

A study on a narrative investigation into personal experiences of
sexually harassed students at the University of Zululand

By

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“It is through the conquering of your challenges that you grow and prosper in life” *unknown*.

Declaration

This is to declare that this dissertation titled: **A study on a narrative investigation into personal experiences of sexually harassed students at the University of Zululand** represents my own work both in conception and in execution. Also that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references, and that this dissertation was not previously submitted by me for a degree at another university.

Mfundo Sithenjwa Sibusiso Nene

Abstract

The present study examined the experiences of sexual harassment from those who were survivors of sexual harassment. The study consisted of two main objectives. The first objective was to ascertain the type of psychological and physical effects of sexual harassment. The second objective was to examine the possible causes or/and perpetuating factors of sexual harassment.

The study revealed that all the respondents experienced stress related symptoms as the main effect of sexual harassment. It was found that: 40% of the respondents experienced discomfort, confusion, and feeling unsafe; 60% experienced disorientation and were obsessive; 60% experienced nervousness; 55% experienced depression or some symptoms of depression; 30% responded with avoidance behavior and 40% became introverted. In summary, respondents experienced emotional consequences, such as anger, self blame, low self esteem, and lack of trust. Cognitive consequences included lack of concentration while behavioral consequences included impulsive behavior. Lastly, the study revealed that power (55%), disrespect for human dignity (10%), and poverty (25%) are the main causes or perpetuating factors of sexual harassment at the University of Zululand.

The general consensus in literature is that sexual harassment has been recognized as a serious problem in the literature over the 30 years (Pina, Gannon and Saunders, 2009; Hill and Silva, 2005; Nethling, 2005; Karjane, Fisher and Cullen, 2002). In this study, the researcher review the existing research surrounding the phenomenon of sexual harassment, paying particular attention to factors of relevance for understanding the effects of sexual harassment and the causes/perpetuating factors. The different theoretical perspectives and models of sexual harassment (sociocultural, organization, sex-role spillover, natural/biological, socio-cognitive, and four-factor) are also considered. Finally, several suggestions are made for future research and treatment avenues relating to the sexual harassment in institutions of higher learning.

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Chapter 1: Introduction

1.1 Introduction

In 2001, Human Rights Watch issued a report that stunned the South Africans (The World Health R2002). The report highlighted sexual violence against students in both disadvantaged and elite schools, as well as the lack of effective institutional responses to sexual assault cases. Twenty-three of the girls raped were documented and a further thirty-six girls were interviewed about their experiences of sexual violence and harassment. Although the study undertaken could not measure the extent of the problem, it concluded that sexual abuse and harassment of students by both educators and other students is widespread in South Africa (Brooks & Higson-Smith, 2004). The issue of sexual harassment of students has attracted much needed attention partially through highly publicized campus sexual assault trials and allegations of reports being mishandled by school officials, thus, sexual harassment remains a critical issue in institutions of higher learning within the South African context. A deeper understanding of the effects of sexual harassment to survivors and perpetuating factors of such behaviour is needed if appropriate programmatic interventions aimed at protecting survivors are to be designed and implemented within the University of Zululand campus.

1.2 Theoretical background to the study

In South Africa as elsewhere in Africa, little research had been done in recent years on the question of sexual harassment at tertiary institutions. At a national level, the first case of sexual harassment was heard by a South African Industrial Court in Durban in 1989 (Simelane, 2001). The case involved the dismissal of a Senior Manager after he had allegedly fondled a female employee and made suggestive remarks to her. A variety of effects have been noted as occurring consequent upon sexual harassment. These include psychological, occupational and physical effects.

In terms of academic debate and research, sexual harassment has not yet enjoyed a high profile on University of Zululand campus. It was not until the early 1990s that a comprehensive study on sexual harassment and violence on the campus of the University of Cape Town (UCT) was undertaken. This was due to wide scale sensational reporting in local newspapers and magazines on the extent of sexual harassment on South African campuses. The study resulted in a 75 page report which made public acknowledgment that sexual harassment and sexual violence existed and prompted reactions from other institutions and individuals (Simelane, 2001).

In 1992, the University of the Witwatersrand brought out a report on research into sexism and sexual harassment on that campus and a few years later similar research was conducted at the University of Natal. It must be appreciated that the University of Natal has become increasingly pressed to cater for the different needs of students. Sexual harassment in African tertiary institutions has not been fully addressed due to various reasons. These include problems of definition of the concept, the sensitivity of the issues thus inability of survivors to report cases and the society's failure to appreciate the impacts of such behaviour not only on the survivors, but also the work/learning environment within university institutions (Simelane, 2001:3).

Literature revealed that in South Africa sexual harassment have not received much needed attention. However, the University of Cape Town was the first institution to conduct a study and brought out a report on sexual harassment. In 1992, the University of the Witwatersrand brought out a report on research into sexism and sexual harassment on that campus and a few years later similar research was conducted at the University of Natal.

The first large scale study of sexual harassment took place from February to June 2005 at Rhodes Campus and involved a survey as well as focus group discussions with students and staff. According to Ziehl (2005) the results show that on the whole both students and staff have progressive attitudes towards sexual harassment. They feel that it is a problem that needs to be addressed and do not believe that women (or the recipients) bring it on themselves and are therefore to blame. They further believe that the best way to deal with it is to seek outside help and show a great preparedness to do so, should they find themselves in such a situation. As per this study, researcher Ziehl (2005) argues that the focus group discussions revealed gender differences in experience of sexual harassment. The researcher goes on maintaining that many female students identified being gawked at or leer at as insulting whereas male students tend to have a more complacent, mundane attitude towards their bodies. According to the researcher, the male staff focus group revealed an intellectual approach to sexual harassment whereas in the female staff focus group more emotionality was displayed and more first-hand experiences were relayed. The researcher maintains that male staff identified sexually explicit art as something which female staff find offensive and see this as an example of sexual harassment. In the female staff focus group a number of incidents of sexual harassment (which is defined as something that makes you feel uncomfortable and embarrassed) were related only some of which were reported and then not to the satisfaction of the recipient.

This only large scale according to the researcher (Ziehl, 2005) the survey indicated that about forty percent (40%) of students know someone who has been sexually harassed, a fifth have experienced sexist remarks by a lecturer and two thirds by a peer. Similar proportions applied in the case of sexual banter by lecturer and peer. In the case of staff, about a quarter knows someone who has been sexually harassed and about a fifth have experienced sexist remarks by a boss or peer whereas about fifteen percent (15%) have experienced unwanted sexual banter. The study also revealed that other forms of sexual harassment were reported by less than ten percent (10%) of staff (being asked to watch pornography, exchange sexual favours etc). The same applied to students except that in their case the proportions that had been asked to watch pornography and had experienced unwanted fondling by a peer were much higher. The study concluded by researcher Ziehl (2005) stating that more can be done to educate staff in lower level positions and male students about the intricacies of sexual harassment as well as the infrastructure that is available at the institution to deal with sexual harassment.

Given that sexual harassment is difficult to measure and difficult to prove, a number of survivors have fallen prey in a number of instances. However, it may occur between men and women, or between members of the same gender with or without the same sexual orientation; thus, men may harass other men or women other women. Therefore, the present research continues a trend already underway at other universities but differs in one important trend: it focus on students' experiences of sexual harassment.

1.3 Motivation for the study

The study is particularly motivated by reportedly personal encounters or incidences of reported sexual harassment of students within the University of Zululand.

The researcher has interacted with a number of students within the University of Zululand campus and has come across reports by students that they are experiencing unwanted sexual advances from other students (usually senior students or students ahead of them in respect of studies), elder males who usually visit the campus premises on weekends, and most importantly lecturers who are obliged to protect their students from harm and other forms of abuse.

1.4 Statement of the problem

Sexual harassment has been observed and dealt with in a number of years in different contexts but the current study seeks to address it from an experiential point of view.

In summary, this chapter has outlined the dilemmatic nature of sexual harassment, theory behind it and its prevalence in different contexts. The next chapter will cover the literature related material.

Chapter 2: Literature review

2.1 Introduction

A university is first and foremost an educational institution, dedicated to expanding and imparting knowledge. For students, attending university is more than simply an intellectual experience. According to Sutherland (1991) for all students, the educational process extends beyond the formal classroom situation, into all areas of campus life. In addition, universities employ a wide range of different strategies in dealing with academic and support staff issues. As the training ground for tomorrow's leaders and professionals, they bear a special responsibility to be exemplary employers and to act as models for other institutions.

Therefore, as noted by Sutherland (1991), the existence of sexual harassment seriously undermines both the educational and employment process of any institution. While it would be neither desirable nor possible for a university to interfere in the private lives and relations of its staff and students, it remains a university responsibility to provide a safe environment for all members of its community to reach their full educational and work potential. Sexual harassment prevents this from happening.

This persistent and perplexing problem as noted by Sutherland, (1991), Pina, Gannon and Saunders, (2009), Hill and Silva, (2009) has been the focus of intensive research in a number of American, Canadian, and Australian universities. Therefore, the next section focuses on the widely accepted definitions of sexual harassment in the academic context or institution.

2.2 Definitions of sexual harassment

2.2.1 Legal

In the United States of America, sexual harassment is legally defined as a form of sex discrimination that includes: "unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature..." Furthermore, this conduct, "explicitly or implicitly affects an individual's employment, unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance, or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work environment." Sexual harassment can occur in many different circumstances, and can include but not be limited to the following behaviours: a) the victim as well as the harasser may be a woman or a man. The victim does not have to be of the opposite sex, b) the harasser can be the victim's supervisor, an agent of the employer, a supervisor in another area, a co-worker, or a non-employee, c) the victim does not have to be the person harassed but could be anyone affected by the

offensive conduct, d) unlawful sexual harassment may occur without economic injury to or discharge of the victim, e) the harasser's conduct must be unwelcome (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009:128).

In the United Kingdom, a person subjects a woman to harassment if, (a) on the ground of her sex, he engages in unwanted conduct that has the purpose or effect of (i) violating her dignity or (ii) of creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating, or offensive environment for her, (b) he engages in any form of unwanted verbal, non-verbal, or physical conduct of a sexual nature that has the purpose or effect of (i) violating her dignity or (ii) creating an intimidating, hostile, degrading, humiliating, or offensive environment for her, or (c) on the ground of her rejection of or submission to unwanted conduct of a kind mentioned in paragraphs (a) or (b), he treats her less favourably than he would treat her had she not rejected, or submitted to, the conduct. (2) Conduct shall be regarded as having the effect mentioned in subparagraph (i) or (ii) of subsection (1) (a) or (b) only if, having regard to all the circumstances, including in particular the perception of the woman, it should reasonably be considered as having that effect.” The definition also applies, “with such modifications as are required, to the harassment of men” (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009:128).

In the South African context, according to the South African Department of labour code of good practice (1998:1-2) sexual harassment is unwanted conduct of a sexual nature. The unwanted nature of sexual harassment distinguishes it from behaviour that is welcome and mutual.

(1) Sexual attention becomes sexual harassment if:

- (a) The behaviour is persisted in, although a single incident of harassment can constitute sexual harassment; and/or
- (b) The recipient has made it clear that the behaviour is considered offensive; and/or
- (c) The perpetrator should have known that the behaviour is regarded as unacceptable.

2.2.2 An Academic Definition of sexual harassment

Nearly all universities try to provide guidance on the issue of sexual harassment. In a guidebook on college administration, Sandler and Shoop (1997:4) defines sexual harassment as follows: “Unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature constitute sexual harassment when any one of the following is true: (1) submission to such conduct is made either explicitly or implicitly a term or condition of a person’s academic advancement; (2) submission to or rejection of such conduct by an individual is used as the basis for academic decisions affecting the person; (3) such conduct has the purpose or effect of unreasonably interfering with a

person's academic performance or creating an intimidating, hostile, or offensive learning environment." In addition, Sutherland (1991:9) further stipulates that this above described nature or type of sexual harassment has become known as 'quid quo harassment'. This occurs when specific benefits are withheld as a means of coercing sexual favours. In other words, an individual in a position of power, either explicitly or implicitly, uses his or her power, authority to promote, pass or fail to persuade someone to engage in sexual activities. These activities can include request for dates, flirtations, touching, and request for sex (Sutherland, 1991).

