a negative orientation were re-worded and reversed for statistical analysis. A six point response scale was chosen for the fourteen PPESAI scales.

Responses on a scale can either be factual, such as biographical information pertaining to age and gender, or it can be perceptual, which includes responses on a Likert-type scale (King and He, 2006). The Likert-type scale was devised as a means to standardise response categories in survey research by Rensis Likert and therefore ultimately improve measurement in social research (Baker, 1988).

Opinions surrounding the appropriate number of response scales abound; with some researchers stating that utilisation of a three point scale is sufficient (Jacoby and Matell, 1971). The rationale behind their argument lies in the threshold number of response categories beyond which no further discriminatory value between items is added. Chang (1994) found that criterion-related validity was not affected by utilisation of either a four or six point scale and that the argument with regards to optimal scale response categories would not be an easily resolvable one. This concurs with findings by Jacoby and Matell (1971) that found that reliability and validity of an instrument was independent of the number of response categories on the Likert-type scale of the instrument. Instead Chang (1994) postulates that the use of a particular scale should depend on the research setting in question. Green and Rao (1970 in Jacoby and Matell, 1971) state that either a 6 or 7 point scale is best, particularly when multiple instruments are being utilised in a test battery. Even further to that, the use of a dichotomous scale has been argued to not have an influence on the reliability of the scale in a negative manner as opposed to a multidimensional scale (Komorita, 1963 in Jacoby and Matell, 1971). Schaeffer and Presser (2003), state that the number of response categories useful will be contingent on the ability of the respondents to discriminate between available response options provided by the scale.

Findings by Jacoby and Matell (1971) infer that a researcher is justified in scoring the items of their Likert-type scale in either a dichotomous or multidimensional nature according to the direction and intensity of the response to the items in question. A six point categorical response scale was ultimately decided upon for the purposes of this study, which would be analysed in a dichotomous manner. The response scale was categorised as follows:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Slightly Disagree
- 4 = Slightly Agree
- 5 = Agree
- 6 = Strongly Agree

The rationale behind utilisation of this scale for the PPESAI was that it would provide the most valuable information or results for the research in question. Consideration of a five point

Likert-type scale was made; however it was felt that giving respondents an option to respond “uncertain” or “unsure” could provide many worthless responses. The reason therefore is that due to the sensitive nature of the topic and the tendency that many respondents have to attempt to present themselves in a good light (namely the subject effect and tendency towards social desirability) that many respondents might use this option instead of capturing their true response. The issue of the relevance of the “unsure” or “don’t know” response category is considered by Schaeffer and Presser (2003); with their findings indicating that this option can have a substantial lowering effect on the number of respondents offering their perceptions.

Other scale options were also considered, such as providing only numeric labels for response between two verbally labelled endpoints for example strongly disagree and strongly agree. The problem therein, as Schaeffer and Presser (2003) point out is that respondents often assume the difference between response options to be equidistant. Findings have shown that providing verbal labels for these numeric options increases the reliability of the survey instrument (Alwin and Krosnik, 1991 in Schaeffer and Presser, 2003).

The questions posed on the majority of the PPESAI scales involved some form of agreement or acquiescence, as is evidenced in the paragraphs above. According to Schaeffer and Presser (2003) this is the most common method of formatting surveys and at the same time the most controversial. The reason therefore is that whilst they are easy to construct and to respond to, they encourage agreement with the statement in many cases. To ameliorate the effect of acquiescence, research encourages the use of balancing the direction of items on the survey, namely re-word or negatively word items pertaining to a specific issue (Schaeffer and Presser, 2003). The use of negatively worded items was made in the PPESAI.

Some frequency scales were also included in the PPESAI. Schaeffer and Presser (2003) state that frequency of behaviour scales can be either simple yes or no items, closed frequency or open frequency items. In the case of the present study simple yes-no items were used, as they were considered to be the least threatening to potential respondents, as they were on the first page of the PPESAI and the researcher did not want to adversely affect the response rate by making these items more threatening. However, the self-administering nature of the PPESAI may have lent itself to the reporting of more socially undesirable behaviours (Schaeffer and Presser, 2003).

Those scales which were ultimately chosen to comprise the PPESAI were in line with the literature study undertaken and research questions identified, namely: the Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction; Diversity in the workplace; Elements of Attraction; Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Productivity; Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on

Communication; Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Job Performance; Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Job Satisfaction; Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Stress; Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Job Involvement; Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Morale; Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Sexual Harassment; Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on the Individual; Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on the Workgroup; Perceived Motives of Sexual Attraction in the Workplace; Perceived role of Management in Regulating Workplace sexual Attraction. These scales and their reliability are discussed in greater detail in from section 4.9.8

The layout of a questionnaire is also an important consideration in its construction and design. The PPESAI consisted of two carefully considered sections. Section A covered biographical information and considerations; Section B was divided into two portions, the bulk of which pertained to categorical responses on a Likert-type six point scale and one open ended section wherein respondents were encouraged to provide any other information; insights or perceptions that they had about sexual attraction in the workplace.

4.9.5 Administration of the PPESAI

The PPESAI is a self-administered instrument. As such it did not require the researcher to observe and control the environment within which it was being answered, nor did they have to assist respondents in answering any of the questions. Research has shown that this type of administration can be valuable, particularly when topics which can be perceived to be of a sensitive nature are under investigation. The reason being that respondents are likely to be less concerned about self-presentation or social desirability and more likely to answer truthfully with regards to socially undesirable behaviour (Schaeffer and Presser, 2003).

4.9.6 Advantages of the PPESAI

Due to most research on this topic being of a qualitative nature, no instrument to the researchers' knowledge was in existence at the time of the study which would measure the desired constructs nor attend to the research questions and purpose of the study. As such, the PPESAI is a unique, custom tailored instrument which has been specifically designed for this research.

The instrument was designed to be easy to read and understand, as well as to have high face validity with the respondents. Moreover, it was designed specifically with the target audience in mind, which made it easier for them to relate to. The disadvantage thereof is that the face validity and applicability of some of the items might not be generalised across contexts, which must be held in cognisance when interpreting the results obtained.

4.9.7 Pre-testing of the PPESAI

No formal pilot study was conducted; however the researcher did consult with various employees within public sector engineering and academic professionals whom did not partake in the study, or form part of the sample group. The purpose of these consultations was to determine the face validity of the PPESAI; the appropriateness of the items contained therein as well as the amount of time taken to complete the PPESAI. After two revisions, the inventory was finalised for the proposed study. The PPESAI should take approximately 15 minutes to complete, although some individuals took about 20 minutes. However, this is likely to vary from person to person. It is important to note that the PPESAI is not a psychometric instrument. Thus the questionnaire did not require administration under supervision.

4.9.8 Statistical Properties of PPESAI

Reliability results are presented herein and briefly discussed with regards to each scale of the PPESAI, as well as the overall instrument. Table one provides an indication of the Cronbachs' alpha for each scale of the PPESAI.

Table 1: PPESAI Scale Reliability

Construct/ Scale	Cronbachs Alpha	N. of Items
Overall PPESAI	.910	80
Elements of Attraction	-.017	5
Perceived Effect on Workgroup	.217	5
Perceived Role of Management	.303	5
Perceived Motives of Sexual Attraction	.305	3
Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction in the Workplace	.689	9
Perceived Diversity	.467	6
Perceived Effect on Productivity	.757	5
Perceived Effect on Communication	.450	5
Perceived Effect on Job Performance	.678	5
Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	.807	5
Perceived Effect on Stress	.416	5
Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	.720	5
Perceived Effect on Morale	.425	5
Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	.549	5
Perceived Effect on the Individual	.518	5

4.9.9 Overall PPESAI Reliability

As is evidenced in table 1, the reliability of the PPESAI is sufficient for the purposes of this research. Particularly in light of the fact that this is not a psychometric instrument, the Cronbachs' Alpha value of 0.91 is highly desirable

4.9.10 Scales with Low Reliability

Whilst the following scales had very low reliability, they were not designed with the intent of being internally consistent (due to time and resource constraints) and as such were designed to measure some aspects of very complex, diverse constructs. The Cronbach Alpha values and the implications thereof are discussed with each scale or construct presented herein.

The result with regards to the scale pertaining to the Elements of Sexual Attraction (Cronbachs alpha = -.17) was expected, as elements of attraction are not consistent across all people, and it would have been near to impossible to attempt to define all of these elements within the scope of the current research. Each item rather attempted to measure an important aspect of attraction in the work environment, relevant to the present study.

A Cronbach's Alpha value of 0.217 for the scale pertaining to the Perceived Effects of Sexual Attraction in the Workplace on a Workgroup was surprisingly low. Reasons for this could be varied. In all likelihood, this scale did not necessarily include enough items to cover the full ambit of effects on a working group. Moreover, due to individual differences in experiences and perceptions combined with differing opinions surrounding what comprises a work group could have played a role in this low alpha value. This must be held in cognisance when interpreting results and correlations with this construct or scale.

The Perceived Role of Management scale was intended as an additional insight into perceptions regarding the regulation of sexual attraction in the workplace and as such was not comprehensively defined for this instrument. Each item, however, provided valuable information with regards to respondents' perceptions of management involvement on the regulation of sexual attraction in the workplace.

The Perceived Influence of Motives behind sexual attraction in the workplace also revealed fairly low Cronbach's alpha values. This should not be disheartening, as the construct contained only three items, which would not be viewed as sufficient in and of itself as a means of measuring the perceived effects thereof. It is also important to note that each of the motives that could exist for this construct could in themselves be separate constructs. That would have required substantially more items to be generated and the PPESAI would have taken a lot longer to complete. In addition, the perceived effect of motives underlying sexual

attraction in the workplace is beyond the scope of the present study. Subsequently, this reliability value is acceptable within the current framework of analysis.

4.9.11 Reliability of Other PPESAI Scales

Other PPESAI Scales evidenced acceptable to good Cronbachs Alpha validity values. Of the scales still left to discuss, two did not consist of five items, namely the Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction in the workplace (Cronbachs alpha of 0.67) which had nine items and the scale pertaining to Diversity in the workplace (Cronbachs alpha of 0.47) consisted of six items. The remaining five-item scales and their respective Cronbach' s Alpha values pertained to the perceived effects of sexual attraction in the workplace on various workplace or organisational dynamics, such as on Productivity (Cronbachs alpha of .757); Communication (Cronbachs alpha of 0.45); Job Performance (Cronbachs alpha of 0.678); Job Satisfaction (Cronbachs alpha of 0.807); Stress (Cronbachs alpha of 0.416); Job Involvement (Cronbachs alpha of 0.72); Morale (Cronbachs alpha of 0.425); Sexual Harassment (Cronbachs alpha of 0.549) and the Individual (Cronbachs alpha of 0.518).

The overall validity of the PPESAI is definitely greater than any of its scales when viewed independently. This is an important factor to hold in consideration when evaluating the results of the analyses conducted and presented in the Chapters to follow.

4.10 Computerisation and Coding of the Data

Once all allowances had been made for potential respondents to respond to the PPESAI and the deadline of two weeks had passed, all available and completed PPESAI's were separated from their signed consent forms and given a unique identifying number. This identification number was to correspond with each completed questionnaire, so that any errors or queries could be attended to when checking the dataset. The researcher captured all the responses into an Excel spreadsheet. This excel spreadsheet was then exported into the SPSS programme and a codebook was created for all the necessary variables and categories.

Open ended responses were evaluated and codes assigned to the type of response given by respondents. These open ended responses were also captured verbatim in the excel spreadsheet already mentioned. The SPSS data set was then checked for any errors, and those that arose were checked against the relevant questionnaire.

Negatively worded items were noted in the survey design phase and at this point were reversed and given the appropriate meaning. For example, if a statement was negatively

worded (I think sexual attraction has a negative effective on group communications) the responses on this item were reversed and the wording of the question was changed to a positively phrased one (I think that sexual attraction has a positive effect on group communications). This was done so that appropriate statistical analyses could be conducted and reliability values of the various scales could be computed. The reversed items dataset was saved under a different name, so that the original was still intact, which would have use for the descriptive statistics to be analysed by the researcher. Further statistical analyses are discussed in the paragraphs to follow.

4.11 Statistical Methods used in Data Processing

4.11.1 Introduction

“Statistics, as a field, is predicated on the notion of random sampling. Many of its techniques and tests make specific assumptions about the measures, and/or characteristics of the distribution” (King and He, 2006:17-18).

The objectives of the present research have been discussed in depth in preceding sections and the data collected throughout the course of the research were analysed with relevant statistical tools at the researchers’ disposal. The majority of statistics generated were descriptive in nature; with analysis of variance (ANOVA) correlational analyses and non-parametric statistics being prominent. Utilisation was made of parametric tests as far as possible and applicable, should all the necessary assumptions be met and if this is not the case the non-parametric alternative were utilised. Each of these statistical tools and the relevant assumptions underlying their utilisation will subsequently be discussed in the paragraphs to follow hereunder.

4.11.2 Descriptive Statistics

Data can be organised and presented through the presentation or offering of summaries thereof; the core of which is otherwise known as descriptive statistics (Ruane, 2005). Kadane (1978:195) elaborates, saying that descriptive statistics involve the utilisation of graphical procedures and measures of location and scale to *“explore data, find anomalies, display patterns of association, and show what one has found”*. Descriptive statistics have multiple uses according to Pallant (2005); they allow a researcher to answer specific research questions, to describe their sample and to check for assumption violations for those which underlie the statistical techniques one plans to use on the data.

Tukey set about establishing the difference between exploratory and confirmatory data, the latter of which we will not concern ourselves with at this point as it involves the statistical

analysis of this data (Tukey 1977 in Kadane, 1978). Exploratory data analysis in terms of descriptive statistics involves the evaluation of information from multiple viewpoints so as to present an overview or big picture of the concept under research. Bickel and Lehmann (1975) perceive descriptive statistics to simply deal with the measurement of various aspects of a population under study. The utilisation of descriptive techniques assist both the researcher and their target audience understand a greater deal about the information and data generated by the research (McHugh, 2003). Wienclaw (2008a) states that descriptive statistics, whilst very useful, do not allow one to reach conclusions or make predications in the same manner as inferential statistics and data.

The level of measurement is an important consideration when generating descriptive statistics, as measurement can be either nominal (responses are assigned a name or number for each category although the number is merely per functionary and does not infer any value); ordinal (the second level of measurement where numbers assigned to categories represent magnitude yet do not have equal intervals there between); interval (categories and magnitude yet with equal intervals there between with no absolute zero) or ratio (implications of length and with an absolute zero value) (McHugh, 2003).

Descriptive statistics are used to describe variables; they basically provide a picture of the characteristics of the research respondents. Therefore, they were utilised in analysis and presentation of biographical data in the present study. These statistics were also utilised for the remainder of the questionnaire on the prevalence and perceived effect of sexual attraction in the workplace. It is highly appropriate that descriptive statistics are utilised for the exploratory and descriptive nature of the proposed study.

Descriptive techniques involve the presentation of such information through the utilisation of percentages, means, medians, modes, standard deviations, frequency and normality distributions and the standard error of the mean (Bickle and Lehmann, 1975; McHugh, 2003a). The normal distribution is one of the most important forms of descriptive statistics to be generated; the assumption of normality underlies all parametric statistics (Pallant, 2005). A normal distribution can be best described as a “*symmetrical, bell-shaped curve, which has the greatest frequency of scores in the middle, with smaller frequencies towards the extremes*” (Pallant, 2005: 53). Normality was determined by means of the Kologrov-Smirnov statistic and can be gleaned from histograms and Q-Q plots generated in the output obtained from the SPSS programme for descriptive statistics. The descriptive statistics were also utilised to determine if outliers exist, which can affect the overall results. Thus by identifying outliers the researcher will ensure that sensitivity due to outliers can be minimized as they could be removed from the data set for that particular analysis. Furthermore, additional value

of determining normality for the proposed study lies in determining the type of statistics to be utilised for more advanced analyses (correlation analyses).

Tukey, (1977 in Kadane, 1978) does, however caution against the over simplification of descriptive statistics due to their fairly simplistic nature, as much value can be found in the utilisation of these forms of statistics. Types of descriptive statistics which are used in the present study are subsequently discussed.

4.11.3 Measures of Central Tendency

McHugh (2003b & 2003a) explains that measures of central tendency are also sometimes known as measures of location and attempt to define the midpoint of a distribution. They are the most commonly utilised form of descriptive statistics and are particularly useful for demonstrating the where cases fall within the distribution. She goes further to state that the level of measurement will influence the type of central tendency measure utilised, the mean, median or mode. These values are useful for understanding information pertaining to large amounts of data and are affected by the shape of the distribution and its outliers in different ways (Wienclaw, 2008a) and are discussed in more detail hereunder.

4.11.3.1 The Mean

The simplest manner of describing this measure of central tendency would be the arithmetic average of all the scores in a particular distribution. The mean can be very misleading should a distribution contain extreme scores or outliers, which need to be considered in the initial analysis of a dataset (McHugh, 2003b & Wienclaw, 2008a).

4.11.3.2 The Median

The median is often referred to as the mid-point of a dataset or the 50th percentile thereof (McHugh, 2003b). According to Wienclaw (2008), this midpoint refers to the value in the middle of a distribution when all the values are arranged in order. The type of data being utilised in the study once again has a part to play with the use of the median, with ordinal data having the greater likelihood of this being the best measure of central tendency to utilise. The normality of the distribution in question is also an important consideration, in which case all three measures of central tendency will be the same (McHugh, 2003b). Wienclaw (2008a) further states that the median is often pulled in the same direction as the skewness of the distribution in question and is sometimes very misleading. As such all measure of central tendency need to be evaluated in an integrated manner.

4.11.3.3 The Mode

The mode is considered the only valuable means of central tendency for data on a nominal scale (McHugh, 2003b). It refers to the number or data value occurring most often in a particular distribution (Wienclaw, 2008a). These authors add that this measure of central tendency has the added advantage of being very quick and easy to determine. However, it is fairly unstable and does not take the whole picture into account and thus is a better measure of indicating which response is the most frequently occurring (Wienclaw, 2008a).

4.11.4 Measures of Variation

Wienclaw (2008b:4), describes measures of variability as a subset of “*descriptive statistics that summarise how widely dispersed data is over the distribution*”. These measures of variation include range, skewness, kurtosis, standard deviation and the standard error of the mean. Whilst the latter will be discussed separately, skewness, kurtosis and range are also utilised in this study. Range implies the difference between the highest and lowest scores obtained on a particular variable or item and allows one to gain a deeper understanding with regards to ones data. Skewness is indication of the extent to and direction in which data is skewed or leaning towards, with positively skewed data indicating more negative or lower responses in the case of the present study. A negatively skewed distribution implies data is leaning towards the right of a distribution and thus has more high or positive responses. It is important to note that Pearson himself cautioned that the presence of normal distributions and the like were in fact not often accurate representations of the real world and thus the skewness of a distribution may in fact be more “normal” than a perfectly normal distribution (Blyth, 1994).

4.11.4.1 Standard Deviation

“*The standard deviation is a mathematically derived index of the degree to which scores differ from the mean of the distribution*” (Wienclaw, 2008b:4). She elaborates by illustrating the means of calculating the standard deviation of a particular distribution, wherein a researcher will determine the deviation of each score from the mean, squaring this result and adding all of the squared deviations and ultimately dividing it by the total number of scores (Wienclaw, 2008b). When one has normally distributed data, two thirds of the scores will lie within one standard deviation of the mean and subsequently the greater the standard deviation, the more variability exists in the scores (Wienclaw, 2008b). Whilst this can be done manually, it is very time consuming when one is faced with a large dataset, luckily modern statistical programmes are able to generate this information. One such programme, which has been extensively used in the current study, is SPSS.

4.11.4.2 Standard Error of the Mean

The standard error of the mean is “a measure of variability of differences between sample means” (Field, 2005). Should these differences be substantial, this has implications for the external validity of the results generated. Therefore, the chances of incorrect conclusions being drawn about the population from whence the sample originated or is intended to transfer the results to is higher should the standard error of the mean be high. It is also important to note that this statistic is also referred to as the standard error of differences.

4.11.4.3 Frequency Tables and Distributions

These descriptive statistical tools are methods utilised to present the frequency of responses or observations in either a graphical or tabular format (Field, 2005; Wienclaw, 2008b). Values which can be used include percentages and cumulative percentages.

4.11.5 Parametric Associational Statistics

Parametric statistics are generally held by most in higher esteem, with greater potency than their nonparametric alternatives; however they are subject to more confining assumptions and, in the violation thereof, can be seen to be less robust than the nonparametric alternative (Stonehouse and Forrester, 1998). In order to utilise parametric statistics appropriately and, subsequently, effectively a researcher needs to ensure that all the necessary assumptions for each parametric test are met by the data one plans to conduct the analysis on. The parametric statistics utilised to determine association between variables are subsequently discussed, as well as the assumptions which should be, and were, tested for in the current research. Unless otherwise stated in the presentation and discussion of the results of the research, parametric statistics were utilised as far as possible.

4.11.6 Correlation Analysis – Pearsons r

The Pearson’s (Product-Moment) correlation coefficient r is the uniform quantification of the strength of a relationship between two variables (Field, 2005; Chatillon, 1984). The concept of correlation was based on Galton’s work, whom first introduced the concept, with the correlation coefficient being created by Pearson (Wright, 1992). Values of r are expressed along a range of -1 (a negative correlation) to +1 (positive correlation), with values close to zero indicating the absence of a relationship between the two variables (Field, 2005; Wienclaw, 2008b; Chatillon, 1984). It is important to note that correlation does not imply causation by any means (Wienclaw, 2008b). Some of the pre-tests conducted can in actual fact give a good indication of the value of r , particularly with values close to -1 and +1. This can be evidenced in a scatter plot diagram generated as part of the descriptive statistics and

checking for assumptions of normality. Chatillon (1984) proposes the application of a “balloon rule” in this regard, by surrounding the scatter plot with a “birthday balloon” or ellipse shape, which can give a good indication of the r value. However, he cautions that this method does not by any means replace the actual calculation and as such the r value must still be calculated. A rule of thumb with interpreting the correlation coefficient in Field (2005) is that values of ± 0.1 are indicative of a small effect; ± 0.3 represents a medium effect and values of ± 0.5 and over represent a large effect.

Assumptions which need to be met for conducting this parametric test include having a ratio or interval scale of measurement, or one dichotomous independent variable with approximately the same number of respondents per category, and the other a continuous dependent variable. The equality of sample sizes has been shown to be very important in previous research (Stonehouse and Forrester, 1998). The assumption of related pairs is also important in that data on both variables needs to originate from the same respondent. Observations made need to be independent of each other; therefore this assumes that one data point, observation or measurement does not influence another (Pallant, 2002; Field, 2005). This is likely to occur when research is conducted in interactive group settings (Pallant, 2002). In addition, the assumption of normality must be met and the relationship between variables linear (Field, 2005; Pallant, 2002).

4.11.7 Independent Samples T-Test

When one wants to explore the differences between two groups, the independent-samples t-test is utilised (Pallant, 2002). This involves comparing the differences in the mean score on a continuous variable for two separate focal groups (dichotomous variable). Field (2005) states that should the two groups come from the same population; it is initially assumed that their means will be essentially similar. However, if the difference in the means is greater than anticipated, one can assume that the group means differ because of the experimental manipulation or, in this case, the effect of the dependent variable. The t-test measures the degree to which the observed differences in mean scores occurred by chance or if they are in fact significant differences (Field, 2005). This is calculated by determining the effect size, where the t-statistic is converted to a value of *eta squared* or r (Pallant, 2002; Field, 2005). The eta squared value can range from 0 to 1 and indicates what percent of the variance in the dependent variable can be explained by the group in question or independent variable. In the case of the present study this would refer to, for example, what amount of the variation in the perceived effect of sexual attraction on organisational communication is influenced by the gender of the respondents. The formula for calculating the effect size as indicated in Pallant (2002) is:

$$\text{Eta squared} = \frac{t^2}{t^2 + (N1 + N2 - 2)}$$

Where $N1 + N2 - 2$ refers to the degrees of freedom associated with the eta squared value. The N values refer to the size of the grouping independent variable utilised. For purposes of this research, Cohens (1988 in Pallant, 2002) guideline for interpreting effect sizes will be utilised, namely values of 0.01 are considered small, values of 0.06 are moderate effect sizes and values of 0.14 and over are indicative of a large effect size.

Both the Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and the Independent-samples t-test are parametric statistics used in research to compare groups. As such, the assumptions for each are essentially similar. These general assumptions pertain to the level of measurement with the independent variable being on an interval or ratio scale and the dependent variable of a continuous nature. Random sampling is also assumed with these two techniques, which Pallant (2002) warns is often not true of real-life research scenarios. Once again, independence of observations is crucial as is the assumption of normality, to be determined through generation of descriptive statistics by the SPSS programme. The final assumption pertains to the ideal wherein samples are obtained from populations of equal variance, namely the homogeneity of variance assumption, which can be tested for through conducting Levene's test for equality of variances (this is part of the t-test analysis) (Pallant, 2002).

4.11.8 One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

Field (2005) describes the ANOVA as a statistical method utilised in research to determine whether the means of various groups involved in the study differ, whereas Fisher (1934:in Speed, 1987:885) states that analysis of variances is not so much "...a *mathematical theorem, but rather a convenient way of arranging arithmetic.*" Speed (1987:885) defines the ANOVA as "*being concerned with the sum of squares of numbers and independent quadratic forms of random variables.*" One of the most valuable statistical tools for exploratory and confirmatory data analysis is the ANOVA according to Gelman (2005). The one-way ANOVA is utilised in instances when the researcher is exploring the differences between groups of three or more based on only one independent variable (Pallant, 2002).

The same assumptions apply for the one-way ANOVA as for the independent samples t-test. However, an additional requirement for a one-way ANOVA pertains to the nature of the variables required to do the analyses, with one categorical independent variable with a minimum of three discrete categories as well as one continuous dependent variable (Fields,

2005; Pallant, 2002). Utilisation will also be made of calculation of the effect size for all one-way ANOVA's generated. Once again, Cohnes (1988 in Pallant, 2002) guidelines as to the interpretation of this value will be utilised.

The formula used to calculate the eta squared in Pallant (2002) for the one-way ANOVA is as follows:

$$\text{Eta squared} = \frac{\text{Sum of squares between groups}}{\text{Total sum of squares}}$$

The one-way ANOVA is subsequently concerned with the comparison of means from three groups or more (Pallant, 2002). This will be useful in the present study for comparison of differences between age groups, respondents' possible relationship status and industry. This method was utilised as far as the assumptions necessary for parametric statistics were met. In instances when the assumptions were violated, the nonparametric alternative of the Kruskal-Wallis test was utilised. This is discussed in greater detail in the section pertaining to non-parametric statistics.

4.11.9 Non-Parametric Statistics

Nonparametric statistics are utilised in instances when the necessary assumptions for parametric statistics are violated. In spite of this, some assumptions do still need to be met, namely random samples and independence of observations (Pallant, 2002). These statistics are best used according to Stonehouse and Forrester (1998) when assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variances have been violated, as the use of the parametric test in this instance could result in a much greater likelihood of a type 1 error occurring whereby a null hypothesis is reported as being false when it is in fact true. In the instance that this occurred in the present study, the non-parametric alternative was utilised in each case. Nonparametric statistics are comparable, distribution free alternatives to the tests discussed in the preceding section (Stonehouse & Forrester 1998).

4.11.10 Spearman's Rank Order Correlation and Kendalls Tau

Spearman's rho (Spearman, 1904) and Kendall's tau (Kendall, 1938) are two regularly applied nonparametric methods of identifying relationships between two variables (Taylor 1987). The choice or rationale behind using either method has been hotly contested over the years, with Kendal claiming that the use of the tau over the rho is preferable for both theoretical and practical reasons as the population parameter being analysed has a simpler interpretation (Taylor, 1987). Research findings have indicated however, that in terms of

power approximations of both the rho and the tau, they are essentially similar. However, Spearman's rho is practically preferred for the simplicity of form that the statistic assumes compared with Kendall's Tau (Taylor, 1987).

Field (2005) postulates that Spearman's rho should be utilised except in instances where the researcher has a small data set with a large number of scores have the same rank in which case Kendall's Tau should be the method used. He goes further to state that whilst Spearman's is the more popular method to use, Kendall's tau will enable a researcher to draw more accurate generalisations than the former statistic (Field, 2005).

4.11.11 Mann-Whitney U Test

The Mann-Whitney U test is a more robust means of assessing the variance between the means of two groups than the independent samples t-test should the assumptions for parametric statistics not have been met. This is particularly the case when the sample or group sizes are asymmetrical in nature (Stonehouse and Forrester, 1998). Interestingly enough, research conducted has shown that the t-test and the Mann-Whitney U test present remarkably similar results when the variance and normality of populations is equal, even in cases of abnormality of the sample similar results were obtained, indicating that the t-test may be more robust than originally thought should the variances and distributions of the groups be the same (Stonehouse and Forrester, 1998). However, an understanding of the U-test is necessary, as it is not an exact analogue of the t-test and rather measures the difference between the rank orders or medians of two groups (Field, 2005; Pallant, 2002; Stonehouse and Forrester, 1998). Subsequently it is a very useful test to utilise, as it is in fact very sensitive to central tendency and asymmetry and as such the researcher can obtain valuable information with regards to shifts in the sample distributions, or skewness of the distributions, when the mean remains unchanged (Stonehouse and Forrester, 1998).

An effect size can also be calculated for this statistic through the following calculation illustrated in Field (2005):

$$\text{Eta squared} = \frac{Z}{\text{Square root of } N}$$

Where Z is the Z score generated by the Mann-Witney U test in the SPSS programme and N refers to the total size of the sample utilised.

4.11.12 Kruskal Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance

The Kruskal-Wallis is one of the most commonly utilised versions of non-parametric statistics (Hollington and Smith, 1979). The Kruskal-Wallis can be utilised to compare several populations or groups (Vargha and Delaney, 1998). The procedure of generating this statistic involves replacing each observation or score by its rank within the pool of responses gained; thereafter the sum of squares is calculated in much the same way as the ANOVA. Thus, like the Mann-Whitney U test, this involves ranking of data (Field, 2005). The value of using the Kruskal-Wallis is that is distribution free and despite being a nonparametric statistic, has good power properties when used on large samples (Hollington and Smith, 1979; Vargha and Delaney, 1998). Moreover, it is not required for the distribution to be normal or for homogeneity of variances to exist; the only requirement is the dependent variable on an ordinal scale of measurement (Vargha and Delaney, 1998). The Kruskal-Wallis, according to Vargha and Delaney (1998:186) actually *“measures the tendency for observations in at least one of the populations to be larger (or smaller) than all the remaining populations together.”* As such, these authors advise against using non-parametric statistics purely because parametric assumptions have been violated and that the researcher should in fact determine what type of hypothesis or research question they are trying to answer before making the decision to use parametric or nonparametric statistics. They say that parametric statistics such as the Kruskal-Wallis should be utilised when the researcher wishes to gain a more holistic perspective of the population under study and whether the scores of different groups are alike (Vargha and Delaney, 1998).

4.12 Ethical Considerations

Ethical behaviour is not governed by hard-and-fast rules, it involves a general philosophy of human conduct with an emphasis on the determination of right and wrong (Peterson and Ferrell, 2005). Because ethics is not a ‘black-and-white’ domain, professionals are to follow strict ethical guidelines, as well as adhere to clear requirements (codes of conduct) as is dictated by institutionalised agencies for surveillance of practice (Cascio and Aguinis, 2005).

Plagiarism is an issue which is particularly relevant for the literature review and report writing. As such to combat this, the researcher ensured that all references have been included in line with the academic requirements and are indicated with every piece of information which is not the researchers own, or common knowledge. A running record of articles consulted has been kept, with paraphrasing having been done appropriately whereby findings of various authors have as far as possible been put in this researchers own words. Where this is impossible the information was appropriately quoted and referenced in text. Thus every attempt was made to avoid plagiarism.

This research was conducted in compliance with and guided by the “Ethical Code of Professional Conduct” as is stipulated by The Professional Board for Psychology, Health Professions Council of South Africa (Babbie and Mouton, 2001:529-531). This “Ethical Code of Professional Conduct” clearly indicates what is deemed acceptable and unacceptable conduct from the research planning phase through to the publication of research findings.

Based on the International Test Commission’s Guidelines for Test Use (2000), one could define fair assessment practices as entailing:

- The appropriate, fair, professional and ethical use of assessment measures and assessment results;
- Taking into account the needs and rights of those involved in the assessment process;
- Ensuring that the assessment conducted closely matches the purpose to which the assessment results will be put; and
- Taking into account the broader social, cultural, and political context in which assessment is used and the ways in which such factors might affect assessment results, their interpretation and the use to which they are put (Foxcroft and Roodt, 2001:117).

Some of the very important ethical issues attended to in the study are listed below. Each issue is also further discussed in greater detail.

- *Privacy and Voluntary Participation:* When conducting research in any context the concept of voluntary participation is central to the ethical conduct of the study. Participation in survey research should be voluntary and respondents may refuse to reveal certain information about themselves, withdraw from the research study at any time and should be informed of the consequences of withdrawing and the risks involved.
- Respondents should not be coerced in any way as a result of the organisational setting of the proposed study. The setting of the study was within the work setting of the respondents, which could result in some individuals feeling coerced into participating in the proposed study as they might feel pressured to complete the questionnaire because others around them are completing it. However, the researcher made every effort to reiterate that participation is entirely voluntary and that respondents have the right to withdraw their consent at any time. Their right to privacy, furthermore, demands that direct consent be obtained.
- *Informed consent.* This consent must be informed, in the sense that the respondents were made aware of the consequences of participation; were informed of the rights and responsibilities of each party as well as the nature and purpose of the research (Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Cascio and Aguinis, 2005). More specifically, researchers should uphold the right of research respondents to be fully informed about all aspects of a

research project that might influence their decision to participate (Ruane, 2005). This is necessary to ensure that ethical obligations are upheld.

The consent form was written in such a manner that respondents with different qualifications and education levels as well as differing home languages would be able to understand it. Thus complex language was avoided as far as possible as was terminology that the respondents might be unfamiliar with. Within the realm of informed consent, information is highly important, by this it is meant that the researcher ensured that all respondents were given full information on all aspects of the proposed research and the processes that were to occur. In addition to this, they were also informed of the ultimate aim of the study and the relationship of the researcher with them. Information that might have had an influence on the decision of respondents to participate in the proposed study could include the following:

- They would not be given individual feedback;
 - That the prevalence and perceived effects of sexual attraction in the workplace are being explored;
 - Both positive and negative effects of sexual attraction have been found in previous research on similar topics;
 - Previous research has been mainly American or British oriented;
 - Complete anonymity would be maintained throughout the proposed study, no records of personal details or identifying factors were to be used in the analysis. In addition, neither individual results nor profiles would be examined in isolation and therefore no individual would be identified in the final report;
 - The final report and research findings of the sample group would be available to any of the respondents in the sample of the study whom wished to see the final conclusions; and
 - In order to gain access to the report, respondents would have to contact the researcher personally or make a request through their relevant supervisor.
- *Confidentiality*: Researchers conducting survey research should ensure that data collected will only be used for the stated purpose of the research and that no personal information related to the participant will be discussed or shared with anyone without consent (Mouton, 2001; Voskuil and Evers, 2007).
 - *Anonymity*: Neither the names, nor any identifiable background information of respondents may be disclosed. Information on sexual attraction is of a private or sensitive nature and should be respected and regarded as such by ensuring that the information provided by the respondents cannot be personally linked to them (Babbie and Mouton, 2001; Ruane, 2005).

- *Accountability*: Researchers may be held accountable for the way in which survey data is used and interpreted, as well as for protecting the security and confidentiality of obtained information (Voskuijl and Evers, 2007).

Beyond these considerations, the following were also considered important due to the controversial and sensitive nature of the research topic:

- *Ensure that the research study does not entail harm to respondents*. The research study should neither pose unreasonable risks to respondents nor expose respondents to circumstances that are incompatible with the fundamental ethical obligation to safeguard the physical, psychological and emotional well-being of respondents (Babbie and Mouton, 2001). This includes the ethical obligation of anticipating likely outcomes or consequences and to take the necessary steps needed to mitigate the harm and maximise the benefits for respondents (Ruane, 2005). However, as a researcher one has an ethical obligation to ensure that whilst minimising potential harm that respondents' should also get the most out of the experience as possible. In light of this the researcher explained the aim of the research study to respondents in full before distribution of the PPESAI. The exact role of the respondents in the proposed study was explained, with respondents being afforded the opportunity to communicate any concerns or questions directly to the researcher.

Harm to respondents could also be inferred by test anxiety, which was a possibility with the study in question. Attempts to minimise this were undertaken and included but were not limited to explaining that:

- This was not a test and as such there were no right or wrong answers;
- The questionnaire was not designed to "trick" them;
- The study was exploratory, thus no judgements would be made about them as individuals;
- The results were in no way going to be linked to them;
- Only the researcher would have access to their results and that their supervisors and colleagues would in no way have access to their responses; and
- That the results in no way reflected on their intelligence, morality or conscience.

It is important to note that due to the sensitive nature of the topic of the research the information that was given by respondents may be viewed as highly sensitive, personal and confidential and some respondents may have been anxious that the results could be used against them. Some respondents could theoretically have a 'conspiracy theory' attitude and think that their personal experience of sexual attraction or perceptions thereof in the workplace could be linked to them individually and subsequently could be compounded by a fear of their supervisors gaining access to their responses and using

this against them or being biased towards them. In a similar vein, respondents may have felt that the results could reflect negatively on them as a group or business unit. In order to safeguard this, the principle of anonymity was strictly enforced.

- *Conduct research in a socially responsive and responsible manner.* Respondents were treated with respect and consideration; acknowledging them as persons in specific contexts with specific needs, protecting them from possible negative consequences of the research, and demanding only of them to produce relevant and reasonable information (Cascio and Aguinis, 2005; Peterson and Ferrell, 2005; Voskuijl and Evers, 2007). Due to the study not being subject to review by an ethical board an ethical concern does exist with regards to the protection of various rights of the research respondents. In order to overcome this, the researcher consulted numerous published journal articles and took note of how research in similar contexts has been conducted. Furthermore, if an ethical concern was raised, consultation would be sought with the supervisor of the proposed study to ascertain if ethical problems were occurring and advice would be solicited to resolve the situation.
- *Minimise invasiveness.* When conducting research, interference with respondents should only take place in a manner that is warranted by an appropriate research design and that is consistent with researcher's role as a scientific investigator (Babbie and Mouton, 2001).
- *Ethical reporting.* Issues pertaining to ethical reporting were also relevant for the study because as a person in a working environment the researcher already has her own conceptions of the prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace and the effects thereof within the workplace. This is something that was kept in mind when analysing the results obtained. As such, the researcher reported on all findings, all statistical analyses are included within the final report or in the appendices thereof so that they are available for the public and academic community to refer to in order to confirm what is stated in the final report of the proposed study. Results which are in conflict with predominant literature and research were also reported and linked or compared to the body of literature.

4.13 Conclusion

This chapter contained a highly detailed discussion of the research design and methodology for the present study as well as the overarching research paradigm underlying and contextualising the research on the perceived prevalence and effects of sexual attraction in the workplace. The research strategy was explained in depth and was followed by a discussion of survey research methodology and its application with regards to the current research. Implications of the chosen research strategy and design on validity and reliability

criteria were also mentioned. The population under study was adequately demarcated, with a definition of the sample of the present research and sampling procedures and methods utilised following thereafter. The process of development of the assessment and/or data collection instrument, the PPESAI, was comprehensively discussed, together with the resulting statistical properties of the instruments and its scales. Statistical considerations were also made and discussed with relevance and applicability to the research questions stated in the body of this chapter. The final section of this chapter pertained to detailed ethical considerations of the present research which were taken into account. The presentation of results from the PPESAI will follow in the next chapter, focusing on a description of the sample and subsequent descriptive statistics, with associational and inferential analyses following thereafter.

CHAPTER 5

PRESENTATION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

This chapter contains the comprehensive, integrated presentation and preliminary analysis of the results generated in conducting the research on the perceived prevalence and effects of sexual attraction in the workplace. It is important to note that results are presented in various categories the first of which being a description of the characteristics of the sample involved in the research through utilisation of frequency distributions and bar graphs. Thereafter descriptive statistics are presented in a similar format. The presentation of correlational and differential statistics follows thereafter. The results will be discussed within the context of the literature in the chapter to follow.

5.2 Description of Sample Characteristics

The manner in which the sample was selected resulted in diversity of respondents involved in the study. In order to better understand the value and significance of the results of the PPESAI it is essential to obtain a firm grasp of the biographical composition of the sample in question. This understanding is expanded upon in the descriptive, biographical statistics below.

5.2.1 Frequency Distributions

Biographical data was collected with the intention of being non-threatening to respondents in the research study, namely with the aim in mind of ensuring that the questions asked would not make them uncomfortable or negative towards the study. Key areas for the purpose of the research identified by the researcher are presented hereunder, namely the respondents profession; industry in which they work (gleaned from response forms and sample groups involved in the study); relationship status; sex; age; length of marriage or relationship; awareness of sexual attraction amongst co-workers; personal experience of sexual attraction in the workplace and workplace rendezvous incidents.

Table 2: Frequency Distribution – Profession

Profession	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Legal	2	1.3	1.3	1.3
Engineering	6	3.9	3.9	5.3
Human Resources & Related	21	13.8	13.8	19.1
Business Analysis	12	7.9	7.9	27.0
Accounting & Related	15	9.9	9.9	36.8
Project Management	5	3.3	3.3	40.1
Management	15	9.9	9.9	50.0
Teacher	23	15.1	15.1	65.1
Programmer	4	2.6	2.6	67.8
Student/Trainee	9	5.9	5.9	73.7
Arts	2	1.3	1.3	75.0
IT	5	3.3	3.3	78.3
Secretarial	9	5.9	5.9	84.2
Admin & Support	6	3.9	3.9	88.2
GIS	3	2.0	2.0	90.1
Psychology	4	2.6	2.6	92.8
Doctor	1	.7	.7	93.4
Sales	3	2.0	2.0	95.4
Assessor	1	.7	.7	96.1
Instructor	1	.7	.7	96.7
Pensioner	1	.7	.7	97.4
Unspecified	3	2.0	2.0	99.3
Technologist	1	.7	.7	100.0
Total	152	100.0	100.0	

Various professions were represented by respondents in the research study, with the largest portions of respondents being in the teaching (15.1%) and human resources and related (13.8%) professions. Other professions undertaken by respondents included: Accounting and related (9.9%); Management (9.9%); Business Analysis (7.9%); Trainee's (5.9%); Secretarial (5.9%); Engineering (3.9%); Administration and Support (3.9%); Project Management (3.3%); Information Technology (IT) (3.3%); Psychology (2.6%); GIS (2%); Sales (2%); Arts (1.3%) and Legal (1.3%). Three respondents (2%) did not specify their profession and only one respondent filled each category of: Doctor (0.7%); Assessor (0.7%); Instructor (0.7%); Pensioner (0.7%) and Technologist (0.7%).

It is clear from the above table that it is also necessary to further organise respondents into groups according to the Industry that they are currently employed in. These results are presented in the frequency distribution in table three.

Table 3: Frequency Distribution - Industry

Industry	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Public Sector Consulting	41	27.0	27.2	27.2
Finance & Related	23	15.1	15.2	42.4
Transport	32	21.1	21.2	63.6
Education	26	17.1	17.2	80.8
Petrochemicals	3	2.0	2.0	82.8
Performing Arts	3	2.0	2.0	84.8
Telecommunications	5	3.3	3.3	88.1
Government	2	1.3	1.3	89.4
Not Discernable	11	7.2	7.3	96.7
Student	5	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total	151	99.3	100.0	
Missing System	1	.7		
Total	152	100.0		

The classification of respondents according to industry revealed that the majority of the sample hailed from the industry of Public Sector Consulting (27%). Thereafter the industries next best represented included Transport (21.1%); Education (17.2%) and Finance and related (15.2%). The remainder of respondents were currently employed in either Telecommunications (3.3%); Petrochemicals (2%); Performing Arts (2%); Government or were students (3.3%). Some respondents industry of employment was not discernable or indicated (7.2%). This distribution is also well illustrated in the pie chart presented below.

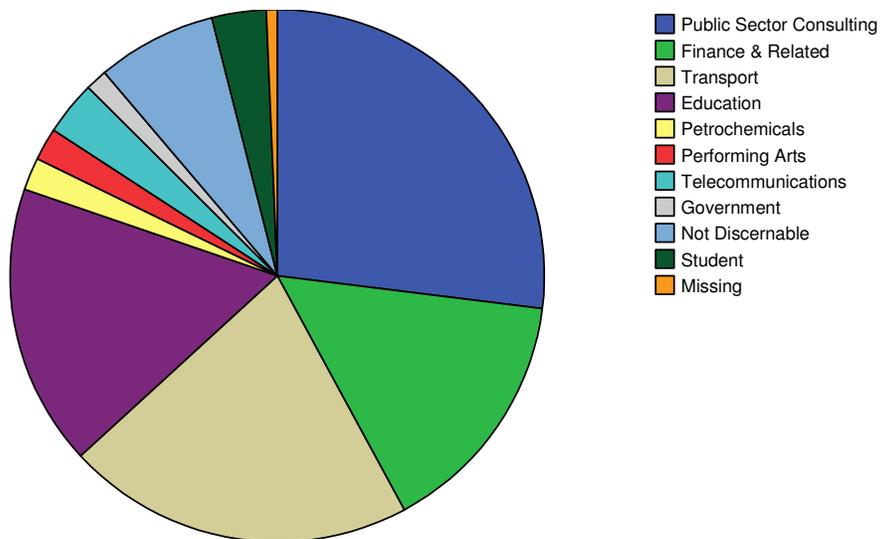


Figure 3: Pie Chart of Industry Distribution of PPESAI Respondents

Table four provides an indication of the gender distribution of the research sample. As is evident by the frequency distribution, female respondents (63.2%) are by far in the majority. It is important to remember that this is the total frequency distribution for this study, which includes all teachers involved (23 respondents which is indicative of a fairly gender neutral

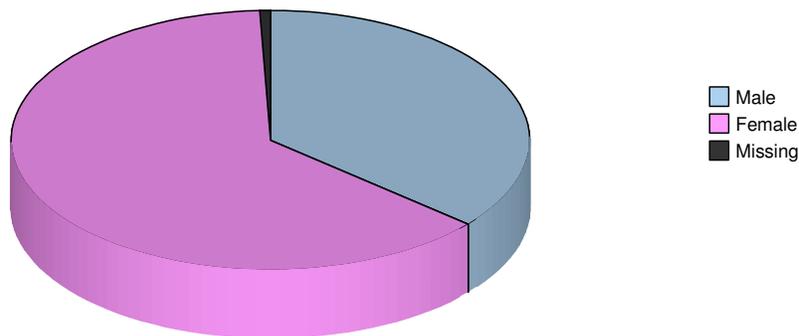
environment. Should teachers be excluded from this analysis, then only 76 respondents would be female. This is a more even distribution of the sexes (58% female and 42% male respondents).

Table 4: Frequency Distribution – Gender

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Male	55	36.2	36.4	36.4
	Female	96	63.2	63.6	100.0
	Total	151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

The distribution of the sexes can be clearly illustrated in figure five. This pie chart depicts the frequency distribution for the entire sample, inclusive of teachers.

Figure 4: Pie Chart – Distribution of the sexes



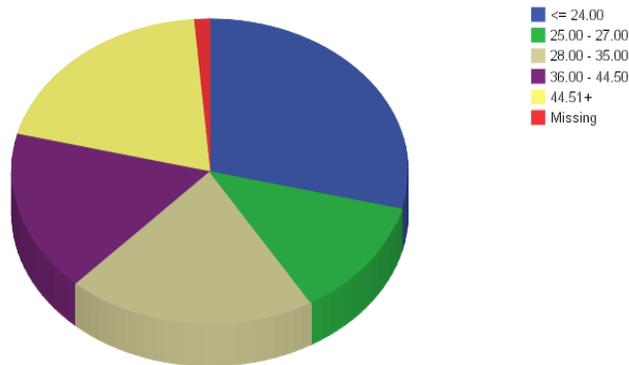
Another important categorical variable for consideration in this study was the age of the respondents. This was left as an open ended category for respondents, after which the results were banded into groups of five bands. This is described in the frequency distributions in table five and figure six.

Table 5: Frequency Distribution – Age: Five Bands

		Age (Banded)			
		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	<= 24.00	44	28.9	29.3	29.3
	25.00 - 27.00	19	12.5	12.7	42.0
	28.00 - 35.00	31	20.4	20.7	62.7
	36.00 - 44.00	26	17.1	17.3	80.0
	45+	30	19.7	20.0	100.0
	Total		150	98.7	100.0
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		152	100.0		

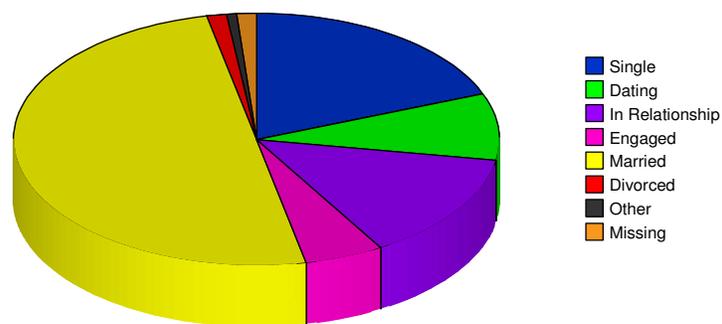
The sample group was fairly young in terms of age, with just under two thirds (62.7%) being 35 years old or younger. Only 20 percent of the sample group was over the age of 45. This distribution is well illustrated in the figure hereunder.

