#Metoo, COVID-19, and the New Workplace:

Re-Examining Institutional Discrimination's Impact on Workplace Harassment of Expatriates Following Two Exogenous Shocks

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ABSTRACT

Purpose: Replication is essential to science for the purpose of 1) updating previously accepted knowledge and 2) testing the boundary conditions of this knowledge. Although Bader et al.'s (2018) impactful paper on gender harassment experienced by expatriates was only published five years ago, there have been two relevant exogenous shocks to the environment since they collected their data, making this study an excellent target for replication.

Study design/methodology/approach: Three-hundred ninety-one expatriates who were currently working in 79 different countries completed an electronic survey that included scales for gender harassment, ethnicity harassment, general stress, frustration, and job satisfaction. Data were analyzed using partial least-squares structural equation modeling (*PLS-SEM)* in Stata17.

Findings: Consistent with prior research, gender had a significant relationship with workplace gender harassment ($\beta=0.228, p<0.001$) such that males experienced lower levels of harassment than other expatriates. The relationship between race/ethnicity and experiences of ethnicity harassment was dependent upon model specification. Workplace harassment had a negative relationship with job satisfaction (*gender harassment*, $\beta=-0.114, p=0.030$; *ethnicity harassment;* $\beta=-0.146, p=0.002$) and a positive relationship with frustration (*gender harassment, $\beta=0.231$, p<0.001; ethnicity harassment, $\beta=0.213, p<0.001$*).

Originality: Using a larger, more diverse sample than that used in prior research, we were able to test the generalizability of accepted knowledge. While we replicated many findings identified in prior research, we failed to replicate the effects pertaining to the relationship between macro-

level variables and experiences of harassment. Given that macro-level variables play a key role in status construction theory, this research raises important questions for future work.

INTRODUCTION

While expatriate work assignments often provide excellent developmental opportunities, for female expatriates, they can also come with experiences of gender discrimination, such as expectations of retreat from conflict, experiencing sexist humor, and being demeaned by clients (Treleaven, 2016). Such situations create a conundrum for managers who want to provide equitable developmental opportunities without intentionally subjecting employees to a potentially hostile work environment. Recognizing this conundrum, Bader et al. (2018; hereafter referred to as BSBS) advised that limiting expatriate assignment opportunities for female employees was simply a reinforcement of the gender discrimination that managers would be attempting to shield them from. Instead, BSBS argued that organizations should adopt education plans designed to reduce harassment experienced by females in expatriate assignments.

BSBS's recommendations came in response to their own work that was grounded in status construction theory (Ridgeway, 1991). They used status construction theory to argue that in countries where gender was more strongly associated with status, female expatriates would experience higher levels of workplace gender harassment. In finding support for this argument, BSBS made an important contribution to the literature and identified a clear need for education on workplace harassment. While the novel nature of their research certainly impacted the strength of their contribution, it also provided an opportunity to test the boundary conditions of their findings. Additionally, there have been two major exogenous shocks since their data collection efforts that could impact the applicability of their findings. The current research seeks to replicate BSBS's work in a post-shock world within a sample with stronger female representation and greater diversity in terms of home and host countries. This research also explores the applicability of ethnicity harassment to BSBS's model.

Status construction theory

Status construction theory (SCT) posits that status is determined by a combination of institutional-level factors and individual-level factors. The institutional-level factors can be conceptualized as societal norms, whereas the individual-level factors can be thought of as the traits associated with the individual. The individual's traits are evaluated within the context of society's framework such that status is ascribed (Ridgeway, 1991). Status beliefs can be transmitted in such a way that they diffuse through society (Ridgeway and Balkwell, 1997; Ridgeway and Erickson, 2000).

BSBS built upon this theory in finding that female expatriates experienced greater levels of workplace gender harassment than male expatriates, but that this relationship was moderated by institutional gender discrimination as measured by the OECD Development Centre's (2014) Social Institutions and Gender Index (SIGI). Their data came from surveys that were completed by 160 expatriates in 25 different countries. They also found that harassment was positively associated with frustration and that both frustration and harassment had a negative relationship with job satisfaction. Their findings suggest that managers can positively influence employee outcomes by addressing status issues associated with institutional discrimination.

Status research in management has advanced since the publication of BSBS. In an international study, Van Noord et al. (2019) found that achieved education's effect on social status was linked to gender, but that the tie between these two status indicators was weaker in countries with higher overall levels of education. Status research has also shown a positive feedback loop in which attaining high status allowed one to continue increasing their status (Smirnova *et al.*, 2022). Furthermore, expatriates have reported a loss of social status attributable to their choice to immigrate permanently (Colakoglu *et al.*, 2018).

Research has also built upon SCT under the broader umbrella of status value and status characteristics theories. These theories focus on the micro-level components of SCT that pertain to individual status. A recent meta-analysis of the incivility literature found that some status signals (gender, race, rank, tenure) were related to experiences of incivility, but others (education) were not (Yao *et al.*, 2022). Melamed et al. (2019) explained racial differences in influence through the lens of perceived status. Recent status research has also shown that ascribed status (e.g., race and gender) interacted with achieved status (i.e., status attributable to individual actions) to influence conformity behavior (Prato *et al.*, 2019). The current research contributes to this literature stream by testing the boundary conditions of our knowledge regarding the relationship between status indicators and outcomes within the context of expatriate work experiences.

Motivation for replication of BSBS

General need for replication to reinforce, extend, and alter theory. For several years now, social scientists have been engaged in a dialogue regarding repeated failures to replicate prior work. This phenomenon has become known as a replication crisis (Anvari and Lakens, 2018; Loken and Gelman, 2017). For example, the Open Science Collaboration (2015) conducted replications of 100 psychology studies and found that only 36 percent of their replications yielded significant results consistent with those of their replication targets. Even when studies replicate the statistically significant relationships present in prior work, the effect sizes can be considerably lower than those found in the original research (Camerer *et al.*, 2018). Although researchers often treat prior work as accepted knowledge, these consistent failures to replicate have highlighted our need to refine knowledge and examine boundary conditions.

This need to refine knowledge is highly relevant to research on workplace discrimination. For example, three separate research teams recently attempted to replicate findings from Rosette et al.'s (2008) seminal research into leadership categorization theory (LCT). Despite following the same procedures as the original study, all three teams failed to fully replicate the results of the target studies (Obenauer and Kalsher, 2022; Petsko and Rosette, 2022; Ubaka *et al.*, 2022). While these replications did not disprove the theoretical contributions of the original research, they did provide cause for us to consider both the refinement of LCT and the methodology used to test LCT in the future. Refining theory through replication by considering replication as a tool within an integrated research stream, rather than a mechanism for challenging prior work, is perhaps the greatest value of replication (Hammond *et al.*, 2021; Hüffmeier *et al.*, 2016).

BSBS Impact. BSBS is an important target for replication because of the important impact that the research made on our understanding of SCT and how this theory can be used to help us understand the role of gender in expatriate experiences. Specifically, BSBS was one of the first studies to focus on gender discrimination within the context of expatriate management research. As of February 2023, only five years after its initial publication, BSBS had already recorded 62 citations on Google Scholar and 6,137 downloads. It was also a recipient of an Emerald Literati Award for Excellence in 2019. Having recognized the important impact of this paper, we proceed to discuss exogenous environmental shocks that have occurred since BSBS's data were collected and discuss possible extensions through replication.

Exogenous shock #1 -- #MeToo. Exogenous shocks represent changes in the environment that have the potential to impact previously established relationships. BSBS collected their data in 2015. Two years later, a social media movement known as the #MeToo movement gained serious traction in terms of raising awareness of issues pertaining to workplace

gender harassment (Brown and Battle, 2020). Although the movement started in the United States, it spread globally (e.g., Langer et al., 2020; Tianhan Gui, 2022). Research has provided some evidence that the impact of the #MeToo movement on workplace outcomes for females was positive (e.g., Luo and Zhang, 2022). Other findings, however, have been mixed (Cheng and Hsiaw, 2020; Johnson *et al.*, 2019). Consequently, how the relationship between expatriate gender and workplace gender harassment emerges in a post-#MeToo era remains unknown, thus contributing to the motivation for the replication of BSBS.