2.2.3 Forms of sexual harassment

The South African labour code of good practice (1998:2) maintains that (1) Sexual harassment may include unwelcome physical, verbal or non-verbal conduct, but is not limited to the examples listed as follows:

(a) Physical conduct of a sexual nature includes all unwanted physical contact, ranging from touching to sexual assault and rape, and includes a strip search by or in the presence of the opposite sex.

(b) Verbal forms of sexual harassment include unwelcome innuendoes, suggestions and hints, sexual advances, comments with sexual overtones, sex-related jokes or insults or unwelcome graphic comments about a person's body made in their presence or directed toward them, unwelcome and inappropriate enquiries about a person's sex life, and unwelcome whistling directed at a person or group of persons.

(c) Non-verbal forms of sexual harassment include unwelcome gestures, indecent exposure, and the unwelcome display of sexually explicit pictures and objects.

(d) Quid pro quo harassment occurs where an owner, employer, supervisor, member of management or co-employee, undertakes or attempts to influence the process of employment, promotion, training, discipline, dismissal, salary increment or other benefit of an employee or job applicant, in exchange for sexual favours.

(2) Sexual favouritism exists where a person who is in a position of authority rewards only those who respond to his/her sexual advances, whilst other deserving employees who do not submit themselves to any sexual advances are denied promotions, merit rating or salary increases.

2.2.4 Epidemiology

Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009:128) point out that, "sexual harassment affects a wide spectrum of people, probably the greatest proportion of the population than any other form of discrimination." Researchers Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009) reviewed 120 studies involving over 100, 000 participants, and amassing statistical prevalence rates and found that, in actual fact, sexually harassing

and coercive behaviours are more prevalent than the most physically violent forms of sexual aggression. Although it is not always the case, sexual harassment is an act more frequently perpetrated by men against women.

In the United States, the most recent statistical survey was conducted by the U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board in 1995 surveying employees in the federal government. Their findings show that almost all (93%) out of the 44% of women that reported sexual harassment was harassed by men. However, 65% out of 19% of men that reported sexual harassment were harassed by women. Furthermore, awareness about the behaviours that constitute sexual harassment appears to have risen in the period between 1980 and 1994, and in particular, the proportion of men that classified unwanted sexual jokes, and remarks as sexual harassment rose from 42 to 64% (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009).

As noted in both previous surveys, Timmerman and Bajema (1998:676) argues that, “the less severe forms of sexually harassing behaviours, like sexual remarks/jokes (37%) and sexual looks and gestures (29%) are the most prevalent, while the most severe behaviours like assault and attempted rape still remain low at 4% for females and 2% for male employees. Interestingly, co-workers and other employees (77%), rather than people in higher or supervisory positions (28%), continue to be the most prevalent source of harassment for federal workers.” In the European Union, the largest statistical survey was the one conducted in 1998 by the European Commission, which included two main summaries of studies conducted between 1987 and 1997, one focusing on eleven northern European countries and one on five southern European countries (Timmerman & Bajema, 1998). The summary of the eleven north European studies reports that approximately one out of every two to three women and one out of every ten men has experienced some form of sexual harassment or sexually unwanted behaviour.

However, there are variations in the incidence rates of sexual harassment reported in these studies on the basis of definitions used in the studies, the particular question type, the sample type and size, and whether the study was carried out nationally or in specific branches (Timmerman & Bajema, 1998).

Timmerman and Bajema (1998:677) point out that, “with regard to incidence of particular types of sexual harassment, statistics reveal that verbal forms of sexual harassment and specifically “sexual jokes” are the most frequent experiences. In six of the national studies included in the European Commission report, the incidence rates of sexual jokes were on average around 60%.” The next most

frequently encountered verbal type was remarks about figure and sexual behaviour “and, although no precise statistical incidence rate is stated in the studies, the authors report it to be as high as that of sexual jokes. On-verbal forms of harassment like staring and whistling are also among the most frequently encountered forms of sexual harassment (at approximately 50–85%). With regard to physical forms, the most commonly experienced is “unsolicited physical contact and touching.” However, rates of unsolicited physical contact differ between countries; while the majority of national studies report a high incidence rate between 60 and 90%, the UK and Finland report percentages significantly lower at 20% and 7% respectively (Timmerman & Bajema, 1998).” The most severe of the physical forms of sexual harassment, sexual assault/rape is reported only by 1–6% of the female employees, whereas quid-pro-quo harassment in “the threat for non-submission to advances form is reported by 3–10% of women. In the promise of advancement for submission” form quid-pro quo harassment is reported by 7–16% of females (Timmerman & Bajema, 1998).

In summary, statistics clearly show that the most frequently reported forms of sexual harassment are the verbal and non verbal forms and the more severe and easily recognizable forms are reported with significantly lesser frequency. Although research examining prevalence of sexual harassment is likely to be subject to underreporting biases, current figures suggest that sexual harassment is extremely prevalent in the Western world, with some figures suggesting that the majority of women will experience some type of sexual harassment during their working lives. Therefore, it is imperative that researchers begin to understand the motives behind these behaviours and the perpetrators that commit them.

2.2.5 The incidence and prevalence of campus sexual assault

This section examines the prevalence of sexual harassment on campus. It describes what types of sexual harassment occur, where they occur, who is harassed, and who is harassing.

For the most part, students indicate that verbal and visual kinds of sexual harassment are common, but incidents involving contact or physical threat are not rare. In addition, a sizeable number of students, 41 percent, admit that they have sexually harassed someone. In most cases, these students say that they thought it was funny, the other person liked it, or it is “just a part of school life.” On this final point, both harassed and harassing students agree that sexual harassment is indeed a common part of campus life (Hill & Silva, 2009).

According to Hill and Silva (2009:14) “for a number of reasons many people think that there is a sudden epidemic of violent crimes on University campuses. The sexual harassment of students on campuses not just begins to occur in recent years. Approximately 60 years ago, Waller pointed out that many undergraduate male dating partners were extremely exploitative and competitive.” Perhaps more importantly, about 40 years ago, Kanin (1957) found that more than 20% of college women he studied had been survived by rape or attempted rape. Thus, in the generation now nearing retirement, women who are grandparents of today’s university-age students might themselves have been victims of sexual harassment on the university. Schwartz and DeKeseredy (1997) argues that, it stipulates a lot about us, our interests, and our sensibilities that that we ignored disturbing research of this type for so many years. There is little doubt that this information was ignored because the protection of students on university campuses has long been a low priority of faculty and administrators. It was only with the development of feminist coalitions, with intense lobbying and education initiatives that we began to see university communities begin to take the safety of students. For whatever reason, the past few years have seen a rapid growth in empirical research, an increase in media attention, attitudinal changes among campus administrators, and a greater university readiness to respond to the needs of students, particularly female students. The university community now takes sexual harassment more seriously than ever before.

It is possible, of course, that the sexual harassment problem on campus is getting worse, and that this increase in harassment is what is accounting for the increased attention. Incidence refers here to the percentage of women who stated that they were sexually harassed and the percentage of men who reported having engaged in sexual harassment and the percentage of men who sexually harassed women in the past year. Prevalence is the percentage of men who reported having engaged in sexual harassment and the percentage of women who were survivors over a longer time, such as the period since leaving school.

Hill and Silva (2009:14) maintains that “sexual harassment is a part of college life, so common that, according to one student, “it seems almost normal.” Most college students (89 percent) say that sexual harassment occurs among students at their college, with one-fifth (21 percent) saying that peer harassment happens often. When asked about specific kinds of harassment, two-thirds of students (62 percent) say that they have been sexually harassed, and a similar number (66 percent) say that they know someone personally (such as a friend or classmate) who has been sexually harassed.” According to the researchers Hill and Silva (2009) that means that about six million college students encounter

sexual harassment at college. Expressed another way, on a campus of 10,000 undergraduate students, about 6,000 students will be harassed.

2.2.6 What Types of Sexual harassment

According to college students, “unwanted comments, jokes, gestures, and looks are the most common type of sexual harassment on campus. About half of college students have been the target of unwanted sexual comments, jokes, gestures, or looks, and a similar number know someone personally who experienced this type of harassment. Being called gay, lesbian, or a homophobic name is also a common experience among college students. More than one-third know someone who has been called gay, lesbian, or a homophobic name, and about one-quarter of students have had this happen to them. Physical forms of harassment are also prevalent. For example, one-quarter of college students have been touched, grabbed, or pinched in a sexual way, and nearly one-third of students know someone personally who has experienced this kind of harassment (Hill & Silva, 2009:14).”

Other common types of sexual harassment include flashing or mooning, intentionally brushing up against someone in a sexual way, and spreading sexual rumours about individuals. While the percentage of college students experiencing some types of sexual harassment is relatively low, the number of implied incidents is quite high. For example, the 5 percent of undergraduate students ages 18 to 24 who say that they have been forced to do something sexual other than kissing translates into about half a million students nationwide, and the 11 percent of students who say they have been physically blocked, cornered, or followed in a sexual way translates into about a million students nationwide (Hill & Silva, 2009).

This put another way, Hill and Silva (2009) maintains that, at a campus with 10,000 undergraduate students, 500 students will experience some form of sexual assault while at college, and about a thousand students will be blocked, cornered, or followed in a sexual way during their college lives, no trivial matter for colleges and universities.

2.2.7 Where Does Sexual harassment occur?

Sexual harassment is not confined to any particular location on campus. To the extent that any pattern emerges, the number of incidents at a location probably reflects the amount of time students spend there. Among students who have been harassed, more than one-third have been harassed in a dorm or student housing (39 percent) or outside on campus grounds (37 percent). About one-fifth have been harassed in common areas of campus buildings (24 percent) or in classrooms or lecture halls (20

percent). More than one-quarter of students (27 percent) have been harassed “someplace else,” and 12 percent are not sure. The latter response may in part reflect the “placeless” nature of some forms of sexual harassment, such as e-mail messages or harassment that takes place in multiple places (e.g., being followed). It may also reflect the classification of an incident as “related to their college life,” even if it happened off campus. For example, an incident that occurred in a professor’s home or at a bar that is frequented by students may indeed be part of the college experience, even if the sexual harassment did not occur on campus (Hill & Silva, 2009).

“The likelihood of encountering sexual harassment at a particular location varies somewhat by gender. Among students who have encountered harassment, male students (45 percent) are more likely than female students (35 percent) to have been sexually harassed in their dorm or student housing, while female students are more likely to have been harassed outside on campus grounds (43 percent versus 29 percent). Male students (9 percent) are also more likely than female students (3 percent) to have encountered sexual harassment in a locker room or bathroom (Hill & Silva, 2009:16).”

2.2.8 At All Types of Institutions

Sexual harassment happens at all kinds of colleges, but it is somewhat more prevalent at larger schools. Students attending small colleges with fewer than a thousand undergraduates are less likely to say that sexual harassment happens on their campus. Almost one-third of these students (27 percent) say that sexual harassment never happens at their college, compared to 8 percent of students attending large schools (10,000 or more undergraduates). The differences by size of school are most pronounced regarding sexual harassment of students by professors, teaching assistants, and other school employees (Hill & Silva, 2009).

About 70 percent of students, at large schools say that professors, teaching assistants, or other school employees sexually harass them on their campus, compared to about half of students (50 percent) at small schools. In both cases, however, most students say that it does not happen often. Also, researchers examined differences among students attending colleges in urban, suburban, or rural locations but found no statistically significant differences (Hill & Silva, 2009).

Sexual harassment appears to be less common at two-year colleges than at four-year colleges and universities. More than half of students (57 percent) attending two-year colleges and nearly three-fourths of students (71 percent) at four-year colleges say that students harass other students often or occasionally. Conversely, almost one-third of students (32 percent) attending two-year colleges and

about one-fifth of students (21 percent) at four-year colleges say that students rarely or never sexually harass other students (Hill & Silva, 2009).

Half of students (50 percent) at two-year colleges say they know someone personally who has been sexually harassed, compared to 70 percent of students at four-year colleges. About half of students (48 percent) at two-year colleges say that they have been sexually harassed, compared to 65 percent of students at four-year institutions. These differences reflect in part the shorter length of time that students attend two-year institutions. They may also reflect the fact that students attending two-year colleges are more likely to live at home with their parents. Among our sample, 60 percent of students at two-year colleges compared to 25 percent of students attending four-year colleges lived at home with their parents. Conversely, 44 percent of students at four-year institutions and 4 percent of students at two-year colleges lived on campus. Since the dorm or student housing is the location cited by students as the most likely spot for sexual harassment, it makes sense that students who do not live on campus are less likely to encounter harassment there. Indeed, only about one-fifth of two-year College students (22 percent) who have been harassed have encountered sexual harassment at a dorm or student housing compared to 43 percent of the same group attending four year colleges (Hill & Silva, 2009).