Figure 5: Pie Chart – Age Distribution: Banded



Another important biographical consideration for this study was the relationship status of respondents. The results revealed that half of the sample group was married (50%); with 19.1 percent of respondents being single and 14 percent indicating that they were in a serious relationship. Some respondents considered themselves to be dating (8.7%) and therefore not single nor in a serious relationship. Two respondents (1.3%) were divorced and one individual indicated their relationship status as “other”, yet failed to elaborate. Two respondents (1.3%) did not respond in this category. These results are figuratively presented in figure seven, giving a clear indication of the distribution of relationship statuses across the sample.

Figure 6: Pie Chart of Relationship Status Distribution across PPESAI Respondents



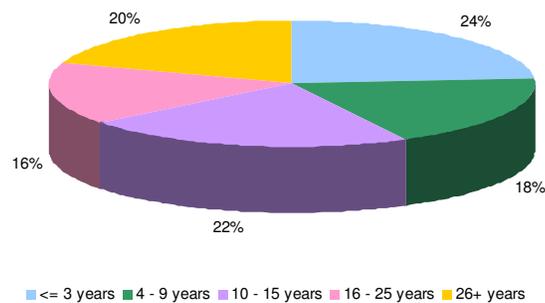
This is also evidenced clearly in the frequency distribution in table six, with the vast majority of respondents being married. The second largest subsets in terms of respondents were single individuals, comprising just under a quarter of the research respondents (19.3%).

Table 6: Frequency Distribution – Relationship Status

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Single	29	19.1	19.3	19.3
	Dating	13	8.6	8.7	28.0
	In Relationship	21	13.8	14.0	42.0
	Engaged	8	5.3	5.3	47.3
	Married	76	50.0	50.7	98.0
	Divorced	2	1.3	1.3	99.3
	Other	1	0.7	0.7	100.0
	Total	150	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		152	100.0		

Due to the nature of the research and in light of various research findings and postulations with regards to sexual attraction in the workplace it was also deemed important to determine the length of marriage of respondents currently in the binds of matrimony. This was once again an open ended category with regards to demographic related information. The data was analysed and grouped into five bands by means of the SPSS programme utilised. This is well illustrated in figure eight.

Figure 7: Pie Chart – Length of Marriage



Of those respondents whom indicated that they were in a marital relationship, 24 percent thereof had been married for three years or less. 14 respondents indicated that they had been married for between four to nine years, with 20 percent of the sample being married for 26 years or more. The remainder of the sample group whom indicated their relationship status to be married were either married for periods of between 10 -15 years (22%) or 16 to 25 years (15.8%) respectively.

Table 7: Frequency Distribution – Length of Marriage

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	<= 3 years	18	11.8	23.7	23.7
	4 - 9 years	14	9.2	18.4	42.1
	10 - 15 years	17	11.2	22.4	64.5
	16 - 25 years	12	7.9	15.8	80.3
	26+ years	15	9.9	19.7	100.0
	Total	76	50.0	100.0	
Missing	System	76	50.0		
Total		152	100.0		

Only 23 individuals indicated that they were in a relationship, but not yet married. It was also important to determine what period of time these individuals had been in these relationships for. Once again, an open ended response was allowed for respondents and the data was analysed thereafter and grouped into three bands by means of the SPSS programme. The results are indicated in both the pie chart in figure nine and frequency distribution table eight.

Figure 8: Pie Chart – Length of Relationship

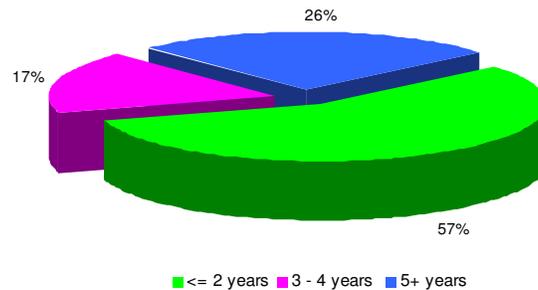


Table 8: Frequency Distribution – Length of Relationship

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	<= 2 years	13	8.6	56.5	56.5
	3 - 4 years	4	2.6	17.4	73.9
	5+ years	6	3.9	26.1	100.0
	Total	23	15.1	100.0	
Missing	System	129	84.9		
Total		152	100.0		

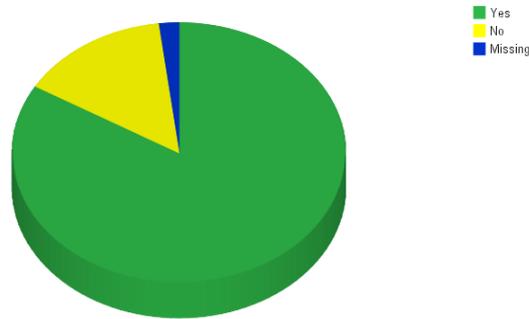
As is clearly illustrated, the majority of individuals (56.5%) involved in relationships were for relatively shorter duration periods of two years or less. Just over a quarter of individuals currently in relationships had been involved with their partners for five years or more (26.1%). The remaining 17.4 percent of respondents were currently involved in relationships between three to four years of duration.

In order to determine prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace, personal experiences thereof were included as categorical, demographic items at the beginning of the PPESAI. The first of which pertained to the awareness of respondents of sexual attraction having occurred between their colleagues, the results of which are indicated in table nine and figure 10 hereunder.

Table 9: Frequency Distribution – Awareness of sexual attraction between colleagues

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	127	83.6	85.2	85.2
	No	22	14.5	14.8	100.0
	Total	149	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.0		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 9: Pie Chart – I have been aware of sexual attraction occurring between colleagues



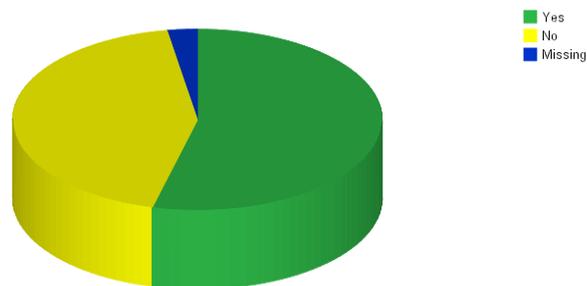
It is evident that the vast majority (85.2%) of respondents have experienced awareness of sexual attraction occurring between their colleagues at some point in their careers. Only two percent of respondents declined to answer this item.

The next step in this process of categorical determination of personal sexual attraction experiences in the workplace was to ascertain whether respondents in the present study had in fact been sexually attracted to a colleague before. Frequency distributions and figurative illustrations thereof are provided herein.

Table 10: Frequency Distribution – I have been sexually attracted to a colleague before

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	82	53.9	55.4	55.4
	No	66	43.4	44.6	100.0
	Total	148	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.6		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 10: Pie Chart – I have been sexually attracted to a colleague before



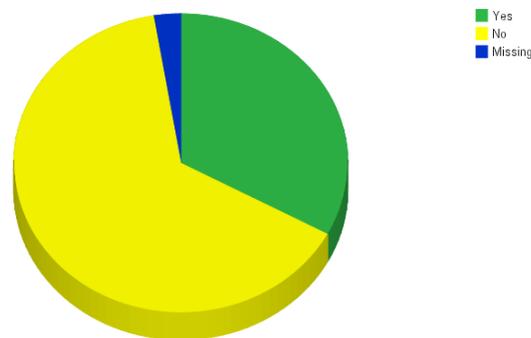
In spite of so many respondents having witnessed sexual attraction in the workplace, only 55.4 percent of those sampled have in fact been sexually attracted to a colleague before. Four individuals declined to respond to this question, with the remaining 44.6 percent of respondents indicating that they have not been sexually attracted to a colleague before.

In keeping with this, the last categorical question in the PPESAI pertained to the incidence of workplace rendezvous that respondents have been involved in. Once again frequency distributions and pie chart representation is provided.

Table 11: Frequency Distribution – I have been involved in at least one workplace "rendezvous" in my life

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Yes	50	32.9	33.8	33.8
	No	98	64.5	66.2	100.0
	Total	148	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.6		
	Total	152	100.0		

Figure 11: Pie Chart – I have been involved in at least one workplace "rendezvous" in my life



From the statistics in table 11 it is evident that only a third (33.6%) of respondents had in fact been involved in a workplace rendezvous at some point in their careers. The remaining 66 percent of respondents indicated that this is not the case for them, with four individuals once again declining to respond to this item.

5.3 Descriptive Statistics

A detailed discussion of the theory behind descriptive statistics was provided in Chapter Four, with all the methodological considerations for this study contained therein. Subsequently, a further discussion of descriptive statistics is unnecessary at this point. As the study into the perceived prevalence and effects of sexual attraction in the workplace was mainly exploratory in nature, descriptive statistics comprise the bulk of the results presentation. Associational statistics are discussed thereafter. Due to the inclusion of the sub-group of teachers in this analysis, differentiation will be made, where relevant, between the sample as a whole (inclusive of teachers) and the sample exclusive of teachers when significant differences were found in data analyses when teachers were excluded. Should this differentiation not be specifically mentioned, the complete sample was used for data analysis and the results of which are presented herein.

The remainder of this section will focus on the presentation of descriptive statistics for each construct assessed by the PPESAI. The overall scale result will be presented, together with important results gleaned from some of the more distinctive items comprising the scale/construct. Results will be broken down per construct in the presentation of the descriptive statistics therein. Constructs were colour coded at the outset of the present research, subsequently the colours used to code the various dimensions comprising the PPESAI are utilised in the presentation hereof in this document. It is also important to note that the value for the overall construct was calculated using the reversed items which were originally negatively worded. However, in the presentation of each item, the original wording has been utilised for the descriptive statistics. The procedure for reversal of items entailed their reversal and rewording so that an increase in response was associated with a positive increase in the construct, with higher scores being associated with a greater positive increase in the perceived positive effect on the construct in question. The presentations thereof follow hereunder.

5.3.1 Frequency Distribution Summary of Constructs Assessed on the PPESAI

Table 12: Frequency Distribution –Summary of Constructs Assessed

Construct/Scale	N		Mean	Median	Mode	Std Deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis	Min	Max
	Valid	Missing								
Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	143	9	4.10	4.20	4	.715	-.652	.865	2	6
Diversity	144	8	4.03	4.00	4	.565	-.748	2.791	1	5
Elements of attraction	150	2	4.18	4.20	4	.560	-.368	.389	3	6
Perceived effect on Productivity	149	3	3.47	3.60	4	.871	.035	.078	1	6
Perceived effect on Communication	150	2	2.76	2.80	3	.649	.457	.841	1	5
Perceived effect on Job Performance	147	5	3.18	3.20	3	.825	.192	-.192	1	5
Perceived effect on Job Satisfaction	148	4	3.39	3.40	4	.974	-.051	-.531	1	6
Perceived effect on Stress	148	4	3.13	3.20	3	.597	.004	.127	2	5
Perceived effect on Job Involvement	148	4	4.02	4.20	5	.848	-.450	-.027	2	6
Perceived effect on Morale	147	5	2.72	2.60	3	.671	.841	1.499	1	5
Perceived effect on Sexual Harassment	151	1	3.39	3.20	3	.823	.442	.073	2	6
Perceived effect on the Individual	145	7	3.80	3.80	4	.822	.692	.139	1	6
Perceived effect on the Workgroup	147	5	2.86	2.80	3	.600	.385	.260	1	5
Perceived Motives	142	10	3.00	3.00	3	.602	.043	-.264	2	4
Perceived Role of Management	147	5	3.37	3.40	3	.761	.004	.771	1	6

The above table provides an indication of the summary statistics for each scale comprising the PPESAI. Whilst these results are discussed in each section of the remaining text, along with their composite items, it is useful to obtain an overall view of the results for all constructs assessed. From table 12, it is clear that most respondents ($n=143$) feel that sexual attraction is prevalent in the South African workplace ($\bar{x} = 4.10$, $SD=.715$); in addition to having the perception that the presence of diversity in the workplace creates increased opportunities for sexual attraction to occur ($\bar{x} = 4.03$, $SD=.565$). Whilst elements of attraction in itself is such a complex construct, it was included in this study in order to get a high level picture of the diverse opinions that individuals hold towards what is an is not sexually attractive. The results in table 12 indicate that of the qualities listed in the PPESAI, many respondents found that these are elements in other individuals which they find attractive ($\bar{x} = 4.18$, $SD=.560$). When evaluating the perceived effects of sexual attraction on various components of working life, it would appear that sexual attraction has perceived positive effects on Job Involvement ($\bar{x} = 4.02$, $SD=.848$) and possible positive perceptions surrounding the effects of sexual attraction on Productivity ($\bar{x} = 3.47$, $SD=.871$) and the Individual employee ($\bar{x} = 3.80$, $SD=.822$). In keeping with this, another construct which was positively perceived by respondents ($n = 148$) was Job Satisfaction ($\bar{x} = 3.39$, $SD=.974$). However, the remaining constructs assessed appear to be negatively affected by sexual attraction in the workplace, namely Communication ($\bar{x} = 2.76$, $SD=.649$); Job Performance ($\bar{x} = 3.20$, $SD=.825$); Stress ($\bar{x} = 3.13$, $SD=.597$); Morale ($\bar{x} = 2.72$, $SD=.671$); the Workgroup ($\bar{x} = 2.86$, $SD=.600$) and the Perceived Role of Motives underpinning sexual attraction ($\bar{x} = 2.86$, $SD=.602$). Interestingly enough Sexual Harassment did not appear to have a perceived negative effect on sexual attraction in the workplace or vice versa ($\bar{x} = 3.39$, $SD=.823$). Managements role in regulating sexual attraction in the workplace appears to have mixed perceptions amongst respondents ($n=147$), with results indicating that management does not have to play that strong a role in regulating the occurrence thereof ($\bar{x} = 3.37$, $SD=.761$).

Each construct and its composite items are now discussed in detail. The overall scale statistics and frequency distributions for each item are provided. In addition a detailed breakdown of the response distribution across each item is provided in both tabular and graphical format. Associational and correlational statistics will be presented thereafter.

5.3.2 Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction

This scale/construct/dimension focused on ascertaining the extent to which respondents perceive sexual attraction to be prevalent in the workplace. No items were negatively worded on this construct.

Table 13: Scale Statistics - Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction

Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction		
N	Valid	143
	Missing	9
Mean		4.10
Median		4.22
Std. Deviation		.715
Skewness		-.652
Std. Error of Skewness		.203
Kurtosis		.865
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.403
Minimum		2
Maximum		6

Table 14: Frequency Distributions - Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction

		I think that it is possible to have a sexually energized, but strictly working relationship	I feel that sexual attraction in the workplace is inevitable	I have been aware of sexual attraction occurring between employees on different hierarchical levels in an organisation	Organisational culture will determine the prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace	When men and women work together the issue of sexual attraction is always present	Increased interaction between colleagues, due to ongoing work requirements, can result in increased sexual attraction	Anxiety provoking work situations increase the likelihood of sexual attraction amongst co-workers	I have been aware of sexual attraction occurring between colleagues on the same level	I have been aware of subtle changes in behaviour between employees whom were sexually attracted to one another
N	Valid	151	150	152	147	152	151	152	151	152
	Missing	1	2	0	5	0	1	0	1	0
Mean		3.4901	4.2600	4.6908	4.000	4.0461	4.2517	3.1513	4.5430	4.3882
Median		4.0000	5.0000	5.0000	4.0000	5.0000	5.0000	3.0000	5.0000	5.0000
Std. Deviation		1.46909	1.42570	1.24610	1.33263	1.52827	1.22321	1.28548	1.32532	1.16260
Skewness		-0.191	-0.779	-1.370	-1.420	-0.609	-0.738	0.320	-1.217	-1.237
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.198	0.197	0.200	0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197
Kurtosis		-1.237	-0.453	1.320	120.209	-0.802	-0.379	-0.665	0.708	1.181
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.392	0.394	0.391	0.397	0.391	0.392	0.391	0.392	0.391
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

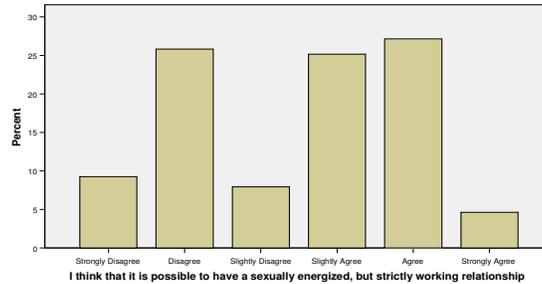
It is clear from the results provided in tables 13 and 14 that respondents perceive sexual attraction to be prevalent in the South African Workplace ($\bar{x} = 4.10$, $SD=.715$). The results across this population are not however normally distributed and are substantially negatively skewed (-.652), indicating that most respondents answered positively to the items on this scale. This can be explored in greater depth by evaluating each item comprising the scale of Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction in the Workplace.

Each item is presented in this section. The responses further entrench the perceived prevalence of sexual attraction in the South African workplace as established by the demographic categorical response obtained in the first section of the PPESAI and the scale statistics discussed in the preceding paragraphs.

Table 15: I think that it is possible to have a sexually energized, but strictly working relationship

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	14	9.2	9.3	9.3
	Disagree	39	25.7	25.8	35.1
	Slightly Disagree	12	7.9	7.9	43.0
	Slightly Agree	38	25.0	25.2	68.2
	Agree	41	27.0	27.2	95.4
	Strongly Agree	7	4.6	4.6	100.0
	Total	151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 12: I think it is possible to have a sexually energised, but strictly working relationship

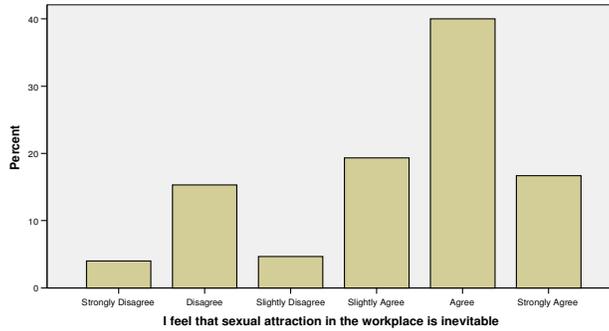


The majority (57%) of respondents (n=152) feel that it is possible to have a sexually energised, yet strictly working relationship. From figure 13, it is clear that the results for this item are slightly negatively skewed (-.191), with the tendency being for most respondents to be inclined to agree with his statement ($\bar{x} = 3.49$, $SD=.1.461$). It is important to note that only 9 percent of the sample group felt that they strongly disagreed with this statement. Moreover, only a quarter (24%) of respondents felt that sexual attraction is not inevitable in the workplace, as was evidenced in the next item, highlighted in table 16 and figure 14. Therefore, the vast majority of respondents (n=150) felt that sexual attraction in the workplace is inevitable ($\bar{x} = 4.26$, $SD=1.42570$). These results showed substantially negatively skewed trends (-.779), with most respondents answering in the affirmative for this item.

Table 16: I feel that sexual attraction in the workplace is inevitable

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	3.9	4.0	4.0
	Disagree	23	15.1	15.3	19.3
	Slightly Disagree	7	4.6	4.7	24.0
	Slightly Agree	29	19.1	19.3	43.3
	Agree	60	39.5	40.0	83.3
	Strongly Agree	25	16.4	16.7	100.0
	Total	150	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 13: I feel that sexual attraction in the workplace is inevitable

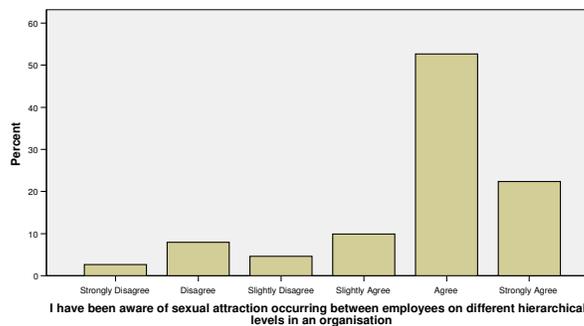


Concurring with the biographical information obtained at the outset of the PPESAI, individuals have been aware of sexual attraction in the workplace, more specifically between colleagues of differing hierarchical levels ($\bar{x} = 4.69$, $SD=1.24610$) as indicated in the tables and figures to follow immediately hereafter. Only 15 percent of respondents' indicated that this was not in fact the case with regards to their perceptions. However; just over half (52.6%) of the respondents indicated agreement with this statement and a further quarter (22.4%) of those involved in the study strongly agreed with the statement. These results indicate that hierarchical workplace sexual attraction is prevalent in the South African workplace amongst those assessed as part of the present study. Once again a negatively skewed distribution (-1.370) was highlighted by the results obtained.

Table 17: I have been aware of sexual attraction occurring between employees on different hierarchical levels in an organisation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	2.6	2.6	2.6
	Disagree	12	7.9	7.9	10.5
	Slightly Disagree	7	4.6	4.6	15.1
	Slightly Agree	15	9.9	9.9	25.0
	Agree	80	52.6	52.6	77.6
	Strongly Agree	34	22.4	22.4	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 14: I have been aware of sexual attraction occurring between employees on different hierarchical levels in an organisation



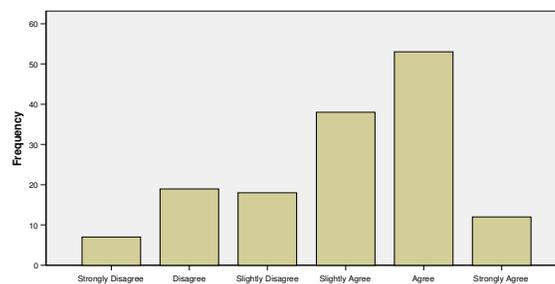
The perceived influence of organisational culture was assessed next, with the majority of respondents stating that they felt that organisational culture will in fact determine the prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace ($\bar{x} = 4.00$, $SD=1.33263$). More specifically,

70.1 percent of respondents felt that this was the case according to their perceptions and only just fewer than five percent (4.8%) strongly disagreed with the organisational culture having an effect on the prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace. The item statistics are presented in the table 18 and figure 16.

Table 18: Organisational culture will determine the prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	4.6	4.8	4.8
	Disagree	19	12.5	12.9	17.7
	Slightly Disagree	18	11.8	12.2	29.9
	Slightly Agree	38	25.0	25.9	55.8
	Agree	53	34.9	35.4	91.8
	Strongly Agree	12	7.9	8.2	100
Total		147	96.7	100.0	
Missing	System	5	3.3		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 15: Organisational culture will determine the prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace

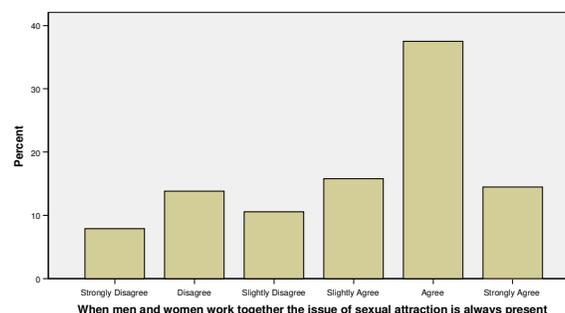


In keeping with a focus on diversity the influence of mixed gender work teams came up with the research conducted on sexual attraction in the workplace, as such the next item discussed has particular relevance therewith. These results are included in table 19 and figure 17.

Table 19: When men and women work together the issue of sexual attraction is always present

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	12	7.9	7.9	7.9
	Disagree	21	13.8	13.8	21.7
	Slightly Disagree	16	10.5	10.5	32.2
	Slightly Agree	24	15.8	15.8	48.0
	Agree	57	37.5	37.5	85.5
	Strongly Agree	22	14.5	14.5	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 16: When men and women work together the issue of sexual attraction is always present

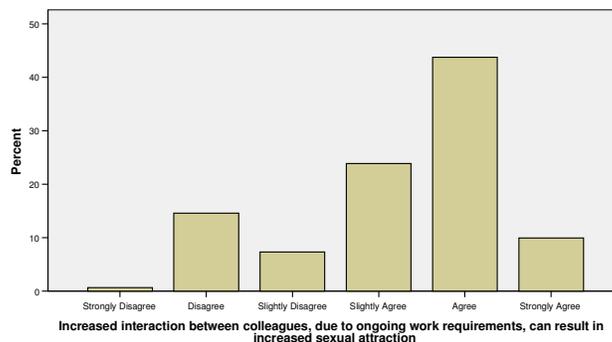


It is evident from the results above that the substantial majority of respondents felt that when men and women work together the issue of sexual attraction is ubiquitous ($\bar{x} = 4.0461$, $SD=1.528$). Only a third (32.2%) of respondents indicated that they did not think that this was the case. In conjunction with the male-female workplace dynamic, respondents ($n=151$) indicated that increased frequency of workplace interaction due to ongoing work requirements could result in increased workplace sexual attraction, with over three quarters of respondents (77.5%) indicating agreement with this statement ($\bar{x} = 4.2517$, $SD=1.22321$). These item statistics are presented in table 20 hereunder and illustrated in figure 18.

Table 20: Increased interaction between colleagues, due to ongoing work requirements, can result in increased sexual attraction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	.7	.7	.7
	Disagree	22	14.5	14.6	15.2
	Slightly Disagree	11	7.2	7.3	22.5
	Slightly Agree	36	23.7	23.8	46.4
	Agree	66	43.4	43.7	90.1
	Strongly Agree	15	9.9	9.9	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 17: Increased interaction between colleagues, due to ongoing work requirements, can result in increased sexual attraction

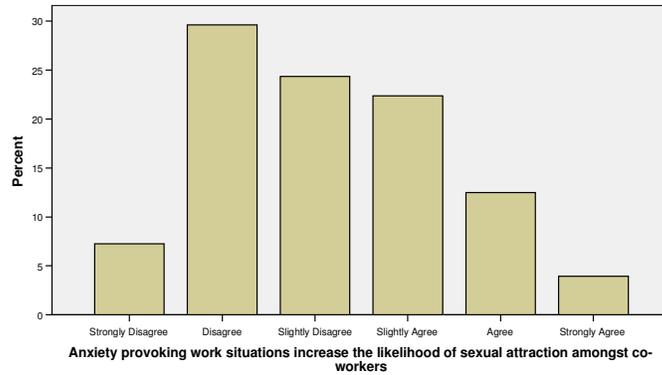


The results for the next item were somewhat surprising and in contradiction with previous research findings, to be discussed in the following chapter. The statistics are included in table 21 for this particular item.

Table 21: Anxiety provoking work situations increase the likelihood of sexual attraction amongst co-workers

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	11	7.2	7.2	7.2
	Disagree	45	29.6	29.6	36.8
	Slightly Disagree	37	24.3	24.3	61.2
	Slightly Agree	34	22.4	22.4	83.6
	Agree	19	12.5	12.5	96.1
	Strongly Agree	6	3.9	3.9	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 18: Anxiety provoking work situations increase the likelihood of sexual attraction amongst co-workers

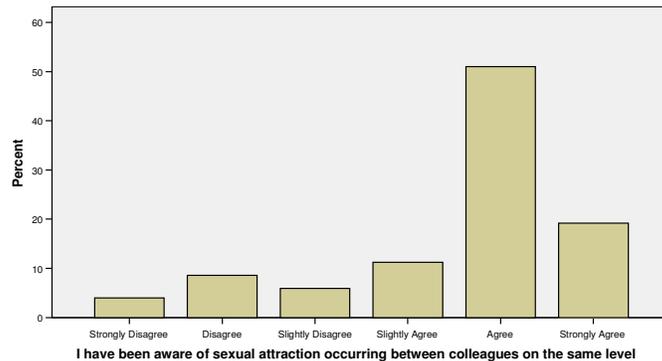


The results indicate that most respondents (62%) do not feel that anxiety provoking work situations increase the likelihood of sexual attraction occurring amongst co-workers, ($\bar{x} = 3.1513$, $SD=1.285$). These results were thus positively skewed (.320) with only six respondents (3.9%) indicating strong agreement with this statement.

Table 22: I have been aware of sexual attraction occurring between colleagues on the same level

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	3.9	4.0	4.0
	Disagree	13	8.6	8.6	12.6
	Slightly Disagree	9	5.9	6.0	18.5
	Slightly Agree	17	11.2	11.3	29.8
	Agree	77	50.7	51.0	80.8
	Strongly Agree	29	19.1	19.2	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 19: I have been aware of sexual attraction occurring between colleagues on the same level



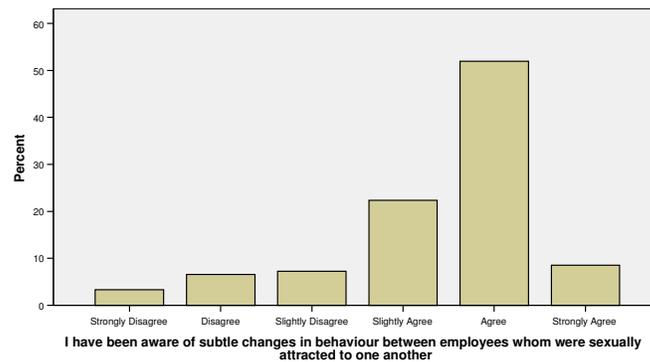
Whilst hierarchical workplace attraction has been perceived to occur in the South African workplace; the presence of same-level sexual attraction was also explored. The vast majority (81.5%) of respondents ($n=151$) indicated that they have been aware of this phenomenon occurring between their colleagues. These results indicate that sexual attraction takes place throughout various levels in the workplace ($\bar{x} = 4.5430$, $SD=1.325$), and same-level sexual attraction may be more prevalent than hierarchical sexual attraction. In addition to this, most respondents (82.9%) indicated that they have been aware of subtle changes in behaviour between employees whom are sexually attracted to one another ($\bar{x} = 4.3382$, $SD=1.1626$).

This is evident when perusing the graph in figure 21, as well as gleaning the item statistics in. Only 3.3 percent of respondents strongly stated that this was not the case for them, with 52 percent of respondents stating agreements with this statement and 8.6 percent strongly agreeing; once again showing a negatively skewed distribution of responses (-.1237).

Table 23: I have been aware of subtle changes in behaviour between employees whom were sexually attracted to one another

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Disagree	10	6.6	6.6	9.9
	Slightly Disagree	11	7.2	7.2	17.1
	Slightly Agree	34	22.4	22.4	39.5
	Agree	79	52.0	52.0	91.4
	Strongly Agree	13	8.6	8.6	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 20: I have been aware of subtle changes in behaviour between employees whom were sexually attracted to one another



5.3.3 Diversity

This scale had only one negatively worded item, which was reversed and reworded for purposes of statistical analyses conducted further than descriptive statistics contained herein. This item is presented in its original format under the section pertaining to presentation of item statistics.

Table 24: Scale Statistics – Perceived Diversity

Average Perceived Diversity		
N	Valid	144
	Missing	8
Mean		4.03
Median		4.00
Mode		4(a)
Std. Deviation		.565
Skewness		-.748
Std. Error of Skewness		.202
Kurtosis		2.791
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.401
Minimum		1
Maximum		5

a Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

Diversity was a complex construct to assess and comprised six items, two of which had specific reference to sexual attraction and diversity, with the remaining four items pertaining

more to diversity itself in the workplace and the individual respondents' perception thereof. It is clear from the scale statistics that diversity is present in the workplace and is generally positively perceived by respondents ($\bar{x} = 4.03$, $SD=.565$). This is confirmed further by the negatively skewed nature of the distribution of the items on this construct (-.748). The frequency distributions for the items comprising this construct are provided in table 25, with a detailed breakdown of item statistics following thereafter.

Table 25: Frequency Distributions – Perceived Diversity

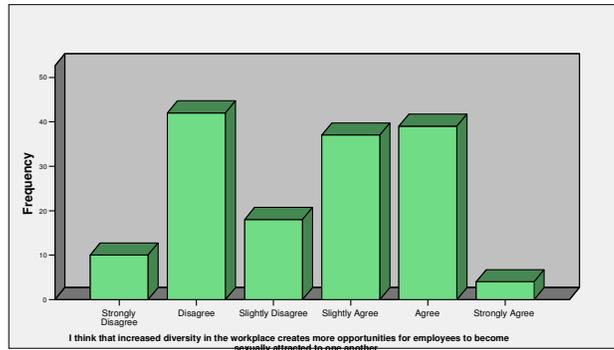
		I think that increased diversity in the workplace creates more opportunities for employees to become sexually attracted to one another	I have respect for the differences that diverse colleagues bring with them into the workplace	I recognise the differences in colleagues in a work setting	I think that similar moral values between co-workers increases the likelihood of sexual attraction occurring between them	I tend to ignore differences between colleagues and myself when dealing with diverse people	I think that diversity in the workplace is effectively managed
N	Valid	150	152	150	151	151	149
	Missing	2	0	2	1	1	3
Mean		3.4333	5.0132	4.8133	4.1325	4.0132	3.7718
Median		4.0000	5.0000	5.0000	4.0000	4.0000	4.0000
Std. Deviation		1.37776	0.92777	0.85441	1.23113	1.50991	1.25806
Skewness		-0.117	-1.791	-1.659	-0.842	0.425	-0.571
Std. Error of Skewness		0.198	0.197	0.198	0.197	0.197	0.199
Kurtosis		-1.237	5.730	4.353	-0.145	4.204	-0.553
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.394	0.391	0.394	0.392	0.392	0.395
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

Respondents appear more or less divided with regards to the influence of increased diversity in the workplace on sexual attraction; with just over half (53.7%) indicating that they felt increased diversity resulted in more opportunities for individuals to become sexually attracted to one another in the workplace. In general it would appear that the results are leaning towards slight agreement with this statement ($\bar{x} = 3.433$; $SD=1.37776$). Detailed item breakdown is provided in table 26, with figure 22 showing that the distribution is slightly negatively skewed (-.117).

Table 26: I think that increased diversity in the workplace creates more opportunities for employees to become sexually attracted to one another

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	10	6.6	6.7	6.7
	Disagree	42	27.6	28.0	34.7
	Slightly Disagree	18	11.8	12.0	46.7
	Slightly Agree	37	24.3	24.7	71.3
	Agree	39	25.7	26.0	97.3
	Strongly Agree	4	2.6	2.7	100.0
Total		150	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 21: I think that increased diversity in the workplace creates more opportunities for employees to become sexually attracted to one another

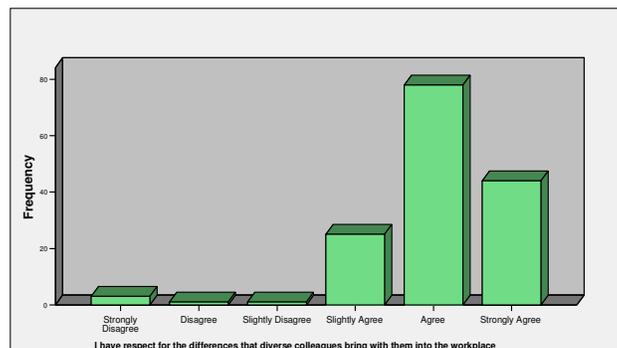


Only 3.3 percent of respondents indicated that they did not respect diverse differences brought by their colleagues into the workplace. It would appear that this could be a possible socially acceptable response, or in light of the diverse nature of the South African workforce, respondents are more sensitive to issues of diversity in the workplace. The overwhelming majority of respondents (96.7%) felt that they did respect diversity in their colleagues ($\bar{x} = 5.0132$, $SD=0.92777$). These results indicate a distribution which is substantially negatively skewed (-1.791); confirmed in figure 23.

Table 27: I have respect for the differences that diverse colleagues bring with them into the workplace

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	1	.7	.7	2.6
	Slightly Disagree	1	.7	.7	3.3
	Slightly Agree	25	16.4	16.4	19.7
	Agree	78	51.3	51.3	71.1
	Strongly Agree	44	28.9	28.9	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 22: I have respect for the differences that diverse colleagues bring with them into the workplace

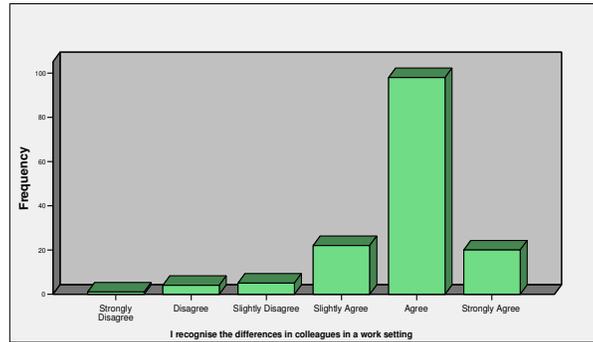


In addition to respect for differences in the workplace, recognition thereof is another important consideration with regards to the diversity continuum discussed in Chapter Two. Once again, the respondents in the current study indicated great recognition of diversity in the workplace ($\bar{x} = 4.813$, $SD=.8544$); with the vast majority (93.3%) stating agreement with this item. Once again, a negatively skewed distribution was observed (-1.659).

Table 28: I recognise the differences in colleagues in a work setting

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	.7	.7	.7
	Disagree	4	2.6	2.7	3.3
	Slightly Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	6.7
	Slightly Agree	22	14.5	14.7	21.3
	Agree	98	64.5	65.3	86.7
	Strongly Agree	20	13.2	13.3	100.0
Total		150	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 23: I recognise the differences in colleagues in a work setting

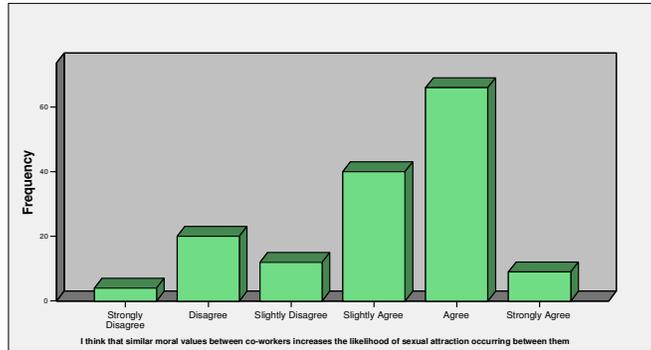


Similarity of moral values was highlighted as a factor stimulating sexual attraction in Chapter Three. The results herewith concurred with this finding, with the majority (76.2%) of respondents' indicating that they perceived this to be the case. Only four individuals (2.6%) strongly disagreed with this statement; indicating that similarity of moral values between co-workers increases the likelihood of sexual attraction occurring between them ($\bar{x} = 4.1325$, $SD=1.23113$). Whilst not as extreme as the preceding two items, a negatively skewed distribution (-.842) was also observed for this item which is graphically depicted in figure 25.

Table 29: I think that similar moral values between co-workers increases the likelihood of sexual attraction occurring between them

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	2.6	2.6	2.6
	Disagree	20	13.2	13.2	15.9
	Slightly Disagree	12	7.9	7.9	23.8
	Slightly Agree	40	26.3	26.5	50.3
	Agree	66	43.4	43.7	94.0
	Strongly Agree	9	5.9	6.0	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 24: I think that similar moral values between co-workers increases the likelihood of sexual attraction occurring between them

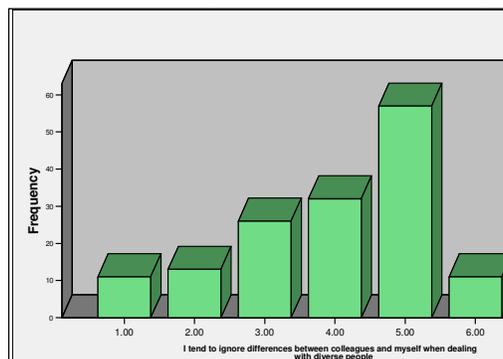


Whilst many respondents' indicated that they did not have respect for and recognition of differences of colleagues in their workplace, as indicated in previous items, most of them (66.9%) indicated that they will in fact ignore differences between colleagues and themselves in a work setting ($\bar{x} = 4.0132$, $SD=1.5099$). Subsequently whilst respondents in theory have respect for and recognition of diversity in the workplace, in practice they indicated that they often ignore differences. A follow up question would have been useful here to ascertain what the reason for this is; however such probing was beyond the scope of the present study.

Table 30: I tend to ignore differences between colleagues and myself when dealing with diverse people

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	11	7.2	7.3	7.3
	Disagree	13	8.6	8.6	15.9
	Slightly Disagree	26	17.1	17.2	33.1
	Slightly Agree	32	21.1	21.2	54.3
	Agree	57	37.5	37.7	92.1
	Strongly Agree	11	7.2	7.3	99.3
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 25: I tend to ignore differences between colleagues and myself when dealing with diverse people



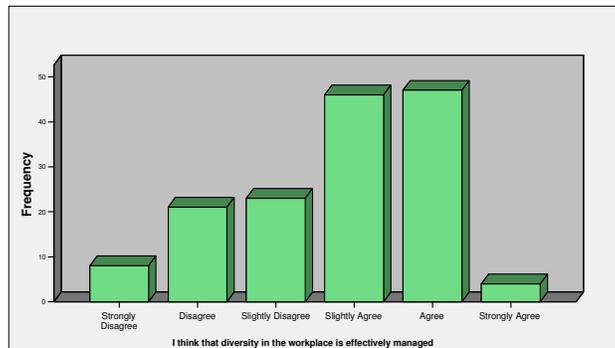
The management of diversity in the workplace is the last item of this construct assessed, with just over a third (34.9%) indicating that they did not feel that this was done effectively. Of those individuals whom felt that diversity is effectively managed in the workplace (65.1%); nearly half thereof (30.9% of the overall respondent group) only agreed slightly with this statement. This indicates that diversity may not be as effectively managed in the workplace

as one might have hoped ($\bar{x} = 3.7718$, $SD=1.25806$); with a slightly negatively skewed (-.571) distribution being observed and highlighted in figure 27. As such diversity management in the workplace may be an area for future attention, the exploration of which is beyond the scope of the present study.

Table 31: I think that diversity in the workplace is effectively managed

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	5.3	5.4	5.4
	Disagree	21	13.8	14.1	19.5
	Slightly Disagree	23	15.1	15.4	34.9
	Slightly Agree	46	30.3	30.9	65.8
	Agree	47	30.9	31.5	97.3
	Strongly Agree	4	2.6	2.7	100.0
Total		149	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.0		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 26: I think that diversity in the workplace is effectively managed



5.3.4 Elements of Attraction

This scale comprised five items, none of which were negatively worded. The study of elements of attraction in and of itself is an exhaustive topic, which could never hope to be covered comprehensively in the present research. Some select items were chosen based on the literature review and incorporated into the PPESAI. It is important to note that low inter-item correlations were observed, as elements of attraction differ greatly from individual to individual. Scale statistics are presented, together with frequency distributions. Thereafter, detailed item statistics are presented.

Table 32: Scale Statistics – Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction

Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction		
N	Valid	150
	Missing	2
Mean		4.18
Median		4.20
Mode		4(a)
Std. Deviation		.560
Skewness		-.368
Std. Error of Skewness		.198
Kurtosis		.389
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.394
Minimum		3
Maximum		6

a Multiple modes exist. The smallest value is shown

The most common elements and perceptions of attraction were confirmed by the respondents in the present study ($\bar{x} = 4.18$, $SD=.560$). Moreover, a negatively skewed distribution (-.368) indicates that respondents were inclined to agree with statements regarding elements of sexual attraction. However the distribution of results was only slightly peaked (.389). In order to understand the results of this construct in greater detail, it is important that each item is evaluated. The frequency distributions for each item are presented in table 33; with the presentation of item statistics following thereafter.

Table 33: Frequency Distributions – Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction

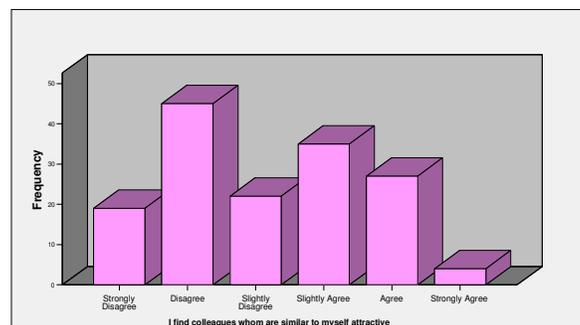
		I find colleagues whom are similar to myself attractive	I feel that beauty truly is in the eye of the beholder	I think that one is more inclined to become attracted to a colleague whom one spends a lot of time with	I think that employees can control how they let workplace sexual attraction affect them	I think that physical beauty is what makes a colleague attractive
N	Valid	152	151	152	151	152
	Missing	0	1	0	1	0
Mean		3.1184	4.9603	4.3553	4.8411	3.6645
Median		3.0000	5.0000	5.0000	5.0000	4.0000
Std. Deviation		1.40451	1.06383	1.18158	1.14945	1.46004
Skewness		0.135	-1.368	-0.844	-1.365	-0.292
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197
Kurtosis		-1.133	2.257	-0.039	1.950	-0.916
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.391	0.392	0.391	0.392	0.391
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

This scale comprised five items, none of which were negatively worded. Each of these items are subsequently presented and discussed hereunder.

Table 34: I find colleagues whom are similar to myself attractive

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	19	12.5	12.5	12.5
	Disagree	45	29.6	29.6	42.1
	Slightly Disagree	22	14.5	14.5	56.6
	Slightly Agree	35	23.0	23.0	79.6
	Agree	27	17.8	17.8	97.4
	Strongly Agree	4	2.6	2.6	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 27: I find colleagues whom are similar to myself attractive



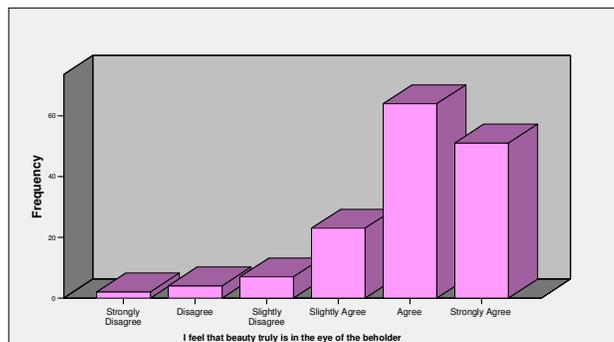
Findings indicate that similarity is not a common factor with sexual attraction in the workplace for slightly over half (56.6%) of the respondents in the present study. From figure 28, it appears that the majority of respondents do not find colleagues whom are similar to themselves attractive ($\bar{x} = 4.18$, $SD=.560$). This was strongly the case for a relatively small

group (12.5%) of respondents, with just under a third (29.6%) of respondents indicating disagreement with this statement. Only a few respondents (2.6%) strongly indicated that they found colleagues similar to themselves attractive; with a relatively small group (17.8%) indicating agreement therewith. Just under a quarter of respondents (23%) stated slight agreement with this statement, indicating possible indecision therewith. The sample was slightly positively skewed (.135) and was flatter than desired for a perfectly normal distribution (-1.133). Thus, from the results it would appear that opposites attract for the majority of the sample group. However, in keeping with another well known saying, beauty is in the eye of the beholder, which links with the next item of this construct.

Table 35: I feel that beauty truly is in the eye of the beholder

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	1.3	1.3	1.3
	Disagree	4	2.6	2.6	4.0
	Slightly Disagree	7	4.6	4.6	8.6
	Slightly Agree	23	15.1	15.2	23.8
	Agree	64	42.1	42.4	66.2
	Strongly Agree	51	33.6	33.8	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 28: I feel that beauty truly is in the eye of the beholder

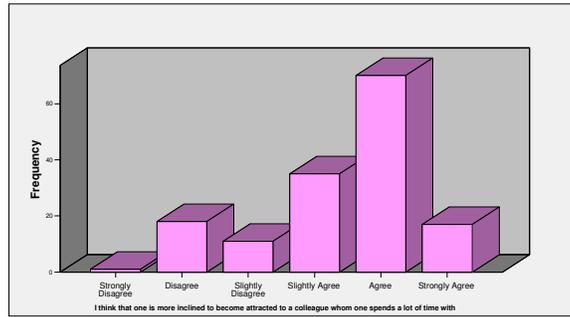


From figure 29, it appears that the vast majority of respondents (91.4%) feel that beauty truly is in the eye of the beholder. In general this perception is reinforced amongst the sample group ($\bar{x} = 4.96$, $SD = 1.063$) with a third of respondents (33.8%) strongly indicating their agreement with this statement and a further 64 individuals (42.1%) stating agreement therewith. The sample was not normally distributed across this item, substantially negatively skewed (-1.368) and very peaked (2.257).