Exogenous shock #2 – COVID-19. The COVID-19 pandemic, which spread rapidly in 2020, represents an exogenous shock that drastically impacted life through factors such as lockdowns, economic hardships, supply shortages, changes in lifestyle, and fear of illness. There is evidence that outcomes resulting from the pandemic were not equitable. For example, incidents of domestic violence directed towards females increased following the beginning of the pandemic (Carrington *et al.*, 2021). Similarly, much of the racism reported throughout the pandemic was directed disproportionately towards females (Cohen, 2021; Racism Incident Reporting Centre, 2022). This type of aggression towards females may have translated to the workplace also as previous workplace inequities were intensified by the pandemic (Woitowich *et al.*, 2021). Furthermore, the increased use of technological platforms transitioned workplace communication into a medium in which inhibitions were lowered, and gender-based harassment appears to have increased (Holland *et al.*, 2020). This evidence of increased hostility towards females following this exogenous shock provides further motivation for the replication of BSBS.

Potential extensions. Building on the suggestion of Hüffmeier et al. (2016), replication should seek to extend our understanding of the world by testing boundary conditions. The most obvious extension of BSBS is to explore boundary conditions related to sample selection. In

particular, how will the core relationships identified by BSBS emerge within a more generalizable sample? BSBS's sample incorporated expatriates from 25 different host countries, with seven host countries accounting for 68.125 percent of the sample. We sought to explore this boundary condition within a sample of expatriates from 79 different host countries, where the seven most common host countries only accounted for 44.246 percent of the sample. Additionally, BSBS acknowledged the relevance of workplace harassment to other stigmatized groups. Consequently, there is an opportunity to explore whether the relationships identified here as they pertain to gender and gender harassment apply to race/ethnicity and ethnicity harassment. The research design of BSBS allows us to explore this question simply by adding a small number of questions to the survey.

The current research

For the current research, we recruited participants primarily through social media and analyzed survey responses from 391 expatriates working in 79 different host countries. This research constituted both close and conceptual replication. A close replication is a study in which a research team matches the methodology used in the target study to the best of their ability. Researchers have trended towards using the word close because these replications typically have small differences, such as time of data collection, differences in participants, and unavoidable differences in methodology that may or may not be detectable (Brandt *et al.*, 2014). Close replications allow research to be directly compared to a target study in such a way that the research contributes to an ongoing dialogue in the literature (Kalsher *et al.*, 2019). Close replications may also be referred to as direct replications when they occur within the same population as the target study and empirical generalizations when they occur in different

populations (Dau *et al.*, 2022). To closely replicate BSBS, we used the same scale questions and data analysis methods as the target study in testing the original hypotheses offered by BSBS.

The conceptual replication examines the boundary conditions of our prior knowledge by intentionally modifying aspects of experimental design (Brandt *et al.*, 2014). When a conceptual replication conducted within a different sample from the target study incorporates different measurement variables, it can be referred to as a conceptual extension (Dau *et al.*, 2022). Through conceptual replication, we explored the role of social dominance on expatriate experiences of harassment by retrieving power distance scores for participant host countries. We also added six questions on workplace ethnicity harassment to the survey instrument. We then analyzed a series of alternative models that incorporated these variables, participant race/ethnicity, and variables related to the external shocks described above. Overall, our research contributes to SCT by providing support for the generalizability of most of BSBS's findings, introducing ethnicity harassment to this framework, and raising questions about the role of institutional discrimination in workplace harassment.

THEORY

As discussed above, SCT states that at a macro level, institutions ascribe status such that dominant and non-dominant groups are established. The strength of these status structures can vary by institution (Ridgeway, 1991). These status structures interact with micro-level status indicators to influence outcomes. BSBS incorporated these arguments into a detailed theoretical model in developing the following set of hypotheses that are to be tested as part of the close replication component of the current research:

> *H1A. Non-male expatriates experience higher degrees of workplace gender harassment than male expatriates.*

H1B. Institutional discrimination of non-males moderates the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment in a way that non-male expatriates experience higher degrees of workplace gender harassment when the institutional gender discrimination in the host country is high.

H2A. Workplace gender harassment relates negatively to job satisfaction.

H2B. Workplace gender harassment relates positively to frustration.

H2C. Frustration relates negatively to job satisfaction.

H3. Stress moderates the relationship between frustration and job satisfaction in such a way that frustrated expatriates experience lower job satisfaction when they are more stressed.

Social dominance theory states that members of a dominant group strive to maintain social hierarchies so that they do not lose their preferred status (Rosette *et al.*, 2013). According to this theory, members of high-status groups who believe in social hierarchies may exclude or harass members of lower-status groups as a mechanism for maintaining status (Umphress *et al.*, 2008). High-status members may also restrict access to resources and knowledge in such status-preserving efforts (Joshi *et al.*, 2015). Social dominance theory has some synergies with SCT as social dominance theory also recognizes that demographic traits such as gender and race can be status signals. As males have historically been considered the highest-status gender, this means that males would desire to maintain social inequities in order to maintain advantages over other genders (Pratto *et al.*, 1997).

Assertion of social dominance, however, requires an environment in which such values are accepted and reinforced. In societies with high power distance, the unequal distribution of power and privilege is accepted and even expected (Hofstede, 1983), thus supporting social

hierarchies. In such societies, social dominance is often reinforced and maintained through various cultural and institutional mechanisms. In other words, high levels of power distance may create conditions that allow for the emergence of dominant groups. These dominant (higher status) groups may then harass or discriminate against minority (lower status) groups in an effort to maintain social structures. High-power distance cultures are known for vertical communication with limited cross-status dialogue (Ghosh, 2011), thus reducing the potential for resistance to such behavior. In fact, one of the values of high-power distance cultures is the perpetuation of status-driven inequalities (Hofstede, 1983). Consequently, institutional mechanisms such as high power distance enable the perpetuation of inequality through discrimination.

Expatriates may be particularly vulnerable to harassment in societies with high levels of power distance and social dominance. This is because expatriates may be seen as outsiders or members of subordinate groups, which, when compounded by associations with other lower-status groups, may make them more likely to be targeted for harassment. Additionally, expatriates may have trouble navigating social power imbalances and avoiding harassment due to limited knowledge of local customs and social norms. Consequently, we posit that in countries where power distance is high, efforts to maintain inequities will result in higher levels of gender harassment such that:

> *Hypothesis 4: A nation's power distance dimension moderates the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment in such a way that non-male expatriates experience higher degrees of workplace gender harassment when the nation's power distance dimension in the host country is high.*

The racialization of the COVID-19 pandemic is well-documented (Ittefaq *et al.*, 2022). In the week following Donald Trump's first use of the term "China virus" on Twitter, the hashtag #chinesevirus was actually used more frequently than the hashtag #covid19, and one-fifth of the Tweets that used the #covid19 hashtag included some type of anti-Asian message (Hswen *et al.*, 2021). The anti-Asian messages that followed this Tweet were not just limited to Twitter, as Asian-Americans experienced considerable verbal harassment by individuals who seemed emboldened by this public statement (Ren and Feagin, 2021). In addition to verbal harassment, since the beginning of the COVID-19 pandemic, Asians in the United States have experienced increased incidents of shunning, physical assault, and workplace discrimination (Cao, 2021). The magnitude of this issue became widely recognized after six Asian women were killed in attacks on three different Atlanta-area spas (Martin and Yoon, 2021).