The proportion of students at two-year colleges who say they encountered sexual harassment in student housing or a dorm is larger than the proportion who live on campus. This difference may not be inconsistent as students who do not live on campus may still attend events or parties in the dorms. Some students may also have confused student housing with off-campus housing where students live (Hill & Silva, 2009).

Rates of some types of sexual harassment are somewhat higher among students attending private colleges than among those attending public colleges. More than two-thirds of students (68 percent) at private colleges and 59 percent of students at public colleges have been sexually harassed. While rates of contact harassment are similar between the two groups (34 percent private versus 32 percent public), rates of noncontact harassment differ somewhat (65 percent private versus 58 percent public). In addition, private college students (45 percent) are somewhat more likely than public college students (37 percent) to admit that they have harassed someone in a noncontact way. Students' perceptions of campus climate differ from their personal experiences. Private college students are somewhat more likely than public college students to say that sexual harassment is not occurring on their campus (15 percent versus 10 percent) or "only a little" sexual harassment happens (42 percent versus 32 percent).

That is, students at private colleges are more likely to have encountered sexual harassment themselves but are less likely to think that it is common on their campus (Hill & Silva, 2009).

2.2.9 Who Is Harassed: Both Male and Female Students Are Harassed, But in Different Ways

Male (61 percent) and female (62 percent) students are equally likely to encounter sexual harassment in their college lives. Important differences between men and women are evident, however, when the types of harassment, as well as reactions to these experiences, are reconsidered, according to Hill and Silva (2009:17), “female students are more likely to experience sexual harassment that involves physical contact (35 percent versus 29 percent). Among all students, more than one-third of females (41 percent) and males (36 percent) experience sexual harassment in their first year of college. Among harassed students, 66 percent of females and 59 percent of males encounter sexual harassment in their first year.”

2.2.10 Differences by Sexual Identity and Race/Ethnicity

Some groups of students are more likely to be sexually harassed than are others. Lesbian, gay, bisexual, and transgender (LGBT) students are more likely than heterosexual students to be sexually harassed in college and to be sexually harassed often. LGBT students are at higher risk for both contact and noncontact types of sexual harassment. Harassers come from all quarters of the academic community. Among students who have experienced harassment, LGBT students are more likely to have been harassed by peers (92 percent versus 78 percent), teachers (13 percent versus 7 percent), and school employees (11 percent versus 5 percent) (Hill & Silva, 2009).

“The survey reveals racial/ethnic differences in the prevalence of sexual harassment among college students. White college students are more likely than black and Hispanic students to experience sexual harassment. White students are more likely to experience verbal and other noncontact forms of harassment. Specifically, white students are more likely than their black and Hispanic peers to hear sexual comments, jokes, gestures, or looks (54 percent white versus 49 percent black and 49 percent Hispanic), to be flashed or mooned (30 percent versus 19 percent and 21 percent), or to be called a homophobic name (26 percent versus 14 percent and 14 percent). College students are equally likely to experience physical or contact sexual harassment regardless of race/ethnicity (Hill & Silva, 2009:17).” The one exception is “forced sexual contact,” where the size of the sample was not sufficient to draw conclusions.

Racial/ethnic differences in the prevalence of sexual harassment may in part reflect the types of schools attended and the gender make-up of different populations of college students. White students are more likely to attend colleges where sexual harassment is somewhat more common, namely private colleges or four-year public institutions (Hill & Silva, 2009).

Due to the notion that black and Hispanic males are underrepresented on college campuses, black and Hispanic populations are predominately female, and this sample of Hill and Silva (2009) reflects this as well. Differences among women by race/ethnicity, however, still appear to reflect a greater incidence of sexual harassment among white students. White women are more likely than black and Hispanic women to know someone personally who has been harassed (69 percent white versus 59 percent black and 55 percent Hispanic). White women are also more likely than black and Hispanic women to have been the target of unwanted sexual comments, jokes, gestures, or looks (60 percent versus 50 percent and 47 percent) and more likely to have been mooned or flashed (33 percent versus 16 percent and 20 percent).

Other experiences are not statistically significant when examined by race and gender (Hill & Silva, 2009).

2.2.11 Who is harassing?

2.2.11.1 Student-to-student

Student-to-student harassment is the most common form of sexual harassment on campus. More than two-thirds of students (68 percent) say that peer harassment happens often or occasionally at their college, and more than three quarters of students (80 percent) who experienced sexual harassment have been harassed by a student or a former student. Given that students comprise the vast majority of the campus population, it is perhaps not surprising that most sexual harassment occurs between and among students. Still, the prevalence of peer harassment among college students suggests a student culture that accepts or at least seems to tolerate this type of behaviour (Hill & Silva, 2009).

2.2.11.2 Faculty/staff-to-student

Sexual harassment of undergraduates by faculty and staff is less common than peer harassment, but it does occur. Almost one-fifth of students (18 percent) say that faculty and staff often or occasionally sexually harass students. Conversely, only one-quarter of students (25 percent), say that faculty and staff never harass students.

About 7 percent of harassed students have been harassed by a professor. Only a small number of students cite resident advisers, security guards, coaches, counsellors, or deans as harassers. While faculty/staff-to-student sexual harassment does not typically happen, these percentages imply that roughly half a million undergraduate students are sexually harassed by faculty or other college personnel while in college (Hill & Silva, 2009).

“Sexual harassment by faculty can be especially traumatic because the harasser is in a position of authority or power. One indication that students find sexual harassment by a faculty or staff member especially objectionable is that the majority of students (78 percent) say that they would report an incident if it involved a professor, teaching assistant, or other staff member, whereas less than half (39 percent) say they would report an incident that involved another student. Students may feel safer reporting faculty and staff harassment because it feels more egregious than peer harassment, which may present the possibility of ridicule and may be seen as something students should be able to handle on their own (Hill & Silva, 2009:21).”

2.2.11.3 Male and female harassers

Among students who have been harassed, 10 both male students (37 percent) and female (58 percent) students have been harassed by a man. More than half of these female students (58 percent) have been harassed by one man, and a little less than half (48 percent) have been harassed by a group of men. Female-to-female student sexual harassment appears to be the least common combination (Hill & Silva, 2009).

Less than 10 percent of female students have been sexually harassed by another woman (9 percent) or group of women (6 percent) (Hill & Silva, 2009). For male students who have been sexually harassed, the picture is more complicated. About one-third have been harassed by one man (37 percent) or one woman (33 percent), and about one-fifth have been harassed by a group of men (21 percent) or a group of both men and women (23 percent). A relatively large number of students (13 percent total, 20 percent male, 7 percent female) are not sure who harassed them. Presumably, these incidents (e.g., spreading rumours, posting messages) were conducted anonymously (Hill & Silva, 2009).

About four in 10 college students (41 percent) admit to harassing someone. Among these students, noncontact types of sexual harassment are most common. For example, one-third of these students (34 percent) say they made unwanted sexual comments, jokes, gestures, or looks, and 17 percent admit to making homophobic remarks (Hill & Silva, 2009:22). More than half of male college students (51

percent) admit that they have sexually harassed someone in college, and more than one-fifth (22 percent) admit to harassing someone often or occasionally. One-fifth of male students (20 percent) say that they have physically harassed someone. Although men are more likely to be cited as harassers and to admit to harassing behaviours, the problem of campus sexual harassment does not rest solely with college men. Of the students who have been harassed, one-fifth (20 percent) have been harassed by a female. Almost one-third of female students (31 percent) admit to committing some type of harassment. These findings remind us that not all men are sexual aggressors and not all women are passive victims. Both male and female students can and do behave in ways that are viewed by others as overly sexually aggressive (Hill & Silva, 2009).

“The distinction between harasser and victim is also not so clear, as many students who admit to harassing others have been harassed themselves. Among students who have been the target of sexual harassment, a majority (55 percent) say that they have harassed others. In contrast, of students who have never been harassed, only 17 percent say they have harassed others. More than one-fifth of students (21 percent) who have been harassed say that they have harassed others often or occasionally. These patterns reflect, in part, differences in the willingness of students to recognize unwanted sexual conduct in themselves and others. These patterns also suggest a cycle of sexual harassment (Hill & Silva, 2009:22).”

2.3 Theories of sexual assault

It is commonly accepted that there is no single cause of sexual harassment nor is there a theoretical framework that best explains it. However, there have been five widely accepted theories/models of sexual harassment that attempt to explain the phenomenon from different angles and perspectives (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009).

2.3.1 Single factor theories

2.3.1.1 Socio-cultural theory

Socio-cultural theories, largely feminist in orientation, examine the wider social and political context in which sexual harassment is created and occurs. According to these theories, sexual harassment is a logical consequence of the gender inequality and sexism that already exists in society (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009). According to the feminist perspective, “sexual harassment, regardless of its form, is linked to the sexist male ideology of male dominance and male superiority. Sexual harassment exists because of the views of women as the inferior sex, but also sexual harassment serves to maintain the already existing gender stratification by emphasizing sex role expectations (Pina, Gannon & Saunders,

2009:129).” Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009) maintained that women's inferior position in the workplace and society in general, is not only a consequence, but also a cause of sexual harassment. Tangri, Burt, and Johnson (1982 cited by Pina, Gannon and Saunders 2009) posit that sexual harassment serves to manage the male–female interactions according to accepted sex status norms, and therefore, serves to maintain male dominance occupationally, by intimidating, and discouraging women from work.

Whaley and Tucker (1998) maintains that, the extension of male dominance in society includes organizations, where the phenomenon is thriving. Members/Workers of these organizations would therefore carry over their already existing gender roles, beliefs, and stereotypes into the workplace. Men and women are therefore socialized in such a manner that stereotyped interactions occur and are expected to occur; men are expected to be aggressive and dominant, and females are expected to be passive and accepting. Therefore, according to feminist theory, men believe that their behaviours are justified whereas women blame themselves for being harassed. Sexual harassment, hence, is viewed as an inevitable consequence of cultural experiences; therefore, it would apply to many different settings including the workplace.

A main strength of feminist socio-cultural theory has been the logical synthesis of gender issues, patriarchy, and dominance towards an explanation of sexual harassment (i.e., there is some evidence of unifying power). Furthermore, feminists' focus on gender inequality in the workplace has often been credited with bringing the issue of sexual harassment to light; thus opening up new avenues of enquiry for researchers (some evidence of research fertility). Furthermore, there does appear to be some supporting evidence for feminist socio-cultural explanations of sexual harassment. For example, as noted earlier, prevalence studies show that the majority of perpetrators is male (apparent empirical adequacy), and some studies show that harassment is more predominant in male dominated work forces (Whaley & Tucker, 1998).

The approach of feminist socio-cultural explanations of sexual harassment however, appears to be over inclusive and simplistic (i.e., there is a lack of explanatory depth). Gender role socialization has evolved and expanded over time, to include more behaviours than the stereotyped expected gender behaviours, thus permitting more infusions of different behaviours to be accepted as normal for each gender. This, however, has not been accompanied by any measurable decrease in the phenomenon of sexual harassment (i.e., a lack of empirical adequacy). In addition, even though sexual harassment is a frequent

phenomenon in society, it is not a normative behaviour for men. Most men do not sexually harass, and the over arching nature of the feminist socio-cultural theory does not provide a sufficient explanation as to why this is the case (lack of internal coherence and empirical adequacy).

With the current understanding of sexual assault as an act of violence, theorists also came to understand sexual harassment as a manifestation of and means for ensuring female subordination. Rape is a result of long-held traditions of male dominance. This male dominance is reinforced by prostitution and pornography, in which women are degraded and treated in subservient ways. In other words, rape is the male response to social inequality between men and women (Whaley & Tucker, 1998). Thus, the sexual abuse of a woman was more a violation of a man's property than a violation of a woman's bodily integrity. Rape laws, therefore, originated as a means of protecting a man's or family's property (Whaley & Tucker, 1998). "As a property crime, the punishment for rape was often the payment of a sum to the father or brother of the woman. In some countries even today, families of a survivor may seek financial compensation from the rapist's family (World Health Organization, 2002:164)." The legal and cultural frameworks within which women have historically been considered the property of their husbands also support the assumption that men are entitled to sexual access to their wives and thus contribute to the failure to view marital rape as a crime.