Table 36: I think that one is more inclined to become attracted to a colleague whom one spends a lot of time with

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	.7	.7	.7
	Disagree	18	11.8	11.8	12.5
	Slightly Disagree	11	7.2	7.2	19.7
	Slightly Agree	35	23.0	23.0	42.8
	Agree	70	46.1	46.1	88.8
	Strongly Agree	17	11.2	11.2	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 29: I think that one is more inclined to become attracted to a colleague whom one spends a lot of time with



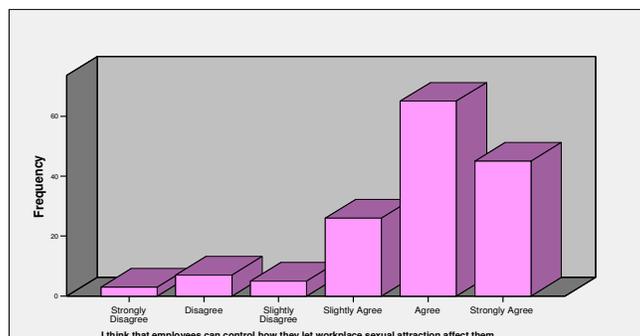
Attraction is one thing, yet often does not present itself unless individuals spend a substantial amount of time together. The findings for this item reveal that this is also the case for workplace sexual attraction ($\bar{x} = 4.3553$, $SD = 1.181$); with a substantial majority (80.3%) indicating that they felt that individuals are more inclined to become attracted to a colleague that they spend more time with. Only one respondent (.7%) strongly disagreed with this statement with a further 11.8 percent concurring, yet not as strongly. Just under a quarter of respondents (23%) were in slight agreement with this statement; 46 percent felt that this was the case and 11.2 percent strongly agreed therewith. From figure 30 it is clear that the sample was not normally distributed, negatively skewed (-.844) and fairly flatter than desired for a normal distribution (-.039).

Just proximity effect is not cause enough for the effects of sexual attraction to be felt in the workplace; some may feel that it is up to the individual employee to control how they let sexual attraction affect them. The next item covers this sentiment, highlighted in table 37.

Table 37: I think that employees can control how they let workplace sexual attraction affect them

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	7	4.6	4.6	6.6
	Slightly Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	9.9
	Slightly Agree	26	17.1	17.2	27.2
	Agree	65	42.8	43.0	70.2
	Strongly Agree	45	29.6	29.8	100.0
	Total	151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 30: I think that employees can control how they let workplace sexual attraction affect them

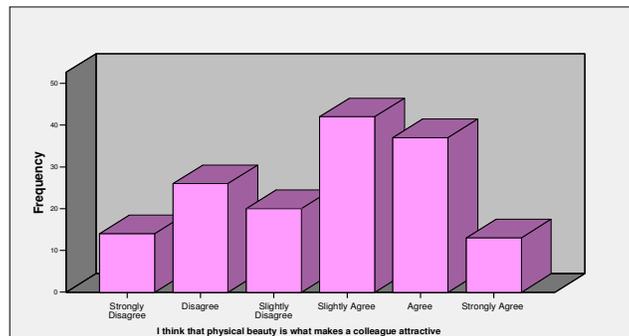


It is evident from figure 31 that the majority (90.1%) of respondents feel that it is up to the individual employee to control how they let sexual attraction affect them in the workplace ($\bar{x} = 4.8411$, $SD = 1.14945$). A fairly large group of respondents (29.8%) strongly felt that this is the case, with a further 43 percent also stating their agreement although not as strongly. Interestingly enough, only a very small group of respondents (6.6%) either disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement, indicating that they felt that an individual cannot control how they let workplace sexual attraction affect them. Results indicate that the sample was negatively skewed (-1.365) and substantially peaked (1.950).

Table 38: I think that physical beauty is what makes a colleague attractive

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	14	9.2	9.2	9.2
	Disagree	26	17.1	17.1	26.3
	Slightly Disagree	20	13.2	13.2	39.5
	Slightly Agree	42	27.6	27.6	67.1
	Agree	37	24.3	24.3	91.4
	Strongly Agree	13	8.6	8.6	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 31: I think that physical beauty is what makes a colleague attractive



The figure above indicates that respondents had mixed opinions regarding the influence of physical beauty or appearance on sexual attractiveness of colleagues ($\bar{x} = 3.665$, $SD = 1.46$). However, the majority of respondents were inclined to agree with this statement (60.5%). Interestingly enough, over a third (39.5%) of respondents indicated either disagreement (17.1%) or strong disagreement with this statement with the remaining 11.7 percent stating their slight disagreement therewith. This indicates that nearly forty percent of respondents do not feel that the physical beauty or appearance of a colleague makes them attractive and therefore other elements of attraction come to the fore instead of or in conjunction with physical beauty. However; a large group of respondents (27.6%) indicated that they were slightly influenced by the physical appearance of a colleague with a further quarter (24.3%) also indicating agreement with this statement and a small group (8.6%) stating that they strongly felt that physical beauty of a colleague makes them sexually attractive. The sample appears to be fairly normally distributed, although slightly negatively skewed (-.292) and fairly flat (-.916).

The effects of sexual attraction on various aspects of work are now discussed in the scales/constructs to follow. These scales were developed in alignment with available research and literature on the topic of sexual attraction in the workplace. They are presented in the same format as the preceding scales and follow hereunder.

5.3.5 Productivity

The effect of sexual attraction on workplace productivity is an important component of consideration in the present study. Scale statistics are presented in table 39 below; with frequency distributions across items following thereafter. This scale comprised five items, none of which were negatively worded.

Table 39: Scale Statistics – Perceived Effect on Productivity

Average Perceived Effect on Productivity		
N	Valid	149
	Missing	3
Mean		3.47
Median		3.60
Mode		4
Std. Deviation		.871
Skewness		.035
Std. Error of Skewness		.199
Kurtosis		.078
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.395
Minimum		1
Maximum		6

When the whole scale is examined in its entirety, it appears that respondents are slightly inclined to perceive sexual attraction in the workplace to have a positive effect on productivity ($\bar{x} = 3.47$, $SD = .871$). The following discussion of items pertains to this scale, with frequency distributions across these items presented in table 40.

Table 40: Frequency Distributions – Perceived Effect on Productivity

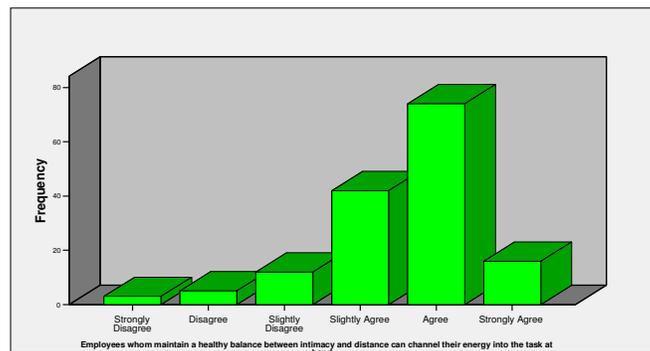
		Employees whom maintain a healthy balance between intimacy and distance can channel their energy into the task at hand	My productivity increases when I am attracted to a colleague	The stimulating effects of sexual attraction in the workplace results in increased productivity	Sexual attraction between employees can have an effect of increasing work group productivity	Employees with a "more than friends, less than lovers" relationship have enhanced productivity due to a desire to impress
N	Valid	152	152	151	151	151
	Missing	0	0	1	1	1
Mean		4.4934	2.8158	3.0397	3.3841	3.5695
Median		5.0000	3.0000	3.0000	3.0000	4.0000
Std. Deviation		1.02935	1.37345	1.18254	1.25889	1.24102
Skewness		-1.145	0.462	0.315	0.195	-0.257
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197
Kurtosis		1.786	-0.730	-0.578	-0.691	-0.803
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.391	0.391	0.392	0.392	0.392
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

Productivity is a multifaceted construct, and the implications of these results are important for the present study. The first item on this scale focused on the ability of individuals to channel sexual energy into the task at hand, thereby increasing productivity levels as a result of sexual attraction. Table 41 and figure 33 refer.

Table 41: Employees whom maintain a healthy balance between intimacy and distance can channel their energy into the task at hand

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	5.3
	Slightly Disagree	12	7.9	7.9	13.2
	Slightly Agree	42	27.6	27.6	40.8
	Agree	74	48.7	48.7	89.5
	Strongly Agree	16	10.5	10.5	100.0
	Total	152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 32: Employees whom maintain a healthy balance between intimacy and distance can channel their energy into the task at hand



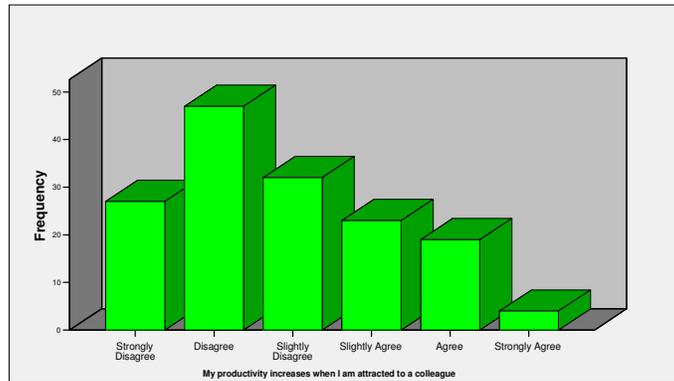
It is evident from the results that respondents generally have positive perceptions surrounding the influence of sexual attraction on productivity, if the individuals involved are able to maintain a healthy balance between intimacy and distance from the colleagues they are attracted to ($\bar{x} = 4.4934$ SD= 1.029). The total number of respondents disagreeing with this statement was very small (13. 2%), with only three individuals (2%) stating that they strongly disagreed with the ability of individuals to maintain a healthy balance between sexual attraction and distance would enable them to channel their energy into their work or task at hand. Nearly half of the respondents (48.7%) indicated that they agreed with this statement and thus sublimation of sexual energy into the task at hand was possible; a further 16 individuals (10.5%) strongly agreed with this position. These results indicate that should employees be able to keep a healthy balance between intimacy and distance, productivity can be increased through sublimation of sexual energy into ones work. The sample was not normally distributed, substantial negative skewness being observed (-1.145) and a high Kurtosis value indicating a fairly peaked distribution (1.768).

Personal experience of sexual attraction in the workplace on productivity was also explored in this construct. The findings of this area of sexual attractions effect on productivity are presented in table 41 and figure 34 below, with a discussion of results to follow.

Table 42: My productivity increases when I am attracted to a colleague

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	27	17.8	17.8	17.8
	Disagree	47	30.9	30.9	48.7
	Slightly Disagree	32	21.1	21.1	69.7
	Slightly Agree	23	15.1	15.1	84.9
	Agree	19	12.5	12.5	97.4
	Strongly Agree	4	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total	152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 33: My productivity increases when I am attracted to a colleague

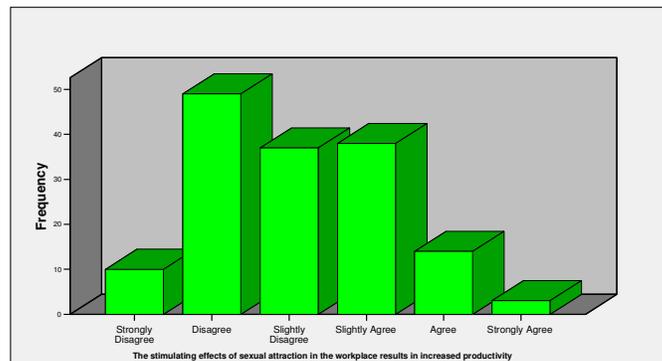


Whilst respondents felt that individuals can sublimate or channel sexual energy into the task at hand, their personal experience of sexual attraction in the workplace seems to contradict this perception. The majority of respondents (69.7%) indicated that their productivity in fact decreases if they are sexually attracted to a colleague ($\bar{x} = 2.8185$, $SD = 1.373$). An increase in personal productivity when sexually attracted to a colleague was strongly alluded to by only four individuals (2.6%); with an eighth (12.5%) of respondents also agreeing with this statement. The remaining 15 percent of respondents indicated that this was ever so slightly the case for them. Therefore, productivity could be found to increase in about 30 percent of individuals if they are sexually attracted to a colleague. The sample was positively skewed and (.462) and fairly flat (-.730). These findings could indicate that whilst most individuals are aware of the potential to sublimate sexual energy into work task activity, the majority of them are in fact unable to do so themselves when they are sexually attracted to a colleague. This could represent a possible intervention area and potential for management guidance.

Table 43: The stimulating effects of sexual attraction in the workplace results in increased productivity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	10	6.6	6.6	6.6
	Disagree	49	32.2	32.5	39.1
	Slightly Disagree	37	24.3	24.5	63.6
	Slightly Agree	38	25.0	25.2	88.7
	Agree	14	9.2	9.3	98.0
	Strongly Agree	3	2.0	2.0	100.0
	Total		151	99.3	100.0
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 34: The stimulating effects of sexual attraction in the workplace results in increased productivity



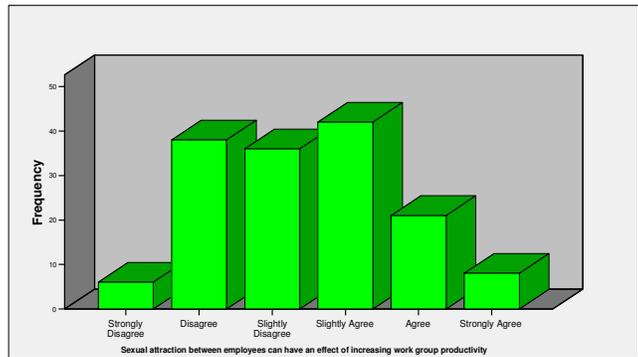
Sexual attraction as a stimulant of productivity was not perceived strongly by the majority of respondents ($\bar{x} = 3.0397$, $SD = 1.1825$). Forty percent of respondents indicated that they did not feel that sexual attraction had a stimulating effect of increasing productivity in the workplace. Interestingly enough, nearly half of the respondents either slightly disagreed (24.5%) or slightly agreed (25.2%) with this statement. This could indicate some confusion behind what actually motivates productivity, or the behind the effects of sexual attraction in the workplace. When viewed overall, 36.4 percent of respondents felt that the stimulating effects of sexual attraction in the workplace resulted in increased productivity. The sample was fairly normally distributed across this item, although slightly positively skewed (.315) and fairly flat (-.578).

The effect of sexual attraction on workgroup productivity was explored by the next item. The results of the descriptive statistics generated on this item are presented in table 44 and figure 36 below.

Table 44: Sexual attraction between employees can have an effect of increasing work group productivity

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	3.9	4.0	4.0
	Disagree	38	25.0	25.2	29.1
	Slightly Disagree	36	23.7	23.8	53.0
	Slightly Agree	42	27.6	27.8	80.8
	Agree	21	13.8	13.9	94.7
	Strongly Agree	8	5.3	5.3	100.0
	Total		151	99.3	100.0
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 35: Sexual attraction between employees can have an effect of increasing work group productivity



The effect of sexual attraction on increasing workgroup productivity was partially confirmed by the responses on this item ($\bar{x} = 3.3841$, $SD = 1.2588$) with the respondents being divided between agreement (47%) and disagreement (53%) with this statement. Slightly more respondents were inclined to strongly agree (5.3%) than strongly disagree (4%) with the sexual attraction having a positive effect of increasing workgroup productivity. However; nearly fifty percent of respondents either disagreed (25.2%) with this statement or slightly disagreed therewith (23.8%). Interestingly enough 27.8 percent of respondents were in slight agreement with this statement, once again indicating that a large proportion of the sample group were “in the middle” by slightly disagreeing or slightly agreeing with the statement. The sample was very slightly positively skewed (.135) and fairly flat (-.691).

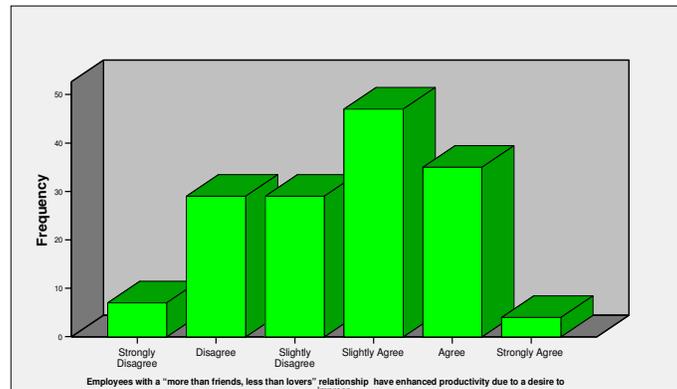
Table 45: Employees with a “more than friends, less than lovers” relationship have enhanced productivity due to a desire to impress

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	4.6	4.6	4.6
	Disagree	29	19.1	19.2	23.8
	Slightly Disagree	29	19.1	19.2	43.0
	Slightly Agree	47	30.9	31.1	74.2
	Agree	35	23.0	23.2	97.4
	Strongly Agree	4	2.6	2.6	100.0
	Total		151	99.3	100.0
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

The desire to impress when employees are more than friends yet less than lovers was perceived by the majority of respondents (57%) to have an enhancing effect on productivity

(\bar{x} = 3.5695, SD= 1.241). A very small group of respondents (4.6%) strongly disagreed with this statement with a further 19.2 percent echoing their sentiments, yet not as strongly. It is interesting to note that the same number of respondents (19.2%) only slightly disagreed with this statement. The sample showed evidence of a fairly normal distribution, albeit slightly negatively skewed (-.257) and fairly flat (-.803). It is evident from figure 37 that a “more than friends, less than lovers” phenomenon creates a perceived desire to impress, with subsequent positive effects on workplace productivity.

Figure 36: Employees with a “more than friends, less than lovers” relationship have enhanced productivity due to a desire to impress



5.3.6 Communication

Communication is an important aspect of organisational life. Subsequently, the perceived effects of workplace sexual attraction on communication were explored in the present study by this five item scale. Three items were negatively worded on this scale and as such had to be reversed to devise the scale statistics, presented in table 46. The remainder of scale properties are provided in the frequency distributions of table 47, a detailed discussion of each item follows thereafter.

Table 46: Scale Statistics – Perceived Effect on Communication

Average Perceived Effect on Communication		
N	Valid	150
	Missing	2
Mean		2.76
Median		2.80
Mode		3
Std. Deviation		.649
Skewness		.457
Std. Error of Skewness		.198
Kurtosis		.841
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.394
Minimum		1
Maximum		5

The perceived effects of sexual attraction in the workplace on communication do not appear to be positive when evaluating the scale statistics in table 46 (\bar{x} = 2.76, SD= .649). The distribution of the sample across this scale (with negatively worded items reversed) is fairly normal whilst being slightly positively skewed (.457) and somewhat peaked (.841). These

results indicate that respondents are inclined to perceive sexual attraction in the workplace to have negative effects in communication. These findings are explored in greater detail in the item presentation to follow and the frequency distributions in table 47.

Table 47: Frequency Distribution - Perceived Effect on Communication

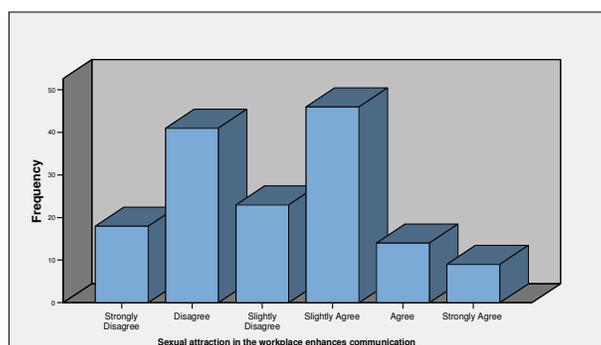
		Sexual attraction in the workplace enhances communication	Distorted communication occurs when sexual attraction is present amongst employees	Communication in work groups is negatively impacted by sexual attraction amongst group members	Employees will gossip about perceived workplace sexual attraction between members of their workgroup	Communication within work groups can improve if group members are sexually attracted to each other
N	Valid	151	152	152	152	151
	Missing	1	0	0	0	1
Mean		3.1589	4.1053	3.9934	5.3289	3.0199
Median		3.0000	4.0000	4.0000	5.0000	3.0000
Std. Deviation		1.39567	1.24570	1.09482	0.71665	1.23542
Skewness		0.189	-0.681	-0.662	-1.895	0.091
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197
Kurtosis		-0.802	-0.167	-0.022	8.503	-0.957
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.392	0.391	0.391	0.391	0.392
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

Of the five items comprising this scale, the first one pertained to the effect of sexual attraction in enhancing workplace communication. This item was positively worded and is presented hereunder.

Table 48: Sexual attraction in the workplace enhances communication

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	18	11.8	11.9	11.9
	Disagree	41	27.0	27.2	39.1
	Slightly Disagree	23	15.1	15.2	54.3
	Slightly Agree	46	30.3	30.5	84.8
	Agree	14	9.2	9.3	94.0
	Strongly Agree	9	5.9	6.0	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 37: Sexual attraction in the workplace enhances communication



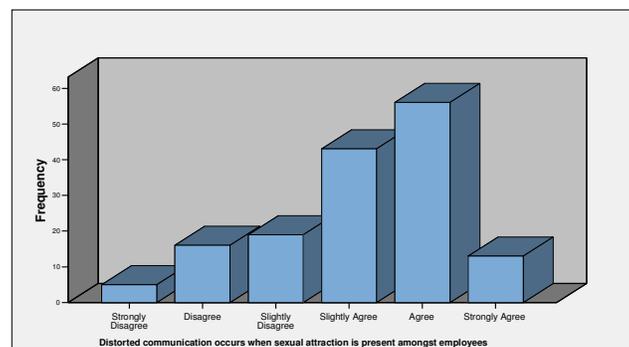
Respondents in general did not perceive sexual attraction to have an enhancing effect on workplace communication ($\bar{x} = 3.1589$, $SD = 1.3956$), with just over half of the sample group indicating disagreement with this statement (54.3%). Small groups of respondents did however, state that they felt that sexual attraction did enhance communication (9.3% agree;

6% strongly agree). In addition, a large number of respondents (30.5%) indicated that they slightly agreed with this statement. Therefore, when questioned, 45.7 percent of respondents indicated that they had the perception that communication in the workplace is enhanced by sexual attraction. Item statistics revealed that the sample was somewhat normally distributed with a tendency to be slightly positively skewed (.189) and had a Kurtosis value which revealed that it was somewhat flatter than typically desired for a normal distribution (-.802).

Table 49: Distorted communication occurs when sexual attraction is present amongst employees

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Disagree	16	10.5	10.5	13.8
	Slightly Disagree	19	12.5	12.5	26.3
	Slightly Agree	43	28.3	28.3	54.6
	Agree	56	36.8	36.8	91.4
	Strongly Agree	13	8.6	8.6	100.0
	Total	152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 38: Distorted communication occurs when sexual attraction is present amongst employees



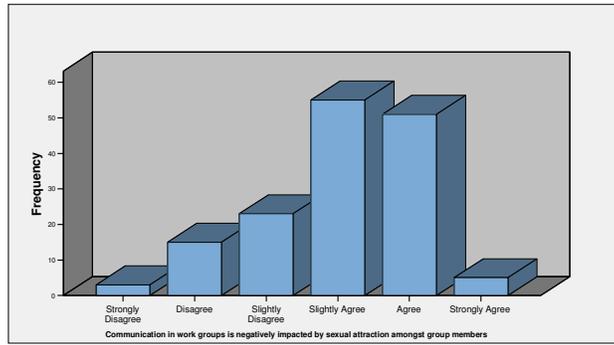
In line with the findings on the preceding item, workplace sexual attraction was perceived by the majority (74.7%) of respondents to have a distorting effect on communication ($\bar{x} = 4.105$, $SD = 1.2457$). Moreover, it is important to note that over a third (36.8%) of respondents agreed with this statement and further 13 individuals (8.6%) did so strongly. Only a quarter of respondents (26.3%) did not feel that sexual attraction had a distorting effect on communication in the workplace. The sample was negatively skewed (-.681) and fairly flat (-.167).

The next item links with the preceding one, although specifically focuses on communication amongst group members. These results are presented in table 50 and figure 40.

Table 50: Communication in work groups is negatively impacted by sexual attraction amongst group members

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	15	9.9	9.9	11.8
	Slightly Disagree	23	15.1	15.1	27.0
	Slightly Agree	55	36.2	36.2	63.2
	Agree	51	33.6	33.6	96.7
	Strongly Agree	5	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 39: Communication in work groups is negatively impacted by sexual attraction amongst group members



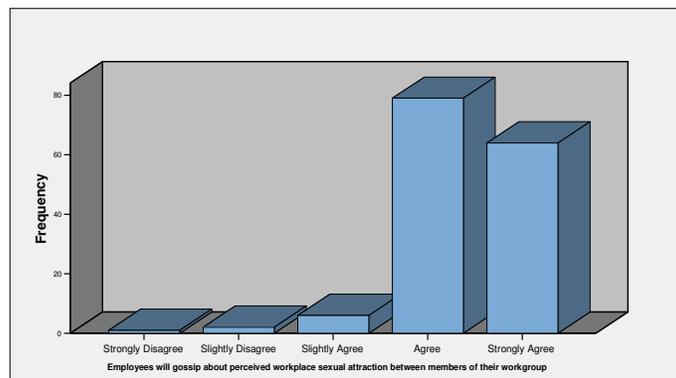
Work group communication is one of the foundations of organisational communication and as such the effects of sexual attraction thereon are important for the present study. Results indicate that the majority (73%) of respondents indicated that they perceived communication in work groups to be negatively impacted by sexual attraction amongst group members (\bar{x} = 3.9934, SD= 1.094). Slightly over a third (36.2%) of respondents indicated slight agreement with this statement, with five individuals (3.3%) having a very strong negative perception regarding the effects of sexual attraction on work group communication and a third (33.6%) of respondents displaying the same perception, although not as vehemently. The sample was fairly normally distributed, negatively skewed (-.662) and flat (-.022).

One aspect of work group communication particularly linked with the preceding item is the incidence of gossip. This was subsequently also assessed in the PPESAI, with the results being provided in table 51.

Table 51: Employees will gossip about perceived workplace sexual attraction between members of their workgroup

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	.7	.7	.7
	Slightly Disagree	2	1.3	1.3	2.0
	Slightly Agree	6	3.9	3.9	5.9
	Agree	79	52.0	52.0	57.9
	Strongly Agree	64	42.1	42.1	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 40: Employees will gossip about perceived workplace sexual attraction between members of their workgroup



It is evident from the results that respondents felt that gossip will increase or occur when perceived sexual attraction is observed between members of a work group ($\bar{x} = 5.3289$, $SD = .7166$). Whilst this sample was definitely not normally distributed, it highlighted the perception that respondents have surrounding some negative work group dynamics when sexual attraction is perceived amongst and by its members. The incidence of gossip could also have negative effects of decreasing productivity. The vast majority (6.1%) of respondents indicated agreement with this statement and only one individual (.7%) indicated strong disagreement therewith. It is important to take note that no one indicated disagreement, with the remaining 1.3 percent of respondents stating that they slightly disagreed with the statement. Subsequently, gossip is a negative side effect of perceived sexual attraction in the workplace.

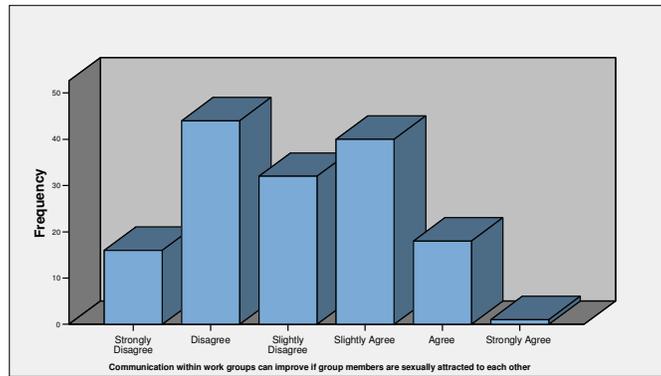
The last item on this scale pertained to communication within work groups improving when members are sexually attracted to one another. The findings for this item are presented in table 52.

Table 52: Communication within work groups can improve if group members are sexually attracted to each other

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	16	10.5	10.6	10.6
	Disagree	44	28.9	29.1	39.7
	Slightly Disagree	32	21.1	21.2	60.9
	Slightly Agree	40	26.3	26.5	87.4
	Agree	18	11.8	11.9	99.3
	Strongly Agree	1	.7	.7	100.0
	Total	151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

It is interesting to note that whilst respondents felt that gossip would increase should sexual attraction be perceived to be occurring amongst group members, not all respondents (39.1%) felt that communication in work groups would not improve should group members be sexually attracted to one another ($\bar{x} = 3.0199$, $SD = 1.235$). However, a large group (29.1%) of respondents felt that communication would not improve should sexual attraction be present amongst group members, with a further 10.5% of respondents indicating that they strongly felt that this was the case. The sample was fairly normally distributed, and as is evidenced in figure 42, somewhat positively skewed (.091) and flat (-.957).

Figure 41: Communication within work groups can improve if group members are sexually attracted to each other



5.3.7 Job Performance

Job Performance differs from productivity, previously assessed, and was covered in depth as a construct in the literature review in Chapter Three. This construct also comprised five items; of which only one was negatively worded and had to be reversed for the calculation of the scale statistics which are presented in table 53.

Table 53: Scale Statistics - Perceived Effect on Job Performance

Average Perceived Effect on Job Performance		
N	Valid	147
	Missing	5
Mean		3.18
Median		3.20
Mode		3
Std. Deviation		.825
Skewness		.192
Std. Error of Skewness		.200
Kurtosis		-.192
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.397
Minimum		1
Maximum		5

Scale statistics reveal that the perceived effect of sexual attraction on job performance is somewhat mixed amongst respondents ($\bar{x} = 3.18$, $SD = .825$). Respondents seem more inclined to slightly disagree with statements pertaining to positive effects of sexual attraction on job performance. To better understand this construct a detailed presentation of the composite items follows hereunder.

Table 54: Frequency Distributions – Perceived Effect on Job Performance

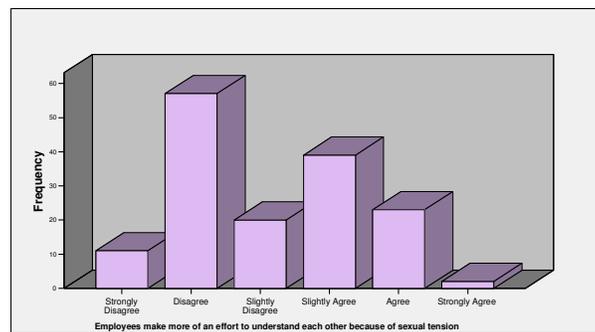
		Employees make more of an effort to understand each other because of sexual tension	Job performance increases as a "more than friends, less than lovers" relationship between colleagues matures	I feel that sexual attraction positively affects job performance	I think that an employee involved in a sexually-charged relationship with a co-worker has a higher level of job performance	I feel that job performance decreases in the beginning phases of sexual attraction
N	Valid	152	151	151	152	149
	Missing	0	1	1	0	3
Mean		3.0789	3.4768	3.1921	3.0855	3.9329
Median		3.0000	4.0000	3.0000	3.0000	4.0000
Std. Deviation		1.28427	1.26404	1.26868	1.17335	1.20620
Skewness		0.231	-0.158	0.128	0.281	-0.361
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197	0.199
Kurtosis		-1.111	-0.894	-0.662	-0.411	-0.491
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.391	0.392	0.392	0.391	0.395
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

Sexual attraction and job performance were linked within this construct. The first item pertained to the perceived effect of sexual attraction in making employees undertake more of an effort to understand each other and thereby affect job performance in a positive manner. These results are discussed hereunder.

Table 55: Employees make more of an effort to understand each other because of sexual tension

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	11	7.2	7.2	7.2
	Disagree	57	37.5	37.5	44.7
	Slightly Disagree	20	13.2	13.2	57.9
	Slightly Agree	39	25.7	25.7	83.6
	Agree	23	15.1	15.1	98.7
	Strongly Agree	2	1.3	1.3	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 42: Employees make more of an effort to understand each other because of sexual tension

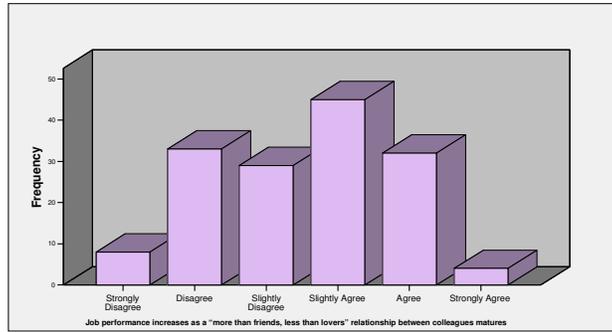


Results indicate that the majority (57.9%) of respondents do not perceive employees to make more of an effort to understand one another because of sexual tension ($\bar{x} = 3.078$, $SD = 1.284$). However, some respondents did agree with this statement (15.1%) with a further quarter (25.7%) indicating slight agreement therewith. Only two respondents strongly agreed with this statement (1.3%). Therefore, it can be extrapolated that employees are perceived to make more of an effort to understand each other because of sexual tension in 42.1 percent of the cases.

Table 56: Job performance increases as a “more than friends, less than lovers” relationship between colleagues matures

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	5.3	5.3	5.3
	Disagree	33	21.7	21.9	27.2
	Slightly Disagree	29	19.1	19.2	46.4
	Slightly Agree	45	29.6	29.8	76.2
	Agree	32	21.1	21.2	97.4
	Strongly Agree	4	2.6	2.6	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 43: Job performance increases as a “more than friends, less than lovers” relationship between colleagues matures



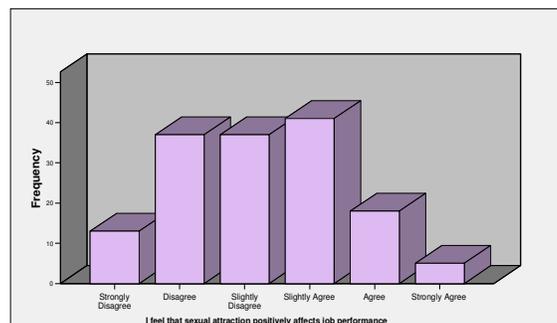
The results for this item reveal that the majority (53.6%) of respondents perceive job performance to increase as a “more than friends, less than lovers” relationship between colleagues matures ($\bar{x} = 3.4768$, $SD = 1.264$). A very small group (5.3%) of respondents strongly disagreed with this statement, with another 33 individuals (21.9%) also indicating disagreement therewith. Only 19.2 percent of respondents slightly disagreed with the item statement. Subsequently, respondents indicated that they perceived job performance to increase once the sexual attraction underlying a workplace relationship matures. The graph above, figure 44, reveals that the sample was slightly negatively skewed (-.158) and fairly flat (-.894).

The results for the next two items require some interpretation. They are presented hereunder and subsequently discussed.

Table 57: I feel that sexual attraction positively affects job performance

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	13	8.6	8.6	8.6
	Disagree	37	24.3	24.5	33.1
	Slightly Disagree	37	24.3	24.5	57.6
	Slightly Agree	41	27.0	27.2	84.8
	Agree	18	11.8	11.9	96.7
	Strongly Agree	5	3.3	3.3	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 44: I feel that sexual attraction positively affects job performance



The majority of respondents (57.6%) indicated that they did not in general perceive sexual attraction to positively affect job performance ($\bar{x} = 3.192$, $SD = 1.268$). To further differentiate

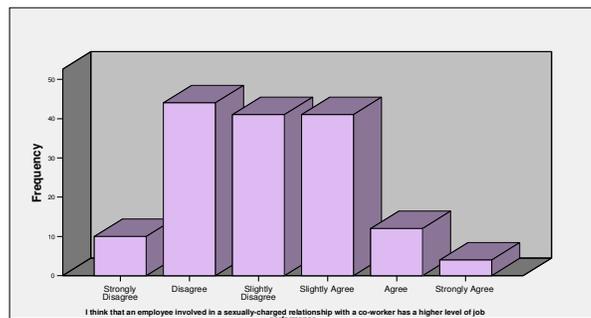
the sample group, 8.6 percent strongly disagreed with this statement and the categories of disagree and slightly disagree were chosen as responses for 24.5 percent of respondents in each category. Of the 42.4 percent of respondents whom felt that sexual attraction does have a positive effect on job performance 27.2 percent indicated slight agreement with this statement and only a small group (3.3%) strongly agreed therewith. These results could mean that some respondents feel that sexual attraction has negative effects on a workgroup or communication (as evidenced in previous scale item analyses) or, in keeping with the preceding item, perhaps the maturity of the relationship between the individuals whom are sexually attracted to each other has an influence in their perceptions of job performance. As is evidenced by figure 45, the sample was slightly positively skewed (.128) and flat (-.662).

The next item is very similar to the preceding one. Subsequently analyses and inferences drawn from the analysis just completed can also be applied herein.

Table 58: I think that an employee involved in a sexually-charged relationship with a co-worker has a higher level of job performance

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	10	6.6	6.6	6.6
	Disagree	44	28.9	28.9	35.5
	Slightly Disagree	41	27.0	27.0	62.5
	Slightly Agree	41	27.0	27.0	89.5
	Agree	12	7.9	7.9	97.4
	Strongly Agree	4	2.6	2.6	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 45: I think that an employee involved in a sexually-charged relationship with a co-worker has a higher level of job performance



Job performance when individuals are involved in a sexually charged relationship with a colleague is not perceived to increase by the majority (62.5%) of respondents in the present study ($\bar{x} = 3.085$, $SD = 1.17335$). Only four respondents (2.6%) strongly agreed with this statement; 7.9 percent agreeing thereto and 27 percent only indicating slight agreement. It is interesting to note that the same number of individuals (27%) also indicated slight disagreement with this statement. Therefore, in total 37.5 percent of respondents felt that employees whom are involved in a sexually charged relationship with a co-worker will have higher levels of performance. This perception could be a result of respondents drawing reference from their own experience of sexual attraction in the workplace, or comparing

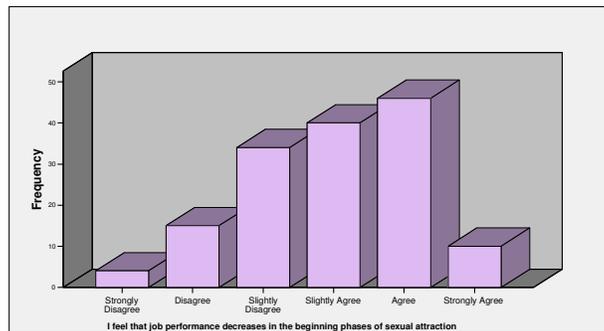
these individuals with other high performing colleagues not experiencing sexual attraction to their co-workers.

The issue of the maturity of this sexually charged relationship is also an important consideration and is addressed in the next and final item to be discussed comprising this scale. This item as negatively worded and as such re-ordered for the calculation of scale statistics presented at the outset of this section.

Table 59: I feel that job performance decreases in the beginning phases of sexual attraction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	2.6	2.7	2.7
	Disagree	15	9.9	10.1	12.8
	Slightly Disagree	34	22.4	22.8	35.6
	Slightly Agree	40	26.3	26.8	62.4
	Agree	46	30.3	30.9	93.3
	Strongly Agree	10	6.6	6.7	100.0
Total		149	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.0		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 46: I feel that job performance decreases in the beginning phases of sexual attraction



The maturity and phase of sexual attraction in the workplace is perceived by respondents to have an affect on job performance of the individuals involved ($\bar{x} = 3.9329$, $SD = 1.206$). The majority (64.6%) of respondents indicated that they perceived the beginning phase of sexual attraction to have a negative effect on job performance. This could be due to the initial excitement and distraction observed in the beginning phase of sexual attraction, which a large group (30.9%) of respondents alluded to with their agreement with this statement. A further 26.8 percent of respondents slightly agreed with the statement and 10 individuals (6.7%) strongly felt that the initial phase of sexual attraction can have the effect of decreasing job performance. As is evidenced in figure 47, the sample is negatively skewed (-.361) and fairly flat (-.491).

5.3.8 Job Satisfaction

Sexual attraction has been shown to have numerous effects on organisational dynamics; one of those mentioned in the literature was the positive effect on intrinsic satisfaction with ones job. This scale comprised five items, none of which were negatively worded, and are presented and discussed hereunder.

Table 60: Scale Statistics – Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction

Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction		
N	Valid	148
	Missing	4
Mean		3.39
Median		3.40
Mode		4
Std. Deviation		.974
Skewness		-.051
Std. Error of Skewness		.199
Kurtosis		-.531
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.396
Minimum		1
Maximum		6

Scale statistics reveal that respondents were inclined to respond in the affirmative with items on this construct ($\bar{x} = 3.39$, $SD = .974$). On the whole, this appears to support previous research, to be discussed in greater depth in the chapter to follow. The five composite items are now examined, after the frequency distributions thereof being provided in table 61.

Table 61: Frequency Distributions – Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction

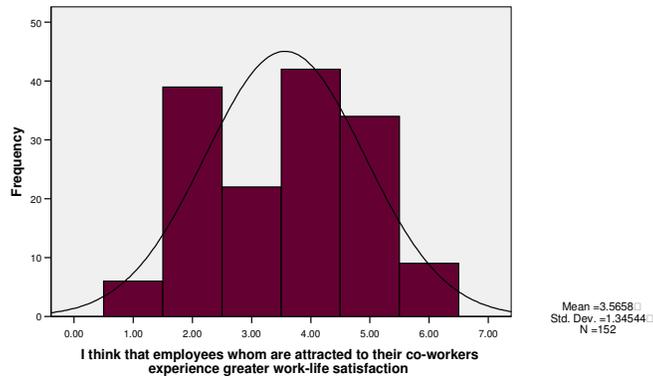
		I think that employees whom are attracted to their co-workers experience greater work-life satisfaction	Colleagues whom experience workplace attraction are likely to take more pleasure in their job	Employees whom are sexually attracted to each other have a level of job satisfaction which they would not be able to otherwise experience	I think that job satisfaction increases when one is involved in a non-loving, intimate relationship with a colleague	Intrinsic satisfaction with ones job increases with an experience of a sexual attraction in the workplace
N	Valid	152	152	152	150	150
	Missing	0	0	0	2	2
Mean		3.5658	3.8618	3.3224	3.1133	3.1467
Median		4.0000	4.0000	3.5000	3.0000	3.0000
Std. Deviation		1.34544	1.20731	1.32025	1.38804	1.20060
Skewness		-0.059	-0.394	0.051	0.115	-0.122
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.197	0.197	0.198	0.198
Kurtosis		-1.046	-0.464	-0.840	-0.904	-0.787
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.391	0.391	0.391	0.394	0.394
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

Items on the scale pertained to work life satisfaction; taking pleasure in ones job; general job satisfaction and intrinsic satisfaction with ones job as a result of sexual attraction in the workplace. Each of these items is presented in this section, the first of which is presented in table 62 and figure 48 below.

Table 62: I think that employees whom are attracted to their co-workers experience greater work-life satisfaction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	3.9	3.9	3.9
	Disagree	39	25.7	25.7	29.6
	Slightly Disagree	22	14.5	14.5	44.1
	Slightly Agree	42	27.6	27.6	71.7
	Agree	34	22.4	22.4	94.1
	Strongly Agree	9	5.9	5.9	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 47: I think that employees whom are attracted to their co-workers experience greater work-life satisfaction

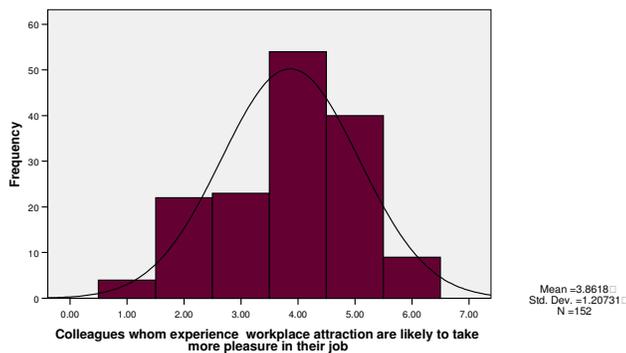


As is evidenced in the table and figure above, the majority (55.9%) of respondents felt that greater work-life satisfaction is experienced by employees whom are sexually attracted to their co-workers ($\bar{x} = 3.568$, $SD = 1.3454$). Under a third (29.6%) of the respondents were either in strong disagreement (3.9%) or in disagreement (25.7%) with this statement. The small group of individuals whom indicated slight disagreement (14.5%) may have done so due to uncertainty of the experience of this phenomenon themselves or in others. A large portion (27.6%) of respondents indicated slight agreement, with slightly under a quarter (22.4%) agreeing and the remaining 5.9 percent strongly agreeing with the statement. Therefore, from the results it would appear that just over half (55.9%) of respondents feel that job satisfaction increases when one is sexually attracted to ones colleagues. The sample is slightly negatively skewed (-.059) with a fairly flat distribution (-1.046), indicated in figure 48.

Table 63: Colleagues whom experience workplace attraction are likely to take more pleasure in their job

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid Strongly Disagree	4	2.6	2.6	2.6
Disagree	22	14.5	14.5	17.1
Slightly Disagree	23	15.1	15.1	32.2
Slightly Agree	54	35.5	35.5	67.8
Agree	40	26.3	26.3	94.1
Strongly Agree	9	5.9	5.9	100.0
Total	152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 48: Colleagues whom experience workplace attraction are likely to take more pleasure in their job

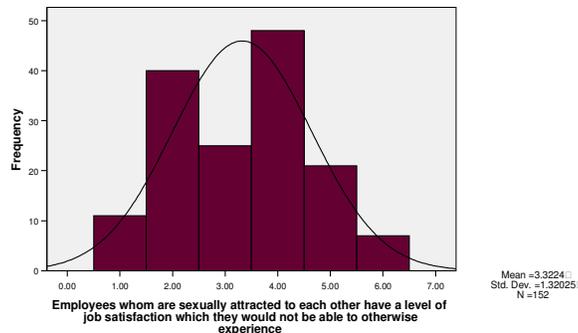


The perception of taking greater pleasure in ones job when experiencing workplace attraction was held by a two thirds majority (67.8%) of the respondents in the present study ($\bar{x} = 3.8618$, $SD= 1.20731$). This result could be further entrenched upon further analysis of statistics generated, with a large group (35.5%) indicating agreement with this statement and a further nine individuals (5.9%) indicating strong agreement therewith. Just over a third of the respondent group (35.5%) stated only slight agreement with the statement, subsequently they may not feel that this happens in all cases of workplace sexual attraction, yet is more likely to occur than it is to not occur. Slightly under a third (32.2%) of respondents did not feel that colleagues whom experience workplace sexual attraction are more likely to take pleasure in their jobs. Figure 49 reveals a fairly normally distributed sample which is slightly negatively skewed (-.394) and flat (-.464).

Table 64: Employees whom are sexually attracted to each other have a level of job satisfaction which they would not be able to otherwise experience

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	11	7.2	7.2	7.2
	Disagree	40	26.3	26.3	33.6
	Slightly Disagree	25	16.4	16.4	50.0
	Slightly Agree	48	31.6	31.6	81.6
	Agree	21	13.8	13.8	95.4
	Strongly Agree	7	4.6	4.6	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 49: Employees whom are sexually attracted to each other have a level of job satisfaction which they would not be able to otherwise experience



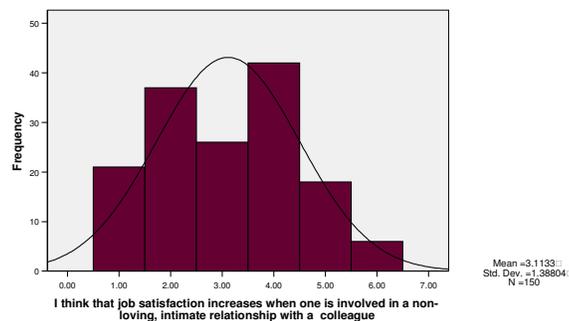
The results indicate that respondents had mixed perceptions with regards to this item ($\bar{x} = 3.3224$, $SD= 1.32025$). Responses were divided in half between agreement (50%) and disagreement (50%) with this item statement. However, the sample distribution is slightly positively skewed (.051) and fairly flat (-.84). This could be because slightly more respondents strongly disagreed (7.2%) and disagreed (26.3%) than did those whom agreed (13.8%) and strongly agreed (4.6%) with the notion that employees whom are sexually attracted to each other have a level of job satisfaction which they would not be able to otherwise experience. The respondents whom indicated only slight disagreement (16.4%) or slight agreement (31.6%) may have done so because they felt that job satisfaction can be achieved in many different ways, with those in slight agreement realising that sexual

attraction to ones colleagues might enable one to reach different levels of job satisfaction but were aware of other avenues of achieving different levels of satisfaction with ones job.