This type of anti-Asian discrimination extended across the globe and impacted anyone who appeared to be of Asian descent (Ho, 2021). For example, in British and French samples, Tran and Tseng (2022) found evidence of increased hostility toward Asian individuals. Similarly, Gray and Hansen (2021) found the increase in London hate crimes shortly after the shock of the pandemic was unique to individuals who identify as Asian. Increased discrimination against members of the Asian community has been reported in a wide variety of countries, such as Australia, New Zealand (Martin and Yoon, 2021), Ireland (Sloane, 2021), and Denmark (Buttler, 2021). This rise in anti-Asian racism that has been reported in Western countries is likely to impact expatriates who identify as Asian, leading to our next hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5A: Expatriates who identify as Asian and are working outside of Asia experience higher degrees of workplace ethnic harassment than other expatriates.

Although highlighted and intensified by the COVID-19 pandemic, anti-Asian racism is not a new phenomenon. In Canada, the magnitude of racial discrimination experienced by some Asian refugees has been strong enough to lead to depressive symptoms (Noh *et al.*, 1999). Asians living in Europe have reported decreased life satisfaction as a result of racial discrimination (Safi, 2010). This type of anti-Asian racism is often introduced by peers at a young age (Rosenbloom and Way, 2004). These patterns indicate that individuals of Asian heritage living outside of Asia are frequently treated as if they are of lower status. By applying our previous social dominance argument to race and ethnicity, we propose that when a country's power distance is high, individuals who are perceived as having higher social status may attempt to retain this status by discriminating against expatriates whose racial and/or ethnic identities have been associated with lower social status, and we propose:

> *Hypothesis 5B: A nation's power distance dimension moderates the relationship between race/ethnicity and workplace ethnic harassment in such a way that expatriates who identify as Asian and are working outside of Asia experience higher degrees of workplace ethnic harassment when the host country's power distance dimension is high.*

BSBS drew upon a large body of literature in domestic settings to predict that workplace gender harassment would have a negative relationship with job satisfaction and a positive relationship with frustration for expatriates. As anticipated, these relationships did generalize to a global environment. The relationships are explained through the logic that as experiences of harassment impede progress and lead to a negative affect, these experiences will frustrate employees and decrease the likelihood of positive emotions associated with job satisfaction.

Such an explanation is not specific to gender harassment, and by applying these arguments to ethnicity harassment, we offer our next set of hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6A: Workplace ethnic harassment relates negatively to job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 6B: Workplace ethnic harassment relates positively to frustration.

We proceed to discussing how the previously mentioned exogenous shocks may influence the relationships discussed above. Although the #MeToo movement began in 2006, it gained global recognition after Alyssa Milano's 2017 call for people who had been harassed or assaulted to engage with the movement (Lee and Murdie, 2021). In her call to action, Milano discussed using social media as a vehicle to bring attention to issues such as gender harassment (Brown and Battle, 2020). The movement was not only successful in terms of creating awareness, but there is also some evidence that it resulted in more equitable workplace outcomes (e.g., Luo and Zhang, 2022).

One explanation for the effectiveness of the #MeToo movement at changing workplace outcomes can be drawn from information processing theory. This theory states that humans process information through automatic and controlled processing. The ability to interact with and respond to information through controlled processing is limited; thus, in order to function efficiently, humans engage in ongoing automatic processing, where decisions and actions are influenced by responses that do not involve critical thinking. Instead, these responses are influenced by information that has previously been encoded into memory (Lord and Maher, 1993; Lord and Smith, 1983). Many of the behaviors measured to account for gender harassment (e.g., social exclusion, joke telling, information guarding) do not necessarily involve critical thinking. Consequently, it is likely that these behaviors may be influenced by associations

between demographic traits and status indicators that have been previously encoded and are drawn upon during automatic processing.

As the visibility of actions increases, however, individuals have the motivation to engage in controlled processing, which is likely to decrease expressions of prejudice (Hernandez *et al.*, 2016; Obenauer and Langer, 2019). Because external factors can influence an individual's desire to maintain an unprejudiced image (Plant and Devine, 1998), it is likely that once external factors disrupt automatic processing, the individual will make a concerted effort to behave in a non-prejudiced manner. Given that the #MeToo movement was not only highly visible but could be perceived as a call to expose initiators of gender harassment, the movement increased accountability for initiators of gender harassment, thus providing the conditions necessary to disrupt automatic processing. Once automatic processing is disrupted, the initiator of gender harassment should critically evaluate and alter behavior. Therefore, we expect that #MeToo trending will influence experiences of gender harassment such that:

> *Hypothesis 7: #MeToo trending moderates the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment in a way that non-male expatriates experience lower degrees of workplace gender harassment when #MeToo trending in the host country is high.*

SCT states that societal norms represent an institutional factor that influences status (Ridgeway, 1991). When behavior deviating from the norm occurs without sanctions, the future acceptability of such behavior may change (Reno *et al.*, 1993), therefore altering norms. When status-related norms are influenced by an exogenous shock, this shock has the potential to alter outcomes that result from status differences.

The COVID-19 pandemic saw a variety of deviations from societal norms as they related to status. As discussed above, in addition to global leaders publicly blaming people of different races and nationalities for the pandemic (Hswen *et al.*, 2021), racial and ethnic harassment also grew in visibility (Ren and Feagin, 2021). Additionally, issues related to equity in the workplace increased (Woitowich *et al.*, 2021). This may have been due, in part, to the increased use of technology for communication and interaction, as motivations to suppress prejudice appear to be lower when interacting on technological platforms than in person (Holland *et al.*, 2020). As expressions of prejudice went unchecked, this contributed to a normalization of such behavior, which was further reinforced by extended periods of isolation and remote communication. As the pandemic and safety needs associated with social distancing created a mechanism through which individuals attempted to justify the expression of previously suppressed prejudice (Crandall and Eshleman, 2003), expressions of prejudice such as exclusion and limited communication became more normalized. We expect that the impact that the COVID-19 pandemic had on societal norms would be directly related to the national impact of the pandemic and propose our final set of hypotheses:

> *Hypothesis 8A: COVID-19 impact moderates the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment in such a way that non-male expatriates experience higher degrees of workplace gender harassment when COVID-19 impact in the host country is high.*
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> *Hypothesis 8B: COVID-19 impact moderates the relationship between race/ethnicity and workplace ethnic harassment in such a way that expatriates expatriates who identify as Asian and are working outside of Asia experience*

higher degrees of workplace ethnic harassment when COVID-19 impact in the

host country is high.

METHODS

Sample and Data Collection

BSBS used a targeted sampling method that involved identifying expatriates through LinkedIn and emailing invitations to participate in the study. This allowed them to consider the cultural norms of host countries in building their sample. At the time of the current research, restrictions on LinkedIn prevented this approach from being directly replicated. In developing a strategy to reach expatriates in a diverse group of countries, we had preliminary discussions with several former expatriates. Based upon these discussions, our recruitment methods focused primarily on outreach through social media groups.

After receiving IRB approval, but before collecting data, hypotheses and research methodology were pre-registered at the Center for Open Science's Open Science Framework (OSF)[1]. Pre-registering hypotheses and methodology increases the transparency of research, reduces the researcher's ability to engage in Questionable Research Practices (QRPs), and supports the scientific values associated with replication.

We began by having a business school social media account share the invitation to participate in research. The invitation outlined requirements for participation that included being age 18 or older and currently living *and working* outside of one's home country. To prevent biasing participant responses and as allowed by our IRB protocol, the invitation did not state the exact research question. As anticipated, these initial posts did not result in any immediate

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[1] The preregistration and all appendices are available at
https://osf.io/pzub5/?view_only=adb09271f6c44384a51e6c1b8de5a5c7

responses. Rather, their purpose was to authenticate the invitation to participate in research, as pre-research discussions in social media groups indicated that a primary obstacle to recruiting research participants on social media is concern about the invitation's authenticity. We then shared the business school's post in dozens of Facebook groups designed for expatriates, specifically targeting groups for expatriates in countries with diverse SIGI scores. Invitations to participate in the research were also posted in social media forums designed specifically for expatriates (e.g., BritishExpats.com) and professionals in fields that have a high number of expatriates (e.g., academia). Finally, the invitation was shared with global alumni from a state college in New York (USA).