Yet sexual harassment is not only a reflection of societal arrangements that devalue women (i.e., it is acceptable to target and violate women because they are not valued), but itself serves to reinforce women's subordination and ensure their conformity with preset gender roles. Rape has been used historically for the subjugation of women and as a means of ensuring that women conform to the behaviour patterns required by the community. Gender roles and societal expectations require women to be virginal and pure. Women, who do not conform, for example, those who dress seductively, are deemed to have provoked the sexual harassment, thus also ensuring enforcement of these gender norms (Whaley & Tucker, 1998).

2.3.1.2 Organizational theory

According to organizational theory sexual harassment may be explained by a wide variety of organizational-related issues including power and status inequalities within the organization, which increase the likelihood of sexual harassment occurring. So, similarly to socio-cultural explanations, the organizational theory acknowledges that power differentials within the workplace do affect the likelihood of sexual harassment taking place (apparent external consistency). Proponents of this theory broadly accept that one of the central concepts that help to explain sexual harassment is power (Pina,

Gannon & Saunders, 2009). The norms that define western societies suggest that there are powerful and powerless individuals, the relationship of which should be defined by hierarchy, and consequently the exercise of power within that hierarchy should be expected and accepted. Furthermore, patterns in western societies suggest that men typically hold more power than women and the stereotypes prevailing between genders are that men are goal-oriented, powerful and aggressive, whereas women are passive–receptive and family-oriented (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009).

Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009) argue that, organizational theory does not focus upon these power differentials as being gender specific. Thus, it could be predicted from the organizational theory, that although sexual harassment may be more frequently perpetrated by males (due to workplace gender inequality), it may also be perpetrated by females who occupy positions of power (signs of unifying power). Furthermore, some researchers whose research could be affiliated with organizational theory suggest that sexual harassment by peers or subordinates can be seen as an attempt to gain power or equalize the power differences between the harasser and the victim within the organization. So, in this sense, organizational theory may be able to explain sexual harassment perpetrated by subordinates since it presumes such individuals harass to reassert or equalize power differences.

“The organizational theory deals primarily with the immediate context of the harassment. Thus, according to the organizational theory it is not simply power differentials within the organization that facilitate sexually abusive behaviour. Other factors such as permissiveness of the organizational climate, gendered occupations, and organizational ethics, norms and policies affect the likelihood of sexual harassment occurring (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009:131).” For example, in workplaces that are more tolerant of sexual harassment (e.g., no clear anti-sexual harassment policy, or complaints procedure), the organizational theory would predict that sexual harassment would be more prevalent. How permissive the organizational climate is, will determine the perceived risk of the potential victims to complain, the possibility and the availability of sanctions for harassers and the reception of one's complaints by the organization and colleagues with regards to seriousness. A key strength of the organizational theory is that it attempts to unify a number of organizational factors in its explanation of sexual harassment (i.e., there is some evidence of unifying power). A further strength of the organizational theory is that many of its principal hypotheses have been both tested and identified as playing an important role in occurrence of sexual harassment (i.e., strong empirical adequacy and research fertility). For example, meta-analytical research shows that the organizational climate (i.e., tolerance of sexual harassment) and the gendered nature of an organization (i.e., proportion of women

in a workgroup) play an important part in the occurrence of sexual harassment. In fact, the organizational climate is currently considered the strongest empirical predictor of sexual harassment (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009).

2.3.1.3 Sex-role spill over theory

The sex-role spill-over theory Pina, Gannon and Saunders, (2009), attempts to integrate both contextual or situational characteristics (e.g., gender ratio at work) and the individual gender-based beliefs and expectations of the harasser. A fundamental premise of this theory is that men and women bring to work their pre-existing beliefs and gender-based expectations for behaviour in the workplace, even though these expectations may not be applicable in the working environment (e.g., that women should not be employed in powerful positions). Thus, according to this theory, the sexual harassers' beliefs about gender override beliefs likely to arise in situations in which the sex-role stereotypes held by the harasser are different from the work roles of the particular genders. Women may, therefore, experience sexual harassment in non-traditional work situations, such as being a taxi driver, a police officer, or even a high ranking CEO (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009).

According to Gutek and Morasch (1982) the sex-role spill-over theory appears to explain sexual harassment in a more holistic manner than any of the previous two theories alone, making it a more comprehensive tool in better understanding sexual harassment (i.e., this theory displays relative strengths of unifying power and explanatory depth). In terms of empirical adequacy, some of the predictions of this theory have been tested and supported, especially as it applies to women.

Women in male-dominated workplaces actually perceive differential treatment from male colleagues, whereas women that work in integrated settings are least likely to report sexual harassment at work, even sexual harassment of the most severe kind (i.e. sexual coercion) (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009).

2.3.1.4 Natural/biological theory

The natural/biological perspective on sexual harassment posits that sexual harassment is a natural extension of mate selection evolutionary theory. In other words, sexual harassment represents an expression of sexual attraction, a natural element in mate seeking. According to researchers Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009:132) “men have a stronger inner drive to be sexually aggressive, and to find a mate. Therefore, such sexual behaviour is not meant as harassment. This higher sex drive of men

creates a mismatch between the sexual desires of men and women and consequently leads to sexually aggressive behaviour at work.”

According to some other researchers, due to the differences in the evolution of women and men, there are different reproductive strategies that may create a conflict of interest that spills over at the workplace, because men simply attempt to maximize their reproductive success and gain sexual access to more females by behaving in a sexually harassing manner. Therefore, men use power instrumentally in these cases, according to the evolutionary perspective, in order to obtain sex (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009).

Presumably, such attempts to gain sexual access could result in more coercive sexual behaviours such as rape. However, to our knowledge, there is no existing biological theory which unites sexual harassment and rape in a meaningful manner.

A key strength of the natural/biological perspective is that it acknowledges the innate human instincts potentially driving sexually aggressive behaviour. In other words it unifies evolutionary perspectives to explain sexual harassment (i.e., some evidence of unifying power).

2.3.1.5 Social-cognitive theories of sexual harassment

Although we recognize that the sexual harassment literature does not currently feature a mature social-cognitive theory of sexual harassment, an examination of the research literature shows that social-cognitive methods have been used to both understand and explain sexual harassment (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009). Furthermore, given the hypothesized relationship between rape and sexual harassment, it is notable that social-cognitive theories play a fundamental role in explaining rape (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009).

Thus, the researchers propose that the same social-cognitive explanations of rape may be used to understand sexual harassment. Generally, the fundamental components underlying a social-cognitive explanation of any phenomenon involve (1) long term memory content and structure (i.e., belief content and their schematic organization), (2) social-cognitive processing (i.e., the cognitive mechanisms—attention, retrieval used to process social information), and (3) cognitive products (i.e., end stage beliefs, thoughts, and attributions) that result from content, organization, and processing of social information. John Pryor and his colleagues have demonstrated that mental concepts of sex and power are found to be associated in men who are high on likelihood to sexually harass (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009).

Pryor and Stoller (1994 cited by Pinna, Gannon and Saunders 2009:132) showed that “men high on LSH perceived a frequent but otherwise illusory correlation between sex and power related words. In summary, these findings could be viewed as evidence for the existence of a sex schema in memory that associates power and sex in men with a high LSH (i.e., evidence of long term memory and structure). The results of such studies may also be interpreted as providing some evidence regarding social cognitive processing, since, somewhere in the process, men high on LSH must have overly attended to the sex power word pairings, in order to have over perceived their existence in the memorization task.”

Fitzgerald (1993 cited by Pina, Gannon and Saunders 2009:132) observed that, “the majority of men that engage in sexually harassing behaviour may not be consciously aware that they are doing so. Since some men's lack of awareness of the harassing nature of their behaviour may be explained by the automaticity and unconscious nature of the power–sex association. In other words, the concepts of power and sex may be so strongly linked for men with a high LSH, that they cause the concept of sexuality to be activated automatically whenever the concept of power is evident.”

These results appear to suggest that placing men who hold certain structural schemas between power and sex into contextual positions of power is highly likely to affect their sexual behaviour towards women without them even being conscious of such harassment (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009).

In summary, although the sexual harassment literature has not specifically adopted a clear social-cognitive explanation for sexual harassment, the research literature indicates some substantial empirical support for adapting such a theory for the explanation of sexual harassment. The central tenets of social-cognitive theory are that men who engage in antisocial behaviours hold behaviour-supporting belief content and schemas in long term memory that bias their social information processing in an antisocial manner (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009). Thus, we believe that there is significant scope for such a theory to be adapted and tested with sexual harassers. In particular, one might hypothesize that sexual harassers would hold schemas that overlap somewhat with those documented in rapists (Pina, Gannon & Saunders, 2009). In short then, we believe that there is strong empirical support and fertility for a social-cognitive perspective of sexual harassment.

2.3.1.6 Four factor theory of sexual harassment

According to Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009) the four factor theory of sexual harassment is a multi-factorial theory that incorporates key components of many of the previous single factor theories. In

their paper, O'Hare and O'Donohue (1998) cited by Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009) reviewed existing single factor theories of sexual harassment, and then borrowed aspects of Finkelhor's four factor theory of child sexual abuse to develop the only multifactor theory of sexual harassment to date.

O'Hare and O'Donohue (1998) cited by Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009:134) hypothesized that, "in order for sexual harassment to take place, four basic conditions must be present: (1) the individual must be motivated to harass (e.g., they must be driven by any combination of power, control, or sexual attraction), (2) the individual must overcome internal inhibitions not to harass (e.g., moral restraints), (3) the individual must overcome external inhibitions to harassment (e.g., specific organizational workplace barriers such as professionalism), and (4) the individual must overcome victim's resistance (e.g., assertiveness or the victim's relative status within the workplace)."

In brief, O'Hare and O'Donohue (1998) cited by Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009) hypothesized that women who self reported themselves as more physically attractive would report more instances of sexual harassment (testing factor 1 of the theory). Furthermore, it was hypothesized that women who had more workspace privacy, knowledge of complaints procedures, and who worked in an environment characterized by sex equality, professionalism, and more equal sex-ratios would report less harassment (testing factor 3 of the theory). Finally, O'Hare and O'Donohue (1998) cited by Pina, Gannon & Saunders (2009:134) hypothesized that, "women who rated themselves as more feminine and who occupied lower positions within their organization would be more susceptible to harassment."

Using regression analyses, O'Hare and O'Donohue (1998) cited by Pina, Gannon and Saunders 2009) found that the four factor theory provided a better explanation of the data than any single factor theory (organizational, sex-role spill-over or socio-cultural). Furthermore, it was found that the factors most predictive of harassment were poor knowledge about complaint procedures, unprofessional workplace, and sexist attitudes (all related to factor 3; organizational factors). From these results, O'Hare and O'Donohue (1998) cited by Pina, Gannon and Saunders 2009:134) conclude that, "harassment intervention should proceed at the organizational level, since this is where the predominant risk of sexual harassment occurs."

A primary strength of the four factor theory of sexual harassment is that it synthesizes previously isolated individual, socio-cultural, and organizational factors into one multi-factorial theory (evidence of unifying power and apparent explanatory depth and external consistency).

Furthermore, the theory shows relatively strong empirical adequacy relative to previous single factor theories of sexual harassment. Clearly, this is a great step forward for a field that has been primarily dominated by relatively impoverished single factor explanations of sexual harassment. Furthermore, Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009) argue that sexual harassers may be motivated by sexual attraction, need for control, and need for power.

In summary, there appears to be contentious debate concerning how sexual harassment should be defined within the academic literature and this issue plays a fundamental role in how research on sexual harassment is conceptualized, designed and implemented. However, the most accepted definitions include unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. Furthermore, this conduct, explicitly or implicitly affects an individual's academic or employment, unreasonably interferes with an individual's work performance or academic performance, or creates an intimidating, hostile, or offensive work or study environment.

The forms and types of sexual harassment include physical conduct such as unwanted touching, verbal forms such as suggestions and sexual advances, non-verbal forms such as unwelcome gestures and indecent exposure, sexual favouritism exists where a person who is in a position of authority rewards only those who respond to his/her sexual advances such as promotions, and Quid pro quo harassment occurs where someone in authority position and power uses such factors in exchange for sexual favours.

Literature further reveals that sexual harassment is common and evident in universities and it could take place anywhere in the campus including corridors, offices, residences etc. And that sexual harassment can take place between males and males, males and females, female and males regardless of sexual orientation. Lastly, sexual harassment can take place between students and other students and lectures/staff and students. Although, single factor theories of sexual harassment fail to explain the concept, but four factor theory proved to provide better understanding of sexual harassment.