Table 65: I think that job satisfaction increases when one is involved in a non-loving, intimate relationship with a colleague

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	21	13.8	14.0	14.0
	Disagree	37	24.3	24.7	38.7
	Slightly Disagree	26	17.1	17.3	56.0
	Slightly Agree	42	27.6	28.0	84.0
	Agree	18	11.8	12.0	96.0
	Strongly Agree	6	3.9	4.0	100.0
Total		150	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 50: I think that job satisfaction increases when one is involved in a non-loving, intimate relationship with a colleague

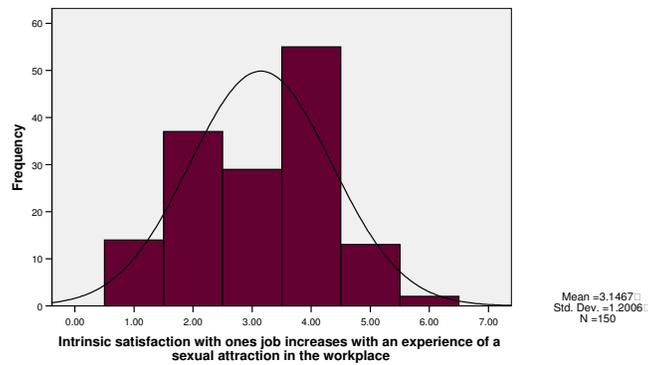


This item may have been confusing for respondents and should be altered for any additional research on this topic. The item was meant to infer that job satisfaction increases when one is involved in a sexually attracted workplace dynamic with another colleague without going to the extreme of falling in love yet still maintaining a level of intimacy associated with sexual attraction. The results reveal that a slight majority (56%) of respondents feel that job satisfaction does not increase with involvement in a non-loving intimate relationship with a colleague. Quite a large group of respondents (28%) indicated slight agreement with this statement, perhaps an expression of uncertainty with regards to the meaning or interpretation of this item. A moderately sized group (21%) of respondents indicated their strong disagreement with this concept. The sample distribution is slightly positively skewed (.115) and fairly flat (-.904), as is gleaned from figure 51

Table 66: Intrinsic satisfaction with ones job increases with an experience of a sexual attraction in the workplace

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	14	9.2	9.3	9.3
	Disagree	37	24.3	24.7	34.0
	Slightly Disagree	29	19.1	19.3	53.3
	Slightly Agree	55	36.2	36.7	90.0
	Agree	13	8.6	8.7	98.7
	Strongly Agree	2	1.3	1.3	100.0
Total		150	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 51: Intrinsic satisfaction with ones job increases with an experience of a sexual attraction in the workplace



Whilst a slight majority (53.3%) of respondents do not feel that intrinsic satisfaction with ones job increases when one experiences sexual attraction in the workplace, the sample distribution is slightly negatively skewed (-.122). This could be because over a third (36.7%) of respondents indicated slight agreement with this statement; together with smaller groups of 13 and two being in agreement and strong agreement respectively. It would therefore appear that respondents may in fact be more inclined to perceive that intrinsic satisfaction with ones job increases with experience of sexual attraction in the workplace ($\bar{x} = 3.1467$, $SD = 1.2006$). Perhaps some confusion may have arisen with regards to the perspective from which respondents answered this statement, as experiencing or observing sexual attraction could be interpreted as one in the same if individuals feel that through their observation thereof they are somehow negatively affected by it. This may be an area for further research.

The observation and effects of sexual attraction on stress is thus also an important consideration for management and organisations. This scale is discussed in the next section.

5.3.9 Stress

The perceived effects of sexual attraction on various aspects of stress were evaluated by this five itemed construct/ scale. Two of the items were negatively worded and reversed for calculation of scale statistics which are presented in table 67.

Table 67: Scale Statistics – Perceived Effect on Stress

Average Perceived Effect on Stress		
N	Valid	148
	Missing	4
Mean		3.13
Median		3.20
Mode		3
Std. Deviation		.597
Skewness		.004
Std. Error of Skewness		.199
Kurtosis		.127
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.396
Minimum		2
Maximum		5

Scale statistics reveal mixed perceptions surrounding the influence of sexual attraction on stress ($\bar{x} = 3.13$, $SD = .597$). These figures reveal that stress may not be a negative side effect or consequence of sexual attraction in the workplace and that sexual attraction may even assist in alleviating some aspects of stress experienced in the workplace. A detailed breakdown of each item follows hereafter with the item frequency distribution provided in table 68.

Table 68: Frequency Distribution – Perceived Effects on Stress

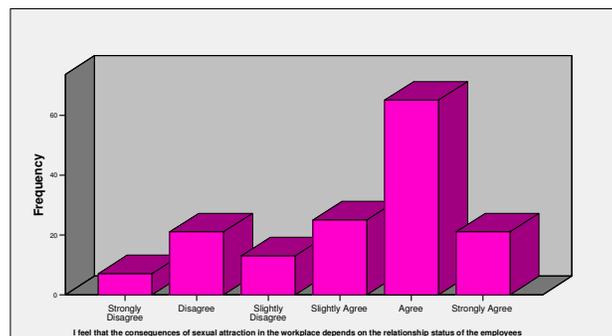
		I feel that the consequences of sexual attraction in the workplace depends on the relationship status of the employees	I think that colleagues whom are attracted to each other in the workplace will try and keep this attraction hidden	I think that if the attraction between co-workers is viewed as "adulterous" this will place third party observers under an ethical dilemma	Colleagues whom are sexually attracted to one another do not have to feel guilty	Sexual bantering helps employees to deal with the stressful nature of their jobs
N	Valid	152	152	152	152	148
	Missing	0	0	0	0	4
Mean		4.2039	4.7895	5.0724	3.9737	3.3041
Median		5.0000	5.0000	5.0000	4.0000	4.0000
Std. Deviation		1.41580	0.98755	0.98399	1.41864	1.41257
Skewness		-0.765	-0.986	-1.583	-0.545	0.003
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197	0.199
Kurtosis		-0.479	0.905	3.228	-0.505	-1.059
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.391	0.391	0.391	0.391	0.396
Minimum		1.00	2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

The first item on this scale was positively worded; as such it did not have to be re-ordered for calculation of scale statistics. Table 61 provides detailed descriptive statistics for responses gained on this item.

Table 69: I feel that the consequences of sexual attraction in the workplace depends on the relationship status of the employees

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	4.6	4.6	4.6
	Disagree	21	13.8	13.8	18.4
	Slightly Disagree	13	8.6	8.6	27.0
	Slightly Agree	25	16.4	16.4	43.4
	Agree	65	42.8	42.8	86.2
	Strongly Agree	21	13.8	13.8	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 52: I feel that the consequences of sexual attraction in the workplace depends on the relationship status of the employees



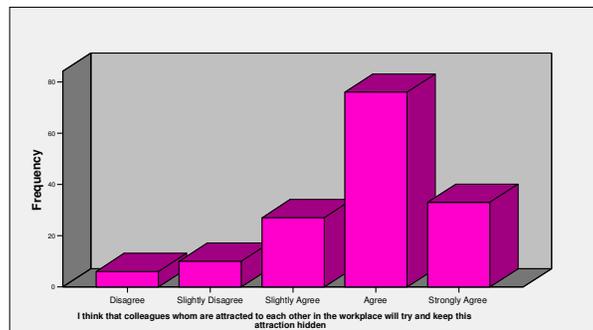
A substantial majority of respondents (73%) indicated that the relationship status of an individual would have an effect on the consequences of sexual attraction in the workplace. Therefore, should employees be in relationships the consequences of their attraction to each other on themselves, their partners, their colleagues and the organisation would be substantially different than if sexual attraction involved two single people ($\bar{x} = 4.2039$, $SD = 1.415$). Therefore; stress would increase as a consequence of the relationship status of individuals involved. The sample was negatively skewed (-.765) and a bit flatter than is usually desired for a normal distribution (-.479).

The next item was written as a negatively worded item and was reversed for scale statistics calculation. The reason being that hiding of sexual attraction would result in increased stress levels as has been found in the body of research in Chapter Three.

Table 70: I think that colleagues whom are attracted to each other in the workplace will try and keep this attraction hidden

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	6	3.9	3.9	3.9
	Slightly Disagree	10	6.6	6.6	10.5
	Slightly Agree	27	17.8	17.8	28.3
	Agree	76	50.0	50.0	78.3
	Strongly Agree	33	21.7	21.7	100.0
	Total	152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 53: I think that colleagues whom are attracted to each other in the workplace will try and keep this attraction hidden

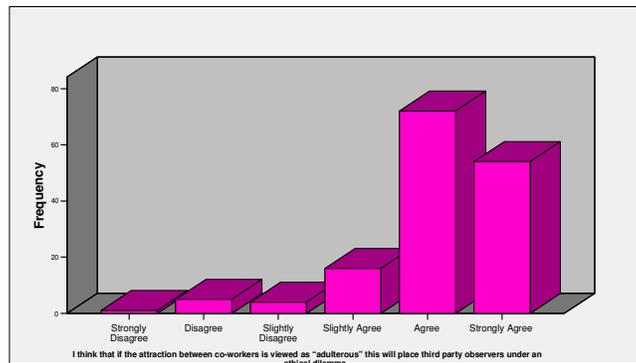


The vast majority of respondents (89.5%) agreed that colleagues whom are attracted to each other in the workplace will try and keep this attraction hidden ($\bar{x} = 4.7895$, $SD = .9875$). No respondent indicated strong disagreement with this statement. This should be held in cognisance and could be interpreted as the relative taboo still surrounding sex and attraction, not only in the workplace but in general. This may also be particularly indicative of organisational or even South African culture which may not be as liberal as the rest of the western world. Figure 54 reveals that the sample is substantially negatively skewed (-.986) and fairly peaked (.905) with 50 percent of respondents agreeing with the statement and another moderately sized group (21.7%) indicating strong agreement.

Table 71: I think that if the attraction between co-workers is viewed as “adulterous” this will place third party observers under an ethical dilemma

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	1	.7	.7	.7
	Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	3.9
	Slightly Disagree	4	2.6	2.6	6.6
	Slightly Agree	16	10.5	10.5	17.1
	Agree	72	47.4	47.4	64.5
	Strongly Agree	54	35.5	35.5	100.0
	Total	152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 54: I think that if the attraction between co-workers is viewed as “adulterous” this will place third party observers under an ethical dilemma

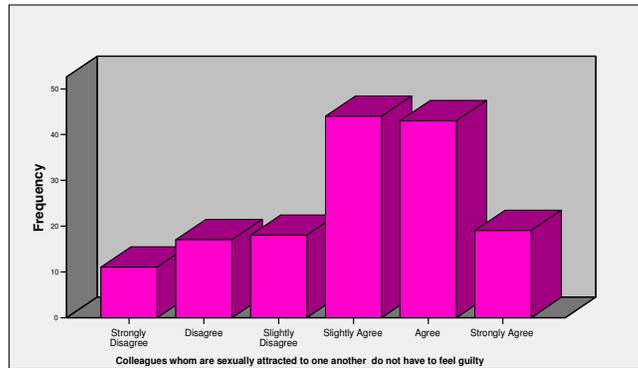


In keeping with the findings on the previous item the vast majority of respondents (93.4%) indicated that they felt that if the attraction between co-workers is viewed as adulterous (i.e. parties involved are in committed relationships outside of the workplace with other people) this would place third party observers (i.e. their colleagues and group members) under an ethical dilemma ($\bar{x} = 5.0724$, $SD = .983$). This is indicative of the strong moral or socially acceptable conscience pervading less liberal organisations such as public sector consulting and the teaching profession. Substantially large groups of respondents either agreed (47.4%) or strongly agreed (35.5%) with this statement. Figure 55 again reveals a negatively skewed distribution (-1.583) which is substantially peaked (3.228).

Table 72: Colleagues whom are sexually attracted to one another do not have to feel guilty

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	11	7.2	7.2	7.2
	Disagree	17	11.2	11.2	18.4
	Slightly Disagree	18	11.8	11.8	30.3
	Slightly Agree	44	28.9	28.9	59.2
	Agree	43	28.3	28.3	87.5
	Strongly Agree	19	12.5	12.5	100.0
	Total	152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 55: Colleagues whom are sexually attracted to one another do not have to feel guilty

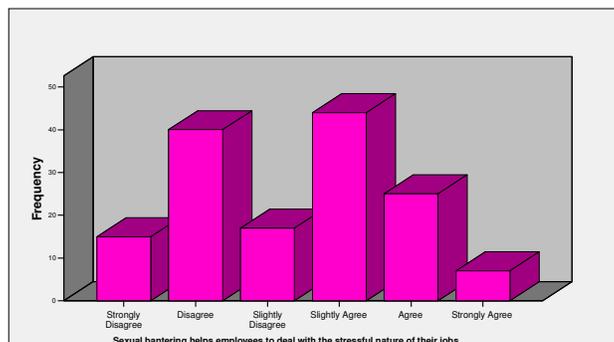


In spite of the perceptions surrounding sexual attraction in the workplace the majority (69.7%) of respondents feel that colleagues whom are sexually attracted to each other do not have to feel guilty ($\bar{x} = 3.9737$, $SD = 1.4184$). Therefore, they do not feel that there is something wrong with sexual attraction; it is only the consequences thereof depending on how individuals act upon it and their relationship status which seems to be more of a problem for the respondents. A moderately sized group (28.3%) of respondents indicated that they agreed that sexually attracted colleagues did not have reason to feel guilty; in addition a fair sized group (12.5%) felt strongly so in this regard. The distribution of responses is well illustrated in figure 56. It also reveals that the sample is negatively skewed (-.545) and slightly flat (-.505).

Table 73: Sexual bantering helps employees to deal with the stressful nature of their jobs

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	15	9.9	10.1	10.1
	Disagree	40	26.3	27.0	37.2
	Slightly Disagree	17	11.2	11.5	48.6
	Slightly Agree	44	28.9	29.7	78.4
	Agree	25	16.4	16.9	95.3
	Strongly Agree	7	4.6	4.7	100.0
Total		148	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.6		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 56: Sexual bantering helps employees to deal with the stressful nature of their jobs



Responses were mixed surrounding the perception of effects of sexual bantering as a means to deal with the stressful nature of ones job ($\bar{x} = 3.3041$, $SD = 1.4125$). Findings reveal that a

slight majority (51.4%) of respondents felt that sexual bantering does help in this regard; with 10 percent of respondents strongly disagreeing with this statement and a further 27 percent concurring with the latter sentiment, however not in such a strong manner. A fairly large group (29.7%) indicated that they slightly felt that this was the case according to their perceptions, with a further 16.9 percent and 4.7 percent being in agreement and strong agreement respectively. Figure 57 reveals that the distribution is not really skewed in either direction (.003) and is fairly flat (-1.059).

5.3.10 Job Involvement

Respondents on the whole seem inclined to perceive sexual attraction in the workplace as having a positive affect on job involvement for the individuals concerned ($\bar{x} = 4.02$, $SD = .848$). The overall scale statistics reveal a negatively skewed distribution (-.450) which further reinforces this finding. The Job Involvement scale comprised five positively worded items the frequency distributions of which are provided in table 75 with a detailed discussion following thereafter.

Table 74: Scale Statistics – Perceived Effect on Job Involvement

Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement		
N	Valid	148
	Missing	4
Mean		4.02
Median		4.20
Mode		5
Std. Deviation		.848
Skewness		-.450
Std. Error of Skewness		.199
Kurtosis		-.027
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.396
Minimum		2
Maximum		6

Table 75: Frequency Distribution – Perceived Effect on Job Involvement

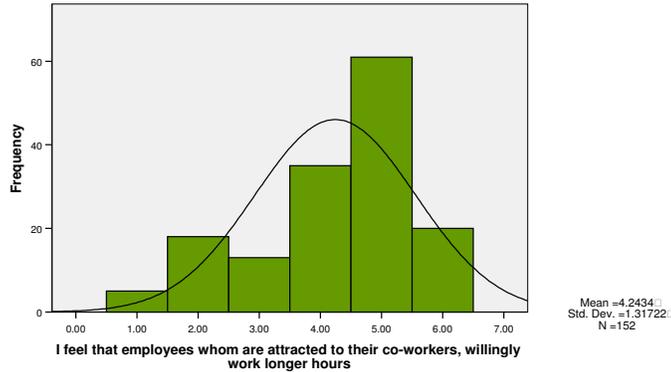
		I feel that employees whom are attracted to their co-workers, willingly work longer hours	I think that work becomes more of a central life interest for those co-workers whom are attracted to one another	I feel that in order to impress co-workers they are attracted to, employees will show increased levels of involvement with their job	The attachment that an individual has to his/her job increases if he/she is sexually attracted to a co-worker	Job involvement increases for employee's whom are sexually attracted to their co-workers due to a desire to increase opportunities to interact with each other
N	Valid	152	150	151	152	151
	Missing	0	2	1	0	1
Mean		4.2434	3.9733	4.1126	3.6118	4.1722
Median		5.0000	4.0000	4.0000	4.0000	4.0000
Std. Deviation		1.31722	1.29504	1.13457	1.31244	1.14753
Skewness		-0.777	-0.645	-0.751	-0.229	-0.799
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.198	0.197	0.197	0.197
Kurtosis		-0.197	-0.322	0.061	-0.923	0.644
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.391	0.394	0.392	0.391	0.392
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

This scale attended to areas of job involvement in general as well as willingness to work longer hours, desire for increased opportunities for interaction; desire to impress; central life interest of ones work and attachment to ones job. These items are all discussed in the sections to follow.

Table 76: I feel that employees whom are attracted to their co-workers, willingly work longer hours

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Disagree	18	11.8	11.8	15.1
	Slightly Disagree	13	8.6	8.6	23.7
	Slightly Agree	35	23.0	23.0	46.7
	Agree	61	40.1	40.1	86.8
	Strongly Agree	20	13.2	13.2	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 57: I feel that employees whom are attracted to their co-workers, willingly work longer hours

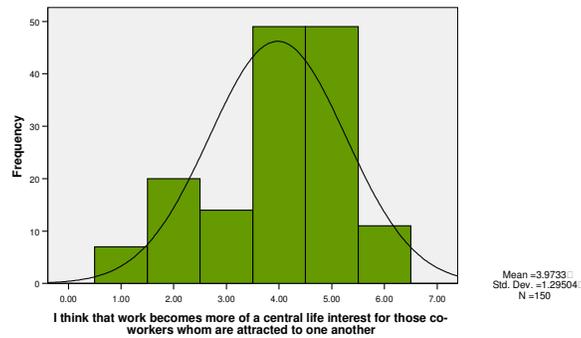


Most respondents (76.3%) felt that longer hours are willingly worked by employees whom are attracted to their co-workers ($\bar{x} = 4.2434$, $SD = 1.31722$). The item descriptive statistics are provided in table 75 above. These figures reveal that only a small group of individuals strongly disagree (3.3%) or disagree (11.8%) with this statement. The sample is normally distributed however negatively skewed (-.777) and somewhat flat (-.197). This is well illustrated in figure 58.

Table 77: I think that work becomes more of a central life interest for those co-workers whom are attracted to one another

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	4.6	4.7	4.7
	Disagree	20	13.2	13.3	18.0
	Slightly Disagree	14	9.2	9.3	27.3
	Slightly Agree	49	32.2	32.7	60.0
	Agree	49	32.2	32.7	92.7
	Strongly Agree	11	7.2	7.3	100.0
Total		150	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 58: I think that work becomes more of a central life interest for those co-workers whom are attracted to one another

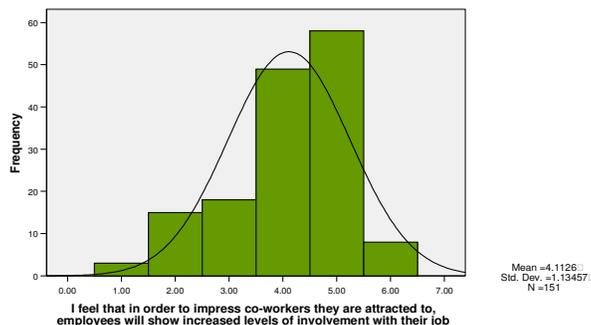


Work is an important aspect of most economically active individuals' lives. However the degree to which work becomes a central life interest varies from person to person. The findings of the present study reveal that most respondents (72.7%) felt that should co-workers become attracted to one another, work becomes more of a central life interest for them ($\bar{x} = 3.9733$, $SD = 1.295$). Figure 59 clearly illustrates that the sample is negatively skewed (-.645) and flatter (-.322) than desired for a normal distribution. Less than 20 percent (18%) of respondents either disagreed (13.3%) or strongly disagreed (4.7%) with this concept. Subsequently, it would appear that sexual attraction in the workplace is more likely to create higher perceived job involvement through making work more of a central life interest for the individuals involved.

Table 78: I feel that in order to impress co-workers they are attracted to, employees will show increased levels of involvement with their job

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	15	9.9	9.9	11.9
	Slightly Disagree	18	11.8	11.9	23.8
	Slightly Agree	49	32.2	32.5	56.3
	Agree	58	38.2	38.4	94.7
	Strongly Agree	8	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 59: I feel that in order to impress co-workers they are attracted to, employees will show increased levels of involvement with their job

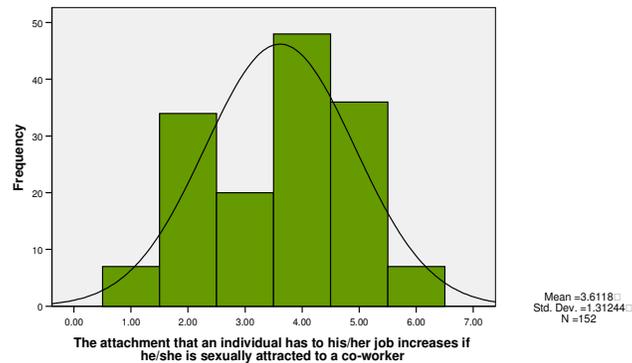


When people are attracted to one another they usually try to impress the person they are attracted to. This desire to impress could manifest in increased levels of job involvement. This theory was built into this item, with over three quarters (76.2%) of respondents indicating that they perceived this to be the case ($\bar{x} = 4.1126$, $SD = 1.3457$). Only three individuals (2%) strongly disagreed that increased levels of job involvement will be shown by employees whom are attracted to their co-workers due to a desire to impress. Once again a negatively skewed distribution (-.751) can be observed in figure 60.

Table 79: The attachment that an individual has to his/her job increases if he/she is sexually attracted to a co-worker

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	4.6	4.6	4.6
	Disagree	34	22.4	22.4	27.0
	Slightly Disagree	20	13.2	13.2	40.1
	Slightly Agree	48	31.6	31.6	71.7
	Agree	36	23.7	23.7	95.4
	Strongly Agree	7	4.6	4.6	100.0
	Total	152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 60: The attachment that an individual has to his/her job increases if he/she is sexually attracted to a co-worker

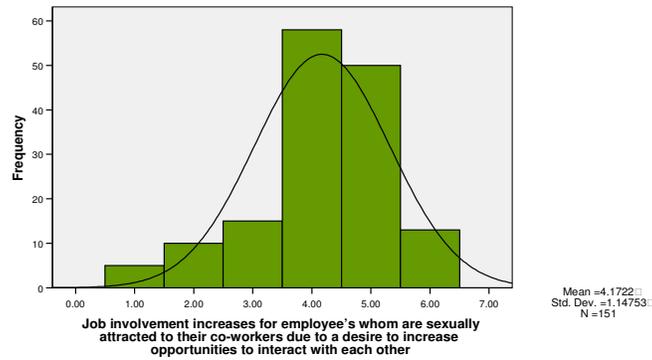


Whilst the majority (60%) of respondents indicated that they perceived attachment to ones job to increase if they are sexually attracted to a co-worker these perceptions were not as strongly voiced as in preceding items ($\bar{x} = 3.6118$, $SD = 1.3124$). Forty percent of respondents did not think that this was the case, with a moderately sized group (22.4%) disagreeing with this statement. This could perhaps be explained by respondents feeling that attachment to ones job is based on other factors as well such as pay and task satisfaction. The sample was however still negatively skewed (-.229) and flat (-.923).

Table 80: Job involvement increases for employee's whom are sexually attracted to their co-workers due to a desire to increase opportunities to interact with each other

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Disagree	10	6.6	6.6	9.9
	Slightly Disagree	15	9.9	9.9	19.9
	Slightly Agree	58	38.2	38.4	58.3
	Agree	50	32.9	33.1	91.4
	Strongly Agree	13	8.6	8.6	100.0
	Total	151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
	Total	152	100.0		

Figure 61: Job involvement increases for employee’s whom are sexually attracted to their co-workers due to a desire to increase opportunities to interact with each other



When people are attracted to each other they usually try to create opportunities to be around the other person. This aspect of sexual attraction could result in increased job involvement out of a desire to increase opportunities to interact with ones colleagues, a perception which was echoed by the vast majority (80.1%) of respondents in the present study. Subsequently the perception exists that the item statement is in fact true in the organisational context ($\bar{x} = 4.1722$, $SD= 1.4753$). This item was the most negatively skewed (-.799) on this construct and is slightly peaked (.644) as well.

5.3.11 Morale

Morale in the workplace was measured by a five item scale, of which the last four items were negatively worded. These were reversed for scale statistics generated in table 81.

Table 81: Scale Statistics – Perceived Effect on Morale

Average Perceived Effect on Morale		
N	Valid	147
	Missing	5
Mean		2.72
Median		2.60
Mode		3
Std. Deviation		.671
Skewness		.841
Std. Error of Skewness		.200
Kurtosis		1.499
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.397
Minimum		1
Maximum		5

The overall scale statistics reveal that sexual attraction in the workplace does not have a perceived positive effect on morale ($\bar{x} = 2.72$, $SD= .671$). This could be the perception as a result of respondents’ negative experiences of workplace romance, or the effects on a work group when sexual attraction goes wrong. The frequency distributions for each item are presented in table 82 hereunder, with detailed item breakdown following thereafter.

Table 82: Frequency Distribution – Perceived Effect on Morale

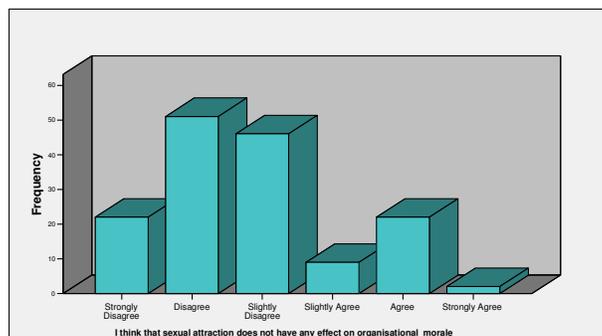
		I think that sexual attraction does not have any effect on organisational morale	I think that superior-subordinate workplace attraction has more negative consequences for morale than do peer-peer relationships	I feel that hierarchical attraction negatively affects co-worker morale	I think that employees whom have a workplace attraction relationship receive more favourable outcomes than do other team members	An employee's self esteem can be negatively affected if they do not know if their progress is due to their performance or because of another's' attraction towards them
N	Valid	152	152	149	151	152
	Missing	0	0	3	1	0
Mean		2.7632	4.6645	4.4631	3.5263	4.5658
Median		3.0000	5.0000	5.0000	3.0000	5.0000
Std. Deviation		1.27501	1.13898	1.03011	1.40928	1.27467
Skewness		0.610	-1.381	-1.291	-.191	-0.965
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.197	0.199	.197	0.197
Kurtosis		-0.397	2.175	1.973	-.671	0.514
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.391	0.391	0.395	.391	0.391
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

The first item on this scale was the only positively worded one. Respondents were requested to state their perceptions with regards to sexual attraction's affect on organisational morale. Table 83 refers.

Table 83: I think that sexual attraction does not have any effect on organisational morale

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	22	14.5	14.5	14.5
	Disagree	51	33.6	33.6	48.0
	Slightly Disagree	46	30.3	30.3	78.3
	Slightly Agree	9	5.9	5.9	84.2
	Agree	22	14.5	14.5	98.7
	Strongly Agree	2	1.3	1.3	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 62: I think that sexual attraction does not have any effect on organisational morale



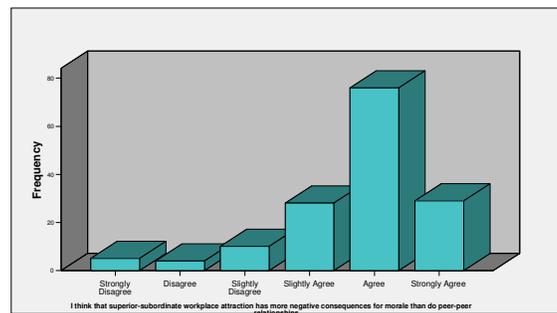
Respondents do not seem inclined to perceive sexual attraction as not having any effect on organisational morale ($\bar{x} = 2.7632$, $SD = 1.275$). When viewing the sample distribution, it is clear that it is positively skewed (.610) and fairly flat (-.397). Approximately three quarters (78.3%) of respondents strongly disagreed with this statement thus indicating that they perceive sexual attraction to have some form of effect on organisational morale. The nature of this effect however needs to be explored in additional items.

The next two items explore the effect of hierarchical sexual attraction on workplace morale. Whilst presented separately conclusions and inferences drawn in the first item should also be held in cognisance when interpreting the results of the second.

Table 84: I think that superior-subordinate workplace attraction has more negative consequences for morale than do peer-peer relationships

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Disagree	4	2.6	2.6	5.9
	Slightly Disagree	10	6.6	6.6	12.5
	Slightly Agree	28	18.4	18.4	30.9
	Agree	76	50.0	50.0	80.9
	Strongly Agree	29	19.1	19.1	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 63: I think that superior-subordinate workplace attraction has more negative consequences for morale than do peer-peer relationships



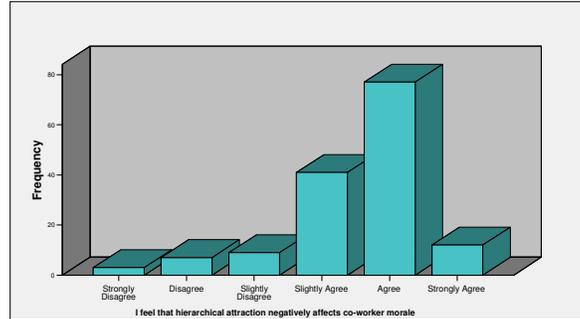
Results indicate that the vast majority of respondents perceive superior-subordinate sexual attraction to have more negative consequences for morale in the workplace than do same-level or peer-peer relationships and dynamics ($\bar{x} = 4.665$, $SD = 1.138$). The vast majority of respondents (87.5%) indicated that this type of sexual attraction has negative effects on workplace morale, with only one eighth (12.5%) of respondents indicating that they did not feel that this was the case. Subsequently the sample was substantially negatively skewed (-1.138) and peaked (2.175).

These findings were along the lines of those on the next item with the majority (87.2%) of respondents indicating that they felt that hierarchical attraction negatively affects co-worker morale ($\bar{x} = 4.4631$, $SD = 1.030$). Half (51.7%) of the respondents agreed that this is in fact the case, with a further 27.5 percent slightly agreeing therewith and 12 individuals (8.1%) strongly indicating that this was how they felt with regards to this matter. Only an eighth of respondents (12.8%) stated that they did not feel that hierarchical attraction had a negative effect on co-worker morale of which nearly half (6%) of those respondents indicated only slight disagreement with this item statement. Once again a negatively skewed (-1.291) and slightly peaked (1.973) distribution was observed.

Table 85: I feel that hierarchical attraction negatively affects co-worker morale

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	7	4.6	4.7	6.7
	Slightly Disagree	9	5.9	6.0	12.8
	Slightly Agree	41	27.0	27.5	40.3
	Agree	77	50.7	51.7	91.9
	Strongly Agree	12	7.9	8.1	100.0
Total		149	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.0		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 64: I feel that hierarchical attraction negatively affects co-worker morale

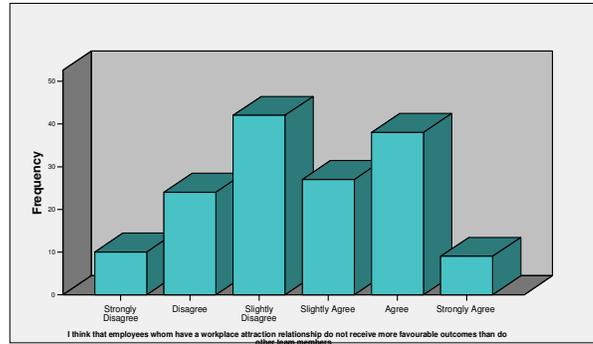


The next negatively worded item revealed another aspect of workplace morale affected by sexual attraction. A negative consequence reported in the literature pertains to the perception that co-workers have of the individuals involved in a sexual attraction dynamic with colleague or superior receiving more favourable outcomes than other team members as a result of sexual attraction. Findings reveal that respondents have mixed perceptions in this regard ($\bar{x} = 3.5263$, $SD = 1.409$) with only a very slight majority (51%) indicating agreement with this statement and the remaining respondents (49%) indicating that they did not feel that this is the case. In addition, a quarter (25%) of respondents also indicated their disagreement although not as vehemently. Figure 66 indicates a slightly negatively skewed distribution (-0.191) which is fairly flat (-0.671). This reveals that sexual attraction may have an effect of decreasing morale through the perception created when co-workers are sexually attracted to each other and receive more perceived favourable outcomes as a result thereof.

Table 86: I think that employees whom have a workplace attraction relationship receive more favourable outcomes than do other team members

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	9	5.9	6.0	6.0
	Disagree	38	25.0	25.2	31.1
	Slightly Disagree	27	17.8	17.9	49.0
	Slightly Agree	42	27.6	27.8	76.8
	Agree	24	15.8	15.9	92.7
	Strongly Agree	10	6.6	6.6	99.3
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 65: I think that employees whom have a workplace attraction relationship receive more favourable outcomes than do other team members

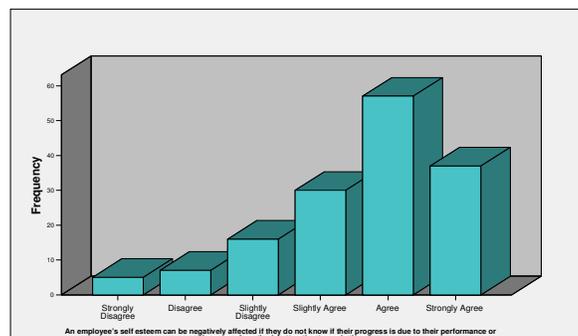


The final item on this scale links with the preceding one whereby the more favourable outcomes are perceived by the individual involved in the sexual attraction dynamic. The substantial majority (81.6%) of respondents felt that an employee's self esteem can be negatively affected if they do not if their progress is due to their performance or because of another's attraction to them ($\bar{x} = 4.5658$, $SD = 1.27467$). Of those individuals whom did not feel that this was the case (18.4%) only eight percent (7.9%) either strongly disagreed (3.3%) or disagreed (4.9%) with this statement. It is evident in figure 67 that the sample is substantially negatively skewed (1.274) and slightly peaked (.514). This indicates that sexual attraction can have negative effects on an individuals' self esteem, particularly if progress in the workplace is perceived to be as a result of sexual attraction.

Table 87: An employee's self esteem can be negatively affected if they do not know if their progress is due to their performance or because of another's' attraction towards them

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Disagree	7	4.6	4.6	7.9
	Slightly Disagree	16	10.5	10.5	18.4
	Slightly Agree	30	19.7	19.7	38.2
	Agree	57	37.5	37.5	75.7
	Strongly Agree	37	24.3	24.3	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 66: An employee's self esteem can be negatively affected if they do not know if their progress is due to their performance or because of another's' attraction towards them



5.3.12 Sexual Harassment

Whilst sexual harassment was not the focus of this study, the linkages thereof as a potential consequence of sexual attraction were identified as important. Therefore, this five-itemed scale was devised. The first item and last three items were negatively worded and re-ordered and phrased for purposes of generating scale statistics so that all items would read as an increase in response given would be interpreted as an increase in sexual harassment. The scale statistics reveal that respondents were inclined to feel that sexual harassment is an important management issue and would increase with the presence of sexual attraction ($\bar{x} = 3.39$, $SD = .823$). The items comprising this scale are discussed hereunder.

Table 88: Scale Statistics – Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment

Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment		
N	Valid	151
	Missing	1
Mean		3.39
Median		3.20
Mode		3
Std. Deviation		.823
Skewness		.442
Std. Error of Skewness		.197
Kurtosis		.073
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.392
Minimum		2
Maximum		6

Table 89: Frequency Distribution – Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment

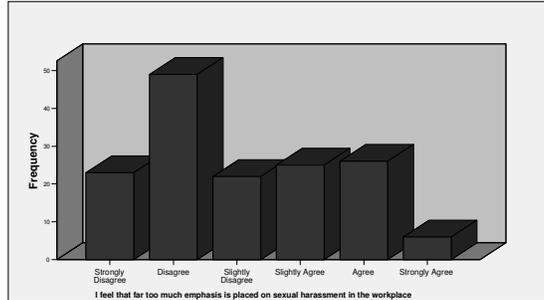
		I feel that far too much emphasis is placed on sexual harassment in the workplace	I think that sexual attraction could form the basis for sexual harassment in the workplace	I think that it is possible for co-workers to be "more than friends but less than lovers"	I think that employees are able to draw the line between sexual attraction and progressing to sexual harassment	I think it is possible for employees to be attracted to each other without one party taking it too far
N	Valid	151	152	152	152	152
	Missing	1	0	0	0	0
Mean		3.0000	4.4211	3.8816	4.2039	4.3816
Median		3.0000	5.0000	4.0000	5.0000	5.0000
Std. Deviation		1.46969	1.36429	1.43713	1.30885	1.29663
Skewness		0.345	-0.894	-0.400	-0.852	-1.019
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197
Kurtosis		-1.062	-0.057	-0.890	0.040	0.490
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.392	0.391	0.391	0.391	0.391
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

Sexual harassment is an important management issue and according to slightly over a third (37.7%) of respondents far too much emphasis is placed on this issue in the workplace. However; nearly half (47.7%) of respondents either disagreed (32.5%) or strongly disagreed (15.2%) with this statement. Whilst those in strong disagreement are a relatively small group this did have a large number of respondents for this category when comparing it with other items. Figure 68 reveals that the sample is positively skewed (.345) and flat (-1.062).

Table 90: I feel that far too much emphasis is placed on sexual harassment in the workplace

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	23	15.1	15.2	15.2
	Disagree	49	32.2	32.5	47.7
	Slightly Disagree	22	14.5	14.6	62.3
	Slightly Agree	25	16.4	16.6	78.8
	Agree	26	17.1	17.2	96.0
	Strongly Agree	6	3.9	4.0	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 67: I feel that far too much emphasis is placed on sexual harassment in the workplace



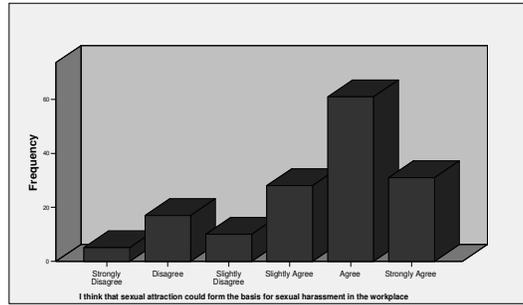
The next item was the only positively worded one in terms of the required scale interpretation and as such did not have to be reversed. Table 91 below provides the presentation of the descriptive statistics for this item.

Table 91: I think that sexual attraction could form the basis for sexual harassment in the workplace

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Disagree	17	11.2	11.2	14.5
	Slightly Disagree	10	6.6	6.6	21.1
	Slightly Agree	28	18.4	18.4	39.5
	Agree	61	40.1	40.1	79.6
	Strongly Agree	31	20.4	20.4	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Most respondents (78.9%) felt that sexual attraction could form the basis for sexual harassment in the workplace ($\bar{x} = 4.4221$, $SD = 1.36429$). This perception was not held however, by slightly over a fifth (21.1%) of respondents. Therefore these individuals do not feel that sexual attraction has the dangerous potential of progressing to sexual harassment. The general perception is that sexual attraction has the potential of progressing towards sexual harassment in the workplace, thus identifying sexual attraction as a management issue for organisations today. This is further reinforced upon viewing of figure 69, which shows a negatively skewed distribution (-.894) which is slightly flat (-.057) in nature.

Figure 68: I think that sexual attraction could form the basis for sexual harassment in the workplace

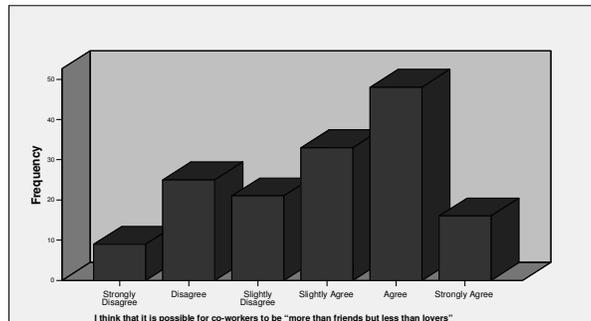


An important area of exploration with this construct is the perceived ability of individuals and employees to be sexually attracted to one another without sexual harassment becoming an issue. The next item explored the perceptions respondents had with regards to the possibility of co-workers being “more than friends but less than lovers”. Table 92 and figure 70 refer.

Table 92: I think that it is possible for co-workers to be “more than friends but less than lovers”

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	9	5.9	5.9	5.9
	Disagree	25	16.4	16.4	22.4
	Slightly Disagree	21	13.8	13.8	36.2
	Slightly Agree	33	21.7	21.7	57.9
	Agree	48	31.6	31.6	89.5
	Strongly Agree	16	10.5	10.5	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 69: I think that it is possible for co-workers to be “more than friends but less than lovers”



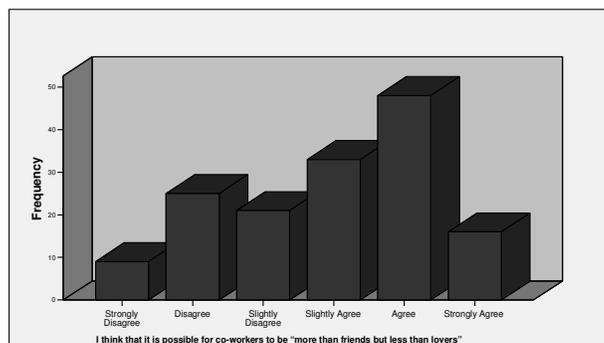
Findings reveal that the majority (63.8%) of respondents feel that being “more than friends but less than lovers” is a definite possibility in an organisation ($\bar{x} = 3.8816$, $SD = 1.437$). Some individuals strongly believe that this is can not be the case (5.9%) whilst other respondents disagreed with the statement (16.4%). Interestingly, a fairly large group of respondents (10.5%) strongly indicated that this was a definite possibility, which is quite large in comparison with other items and this response category. Therefore it would appear that respondents in general are optimistic that employees can maintain a “more than friends less than lovers” relationship in an organisation. The sample was negatively skewed (-.400) on this item and fairly flat (-.890).

It was postulated that sexual attraction might only be an issue in terms of sexual harassment if the individuals involved were able to draw the line to ensure it does not progress to that point. In keeping with this sentiment, the majority (73%) of respondents stated that they felt that employees were able to draw the line between sexual attraction and progressing to sexual harassment ($\bar{x} = 4.2039$, $SD = 1.308$). Table 93 and figure 71 refer.

Table 93: I think that employees are able to draw the line between sexual attraction and progressing to sexual harassment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	5.3	5.3	5.3
	Disagree	10	6.6	6.6	11.8
	Slightly Disagree	23	15.1	15.1	27.0
	Slightly Agree	29	19.1	19.1	46.1
	Agree	66	43.4	43.4	89.5
	Strongly Agree	16	10.5	10.5	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 70: I think that employees are able to draw the line between sexual attraction and progressing to sexual harassment

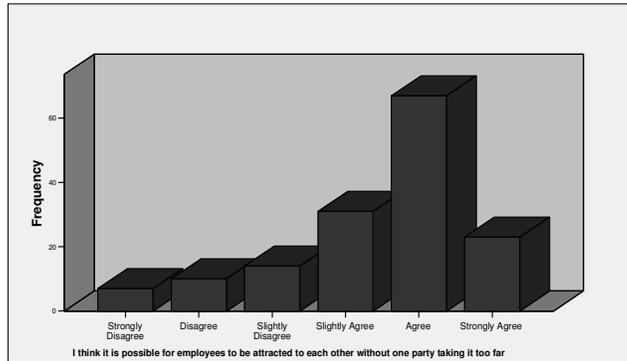


The next item is very similar to the preceding two items, with the majority of respondents (79.6%) being of the perception that employees can be attracted to one another without one party taking it too far ($\bar{x} = 4.3816$, $SD = 1.2966$). Some respondents did not feel that this was possible (20.4%) in all instances and thus disagreed with the statement.

Table 94: I think it is possible for employees to be attracted to each other without one party taking it too far

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	7	4.6	4.6	4.6
	Disagree	10	6.6	6.6	11.2
	Slightly Disagree	14	9.2	9.2	20.4
	Slightly Agree	31	20.4	20.4	40.8
	Agree	67	44.1	44.1	84.9
	Strongly Agree	23	15.1	15.1	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 71: I think it is possible for employees to be attracted to each other without one party taking it too far



In general it would appear that respondents feel that sexual harassment is an important management issue and should be taken seriously. They also believe that sexual attraction could form the basis of sexual harassment in the workplace. However, employees are viewed as being fairly socially responsible and as possessing the ability to draw the line between sexual harassment and sexual attraction thereby enabling them to be “more than friends less than lovers” without one party taking it too far.

5.3.13 The Individual

Whilst the majority of items on the preceding scales referred either directly or indirectly to the effects of sexual attraction on the individual involved, a separate five itemed scale was created to measure this construct specifically. None of these items were negatively worded, thus an increase in response is associated with a perceived positive increase on effects of sexual attraction in the workplace on the individual involved. Scale statistics reveal that sexual attraction has fairly positively perceived effects on the individual concerned ($\bar{x} = 3.80$, $SD = .822$). However, a detailed presentation of item statistics is provided in this section with table 96 providing the frequency distributions for items comprising this scale.

Table 95: Scale Statistics – Perceived Effect on the Individual

Average Effect on the Individual		
N	Valid	145
	Missing	7
Mean		3.80
Median		3.80
Mode		4
Std. Deviation		.822
Skewness		.692
Std. Error of Skewness		.201
Kurtosis		.139
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.400
Minimum		1
Maximum		6

Table 96: Frequency Distributions – Perceived Effect on the Individual

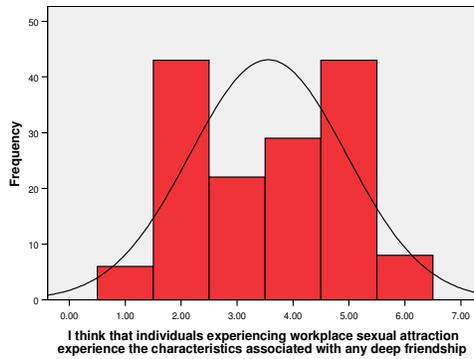
		I think that individuals experiencing workplace sexual attraction experience the characteristics associated with any deep friendship	I think that sexual energy can be sublimated to the task at hand in the workplace (i.e. a persons job or project)	I think that sexual attraction results in employees having mental energy which otherwise would not be unleashed	I think that employees whom are sexually attracted to a colleague will find it exciting	I think that sexual attraction can cause employees to have increased levels of physical energy in the workplace
N	Valid	151	148	152	150	151
	Missing	1	4	0	2	1
Mean		3.5563	3.5811	3.3421	4.626667	3.7616
Median		4.0000	4.0000	4.0000	5	4.0000
Std. Deviation		1.39826	1.11278	1.22396	5	1.18157
Skewness		-0.043	-0.102	-0.111	0.993581	-0.386
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.199	0.197	-0.8561	0.197
Kurtosis		-1.275	-0.448	-0.836	0.198038	-0.596
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.392	0.396	0.391	1.424774	0.392
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	0.393583	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	1	6.00

Friendship and sexual attraction are interesting dynamics in workplace relationships; often these two factors are combined. Respondents appear to be divided with regards to how they perceive the characteristics of any deep friendship and a friendship characterised by sexual attraction ($\bar{x} = 3.55$, $SD = 1.398$). A slight majority (53%) of respondents indicated that they thought that individuals experiencing workplace sexual attraction experience the characteristics associated with any deep friendship. However, nearly a third (32.5%) of respondents stated that they did not think that this occurred in instances of sexual attraction. Possible reasons for the divergence of perceptions are different experiences and levels of friendship that people would likely have. Using this as a frame of reference and with the typical platonic, same-sex friendship most people would likely use as a reference to any deep and meaningful friendship they might have, this could have an influence on their perceptions of workplace sexual attraction and its affect on friendship or relationship dynamics. The sample had a slightly negatively skewed (-.043) flat (-1.275) distribution.

Table 97: I think that individuals experiencing workplace sexual attraction experience the characteristics associated with any deep friendship

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	6	3.9	4.0	4.0
	Disagree	43	28.3	28.5	32.5
	Slightly Disagree	22	14.5	14.6	47.0
	Slightly Agree	29	19.1	19.2	66.2
	Agree	43	28.3	28.5	94.7
	Strongly Agree	8	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 72: I think that individuals experiencing workplace sexual attraction experience the characteristics associated with any deep friendship

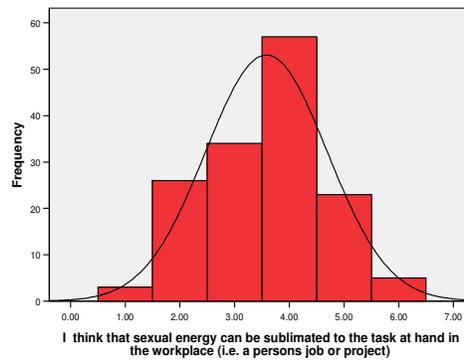


A possible effect of sexual attraction on the individual involved is on productivity with research showing that some individuals are able to sublimate sexual energy into their jobs. Over half (57.2%) of the respondents in the present study indicated that they thought this occurred ($\bar{x} = 3.581$, $SD = 1.11278$) with only three respondents (2%) strongly indicating their disagreement with this statement. In addition, small groups of respondents either disagreed (17.6%) or slightly disagreed (23%) with the possibility of sexual energy being sublimated into the task at hand. Those in slight disagreement need to be evaluated within context; perhaps this perception exists ever so finely within these respondents as they were unsure about the situation in which some people may work and if it is possible to direct energy such as sexual attraction elsewhere. Some people may not have that capability whereas others can do so aptly which may have confused interpretations and responses on this item. Generally, it would appear that respondents are aware of this possibility and feel that it is a positive effect on the individual involved. The sample is slightly negatively skewed (-.102) and flat (-.448) as is evidenced in figure 74.