Participants accessed the study through Qualtrics. Data quality was protected through the use of captcha and Qualtrics tools such as bot detection, prevention of multiple submissions, and prevention of indexing, which prevented the survey from being located by search engines. Consequently, the barriers to accessing the survey were much higher for those who were not members of one of the groups described above. Because these groups typically screen members, this added another layer of security to the data collection process. Furthermore, because no participation incentives were offered and the survey length was short, participants had little motivation to "click-through" surveys. The generally high measurement reliabilities described below indicate that our methods for protecting quality were effective.

After completing an informed consent form, participants proceeded to the survey. Following BSBS, the first page of the survey asked participants to respond to questions about exogenous variables (workplace harassment, stress). On the second page, participants were asked to respond to questions about endogenous variables (frustration, job satisfaction). On the final page, they were asked to respond to a demographic questionnaire where they also entered their

home and host countries. Upon completion of the survey, participants were provided with a debriefing message that explained the research question in more detail.

Because there is no generally accepted ex-ante power analysis for partial least-squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM), our target sample size was based on that of BSBS. PLS-SEM is appropriate for various sample sizes, including those where *N<100* (Hair *et al.*, 2017, 2019). Consistent with this assertion, BSBS cited a "ten-times rule" that would suggest a minimum sample size of *N=70* for a PLS-SEM model with seven pathways. In the current research, the target sample was set at *N=320* (twice that of BSBS) because prior research has shown that the average effect size in replications is half of that of the target study (Camerer *et al.*, 2018). A total of 414 individuals completed the survey. Observations in which participants chose not to report their home country, host country, or gender were eliminated because they prevented full exploration of the research question. We also eliminated 16 observations in which individuals indicated that they did not live and work in a country that was different from their home country. No other exclusion criteria were applied. This left us with a final sample size of N=391.

Some may be concerned that academic researchers could have familiarity with research scales that could bias their responses. Participants identifying as academics and/or recruited through academic social media groups accounted for 73 (18.67 percent) of our observations. T-tests showed that academics and non-academics did not differ in terms of perceived gender harassment (*p=0.288*), ethnicity harassment (*p=0.635*), frustration (*p=0.534*), job satisfaction (*p=0.185*), home country SIGI score (*p=0.434*), or home country power distance (*p=0.228*). Host country power distance scores for academics (*M=45.055*) were slightly lower than those of non-academics (*M=52.682*), *t (367) =2.772, p=0.006*. Host country SIGI scores for academics

(*M=1.630*) were also lower than those of non-academics (*M=2.204*), *t (389) =4.157, p<0.001.*

Finally, general stress reported by academics (*M=2.795*) was marginally higher than that

reported by non-academics (*M=2.607*), but this difference did not meet conventional levels of

statistical significance, *t (389) =1.914, p=0.056.* Given that differences in responses to survey-

driven scales were not statistically significant, and the only significant differences between

academics and non-academics pertained to exogenous variables, observations from academics

were retained for analyses, though this was addressed in robustness tests.

The final sample reported a mean age of 48.171 years (*SD=22.112*), with 111.946

months (*SD=106.152*) of experience as expatriates, and 85.536 months (*SD=93.759*) in their

current expatriate assignment. The majority of participants (*79.028 percent*) reported being

married or in a relationship, and approximately half (*48.849 percent*) were accompanied by a

family member when starting their assignment. Common employment positions reported by

participants were non-management positions (*26.598 percent*), middle management positions

(*19.437 percent*), senior or top management positions (*18.926 percent*), academic faculty (*15.601*

percent), and supervisory positions (*5.371 percent*). Participants reported coming from 67

different home countries, with the most common home countries being the United States (*43.990*

percent), the United Kingdom (*6.650 percent*), Germany (*4.604 percent*), and India (*4.348*

percent). Participants reported working in 79 different host countries (*see Table 1*), with the most

common host countries being Ireland (*9.719 percent*), the United States (*9.207 percent*), Japan

(*8.184 percent*), and Australia (*7.928 percent*).

As shown in Table 2, the mean SIGI score and power distance score for BSBS were

higher than those of the current study, indicating that a greater portion of participants in BSBS

were living and working within environments with higher institutional discrimination. This

difference was driven by the large number of participants from countries with SIGI scores of 1 or 2 in the current research. Both studies had a similar number of participants from countries with SIGI scores of 4 or 5, but the proportion of participants from these countries was lower in the current research because of the larger sample size. The current sample was older, had a considerably higher proportion of females, and included more individuals who identified as non-binary or transgender than that of BSBS. Gender harassment scores and job satisfaction were similar across studies[2]. Participants in the current research reported higher levels of frustration and general stress than participants in BSBS.

---Insert Tables 1 and 2 About Here---

Measures

  Gender. Participants self-identified as female (*60.102 percent*), male (*38.619 percent*), and non-binary/transgender (*1.279 percent*). Gender was coded as a binary variable (0=male, 1=not male) for consistency with prior research. The male vs. not-male dichotomy was selected because the social dominance literature considers male as being a "high status" social position (Palese and Schmid Mast, 2020). Additionally, research on the experiences of individuals who identify as non-binary or transgender suggests that individuals who neither identify as male nor female face gender harassment in the workplace that is equivalent to or more severe than that faced by females (Fiske *et al.*, 1999; Suriyasarn, 2016; Waite, 2021). Consequently, individuals identifying as male are less likely to experience gender harassment than those who do not identify as male, supporting the male vs. not male classification.

  Institutional-level gender discrimination. Similar to BSBS, we used the OECD Development Centre's (2014) SIGI scores as a measure of institutional-level gender

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[2] After accounting for the differences in job satisfaction scales

discrimination. Following previous work (B. Bader, personal communication, April 25, 2022), we used the overall SIGI score unless a country was not assigned an overall SIGI score, in which case we used the Discriminatory Family Code from the SIGI. SIGI scores are very low (1), low (2), medium (3), high (4), and very high (5). The mean SIGI score for participant home countries was 2.079 (*SD=0.956*), and the mean SIGI score for participant host countries was 2.097 (*SD=1.086*). Most participants (*78.772 percent*) reported living and working in a country whose SIGI score was within one of their home country's SIGI score, indicating that the institutional-level discrimination of one's home and host countries was similar for most participants.

Existing explanatory variables. Workplace gender harassment (*M=1.404, SD=0.634, α=0.900*), frustration (*M=3.005, SD=1.101, α=0.796*), general stress (*M=2.642, SD=0.758, α=0.672*), and job satisfaction (*M=3.870, SD=1.056, α=0.881*), were measured using the same questions that were used by BSBS. Unlike the prior research, however, for ease of interpretation, all questions were measured on a scale of one to five. See Appendix I[1] for a full list of questions.

Power distance. Power distance was measured using scores that range from 0 to 100, as reported by Hofstede Insights (2022). Although many of these data points were collected prior to the exogenous shocks described above, both empirical and theoretical evidence support treating power distance (at the country level) as a temporally stable construct (Hofstede *et al.*, 2010). Power distance scores were available for 384 home countries (*M=48.185, SD=16.742*) and 369 host countries (*M=51.173, SD=21.245*). More than half of the participants (*56.470 percent*) reported living and working in a country whose power distance score was within 20 points of their home country's power distance score.

Ethnicity harassment. Ethnicity harassment (*M=1.521, SD=0.803*, *α=0.900*) was measured using six items that correspond with the gender harassment items reported in the original study. Language of these items was based on that used by Schneider et al. (2000).

#MeToo trending. Lee and Murdie (2021) collected data on the #MeToo hashtag by country from July 20 to July 25, 2019, and from September 15 to September 21, 2019. These data were obtained from the authors. The total number of Tweets per country using the #MeToo hashtag during these two periods (*M=1,201.038, SD=3,064.017*) was used to account for #MeToo impact.