Chapter 3: Research methodology

3.1 introduction

In this chapter the research design, sampling design, method of data collection, and method of scoring and data analysis will be described. This chapter also includes the procedures for conducting this research. The purpose of this research is to explore the narrative experiences of sexually harassed students. More specifically, to explore the psychological and physical effects of sexual harassment, it is important to consider a specific methodology that is not offensive to the participants.

3.2 Research design

The present research is a descriptive study as the aim is to describe traumatic symptomatology, as they exist during or after exposure to traumatic events such as sexual harassment, in students.

3.3 Method of sampling

A snowball sample of 20 respondents (sexually harassed survivors) was drawn from registered students of the University of Zululand in 2009. The researcher interacted with a number of students who experienced sexual harassment in the campus. Coincidentally, the alleged survivors of sexual harassment also knew classmates and/or friends who were also experiencing sexual harassment. Therefore, a sample was drawn using the first participant referring other participants and so on. 14 of these students were postgraduate students and the other 6 were undergraduates. All students (postgraduate and undergraduate) were from various departments of the above mentioned institution. The University of Zululand was chosen over other institutions because it was convenient for the researcher as the researcher resides within the institution.

The respondents for the current study were obtained by employing the probability sample technique of snowball sampling. Salganik and Helkathorn (2004) indicate that, snowball sampling is a technique for developing a research sample where existing study subjects recruit future subjects from among their acquaintances. Thus the sample group appears to grow like a rolling snowball. As the sample builds up, enough data is gathered to be useful for research. This sampling technique is often used in hidden populations which are difficult for researchers to access; example populations would be drug users or prostitutes.

3.4 Method of data collection

It has been found from the review of several studies that there is inaccessibility to a suitable instrument to measure sexual experiences. The data collection method chosen for this descriptive research is a

questionnaire. According to Treece and Treece (1986:277) “the questionnaire is the most common research instrument. It is a document containing a series of questions, which must be responded by all participants in the sample. It is considered the most appropriate measuring instrument for the present study, as it is a useful tool in collecting data from a sample cheaply, rapidly and efficiently as possible.” The questionnaire was also favoured as a research instrument over other available methods of data collection due to a number of reasons as outlined by Rosnow and Rosenthal (1996: 112) that, it has many advantages namely: (1) “they can be administered to larger numbers of people; (2) they are relatively economical; and (3) they provide type of “anonymity”.”

Participants filled in a self administered questionnaire using a semi structured open ended type for responses. Some of the items in the questionnaire were adopted from the Sexual Experiences Questionnaire (SEQ) a self-report inventory representing the first attempt to assess the prevalence of sexual harassment in a manner that met traditional psychometric standards Fitzgerald, Gelfand and Drasgow, (1995) developed by Louis Fitzgerald and students in 1988.

The drawing up of the questionnaire is an activity that should not take place in isolation. The researcher should seek advice from specialists at all times during the construction of the questionnaire. Questions to be included in the questionnaire should be tested to eliminate errors. A question may appear correct to the researcher when written down but can be interpreted differently when presented to another person. There should be no hesitation in changing the questions several times before the final formulation but at the same time keeping the original purpose in mind. The important factor to be taken into consideration when designing a questionnaire is that it takes time and effort before being finalized (Bailey, 1987: 189).

Bailey (1987: 201) argues that the use of a questionnaire in a study of this nature has the following advantages: (i) It is the most commonly-used research instrument. It is assumed that respondents will not have a problem in filling it in, provided they are fully informed about the purpose of the study; (ii) It is a useful tool for collecting data from a widely dispersed population as cheaply, rapidly and efficiently as possible; (iii) Respondents express their views more freely in questionnaires as compared to interviews, where anonymity may be doubtful; (iv) The questionnaire gives the respondent time to contemplate his or her responses to questions. This is important when investigating sensitive issues such as the reasons for resigning from work and

(v) The absence of a researcher when the questionnaire is filled in encourages honesty and prevents bias and measurement is enhanced because respondents respond to the same questions.

3.5 Procedure

The proposal for this research was presented to the University Of Zululand Department Of Psychology research panel, after which permission to conduct research was obtained from the University's Ethics Committee.

The researcher personally distributed pilot questionnaires to 20 research participants to make sure that the questionnaire was going to make sense to the research sample. The questionnaires were administered to identify survivors within the institution. Approximately, the respondents took a week to two weeks to complete the questionnaires due to academic commitments. The questionnaires were returned personally. Six (6) of the participants were undergraduate students and the other fourteen (14) were post-graduate students. On analysis of data from the pilot study, it appeared that all questions were clear, with none being ambiguous. After this phase, the researcher then distributed the questionnaires to respondents who were participants in the research.

Van Kaam (1969, as cited by Rahilly, 1993) recommends six important criteria for participants in the research:

(i) Participants must have a capacity to express themselves with relative ease;

They must have the capacity to sense and express their inner feelings and emotions without shame and inhibition;

(ii) They must have the ability to sense and to express the real experiences that accompany these feelings;

(iii) The participants must have experienced the phenomenon or situation under investigation at a relatively recent date;

(iv) An atmosphere that the participants find sufficiently relaxing to enable them to put the necessary time and orderly thought into reporting or writing about what was happening to them, should be created and

(v) A spontaneous interest in their experiences ought to be evident.

3.6 Method of data analysis

As the aim of the study was to describe and summarize data for a specific group of individuals

For the qualitative data collected, the researcher used thematic analysis which involved the identification and analysis of themes and patterns of similarity within qualitative research (Braun & Clark, 2006). It is not grounded in any particular theoretical and epistemological framework and can therefore be applied across a wide range of qualitative research approaches (Braun & Clark, 2006). Then these were grouped into themes and qualitative analysis. The researcher also used tables and graphs as to analysis all data as to demonstrate specific figures and comparison of some sexual experiences questionnaires.

3.7 Ethical considerations

The most important ethical consideration that was taken into account when conducting the study is the one of the informed consent. Bailey (1987:136) states that, “means giving a full explanation to respondents and ensuring that the respondents have adequate information regarding the study. They are at liberty to comprehend information and make a choice as to whether they voluntarily consent to participate or to decline participation in the study. The full explanation of the study was given to the prospective respondents and it was emphasized that participation was voluntarily.”

This study did not invite participants who were minors or mentally impaired, and it was not expected that any impairment in physical or psychological functioning would occur as a result of participating in this study.

In summary, this chapter outlined a concise description of the methodology used for this study. The research design is descriptive in nature as it describes first hand stories or phenomenon of research participants. The participants were gathered through snowball sampling where a network of participants was obtained through other participants having knowledge of other participants who experienced the same phenomenon. The semi structured and open ended questionnaire was administered to gather a wide array of data required to carry out a successful study. Lastly, the method of data analysis as outlined included exploring the common themes in research participants' stories, as well as taking into consideration the necessary ethical implications or research participants given the sensitive nature of the study. The next chapter would focus on the results of the study.

Chapter 4: Results and discussion

4.1 Qualitative presentation

4.2 Introduction

This chapter focuses on the presentation of data collected from research participants. Participants were approached at the University of Zululand. Questionnaires were distributed and respondents were asked to fill them in and return them immediately. A total number of 20 questionnaires were distributed to the respondents and all of them were answered and returned to the researcher. Each question presented in the questionnaire was evaluated independently. The data is presented in the form of tables. From this qualitative data there will be quantitative presentation of information for the ease of the reader to see the data in the numerical form.

4.3 Thematic Analysis

The themes that follow are those that were observed throughout the research process and represent the ambiguity presented within their accounts and perceptions.

4.4 Description of harassment

4.4.1 Offensive language

A common theme that runs through a number of accounts in terms of offensive language includes verbal comments such as calling the survivors with names such as “sweaty,” “babes or baby.” Verbal comments on factors such as hair, earrings, and verbal compliments on tight and short pants or outfit were regarded as offensive remarks by survivors. Other issues that are regarded as offensive language involved comments and statements such as “nice legs” while insulting words and vulgar such as slut and bitch were regarded by survivors as offensive remarks too to the extent that they felt very inferior about themselves.

4.4.2 Comments on physical attributes or sexual desirability

The participants on a common ground maintained that comments on their dresses were associated with looking sexy in them. Comments on sexy and nice breasts and shape of bottoms were the common theme regarding physical appearance. Overall, a sexy looking or beautiful body or both was also reported among common comments on physical attributes.

4.4.3 Sexual advances or propositions

The researcher founded that the common theme on sexual advances were characterised by perpetrators offering gifts, dates, financial and academic support and assistance. One victim reported that the perpetrator eventually insisted that she come and sit on his lap and asked for visits and meetings after lectures or hours. The most severe sexual advance that was reported was characterised by threats, forced kissing and making the survivor to write assessments in private settings where a perpetrator would force himself onto the victim. Those who actually did go to dates reported that they were taken advantage of and were promised financial security, passing courses, and eventually receiving assessment questions in advance in case the perpetrator is a lecturer.

4.4.4 Unwanted touching

The researcher founded that the common theme referring to the 20 participants around unwanted touching involved touching or rubbing or massaging of victim's shoulders and hugging them involuntarily. Touching of lips, bums, and hips was regarded as unwanted touching. Some reported that perpetrators hold their hands involuntary and forced kissing them was common under the investigation of unwanted touching.

4.4.5. Sexual assault

The researcher found that sexual assault was perceived and experienced as verbal offensive remarks that were made when the victim did not co operate. The common sexual assault acts ranged from forced kissing, forcing the victim to take the clothes off and aggressive behaviour towards victims and to some extent physical torture to induce fear were reported and regarded as sexual assault.

4.4.6 Spanking

The common theme referring to the 20 participants was that the victims were spanked in their backs for a number of occasions. Some reported that spanking happened when they were submitting assignments or consulting in offices. However, others maintain that they were spanked in front of other students and staff members.

4.4.7 Invasion of privacy

The common theme referring to the 20 participants surrounding invasion of privacy is that the perpetrators wanted to know the where about of their victims at all times. It was commonly reported that the perpetrators dug personal information of their victims and wanted to know everything about their victims such as their life style, who they hang around with and involved with whom on a romantic

level. Thus, the common theme was that a thorough investigation on victims was conducted by perpetrators before and during the harassment.

4.4.8 Following or staring

The common theme referring to the 20 participants was that direct and strange looking was a common and main factor during classes, in offices, corridors and the worst was that perpetrators eventually followed their victims to residences, the victims unknowingly.

4.4.9 Requiring to wear revealing or sexually provocative clothing

The victims maintain that their perpetrators suggested short clothing for them and stated or complimented on how they would affectionately look. The common factor was that the clothes will show their sexy bodies during lectures or attending of classes.

4.4.10 Involvement of genital touching

The researcher founded that the common theme referring to the 20 participants included touching of genitals and more specifically breasts. The victims maintain that perpetrators attempted or forced putting their hands underneath their skirts, underpants, and breast bras.

4.4.11 Belief that the harasser would carry out the task

The researcher founded that the survivors (referring to the 20 participants) shared a common perception based on their experiences that the harassment would continue and reoccur because they argued or believe that due to a number of common threats they received such as strange and scary behavioural patterns showed by perpetrators as well as given information that they would fail if they did not co operated. Ruling out threats, the victims also reported that they were instructed to obey the superiors' instructions as their marks or promotion depended on perpetrators' approval. The notion that the perpetrators clearly showed and direct to what they wanted was perceived and experienced as having strong fundamentals of the harassment reoccurring.

4.5. Response, reaction and feelings towards the harassment

4.5.1 Feelings

The researcher founded that the common feelings shared by survivors (referring to the 20 participants) was characterised by feelings of discomfort, confusion, disgust, afraid, prostitution, embarrassment, down, loss of self confidence, anger, self-hate, overwhelmed, threatened and humiliated, unsafe, shocked and abused, bad and useless, waste and scared.

4.5.2 Emotions

The common emotional factors that were reported (referring to the 20 participants) ranged from anger, not being sure about the situation, emotionally abused, cried, sad, career threatened, obsessive, disturbed, confused, torn apart, useless, emotionally abused and hurt.

4.5.3 Anxiety concerning harassment reoccurring

The research participants' (referring to the 20 participants) common themes around this specific investigation included nervousness when in office characterised by lack of trusting male lectures, fear, anxiety and trauma, stressed and obsessive thinking on past events in associated or in connection with sexual harassment.