Table 98: I think that sexual energy can be sublimated to the task at hand in the workplace (i.e. a persons job or project)

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	26	17.1	17.6	19.6
	Slightly Disagree	34	22.4	23.0	42.6
	Slightly Agree	57	37.5	38.5	81.1
	Agree	23	15.1	15.5	96.6
	Strongly Agree	5	3.3	3.4	100.0
Total		148	97.4	100.0	
Missing	System	4	2.6		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 73: I think that sexual energy can be sublimated to the task at hand in the workplace (i.e. a persons job or project)

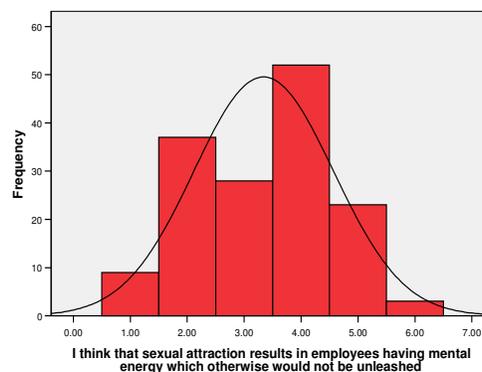


In keeping with the findings on the previous item, slightly over half (51.3%) of the respondents in the present study thought that sexual attraction results in employees having mental energy which otherwise would not be unleashed ($\bar{x} = 3.342$, $SD = 1.223$). Less than a third (30.3%) of respondents felt that this was definitely not possible and 18.4 percent indicated that they only felt slightly inclined to disagree with this concept. The sample was negatively skewed (-.111) and slightly flatter than desired for a normal distribution (-.836).

Table 99: I think that sexual attraction results in employees having mental energy which otherwise would not be unleashed

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	9	5.9	5.9	5.9
	Disagree	37	24.3	24.3	30.3
	Slightly Disagree	28	18.4	18.4	48.7
	Slightly Agree	52	34.2	34.2	82.9
	Agree	23	15.1	15.1	98.0
	Strongly Agree	3	2.0	2.0	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 74: I think that sexual attraction results in employees having mental energy which otherwise would not be unleashed

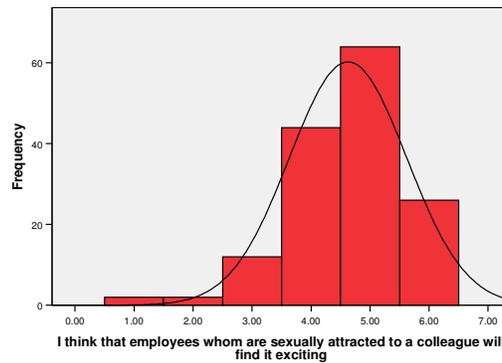


Excitement underpins various aspects of sexual attraction in the workplace with the vast majority (89.3%) of respondents feeling that employees whom are sexually attracted to a colleague will find it exciting ($\bar{x} = 4.6267$, $SD = .9935$). This excitement can have positive effects on an individual as it can positively impact various other aspects of working life, the exploration of which is an area for future research to consider. Only four respondents (2.7%) disagreed (1.3%) or strongly disagreed (1.3%) with this statement.

Table 100: I think that employees whom are sexually attracted to a colleague will find it exciting

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	1.3	1.3	1.3
	Disagree	2	1.3	1.3	2.7
	Slightly Disagree	12	7.9	8.0	10.7
	Slightly Agree	44	28.9	29.3	40.0
	Agree	64	42.1	42.7	82.7
	Strongly Agree	26	17.1	17.3	100.0
	Total	150	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
	Total	152	100.0		

Figure 75: I think that employees whom are sexually attracted to a colleague will find it exciting

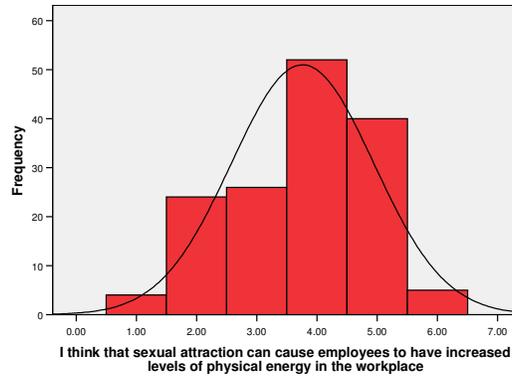


The final item on this scale pertained to physical energy levels and the effects of workplace sexual attraction thereon. The findings reveal that slightly under two thirds (64.2%) of respondents think that sexual attraction can cause employees to have increased levels of physical energy in the workplace ($\bar{x} = 3.7616$, $SD = 1.1815$). This is not to say that some smaller groups of respondents did not disagree (15.9%) or even strongly disagree (2.6%) with this concept. This could be explained by different work environments from which the respondents hail wherein exertion of physical energy may not be part of the normal work day as they perceive it to be. The findings indicate a negatively skewed (-.386) slightly flat distribution (-.596) of the sample which can be observed in figure 77.

Table 101: I think that sexual attraction can cause employees to have increased levels of physical energy in the workplace

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	2.6	2.6	2.6
	Disagree	24	15.8	15.9	18.5
	Slightly Disagree	26	17.1	17.2	35.8
	Slightly Agree	52	34.2	34.4	70.2
	Agree	40	26.3	26.5	96.7
	Strongly Agree	5	3.3	3.3	100.0
	Total	151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
	Total	152	100.0		

Figure 76: I think that sexual attraction can cause employees to have increased levels of physical energy in the workplace



5.3.14 The Work Group

As with the previous construct the effects of sexual attraction on various aspects of the work group were partially covered in some of the other scales. However, this specific five itemed scale was constructed with only the work group in mind. Four of the items are negatively worded and were reversed for the calculation of scale statistics in table 102. Scale results indicate that sexual attraction has a fairly negative perceived influence on the work group ($\bar{x} = 2.86$, $SD = .600$). This indicates that whilst the individual involved in the workplace sexual attraction dynamic might experience positive effects as a result thereof the opposite can be said of the colleagues surrounding these individuals in a work group situation. Each item is presented hereunder, with the frequency distribution in table 103 providing further insight into this construct.

Table 102: Scale Statistics – Perceived Effect on Work Group

Average Perceived Effect on Work Group		
N	Valid	147
	Missing	5
Mean		2.86
Median		2.80
Mode		3
Std. Deviation		.600
Skewness		.385
Std. Error of Skewness		.200
Kurtosis		.260
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.397
Minimum		1
Maximum		5

Table 103: Frequency Distribution – Perceived Effect on Work Group

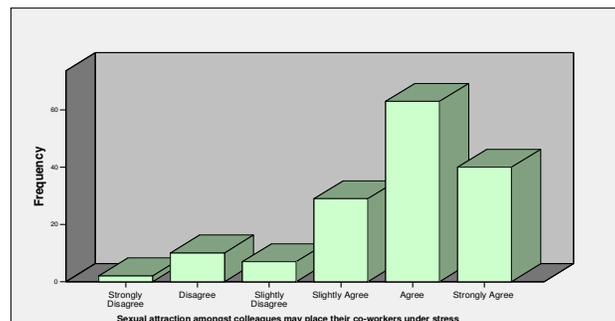
		Sexual attraction amongst colleagues may place their co-workers under stress	I think that a sexually energized, but strictly working relationship has a positive effect on a workgroup	A workgroup can resort to acts of retaliation towards team members whom are sexually attracted towards each other	Decision making is a lot slower if elements of sexual attraction are present in a workgroup	The image or reputation of a unit is damaged by sexual attraction between team members
N	Valid	151	151	151	152	150
	Missing	1	1	1	0	2
Mean		4.7285	3.3245	4.1126	3.8092	4.3467
Median		5.0000	4.0000	4.0000	4.0000	5.0000
Std. Deviation		1.17719	1.38828	1.16358	1.22736	1.18710
Skewness		-1.121	-0.100	-0.608	-0.369	-0.604
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197	0.198
Kurtosis		0.972	-0.969	0.033	-0.554	-0.132
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.392	0.392	0.392	0.391	0.394
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

The first negatively worded item, presented in table 104 and figure 78, was reversed for scale statistic calculations but is presented here in its original format for purposes of descriptive statistic presentation. The vast majority (87.4%) of respondents indicated that the presence of sexual attraction amongst colleagues may place their co-workers under stress ($\bar{x} = 4.728$, $SD = 1.177$). Respondent groups seemed to be quite clear with the expression of this perception with only 19.2 percent indicating slight agreement with this statement; the remainder of respondents either agreed (41.4%) or strongly agreed (26.5%) therewith. The size of the latter group is quite substantial when compared with other items on this response category. It is evident that the sample distribution was substantially negatively skewed (-1.121) and quite peaked (.972).

Table 104: Sexual attraction amongst colleagues may place their co-workers under stress

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	1.3	1.3	1.3
	Disagree	10	6.6	6.6	7.9
	Slightly Disagree	7	4.6	4.6	12.6
	Slightly Agree	29	19.1	19.2	31.8
	Agree	63	41.4	41.7	73.5
	Strongly Agree	40	26.3	26.5	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1		.7	
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 77: Sexual attraction amongst colleagues may place their co-workers under stress

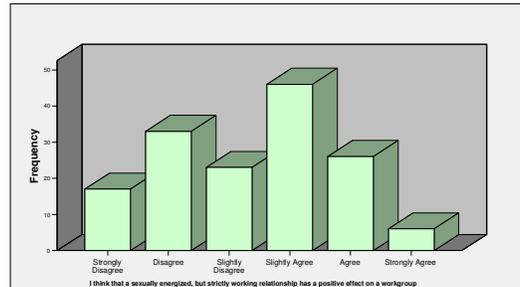


The next item was the only one positively worded and revealed that respondents had some inconsistencies with regards to how they viewed the benefits of a sexually energised, but strictly working relationship on a workgroup ($\bar{x} = 3.3245$, $SD = 1.338$). Findings indicate that a slight majority (51.7%) of respondents feel that this type of relationship has a positive effect on a workgroup with a third (33.1%) of respondents either disagreeing (21.9%) or strongly disagreeing (11.3%) therewith. The effects on a workgroup could depend on the group in question; some people are more sensitive and or introverted than others which could have had an influence on how respondents responded on this item. Figure 79 reveals that the sample distribution is only slightly negatively skewed (-.100) and fairly flat (-.969).

Table 105: I think that a sexually energized, but strictly working relationship has a positive effect on a workgroup

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	17	11.2	11.3	11.3
	Disagree	33	21.7	21.9	33.1
	Slightly Disagree	23	15.1	15.2	48.3
	Slightly Agree	46	30.3	30.5	78.8
	Agree	26	17.1	17.2	96.0
	Strongly Agree	6	3.9	4.0	100.0
	Total	151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 78: I think that a sexually energized, but strictly working relationship has a positive effect on a workgroup

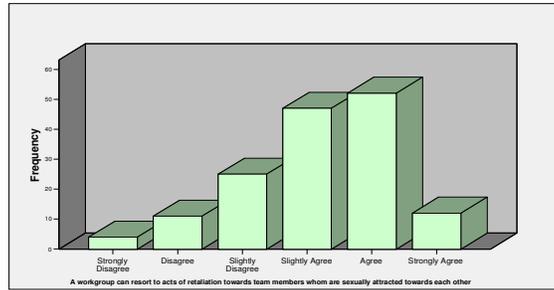


The type of workgroup that sexually attracted individuals find themselves in could have an affect on the next item response. Nearly three quarters (73.5%) of respondents indicated that they had the perception that a workgroup could resort to acts of retaliation towards team members whom are sexually attracted towards each other. Reasons behind this could be numerous and should be explored by further research; possibilities could be jealousy anger or hostility towards these members because of the expression of their sexual attraction towards each other. Only a very small group of respondents (7.3%) either disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement. Thus the possibility of retaliation, resulting from sexual attraction, from ones work group is a possibility ($\bar{x} = 4.1126$, $SD = 1.163$). Figure 80 reveals that the sample distribution is negatively skewed (-.608) and slightly peaked (.033).

Table 106: A workgroup can resort to acts of retaliation towards team members whom are sexually attracted towards each other

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	2.6	2.6	2.6
	Disagree	11	7.2	7.3	9.9
	Slightly Disagree	25	16.4	16.6	26.5
	Slightly Agree	47	30.9	31.1	57.6
	Agree	52	34.2	34.4	92.1
	Strongly Agree	12	7.9	7.9	100.0
	Total	151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 79: A workgroup can resort to acts of retaliation towards team members whom are sexually attracted towards each other

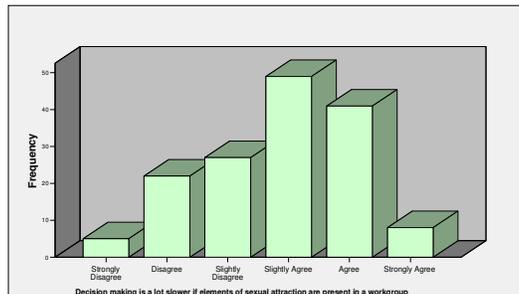


The effects of sexual attraction on group decision making are also important considerations, with just under two thirds (64.5%) of respondents in the present study indicating that they felt that decision making is a lot slower if elements of sexual attraction are present in a workgroup ($\bar{x} = 3.8092$ $SD= 1.227$). Decision making was not viewed as being impeded by sexual attraction in a workgroup by 35.5 percent of respondents. The sample distribution in this case was once again negatively skewed (-.369) although fairly flat (-.554).

Table 107: Decision making is a lot slower if elements of sexual attraction are present in a workgroup

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	5	3.3	3.3	3.3
	Disagree	22	14.5	14.5	17.8
	Slightly Disagree	27	17.8	17.8	35.5
	Slightly Agree	49	32.2	32.2	67.8
	Agree	41	27.0	27.0	94.7
	Strongly Agree	8	5.3	5.3	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 80: Decision making is a lot slower if elements of sexual attraction are present in a workgroup

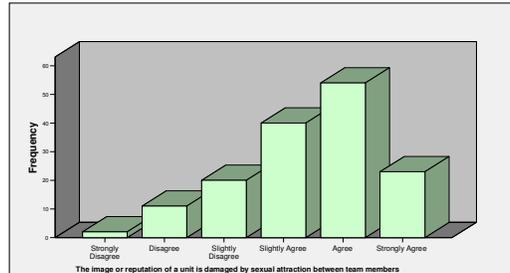


The final item on this construct dealt with the image or reputation of a unit or work group as a result of sexual attraction between its group or team members. The results indicate that the majority of respondents (78%) felt that the image or reputation of the unit is damaged by the exhibition of elements of sexual attraction present in the work group ($\bar{x} = 4.346$, $SD= 1.1871$). This could be a symptom of organisational or South African culture together with the tendency of employees to gossip about perceived sexual attraction which may have an effect of creating a negative image of the group in question. Figure 82 illustrates the negatively skewed (-.604) and slightly flat (-.132) nature of the sample distribution.

Table 108: The image or reputation of a unit is damaged by sexual attraction between team members

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	2	1.3	1.3	1.3
	Disagree	11	7.2	7.3	8.7
	Slightly Disagree	20	13.2	13.3	22.0
	Slightly Agree	40	26.3	26.7	48.7
	Agree	54	35.5	36.0	84.7
	Strongly Agree	23	15.1	15.3	100.0
Total		150	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 81: The image or reputation of a unit is damaged by sexual attraction between team members



5.3.15 Motives

Various motives underpinning sexual attraction in the workplace exist according to available literature. This topic could have been a study in itself and as such was not comprehensively covered in this construct. Various motives and their effects were explored in this construct relevant to the present study by means of a five itemed scale, of which two were negatively worded. Scale statistics reveal that perceived motives behind sexual attraction are not present or observed by all respondents ($\bar{x} = 3.00$ SD= .602). This scale was constructed so that an increase in response category on the variable was associated with increased perceived presence of the motive behind sexual attraction in the workplace. With this in mind, the frequency distributions and specific item statistics are evaluated.

Table 109: Scale Statistics – Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction

Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction		
N	Valid	142
	Missing	10
Mean		3.00
Median		3.00
Mode		3
Std. Deviation		.602
Skewness		.043
Std. Error of Skewness		.203
Kurtosis		-.264
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.404
Minimum		2
Maximum		4

Table 110: Frequency Distribution - Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction

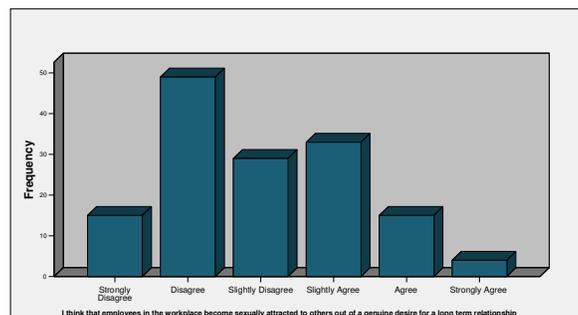
		I think that employees in the workplace become sexually attracted to others out of a genuine desire for a long term relationship	Colleagues become sexually attracted to each other out of a desire for excitement	I feel that employees whom are sexually attracted to others because of a high desire for increased power have a negative effect on the colleagues surrounding them	I think that employees in the workplace become sexually attracted to others out of a genuine desire for commitment	I think that if financial rewards underlie an individuals motivation for sexual attraction to a colleague, this has negative effects on an organisation
N	Valid	145	150	152	152	151
	Missing	7	2	0	0	1
Mean		2.9724	4.3133	4.6513	2.8947	4.4901
Median		3.0000	5.0000	5.0000	3.0000	5.0000
Std. Deviation		1.28531	1.18795	1.20298	1.19689	1.44161
Skewness		0.370	-0.825	-1.126	0.558	-1.001
Std. Error of Skewness		0.201	0.198	0.197	0.197	0.197
Kurtosis		-0.683	0.371	0.862	-0.282	0.070
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.400	0.394	0.391	0.391	0.392
Minimum		1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00

Research findings reveal that most respondents (64.1%) did not feel that employees in the workplace become sexually attracted to others out of a genuine desire for a long term relationship ($\bar{x} = 2.9724$, $SD = 1.2853$). Subsequently only a few individuals (2.8%) strongly felt that a desire for a relationship motivates sexual attraction in the workplace. Sexual attraction can thus be seen as not originating out of a desire for a long term relationship, but could instead be perceived as being driven by other forces. The sample distribution was positively skewed (.370) and slightly flat (-.683).

Table 111: I think that employees in the workplace become sexually attracted to others out of a genuine desire for a long term relationship

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	15	9.9	10.3	10.3
	Disagree	49	32.2	33.8	44.1
	Slightly Disagree	29	19.1	20.0	64.1
	Slightly Agree	33	21.7	22.8	86.9
	Agree	15	9.9	10.3	97.2
	Strongly Agree	4	2.6	2.8	100.0
	Total		145	95.4	100.0
Missing	System	7	4.6		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 82: I think that employees in the workplace become sexually attracted to others out of a genuine desire for a long term relationship



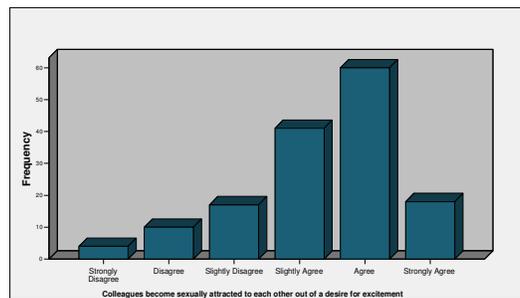
One motive which came up with strong results is that of excitement, with nearly 80 percent (79.3%) of respondents stating that they felt that colleagues became sexually attracted to each other out of a desire for excitement ($\bar{x} = 4.3133$, $SD = 1.18795$). Less than 10 percent (9.3%) of respondents stated that they disagreed (6.7%) or strongly disagreed (2.7%) with this motive as underlying sexual attraction in the workplace. The findings illustrate that the

sample distribution is negatively skewed (-.825) and peaked (.371); indicating that respondents are more inclined to perceive sexual attraction in the workplace as being motivated out of a need for excitement than other motives.

Table 112: Colleagues become sexually attracted to each other out of a desire for excitement

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	4	2.6	2.7	2.7
	Disagree	10	6.6	6.7	9.3
	Slightly Disagree	17	11.2	11.3	20.7
	Slightly Agree	41	27.0	27.3	48.0
	Agree	60	39.5	40.0	88.0
	Strongly Agree	18	11.8	12.0	100.0
Total		150	98.7	100.0	
Missing	System	2	1.3		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 83: Colleagues become sexually attracted to each other out of a desire for excitement

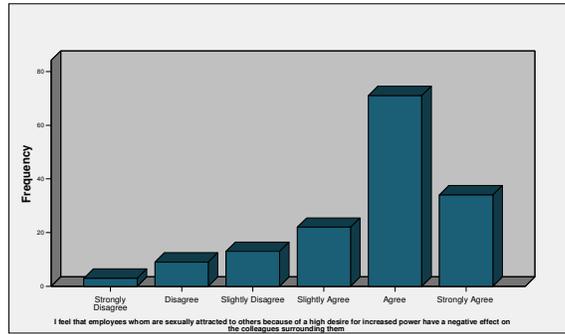


The power motive as a driving factor behind sexual attraction was perceived by the majority (83.6%) of respondents to have a negative effect on surrounding colleagues ($\bar{x} = 4.6153$, $SD = 1.20298$). Just over an eighth (16.4%) of respondents did not feel that the power motive had a negative effect on colleagues surrounding those involved in sexual attraction characterised workplace relationships. In general, power is perceived as a motive which has negative effects on an organisation and its units/work groups/ employees. This is further reinforced by the substantially negatively skewed (-1.126) and peaked (.862) sample distribution for this item. Therefore when power is perceived as a motive underlying displays of sexual attraction, this should be addressed (by either the team leader, manager or even the individuals themselves if they are aware of it) to ensure potential negative effects thereof are mitigated.

Table 113: I feel that employees whom are sexually attracted to others because of a high desire for increased power have a negative effect on the colleagues surrounding them

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	3	2.0	2.0	2.0
	Disagree	9	5.9	5.9	7.9
	Slightly Disagree	13	8.6	8.6	16.4
	Slightly Agree	22	14.5	14.5	30.9
	Agree	71	46.7	46.7	77.6
	Strongly Agree	34	22.4	22.4	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 84: I feel that employees whom are sexually attracted to others because of a high desire for increased power have a negative effect on the colleagues surrounding them

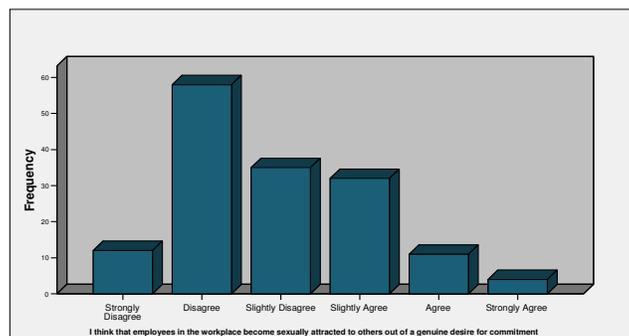


In line with the item response gained pertaining to the desire for a long term relationship, the vast majority (69.1%) of respondents do not feel that employees in the workplace become sexually attracted to others out of a genuine desire for commitment ($\bar{x} = 2.894$, $SD = 1.1968$). Perhaps sexual attraction is viewed as more of an attitude, something which is unavoidable yet harmless if parties can keep themselves in line. Less than 10 percent (9.9%) indicated either agreement (7.2%) or strong agreement (2.6%) with commitment as a motive for sexual attraction. Subsequently the sample distribution was substantially positively skewed (1.1968) and fairly flat (-.282).

Table 114: I think that employees in the workplace become sexually attracted to others out of a genuine desire for commitment

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	12	7.9	7.9	7.9
	Disagree	58	38.2	38.2	46.1
	Slightly Disagree	35	23.0	23.0	69.1
	Slightly Agree	32	21.1	21.1	90.1
	Agree	11	7.2	7.2	97.4
	Strongly Agree	4	2.6	2.6	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 85: I think that employees in the workplace become sexually attracted to others out of a genuine desire for commitment



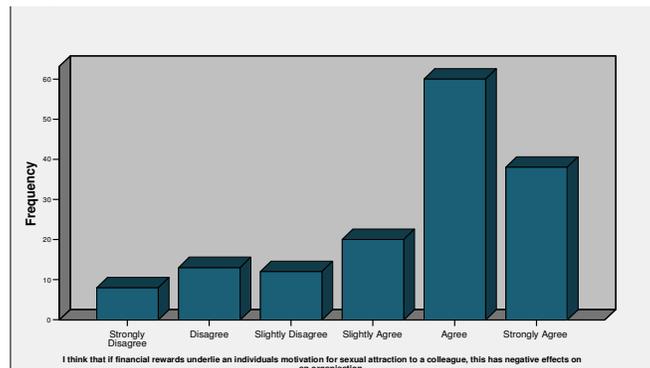
Power is not the only motive behind sexual attraction which is negatively perceived by respondents with the majority thereof (78.1%) stating that they thought that if financial rewards underlie an individuals motivation for sexual attraction to a colleague, this has negative effects on an organisation ($\bar{x} = 4.4901$, $SD = 1.44161$). Slightly over an eighth (13.9%) of respondents do not however necessary feel that pursuing money and using sexual attraction as a means through which to achieve it as having negative effects on the

organisation with a further 7.9 percent indicating slight disagreement with this statement. This is a clear indication that money is viewed as the “root of evil” so to speak and the pursuit thereof through using elements of sexual attraction is viewed as having abhorrent effects on the organisation in which the individual in question is employed. The sample distribution was substantially negatively skewed (-1.001) and slightly peaked (.070). Figure 87 and table 115 refer.

Table 115: I think that if financial rewards underlie an individuals motivation for sexual attraction to a colleague, this has negative effects on an organisation

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	5.3	5.3	5.3
	Disagree	13	8.6	8.6	13.9
	Slightly Disagree	12	7.9	7.9	21.9
	Slightly Agree	20	13.2	13.2	35.1
	Agree	60	39.5	39.7	74.8
	Strongly Agree	38	25.0	25.2	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 86: I think that if financial rewards underlie an individuals motivation for sexual attraction to a colleague, this has negative effects on an organisation



5.3.16 The Role of Management

All of the findings herein have implications for management and the potential emergence of sexual attraction as a diversity management issue. Therefore, it was viewed as important to obtain the views of respondents with regards to the perceived role of management required to regulate sexual attraction in the workplace. This five itemed scale had one negatively worded item, with all items being written so as to ensure that an increase in response was associated with an increase in the perceived role of management in managing sexual attraction in the workplace.

Scale statistics presented in table 116 reveal that respondents do feel that management has some role to play in the management of sexual attraction in the workplace ($\bar{x} = 3.37$, $SD = .761$). However perhaps not quite a strong regulatory role is required and more in terms of guidance and support may be needed to ensure the benefits of sexual attraction are leveraged and the potential negative effects are mitigated as far as possible.

Table 116: Scale Statistics - Perceived Role of Management

Average Perceived Role of Management		
N	Valid	147
	Missing	5
Mean		3.37
Median		3.40
Mode		3
Std. Deviation		.761
Skewness		.004
Std. Error of Skewness		.200
Kurtosis		.771
Std. Error of Kurtosis		.397
Minimum		1
Maximum		6

Table 117: Frequency Distribution – Perceived Role of Management

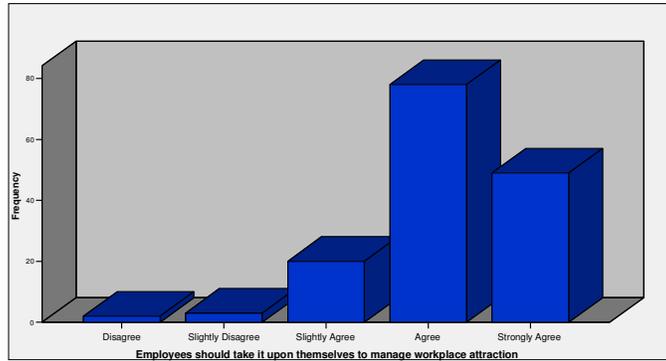
		Employees should take it upon themselves to manage workplace attraction	Organisations need to manage sexual attraction in the workplace	I think that there should be policies in place to manage workplace attraction	Controlled, managed sexual attraction can have positive organisational benefits	Management needs to harness the motivational potential that workplace sexual attraction poses
N	Valid	152	151	151	152	149
	Missing	0	1	1	0	3
Mean		5.1118	3.8146	4.0464	3.5526	3.436242
Median		5.0000	4.0000	4.0000	4.0000	4.0000
Std. Deviation		0.80190	1.54231	1.48026	1.31617	1.311705
Skewness		-1.064	-0.248	-0.518	-0.133	0.022367
Std. Error of Skewness		0.197	0.197	0.197	0.197	0.198689
Kurtosis		2.077	-1.079	-0.669	-0.584	-0.8989
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0.391	0.392	0.392	0.391	0.39486
Minimum		2.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1
Maximum		6.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	6

The first item comprising the scale was negatively worded and as such was reversed for calculation of scale statistics yet is presented here in its original form. No respondent indicated strong disagreement with the statement that employees should take it upon themselves to manage workplace attraction. In total only five respondents (3.3%) indicated some form of disagreement with this item. The remainder of the sample group indicated that they felt it was the onus of the employee to manage themselves when it comes to sexual attraction in the workplace. Over half of the respondents (51.3%) agreed therewith and nearly a third (32.3%) strongly agreed. This item had the largest group respond in the last category, indicating a very strong perception held amongst the respondents ($\bar{x} = 5.118$ SD= .801). Suffice to say that the sample distribution was substantially negatively skewed (-1.064) and very peaked (2.077); illustrated in figure 88.

Table 118: Employees should take it upon themselves to manage workplace attraction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Disagree	2	1.3	1.3	1.3
	Slightly Disagree	3	2.0	2.0	3.3
	Slightly Agree	20	13.2	13.2	16.4
	Agree	78	51.3	51.3	67.8
	Strongly Agree	49	32.2	32.2	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 87: Employees should take it upon themselves to manage workplace attraction

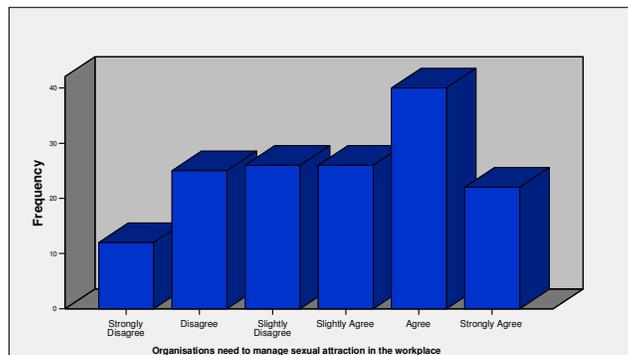


In spite of respondents indicating that the employee needs to take it upon themselves to manage sexual attraction; the majority of respondents (58.3%) indicated that they felt that organisations too need to manage sexual attraction in the workplace ($\bar{x} = 3.81$, $SD = 1.542$). There does appear to be a division of opinion in this regards with nearly a quarter (24.5%) of respondents indicating disagreement with this statement, thus implying that organisations do not need to manage workplace sexual attraction. This divergence in opinion could be a result of respondents feeling that management and organisations do need to get involved with management of dynamics of diversity, yet do not have to do so stringently with such a sensitive and personal topic and leave some discretion to the individual. Figure 89 indicates that the sample distribution was slightly negative (-.248) and very flat (-1079).

Table 119: Organisations need to manage sexual attraction in the workplace

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	12	7.9	7.9	7.9
	Disagree	25	16.4	16.6	24.5
	Slightly Disagree	26	17.1	17.2	41.7
	Slightly Agree	26	17.1	17.2	58.9
	Agree	40	26.3	26.5	85.4
	Strongly Agree	22	14.5	14.6	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 88: Organisations need to manage sexual attraction in the workplace



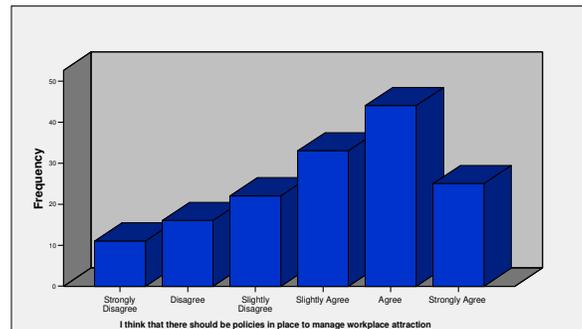
A picture is now starting to develop with the role of organisations and management in managing the dynamic of workplace sexual attraction further illuminated by the findings on

the next item. Over two thirds (67.5%) of respondents thought that there should be policies in place to manage workplace attraction ($\bar{x} = 4.0464$, $SD= 1.480$); with less than 20 percent (17.9%) indicating that they did not think such policies were necessary. From the item statistics listed in table 120 it is clear that some policies do need to be put in place to manage sexual attraction in the workplace, yet they should not be so restrictive as to alienate the workforce from the organisation itself and each other.

Table 120: I think that there should be policies in place to manage workplace attraction

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	11	7.2	7.3	7.3
	Disagree	16	10.5	10.6	17.9
	Slightly Disagree	22	14.5	14.6	32.5
	Slightly Agree	33	21.7	21.9	54.3
	Agree	44	28.9	29.1	83.4
	Strongly Agree	25	16.4	16.6	100.0
Total		151	99.3	100.0	
Missing	System	1	.7		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 89: I think that there should be policies in place to manage workplace attraction

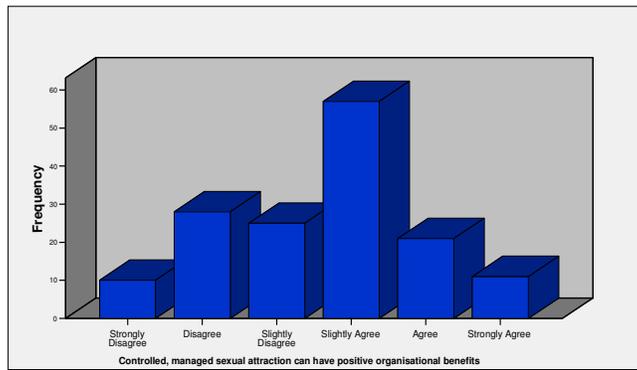


The potential positive benefits of sexual attraction which is controlled and managed in an organisation was not perceived by all respondents; however the majority (58.6%) thereof indicated that sexual attraction could have positive organisational benefits. A quarter (25%) of respondents indicated disagreement (18.4%) or strong disagreement (6.6%) with this concept, with the remaining 16.4 percent only indicating slight disagreement therewith. Therefore it can be assumed that it is perceived that controlled managed sexual attraction can have positive organisational benefits ($\bar{x} = 3.5526$, $SD= 1.316$). The sample distribution is slightly negatively skewed (-.133) and flat (-.584).

Table 121: Controlled, managed sexual attraction can have positive organisational benefits

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	10	6.6	6.6	6.6
	Disagree	28	18.4	18.4	25.0
	Slightly Disagree	25	16.4	16.4	41.4
	Slightly Agree	57	37.5	37.5	78.9
	Agree	21	13.8	13.8	92.8
	Strongly Agree	11	7.2	7.2	100.0
Total		152	100.0	100.0	

Figure 90: Controlled, managed sexual attraction can have positive organisational benefits

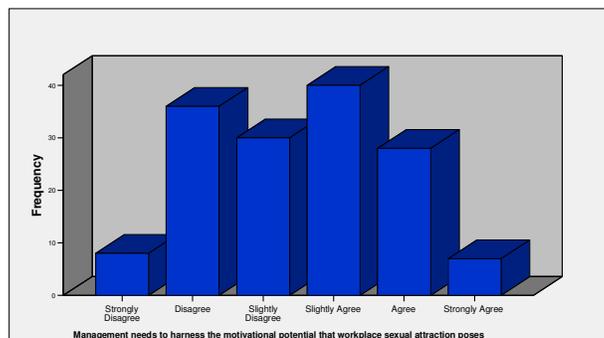


The final item on this last scale of the PPESAI pertained to the need of management to harness the motivational potential poised within sexual attraction in the workplace. The sample group was divided on this point of contention with just over half (50.3%) indicating that they thought that this was necessary and the remaining 49.7 percent being in disagreement ($\bar{x} = 3.436$, $SD = 1.311$). Therefore whilst the motivational potential behind sexual attraction may be perceived by some individuals, others may still be unaware thereof or might not feel that it has motivational potential. The sample distribution is however, very slightly positively skewed (.022) yet fairly flat (-.8989); perhaps as a result of more respondents indicating strong disagreement (5.4%) and disagreement (24.2%) than indicated agreement (18.8%) and strong agreement with this item (4.7%).

Table 122: Management needs to harness the motivational potential that workplace sexual attraction poses

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	Strongly Disagree	8	5.3	5.4	5.4
	Disagree	36	23.7	24.2	29.5
	Slightly Disagree	30	19.7	20.1	49.7
	Slightly Agree	40	26.3	26.8	76.5
	Agree	28	18.4	18.8	95.3
	Strongly Agree	7	4.6	4.7	100.0
	Total	149	98.0	100.0	
Missing	System	3	2.0		
Total		152	100.0		

Figure 91: Management needs to harness the motivational potential that workplace sexual attraction poses



Now that the detailed presentations of descriptive statistics for the PPESAI have been given, focus is turned to statistics of association and inferential statistics. These statistics have been

discussed in depth in Chapter Three with a further explanation thereof unwarranted here. These statistics were employed in order to answer the remaining research questions for the present study and are presented in the next two sections.

5.4 Correlational Statistics/ Statistics of Association

Statistics of association, also known as correlation statistics are utilised when the researcher has determined whether all assumptions necessary for parametric statistics have been met and not violated. In instances where this was the case use was made of Pearsons Product Moment correlation; should this not be the case Spearman's Rho was utilised. The presence of various relationships were tested for in the present study, in order to conduct all the necessary statistical correlations categorised data was collapsed into a continuous scale to form a value for each construct. It is important to note that only statistically significant results are presented in this chapter, with other interesting relationships and results also being briefly, however the presentation thereof is included as Appendix C. This information is subsequently presented in the tables hereunder. It is important to note that all analyses were conducted for the complete sample group and then separately for the sample group less the respondents whom were teachers, and therefore in a more gender neutral environment. In the instance that a significant difference between the two analyses occurred, this was reported and the sample less teachers was used.

Correlational statistics are presented for the following categorical variables:

- Age; and
- Length of Marriage.

It is important to note that only significant results will be presented in tabular format herein. This also includes correlations with a value of $r \geq .10$ and greater unless otherwise stipulated.

5.4.1 Age

The relationship between age as a continuous variable and the various scales or constructs of the PPESAI was investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation. Preliminary analyses were performed to ensure no violation of the assumptions of normality, linearity and homoscedasticity. These assumptions for parametric statistics were met. The results are presented in table 124.

Table 123: Correlation Statistics: Age

		Age	PPESAI Scale/Construct	r ²	%
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.240**	0.0576	5.76%
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.003		
	N	150	148		
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	Pearson Correlation	-0.240**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.003			
	N	148	150		
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.12	0.0144	1.44%
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.148		
	N	150	147		
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	Pearson Correlation	-0.12	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.148			
	N	147	149		
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.143	0.020449	2.04%
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.083		
	N	150	148		
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	Pearson Correlation	-0.143	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.083			
	N	148	150		
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.137	0.018769	1.88%
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.098		
	N	150	146		
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	Pearson Correlation	-0.137	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.098			
	N	146	148		
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.260**	0.0676	6.76%
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.002		
	N	150	146		
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	Pearson Correlation	-0.260**	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.002			
	N	146	148		
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	-0.152	0.023104	2.31%
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.069		
	N	150	145		
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	Pearson Correlation	-0.152	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.069			
	N	145	147		
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	0.139	0.019321	1.93%
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.095		
	N	150	146		
I have been sexually attracted to a colleague before	Pearson Correlation	0.139	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.095			
	N	146	148		
Age	Pearson Correlation	1	0.126	0.015876	1.59%
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.129		
	N	150	146		
I have been involved in at least one workplace "rendezvous" in my life	Pearson Correlation	0.126	1		
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.129			
	N	146	148		

**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Significant correlations were observed between age and various PPESAI scales, highlighted in the table above, these significant results are discussed first. A significant yet small, negative correlation ($r = -.240$, $n = 150$, $p < .001$) was observed between age and elements of sexual attraction being perceived. This could indicate that younger individuals are more

aware of different elements of sexual attraction than their older counterparts. The coefficient of determination ($r^2=.0576$) revealed that age helps to explain 5.76 percent of the variance in respondents' scores on Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction. A further significant small negative correlation ($r= -.260$, $n=150$, $p<.001$) was observed between age and the Perceived Effect on Stress, with an increase in age being associated with a decrease in the positive effects of sexual attraction in the workplace on stress. Therefore, it would appear that 6.76 percent ($r^2=.0676$) of the variance in respondents' scores on this construct can be explained by their age with older individuals indicating that they perceived sexual attraction to have less of a positive effect on stress in the workplace.

The figures in table 124 also reveal that other small, yet not quite significant; relationships existed between some constructs and age as a continuous variable. The majority of these slight relationships were negative in direction and are discussed first. An increase in respondent age was associated with a small decrease ($r= -.12$, $n=147$, $p<.005$) in the Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Productivity in the workplace. This was subsequently a small, negative correlation with 1.44 percent ($r^2=.0144$) of variance in respondent scores on Perceived Effect on Productivity being explained by their age. A small, negative correlation ($r= -.143$, $n=148$, $p<.005$) was found between age and Perceived Effect on Communication with high levels of positive effects of sexual attraction in the workplace on communication being associated with younger respondents. Therefore, age was revealed to explain 2.04 percent ($r^2=.0204$) of the variance in respondent scores pertaining to Perceived Effects on Communication.

The Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Job satisfaction was observed to be slightly negatively correlated with age as a continuous variable ($r= -.137$, $n=148$, $p<.005$). An increase in age was associated with a small decrease in the perception of positive effects of sexual attraction on job satisfaction with a coefficient of determination ($r^2=.0187$) indicating that only 1.88 percent of the variance between these two variables was shared. In addition age was slightly negatively correlated with the Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on the Workgroup ($r= -.152$, $n=145$, $p<.005$). With an r^2 of .0231, it was observed that 2.31 percent of the variance between these two variables was shared and thus 2.31 percent the difference in scores on the Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on the Workgroup could be explained by the respondents' age.

Small, positive relationships were also observed between age and some of the PPESAI categorical variables. The correlation analyses revealed a small, positive relationship ($r=.137$, $n=146$, $p<.005$) between age and respondents whom have been sexually attracted to a colleague before with an increase in age being associated with the likelihood of not being sexually attracted to a colleague as these categorical variables were coded such that a

value of one pertained to a respondent indicating “yes” to the statement and “no” being allocated a value of two. The coefficient of determination ($r^2=.0193$) revealed that 1.93 percent of the variance on respondents scores on this variable could be explained by their age. Moreover, a small positive correlation relationship ($r=.126$, $n=146$, $p<.005$) was observed between age and the categorical variable pertaining to whether or not a respondent has been involved in a workplace rendezvous before. Therefore a decrease in respondent age was associated with the experience of a workplace rendezvous amongst respondents. The $r^2=.0158$ value revealed however, that only 1.58 percent of the variance in respondents scores was explained by their age. Possible rationales therefore are the same as for the immediately preceding variable.

No relationships were observed between age and the Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction ($r=-.041$, $n=142$, $p<.005$); Diversity ($r=-.09$, $n=142$, $p<.005$); Perceived Effect on Job Performance ($r=-.033$, $n=145$, $p<.005$); Perceived Effect on Job Involvement ($r=-.092$, $n=146$, $p<.005$); Perceived Effect on Morale ($r=.019$, $n=146$, $p<.005$); Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment ($r=-.089$, $n=149$, $p<.005$); Perceived Role of Management ($r=.029$, $n=145$, $p<.005$); Perceived Effect on the Individual ($r=-.014$, $n=143$, $p<.005$); Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction ($r=-.061$, $n=141$, $p<.005$) and Awareness of Sexual Attraction Occurring Amongst Employees ($r=.041$, $n=147$, $p<.005$).

5.4.2 Marriage Length

Length of Marriage was an open ended item on the PPESAI and as such formed a continuous variable. Assumptions for parametric statistics were tested for and met. Subsequently Pearson’s correlation was used in the analysis. Only statistically significant statistics are presented in tabular format hereunder.

Table 124: Correlation Statistics – Marriage Length

		Length of Marriage	PPESAI Scale/Construct	r ²	%
Length of Marriage	Pearson Correlation	1.000	-0.257*	0.066295	6.63%
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.026		
	N	76	75		
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	Pearson Correlation	-0.257*	1	0.070899	7.09%
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.026			
	N	75	151		
Length of Marriage	Pearson Correlation	1.000	0.266*	0.070899	7.09%
	Sig. (2-tailed)		0.022		
	N	76	74		
Average Perceived Role of Management	Pearson Correlation	0.266*	1	0.070899	7.09%
	Sig. (2-tailed)	0.022			
	N	74	147		

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

A statistically significant, small negative relationship was observed between Length of Marriage and the Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment ($r=-.257$, $n=75$, $p<.005$) which indicates that as respondents length of marriage increases their scores on the perceived

positive effects of sexual attraction on sexual harassment decrease i.e. they have lower scores on this construct. The coefficient of determination ($r^2 = .06629$) reveals that 6.63 percent of the variance between these two variables is shared and can subsequently be explained by the length of the marriage of respondents in the present study.

A small statistically significant, positive correlation existed between Length of Marriage and the Perceived Role of Management ($r = .266$, $n = 74$, $p < .005$); with respondents feeling that management should have more of a role in regulating sexual attraction in the workplace the longer they had been married for. Slightly over seven percent (7.09%) of the variance in respondents' scores on this construct could be explained by the length of their marriage.

Whilst not statistically significant, other relationships were observed between the Length of Marriage of married respondents and some of the PPESAI constructs. A small, negative relationship was evidenced in the Pearson's Correlation between Length of Marriage and Perceived Effect on Morale ($r = .120$, $n = 72$, $p < .005$); Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction ($r = -.207$, $n = 70$, $p < .005$) and the Perceived Effect on Workgroup ($r = -.156$, $n = 74$, $p < .005$). Therefore the greater the duration of the marriage of married respondents the more they would be associated with lower scores on these three scales; with Length of Marriage explaining 1.44 percent ($r^2 = .0144$) of the variance in respondent scores on perceived effect on morale; 4.29 percent ($r^2 = .0429$) of the variance in respondent scores on perceived effect of motives for sexual attraction and 2.42 percent ($r^2 = .0242$).

Small, positive correlations evidenced between Length of Marriage and Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction ($r = .119$, $n = 72$, $p < .005$); Perceived Diversity ($r = .169$, $n = 74$, $p < .005$); Perceived Effect on the Individual ($r = .203$, $n = 73$, $p < .005$); Previously Sexually Attracted to a Colleague ($r = .149$, $n = 73$, $p < .005$); and Workplace Rendezvous ($r = .233$, $n = 73$, $p < .005$). These results indicate that with an increase in the length of marriage of married respondents they would have a decrease in scores on the constructs or variables just listed. This is an interesting result with 1.41 percent ($r^2 = .0242$) of the variance in married respondent scores on the Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction being accounted for by the length of their marriage; similarly 2.86 percent ($r^2 = .0286$) of the variance in scores on Perceived Diversity is accounted for by Marriage Length with married respondents registering higher scores for these two constructs. In addition, 4.13 percent ($r^2 = .0413$) of the variance in respondent scores pertaining to the perceived positive effects of sexual attraction on the individual involved could be explained by marriage length with lengthier marriages being associated with greater perceived positive effects of sexual attraction on the individual involved in the sexual attraction dynamic in the workplace. Moreover, 2.23 percent ($r^2 = .0223$) of the variance in married respondent scores pertaining to previously being sexually attracted to a colleague being explained by marriage length, with respondents

involved in longer marriages slightly less likely to report being previously attracted to a colleague. In addition to this, respondents in longer marriages were less likely to report an affirmative score (yes allocated a value of one; no allocated a value of two) with regards to having been involved in at least one workplace rendezvous, with marriage length explaining variance 4.96 percent ($r^2 = .0496$) in respondent scores on Workplace Rendezvous.

No relationship was found between the Length of Marriage of married respondents and Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction ($r = .068$, $n = 75$, $p < .005$); Perceived Effect on Productivity ($r = .074$, $n = 74$, $p < .005$); Perceived Effect on Communication ($r = -.019$, $n = 75$, $p < .005$); Perceived Effect on Job Performance ($r = .088$, $n = 73$, $p < .005$); Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction ($r = .004$, $n = 73$, $p < .005$); Perceived Effect on Stress ($r = .020$, $n = 72$, $p < .005$); Perceived Effect on Job Involvement ($r = .060$, $n = 74$, $p < .005$); and Awareness of Sexual Attraction Occurring Between Colleagues ($r = -.002$, $n = 74$, $p < .005$).