COVID-19 impact. Data on COVID-19 impact were retrieved from the COVID-19: Stringency Index (Mathieu *et al.*, 2022). We used both the cases per million (*M=87,232.404, SD=66,961.458*), and deaths per million (*M=1,102.181, SD=1,035.9116*), per country as of December 31, 2021, as measures of impact.

RESULTS

Overview of model

BSBS analyzed data through PLS-SEM. Data for the current study were analyzed through the same methodology using the *plssem* command in Stata17 with all non-binary variables standardized (Mehmetoglu and Venturini, 2021; Venturini and Mehmetoglu, 2019). Following BSBS, the maximum number of iterations was set at 300 with 5,000 bootstrap samples applied. Similar to BSBS, the average variance inflation factor (VIF) was 1.75, and the highest value was 2.33, providing no evidence of multicollinearity within the model. Cronbach's alphas ranged from 0.796 to 0.930, with the exception of general stress (*α=0.672*), which missed the cutoff of 0.700 by a negligible amount. This is addressed in the robustness tests. Dillon-Goldstein's rho exceeded the minimum threshold of 0.700 (*values ranged from 0.810 to 0.945*)

for all variables. Average variance extracted (AVE) exceeded the minimum threshold of 0.500 (*values ranged from 0.530 to 0.808*) for all variables. Potential concerns regarding common method bias were assuaged by the fact the highest amount of variance explained by one factor in a Harman test (36.951 percent) did not exceed the threshold of 50 percent (Nurmi and Hinds, 2016). Finally, the square root of the AVE for each variable was higher than any item correlation (*see Appendix II*), providing evidence of discriminant validity. Collectively, these tests indicate that, similar to BSBS, our model is appropriate for analyses.

Hypotheses Tests

As shown in *Figure 1,* we found support for Hypothesis 1A, that identifying with a gender other than male would have a positive relationship with experiences of workplace gender harassment ($\beta=0.228, p<0.001$). Unlike BSBS, we found no support for Hypothesis 1B that institutional discrimination would moderate the relationship between gender and reported experiences of workplace gender harassment ($\beta=0.109, p=0.207$). Similar to BSBS, we found support for the hypotheses that experiences of workplace gender harassment would have a negative relationship with job satisfaction (*Hypothesis 2A, $\beta=-0.114, p=0.030$*) and a positive relationship with frustration (*Hypothesis 2B, $\beta=0.231, p<0.001$*).

---Insert Figure 1 About Here---

We found support for the hypothesis that frustration would have a negative relationship with job satisfaction (*Hypothesis 2C, $\beta=-0.419, p<0.001$*). Unlike BSBS, we also found that the interaction of frustration and general stress was statistically significant ($\beta=-0.160, p<0.001$). Because our model showed that general stress also had a direct effect on job satisfaction ($\beta=-0.193, p=0.001$), we graphed this interaction to better understand its effect (*see Appendix III*). For expatriates with frustration levels at one standard deviation above the mean, increased stress

led to decreased job satisfaction. For expatriates with frustration one standard deviation below the mean, the impact of stress on job satisfaction was minimal. This observation, therefore, supports Hypothesis 3.

Hypothesis 4 stated that a host country's power distance score would moderate the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment such that non-male expatriates would experience higher levels of workplace gender harassment when power distance was high than when power distance was low. To test this, we re-ran our model, replacing institutional discrimination (SIGI score) with power distance. Our revised model showed that power distance did moderate the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment ($\beta=0.163$, $p=0.024$). Because this coefficient was positive and power distance did not have a direct relationship with workplace gender harassment, this coefficient can be interpreted as positively moderating the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment, thus supporting Hypothesis 4 (*see Appendix IV*).

Hypothesis 5A stated that expatriates working outside of Asia who identify as Asian would experience higher levels of workplace ethnicity harassment than other expatriates. We did not find support for this hypothesis ($\beta=0.166$, $p=0.061$). The interaction of Asian identity and power distance did not have a significant relationship ($\beta=0.084$, $p=0.347$) with workplace ethnicity harassment, thus failing to support Hypothesis 5B. Ethnicity harassment had a negative relationship with job satisfaction (*Hypothesis 6A, $\beta=-0.146$, $p=0.002$*) and a positive relationship with frustration (*Hypothesis 6B, $\beta=0.213$, $p<0.001$*), thus supporting Hypotheses 6A and 6B (*see Appendix V*).

We found no support for Hypothesis 7, which stated that a country's #MeToo trending would moderate the relationship between gender and gender harassment ($\beta=0.041$, $p=0.483$).

Furthermore, we found no evidence that COVID-19 cases or deaths influenced the relationship between gender (*Hypothesis 8A; ps>0.97*) or race/ethnicity (*Hypothesis 8B; ps>0.10*) and harassment (*see Appendices VI through X*).

Exploratory Analyses

We began our exploratory analyses by investigating how using a different measure of institutional discrimination would influence our gender harassment model. We re-ran the model used to test *Hypotheses 1 through 3,* substituting Hofstede's (1983) measure of masculinity in place of the SIGI score. Hofstede defined masculinity as a culture's emphasis on traditionally masculine values (e.g., money orientation, achievement, independence) as opposed to traditionally feminine values (e.g., people orientation, service, interdependence). This model revealed that neither masculinity (*p=0.348*) nor its interaction with gender (*p=0.681*) had a significant relationship with perceptions of gender harassment (*see Appendix XI*). We also re-ran this model using updated (2019) SIGI scores. These results were also similar to those of our primary data analysis as neither the 2019 SIGI (*p=0.773*) score nor its interaction with gender (*p=0.107*) had a significant relationship with perceptions of gender harassment (*see Appendix XII*).

Hypothesis 5A referred specifically to expatriates who identified as Asian *and* were working outside of Asia. Given the construction of the sample, this may have been an overly restrictive specification. The full sample included only 32 expatriates who identified as Asian and worked within countries that had available power distance scores. When eliminating expatriates who worked in Asia, the number of Asian expatriates was reduced to 25, leaving limited information to inform the model. Additionally, historical evidence of people who identify

as Asian experiencing ethnic discrimination within Asia (e.g., Kang and Hwang, 2022; Tung, 2008) suggests that this may have been an unnecessary restriction.

To address these concerns, we ran our model with no restrictions regarding the expatriates' host countries. In this model, racial/ethnic identity had a positive and significant relationship with workplace ethnicity harassment ($\beta=0.195$, $p=0.005$), suggesting that if the restriction surrounding the host country was removed from Hypothesis 5A, we would have found full support for this hypothesis. Alternatively stated, expatriates identifying as Asian in our sample reported experiencing higher levels of workplace ethnicity harassment than other expatriates in our sample. The effect of the interaction of racial/ethnic identity and power distance remained insignificant in this model ($\beta=0.123$, $p=0.076$). Other relationships within the model were similar to those reported above (*see Appendix XIII*).

In our final exploratory analyses, we broadened the scope of our analyses into the relationship between racial/ethnic identity and workplace ethnicity harassment. For this test, we examined the differences between expatriates who identified as White and expatriates who did not identify as White. The results of this model showed that race/ethnicity (not White=1, White=0) had a significant relationship with workplace ethnicity harassment ($\beta=0.325$, $p<0.001$), indicating that identifying as White was associated with lower levels of ethnicity harassment. The interaction of racial/ethnic identity and power distance did not have a significant relationship with workplace ethnicity harassment ($\beta=0.035$, $p=0.678$; *see Appendix XIV*).

Robustness Tests

To test the sensitivity of our model replicating the analyses of BSBS, we constructed three alternative models. First, we eliminated one item that did not perform well from the general

stress scale. This increased Cronbach's alpha for this item to 0.793. We then re-ran our tests of Hypotheses 1 through 3. The results did not meaningfully differ from those reported above.

Next, we re-ran our primary tests of Hypotheses 1 through 3, this time restricting our sample to only individuals who did not identify as having a career in academics. Once again, the results were similar to those reported in the primary analyses. To address concerns that the low mean of SIGI scores in our data could be influencing results, we re-constructed our SIGI variable as a binary variable, whereas scores of two and lower were grouped together, and scores of three and higher were grouped together. When we replaced the SIGI score variable (i.e., institutional discrimination) with this binary variable and re-ran the model, the results were again similar to those of the primary analyses.