4.5.4 Physical or psychological reaction

The commonest theme that was reported (referring to the 20 participants) varied from avoiding classes and perpetrators, feelings of withdrawal of personal contact, weird, feelings of discomfort, disgusted, too self conscious about presentation, self blame, obsessive thinking, weight loss, stressed, frustrated, loss of focus on important things, self hate, depressed, feelings of loneliness and confusion, feelings of betrayal, fearful and nervous, and feelings of anger and shock.

4.5.5 Personality changes

The commonest theme (referring to the 20 participants) that rise regarding personality changes was being hostile and avoiding, withdrawal from people, short tempered, friendship changed and becoming somebody else, a changed self view about oneself , becoming more preserved, losing overall trust and becoming quieter than before,

4.5.6 First person to tell about the experience

The common theme (referring to the 20 participants) was that the victims reported the harassment to close friends, and others on people they are close to such as family members (sisters) or those who are romantically involved with such as partners.

4.5.7 Thoughts, belief, or observation of main cause

The survivors (referring to the 20 participants) reported that based on their experiences, thoughts, beliefs and observation the following caused sexual harassment: boredom, position, power and taking advantage over students, exposure to and inability to handle working with women, abusiveness, weakness that is within the harasser. Other participants maintained that the main cause could be previous students who used their bodies and beauty to pass courses, past developmental crisis (perpetrator) displayed or released through harassment, underestimation and disrespect of females,

being stupid and not having a developed sense of one-self. Other participants indicated poverty and revealing clothes as the causes of sexual harassment.

The forthcoming section deals with quantitative presentation of data.

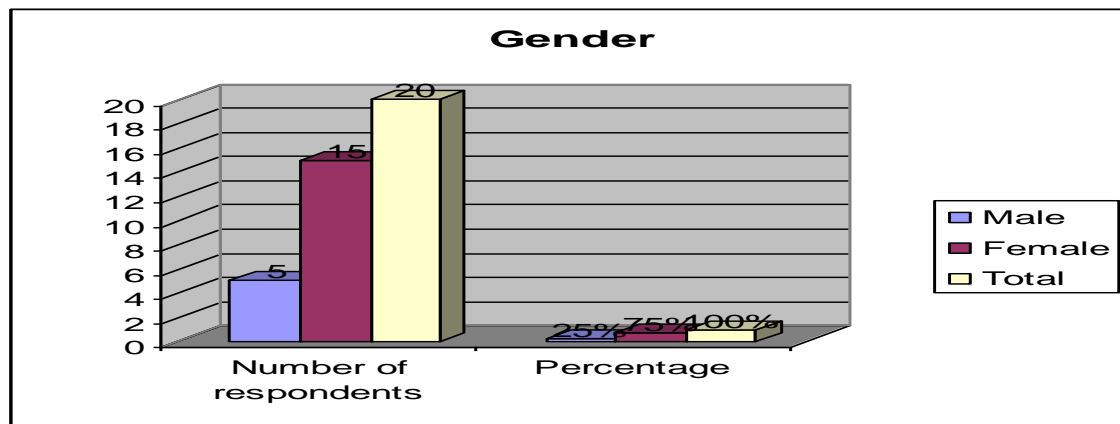
4. 6 Quantitative presentation of data

Data obtained during the course of this research are hereby presented using tables and graphs as shown below:

Table 4. 6. 1. Responses according to gender (Percentage form)

Gender	Number of respondents	Percentage
Male	5	25%
Female	15	75%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.1 Responses according to gender (Graphic representation)

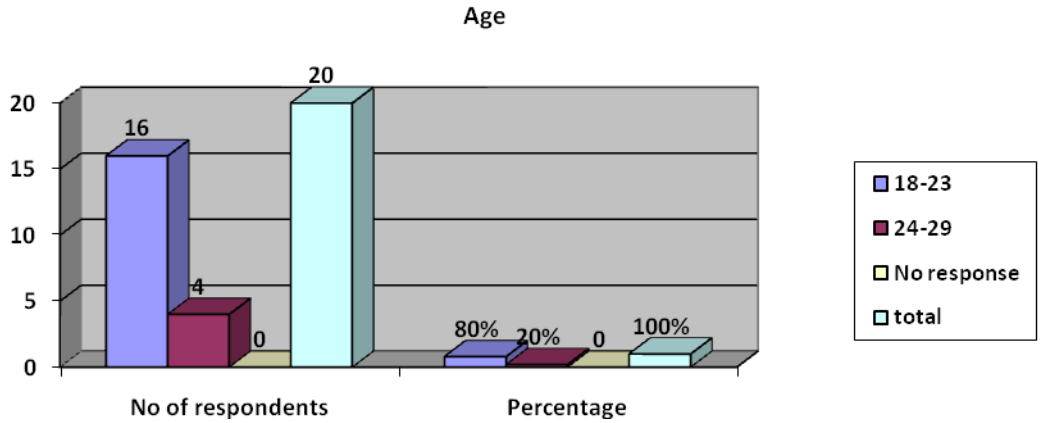


The above table and graph shows that 15 research participants representing 75% of respondents were females while males were 5 representing 25 % respectively. This suggests that females are more vulnerable to sexual harassments while harassment of males is also present and evident.

Table 4. 6. 2 Responses according to age (Percentage form)

Age	No of respondents	Percentage
18-23	16	80%
24-29	4	20%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.2 Responses according to age (Graphic form)

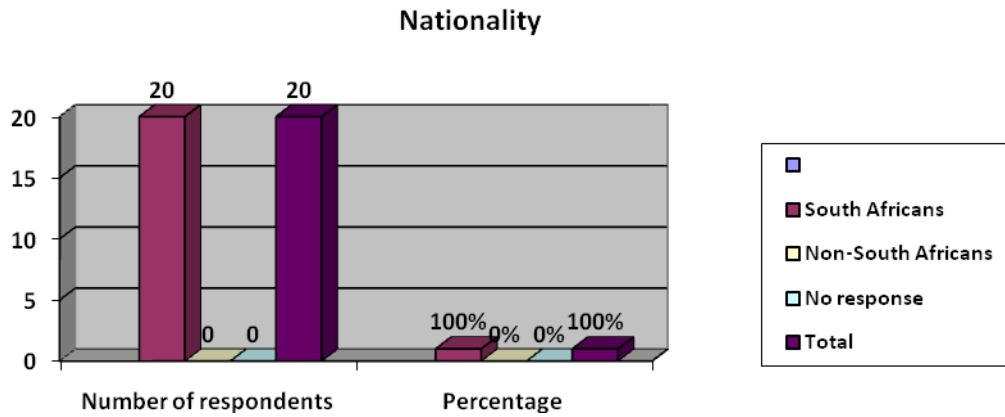


The above table and graph indicates that 80% of respondents were between the ages of 18-23 years old while only 20% is between the ages 24-29 years old. This suggests that the younger the victim the more the harassment is likely to be experienced. Also, this might be suggestive of that most tertiary institutions holds students between the age groups more or less 18-25 and this places them at high risk of sexual harassment. Furthermore, this age group is characterised by forming relationships with new people and this might cause further vulnerability.

Table 4.6.3 Responses according to nationality (Percentage form)

Nationality	Number of respondents	Percentage
South Africans	20	100%
Non-South Africans	0	0%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.3 Responses according to nationality (Graphic form)

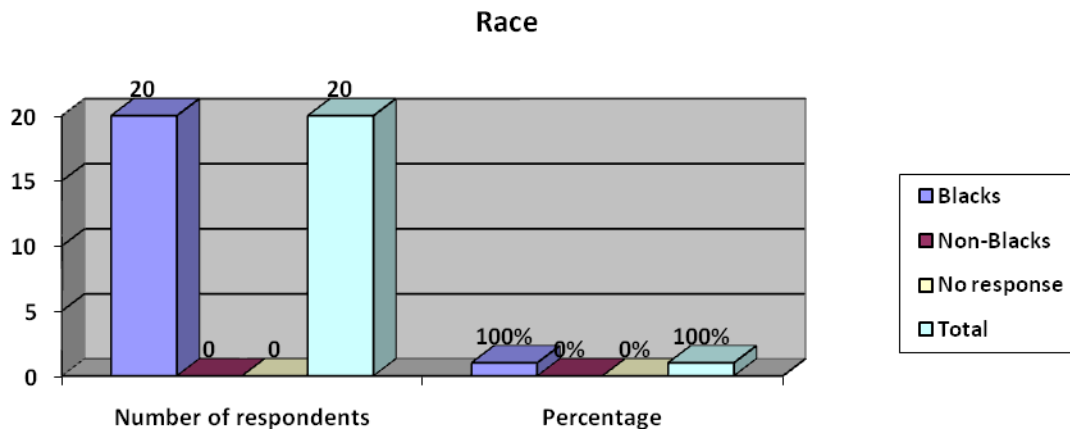


The above table and graph suggests that 100% of the respondents are South African by origin. This suggests that perpetrators are likely to victimise victims within their space and of origin.

Table 4.6.4 Responses according to race (Percentage form)

Race	Number of respondents	Percentage
Blacks	20	100%
Non-Blacks	0	0%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.4 Responses according to race (Graphic form)



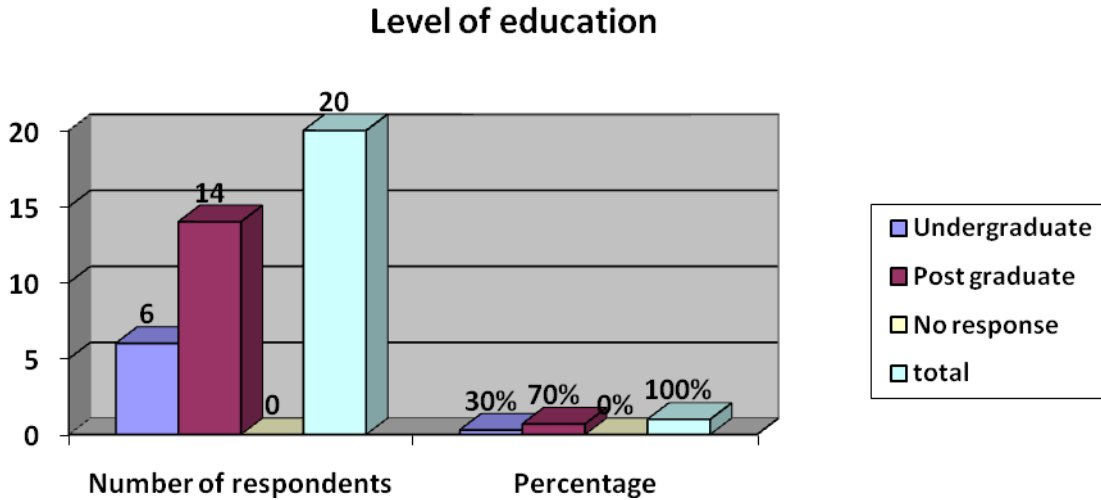
The above table and graph indicates that 100% of respondents were blacks. This suggests cultural dynamics in sexual harassment.