Correlational statistics have provided some more detail on the topic at hand, yet statistics could be probed further with regards to sexual attraction in the workplace. Inferential statistics are subsequently explored in the sections to follow

5.5 Inferential Statistics

5.5.1 Independent Samples T-Tests/ Mann Whitney U Test

When one wants to explore the differences between two groups an independent-samples t-test is utilised (Pallant, 2002). This involves comparing the differences in the mean score on a continuous variable for two separate focal groups (dichotomous variable). This parametric alternative was utilised as far as the assumptions therefore were met (as discussed in Chapter Four). In instances where these assumptions were violated, the non parametric alternative in the form of the Mann-Whitney U Test was utilised. The independent samples t-test or its nonparametric alternative was generated for:

- Gender;
- Marital Status;
- Awareness of Sexual Attraction;
- Previously Sexually Attracted to a Colleague; and
- Workplace Rendezvous.

The following sections contain the results for the independent samples t-tests, with significant results being discussed and presented. For complete independent sample t-test statistics, including the relevant descriptive statistics, refer to Appendix D.

5.5.1.1 Gender

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores for males and females on all the PPESAI constructs/scales. As is evidenced in table 131, significant differences were only found for two of the scales assessed. Scores with regards to Perceived Effect on Job Involvement were significantly different for males ($\bar{x} = 3.6339623$, $SD = 0.8064508$) and females ($\bar{x} = 4.2319149$, $SD = 0.7931444$; $t(145) = -4.363$ $p = .00$). The magnitude of the difference between the means was fairly large (eta squared = .1160). Subsequently males were less likely to perceive sexual attraction as having positive effects on job involvement which female respondents strongly perceived to be the case.

The results of the independent samples t-test revealed a significant difference in Perceived Role of Management scores between males ($\bar{x} = 2.9888889$, $SD = 0.6655021$) and females ($\bar{x} = 3.5891304$, $SD = 0.7307164$; $t(144) = -4.950$ $p = .00$). The magnitude of the difference between the means was large (eta squared = .1454). Therefore females appear to be more likely to perceive management to play a role in regulating sexual attraction than do their male counterparts.

Table 125: Independent Samples T-Test - Gender

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							Eta ²
				F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	
		Lower	Upper								
Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	0.000	0.983	-0.035	141.000	0.972	-0.004	0.125	-0.252	0.243	0.0000
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.035	104.792	0.972	-0.004	0.125	-0.252	0.243	
Average Perceived Diversity	Equal variances assumed	4.225	0.042	-1.423	141.000	0.157	-0.139	0.097	-0.331	0.054	0.0122
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.320	87.374	0.190	-0.139	0.105	-0.347	0.070	
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	0.018	0.893	-0.918	147.000	0.360	-0.088	0.096	-0.278	0.102	0.0057
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.917	106.788	0.361	-0.088	0.096	-0.279	0.103	
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	Equal variances assumed	0.166	0.684	-1.305	146.000	0.194	-0.194	0.149	-0.488	0.100	0.0115
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.308	105.543	0.194	-0.194	0.148	-0.489	0.100	
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	Equal variances assumed	0.005	0.941	0.917	147.000	0.361	0.102	0.111	-0.118	0.321	0.0057
	Equal variances not assumed			0.929	114.716	0.355	0.102	0.110	-0.115	0.319	
Average Perceived Effect on Performance	Equal variances assumed	0.212	0.646	0.209	144.000	0.834	0.029	0.140	-0.247	0.306	0.0003
	Equal variances not assumed			0.212	115.722	0.832	0.029	0.138	-0.244	0.303	
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	0.398	0.529	-1.015	145.000	0.312	-0.168	0.165	-0.495	0.159	0.0070
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.028	118.608	0.306	-0.168	0.163	-0.491	0.155	
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	Equal variances assumed	1.600	0.208	0.971	145.000	0.333	0.100	0.102	-0.103	0.302	0.0065
	Equal variances not assumed			0.930	96.698	0.355	0.100	0.107	-0.113	0.312	
Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	Equal variances assumed	0.154	0.695	-4.363	145.000	0.000	-0.598	0.137	-0.869	0.327	0.1160
	Equal variances not assumed			-4.342	106.478	0.000	-0.598	0.138	-0.871	0.325	
Average Perceived Effect on Morale	Equal variances assumed	0.168	0.683	0.833	144.000	0.406	0.096	0.115	-0.132	0.324	0.0048
	Equal variances not assumed			0.821	106.039	0.414	0.096	0.117	-0.136	0.328	
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	Equal variances assumed	0.948	0.332	-1.574	148.000	0.118	-0.219	0.139	-0.494	0.056	0.0165
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.631	125.352	0.105	-0.219	0.134	-0.485	0.047	
Average Perceived Role of Management	Equal variances assumed	1.071	0.302	-4.950	144.000	0.000	-0.600	0.121	-0.840	0.361	0.1454
	Equal variances not assumed			-5.072	119.652	0.000	-0.600	0.118	-0.835	0.366	
Average Perceived Effect on the Individual	Equal variances assumed	1.601	0.208	-0.901	142.000	0.369	-0.127	0.141	-0.407	0.152	0.0057
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.842	89.754	0.402	-0.127	0.151	-0.428	0.173	
Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	0.028	0.868	-1.303	140.000	0.195	-0.183	0.141	-0.461	0.095	0.0120
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.289	97.726	0.200	-0.183	0.142	-0.465	0.099	
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	Equal variances assumed	0.003	0.957	0.047	144.000	0.962	0.005	0.104	-0.200	0.210	0.0000
	Equal variances not assumed			0.048	113.885	0.962	0.005	0.103	-0.199	0.208	

5.5.1.2 Marital Status

Table 126: Independent Samples T-Test – Marital Status

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							Eta ²
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
									Lower	Upper	
Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	2.232	0.137	-0.398	140.000	0.691	-0.048	0.121	-0.287	0.191	0.0011
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.400	135.274	0.690	-0.048	0.120	-0.286	0.190	
Average Perceived Diversity	Equal variances assumed	0.839	0.361	-2.141	141.000	0.034	-0.201	0.094	-0.386	-0.015	0.0315
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.159	137.360	0.033	-0.201	0.093	-0.384	-0.017	
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	0.000	0.996	-2.186	147.000	0.030	-0.198	0.091	-0.378	-0.019	0.0315
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.186	146.960	0.030	-0.198	0.091	-0.378	-0.019	
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	Equal variances assumed	0.133	0.716	-1.343	146.000	0.181	-0.192	0.143	-0.474	0.091	0.0122
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.343	145.297	0.181	-0.192	0.143	-0.474	0.091	
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	Equal variances assumed	0.562	0.454	-1.617	147.000	0.108	-0.171	0.106	-0.381	0.038	0.0175
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.616	145.850	0.108	-0.171	0.106	-0.381	0.038	
Average Perceived Effect on Performance	Equal variances assumed	0.246	0.620	-1.526	144.000	0.129	-0.208	0.136	-0.478	0.061	0.0159
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.526	143.999	0.129	-0.208	0.136	-0.478	0.061	
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	0.233	0.630	-2.856	145.000	0.005	-0.449	0.157	-0.760	-0.138	0.0533
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.856	144.468	0.005	-0.449	0.157	-0.760	-0.138	
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	Equal variances assumed	1.560	0.214	-2.970	145.000	0.003	-0.286	0.096	-0.476	-0.096	0.0573
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.979	143.219	0.003	-0.286	0.096	-0.476	-0.096	
Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	Equal variances assumed	0.726	0.395	-1.152	145.000	0.251	-0.162	0.140	-0.439	0.116	0.0091
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.154	144.537	0.250	-0.162	0.140	-0.438	0.115	
Average Perceived Effect on Morale	Equal variances assumed	0.012	0.914	0.250	144.000	0.803	0.028	0.112	-0.193	0.249	0.0004
	Equal variances not assumed			0.251	143.816	0.802	0.028	0.112	-0.193	0.249	
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	Equal variances assumed	0.082	0.775	1.354	148.000	0.178	0.181	0.134	-0.083	0.446	0.0122
	Equal variances not assumed			1.354	147.310	0.178	0.181	0.134	-0.083	0.446	
Average Perceived Role of Management	Equal variances assumed	0.528	0.469	-0.969	144.000	0.334	-0.122	0.126	-0.372	0.127	0.0065
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.970	143.319	0.334	-0.122	0.126	-0.372	0.127	
Average Perceived Effect on the Individual	Equal variances assumed	0.017	0.896	-3.033	142.000	0.003	-0.406	0.134	-0.670	-0.141	0.0608
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.029	139.819	0.003	-0.406	0.134	-0.670	-0.141	
Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	0.252	0.616	-2.219	140.000	0.028	-0.286	0.129	-0.541	-0.031	0.0340
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.219	139.382	0.028	-0.286	0.129	-0.542	-0.031	
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	Equal variances assumed	3.223	0.075	-2.122	145.000	0.036	-0.208	0.098	-0.401	-0.014	0.0301
	Equal variances not assumed			-2.119	136.526	0.036	-0.208	0.098	-0.401	-0.014	

Marital status appears to have a significant impact on respondent scores for various PPESAI constructs/scales. An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores of married and unmarried individuals. Significant differences between the two groups were found on seven of the scales analyses. There was a significant difference for married ($\bar{x} = 3.9346847$, $SD = 0.6185966$) and unmarried ($\bar{x} = 4.1352657$, $SD = 0.4886584$; $t(141) =$

2.141 $p=.034$) respondents' with regards to Perceived Diversity. The magnitude of the difference in the means was small (eta squared = .0315). The scores between married ($\bar{x}= 4.0826667$, $SD= 0.553215$) and unmarried ($\bar{x} = 4.2810811$, $SD= 0.554848$; $t(141)=-2.141$ $p=.034$) respondents' with regards to Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction were significantly different, with the magnitude of the difference in the means being fairly small (eta squared = .0315).

The independent samples t-test revealed a significant difference in scores on Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction for married ($\bar{x}=3.1643836$, $SD= 0.9754443$) and unmarried ($\bar{x} = 3.6135135$, $SD= 0.9306537$; $t(145)=-2.856$ $p=.005$) respondents. The magnitude of the difference between the means cores was fairly moderate (eta squared = .0533). In addition, a significant difference was found in scores on the Perceived Effect on Stress for married ($\bar{x}=2.9861111$, $SD= 0.536369$) and unmarried ($\bar{x} = 3.272$, $SD= 0.6252697$; $t(145)=-2.970$ $p=.003$) respondents. The magnitude of the difference in the means being fairly moderate (eta squared = .0573).

The final three constructs of the PPESAI were found to have significantly different scores for married and unmarried respondents by means of the independent samples t-test. A significant difference was found in scores on the Perceived Effect on the Individual for married ($\bar{x}=3.6$, $SD= 0.7630349$) and unmarried ($\bar{x} = 4.0056338$, $SD= 0.8410686$; $t(142)=-3.033$ $p=.003$) respondents. The magnitude of the difference between the means was moderate (eta squared = .0573). The difference between the means for married ($\bar{x}=3.2300469$, $SD= 0.7940084$) and unmarried ($\bar{x} = 3.5164319$, $SD= 0.742772$; $t(140)=-2.219$ $p=.028$) respondents with regards to Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction were significantly different, with the magnitude of the difference in the means being fairly small (eta squared = .0340). The independent samples t-test conducted revealed that there was a significant difference in scores regarding the Perceived Effect on Workgroup construct for married ($\bar{x}=2.7540541$, $SD= 0.5187417$) and unmarried ($\bar{x} = 2.9616438$, $SD= 0.659678$; $t(145)=-2.122$ $p=.036$) respondents. However, the magnitude of the difference between the mean scores was found to be fairly small (eta squared = .0301).

5.5.1.3 Awareness of Sexual Attraction

Due to the assumptions for parametric tests being violated and particularly varied sample group sizes, a Mann-Whitney U test was conducted for the categorical variable of awareness of sexual attraction and the various PPESAI scales/constructs. Table 133 refers.

Table 127: Mann-Whitney U Test – Awareness of Sexual Attraction

Construct	Mann-Whitney U	Wilcoxon W	Z	Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)
Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	620.5	873.5	-3.88539	0.000102
Average Perceived Diversity	1237	8618	-0.19344	0.84661
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	1373	9248	-0.01094	0.99127
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	1033	1264	-1.56338	0.117963
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	923.5	1176.5	-2.46803	0.013586
Average Perceived Effect on Performance	925	1156	-2.12446	0.033632
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	1160	1413	-1.06616	0.286353
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	1146.5	1377.5	-0.93059	0.352067
Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	963.5	1194.5	-1.90806	0.056384
Average Perceived Effect on Morale	1181.5	1412.5	-0.681	0.495869
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	1055.5	9056.5	-1.78758	0.073844
Average Perceived Role of Management	1202	1433	-0.56395	0.572789
Average Perceived Effect on the Individual	1217	1470	-0.5831	0.559825
Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction	994.5	1225.5	-1.5013	0.133278
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	1133.5	1364.5	-0.89999	0.368124

a Grouping Variable: I have been aware of sexual attraction occurring between colleagues

A Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to ascertain the extent of the difference in scores between individuals whom had been aware of sexual attraction occurring amongst their colleagues ($\bar{x}=4.2278719$, $SD= 0.6169919$) and those that had not been aware thereof ($\bar{x}=3.459596$, $SD= 0.8703729$; $z= -3.88539$ $p= 0.000102$), with significant differences in the means being found for Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction. In addition, a significant difference in mean scores for Perceived Effect on Communication was found for individuals whom had been aware of sexual attraction occurring amongst their colleagues ($\bar{x}=2.8208$, $SD= 0.6588475$) and those that had not been aware thereof ($\bar{x}=2.4363636$, $SD= 0.5223987$; $z= -2.46803$, $p= 0.013586$). Moreover, mean scores differed significantly with regards to the Perceived Effect on Job Performance for individuals whom had been aware of sexual attraction occurring amongst their colleagues ($\bar{x}=3.2403226$, $SD= 0.8180802$) and those that had not been aware thereof ($\bar{x}=2.7809524$, $SD= 0.7639496$; $z= -2.12446$, $p= 0.033632$).

Upon further evaluation, a difference between the mean scores of individuals whom had been aware of sexual attraction occurring amongst their colleagues ($\bar{x}=4.0790323$, $SD= 0.8591236$) and those that had not been aware thereof ($\bar{x}=3.7333333$, $SD= 0.7247988$; $z= -1.90806$, $p= 0.056384$) was observed with regards to Perceived Effect on Job Involvement. Whilst not strictly statistically significant the significance value is so close to being so, that it may warrant further attention.

5.5.1.4 Previously Sexually Attracted to a Colleague

The data met the assumptions of normality and equality of variances as well as other assumptions for parametric statistics; subsequently use was made of the Independent Samples T-Test. Groups were fairly even in size with those whom had been sexually

attracted to a colleague before being roughly the same size as those whom stated that they have not. Table 134 highlights the findings with regards to this variable.

Table 128: Independent Samples T-Test – Marital Status

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							Eta ²
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
									Lower	Upper	
Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	4.309	0.040	4.338	137.000	0.000	0.500	0.115	0.272	0.728	0.1208
	Equal variances not assumed			4.222	113.110	0.000	0.500	0.118	0.265	0.735	
Average Perceived Diversity	Equal variances assumed	2.092	0.150	2.148	139.000	0.033	0.204	0.095	0.016	0.392	0.0321
	Equal variances not assumed			2.153	133.899	0.033	0.204	0.095	0.017	0.392	
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	1.296	0.257	1.566	144.000	0.119	0.146	0.093	-0.038	0.331	0.0168
	Equal variances not assumed			1.559	136.100	0.121	0.146	0.094	-0.039	0.332	
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	Equal variances assumed	0.016	0.900	2.930	143.000	0.004	0.417	0.142	0.136	0.698	0.0566
	Equal variances not assumed			2.950	138.439	0.004	0.417	0.141	0.137	0.696	
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	Equal variances assumed	0.516	0.474	3.164	144.000	0.002	0.335	0.106	0.126	0.544	0.0650
	Equal variances not assumed			3.207	142.613	0.002	0.335	0.104	0.129	0.542	
Average Perceived Effect on Performance	Equal variances assumed	2.225	0.138	3.787	142.000	0.000	0.502	0.132	0.240	0.763	0.0917
	Equal variances not assumed			3.859	141.999	0.000	0.502	0.130	0.245	0.758	
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	0.735	0.393	3.345	142.000	0.001	0.531	0.159	0.217	0.845	0.0731
	Equal variances not assumed			3.342	132.883	0.001	0.531	0.159	0.217	0.846	
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	Equal variances assumed	0.455	0.501	1.713	144.000	0.089	0.169	0.099	-0.026	0.364	0.0200
	Equal variances not assumed			1.708	137.231	0.090	0.169	0.099	-0.027	0.365	
Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	Equal variances assumed	1.186	0.278	2.732	142.000	0.007	0.380	0.139	0.105	0.655	0.0499
	Equal variances not assumed			2.698	127.702	0.008	0.380	0.141	0.101	0.659	
Average Perceived Effect on Morale	Equal variances assumed	2.394	0.124	-0.681	142.000	0.497	-0.076	0.112	-0.297	0.145	0.0033
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.672	126.395	0.503	-0.076	0.114	-0.301	0.148	
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	Equal variances assumed	0.001	0.978	-3.522	145.000	0.001	-0.469	0.133	-0.732	-0.206	0.0788
	Equal variances not assumed			-3.532	138.770	0.001	-0.469	0.133	-0.731	-0.206	
Average Perceived Role of Management	Equal variances assumed	0.629	0.429	-1.130	142.000	0.260	-0.142	0.126	-0.390	0.106	0.0089
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.120	126.918	0.265	-0.142	0.127	-0.392	0.109	
Average Perceived Effect on the Individual	Equal variances assumed	0.202	0.654	3.692	139.000	0.000	0.496	0.134	0.230	0.762	0.0893
	Equal variances not assumed			3.752	138.420	0.000	0.496	0.132	0.235	0.758	
Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	0.051	0.822	1.048	137.000	0.296	0.143	0.137	-0.127	0.414	0.0080
	Equal variances not assumed			1.048	134.641	0.296	0.143	0.137	-0.127	0.414	
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	Equal variances assumed	0.660	0.418	1.664	141.000	0.098	0.168	0.101	-0.032	0.368	0.0193
	Equal variances not assumed			1.676	139.440	0.096	0.168	0.100	-0.030	0.367	

An independent samples t-test was conducted to compare the scores for respondents who had been previously attracted to a colleague and those who had not on all the PPESAI constructs or scales. As is evidenced in table 134, various significant differences were only found for the scales assessed. Scores with regards to Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction were significantly different for Previously Sexually Attracted individuals ($\bar{x} = 4.3261183$, $SD = 0.5935372$) and those who had not been previously sexually

attracted to a colleague ($\bar{x} = 3.8261649$, $SD = 0.7652176$; $t(131) = 4.22$, $p = .00$). The magnitude of the difference between the means was fairly large (eta squared = .1208). The results of the independent samples t-test revealed a significant difference in Perceived Diversity scores for Previously Sexually Attracted respondents ($\bar{x} = 4.1196581$, $SD = 0.5665632$) and those whom had not been previously sexually attracted to a colleague ($\bar{x} = 3.9153439$, $SD = 0.5550945$; $t(139) = 2.148$, $p = .033$). The magnitude of the difference between the means was moderately small (eta squared = .0321).

Moreover, respondents whom had been previously sexually attracted to a colleague ($\bar{x} = 3.6419753$, $SD = 0.8716169$) had significantly different scores on the Perceived Effect on Productivity scale from respondents whom indicated that they had not been sexually attracted to a colleague before ($\bar{x} = 3.225$, $SD = 0.8238508$; $t(143) = 2.93$, $p = .004$). The magnitude of the difference in means was fairly moderate (eta squared = .0566). Mean scores on the Perceived Effect on Communication scale were also significantly different for respondents whom experienced prior sexual attraction to a colleague ($\bar{x} = 2.9135802$, $SD = 0.6692819$) and those whom had not ($\bar{x} = 2.5784615$, $SD = 0.591738$; $t(144) = 2.93$, $p = .002$). The magnitude of the difference in means was moderate (eta squared = .065). The Perceived Effect on Job Performance scale also revealed significantly different mean scores for respondents whom experienced prior sexual attraction to a colleague ($\bar{x} = 3.4$, $SD = 0.8551503$) and those whom had not ($\bar{x} = 2.8984615$, $SD = 0.7045593$; $t(142) = 3.787$, $p = .000$). The magnitude of the difference in means was moderate to large (eta squared = .0917).

In addition, the independent samples t-test revealed significant differences in mean scores for respondents whom experienced prior sexual attraction to a colleague ($\bar{x} = 3.6296296$, $SD = 0.9418658$) and those whom had not ($\bar{x} = 3.0984127$, $SD = 0.9496166$; $t(142) = 3.345$, $p = .001$) with regards to the scale pertaining to the Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction. The magnitude of the difference in means was moderate (eta squared = .0731). Furthermore, respondents whom experienced prior sexual attraction to a colleague ($\bar{x} = 4.1925$, $SD = 0.7868822$) obtained significantly different scores from those whom had not ($\bar{x} = 3.8125$, $SD = 0.8800253$; $t(142) = 2.732$, $p = .007$) with regards to the scale pertaining to the Perceived Effect on Job Involvement. The magnitude of the difference between the two means was small to moderate (eta squared = .0499). Respondent means scores also differed significantly with regards to the Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment for respondents whom experienced prior sexual attraction to a colleague ($\bar{x} = 3.1926829$, $SD = 0.8094779$) and those whom had not ($\bar{x} = 3.6615385$, $SD = 0.7912988$; $t(145) = -3.522$, $p = .001$). The magnitude of the difference in means was moderate (eta squared = .0788). The final

significant difference was observed for mean scores on Perceived Effect on the Individual for respondents whom indicated prior sexual attraction to a colleague ($\bar{x} = 4.0230769$, $SD = 0.8436044$) and those whom had not ($\bar{x} = 3.5269841$, $SD = 0.725838$; $t(139) = 3.692$, $p = .000$). The magnitude of the difference in means was moderate to large (eta squared = .0893).

5.5.1.5 Workplace Rendezvous

The data was tested for the assumptions required for parametric statistics all of which were met. Data presented excludes cases of teachers in the sample group due to the fact that most of this group responded in the negative to this item and as such could not be an accurate reflection of organisational or workplace sexual attraction or the lack thereof. In addition the exclusion of teachers from this analysis made the two possible groups for this item closer to the ratio of 1.5 (large group: small group). The independent samples t-test was used and is presented in the table hereunder with only significant results being discussed.

Table 129: Independent Samples T-Test – Workplace Rendezvous

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							Eta ²
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
									Lower	Upper	
Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	0.191	0.663	2.835	116.000	0.005	0.353	0.125	0.106	0.600	0.0648
	Equal variances not assumed			2.824	86.576	0.006	0.353	0.125	0.105	0.602	
Average Perceived Diversity	Equal variances assumed	0.620	0.433	0.876	117.000	0.383	0.098	0.112	-0.124	0.321	0.0065
	Equal variances not assumed			0.875	84.001	0.384	0.098	0.113	-0.125	0.322	
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	0.110	0.740	1.966	121.000	0.052	0.208	0.106	-0.001	0.417	0.0309
	Equal variances not assumed			1.991	86.077	0.050	0.208	0.104	0.000	0.415	
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	Equal variances assumed	0.003	0.956	0.929	120.000	0.355	0.155	0.167	-0.175	0.485	0.0071
	Equal variances not assumed			0.939	89.157	0.350	0.155	0.165	-0.173	0.482	
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	Equal variances assumed	3.029	0.084	1.368	121.000	0.174	0.168	0.123	-0.075	0.411	0.0152
	Equal variances not assumed			1.262	70.429	0.211	0.168	0.133	-0.097	0.433	
Average Perceived Effect on Performance	Equal variances assumed	4.186	0.043	1.958	120.000	0.053	0.299	0.153	-0.003	0.602	0.0310
	Equal variances not assumed			1.806	67.077	0.075	0.299	0.166	-0.031	0.630	
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	Equal variances assumed	0.033	0.857	1.660	119.000	0.100	0.312	0.188	-0.060	0.683	0.0226
	Equal variances not assumed			1.623	81.177	0.109	0.312	0.192	-0.070	0.694	
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	Equal variances assumed	0.221	0.639	0.782	121.000	0.436	0.090	0.115	-0.137	0.316	0.0050
	Equal variances not assumed			0.775	86.674	0.440	0.090	0.116	-0.140	0.319	
Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	Equal variances assumed	0.041	0.840	1.918	120.000	0.057	0.304	0.159	-0.010	0.618	0.0298
	Equal variances not assumed			1.931	84.994	0.057	0.304	0.157	-0.009	0.617	
Average Perceived Effect on Morale	Equal variances assumed	0.251	0.618	0.777	120.000	0.439	0.097	0.125	-0.151	0.345	0.0050
	Equal variances not assumed			0.751	78.172	0.455	0.097	0.130	-0.161	0.356	

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							Eta ²
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
									Lower	Upper	
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	Equal variances assumed	1.361	0.246	-1.733	122.000	0.086	-0.268	0.155	-0.574	0.038	0.0240
	Equal variances not assumed			-1.671	79.696	0.099	-0.268	0.161	-0.588	0.051	
Average Perceived Role of Management	Equal variances assumed	4.062	0.046	-0.026	119.000	0.979	-0.004	0.142	-0.285	0.277	0.0000
	Equal variances not assumed			-0.029	111.388	0.977	-0.004	0.129	-0.259	0.252	
Average Perceived Effect on the Individual	Equal variances assumed	0.757	0.386	2.503	119.000	0.014	0.400	0.160	0.084	0.717	0.0500
	Equal variances not assumed			2.320	69.625	0.023	0.400	0.173	0.056	0.745	
Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction	Equal variances assumed	0.657	0.419	2.050	115.000	0.043	0.239	0.117	0.008	0.471	0.0353
	Equal variances not assumed			1.987	77.490	0.050	0.239	0.120	0.000	0.479	
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	Equal variances assumed	1.353	0.247	1.370	121.000	0.173	0.161	0.118	-0.072	0.394	0.0153
	Equal variances not assumed			1.336	77.679	0.185	0.161	0.121	-0.079	0.401	

As is evidenced in table 135, various significant differences were only found for the scales assessed. Scores with regards to Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction were significantly different for individuals previously involved in a workplace rendezvous ($\bar{x} = 4.369509$, $SD = 0.6572174$) and those whom had not had a workplace rendezvous ($\bar{x} = 4.0162963$, $SD = 0.6478046$; $t(116) = 2.85$, $p = .005$). The magnitude of the difference between the means was moderate (eta squared = .0648). The results of the independent samples t-test revealed a significant difference in Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction scores for prior workplace rendezvous affirmative respondents ($\bar{x} = 4.3285714$, $SD = 0.5406797$) and those whom had not engaged in a workplace rendezvous ($\bar{x} = 4.1209877$, $SD = 0.5627424$; $t(121) = 1.966$, $p = .052$). The magnitude of the difference between the means was small (eta squared = .0309).

Moreover, respondents whom had been previously been involved in a workplace rendezvous ($\bar{x} = 3.3619048$, $SD = 0.9383307$) had significantly different scores on the Perceived Effect on Job Performance Scale from respondents whom indicated that they had not had a workplace rendezvous ($\bar{x} = 3.0625$, $SD = 0.7218778$; $t(67) = 1.806$, $p = .075$). The magnitude of the difference in means was small (eta squared = .0310). Mean scores on the Perceived Effect on Job Involvement scale were also significantly different for respondents whom previously engaged in a workplace rendezvous ($\bar{x} = 4.1666667$, $SD = 0.8203707$) and those whom had not ($\bar{x} = 3.8625$, $SD = 0.8380772$; $t(120) = 1.918$, $p = .005$). The magnitude of the difference in means was small (eta squared = .0298). Furthermore, respondents whom previously were involved in a workplace rendezvous ($\bar{x} = 4.0465116$, $SD = 0.9835187$) obtained significantly different scores from those whom had not ($\bar{x} = 3.6461538$, $SD =$

0.7538115; $t(119) = 2.503$, $p = .014$) with regards to the scale pertaining to the Perceived Effect on The Individual. The magnitude of the difference between the two means was small to moderate ($\eta^2 = .05$). The Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction scale also revealed significantly different mean scores for respondents whom experienced prior sexual attraction to a colleague ($\bar{x} = 3.1380952$, $SD = 0.6484324$) and those whom had not ($\bar{x} = 2.8986667$, $SD = 0.5811204$; $t(121) = 2.050$, $p = .043$). The magnitude of the difference in means was small ($\eta^2 = .0353$).

5.5.2 One Way ANOVA/Kruskal Wallis One Way ANOVA

One of the most valuable statistical tools for exploratory and confirmatory data analysis is the ANOVA according to Gelman (2005). The one-way ANOVA is utilised in instances when the researcher is exploring the differences between groups of three or more based on only one independent variable (Pallant, 2002). The one-way ANOVA or its non-parametric alternative was utilised for the analyses of the following variables:

- Age (Banded);
- Relationship Status; and
- Marriage Length.

The sections to follow contain the relevant statistical analyses that were conducted for the one-way ANOVA, with statistically significant results being discussed and presented herein. For more complete inferential statistics in this regards please refer to Appendix E. This will include the post hoc tests conducted which are too lengthy to place in text, yet the results of which will be presented and discussed in text hereunder.

5.5.2.1 Age (Banded)

This continuous categorical variable was collapsed into five groups or bands using the SPSS programme. Once again teachers were excluded from this data analysis. Respondents were divided into groups according to their age in years (Group 1: 24 or less; Group 2: 25-27; Group 3: 28- 35; Group 4: 36-45; Group 5: 46 and older). The assumptions for parametric tests were met by and large and thus a one way ANOVA was conducted. The parametric statistics are presented first, including Levenes test for homogeneity of variance and the one way ANOVA. Significant results and the relevant post hoc tests are discussed thereafter.

Table 130: Robust Test of Equality of Means- Age Banded (5)

Construct	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	0.827637	4	116	0.5101784
Average Perceived Diversity	0.555049	4	116	0.6957235
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	1.7984208	4	121	0.133519
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	1.2518351	4	120	0.2928563
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	0.2356057	4	121	0.9177979
Average Perceived Effect on Performance	1.3228368	4	119	0.2654359
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	1.434318	4	119	0.2268586
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	0.8244308	4	119	0.5121048
Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	0.9180971	4	120	0.4558431
Average Perceived Effect on Morale	2.6278641	4	120	0.0378274
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	0.9828018	4	122	0.4196114
Average Perceived Role of Management	0.9883594	4	118	0.4167506
Average Perceived Effect on the Individual	0.7468114	4	119	0.5620168
Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction	0.9503257	4	115	0.4377236
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	1.2974263	4	121	0.2748912

Table 131: ANOVA – Age Banded (5)

Construct		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Eta ²
Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	Between Groups	1.8987617	4	0.4746904	1.0610812	0.3790758	0.0352975
	Within Groups	51.894321	116	0.4473648			
	Total	53.793082	120				
Average Perceived Diversity	Between Groups	3.4989524	4	0.8747381	2.7743611	0.0302973	0.0873145
	Within Groups	36.57405	116	0.3152935			
	Total	40.073003	120				
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	Between Groups	4.7375326	4	1.1843832	4.203324	0.0031967	0.1220005
	Within Groups	34.094531	121	0.281773			
	Total	38.832063	125				
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	Between Groups	11.360438	4	2.8401096	4.0520105	0.0040674	0.1189947
	Within Groups	84.109642	120	0.7009137			
	Total	95.47008	124				
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	Between Groups	3.9930222	4	0.9982556	2.4786176	0.0475923	0.0757324
	Within Groups	48.732375	121	0.4027469			
	Total	52.725397	125				
Average Perceived Effect on Performance	Between Groups	6.1159981	4	1.5289995	2.4276058	0.0515839	0.075444
	Within Groups	74.950776	119	0.6298385			
	Total	81.066774	123				
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	Between Groups	10.026795	4	2.5066987	2.6773019	0.0350795	0.0825632
	Within Groups	111.41708	119	0.936278			
	Total	121.44387	123				
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	Between Groups	5.4725691	4	1.3681423	4.0624249	0.0040135	0.1201459
	Within Groups	40.076786	119	0.3367797			
	Total	45.549355	123				
Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	Between Groups	10.700462	4	2.6751154	4.1200066	0.0036553	0.1207505
	Within Groups	77.915858	120	0.6492988			
	Total	88.61632	124				
Average Perceived Effect on Morale	Between Groups	2.4156101	4	0.6039025	1.3758309	0.2463698	0.04385
	Within Groups	52.67239	120	0.4389366			
	Total	55.088	124				
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	Between Groups	5.5543513	4	1.3885878	2.1514355	0.0785052	0.065891
	Within Groups	78.741712	122	0.6454239			
	Total	84.296063	126				
Average Perceived Role of Management	Between Groups	7.0728696	4	1.7682174	3.2539847	0.0142998	0.0993462
	Within Groups	64.121277	118	0.5434007			
	Total	71.194146	122				
Average Perceived Effect on the Individual	Between Groups	7.6298752	4	1.9074688	2.770615	0.0303498	0.0851957
	Within Groups	81.927222	119	0.688464			
	Total	89.557097	123				
Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction	Between Groups	4.2726852	4	1.0681713	1.6194588	0.1740743	0.0533252
	Within Groups	75.852315	115	0.6595853			
	Total	80.125	119				
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	Between Groups	2.4381532	4	0.6095383	1.6437256	0.1676511	0.0515376
	Within Groups	44.870101	121	0.3708273			
	Total	47.308254	125				

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in Perceived Diversity scores for the five age groups [$F(4, 116) = 2.7743611, p = .0302$]. The effect size was above moderate and revealed that the difference in mean scores between groups was subsequently moderate (eta squared = .0873). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicate that the mean score for Group 2 ($\bar{x} = 4.373, SD = 0.515$) was significantly different from Group 4 ($\bar{x} = 3.792, SD = 0.477$). Group 1 ($\bar{x} = 4.038, SD = 0.683$) Group 3 ($\bar{x} = 3.920, SD = 0.502$) and Group 5 ($\bar{x} = 4.095, SD = 0.461$) did not differ significantly from each other nor Groups 2 and 4.

The one-way ANOVA revealed a statistical difference in mean scores for the Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction at the $p < .05$ level for the five age groups [$F(4, 121) = 4.203324, p = 0.0031967$]. The actual difference between the means cores was very large (eta squared = 0.1220005). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test revealed that mean score for Group 2 ($\bar{x} = 4.435, SD = 0.540$) was significantly different from Group 3 ($\bar{x} = 3.992, SD = 0.389$). Group 1 ($\bar{x} = 4.381, SD = 0.558$), Group 4 ($\bar{x} = 3.990, SD = 0.676$) and Group 5 ($\bar{x} = 4.055, SD = 0.454$) did not differ significantly from each other nor Groups 2 and 3. Another statistical difference in age group scores at the $p < .05$ level was found with regards to the Perceived Effect on Productivity [$F(4, 120) = 4.0520105, p = 0.0040674$] with the actual difference in mean scores being fairly large (eta squared = 0.1189947). The Tukey HSD test was done as a post hoc comparison and revealed that the mean scores for Group 2 ($\bar{x} = 4.082, SD = 0.849$) differed significantly from Group 3 ($\bar{x} = 3.078, SD = 0.654$) and Group 4 ($\bar{x} = 3.240, SD = 0.713$). Group 3 and Group 4 did not however, differ significantly from each other and neither did Group 1 ($\bar{x} = 3.548, SD = 0.911$) and Group 5 ($\bar{x} = 3.383, SD = 0.942$).

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p < .05$ level in Perceived Effect on Communication scores for the five age groups [$F(4, 121) = 2.4786176, p = 0.0475923$]. The effect size was above moderate and revealed that the difference in mean scores between groups was subsequently moderate (eta squared = 0.0757324). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicate that the mean score for Group 2 ($\bar{x} = 3.153, SD = 0.698$) was significantly different from Group 4 ($\bar{x} = 2.543, SD = 0.573$). Group 1 ($\bar{x} = 2.762, SD = 0.677$) Group 3 ($\bar{x} = 2.825, SD = 0.519$) and Group 5 ($\bar{x} = 2.645, SD = 0.667$) did not differ significantly from each other nor Groups 2 and 4. Furthermore, statistical differences in age group scores at the $p < .05$ level was found with regards to the Perceived Effect on Job Performance [$F(4, 119) = 2.4276058, p = 0.0515839$] with the actual difference in mean scores being fairly moderate (eta squared = 0.075444). The Tukey HSD test was done as a post hoc comparison and revealed that the mean scores for Group 2 ($\bar{x} = 3.694, SD = 0.941$) differed significantly from Group 3 ($\bar{x} = 2.933, SD = 0.645$). Group 1 ($\bar{x} = 3.137, SD = 0.803$),

Group 4 ($\bar{x}=3.130$, $SD= 0.681$) and Group 5 ($\bar{x} =3.136$, $SD= 0.889$) did not however, differ significantly from each other nor Groups 2 and 4.

The one-way ANOVA revealed a statistical difference in mean scores for the Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction at the $p<.05$ level for the five age groups [$F(4, 119)= 2.6773019$, $p=.0350795$]. The actual difference between the means cores was moderate (eta squared = 0.0825632). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test revealed that mean score for Group 2 ($\bar{x} =4.024$, $SD=0.866$) was significantly different from Group 3 ($\bar{x} =3.070$, $SD=1.026$). Group 1 ($\bar{x} =3.524$, $SD=1.055$), Group 4 ($\bar{x} =3.263$, $SD=0.955$) and Group 5 ($\bar{x} =3.348$, $SD=0.805$) did not differ significantly from each other nor Groups 2 and 3.

The mean scores differed significantly with regards to the Perceived Effect on Stress at the $p<.05$ level for the five age groups [$F(4, 119)= 4.0624249$, $p=.0040135$]. The actual difference between the means cores was very large (eta squared = 0.1201459). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test revealed that mean score for Group 4 ($\bar{x} =2.819$, $SD=0.684$) was significantly different from Group 1 ($\bar{x} =3.290$, $SD=0.480$) and Group 2 ($\bar{x} =3.513$, $SD=0.673$). Group 3 ($\bar{x} =3.108$, $SD=0.550$) and Group 5 ($\bar{x} =3.048$, $SD=0.613$) did not differ significantly from each other nor Groups 1 and 2. Similarly Groups 1 and 2 only differed significantly with Group 4 and not with each other.

There was a statistically significant difference at the $p<.05$ level in Perceived Effect on Job Involvement scores for the five age groups [$F(4, 120)= 4.1200066$, $p=.0036553$]. The effect size was large and revealed that the difference in mean scores between groups was subsequently large (eta squared = 0.1207505). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicate that the mean score for Group 2 ($\bar{x} =4.624$, $SD=0.751$) was significantly different from Group 3 ($\bar{x} =3.652$, $SD=0.647$), Group 4 ($\bar{x} =3.800$, $SD=0.787$) and Group 5 ($\bar{x} =3.845$, $SD=0.722$). Groups 3, 4 and 5 only differed significantly with Group 2 and not with each other, nor Group 1. Group 1 ($\bar{x} =4.033$, $SD=, 0.941$) did not differ significantly from any of the other groups. Another statistical difference in age group scores at the $p<.05$ level was found with regards to the Perceived Role of Management [$F(4, 118)= 3.2539847$, $p=.0142998$] with the actual difference in mean scores being large (eta squared = 0.0993462). The Tukey HSD test was done as a post hoc comparison and revealed that the mean scores for Group 1 ($\bar{x}=3.535$, $SD=0.809$) differed significantly from Group 3 ($\bar{x} =2.928$, $SD=0.741$). Group 2 ($\bar{x}=3.353$, $SD=0.862$) Group 4 ($\bar{x} =3.140$, $SD=0.643$) and Group 5 ($\bar{x} =3.505$, $SD=0.531$) did not differ significantly from each other nor Groups 1 and 3.

The final scale wherein statistical differences at the $p < .05$ level were noted in the one-way ANOVA pertained to the Perceived Effect on the Individual [$F(4, 119) = 2.770615$, $p = .0303498$]. The effect size was moderate and revealed that the difference in mean scores between groups was subsequently fairly moderate (eta squared = 0.0851957). Post-hoc comparisons using the Tukey HSD test indicate that the mean score for Group 2 ($\bar{x} = 4.320$, $SD = 0.720$) was significantly different from Group 3 ($\bar{x} = 3.433$, $SD = 0.692$). Group 1 ($\bar{x} = 3.771$, $SD = 0.866$), Group 4 ($\bar{x} = 3.920$, $SD = 1.128$) and Group 5 ($\bar{x} = 3.765$, $SD = 0.629$) did not however, differ significantly from each other nor Groups 2 and 3.

5.5.2.2 Relationship Status

Respondents were given various categorical responses in which to indicate their current relationship status at the time of completing the PPESAI. These included Single; Dating; In a relationship; Engaged; Married; Divorced and Other. For statistical analysis purposes, the categories of Divorced and Other were excluded due to the very small sample size. Tests of normality revealed that this assumption had been violated and group sizes were not even. Subsequently, the nonparametric alternative of Kruskal Wallis was used to perform the analysis of data.

Table 132: Test of Homogeneity of Variances – Relationship Status

	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	1.4818383	4	113	0.2123819
Average Perceived Diversity	1.1937647	4	114	0.3174218
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	1.5663128	4	118	0.1878056
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	1.9962892	4	118	0.0995244
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	0.5424756	4	118	0.704835
Average Perceived Effect on Performance	0.5984282	4	116	0.6644979
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	1.0003128	4	116	0.4104275
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	0.625817	4	116	0.6450188
Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	1.2372666	4	117	0.2989448
Average Perceived Effect on Morale	0.8664216	4	116	0.4864189
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	0.3354906	4	119	0.8535912
Average Perceived Role of Management	1.4054499	4	116	0.2365173
Average Perceived Effect on the Individual	1.0129103	4	116	0.4037672
Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction	0.8630544	4	111	0.4885962
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	2.622072	4	119	0.0382126

Table 133: Kruskal-Wallis – Relationship Status

Test Statistics (a,b)

Construct	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	3.808080355	4	0.432602
Average Perceived Diversity	6.735495553	4	0.1505439
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	11.03744836	4	0.0261464
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	5.626029561	4	0.2288715
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	4.269736407	4	0.3707301
Average Perceived Effect on Performance	4.971236356	4	0.2902616
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	10.70005888	4	0.03015
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	12.76679047	4	0.0124733
Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	3.45043256	4	0.4854551
Average Perceived Effect on Morale	1.785242388	4	0.7751812
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	5.050752407	4	0.2821295
Average Perceived Role of Management	6.478012271	4	0.1661811
Average Perceived Effect on the Individual	12.87840197	4	0.0118855
Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction	5.174626854	4	0.2698444
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	5.614865589	4	0.2298157

a

b

Kruskal Wallis
Test
Grouping Variable: Relationship
Status

The results tabulated above indicate that statistically significant differences between mean scores exists for various relationship statuses at the $p < .05$ level for four of the PPESAI scales. These include Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction; Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction; Perceived Effect on Stress and Perceived Effect on the Individual.

A significant difference exists between relationship groups with regards to Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction [Chi-Square(4, 118)= 11.03744836, $p=0.0261464$]. An evaluation of the mean ranks for relationship status groups reveals that respondents whom indicated they were dating had the highest scores and therefore perceived more potential elements of attraction as being important to them and married respondents had the lowest score. In addition, significant differences exist at the $p < .05$ level with regards to scores on the Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction [Chi-Square(4, 116)= 10.70005888, $p=0.03015$]. When evaluating the mean rank scores for this construct it was apparent that engaged respondents had the highest score, followed by respondents whom were in a relationship. The lowest mean score belonged to respondents in the married group. A further significant difference at the $p < .05$ level exists between relationship groups with regards to Perceived Effects on Stress [Chi-Square(4, 116)= 12.76679047, $p=0.0124733$]. The various relationship categories and their mean ranks were compared and respondents whom indicated that they were dating had the highest mean score, closely followed by those in a relationship. The lowest mean score respondent group comprised engaged individuals.

The last significant difference at the $p < .05$ level pertains to relationship status groups and Perceived Effect on the Individual [Chi-Square (4, 116) =12.87840197, $p=0.0118855$]. Interestingly a comparison of the mean ranks of the relationship status groups revealed that

respondents whom were in a relationship had the highest mean scores, followed by individuals whom were dating casually as well as single respondents. These respondents therefore perceive sexual attraction to have more positive benefits or effects on the individual involved in the sexual attraction relationship dynamic in the workplace than do married respondents whom had the lowest mean rank.

5.5.2.3 Marriage Length

The length of marriage in years was re-coded to form three bands or groups, which included seven years or less; between eight to 17 years and over 18 years. Assumptions of normality were violated in some instances and subsequently use was made of the non-parametric alternative, presented hereunder.

Table 134: Test of Homogeneity of Variances – Marriage Length

Construct	Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	0.6988703	2	55	0.5015071
Average Perceived Diversity	5.373818	2	56	0.0073293
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	0.2547472	2	57	0.7759902
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	0.2292352	2	56	0.7958839
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	0.2299519	2	57	0.7953053
Average Perceived Effect on Job Performance	0.4920461	2	56	0.6139924
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	1.6636986	2	55	0.198828
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	1.0245171	2	54	0.3658406
Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	1.1291013	2	56	0.3305723
Average Perceived Effect on Morale	0.970234	2	55	0.3853857
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	2.562552	2	57	0.0859647
Average Perceived Role of Management	1.538981	2	56	0.2235376
Average Perceived Effect on the Individual	0.8490315	2	57	0.4331676
Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction	2.136302	2	53	0.1281495
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	1.9292652	2	58	0.1544626

Table 135: Kruskal-Wallis Marriage Length

Test Statistics (a,b)

Construct	Chi-Square	df	Asymp. Sig.
Average Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction	4.7400874	2	0.0934766
Average Perceived Diversity	5.5799476	2	0.0614228
Average Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction	2.2073675	2	0.3316471
Average Perceived Effect on Productivity	1.6742848	2	0.4329459
Average Perceived Effect on Communication	0.9682099	2	0.6162485
Average Perceived Effect on Performance	2.040814	2	0.3604482
Average Perceived Effect on Job Satisfaction	0.6565402	2	0.7201685
Average Perceived Effect on Stress	2.5147732	2	0.2843963
Average Perceived Effect on Job Involvement	0.7693071	2	0.6806864
Average Perceived Effect on Morale	1.9200538	2	0.3828826
Average Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment	7.593593	2	0.0224426
Average Perceived Role of Management	3.9629608	2	0.137865
Average Perceived Effect on the Individual	4.2118016	2	0.121736
Average Perceived Motives for Sexual Attraction	0.4623343	2	0.7936068
Average Perceived Effect on Work Group	2.4432691	2	0.294748

a

Kruskal Wallis
Test

b

Grouping Variable: Length of
Marriage (Banded)

Only one statistically significant difference was observed between lengths of marriage groups at the $p < .05$ level with regards to Perceived Effect on Sexual Harassment [Chi-Square (2, 57) = 7.593593, $p = 0.0224426$]. The various marriage length groups and their mean ranks were compared and respondents whom indicated that they were or had been married for seven years or less had the highest score, with the lowest mean scores belonging to respondents in the third group whom had been married for 18 years or more. Therefore, the longer individuals are married the less positive the effects that they perceive sexual attraction in the workplace having and the more they perceive the potential for sexual harassment to occur (negative effect of sexual attraction).

5.6 Conclusion

This chapter contained detailed presentation of statistical analyses conducted on the data obtained from respondents on the PPESAI in the present study. Initially, the sample was described and contextualised within the framework of the research. Thereafter, detailed descriptive statistics were presented in graphical and tabular format for each scale/construct of the PPESAI overall as well as detailed item statistics being presented and expanded upon. Thereafter, correlation analyses came to the fore, with various statistically significant relationships being identified, presented and described. Interesting relationships were also explored and statistics were presented in tabular format. From this point of departure, inferential statistics followed, with possible statistically significant differences between groups being presented, explored and unpacked in text. Once again, utilisation was made of tables to summarise statistical information in this regard.

It is important to note that it was considered impractical to present all statistics within this document, and some of these figures were referred to in text. The reader should remain aware that additional statistical information is presented in the appendices of this thesis or upon request from the researcher, should one wish to further explore a particular area of interest.

This chapter adequately covered the results presentation required for the purposes of the present study. The implications of these findings within the context of relevant literature are discussed in the next chapter. Moreover inferences and conclusions are drawn as an in-depth analysis ensues.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

6.1 Introduction

The definition of diversity in the workplace and the subsequent attention and management thereof ignited the exploration of the current research topic. Having evaluated various standpoints on the issue, the researcher reached a conclusion that diversity management in the workplace is in fact an underexplored topic. This may seem to be an odd statement; however if one considers that diversity can be viewed as *“all those ways in which people differ and the effect of those differences on our thinking and behaviour”* (Hayles and Russell, 1997:12), then the somewhat narrow focus on conventional areas of diversity represents a deficit in current research. Moreover, the continuing negative emphasis on sexual harassment in the workplace led the researcher to think that there may be another side to this proverbial coin, namely sexual attraction.