As discussed above, 22 observations included no data on power distance. To test that the loss of these observations was not influencing the significant moderating effect of power distance, we re-ran this analysis with mean imputed values for power distance. Because SIGI scores and power distance both represent institutional-level variables related to power distribution and they were significantly correlated in the data (*r=0.612, p<0.*001), the mean imputed values were calculated using the mean power distance score for countries that were grouped by SIGI score. The moderating effect of power distance was not significant in this model, therefore suggesting that the significant moderating effect of power distance may have been a sampling effect.

DISCUSSION

Summary of the current research

Our findings indicated that an expatriate's gender and racial/ethnic identities were directly related to reported experiences of workplace gender and ethnicity harassment,

respectively. This harassment had a positive relationship with frustration and a negative

relationship with job satisfaction. Frustration had a negative relationship with job satisfaction.

That relationship was moderated by general stress. We found no evidence that a host country's

SIGI score moderated the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment. We

found limited evidence that a country's power distance score moderated the relationship between

expatriates' identities and harassment associated with their identities.

Replication of prior findings and theoretical implications

   Status construction theory. Like BSBS, our findings consistently showed that

demographic traits that have been historically associated with lower social status[3] (e.g., non-

male, non-White, Asian) had a positive and significant relationship with reports of experiencing

workplace harassment. Additionally, similar to BSBS, we consistently found that workplace

harassment was positively associated with frustration and that both frustration and workplace

harassment had a negative relationship with job satisfaction. These findings contribute to the

literature by providing further support for much of BSBS's model, which made an important

contribution to SCT (*see Table 3*).

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   Perhaps *the most important contribution* of this research, however, is that in contrast to

BSBS and the basic tenets of SCT, using various different institutional-level factors (e.g., 2014

SIGI, 2019 SIGI, power distance, masculinity), we found minimal evidence that any of these

institutional-level factors moderated the relationship between individual status traits and

harassment. This insight is critical to our understanding of SCT as SCT is built upon the concept

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[3] We are not agreeing that these traits should be associated with lower status. In fact, we disagree with this classification. We are simply acknowledging how these traits have been historically treated in terms of status.

of status-related outcomes being influenced by the combination of macro and micro factors. Our research, however, provides minimal evidence that macro-level factors played an important role in outcomes and *could* challenge our current understanding of SCT. In fact, when comparing our results to those of BSBS, we found that the gender harassment scores across studies did not differ significantly (*t=1.446, p=0.149*) despite the fact that the mean SIGI score in BSBS's study was significantly higher than that of the current research (*t=19.508, p<0.001*). This comparison suggests that the difference in SIGI scores across studies may not have meaningfully influenced reports of workplace gender harassment, raising further questions about the role of institutional discrimination in this process.

This important difference between the findings of BSBS and outcomes observed in the current research raises an important question as to why the effects of institutional discrimination found in the target study were not replicated in the current research. While our data do not allow us to isolate the mechanism that caused this divergence of findings, we offer several potential explanations. In research examining gender harassment, the demographic composition of the sample is highly relevant. While BSBS recognized the importance of female representation in their sample and purposefully searched for female participants, females were still underrepresented in their sample (36.25 percent), whereas females accounted for 60.10 percent of participants in the current research. Perhaps the moderating effects shown in BSBS's sample, which included 58 females, had limited generalizability.

Building on the argument that the demographic traits of participants may influence outcomes related to workplace harassment, participants in the current research came from 67 different home countries, whereas participants in BSBS came from 21 different home countries. While American expatriates were overrepresented in the current research, German expatriates

were overrepresented in BSBS. It is possible that expatriates from different home countries experience or recognize gender harassment differently.

Empirically speaking, the diminished role of institutional discrimination in our model suggests that compared to BSBS, in the current sample, either 1) gender harassment toward non-males in countries with lower SIGI scores is higher or 2) gender harassment toward non-males in countries with higher SIGI scores is lower. Given the generally low reports of gender harassment in our data, we focused on the latter explanation by comparing the host countries with higher SIGI scores included in both studies. The current research included 60 observations from expatriates working in 24 different host countries with high SIGI scores (greater than two) that were not included in BSBS. BSBS included 38 observations from expatriates working in 9 different host countries with high SIGI scores that were not included in the current research. There were only nine nations with high SIGI scores that represented host countries in both studies, and these accounted for 42 observations (52.50 percent of high-SIGI score observations) in BSBS and 30 observations (33.33 percent of high-SIGI score observations) in the current research. It is possible that there are systematic differences related to institutional discrimination in the high-SIGI score host countries included in each study. Overall, participants in the current research worked in more than three times as many different host countries than those of BSBS. These insights highlight the differences in host countries across studies and suggest that differences in observed relationships may be attributable to generalizability of findings.

One possible reason why the idiosyncrasies of host countries would influence the role of the SIGI score in our model is that institutional discrimination may vary *within* certain countries. We shall use an example to illustrate how it is possible that macro variables should be measured at a lower level than country. One factor considered in the SIGI is reproductive autonomy

(OECD Development Centre, 2014). In the United States, where 9.21 percent of our participants were living at the time of the survey, reproductive autonomy laws vary by state. Even though a factor considered in developing SIGI scores varies across the nation, the same SIGI score is used for all 50 states. Similarly, laws put in place to support equal employment opportunity can also vary by state. As we consider this evidence that institutional discrimination may vary by state, we must consider that it may not be appropriate to classify institutional discrimination identically across states. While this example only comes from one country, it illustrates why institutional discrimination may need to be considered at a lower level than country.

A final option that we consider is the role of the previously discussed exogenous shocks (#MeToo and COVID-19) on our research. Although the previously reported analyses show no relationship between these shocks and workplace harassment, these results simply indicate that the impact of these shocks did not vary by country. These null results do not preclude the explanation that either #MeToo or COVID-19 had a unilateral impact on workplace harassment. In an interconnected world where media reports often transcend nations, and global mobility is high, a unilateral impact is quite possible.

Increased social awareness resulting from the #MeToo movement or the publicizing of inequities that occurred during the COVID-19 pandemic could have resulted in increased motivations to suppress prejudice and, consequently, lower levels of workplace harassment. Such an effect would likely be stronger in nations with high levels of institutional discrimination as the opportunity to reduce harassment should be highest in these countries. If these exogenous shocks caused workplace harassment to decrease more in countries with high SIGI scores, it would explain the absence of a moderating effect in our model. Unfortunately, while our data allow us to test the differential effects of an exogenous global shock, they do not allow us to test unilateral

effects, so such an explanation can only be speculative in nature. Future research should build upon this work and investigate the impact of these shocks in alternative samples and study contexts.

Harassment literature. The literature has long associated harassment with negative outcomes such as reduced job satisfaction within the domestic setting. BSBS connected this literature with the expatriate research, illustrating that the effects of harassment on expatriates are similar to the effects of harassment on domestic employees. The current research supplements these findings by providing further empirical evidence that harassment is associated with lower levels of satisfaction and higher levels of frustration.

Practical implications

The overarching practical implication of this research is that we found relationships between demographic traits and harassment that were largely independent of a nation's institutional discrimination indicators. In fact, the level of workplace gender harassment observed in the current research was similar to that of BSBS despite the fact that the current research was primarily conducted in nations with lower SIGI scores. Consequently, managers in all geographic locations must be aware of the potential for gender and ethnicity-based harassment to occur and should proactively address these issues. In other words, managers in countries who think of themselves as inclusive or accepting must recognize that they are not immune to the problems associated with gender and ethnicity harassment in the workplace. Additionally, our research suggests that managers cannot shield expatriates from harassment by assigning them to positions in countries with lower levels of institutional discrimination.