Table 4.6.5 Responses according to educational (Percentage form)

Level of education	Number of respondents	Percentage
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Undergraduate	6	30%
Post graduate	14	70%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.5 Responses according to education (Graphic form)



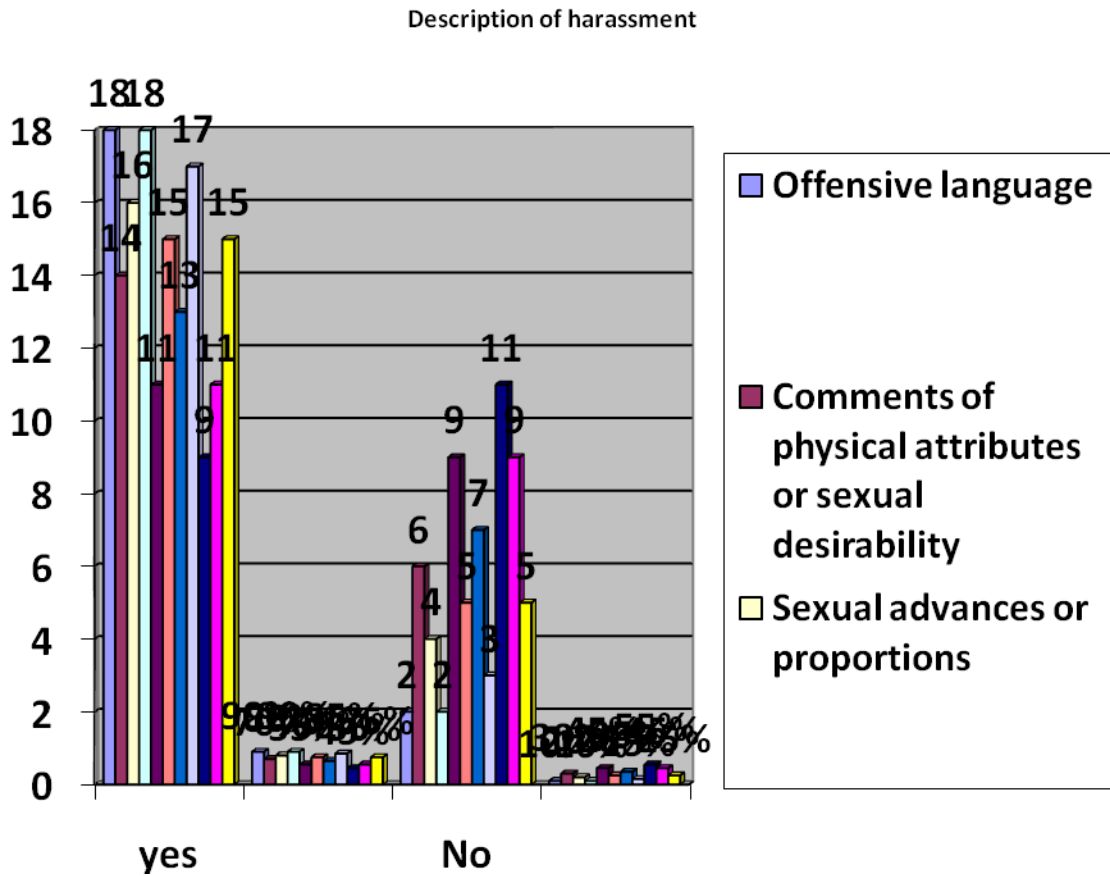
The above table and graph indicates that 70% of respondents are post graduate students and 30% are undergraduate students. This suggest that the high the academic progress characterised by the high motive of dealing with academic demands the high the victims are looted into sexual favours for in order to complete their studies thus prone to sexual harassment. Also, this might be suggestive of that post graduate students spent more time than undergraduates consulting in offices and this places them on the high risk of being sexually harassed.

Table 4. 6.6 Responses according to nature of sexual harassment (Percentage form)

Variables	Yes	Percentage	No	Percentage
Offensive language	18	90%	2	10%
Comments of physical attributes or sexual desirability	14	70%	6	30%
Sexual	16	80%	4	20%

advances or proportions				
Unwanted touching	18	90%	2	10%
Sexual assault	11	55%	9	45%
Spanking	15	75%	5	25%
Invasion of privacy	13	65%	7	35%
Following or staring	17	85%	3	15%
Requiring to wear revealing or sexually provocative clothes	9	45%	11	55%
Involvement of genital touching	11	55%	9	45%
Belief that harasser would carry out threat	15	75%	5	25%

Graph 4.6.6 Responses according to nature of sexual harassment (Graphic form)



The above table and graph shows that 90% of the respondents received sexually offensive remarks of verbalisation from the harassers while 70% received comments on the physical attributes. This is indicative of that sexual harassment includes unwanted verbal remarks and comments as well as comment on physical appearance.

The graph also shows that 80% received sexual advances or propositions in their phases of harassment and 90% were touched unwanted. This is suggestive of the notion that sexual harassment is characterised by sexual advances such as dates, gifts, and other possible favours that could lead to the victim conforming to the harassment. Also, this suggests that sexual harassment is characterised by unwanted touching.

The graph and table further reveals that 55% were sexually assaulted by the harassers and 75% received spanking. This might suggest the relationship between rape and sexual harassment and also the physical components of sexual harassment.

The graph indicates that 85% of the respondents' privacy was invaded during phase of harassment and 45% were required to wear sexually revealing or provocation clothing or outfits. This might be suggestive of that usually the perpetrators engage in intensive research on their victims in order to develop the possible weakness in their victim. This indicates that the more the victim is known the likely the increased risk of harassment. Furthermore, sexually revealing clothes is indicative of that perpetrators are physical attracted to their victim and this could possible mean or highlight the biological bases of sexual harassment.

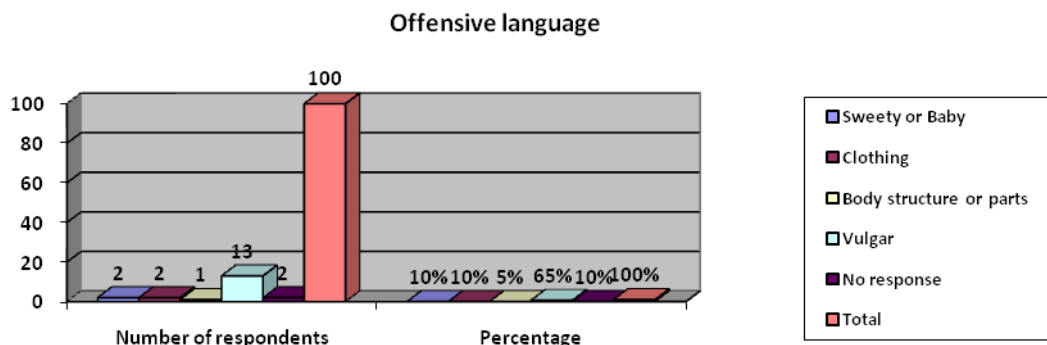
The table and graph indicates that 55% experienced genital touching while 75% believed that the harasser would really carry out the threat of sexually engaging with the victims. This is suggestive of that sexual harassment is not only limited to verbal comments or gestures but also characterised by physical touching the victims.

The belief that the harasser would carry out the threat is suggestive of the extent of the nature of harassment on how the perpetrator carries out the behaviour.

4.6.7 Responses according to offensive language (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of respondents	Percentage
Sweaty or Baby	2	10%
Clothing	2	10%
Body structure or parts	1	5%
Vulgar	13	65%
No response	2	10%
Total	100	100%

Graph 4.6.7 Responses according to offensive language (Graphic form)

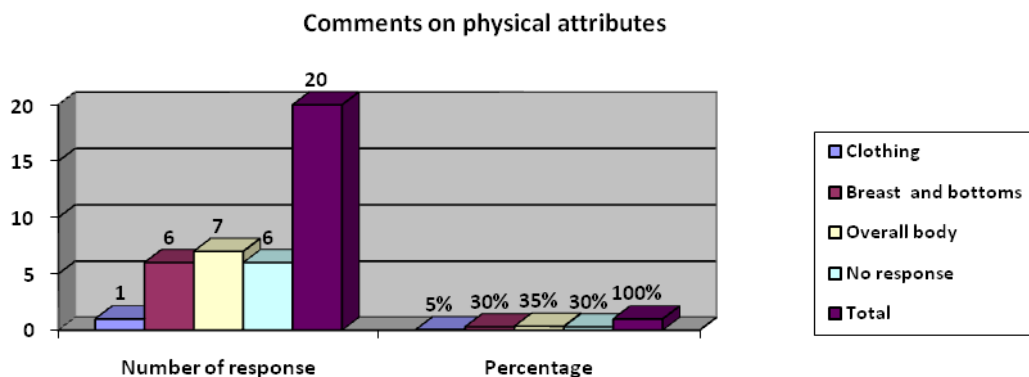


The above table and graph indicates that 10% regards verbal remarks such as “baby” or “sweaty” as offensive. Another 10% regards comments on their clothing or outfits as part of offensive language passed by their harassers. 5% as indicated by the graph and table maintain that physical comments regarding their body structures or parts form part of offensive language. The graph shows that 65% regards offensive language as one that is characterised by verbal remarks that are containing vulgar while 15% did not respond. Overall, this suggests that verbal remarks either pertaining clothing bodily related structures or parts and verbal remarks containing vulgar or sexually explicit material is regarded as part of an offensive language usage by respondents. Vulgar has been represented in this finding as the central theme around offensive language.

Table 4.6.8 Responses according to comments on physical attributes (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of response	Percentage
Clothing	1	5%
Breast and buttocks	6	30%
Overall body	7	35%
No response	6	30%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.8 Responses according to comments on their physical attributes (Graphic form)



The above table and graph shows that 5% of the respondents received comments on the clothing while 35% received comments around bodily parts such as either breasts or buttocks or both. The graph indicates that 35% received comments regarding their overall body structure or looks while 30% did not respond on this matter. This suggests that victims are predisposed to sexual harassment due to the

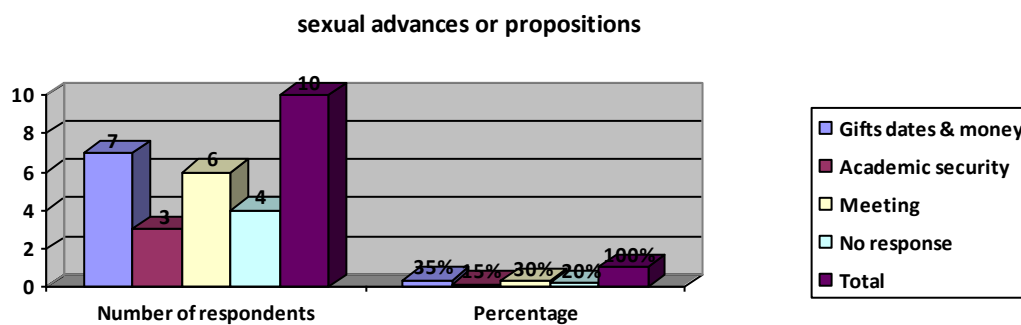
outfits their wear, also the way their looks bodily or structurally at a level of physical attraction to their harassers are.

Overall bodily appearance comments has been considered as the common theme, while 30% did not wish to report on the matter and this could be as a result of the sensitivity of the topic.

Table 4.6.9 Responses according to sexual advances (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of respondents	Percentage
Gifts dates & money	7	35%
Academic security	3	15%
Meeting	6	30%
No response	4	20%
Total	10	100%

Graph 4.6.9 Responses according to sexual advances (Graphic form)



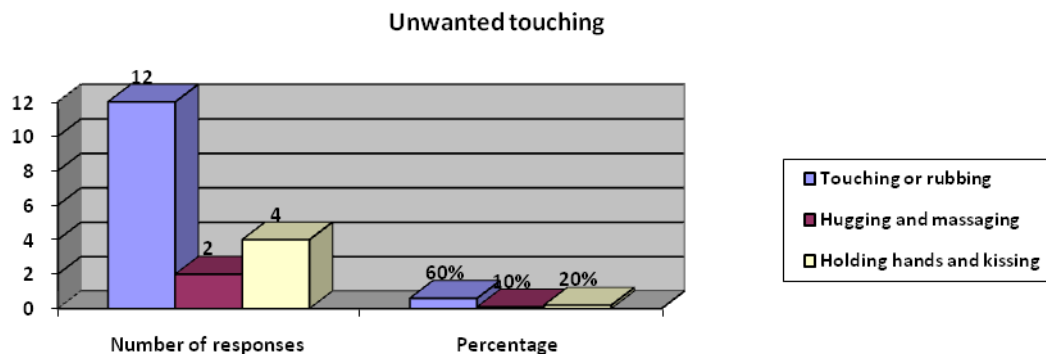
The above table and graph shows that 35% of the respondents received or were promised gifts, dates, and money as means of luring them to sexual intercourse by the perpetrators. The graph shows that 15% were lured with academic advancement or security. A further 30% was asked for private meetings in places known to the perpetrators while 20% did not wish to comment on this aspect. In general, this means that victims are convinced with a variety of strategies such as money, gifts,

academic advancement, and meeting privately into conforming to or going along with harassment which would eventually place them in a critical position that could lead to the actual sexual activity. Gifts, dates, and money favours were considered to be the central and common theme in this regard.