This idea was the foundation for the research questions proposed in the study. The South African population has often been referred to as the “Rainbow Nation” due to the myriad of cultures, languages and races that comprise it. In addition the negative ramifications of previous political dispensations, such as apartheid, have caused individuals, groups and organisations to focus on racial, ethnic and cultural differences between people. This focus has diluted the potential of diversity management in the South African workplace in the democratic South Africa, post 1994. Rather, management is faced with a vastly diverse organisational landscape with decreased barriers of social interaction and an increasingly liberal, sexually open workforce. Whilst South Africans may not be as sexually liberal as the rest of the Western world, it is unlikely that the Americanisation of the populace will not occur to some extent. Most of the literature on sexual attraction in the workplace is American and presented in Chapters Two and Three. The conclusions arising there from are discussed in the paragraphs to follow.

It is clear that in the current economic situation, a deeper understanding and more innovative management of the workforce is needed. South African organisations and their management have maintained a highly task focused orientation to business, to the neglect of the human nature of business (Adonisi, 1993). Subsequently, South African management is in a unique position to leverage this potential opportunity and minimise possible challenges as a result of sexual attraction in the workplace.

The remainder of this chapter focuses on bringing together all the concepts discussed in the literature study and contextualizing the current study within the research design and methodology employed. This is briefly summarised herein for the reader. Thereafter the bulk of the chapter will focus on the findings of the empirical research in Chapter Five and link these results with previous research. Conclusions and implications of the current research findings for Human resources Management in South Africa are also discussed briefly herein.

6.2 Research Design

6.2.1 The Research Method

The essence of the study was exploratory and descriptive in nature, with the available literature and concomitant information collection requirements leading the researcher to choose a quantitative, survey research design. This method was selected due to the researcher being able to distribute a questionnaire electronically to possible respondents, whom could then forward the questionnaire in a snowball sample procedure, which is discussed briefly hereunder. The questionnaire is the most appropriate method of data collection for the study due to the constraints already mentioned in terms of time and finances. It provided for the most comparable source of information for exploratory and descriptive purposes of the proposed research. The researcher was not able to hold focus groups or analyse mounds of qualitative responses due to time and resource constraints and did not have easy access to a particular sample group and instead only an experimentally accessible population was available. Moreover, in light of the relative lack of empirical research on the topic of sexual attraction in the workplace it was considered an important neglected area of research in this sphere. It was also anticipated that this initial study might spark further interest in the topic and additional studies to be undertaken in the South African context.

6.2.2 Administering the PPESAI

Utilisation was made of a self-administered, self-report questionnaire namely the PPESAI, which incorporated the desired constructs of measurement pertaining to prevalence and effects of sexual attraction in the workplace. The employment of self-report questionnaires has been considered to be the preferred method for gathering information pertaining to attitudes and behaviours. The items of the questionnaire were close-ended because there were insufficient resources available for the analysis and integration of open-ended questions which would not only be very time consuming, but also does not always produce useful results. The questionnaire was emailed to each participant, with the option of having the questionnaire given to them in hard copy by hand. A two week time frame for response

was given, with numerous follow-ups and electronic reminders being sent to the various respondents. Respondents were not requested to provide any identifying details about themselves.

6.2.3 Representativeness of the Sample

Due to the fact that the sample was taken from an experimentally accessible population and thereafter snowball sampling strategy expansion of the sample in question, the results can only be generalised to and across this population of respondents. However, in light of the of the simple random sampling strategy used to determine the units involved in the study it is safer to generalise these results to the sampling frame than if more non-probabilistic methods were utilised (for example, if only units that worked on the same premises/most accessibly located to the researcher were used). Participation in the study was purely voluntary and no individual was pressured to complete the PPESAI. Subsequently, whilst the questionnaire was distributed to a much larger sample than responded, those whom did respond could be considered volunteers. As such the use of volunteers in research can have an effect on the population, and therefore external, validity of the study as the characteristics of respondents whom volunteer for research projects may not be the same as for the target population.

Therefore the sample utilised provided valuable statistical and empirical information yet with limitations for future research to consider. The number of industries and professions represented by the sample were too numerous and in many instances too small for statistical analyses to be performed. Future research may consider focusing on a specific industry or profession to determine if organisational culture or types of professions and environments have an influence on the perceived prevalence and effects of sexual attraction in the workplace. A detailed description of the sample is provided in Chapter Five.

6.3 Conclusions Based on Literature Study

Increasing mixing of the sexes in the modern workplace has resulted in increasing frequency of interaction between males and females and a subsequent increase in opportunities for sexual attraction and tension to develop. This creates an organisational dynamic with potential benefits and challenges for various aspects of work life. The view of sexuality in the workplace as taboo or politically incorrect is still prevalent in many organisations, yet does not decrease the incidence of its occurrence or effects on the workforce. The body of literature reveals that this negative “head in the sand” approach to sexuality is something which needs to be rectified within organisational management. As such sexuality and various aspects thereof are already considered to be elements of diversity management. These are

however, limited to gender differences, dual career families; sexual orientation and sexual harassment. It would appear that the underlying, ingrained element of sexuality and sexual attraction as a key aspect thereof is somewhat ignored, particularly within the South African context.

To incorporate this topic within the diversity framework may not seem tricky at first. However, it would appear that after reviewing the literature, no one definition for diversity can exist. To reduce the concept and restrict to one definitive explanation would in essence defeat the meaning of the concept, it would appear that individual perception and cognition will construct the meaning of the term. Therefore, if one adopts this most inclusive and holistic approach, diversity can be loosely defined as all the ways and manners in which people differ. Several authors on diversity contend that diversity is not only composed of fixed primary/visible dimensions of difference (age, ethnicity, gender, physical attributes/abilities, race and sexual orientation), but also encompass fluid secondary/invisible dimensions of difference (educational background, geographical location, income, health, parental status, religious beliefs, background, values, personality and work experience). Different types of diversity have also been documented, including those facets already listed above. This includes informational diversity, moral diversity value diversity and descriptive diversity. These dimensions help to distinguish the self from the other, to form a social identity based on the process where one categorises oneself and others by various dimensions of diversity. These categories form the basis for the various identities that people have, and some identities are more salient in certain organisational contexts than are others. The 'self' and social identity forms the basis of our thinking and behaviour and the way in which we shape ourselves to attract and maintain the relationships we want (Tesser, 1995). Our desires, social, and for that matter sexual identity are characteristics which pertain to the diversity dynamic and arising from this we have the complex, yet utterly inevitable, aspect of sexual attraction. Sex and sexuality become incorporated into the cultural worldviews of individuals by the personal meanings and values they attribute to this factor of themselves.

Diversity in the workplace has many documented benefits such as an increase in creativity as well as a greater understanding of ones consumers and target groups. In addition productivity, job performance and motivation have also shown to increase when elements of diversity are present in a workgroup. This is not to say that diversity is without its' consequences and challenges. One such consequence is the formation of the in-group-out-group phenomena as well as defective communication and misunderstandings and conflict.

In this context, the organisation itself has found to be a contributing factor to sexual attraction by acting as a filtering function, allowing for proximity effects to occur and by recruiting and attracting like-minded individuals with an increased propensity for attraction to occur. The

body of research consulted concurred with the notion that sexual attraction in the workplace is inevitable, that employees are essentially human beings with unique desires, motives and values that they bring with them into the workplace. Therefore, the organisation should be aware of this fact and management should attempt to capitalise on the potential benefits thereof and minimise any challenges that may occur as a result as opposed to the fairly restrictive, suppressive force it has had in the past.

From this point of departure the researcher attempted to explore what it is that creates the opportunity and occurrence of sexual attraction, namely what is it that incites this phenomenon in the workplace. It is clear that each aspect of sexual attraction precursors could in and of themselves be a separate research topic; however the literature revealed that some of these elements were physical and biographical and others were non-physical attributes. Gender differences were observed with regards to perceptions of precursors to sexual attraction with females more readily accepting the concept than males.

Turning towards existing research on the topic of sexual attraction in the workplace, it is clear that sexual attraction has been found to be prevalent in the organisational context as discussed in Chapter Three. Whilst the antecedents and consequences of sexual attraction in the workplace could not be tested for within the current research, the model proposed by Pierce et al (1996) poses some logical and interesting concepts. Arising from this conceptual framework, various aspects of organisational life were identified as being affected by sexual attraction on the workplace to be included in the current study. These included the individual; the workgroup/team; productivity; communication; job performance; job satisfaction; stress; job involvement; sexual harassment and morale. These dimensions are defined comprehensively in Chapter Three. Each dimension could in turn be positively or negatively affected by sexual attraction in the workplace when referring to available body of literature. Effects on the individual involved in sexual attraction in the workplace have been found to be fairly positive under certain situations, creating and facilitating friendships characterised by empathy and warmth. Moreover, sexual attraction between co-workers has been found to have an effect of increasing productivity, regardless of whether they chose to act upon it or not together with improvements in communication being noted by some researchers. Furthermore, involvement or experience of sexual attraction in the workplace may also result in increased intrinsic satisfaction with ones job and could decrease the effects of stress that an individual experiences with their occupation. Similar positive findings were also found in the available literature with regards to improved morale and job involvement.

Notwithstanding, negative consequences were also revealed by various researchers on the topic of sexual attraction. This includes negative effects on individuals whom are involved in perceived hierarchical sexual attraction with their superiors. This also in turn has negative effects on the workgroups or teams that the individuals are interacting with or are part of.

Conflicting research revealed that sexual attraction may in fact have the effect of decreasing productivity and communication of individuals involved in this dynamic. Some authors made the link and went a step further with their findings revealing that job performance might decrease in the initial phases of sexual attraction. Moreover, stress was found to be negatively affected for the individuals sexually attracted to each other if they were not single. This also had a more negative effect on their colleagues as well who perceived and observed the sexual attraction playing out amongst their co-workers if they knew they were married to other people outside of the workplace. Sexual harassment was also shown to increase in prevalence in workplaces with high sexual tension or uncontrolled sexual attraction. Gender differences were also found here by various authors, with women generally perceiving sexual harassment to be more prevalent and more adversely affected by sexual attraction.

The research has shown that the answer for effective management of sexual attraction in the workplace is dependent on the organisational culture and the individual employees concerned and involved. Various recommendations and models for the management of sexual attraction in the workplace abound, yet are beyond the scope of the present study. The construction and testing of such a model is an area for future research and as such was not covered in the literature review in this study. It is clear, however, that sexual attraction in the workplace is a diversity dynamic which is not going to fade away if ignored. The present study aimed to set about exploring and describing the concept within the South African context, from which future research might be able to build upon and embark from. The conclusions and implications based on the empirical research conducted are subsequently discussed hereunder.

6.4 Conclusions Based on Empirical Research

This section contains a summary and integrated discussion of the empirical results presented in Chapter Five in terms of the perceived prevalence and effects of sexual attraction in the workplace from the respondent group with reference to the relevant body of literature and previous research findings. It is important to note that the detailed statistics are presented in Chapter Five and contained in the relevant appendices for this document. As such, statistics will not be discussed in this section per se; reference must be made to the relevant statistics as already presented.

6.4.1 Perceived Prevalence of Sexual Attraction

When evaluating the numerous PPESAI scales as a whole, it appeared that most respondents perceived sexual attraction to be prevalent in their workplaces. The PPESAI scale measuring this concept substantially revealed that respondents as a whole perceived

sexual attraction to be prevalent. Moreover, this was confirmed by the categorical item in Section A of the PEESAI, which asked respondents to indicate whether or not they had experienced, observed or been aware of sexual attraction occurring amongst their colleagues. Over 85 percent of respondents indicated that they had such awareness, thus indicating that not only is sexual attraction a prominent organisational phenomenon; but employees are in fact aware of its prevalence. This finding concurs with the theories and research conducted by numerous authors on the topic of sexual attraction in the workplace (Eyer and Barindon, 1992; Hurley, 1996; Pierce et al, 1996; Quinn and Lees, 1984). However, slightly less than observed American counterpart studies which found over 92 percent of employees to have observed some form of sexual attraction dynamic playing out in the workplace (Leonard 2001).

This scale assessed various areas of sexual attraction prevalence perception, with findings revealing that respondents generally feel that workplace sexual attraction is inevitable, echoing the research of Pierce et al (1996). Moreover, hierarchical sexual attraction was reported by the vast majority of respondents. This indicates the presence of the supervisor-subordinate sexual attraction dynamic is still alive and well in the modern South African organisation of those respondents involved in this study. This finding aligns with previous research on supervisory attraction and alludes to possible power motives and influence having a role to play in organisational sexual attraction (Anderson and Hunsaker, 1985; Pierce and Aguinis, 2001; Mainiero, 1986; Quinn, 1977; Jones, 1999). The extent to which the effects of hierarchical attraction on the individuals involved is situation specific and was assessed by another item, discussed in the paragraphs to follow. Ongoing work requirements were viewed by respondents as creating the potential for sexual attraction to occur. This concurs with findings indicating that the proximity effect has a role to play in workplace sexual attraction developing (Hurley, 1996). In addition, respondents indicated that not only were they aware of sexual attraction occurring in the workplace, but could in fact pick up on subtle changes in behaviour of their colleagues whom they perceived to be sexually attracted to each other. This is line with findings by Mainiero (1986) which stated that the presence of sexual attraction does not have to be declared to a workgroup in order to have an effect on the said group. Moreover, respondents indicated that they did not really perceive anxiety provoking work situations to increase the likelihood of sexual attraction occurring. This diverges from American research findings which indicated that anxiety could culminate in sexual attraction occurring between colleagues (Pierce et al, 1996; Hatfield and Rapson 1987 in Hazan and Shaver, 1994; Inger, 1994). Anxiety and its effect on sexual attraction in the workplace should be explored by more than one item, as was the case in the present study. Therefore, this result must be interpreted within context of the respondent sample group utilised.

The possibility of a sexually energised yet strictly working relationship was not shared by all respondents; however over 56 percent of individuals felt that this could in fact be the case. Interestingly, when respondents were questioned with regards to their own personal experience of sexual attraction in the workplace just over 55 percent of respondents indicated that they had been sexually attracted to a colleague before. This result was substantially lower than the percentages of individuals reporting awareness in the study conducted by Pierce et al (1996) which revealed that 80 percent of individuals reported having some form of socio-sexual experience with co-workers.

Not surprisingly, a significant difference was found on this scale with regards to respondents whom indicated that they had been aware of sexual attraction and those that had not, with the former having significantly higher mean scores with regards to their perceived prevalence levels of sexual attraction in the workplace. As a result, it can be inferred that individuals whom have been aware of sexual attraction before are more likely to perceive its prevalence in the workplace, and might in fact be more inclined to attribute “questionable” behaviour of colleagues to sexual attraction. In addition thereto, a large significant difference as found between respondents whom had been sexually attracted to a colleague before and those that had not with higher perceived prevalence of sexual attraction being reported by the former. Therefore, should individuals have experienced sexual attraction to a colleague themselves; they were more inclined to report higher levels of sexual attraction prevalence in the workplace. The greater perceived prevalence of this phenomenon could therefore be attributed to a substantial extent to the experience of prior sexual attraction to a colleague. The influence of recency effect in this regard should also not be excluded from analysis and interpretation and should be explored by future research by means of an appropriate follow up question.

Interestingly a slight, positive although non-significant relationship was found between a respondent’s age and their level of reported experience of sexual attraction. Therefore older respondents were more inclined to report being sexually attracted to a colleague before. Similarly, older respondents were also more inclined to have being involved in a workplace rendezvous. This may be simply as a result of them being in the workplace for longer periods of time than their younger counterparts and therefore have had more opportunities to become sexually attracted to their colleagues. This result alludes to the inevitability of sexual attraction in the workplace. Moreover, South African employees or respondents indicated that just over a third of them had in fact had some form of workplace rendezvous. Moreover, this figure is substantially lower than those observed by Pierce et al (1996) and Leonard (2001), the latter of which found slightly over 60 percent of individuals to have had some sort of rendezvous with a colleague. This finding indicates that South African workplaces may not yet be as sexually liberal as Americans. Another explanation is that the individuals

themselves may have been more sexually conservative as a result of their own culture; organisational culture or high morale code. The sensitivity of the topic and manner of reporting could also have had an influence on respondents in the current study. Organisational culture was moderately perceived by most respondents to have an effect on the presence of sexual attraction in the workplace, concurring with opinions voiced by Traeen et al (2002). Subsequently this could explain the possible political correctness or sensitivity of respondents in the current study. Further research should attempt to explore organisational culture and its effects on sexual attraction and the prevalence thereof in the South African workplace, as this could not be adequately assessed in the present study.

6.4.2 Perceived Prevalence and Influence of Diversity

When considering organisational culture, the concept of diversity is an important consideration therein and was explored in the present study. The majority of respondents were aware of the concept of diversity and perceived it to have a positive effect on the organisation and its employees. More specifically, as a component of diversity, sexual attraction was explored within this context. This was found to be significantly the case for respondents whom had reported being sexually attracted to a colleague before. Slightly over half of the sample group felt that diversity resulted in increased opportunities for employees to become attracted to each other; concurring with findings of other authors (Tesser, 1995; Pierce et al, 1996; Norman, 1994). In addition, the majority of respondents perceive themselves to have respect for the differences that their colleagues present with in the work setting; yet not as many feel that they may recognise or acknowledge these differences. This could be due to the South African organisational as well as popular culture as a result of apartheid and segregation. As a consequence thereof, South Africans may be more inclined to pretend differences do not exist between them and their colleagues yet this does not necessarily mean that they do not respect these differences. As a result the diversity continuum of Friday and Friday (2003) as discussed in Chapter Two may need to be interpreted slightly differently within the context of sexual attraction and diversity in the South African workplace.

In addition, the extent to which respondents feel diversity is effectively managed in the South African workplace may be limited by the perceptions that respondents have of diversity as well as the amount of legislative control over discrimination. Therefore, the South African diversity context itself may be overshadowed by previous political administrations still affecting organisations and employees today. Surprisingly, a small significant difference was found between respondents' marital status and this construct, with unmarried individuals being more likely to reporting high levels of diversity awareness and the positive effects of sexual attraction thereupon. Possible explanations for this finding could include engagement

in social interactions in a diverse work environment could be more prominent for unmarried individuals. In addition, the age of married respondents having an impact on the extent to which they have been exposed to a diverse workplace.

Significant differences were observed between the age groups created with regards to concept of diversity. Respondents between the ages of 25 to 27 years old had the highest mean score on this construct, indicating greatest awareness and knowledge of diversity in the workplace, which significantly differed from respondents between the ages of 36 to 45, whom had the lowest mean score on this construct. This could be the result of the influences of education on perceptions and awareness of diversity, with those individuals more inclined to have completed tertiary education fairly recently being more aware of diversity than those individuals whom were somewhat older. Interestingly, no significant differences were observed therewith with respondents whom were 46 or older. Possible reasons therefore, could be because of greater effects of the struggle for democracy resonating with these individuals and the concomitant higher awareness of diversity than those respondents in a slightly younger age group

Moreover, a small significant difference was found between respondents reporting prior sexual attraction to a colleague and those that had not, with the latter having a lower mean score with regards to perceived diversity in the workplace. Therefore, individuals whom have been attracted to a colleague before may be more inclined to perceive diversity to prevalent in the workplace and to have an effect on sexual attraction. This finding is important within the context of the present study as it indicates that actual experience of sexual attraction is linked with elements of diversity as measured. Analogous thereto, this finding reinforces the concept of sexual attraction within the diversity framework as a potential management issue.

The importance of similarity of moral values in sexual attraction occurrence was strongly reported by respondents. This lends itself to the concept of moral and value diversity as discussed in Chapter Two (Haidt et al, 2003). Sexual attraction can form as a result of many possible influences the bulk of which were beyond the scope of this study and could in fact have formed separate study topics in and of themselves. However, these perceived elements of sexual attraction were also somewhat explored within the context of workplace sexual attraction.

6.4.3 Perceived Elements of Sexual Attraction

Findings on this scale were highly divergent, which was expected as elements underlying sexual attraction differ greatly from person to person. This was highlighted by the vast majority of respondents stating that they perceived beauty to be in the eye of the beholder.

This is a long and widely held belief echoed in the literature (Beigel, 1953; Hazan and Shaver, 1994). Interestingly enough, just over half of the respondents felt that physical beauty or appearance makes a colleague attractive, concurring with research by other authors (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). The extent to which and what types of physical characteristics individuals find attractive in their colleagues could not be ascertained by this study and is an area for further research.

However, other aspects of elements of workplace attraction were explored on this PPESAI scale. One such aspect was the incidence of similarity; with most respondents indicating that they do not find colleagues whom are similar to themselves attractive. Therefore, similarity may not have as large a role to play as thought by previous authors (Hazan and Shaver, 1994). However, a large group of respondents do find similarity in their colleagues attractive. Therefore, workforce diversity can be inferred to increase the prevalence of sexual attraction occurring, with most respondents indicating that they are more attracted to individuals whom are different to themselves. The degree of difference therein needs to be further uncovered and could be met by an additional item or follow up questions in further research.

Most respondents felt that individuals would be more inclined to become attracted to individuals that they spend more time with, thus aligning with space and proximity effects mentioned in previous research findings (Diamond, 2004; Mainiero, 1986; Quinn and Lees, 1984; Loftus, 1995). However, the result of the proximity effect and other dynamics of potential sexual attraction on the individuals involved was perceived by respondents to be a product of the individual concerned. Namely most respondents felt that employees can control how they let sexual attraction affect them in the workplace, regardless of the elements comprising sexual attraction in the first place. This perception could once again be attributed to the fairly conservative, sexually un-liberated South African mindset. Interestingly, a significant negative relationship was found between respondents' age and this construct. Therefore older respondents were less inclined to perceive elements of attraction as being important or significant. This may be because older individuals are less inclined to be superficial in terms of what they find attractive. However, large significant differences were found between respondent mean scores on this construct and their age, with individuals between the ages of 25 to 27 having the higher mean scores which were significantly different from respondents between the ages of 28 to 35. Moreover, most of the older respondents are married and it is likely that respondents between the ages of 28 to 35 were fairly newly married, which could also have had an influence of responses on this construct.

Aligned with this analysis, a small, significant difference was uncovered between marital status and elements of sexual attraction, with unmarried respondent being more likely to

agree with or report higher levels of awareness of elements of sexual attraction. Perhaps unmarried respondents are more aware of elements of sexual attraction or perceive them to be more important because they have not yet found their “mate” or life partner and as such would be more inclined to look for these qualities in members of the opposite sex in an attempt to find a partner. Upon deeper analysis, relationship status categories were created. Inferential statistics revealed significant differences with regards to elements of sexual attraction and a respondent’s relationship status. Respondents whom indicated that they were actively dating, yet not in a relationship had the highest mean score with married respondents having the lowest. A possible explanation therefore could be that respondents whom were dating were perhaps more aware of elements of attraction because they are not committed to anyone, yet are interested in going out on dates. This would imply that these types of respondents find more aspects of people attractive than would their married colleagues.

With these fundamental areas covered, attention turns to the perceived effects of sexual attraction that respondents held with regards to certain aspects of the workplace. Each of these constructs is subsequently discussed in detail, together with supportive and contradictory research findings.

6.4.4 Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Productivity

Respondents in general were slightly inclined to perceive sexual attraction as having a positive effect on productivity in the workplace. On closer examination when respondents were asked to indicate their personal level of productivity when attracted to a colleague, the majority indicated that their productivity in fact declined when they were attracted to a colleague. However, the vast majority of respondents felt that should employees maintain the balance between intimacy and distance that they could channel their energy into something constructive, namely the task at hand. This is aligned with the body of literature and particular with the opinions of Eyler and Barindon (1992a) and Prince et al (1996).

Whilst most respondents did not feel that sexual attraction has stimulatory effects on productivity enhancement; just under half (47 percent) felt that sexual attraction could have the effect of increasing productivity. This is an elevated finding compared to that of Prince et al (1996) which indicated that only between nine to 21 percent of individuals experiencing sexual attraction had an increase in productivity.

Perhaps more closely aligned was the item pertaining to personal experience of sexual attraction and productivity, with between 15 to just over 30 percent of respondents indicating that their productivity increases when they are attracted to a colleague. Once again, it

appears that the South African respondents report higher perceived productivity increases due to sexual attraction than the American studies contained within the literature review. Going back to the original statistics and findings mentioned, however, these results would seem to concur with those of Mainiero (1986) and Quinn and Lees (1984) whom found productivity to decrease in some instances. In the case of the latter researchers, this was found to occur in at least one third of cases studied. In general, results indicate that whilst perceived effects on productivity are somewhat positive amongst respondents this may be contingent upon the ability of individuals involved to maintain a healthy balance between intimacy and distance. Moreover, when evaluating their personal experiences of sexual attraction most respondents indicated that it negatively affected their productivity and yet they still maintain the perception that productivity can increase in the case of other individuals. This may indicate that the respondents might not have had the ability or tools to effectively manage their feelings of sexual attraction in the workplace to the benefit of their productivity, yet they recognise that if this can be done the effects thereof in general could be positive. This interpretation can be assisted by one of the open ended responses obtained:

“I think that there are so many things influencing sexual attraction in the workplace and the benefits and detriments thereof will differ from person to person and dependent on the situation. Having been involved in workplace attraction myself and seeing it on a daily basis amongst my colleagues and within myself and some of my relationships, I know that there is not much else which can be as exciting and stimulating or as potentially harmful. I know that my performance and productivity definitely decreases if I am attracted to someone I work with!!! I think, once again, it depends on the person. I become consumed with the attraction and emotion and find it hard to concentrate on anything else whereas some of my colleagues are able to brush such things off and get on with what they need to do/deadlines etc.”

Anonymous

The influence of age on this perceived effect of productivity was not found to be significant, yet a slight negative relationship existed. Therefore as respondents increased in age, their reported perceived effects of sexual attraction on productivity were more negative. As a result it can be inferred that older individuals are slightly more inclined to perceive sexual attraction as having a negative effect on productivity. On further analysis, it was revealed that large significant difference existed between various age groups and the perceived effect of sexual attraction on productivity. Results indicate that respondents between 25 to 27 years of age had the highest scores on this construct, which differed substantially from respondents between the ages of 28 to 45. This indicates that individuals whom are young, possible new entrants to the workforce and not yet married or in a serious commitment phase of their working lives may perceive sexual attraction to have more positive effects on productivity than those respondents whom are older.

Interestingly, a significant difference was found between respondents whom had been previously sexually attracted to a colleague and those that had not, with prior sexual attraction having the effect of increasing respondent scores on this construct. Therefore, individuals whom had been sexually attracted to a colleague perceived sexual attraction to have more of a positive effect on productivity than did respondents in the other group.

6.4.5 Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Communication

An important and linked organisational dynamic is communication, which often impacts on productivity. The results of the present study reveal that, in general, respondents felt that sexual attraction in the workplace had a negative effect on the aspects of communication assessed by the PPESAI. Older respondents were also found to be more inclined than younger respondents to indicate that they felt that sexual attraction had a negative effect on communication dynamics. Although this negative relationship was not significant, it still presents an interesting view of differing perceptions amongst the workforce as a result of their age. However, further analysis revealed moderate differences in the mean scores with regards to perceived effects of sexual attraction on communication and age groups of respondents. Individuals between the age of 25 and 27 had the highest mean score, which differed significantly from respondents between the ages of 36 to 45, whom had the lowest mean score.

Significant differences were also observed between a respondent's awareness of sexual attraction and perceived effects on communication. These results indicate that respondents whom have been aware of sexual attraction in the workplace are more inclined to perceive it as having more of a positive effect on communication than their colleagues whom have not been aware of sexual attraction. In addition, significant moderate differences were found with individuals whom had been sexually attracted to a colleague before, with these respondents having higher mean scores than those whom had not experienced prior sexual attraction to a colleague. It is important to note that whilst these differences exist, in both cases the mean scores were still at the negative end of the scale. This indicates lack of experience with or awareness of sexual attraction in the workplace could result in more negative perceptions surrounding this phenomenon existing amongst individuals. Moreover, should sexual attraction progress to the extent that it is evident or observable to co-workers whom perceive it to be threatening or inappropriate, it will have higher chances of negatively influencing communication dynamics in a group or organisations. Furthermore, analyses revealed that respondents whom had been sexually attracted to a colleague before were significantly more likely to report positive effects of sexual attraction on communication.

Slightly over 45 percent of respondents indicated that sexual attraction in the workplace has the effect of enhancing communication and just fewer than 40 percent stated that communication in workgroups can improve should the group members be sexually attracted to one another. Findings by Loftus (1995) are confirmed with these results being somewhat aligned with the theory of improved interdepartmental and group communication in instances of sexual attraction amongst group members.

In support of Quinn's (1977) findings, approximately two thirds of respondents indicated that communication had the tendency to become distorted when group members were sexually attracted to each other. This result in fact surpasses the findings of Quinn (1977) which revealed distorted communication to occur in 25 percent of cases when sexual attraction is involved. It is important to note that Quinn's (1977) findings were based on reported case studies/ incidences whereas the present study is based on the perceptions that respondents have with regards to the effects of sexual attraction on communication. Nonetheless, this is an important result indicating that breakdowns in communication are a major concern for management should sexual attraction remain unattended to or managed inappropriately. Organisational communication or group communication could thus be symptomatic of the sexual dynamic playing out between group members and could be an area for management to address and be aware of. This notion is confirmed in the present study, with most respondents indicating that they perceive group communication to be negatively impacted by sexual attraction dynamics between group members.

Linked with this is the incidence and perceived effects of gossip and sexual attraction as another important area of communication. The findings of the present study indicate that nearly all (98 percent) of the respondents perceive gossip to occur with regards to perceived sexual attraction between group members. Once again, this confirms and surpasses the findings of Quinn (1977) which revealed communication to centre on gossip in approximately 70 percent of reported cases. The higher perceived level of gossip may be relevant to the individual context of the respondents as well as the fairly conservative organisational cultures from which they hail and which South Africans may come from. Moreover, the less sexually liberal mindset prevailing may have an effect of increasing gossip as sexual attraction and the subsequent related dynamics may be viewed as more taboo than the typical Western organisation and as such incite more salacious rumours and gossip.

6.4.6 Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Job Performance

Another interesting construct involved in the present study was that of job performance, although related to productivity, was assessed as a different concept. The results of the research indicate that respondents are slightly more inclined to perceive sexual attraction as

having a negative effect on job performance. Interestingly, most respondents indicated that they felt that job performance decreases in the initial phases of sexual attraction. This concurs with the research of Pierce et al (1996) whom found this to be the case and thereafter for performance to increase as the sexual attraction relationship dynamic matures. This concept was also confirmed with the result of the present study, indicating that respondents generally feel job performance to improve as a more-than-friends-less-than-lovers relationship matures. One respondent had the following to say:

“I feel that a person becomes excited and motivated to go to work, but is distracted at work when there is sexual tension, then lessening job performance”

Project Manager- Hospitality

Slightly over 40 percent of respondents felt that job performance increases due to sexual attraction as employees undertake more of an effort to understand one another which is aligned with the theory put forward in the literature review (Fish, 1994). The majority of respondents indicated that they did in general perceive sexual attraction to positively affect job performance. These results could mean that some respondents felt that sexual attraction has negative effects on a workgroup or communication (as evidenced in previous scale item analyses) or, in keeping with the preceding item, perhaps the maturity of the relationship between the individuals whom are sexually attracted to each other has an influence in their perceptions of job performance. This analysis is compounded with the findings on the last item of the scale referring specifically to job performance of individuals involved in sexual attraction or a more-than-friends-less-than-lovers relationship; with just over 37 percent of respondents indicating that they felt that job performance would in fact increase in this case. Evidently, respondents felt that job performance in general is not positively affected by sexual attraction. This was particularly the case for individuals whom reported that they had not been sexually attracted to a colleague before. This concurs with the body of research in that individuals whom reported being sexually attracted to a colleague reported higher levels of perceived positive effects on job performance. Therefore, not all respondents found the perceived effect on job performance to be negative with many individuals indicating that some aspects of job performance could improve as a result of sexual attraction and the stage or maturity of the more-than-friends-less-than-lovers relationship. This could align with theories postulated in the body of literature, namely that the effects of sexual attraction can have an enhancing effect on job performance and organisational competitiveness should the situation be appropriately monitored and the balance between distance and intimacy maintained effectively (Pierce et al, 1992; Fish, 1996). However, respondents whom had been aware of sexual attraction were slightly more inclined to perceive it as having a positive effect on job performance. Thus, individuals whom had been aware of sexual attraction in the workplace felt that the presence of sexual attraction amongst employees was likely to have a

slightly positive effect on job performance as they perceived it to be. This was confirmed with significant difference between these two potential groups of respondents being found on this construct.

Moreover, significant moderate differences were found with regards to respondents whom reported prior sexual attraction to a colleague and those whom had not with the former indicating greater perceived positive effects of sexual attraction on job performance. Whilst job performance in general was negatively perceived, it would appear that personal experience of sexual attraction resulted in higher levels of positive effects thereof on job performance. This could be as a result of these respondents feeling that sexual attraction can be positive due to their experience thereof. It could also be a form of justification or “making it alright” on the part of these individuals, in that they may have felt that by indicating higher levels of job performance it may positively reflect on their own levels of job performance due to sexual attraction that they reported experiencing. The extent to which this was conscious or unconscious potential manipulation, or social desirability, is unsure and merely postulation and should be explored in further studies.

In addition to these findings, significant differences were observed between various age groups and the perceived effect of sexual attraction on job performance. Respondents between the ages of 28 to 35 had the lowest means scores on this construct, which differed significantly from respondents between the ages of 25 to 27. In general a trend emerged that revealed that individuals between the ages of 25 to 27 perceived sexual attraction to have the greatest positive effect on various aspects of organisational dynamics assessed by the PPESAI. Therefore, this age group appears to be the most liberal and “sexualised” when compared with other age groups involved in this assessment. Possible reasons therefore abound and could include influences such as age, tenure in current organisation, duration of their career or when they entered the workforce as well as organisational culture. All of these factors should undergo further exploration in additional studies on sexual attraction in the workplace.

6.4.7 Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Job Satisfaction

Job performance is an important organisational measure of effectiveness; however the human side of business encompasses much more than a 360 degree performance appraisal or evaluation. In keeping with the focus on the human aspect of workplace relationships, the effect of sexual attraction on job satisfaction was assessed. Respondents were inclined to perceive sexual attraction to have a positive effect on job satisfaction of the individuals involved. The majority of respondents felt that greater work-life satisfaction was experienced by individuals whom were sexually attracted to their colleagues. This perception concurs with

the findings of Eyer and Barindon (1992). Moreover, a significant negative relationship was observed between this construct and the reported experience of prior sexual attraction to a colleague. Therefore the findings infer that individuals whom reported personally experiencing sexual attraction in the workplace were more likely to report perceived positive effects of sexual attraction on job satisfaction. This indicates that sexual attraction has positive effects for the individuals involved in the sexual attraction dynamic in terms of increasing the level of job satisfaction that they experience.

In keeping with this over two thirds of individuals involved in the present study revealed that they felt that colleagues whom experience workplace sexual attraction are more likely to take pleasure in their job. Possible reasons for this might be that the individuals involved enjoy their job more as a result of the sexual attraction dynamic between themselves and their respective colleagues. Some individuals might find this exciting or stimulating as well as more motivation to get up and go to work in the morning. These concepts were partially explored by other items to be discussed hereafter.

Exactly half of the respondents felt that sexual attraction enabled individuals to achieve a level of job satisfaction that they otherwise might not have been able to experience. This notion revealed division amongst respondents, possible reasons for this being that differing perceptions of job satisfaction might exist amongst individuals. As such individuals whom had not experienced or observed sexual attraction in the workplace might not have the same perception of its positive effects on job satisfaction. Alternatively or in conjunction therewith, different means of achieving satisfaction with ones job exist, which possibly be perceived by respondents to have a greater influence on job satisfaction than sexual attraction could create. This concept requires more refinement and further research.

In addition thereto, respondents were roughly equally divided with regards to the concept of intrinsic satisfaction with ones job as a result of sexual attraction, with just under half of the respondents feeling that this would increase as a result of sexual attraction. This finding is aligned with the theory and findings put forward by authors in the literature reviewed (Pierce et al., 1996; Pierce, 1998) whom found a significant relationship between the presence of sexual/ romantic feelings for a co-worker and intrinsic work motivation, satisfaction with the type of work one is conducting and job involvement. Together with this, a slightly negative relationship between age and perceived effects on job satisfaction, indicating that older respondents are more inclined to perceive sexual attraction as having a negative effect on job satisfaction. Inversely, it can be inferred that younger respondents felt that sexual attraction could have a positive effect on the experience of job satisfaction that an individual might have. This was confirmed with inferential statistics which revealed a moderate significant difference between age groups involved in the study. Respondents between the

ages of 25 to 27 had the highest mean scores on this construct which differed significantly from respondents between the ages of 28 to 35. Once again, this highlights the conclusion drawn earlier about the difference between these two age groups and possible reasons for this difference.

Aligned therewith, a significant difference was found between a respondent's marital status and their reported perceptions of the effects of sexual attraction on job satisfaction. The independent sample t-test analyses conducted revealed a significant difference between unmarried and married respondents, with higher mean scores being observed amongst unmarried individuals. Unmarried respondents were generally younger than their married counterparts, notwithstanding, a respondent whom was unmarried subsequently perceived sexual attraction to culminate in higher job satisfaction than married individuals. This may be as a result of married respondents having made a commitment to their partner and their subsequent moral framework and values as a result of having entered the covenant of marriage. Therefore, they might be less inclined to perceive job satisfaction as being positively affected by sexual attraction as they might have feelings of guilt or anxiety if they experienced sexual attraction or alternatively emotions of disapproval. This could explain the relationship observed on this construct.

Moreover, a significant difference was found between a respondent's relationship status category and their perceived effect of sexual attraction on job satisfaction. Interestingly enough engaged individuals and closely followed by respondents in a relationship had higher mean scores than any other relationship categories or groups. Possible reasons therefore could be that these types of individuals are involved seriously with their partners outside of the work environment and are able to experience or perceive sexual attraction as having positive effects on job satisfaction as they have not yet committed to marriage. In addition, as a result of this external commitment, they may not feel threatened by sexual attraction as it might provide some sense of safety for these individuals. In a manner of speaking it could involve having ones cakes and eating it too, to quote a commonly used phrase. It is possible that the act of taking ones vows and the far more intense and serious commitment of marriage may make individuals feel more guilt as a result of sexual attraction or perceive it as having less positive effects than other respondents.

Further findings revealed a significant, moderate difference between respondents whom reported prior sexual attraction to a colleague and those that had not indicated this to be the case. The latter had significantly lower mean scores on the perceived influence of sexual attraction on job performance. This indicated that respondents whom had been sexually attracted to a colleague before felt that sexual attraction resulted in increased job satisfaction. This is an important finding, as it indicates the experience of a level of

satisfaction that could not otherwise be experienced through normal asexual workplace relationships, reported by individuals whom had in fact been sexually attracted to a colleague in the workplace before.

6.4.8 Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Stress

With sexual attraction being explored and the potential effects thereof on various aspects of organisational life, the researcher also assessed the effects of sexual attraction on some aspects of stress within the framework of the study. Stress itself is a complex construct and has substantial volumes of existing research and literature on the topic and could not hope to be comprehensively covered by the present study. Nonetheless, stress as a result of sexual attraction was unpacked by the PPESAI scale pertaining to this construct. Findings reveal that the majority of respondents perceive sexual attraction in the workplace to have a mixed effect on stress, with respondents being divided on the issue in general. Younger respondents were significantly more inclined to perceive sexual attraction as having a positive effect on an individuals stress levels. Subsequently, the significant, negative relationship observed between age and this construct indicates that older respondents felt that sexual attraction has a negative effect on an individuals stress levels. This was confirmed by inferential statistical analysis which revealed that respondents between the ages of 36 to 45 had the lowest means score with regards to perceived stress and sexual attractions' effects thereon and this differed significantly from respondents whom were between the ages of 24 or younger and 25 to 27. This divergence in perception could be a result of life experience of sexual attraction in the workplace and the experience of stress held by older respondents.

In addition, a moderate significant difference was observed between marital status and the perceived effect of sexual attraction upon stress, with substantially lower mean scores being found amongst the married group. Therefore, married individuals were more likely to perceive sexual attraction in the workplace as increasing the experience of stress by reporting lower perceived positive benefits of sexual attraction upon stress levels. This finding is linked with the analysis made with regards to job satisfaction and the possible experience of guilt or anxiety, thereby increasing stress levels of individuals whom were married and experiencing or perceiving sexual attraction to occur in the workplace. Interestingly, when evaluating inferential statistics in this regard with relationship status categories, significant differences were observed, yet those with the highest mean score were respondents whom were dating and the lowest mean score comprised engaged individuals. It would make sense that dating respondents perceive the effects of sexual attraction on stress to be more positive than their counterparts, as they are in all likelihood evaluating their environment continuously in search of a potential mate or partner. As such

these types of individuals may perceive sexual attraction to have positive effects on stress levels.

When evaluating the items at a high level, it appears that the perceived effect of sexual attraction on stress levels of the individuals involved is not positive. Whilst respondents were slightly inclined to feel that sexual bantering helps employees deal with the stressful nature of their jobs, this view was not held by nearly 49 percent of respondents. This finding links to the notion put forward by Williams et al (1999) whom contend that this is in fact the case for many individuals. This result could be influenced by the nature of the jobs that the respondents are involved in as well as the organisation and industry in which they are employed. As such the effects of organisational and other cultural influences cannot be separated from the result or response to this item and must be held in cognisance as an area for future research. In addition, although not significant a slight relationship was observed between the experience of sexual attraction in the workplace and the perceived effects thereof on levels of stress. The findings indicate that individuals whom reported being sexually attracted to a colleague before perceive sexual attraction to have a slightly more positive effect on stress. This could be linked with the release of tension through sexual bantering, as inferred by previous research discussed in the body of literature.

Approximately 70 percent of respondents felt that individuals whom are sexually attracted to each other do not have to feel guilty. As such they perceive sexual attraction not to have a negative effect on the stress levels of parties whom are sexually attracted to one another which concurs with research by Williams et al (1999). These findings reveal that respondents may be more liberal or open minded to workplace sexuality than initially assumed. However, further analysis of findings revealed that nearly the same number of respondents felt that the parties whom are sexually attracted to each other will try to keep this attraction hidden. Thus whilst they may have no need to feel guilty, respondents perceive these individuals to endeavour to hide this attraction. This may be due to organisational culture once again, personal values and frames of reference as well as sexual taboos in terms of sexual attraction. This can increase stress levels according to numerous authors on the topic and thus indicates that sexual attraction has a negative effect on stress in many situations dependent on the individuals concerned and the degree to which they perceive they need to hide this attraction or feel guilty about it (Berman, 2006; Mainiero 1986; Eyer and Baridon, 1992b; Loftus, 1995).

In addition thereto, the vast majority of respondents indicated that the perceived effects of sexual attraction on stress and negative personal or organisational consequences as a result thereof depend on the relationship status of individuals. Thus these respondents could feel that sexual attraction and the expression thereof is more acceptable for single individuals as

opposed to colleagues whom are in committed relationships or marriages. In addition, should colleagues perceive this sexual attraction dynamic to be adulterous in nature, respondents felt that this would place third party observers under an ethical dilemma and therefore have a negative effect on stress for the individuals' involved and observing sexual attraction in the workplace. The findings herein concur with research consulted in the body of literature reviewed (Berman, 2006; Mainiero 1986; Jones, 1999).

6.4.9 Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Job Involvement

Job involvement is another area of the human dimension of business explored in the present study, with findings revealing that respondents generally perceive sexual attraction in the workplace to have a positive effect on the level of job involvement of individuals whom are more-than-friends-less-than-lovers. Various manifestations of perceived job involvement can be observed, and were assessed for, one of which was the hours of work kept by individuals whom were perceived to be sexually attracted to each other. Three quarters of respondents indicated that they felt that individuals whom are attracted to their colleagues willingly work longer hours. This concurs with findings of Eyler and Baridon (1992b), which found that such individuals work longer hours in order to spend more time with the individuals they are attracted to, which includes coming to work early and leaving later than usual.

Moreover, approximately the same amount of respondents indicated that they perceived work to become more of a central life interest for employees whom are attracted to their co-workers. The importance of this finding is linked with research on job involvement, as it is situation specific and could also be viewed as the emotional reaction and attachment that an individual has to a job and its subsequent motivating facets (Igbaria et al, 1994). Thus a sense of organisational membership could increase as individuals become sexually attracted to their co-workers as a result of increased job involvement. Implications of this finding with regards to organisational loyalty and commitment are an interesting area for future research.

An item which might lend some insight into this pertained to attachment that individuals have to their jobs with 60 percent of respondents indicating that they perceived job attachment to increase as a result of being sexually attracted to ones colleague. Whilst this result might not be as strongly in the affirmative as other items, it is still relevant and important to hold in cognisance. A large, statistically significant difference between male and female respondents was observed, with females having far higher mean scores with regards to perceived job involvement as a result of sexual attraction than their male counterparts. This relationship between gender and perceived effects on job involvement indicated that female respondents were more likely to perceive job involvement to be positively affected by the experience of sexual attraction. This concurs with the body of literature consulted with previous research

findings indicating that women can more readily perceive the idea of sexual attraction forming the basis of a nonsexual workplace relationship (Eyler and Barindon, 1992a). Yet females are more opposed to intimacy in the workplace (Pierce et al, 1996). This was partially supported by the slight, positive relationship between gender and the perceived effects of sexual harassment.

Moreover, a significant moderate difference was found between respondents whom reported being sexually attracted to a colleague and those that indicated this was not the case with them, with the former having slightly higher mean scores with regards to perceived influence of sexual attraction on job involvement. Therefore, should an individual have been previously sexually attracted to a colleague they were more inclined to report higher perceived positive effects on levels of job involvement as a result of sexual attraction. It is apparent that the personal experience of sexual attraction to a colleague resulted in inferential findings or relationships being found between this experience and perceived positive effects of sexual attraction in the workplace. A possible explanation behind lower scores amongst the other group of respondents may be because they have not experienced sexual attraction and therefore view it as a potential threat or something more sinister than it is in actuality. As a result thereof, they may have more of a need to manage the unknown.

Interestingly, a significant difference between age groups was found with regards to perceived effects of sexual attraction on job involvement. Respondents between the ages of 25 to 27 had significantly higher mean scores than respondents over and including the age of 28. Therefore these individuals in general had higher average scores than all respondents older than them. Once again it is highlighted that respondents in between the ages of 25 to 27 have the highest perceived positive effects of sexual attraction on various organisational dynamics in most cases, should a significant difference be observed. Considering the effect thereof, future research might consider testing perceptions whilst controlling for the effects of age thereon.

The research also reveals that the desire to impress individuals that one is sexually attracted to extends to the workplace should colleagues be attracted to one another, with the substantial majority of respondents indicating that this is the case with regards to their perception of the phenomena. This also has possible linkages to the effects of sexual attraction on productivity and communication according to Pierce et al (1996). Together with a desire to impress, employees were perceived to increase opportunities to interact with the colleagues that they are sexually attracted to by the majority of respondents. From these findings, it is clear that the respondents perceived job involvement to be positively affected by sexual attraction.

This analysis is confirmed in the open ended response submitted by one of the respondents:

“I have been attracted to a colleague some time back. We worked a lot on projects together and spend a lot of time together. But because we were both involved with other people, we controlled it and it never matured into anything. It was just merely attraction but I think if we were not involved, definitely we could have given it a go.

Because there is that attraction, you create opportunities to work together. For me, the attraction resulted from stress at work and some issues in my relationship and feeling that I was not being appreciated enough. My colleague appreciated me and complemented me a number of times about how I was dressed, how intelligent I am, etc. Having this attraction, made me to look forward to go to work and I would not mind working on weekend because I would be with him.”

Psychometrist- Financial Consulting.

6.4.10 Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on Morale

The perceived effect of sexual attraction in the workplace on workplace energy or morale is also an important consideration within the context of the present research. Morale in this context looked at the individual, peer-peer relationships, the group and the organisation as a whole. Effects on the workgroup were explored as a separate construct, but findings of which could be linked with the morale construct upon further analysis and interpretation. The concept and perception of sexual attractions effects on morale was substantially negative in light of the respondents results presented in Chapter Five. The vast majority of respondents indicated that they felt that sexual attraction does have an effect on organisational morale. In alignment with other research findings, respondents indicated that they perceived hierarchical workplace attraction to have a negative effect on co-worker morale (Pierce et al., 1996; Loftus, 1995). In conjunction therewith, over 87 percent of respondents felt that superior-subordinate workplace attraction has more negative consequences for the organisation than peer-peer or same level attraction relationships have. Follow up or clarifying questions on this construct are needed however, as one respondent answered in their open ended section:

“I have worked in a company where there was a relationship (sexual we all believe it was) and it had a very negative impact on the whole organisation and staff motivation. It was between a senior board member and senior employee and was perceived as ugly and filthy and a lot of people were hurt. Therefore I have strong opinions on this matter.”

Business Analyst- Public Sector Consulting.

“I have seen that a superior having an affair with a normal office colleague gets away with everything, namely: higher salaries; promoted faster; they cant do anything wrong; tells his/her lover everything going on in the office (even if needed tell lies or stab a colleague in the back); colleagues then tend to “hate” that person(s) in love affair.”