Both the workplace gender harassment scale and the workplace ethnicity harassment scale incorporate questions that involve recalling incidents of prior harassment. In both cases, the

lowest individual question scores were associated with experiencing the use of slurs in the workplace, indicating that co-workers and managers may have been educated to understand that the use of slurs is wrong. The highest scores, however, were associated with gender and ethnicity jokes. Humor is sometimes used as a tool for communicating uncomfortable messages without engaging in conflict (Cooper, 2005). Consequently, initiators may see joking as a "safer" way of expressing their prejudice. Similarly, high scores were associated with the use of derogatory comments. Such comments may emerge when initiators feel justified in making a statement based upon what they believe is a pattern of behaviors that supports their statement (Crandall and Eshleman, 2003). The next highest score was associated with social exclusion, an issue that co-workers and managers may fail to recognize.

All three of these items point to the need for workplace education on issues pertaining to equity and inclusion. In the same ways that people have recognized through education why it is not appropriate to use slurs toward others, there is a need for education as to why jokes and derogatory comments that are related to an individual's identity should never be considered acceptable in the workplace. For example, education could inform managers and employees that laughter does not confirm acceptance of a joke. Rather, it may be more of a coping mechanism (Nikopoulos, 2017). Similarly, managers and employees should be educated on the impact of failing to include co-workers in social gatherings outside of work. It is important to articulate that the responsibility for education should fall on the organization and management.

Limitations and future research

SIGI scores. One potential limitation of this research is that the SIGI scores, indicating institutional discrimination, were considerably lower than those reported by BSBS. As discussed above, however, this was a bit of a double-edged sword. The lower variability of SIGI scores in

the current research may have contributed to our failure to find support for the hypothesis that institutional discrimination moderates the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment. This "limitation," however, considered in conjunction with the similarity of workplace gender harassment scores reported in this study and BSBS, also provided evidence that the gender discrimination observed by BSBS, in terms of workplace gender harassment, is not exclusive to countries with high levels of institutional discrimination.

Self-selection bias. Additionally, because participants were active expatriates who self-selected into the research, those experiencing the greatest harassment may not have participated due to concerns regarding retaliation, particularly if they were using electronic devices owned by their employers. Future research could be conducted with *former* expatriates who have completed assignments in countries with high levels of institutional discrimination. Former expatriates may perceive less risk associated with providing data about their experiences.

Socioeconomic restrictions. Recruitment methods used in both the current research and by BSBS present some socioeconomic barriers to participation. Both studies relied on social media for recruitment of participants, meaning that in order to participate, a person must have an electronic device, internet access, and awareness of social media. Such requirements do not typically provide barriers to managers, executives, academics, and high-level professionals, but they may prevent expatriates of low socioeconomic status from being included in the sample. Future research could address this limitation and fulfill the need to conduct more expatriate research on members of lower-status groups (Haak-Saheem *et al.*, 2019) by using a multinational team of researchers to recruit participants in person or by asking a variety of different employers to distribute research invitations to low socioeconomic status employees who may not be reached through social media.

Language. Finally, our sample was generally limited to English-speaking expatriates who participated in English-speaking social media groups. Future research could translate the survey into multiple languages and distribute it in a variety of different countries.

Conclusion

The current research supports BSBS's finding that non-male expatriates are at a greater risk of experiencing workplace harassment than their male counterparts and extends this finding to include members of other traditionally marginalized groups. Where we diverge from BSBS is that our evidence of international status structures influencing the emergence of this harassment is much weaker. While this research helps to generalize some of the knowledge that we have about expatriate experiences with workplace harassment, it raises questions about other previously accepted findings. Consequently, this work highlights the need for increased research in this domain.

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TABLE 1

Participants by Country

Host Country	N(BSBS)	N(Current)	SIGI Score	Host Country	N(BSBS)	N(Current)	SIGI Score
Albania		5	4--High	Lithuania		4	2--Low
Angola		5	3--Medium	Malaysia	3	6	4--High
Armenia		1	4--High	Mexico		1	3--Medium
Aruba		1	1--Very Low	Moldova		3	2--Low
Australia		31	2--Low	Morocco	5	3	2--Low
Austria		7	1--Very Low	Nepal		9	4--High
Azerbaijan	1	1	4--High	Netherlands		4	1--Very Low
Bangladesh	4		5--Very High	New Zealand		3	1--Very Low
Belgium		1	1--Very Low	Nicaragua		1	3--Medium
Bolivia		1	2--Low	Nigeria	17	7	5--Very High
Botswana	1		3--Medium	Norway		11	1--Very Low
Bulgaria		1	2--Low	Oman	1	1	5--Very High
Burundi		2	3--Medium	Pakistan	4		4--High
Cambodia	23	2	2--Low	Panama		4	1--Very Low
Canada		11	1--Very Low	Peru		2	2--Low
China		5	3--Medium	Poland		2	2--Low
Colombia		4	2--Low	Portugal		4	2--Low
Costa Rica		1	2--Low	Qatar		1	5--Very High
Croatia		1	2--Low	Russia		2	1--Very Low
DR Congo		1	5--Very High	Rwanda	2	3	3--Medium
Denmark		9	1--Very Low	Saudi Arabia	5	5	5--Very High
Dominican Republic		1	1--Very Low	Serbia		2	1--Very Low
Egypt	1		5--Very High	Sierra Leone	4		5--Very High
Finland		1	1--Very Low	Singapore		10	2--Low
France		8	1--Very Low	Somalia	1		5--Very High
Gambia		3	5--Very High	South Africa	3	1	2--Low
Georgia		3	3--Medium	South Korea		2	1--Very Low
Germany		5	1--Very Low	Spain		8	1--Very Low
Greece		1	3--Medium	Sri Lanka		1	3--Medium
Guinea-Bissau		3	3--Medium	Sweden		2	1--Very Low
Hong Kong		2	2--Low	Switzerland		9	2--Low
India	16		4--High	Tanzania	8	3	4--High
Ireland		38	1--Very Low	Thailand	19	3	2--Low
Israel	4		2--Low	Tunisia		3	3--Medium
Italy		2	1--Very Low	Turkey	12	2	2--Low
Japan		32	2--Low	Ukraine		1	2--Low
Jordan	2		4--High	United Arab Emirates		3	4--High
Kazakhstan	14	4	2--Low	United Kingdom		14	2--Low
Kenya	4	3	3--Medium	United States		36	2--Low
Kuwait	1	1	5--Very High	Uruguay		2	3--Medium
Kyrgyzstan		2	3--Medium	Uzbekistan		1	3--Medium
Latvia		5	2--Low	Vietnam		4	3--Medium
Lebanon	5		5--Very High	Zambia		1	5--Very High
Lesotho		1	2--Low	Zimbabwe		1	3--Medium
Liberia		1	5--Very High	**Total**	**160**	**391**	