Executive Secretary – Transportation.

The above comment has relevance with another item on the PPESAI, with respondents being divided with regards to whether or not sexual attraction between individuals’ results on more favourable outcomes for said individuals involved in the dynamic. This could be dependent on organisation specific situations or the group itself, the influence of one of the involved parties on the rewards and outcomes for the other is also an influencing factor herein. In addition the negative effect of sexual attraction on self esteem due to reward and recognition was perceived by the majority of respondents. Therefore, respondents felt that should an individual be aware of sexual attraction between themselves and a superior or influential colleague, they may have negatively affected self esteem should they be rewarded and are subsequently unsure of the basis, motivation or justification thereof. The below comment refers.

“Superior sub-ordinate relationships should be monitored if the superior is the person reviewing the performance if the sub-ordinate as this will create a biased opinion”

Auditor – Financial Consulting.

6.4.11 Perceived Sexual Harassment

The perception of sexual harassment in the workplace is a linked phenomenon in the current study. The majority of respondents were inclined to feel that sexual harassment is an important organisational issue, yet the effects of sexual attraction thereupon may not be as negative as one might have thought. The emphasis placed on sexual harassment in the workplace was not considered by most respondents to be in excess, thus they felt that it deserves the attention and focus that it does get. Only a fifth or 21 percent of respondents indicated that they did not feel that sexual attraction could form the basis of sexual harassment in an organisation. Subsequently it would appear that sexual attraction needs to be managed in some way in order to prevent it progressing to the extreme of sexual harassment.

The perceived ability of individuals and employees to be sexually attracted to one another without sexual harassment becoming an issue was also uncovered in the present study. Findings suggest that most respondents felt that it was possible for co-workers to be “more than fiends but less than lovers”. In keeping with this possibility, over 70 percent of

respondents indicated that they felt that employees are able to draw the line themselves between sexual attraction and the progression for sexual harassment. This is also evidenced in a later construct, with regards to the role of management in regulating sexual attraction, with most respondents indicating that they felt it was the individuals' responsibility to do so. In addition, nearly 80 percent felt that two parties could be attracted to each other without one party taking it too far. Therefore, whilst sexual attraction is perceived to be a possible precursor to sexual harassment by most respondents, the vast majority felt that the individual employees involved would have the will power or sense to not progress to that level. Therefore, sexual attraction in the workplace does not always have to lead to harassment, dependent on the maturity or moral framework of the employees concerned.

It is well understood that males and females have different perceptions and attributions of socio-sexual behaviour in the workplace and have a broader definition and conceptual framework of what constitutes sexual harassment than their male counterparts do. The relationship between gender and perceptions of sexual attraction were also highlighted in the present study. Significant moderate differences were observed with regards to a respondent's experience of sexual attraction to a colleague and the perceived effects thereof upon sexual harassment, with positive statistics being observed. This indicates that respondents whom had not reported being personally sexually attracted to a colleague before were more likely to perceive sexual attraction as having positive effects on sexual harassment. Therefore respondents whom had prior sexual attraction experiences with their colleagues had lower mean scores than their counterparts whom had not reported previous sexual attraction to a colleague. Therefore, individuals whom had been attracted to a colleague before were more likely to perceive sexual harassment occurring due to sexual attraction. This could have been as a result of their personal experience of this dynamic in the workplace and the potential for sexual attraction to "turn sour" and degenerate to sexual harassment. Aligned with this was the finding of a significant, positive relationship between the experience of a workplace rendezvous and sexual harassment. A decrease in the perceived positive effects of sexual attraction in the workplace and subsequently on sexual harassment was associated with individuals whom had previously been involved in a workplace rendezvous. Therefore, individuals whom had in fact engaged in a workplace rendezvous did not feel that sexual attraction had to progress to or have negative effects on the perceived experience of sexual harassment in the workplace.

Whilst no significant relationship was found between a respondents' marital status and the perceived effects of sexual attraction on levels of sexual harassment, a significant negative relationship was found between the length of a respondent's marriage and this construct. Therefore, as the length of a respondent's marriage increased they were more inclined to report perceived negative effects of sexual attraction on sexual harassment. This was

confirmed in the inferential statistics conducted which revealed a significant difference in marriage length groups created. Respondents whom had been married for 18 years or more had the highest mean score. This result could also be partially influenced by the age of respondents, in combination with the length of their marriage and commitment to their partner.

6.4.12 Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on the Individual

The individual themselves involved in sexual attraction workplace dynamics is a primary area of focus in the present study. Respondents generally perceived the effects of sexual attraction on the individual involved to be fairly positive in nature in light of the limited aspects of this area assessed by the PPESAI. A slight inclination existed amongst respondents to perceive that sexual attraction allowed individuals to experience the characteristics associated with any deep meaningful friendship. This is aligned with Heinrich's (1991) findings with regards to feelings of caring and empathy associated with friendship and sexual attraction occurrences. This division amongst respondents could be explained by the findings of Monsour et al (1994) wherein some individuals are concerned by sexual attraction and worry it will ruin a friendship or working relationship whereas others enjoy it and describe it as adding zest to their relationship. The working relationship and potential of sexual attraction to unleash mental energy which might not otherwise have been unleashed was perceived to occur by slightly over half of the respondents in the present study. Those in slight disagreement need to be evaluated within context; perhaps this perception exists ever so finely within these respondents as they were unsure about the situation in which some people may work and if it is possible to direct energy such as sexual attraction elsewhere. In general, most respondents do acknowledge the possibility of release of untapped energy as a result of sexual attraction, which has concomitant positive effects on the individual involved according to Eyler and Barindon (1992).

Interestingly, slightly more respondents, namely 64 percent thereof, indicated that they felt sexual attraction would result in a greater release of physical energy than could otherwise occur in the workplace. Thus sexual attraction is perceived as possibly having greater physical, tangible affects as opposed to the more emotional and mental potential capacity proposed by various authors. This could be a product of organisational culture and individuals beliefs and perceptions about sex and sexual attraction. Moreover, just over half of the respondents' indicated that they felt that the energy released by sexual attraction can in fact be sublimated into the task at hand, namely the individuals work, which concurs with findings and theories postulated by Eyler and Barindon (1991, 1992, 1992a). This has the potential for many positive individual and organisational benefits. The potential for sexual attraction to incite excitement in individuals involved was perceived to occur by the

substantial majority of respondents, with just under 90 percent of respondents indicating that they felt that individuals involved in sexual attraction workplace dynamics would find it exciting. This confirms findings by Eyer and Barindon (1992a).

Inferential statistics revealed significant moderate to large differences between respondents whom reported prior sexual attraction to a colleague and those that had not, with the latter having substantially lower mean scores on this construct. This relationship reveals that respondents felt that positive effects or benefits of sexual attraction on the individual concerned was more likely to occur if they themselves had been previously sexually attracted to a colleague.

This was mirrored in the relevant inferential statistics, with a moderate difference in mean scores being found between married and unmarried respondents. This therefore revealed that unmarried respondents were likely to report positive effects or benefits of sexual attraction on or for the individual involved in this workplace dynamic. Further analysis revealed that significant differences existed with regards to relationship status and this construct with respondents whom were in a relationship having the highest mean score, followed by those whom were dating and then single individuals with married respondents having the lowest mean score. It would thus appear that marriage has the most significant effect on the perception of positive effects of sexual attraction on various aspects of organisational dynamics assessed, not only inclusive of the perceived effects on the individual. Respondents whom were in a relationship might be able to appreciate the possible positive effects of sexual attraction without the consideration of potential negative effects to the extent that their married colleagues might.

Moreover moderate significant differences were observed between age groups and the perceived effects of sexual attraction on the individuals involved. Respondents between the ages of 25 to 27 had the highest mean score in this regard, which differed substantially from respondents between the ages of 28 to 35. Therefore, slightly younger respondents were more inclined to perceive sexual attraction to have positive effects on the individual. This finding is aligned with results observed on other constructs and the interpretation thereof.

6.4.13 Perceived Effect of Sexual Attraction on the Work Group

A specific scale assessing the some aspects of the effects of sexual attraction on the workgroup existed in the PPESAI, with the result indicating that most respondents perceive sexual attraction to have more of a negative effect on the workgroup surrounding the sexually attracted individuals. This was also slightly more so the case for older respondents with a slight negative correlation between age and this construct being observed. In excess

of 87 percent of respondents felt that the presence of sexual attraction amongst employees places their co-workers under stress. In addition thereto, most respondents indicated that they felt that a workgroup could resort to acts of retaliation against group members whom were sexually attracted to one another. Types of retaliation that may be resorted could be found in the works of Quinn and Lees (1984) including sabotage, gossip, resignation and attempts to undermine the group members involved in sexual attraction. Another negative effect perceived by approximately 65 percent of respondents is the effect of slower decision making occurring in a work group as a result of sexual attraction amongst its members. The perceived effect of impeded decision making has organisational implications in terms of effectiveness and remaining competitive and this potential negative effects reported in this study concurs with the body of available research (Quinn, 1977; Mainiero, 1986; Leonard, 2001; Dillard et al, 1994). However, just over half of the respondent group indicated that they felt a sexually energized, yet strictly professional working relationship can have positive effects on a workgroup. This is slightly aligned with the research findings available in the body of literature wherein a group can in fact initially tolerate and even approve of sexual attraction in the workplace, with 60 percent of individuals tolerating it more so than approving of it (Quinn, 1977; Quinn & Lees 1984).

The extent to which this sexually energized workgroup is strictly professional or perceived to be so, could have possibly had an effect on the perception of damage to a group or units reputation as a result of sexual attraction in the workplace. The substantial majority of respondents indicated that they perceived such an image to be damaged by sexual attraction amongst group members. This could be due to the behaviour of the individuals involved as well as group or organisational culture which frowns upon sexually liberal behaviour in the workplace. Impeded group image could in turn affect the relationship and co-operation that the group receives from other units or departments, thereby possibly impeding interdepartmental co-operation and communication. This theory is put forward and partially confirmed by this study in the works of various authors on the topic (Quinn, 1977; Mainiero, 1986; Leonard, 2001; Dillard et al, 1994). An interesting comment made by a respondent refers.

“From personal experience, the persons who have a sexual attraction do cause major problems in the workplace as colleagues are faced with either ignoring, playing dumb or covering up (especially if one or more people who are sexually attracted are married). Thus the colleagues feel that they are lying or damaging a family. This puts a lot of stress on colleagues. Once the sexual attracted couple cools off there is an uneasy air in the workplace. Usually one of the people leaves. On the other hand, if a person ends the relationship, the other can feel offended and thus call for a sexual harassment case. This also causes problems in the workplace for colleagues.”

Teacher- Education

In addition to these descriptive results, a small significant difference in mean scores for respondents' marital status was found, with unmarried respondents having slightly higher mean scores with regards to the perceived effect on a workgroup. These results indicate that married respondents were less likely to report higher levels of perceived positive effects of sexual attraction on a workgroup. It is important to note, that in spite of this observation, the mean scores observed were still fairly low, indicating that whilst marital status may have a role to play in the perception of sexual attraction on a workgroup, other factors are at play.

6.4.14 Perceived Motives

The effect of sexual attraction on the workgroup can be influenced by the perceived motives underlying sexual attraction between co-workers, as evidenced in the body of literature (Dillard et al, 1994). Whilst motives underlying sexual; attraction could not be adequately explored by the PPESAI, and as such is highlighted as an area for further research in South Africa, the effects of some select sexual attraction motives were analysed. The majority of respondents found that the perceived motives assessed by the PPESAI had a negative effect on the organisation, workgroup or individuals involved. Moreover, the presence or occurrence of these motives was not perceived by all respondents.

The majority of respondents felt that the desire for long term friendship did not inspire or motivate the need for or occurrence of sexual attraction in the workplace and even less felt that the need for genuine commitment was a motive for sexual attraction in the workplace. Instead the influence of financial motives was recognised as having a highly negative effect on an organisation by the majority of respondents. This finding concurs with the available research on motive underlying sexual attraction in the workplace (Anderson and Hunsaker, 1985; Pierce and Aguinis, 2001; Mainiero, 1986; Quinn, 1977) with the majority of these authors stating that the perception behind an individuals motives for sexual attraction plays a substantial role in the effects of this sexual attraction dynamic on the workgroup and organisation. Therefore should, power or financial motives be perceived by members of a workgroup, management or leadership should attend to this issue before it becomes a problem in terms of group morale, productivity and communication. This perception is evident by some of the open ended comments made by respondents. These comments are presented here below.

"I feel that the desire for association with powerful people is the motive behind most sexual relationships within a workplace."

Financial Tester- Financial Consulting

"In my experience colleagues use sexual attraction to further their careers."

Marketing Consultant – Transportation

Another motive found in the literature was the need for excitement, with the majority of respondents indicating that they felt that the need for excitement was the foundation for sexual attraction in the workplace. The experience of excitement as a result of sexual attraction was mentioned by numerous respondents in their open ended comments. In addition the experience of excitement as a motive for attraction is echoed in the works of various authors on the subject (Anderson and Hunsaker, 1985; Pierce and Aguinis, 2001; Mainiero, 1986; Quinn, 1977). This could be a consequence of the satisfaction that individuals have in their own personal lives outside of the work environment, whether they are happily married or not or if they are single. A respondents' marital status was found to have an influence on reported perceptions of this construct, with small significant difference in the mean scores of married and unmarried respondents being observed. Unmarried respondents had higher scores on average for this construct. Therefore, married respondents were less likely to report higher levels of perceived positive effects of motives underlying sexual attraction in the workplace. This is confirmed in some of the comments made by respondents.

“It all depends on where you are, what space you are at. If you are in a loving relationship than workplace attraction is sort of ruled out or if it does happen then there are other factors to consider.”

Administrative Support – Public Sector Consulting

“I reckon a person's satisfaction with their personal relationships outside the organisation will have significant influence on their tendency to seek and form sexual relationships with individuals within the organisation, mainly because the opportunity exists.”

Talent Manager – Telecommunications.

6.4.15 Perceived Role of Management

Now that all the findings have been laid out, save for one construct, one might wonder as to the perceived role of management in regulating sexual attraction in the workplace. All of the findings herein have implications for management and the potential emergence of sexual attraction as a diversity management issue. This was the last scale of the PPESAI and findings reveal that respondents in general feel that management has some form of role to play in the regulation of this workplace dynamic. However, the vast majority of respondents felt that it was the responsibility of the individual employee to manage their own sexual attraction in the workplace. One respondent made the following statement:

“The management of workplace attraction is up to you (the individual)”

After Sales Support Manager – Transportation

Another individual added to this perception by stating the following:

“As long as we have diverse working environments, tension and attraction will be part of that environment. The question is therefore not whether it exists, but how we manage it. Due to the fact that human beings are created male and female, sexual tension and attraction is “part of the beast”. Management policies, skills and techniques as well as self-discipline provide us with the tools to manage those tensions and attractions. In my experience, uncontrolled and unmanaged sexual tension and attraction in the workplace is always negative and destructive. It is never about the tasks at hand and in very few instances about the other person, but is usually about pure, unadulterated lust.”

Institutional and Management Specialist – Public Sector Consulting.

This statement is aligned with literature on management involvement in the regulation of sexual dynamics in the workplace. This is particularly true with regards to the concern with the control of sexuality and intimacy in the workplace, primarily do to financial and public relations implications resulting from sexual harassment cases (Hurley, 1996). Research findings of the present study also reveal that approximately 58 percent of respondents felt that organisations need to manage sexual attraction in the workplace. In addition, in excess of 66 percent of respondents felt that policies should in fact exist and be put in place to manage sexual attraction in the workplace. Moreover slightly fewer than 60 percent of respondents felt that the management of sexual attraction in the workplace could have positive organisational benefits. It is clear that some policies do need to be put in place to manage sexual attraction in the workplace yet they should not be so restrictive as to alienate the workforce from the organisation itself and each other. The perception of individual responsibility and maturity in managing the sexual attraction situation as a means to achieve positive benefits in the organisation is expanded upon in the following comment:

“I think the consequences of sexual attraction in the workplace will remain positive as long as the two parties are mature enough to control the situation. If the parties are not mature about their attraction it might lead serious distraction and possible mistakes/errors. The working situation might also become complicated when the parties get involved into personal fights etc. It is important to remain professional at all times.”

Human Resources Manager – Education

Evidently respondents indicated that whilst the onus is upon the individual to manage sexual attraction, management needs to be aware of the potential consequence, benefits and challenges of sexual attraction in the workplace. Moreover, the perception exists that management of this phenomenon should take place to some extent. This is particularly true

amongst female respondents in the present study, with a significant differences being observed between the genders and the perceived role of management. Therefore female employees are substantially more inclined than their male counterparts to have felt that management needs to play more of a role in regulating, controlling or managing sexual attraction in the workplace. This may be because of social and cultural beliefs held by women and men. Moreover, females may have felt that sexual attraction is potentially threatening or unnerving for them. This is confirmed by the statement made by one respondent namely:

“I personally feel that people that are sexually attracted to their co-workers make working difficult ‘cause as a lady you can’t concentrate well while you know someone is attracted to you.”

Brand Image Trainee – Transportation

Moreover, respondents whom had longer marriages were more inclined to report that they felt that management should have more of a role to play in the regulation of sexual attraction as an organisational dynamic. This was evident by the positive, significant correlation found between marriage length and the perceived role of management.

Inferential statistics revealed a large significant difference between various age groups and the perceived role of management in regulating sexual attraction. Respondents whom were either 24 or younger had substantially lower mean scores on this construct than did respondents between the ages of 36 to 45, whom had the highest mean score in this regard. Therefore results indicate that young individuals are inclined to feel that management does not have as significant a role to play in regulating sexual attraction as their older colleagues. This is an important consideration for management to hold in cognisance when managing these types of workplace dynamics and the anticipated resistance or reaction of employees of various ages to the possible regulation of sexual attraction in the workplace.

A model with regards to the management of sexual attraction would need to be developed and tested in this regard. This is therefore an area for further research to take place. The management of this phenomenon should be evaluated within the context of the diversity framework, in that it should be more of an active occurrence aimed at directing differences or diversity that individuals bring into an organisation in such a manner as to effectively reach organisational strategic goals. This concept is aligned with Friday and Friday’s (2003) definition of diversity management.

6.5 Consequences and Implications of Findings for Human Resources Management

*"Work is fundamentally one of the sexiest things that people can do together," Eyer says, "and it's high time we started taking advantage of all that energy in some constructive way."
(Fisher, 1994)*

The results of the study reveal that sexual attraction is a highly prevalent organisational condition which is perceived to have both positive and negative implications for organisations and their employees. It is also clear that South African organisations may not be as "sexually liberal" as their American or Western counterparts. Therefore, whilst sexual attraction may be acknowledged by some employees the extent to which they desire it to become an area of management attention is uncertain and requires further research. The wish for something such as sexual attraction to be made more public was however, not the primary focus of this study. Instead it is clear that the prevalence and the perceived effects thereof abound. This alone incites the necessity of further exploration into the effects and management of sexual attraction in the workplace. Particular implications are discussed hereunder.

6.5.1 Role of Senior Management

Management needs to take cognisance of the prevalence and effects of sexual attraction amongst its employees and business units. It is clear that sexual attraction is inevitable, yet the extent of management intervention into control of this phenomenon is specific to the situation in which the phenomenon arises. Findings clearly indicate that most individuals want some form of management involvement in the regulation of sexual attraction in the workplace. Particular attention should be paid to the type of culture that management instills in its employees. This also applies to leaders of groups or teams in the organisation.

Whilst the study of the effect of organisational culture could not be controlled for due to the snowball sampling utilised, most respondents indicated that organisational culture would have an effect on the prevalence of sexual attraction. It could be inferred therefore, that the level of tolerance towards sexual attraction would be established by the leadership or management of a particular group. To expand, should employees observe the behaviour of their leaders and the acceptance thereof by their team members this could lead to the perception of condoning of this type of behaviour and the subsequent proliferation of the behaviour in question. This would be the typical "lead by example" adage that most should be familiar with.

The introduction of sexual attraction management in the workplace would in fact be instituting some form of organisational change and therefore could be classified as a change initiative,

with the need for management principles and methodologies to ensure the acceptance thereof and cooperation of employees. Moreover, should employees feel that too many restraints and conditions are placed upon them to the extent of regulating their personal feelings towards others this could have negative consequences and dissatisfaction amongst the workforce. This could lead to employees feeling a need for change with the status quo. Should these pressures reach a threshold level employees may move to challenge or alter this status quo (Cunningham 2002 in Cunningham, 2008). According to Greenwood and Hinings (1996 in Cunningham, 2008), should employees be dissatisfied with the status quo created or in place they could resort to one of four potential value commitments with respect to the organisation in question and its management. Employees could choose to remain content with the status quo and find managements approach towards sexual attraction acceptable. Alternatively they could express indifference or could even become competitive with some groups of individuals supporting change and others not. This has potential implications for management as should the support for sexual attraction management in the workplace occur in a manner that undermines or suppresses sexuality, other employees could retaliate and could create an “us versus them” mentality in the organisation. The last value commitment posed is reformative in nature, where all employees express their dissatisfaction with the status quo. This could mean that employees could be dissatisfied with how sexual attraction has been managed in the past and seek means to address this. Due to the nature of sexual attraction in the workplace, and the still rife perception of it as somewhat taboo it is unlikely that any efforts to bring about change from employees will be visible or tangible actions, such as protesting or speaking to ones manager, laying complaints and so on. It is more likely that the reaction would be more subconscious or subtle, difficult to monitor and could potentially have very negative effects if the behaviours carried out by employees are frowned upon by the organisation or are unwanted by other employees.

In addition, whilst individuals may wish for management to become involved in the regulation of sexual attraction this involvement should not be to the stifling of sexual identity of employees in question. Findings reveal that most individuals feel that the onus is on the individual employee to manage their sexual attraction towards colleagues and it could be inferred that they did not wish for management to “poke their noses where they do not belong” so to speak. That said, the majority of individuals indicate that sexual attraction could lead to sexual harassment, of which there is a very high need for management involvement and regulation. Therefore, management should be aware of sexual attraction occurring and monitor it on more of an informal basis to ensure it does not progress to a potentially negative and harmful situation.

6.5.2 Human Resources and Diversity Management and Policy

Specific organisational conditions need to be taken into consideration when determining particular Human Resource Policy with regards to the development of sexual attraction management. Friday and Friday (2003) state that the change necessary for and stimulated by diversity should be enacted through a planned change diversity strategy devised prior to implementing diversity initiatives. The rationale behind this being to ensure alignment between the organisations strategic goals and diversity initiatives thereby ensuring that diversity becomes imbedded in organisational culture and practices.

The current study revealed that individuals feel that the increase in diversity of the workforce has created more opportunities for sexual attraction to occur. Moreover, significant differences were found between various age groups and their perceptions of the effects of sexual attraction. Age diversity in and of itself is a complicated diversity management field. In addition, gender differences and relationships between gender and various constructs were also found in the present study. Not excluding an individual's marital status and relationship categorisation in which they were currently aligned with. All of these aspects of the individuals involved in the study are sub-components of the diversity management framework. Whilst particular industry and profession differences could not be ascertained, it is postulated that differences would exist between different occupational groups and organisations with regards to perceived prevalence and effects of sexual attraction. This is an area obviously for further research; however should the definition of diversity as "all the ways in which people differ" be adopted herein, it is clear that sexual attraction is at the very least a management area as a result of or tangent to diversity within and amongst the workforce.

Diversity can have both positive and negative impacts on employee and organisational performance. The trick lies in how to harness and leverage the differences between people and to celebrate the benefits associated with sexual attraction in the workplace. (Hayles and Russell, 1997; Neck, Smith, and Godwin, 1997). Diversity management programmes include efforts to celebrate, value, and support the differences and uniqueness among an organisation's employees. In general, diversity management programmes fall into two categories: organisational models and individual-group models (Hayles and Russell, 1997; Neck et al., 1997).

When evaluating the results of the present study it is clear that sexual attraction has individual, group and organisational effects. Whilst the development of a management model for sexual attraction in the workplace was beyond the scope of the study, some areas of

recommendation can be made with regards to the development of potential model, with individual implications following in the next section.

It is important to note however that culture shapes sexual beings, and what is perceived as normal, natural, true, good, bad, right, or wrong is connected to culture-and-organisation-specific norms, rules, values, and expectancies (Heinrich, 1991; Pierce et al., 1996; Traeen, Stigum and Sorensen, 2002). Thus, an organisational model could also be proposed as it is essential for organisations to understand sexuality in their particular organisation and support attempts to alleviate or eliminate those behaviours which have negative outcomes (Hurley, 1996). Organisations will never be able to rid themselves of sexuality as human beings are sexual and consequently so are the places where they work. Organisations should achieve a better understanding of the pleasures and the perils of sexuality at work in order to be able to enjoy the benefits and energy generated by sexual attraction in the workplace (Schultz, 2003; Williams et al, 1999). Pierce et al. (1996) and Heinrich (1991) state that in order for the organisation to effectively manage sexuality at work, they need a more precise understanding of how sexual attraction develops, and the resulting implications they have with respect to organisational behaviour and functioning and how sexual energy and attraction are negotiated in organisations. An organisation culture entails the attitudes, values, beliefs, ideologies, norms and standards that develop, and it is therefore important that employees are guided by the culture as to which employee behaviours are deemed appropriate, which behaviour falls within the South African legislation, thus influencing the formation of sexual attraction in the workplace (Pierce et al, 1996).

In light of the high levels of perceived prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace, it is recommended that organisations interested in managing sexual attraction possibly consider conducting an organisation wide sexual culture audit of sorts to determine the status quo within their own ranks. The results from this analysis will form the basis of all diversity programmes conducted in the organisation. An asexual culture can be very alienating to numerous employees according to Sunoo (2000), especially with a large single workforce (about 50 percent of employees). However, cultural change is a very tedious process which should be considered with great care.

Once a greater understanding of organisation specific sexuality is gained various programmes could be instituted at an organisation wide level with regards to sexual attraction. Examples of these types of programmes could include gender sensitive advisement, wherein Sexual attraction sensitivity is best demonstrated by awareness, compassion, and positive response to gender role conflicts, and when people are able to treat each other as human beings, rather than carriers of gender personas (Heinrich, 1991).

It is important that the organisation and management recognise that the roles of males and females have changed and are continuing to evolve, becoming more egalitarian and the increasing opportunities that the workplace presents for the development of some or other intimate interaction with co-workers (Eyler and Baridon, 1992b). The re-establishment of new taboos is another potential area of consideration, particularly in light of the findings of the present study in line with the attitudes, values, beliefs, ideologies, norms and standards of the current organisation culture regarding sexuality in the workplace. Different organisations have different cultures because of the diverse individuals comprising their workforce and the perceptions that they have towards sexual attraction. Men and women can work together with their sexuality introducing a certain excitement and energy to work. Sexual attraction can be negotiated or navigated within an organisation by allowing employees to realise that there is nothing to be afraid of with regards to the sexual dynamic that they may be experiencing or observing between others. Instead this fear could be translated into sensitivity, friendliness and sexual energy.

The findings of the study reveal that in most cases individuals do feel that sexual attraction can have positive effects on individuals and organisations; particularly should these individuals have experienced sexual attraction themselves. This indicates that a fear of the unknown primarily drives negative perceptions and fears surrounding sexual attraction in the workplace. Moreover, flirting can be safe and fun, by having Human Resources define the parameters of fun and responsibility flirting can be seen to be a communication tool, a way to establish rapport amongst team members as well as a way of building ones self-esteem and those of others; whilst taking care to avoid sexual innuendos and behaviour (Sunoo, 2001). Taboos could lend to a sense of safety to cross-gender relationships by clarifying relational boundaries so that power and sexual energy can enhance the intellectual endeavour (Heinrich, 1991).

South African workforces are extremely diverse, and whilst most individuals felt that diversity is being managed in organisations, the extent to which sexual diversity and all that this encompasses is managed effectively is questionable. The findings of the present study reveal that established precursors of sexual attraction ring true in the South African context, including proximity effects, amount of time employees spend together, organisation as filtering function and the possibility of sexual harassment occurring. This would necessitate the creative management, honouring and valuing of diversity in the workforce.

6.5.3 Employee Level Implications

“...we, as humans, uniquely have an ability to draw up guidelines that let us rise above biological imprinting and enjoy our dissimilarities more broadly in our lives. Defining and implementing those guidelines for having a sexually stimulating relationship without sex is the object of becoming more than friends and remaining less than lovers.”

(Eyler and Baridon, 1992a)

The perceived effects of sexual attraction on the employee and as a result of sexual attraction were numerous in both positive and negative spheres of influence. Areas of workplace behaviour and indicators of effectiveness of both organisations and employees perceived to be positively affected as a result of sexual attraction included productivity; slightly improved job satisfaction and job involvement and the individual involved in sexual attraction dynamics or relationships was perceived to be positively affected by sexual attraction in general. Very interestingly, respondents whom had in fact experienced sexual attraction to a colleague or had engaged in a workplace rendezvous before were far more likely to perceive the effects of sexual attraction as being positive. In light of this, and from their personal experience, it could be assumed that the benefits for the individuals' involved in a workplace sexual dynamic are positive overall.

The other side of the coin revealed that sexual attraction was also negatively perceived in terms of some organisational indicators including communication, an inclination to perceive a negative effect on job performance; morale in general, the effect of sexual attraction on the workgroup and sexual harassment. As a result it is evident that sexual attraction is an issue for each individual to be aware of and engage in some form of self monitoring thereof as it could potentially affect specific indicators which could reflect positively or negatively upon them. This could in turn have a potential ripple effect on the individuals' performance appraisal and concomitant salary adjustments bonuses or incentives. Should employees positively leverage sexual attraction in the workplace it could have positive effects on the aforementioned areas of their performance management; however if the inverse is true of them sexual attraction could impede their performance and create the perception of being sexually predatory. This could affect ones social relationships at work, as well as the image or reputation of an individual concerned. It is also important to consider the effects of ones behaviour on others, particularly morale, communication and negative effects and stressors placed on ones workgroup. These factors could create a negative working environment which could be counterproductive and potentially “saboteur” in nature towards the individual concerned.

The starting point for any organisational intervention is the individual themselves, particularly with any change initiative such as introducing a diversity management policy including sexual

attraction monitoring and regulation. The results of the study clearly reveal that individuals feel that it is up to the employee themselves to regulate sexual attraction. A general feeling was that whilst sexual attraction was inevitable, acting upon it was not. As such the individual employee should take cognisance of their own sexuality and feelings of attraction towards their colleagues and the potential effects of sexual attraction on themselves and their team members. If managing diversity means enabling every member of one's work force to perform to his or her potential, then all employees must work independently and collectively towards this end (Ivancevich and Gilbert, 2000). Sexual attraction is a very sensitive issue, and one that has to be dealt with in all aspects of life. It is important that individuals will be able to handle these issues in the workplace, but that they also have the intrinsic skills to handle it in their personal lives.

In light of the responses obtained it is suggested that self-management of one's mental processes and how to incorporate it into those relationships that require working intimately and closely together with another should be the foundation of the individual management of sexual attraction (Eyler and Baridon, 1992; Neck et al., 1997). Ultimately male-female friendships are not just a possibility anymore; they are increasingly becoming a necessity (Chatterjee, 2001). The focus should be for employees to establish and maintain constructive, desirable thought patterns. Individuals within the organisation should accept personal responsibility, be held accountable, and embark on personal journeys of their own. This includes self exploration with regards to sexuality and sexual attraction in the workplace and then progressing to the personal evaluation of one's own stance towards accepting, respecting and valuing differences in others as a result of diversity. Research suggests that individuals embarking on this personal exploration journey with regards to diversity management should outline specific action plans to deal with their own findings about personal sexual feelings and findings. This is suggested to include setting of personal boundaries with others and within oneself; conscious management and resolution of sexual attraction issues; engage in open discussion to clarify misunderstandings and misinterpretations (which could lead to sexual harassment misconceptions) and institute cooling off periods for individuals to step back and evaluate the situation (Eyler and Baridon, 1992a; Hayles and Russell, 1997).

6.6 Limitations of Study

The current study was not without its limitations, particularly arising out of the research design and due to the nature of the research topic at hand. Particular areas for future research and replication of results purposes would include the type of sampling strategy used. Whilst the researcher was justified in the sampling strategy employed for the purpose of the present research, the effects of various extraneous variables could not be controlled

for due to snowball sampling being employed. This was attempted to be minimised by random sampling of particular business units and thereafter engaging in snowball sampling; however the type of industry and occupation of respondents could have had an influence on their responses and results. This is a particular consideration in light of the possible impact of organisational cultures well as the different personality types of individual respondents.

Moreover, as this was the first empirical study of its kind to the researchers' knowledge at the time of commencing this study in the South African context it was essentially exploratory and descriptive in nature. As such complex constructs were assessed at a high level through the utilisation of a custom designed instrument. It is highly possible that each construct comprising the PPESAI could in and of itself be an independent research area with regards to sexual attraction in the workplace. In addition, the questions of the PPESAI were designed to gain the perceptions of respondents as actual measurement of the effect of sexual attraction on these constructs could have been seen as potentially threatening. The extent to which these perceptions were in fact a true reflection of the reality is unclear as perceptions could be tainted or flawed as a result of various factors, including recency effects, personal positive or negative experiences with sexual attraction as well as simple misinterpretation of effects of sexual attraction based on their observations. Furthermore, accurate means of gaining this real life information (performance measures and so on) in line with actual sexual attraction experiences and the correlation thereof would have been highly problematic, yet is an area for future research to consider.

6.7 Conclusion

Employees are sexual beings; and therefore so is the place where they work, with the research revealing that sexual attraction is indeed a prevalent condition in South African organisations. Acknowledging this and the impact that sexual attraction has on an organisation is fraught with complexities. As is evidenced in the results of the study, there are numerous pros and cons to sexual attraction in the workplace, and whilst it was beyond the scope of this study cognisance must always be taken that the enjoyment of sexualized workplace interactions does not by any means preclude the possibility of unwanted and even dangerous outcomes. The findings of this study were exploratory and descriptive in nature and as such have identified numerous areas for further research to be conducted upon.

Fear of sexual harassment and litigation leads organisations to deal with sexual attraction in the workplace in a confining manner with most approaches by management being to control and restrict sexually oriented behaviours, which is something which is not always beneficial to either the employees or the organisation. This study also identified some consequences

and recommendations for the management of sexual attraction in the workplace; whilst fairly high level they revealed that the starting point for the management of sexual attraction is the individual themselves. However, sexual attraction needs to be brought out of the shadows of taboo by the organisation and into the collective organisational and individual consciousness to ensure that individuals begin to acknowledge and manage sexual attraction themselves, before management has to intervene in very sensitive and personal workplace dynamic.

Sexual attraction is an important diversity issue as it arises due to the heterogeneous characteristics of the modern workplace, combined with evolving role approaches and expectancies. That said, sexual attraction, as with any aspect of diversity represents the possibility for a wider variety of unbridled perspectives to be brought into the “organisational mix” that results in a potentially valuable resource which if properly harnessed and effectively managed, could be a source of a competitive advantage for an organisation.

Diversity, sexuality and sexual attraction are human dimensions which should be embraced and celebrated. This research document has provided a compelling case for sexual attraction as a diversity issue. As such it is unequivocally time to step out from behind the shadow of repression, anxiety and disregard for the innate humanity that lies within every employee in order to allow the celebrations to begin; in order to truly create the humane workplace that has, despite the best efforts of so many, remained an elusive concept.

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APPENDIX A: PPESAI Instrument

PPESAI

Perceived Prevalence and Effect of Sexual Attraction Inventory

Instructions

This questionnaire aims to determine the perceived prevalence and effect of sexual attraction in the workplace and consists of two sections:

- Section A: Biographical information; and
- Section B: Perceived Prevalence and Effect of Sexual Attraction in the South African Workplace

Please complete all the questions in each of the sections of the PPESAI as indicated in the example below.

This is not a test and as such there are no right or wrong answers.

Please answer honestly and truthfully. The PPESAI takes approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Questions in Section A are biographical in nature.

Questions in Section B are close ended and require you to answer along a 6 point scale where:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Slightly Disagree
- 4 = Slightly Agree
- 5 = Agree
- 6 = Strongly Agree

Please indicate your response for each question by placing a cross over the answer you most identify with.

An example is provided below:

	Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
Eg. I think that sexual attraction has a positive effect on job performance in an organisation	1	2	3	4	5 X	6

Thank you for taking the time to complete this questionnaire, we realise that your time is precious and appreciate your accommodating this process. Please note that confidentiality will be maintained and your responses will be treated as such.

Should you be interested in the results of this study please feel free to contact me

**PLEASE EMAIL YOUR COMPLETED QUESTIONNAIRE TO: clairem@africon.co.za
OR FAX TO : 086 666 5897**

BY THE 24th OF NOVEMBER 2008

**Any queries please contact the researcher at: 084 317 5434
012 427 2664**

Section A: Biographical Information

Please answer all questions in this section

Profession							
Age							
Gender	Male			Female			
Relationship Status	Single	Dating	In relationship (specify number of years):	Engaged	Married (specify number of years):	Divorced	Other: Please specify
I have been aware of sexual attraction occurring between colleagues				Yes		No	
I have been sexually attracted to a colleague before				Yes		No	
I have been involved in at least one workplace “rendezvous” in my life				Yes		No	

Section B: Perceived Prevalence and Effect of Sexual Attraction in the South African Workplace

Please give your honest response to all of the questions in this section. Your responses will be kept confidential

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1	I think that it is possible to have a sexually energized, but strictly working relationship	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	I feel that employees whom are attracted to their co-workers, willingly work longer hours	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	I feel that sexual attraction in the workplace is inevitable	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	Sexual attraction in the workplace enhances communication	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	Sexual attraction amongst colleagues may place their co-workers under stress	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
6	I have been aware of sexual attraction occurring between employees on different hierarchical levels in an organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I think that individuals experiencing workplace sexual attraction experience the characteristics associated with any deep friendship	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I think that employees whom are attracted to their co-workers experience greater work-life satisfaction	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	I think that employees in the workplace become sexually attracted to others out of a genuine desire for a long term relationship	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	I feel that far too much emphasis is placed on sexual harassment in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Colleagues become sexually attracted to each other out of a desire for excitement	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	Employees make more of an effort to understand each other because of sexual tension	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	Organisational culture will determine the prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I feel that the consequences of sexual attraction in the workplace depends on the relationship status of the employees	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	I think that a sexually energized, but strictly working relationship has a positive effect on a workgroup	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	Colleagues whom experience workplace attraction are likely to take more pleasure in their job	1	2	3	4	5	6
17	Job performance increases as a "more than friends, less than lovers" relationship between colleagues matures	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	When men and women work together the issue of sexual attraction is always present	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	A workgroup can resort to acts of retaliation towards team members whom are sexually attracted towards each other	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
20	Employees whom maintain a healthy balance between intimacy and distance can channel their energy into the task at hand	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	I think that colleagues whom are attracted to each other in the workplace will try and keep this attraction hidden from others	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	I think that if the attraction between co-workers is viewed as “adulterous,” this will place third party observers under an ethical dilemma	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	Distorted communication occurs when sexual attraction is present amongst employees	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	My productivity increases when I am attracted to a colleague	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I think that increased diversity in the workplace creates more opportunities for employees to become sexually attracted to one another	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I find colleagues whom are similar to myself attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I think that work becomes more of a central life interest for those co-workers whom are attracted to one another	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel that beauty truly is in the eye of the beholder	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	I think that sexual attraction does not have any effect on organisational morale	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I feel that employees whom are sexually attracted to others because of a high desire for increased power, have a negative effect on the colleagues surrounding them	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I think that one is more inclined to become attracted to a colleague whom one spends a lot of time with	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	Employees should take it upon themselves to manage workplace attraction	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	Increased interaction between colleagues, due to ongoing work requirements, can result in increased sexual attraction	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	Communication in work groups is negatively impacted by sexual attraction amongst group members	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
35	I think that sexual attraction could form the basis for sexual harassment in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	I think that employees in the workplace become sexually attracted to others out of a genuine desire for commitment	1	2	3	4	5	6
37	I think that sexual energy can be sublimated to the task at hand in the workplace (i.e. a persons job or project)	1	2	3	4	5	6
38	Organisations need to manage sexual attraction in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6
39	The stimulating effects of sexual attraction in the workplace results in increased productivity	1	2	3	4	5	6
40	I think that superior-subordinate workplace attraction has more negative consequences for morale than do peer-peer relationships	1	2	3	4	5	6
41	I feel that in order to impress co-workers they are attracted to, employees will show increased levels of involvement with their job	1	2	3	4	5	6
42	Decision making is a lot slower if elements of sexual attraction are present in a workgroup	1	2	3	4	5	6
43	I feel that hierarchical attraction negatively affects co-worker morale	1	2	3	4	5	6
44	I think that it is possible for co-workers to be “more than friends but less than lovers”	1	2	3	4	5	6
45	I have respect for the differences that diverse colleagues bring with them into the workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6
46	Anxiety provoking work situations increase the likelihood of sexual attraction amongst co-workers	1	2	3	4	5	6
47	I think that sexual attraction results in employees having mental energy which otherwise would not be unleashed	1	2	3	4	5	6
48	I think that employees can control how they let workplace sexual attraction affect them	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
49	Employees will gossip about perceived workplace sexual attraction between members of their workgroup	1	2	3	4	5	6
50	I have been aware of sexual attraction occurring between colleagues on the same level	1	2	3	4	5	6
51	Employees whom are sexually attracted to each other have a level of job satisfaction which they would not be able to otherwise experience	1	2	3	4	5	6
52	The attachment that an individual has to his/her job increases if he/she is sexually attracted to a co-worker	1	2	3	4	5	6
53	I think that there should be policies in place to manage workplace attraction	1	2	3	4	5	6
54	I recognise the differences in colleagues in a work setting	1	2	3	4	5	6
55	Sexual attraction between employees can have an effect of increasing work group productivity	1	2	3	4	5	6
56	I think that similar moral values between co-workers increases the likelihood of sexual attraction occurring between them	1	2	3	4	5	6
57	I think that employees are able to draw the line between sexual attraction and progressing to sexual harassment	1	2	3	4	5	6
58	Controlled, managed sexual attraction can have positive organisational benefits	1	2	3	4	5	6
59	The image or reputation of a unit is damaged by team relationships based on sexual attraction	1	2	3	4	5	6
60	Communication within work groups can improve if group members are sexually attracted to each other	1	2	3	4	5	6
61	Colleagues whom are sexually attracted to one another do not have to feel guilty	1	2	3	4	5	6
62	I think that job satisfaction increases when one is involved in a non-loving, intimate relationship with a colleague	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
63	I feel that sexual attraction positively affects job performance	1	2	3	4	5	6
64	I think that employees whom are sexually attracted to a colleague will find it exciting	1	2	3	4	5	6
65	I think that an employee involved in a sexually-charged relationship with a co-worker has a higher level of job performance	1	2	3	4	5	6
66	I think that employees whom have a workplace attraction relationship receive more favourable outcomes than do other team members	1	2	3	4	5	6
67	Sexual bantering helps employees to deal with the stressful nature of their jobs	1	2	3	4	5	6
68	I feel that job performance decreases in the beginning phases of sexual attraction	1	2	3	4	5	6
69	Employees with a "more than friends, less than lovers" relationship have enhanced productivity due to a desire to impress	1	2	3	4	5	6
70	I think that physical beauty is what makes a colleague attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6
71	I tend to ignore differences between colleagues and myself when dealing with diverse people	1	2	3	4	5	6
72	Intrinsic satisfaction with ones job increases with an experience of a sexual attraction in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6
73	I think that diversity in the workplace is effectively managed	1	2	3	4	5	6
74	Management needs to harness the motivational potential that workplace sexual attraction poses	1	2	3	4	5	6
75	I think that sexual attraction can cause employees to have increased levels of physical energy in the workplace	1	2	3	4	5	6
76	I have been aware of subtle changes in behaviour between employees whom were sexually attracted to one another	1	2	3	4	5	6
77	I think that if financial rewards underlie an individuals motivation for sexual attraction to a colleague, this has negative effects on an organisation	1	2	3	4	5	6

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Slightly Disagree	Slightly Agree	Agree	Strongly Agree
78	An employee's self esteem can be negatively affected if they do not know if their progress is due to their performance or because of another's' attraction towards them	1	2	3	4	5	6
79	I think it is possible for employees to be attracted to each other without one party "taking it too far"	1	2	3	4	5	6
80	Job involvement increases for employee's whom are sexually attracted to their co-workers due to a desire to increase opportunities to interact with each other	1	2	3	4	5	6

Other Comments

Should you have anything that you would like to add, clarify or make any comments on your personal experience of sexual attraction in the workplace please feel free to do so. Your input is highly valued.

APPENDIX B: Information Letter and Letter of Consent

Information Letter for Research Study on the Perceived Prevalence and Effect of Sexual Attraction in the South African Workplace

This letter serves to provide you with a background of the proposed study. It is important that you read through this letter to familiarise yourself with the purpose of the research so as to better inform your understanding as you answer the questionnaire.

Sexual attraction is commonplace in the work environment, having substantial effects on organisations and group dynamics through its affect on productivity and job satisfaction, amongst others. The aim of this study is to explore the perceived prevalence and effect of sexual attraction in the South African workplace and to begin establishing it as a potential diversity issue through an exploratory approach. Currently there is scant research on this topic, not only in South Africa but on a global scale as well. Preliminary research has revealed the importance and impact of sexual attraction in the workplace; this is indicative of a need to begin exploring this topic. The results of this exploratory study could contribute substantially to both academic and business spheres.

Due to the increasingly even distribution of the sexes in the workplace, gender issues often come to the fore. However, these issues usually pertain to the fields of women in the workplace and particularly, to the somewhat negative dynamic and issue sexual harassment. So much attention has been given to sexual orientation and sexual harassment that other aspects of the diverse myriad of human sexual interaction have been, for the most part, ignored (Williams, Giurffe and Dellinger, 1999).

Sexuality has for so long been frowned upon as taboo, as unprofessional and as something which should be stopped (Schultz, 2003; Clarke, 2006; Quinn & Lees, n.d). This has resulted in organisations attempting to “sanitize” the workplace, making it essentially asexual, and shutting down harmless sexual attraction between and amongst organisational members.

It is abundantly clear that the research on sexual attraction in the workplace is few and far between, with hardly any empirical studies having been conducted, which represents a substantial need for the proposed research. This represents a substantial need for the proposed study; in order to explore the basis of sexual attraction in the South African workplace; its prevalence and employees’ perceptions thereof.

Sexual attraction is an important diversity issue as it arises due to the heterogeneous characteristics of the modern workplace, combined with evolving role approaches and expectancies. That said, sexual attraction, (as with any aspect of diversity) represents the possibility for a wider variety of unbridled perspectives to be brought into the “organisational mix” that results in a potentially valuable resource which, if properly harnessed and effectively managed, could be a source of a competitive advantage for an organisation. However, this potential resource is currently unexplored and in order to realise the potential of sexual attraction in the South African workplace the perceived prevalence and effects thereof need to be uncovered.

Previous qualitative research has revealed that sexual attraction in the workplace has an affect on:

- *Productivity*
- *Communication*
- *Job Performance*
- *Job Satisfaction*
- *Stress*
- *Job Involvement*
- *Morale*
- *Sexual Harassment*
- *The individual and*
- *The workgroup*

The study will be employing a quantitative research method, with data being gathered through the distribution of questionnaires. The accumulated data will then be analysed with the intent of discovering general statistical themes and patterns, and a final report thereafter written to make the findings available to the public.

The researcher is readily available to address any concerns or attend to any queries you may have, please feel free to contact her.

Researcher: Claire Mortimer

Cellular phone number: 084 317 5434

Email address: clairem@africon.co.za

Letter of Consent

I the undersigned hereby give my informed consent to participate in the study on the perceived prevalence and effect of sexual attraction in the South African workplace. I have read and understand the information letter regarding the study and I realise that the purpose of this study is to explore the perceptions of South African employees regarding the prevalence of sexual attraction in the workplace as well as the effects thereof on various aspects of the working environment.

I understand that the study is exploratory and no judgements will be made about me as an individual and that only the researcher will have access to my results. I also understand that as a research participant utmost confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained and no results will be linked to me personally in any manner whatsoever. I realise that no records of personal details or identifying factors will be used in the analysis. In addition, neither individual results nor profiles will be examined in isolation and therefore no individual will be identified in the final report.

In line with this I understand that the data collected will only be used for the stated purpose of the research and that no personal information related to me will be discussed or shared with anyone without consent.

I hereby state that I have not been coerced into consenting to participate in this study by the researcher, any of her affiliates or by any aspect of the organisational setting in which the research is being conducted. I furthermore realise that I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time.

I realise that the results of this study will be made available to me by the researcher in question once I have personally contacted her or my relevant supervisor in this regard. I do however; understand that I will not be able to gain access to my individual results. Should I have any queries or concerns I am aware that the researcher, Claire Mortimer, is readily available should I wish to contact her via email (clairem@afriicon.co.za) or telephonically (084 317 5434)

Signature

Date

APPENDIX C: Correlational Statistics

**APPENDIX D: Independent Samples T-Test
Statistics and Mann-Whitney U Statistics**

**APPENDIX E: ANOVA and Kruskal Wallis
Statistics**