TABLE 2

Comparison of Bader et al. Sample and Current Research Sample

		Bader et al.	Current Research (All)	Current Research (Male)	Current Research (Not Male)	Current Research (SIGI=1)	Current Research (SIGI=2)	Current Research (SIGI=3)	Current Research (SIGI=4)	Current Research (SIGI=5)
SIGI (Overall)	M	3.169	2.097	2.219	2.021					
	SD	(1.251)	(1.086)	(1.131)	(1.053)					
Host Power Distance	M	71.258	51.173	53.437	49.758	38.418	49.676	73.321	79.893	77.533
	SD	(14.321)	(21.245)	(21.223)	(21.183)	(20.414)	(15.176)	(7.684)	(14.119)	(8.008)
Age	M	42.560	48.171	49.020	47.638	49.402	47.279	42.415	59.679	44.524
	SD	(11.920)	(22.112)	(21.333)	(22.616)	(23.316)	(22.280)	(11.741)	(29.059)	(11.330)
Male	N	102	151			38	74	20	6	13
	%	(63.750%)	(38.619%)			(31.148%)	(41.341%)	(48.780%)	(21.429%)	(61.905%)
Female	N	58	235			82	103	21	22	7
	%	(36.250%)	(60.102%)			(67.213%)	(57.542%)	(51.220%)	(78.571%)	(33.333%)
Non-binary / transgender	N	0	5			2	2	0	0	1
	%	(0.000%)	(1.279%)			(1.639%)	(1.117%)	(0.000%)	(0.000%)	(4.762%)
Gender Harassment	M	1.450	1.404	1.237	1.508	1.400	1.334	1.528	1.560	1.563
	SD	(0.810)	(0.634)	(0.493)	(0.689)	(0.643)	(0.526)	(0.752)	(0.744)	(0.923)
Ethnicity Harassment	M	N/A	1.521	1.481	1.547	1.396	1.472	1.854	1.744	1.722
	SD		(0.803)	(0.709)	(0.858)	(0.738)	(0.714)	(1.014)	(0.937)	(1.025)
Frustration	M	2.960 [#]	3.005	2.498	2.732	2.621	2.623	2.695	2.786	2.631
	SD	(1.700)	(1.101)	(0.741)	(0.755)	(0.749)	(0.747)	(0.765)	(0.917)	(0.692)
General Stress	M	2.160	2.642	2.861	3.096	2.872	2.989	3.130	3.369	3.190
	SD	(0.940)	(0.758)	(1.091)	(1.101)	(1.133)	(1.090)	(1.011)	(1.177)	(1.020)
Job Satisfaction	M	5.490 [#]	3.870	3.916	3.842	3.997	3.905	3.537	3.667	3.762
	SD	(1.240)	(1.056)	(0.993)	(1.096)	(1.055)	(1.024)	(1.016)	(1.144)	(1.207)
Total	N	160	391	151	240	122	179	41	28	21

Values from current research are reported on scale of 1-5; values from Bader et al. are reported on scale of 1-7
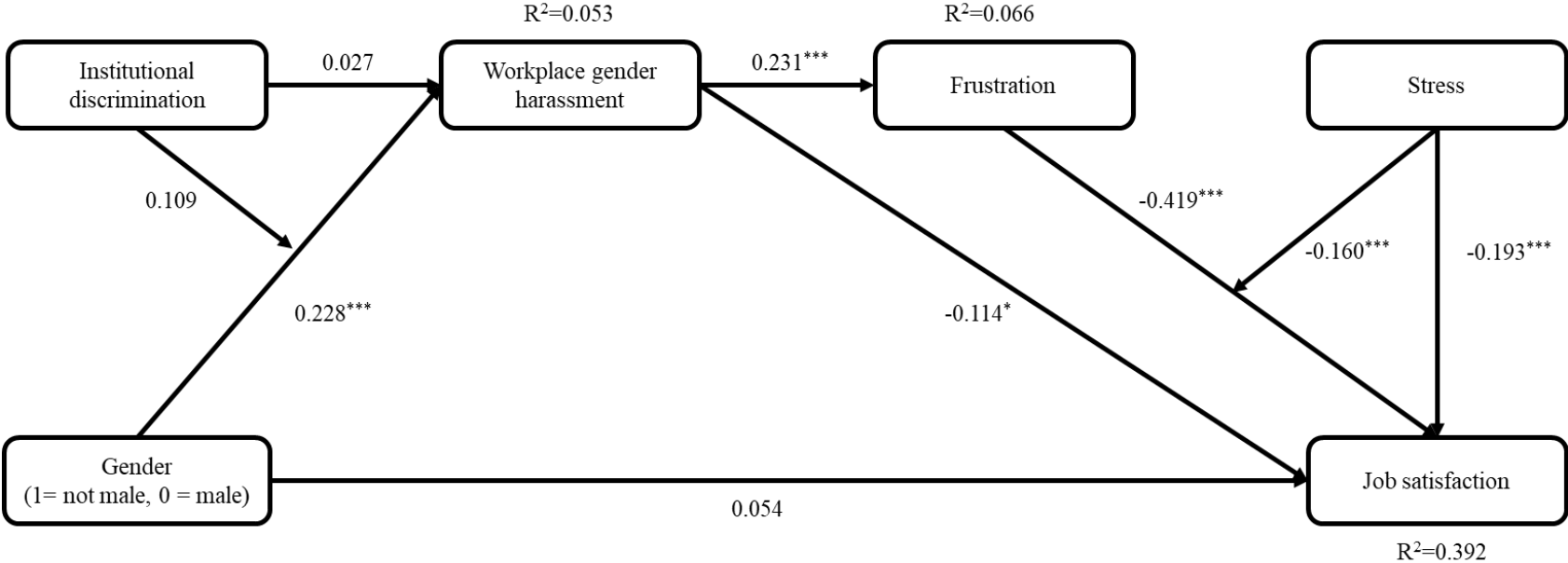
TABLE 3

Summary of Hypotheses Tests by Study

	Hypothesis	Bader et al.			Current Research		
		Hypothesis Supported	Path Coefficient	p-value	Hypothesis Supported	Path Coefficient	p-value
H1A	Non-male expatriates experience higher degrees of workplace gender harassment than male expatriates.	**Yes**	0.370	<0.001	**Yes**	0.228	<0.001
H1B	Institutional discrimination of non-males moderates the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment in a way that non-male expatriates experience higher degrees of workplace gender harassment when the institutional gender discrimination in the host country is high.	**Yes**	0.180	<0.05	No	0.109	0.207
H2A	Workplace gender harassment relates negatively to job satisfaction.	**Yes**	-0.138	<0.05	**Yes**	-0.114	0.033
H2B	Workplace gender harassment relates positively to frustration.	**Yes**	0.205	<0.05	**Yes**	0.231	<0.001
H2C	Frustration relates negatively to job satisfaction.	**Yes**	-0.285	<0.05	**Yes**	-0.419	<0.001
H3	Stress moderates the relationship between frustration and job satisfaction in such a way that frustrated expatriates experience lower job satisfaction when they are more stressed.	No	0.103	>0.05	**Yes**	-0.160	<0.001
H4	A nation's power distance dimension moderates the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment in such a way that non-male expatriates experience higher degrees of workplace gender harassment when the nation's power distance dimension in the host country is high.		-----		**Limited[a]**	0.163	0.024
H5A	Asian and Asian-American expatriates working outside of Asia experience higher degrees of workplace ethnic harassment than other expatriates.		-----		**Limited[b]**	0.166	0.061
H5B	A nation's power distance dimension moderates the relationship between race/ethnicity and workplace ethnic harassment in such a way that Asian and Asian-American expatriates working outside of Asia experience higher degrees of workplace ethnic harassment when the host country's power distance dimension is high.		-----		No	0.084	0.347
H6A	Workplace ethnic harassment relates negatively to job satisfaction.		-----		**Yes**	-0.146	0.002
H6B	Workplace ethnic harassment relates positively to frustration.		-----		**Yes**	-0.146	0.002
H7	#MeToo trending moderates the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment in a way that non-male expatriates experience lower degrees of workplace gender harassment when #MeToo trending in the host country is high.		-----		**No**	0.041	0.483
H8A	COVID-19 impact moderates the relationship between gender and workplace gender harassment in a way that non-male expatriates experience higher degrees of workplace gender harassment when COVID-19 impact in the host country is high.		-----		**No**	-0.003, 0.001	0.972 0.981
H8B	COVID-19 impact moderates the relationship between race/ethnicity and workplace ethnic harassment in such a way that Asian and Asian-American expatriates working outside of Asia experience higher degrees of workplace ethnic harassment when COVID-19 impact in the host country is high.		-----		**No**	0.070 0.107	0.290 0.104

[a]Limited support indicates that the hypothesis was supported by the initial hypothesis test but not robust to model specifications

[b]Limited support indicates that the hypothesis was not supported by the initial hypothesis test but was supported through the use of hypotheses tests using alternative specifications

FIGURE 1

Tests of Hypotheses 1 Through 3

*** p<0.001, ** p<0.01, * p<0.05