Table 4.6.10 Responses according to unwanted touching (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of responses	Percentage
Touching or rubbing	12	60%
Hugging and massaging	2	10%
Holding hands and kissing	4	20%
No response	2	10
Total	100	100%

Graph 4.6.10 Responses according to unwanted touching (Graphic form)

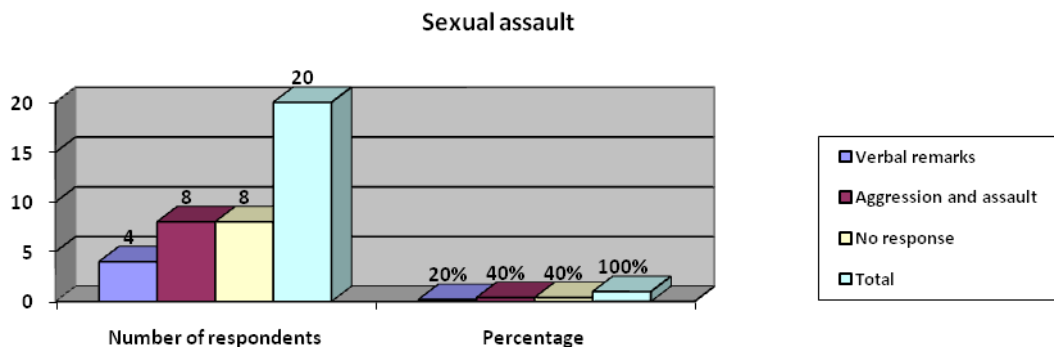


The above table and graph indicates that 60% were touched or rubbed against unwanted while 20% reported that were massaged and hugged involuntarily. The graph also displays that a further 20% were kissed and their hands were hold involuntarily by their perpetrators. 10% of the respondents did not wish to respond on this matter respectively. This indicates that sexual harassment is not only limited to unwanted verbal comments but also to unwanted physical contact. Those who did not wish to report on this matter could be due to the nature and sensitivity of the stud. Therefore, physical touching is the central and common theme in this regard.

Table 4.6.11 Responses according to sexual assault (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of respondents	Percentage
Verbal remarks	4	20%
Aggression and assault	8	40%
No response	8	40%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.11 Responses according to sexual assault (Graphic form)

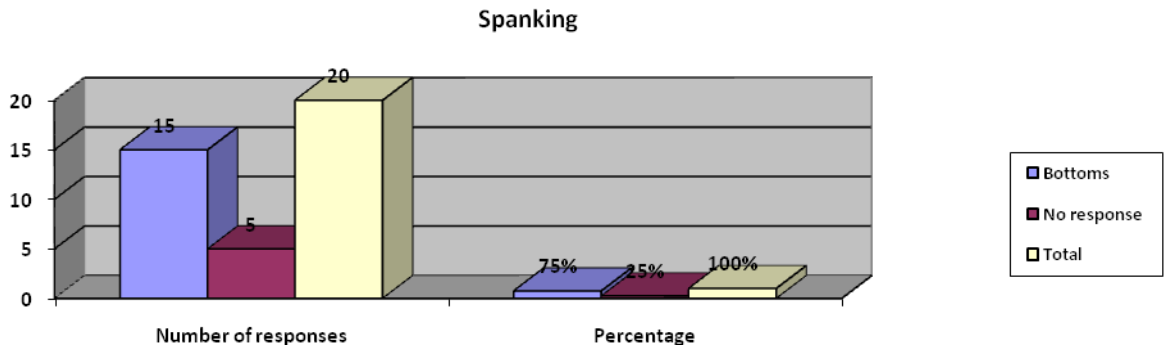


The above table and graph shows that 20% of the respondents regard unpleasant verbal remarks as sexual attack while a further 40% received or reported aggressive tendency or approach and physical assault from perpetrators as sexually assaultive. 40% percent did not wish to comment in this regard. A brief overview entails that victims were predisposed to drastic, aggressive and violent acts or remarks in order to co operate with the perpetrators. Thus, aggression and assault is the central and common fact in this aspect and those who did not report could be due to the sensitivity of the aspect.

Table 4.6.12 Responses according to spanking (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of responses	Percentage
Bottoms	15	75%
No response	5	25%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.12 Responses according to spanking (Graphic form)

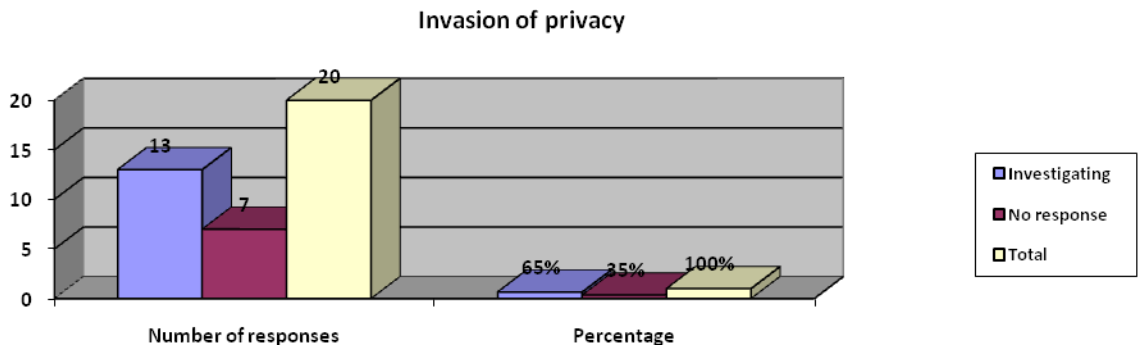


The above table and graph shows that 75% of the respondents were spanked on their buttocks or backs and 25% did not wish to respond on this matter. In summary touching of the victims’ on their buttocks or backs became the central and common theme in this area and no response could be due to the sensitivity of the aspect.

Table 4.6.13 Responses according to invasion of privacy (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of responses	Percentage
Investigating	13	65%
No response	7	35%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.13 Responses according to invasion of privacy (Graphic form)



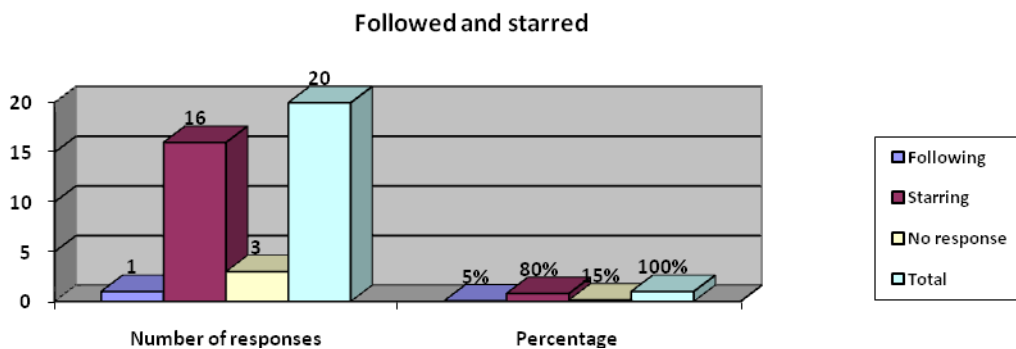
The above table and graph shows that 65% of the respondents were investigated about issues that contains their personal and private lives by the harassers while 35 percent did not comment or state any response regard this matter. In conclusion sexual harassers investigate and do a thorough research about their victims’ personal lives. In conclusion, invasion of privacy such as digging personal information is

the central and common theme in this aspect and those who did not respond could be due to the sensitivity of the aspect.

Table 4.6.14 Responses according to following and starring (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of responses	Percentage
Following	1	5%
Starring	16	80%
No response	3	15%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.14 Responses according to following or starring (Graphic form)

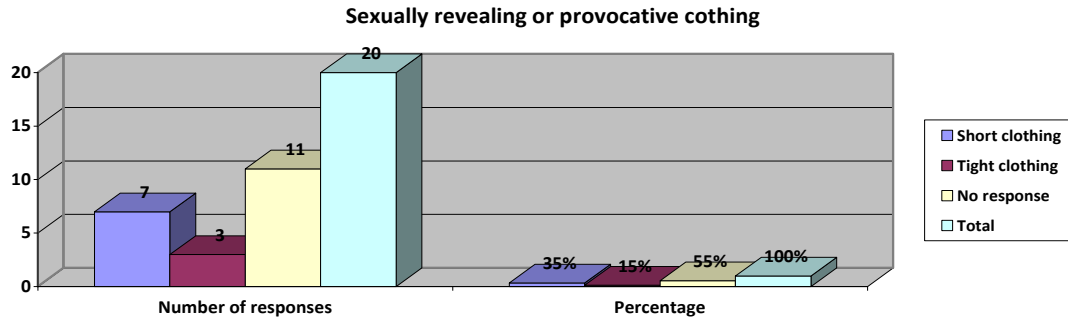


The above table and graph indicates that 5% of the respondents were followed by their harassers and 80% were starred momentarily. 15% did not report any following or starring. In conclusion, starring is the central and commonest theme reported by victim which possible entails that it is the core characteristic of sexual harassment. Those who did not respond could be due to the sensitivity of the topic.

Table 4.6.15 Responses according to wearing sexually revealing clothes (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of responses	Percentage
Short and/or tight clothing	10	50%
No response	10	50%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.15 Responses according to wearing sexually revealing clothes (Graphic form)

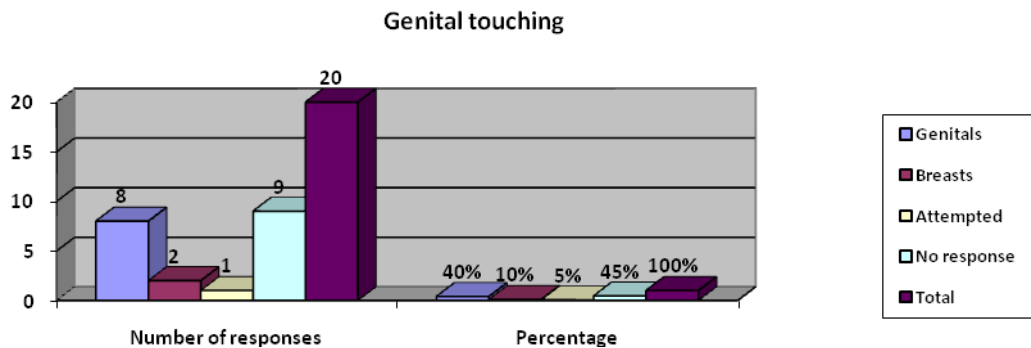


The above table and graph shows that 50% of the respondents were asked by their harassers to wear short and/or tight clothing and a further 50% percent did not respond on this matter. In conclusion, sexual harassment suggestion of sexually revealing clothing that exposes bodily structures. This is suggestive of the biological causes of sexual harassment. A further 55% did not respond this could be due to the sensitivity of the issue.

Table 4.6.16 Responses according to touching of private parts (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of responses	Percentage
Genitals and breasts	10	50%
Attempted	1	5%
No response	9	45%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.16 Responses according to touching of private parts (Graphic form)



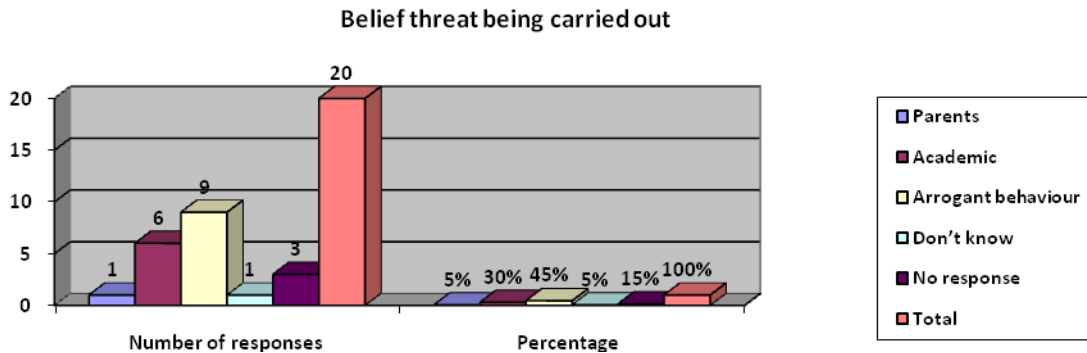
The above table and graph shows that 50% of the respondents were predisposed to genital touching and/or breasts. 45% as indicated by the graph did not comment in this regard. In conclusion, touching

of sensitive sexual parts is the central and common theme and the characteristic of sexual harassment. Those who did not respond could be due to the sensitivity nature of the topic.

Table 4.6.17 Responses according to belief that threat will be carried out (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of responses	Percentage
Parents	1	5%
Academic	6	30%
Arrogant or aggressive behaviour	9	45%
Don't know	1	5%
No response	3	15%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.6.17 Responses according to belief that threat will be carried out (Graphic form)



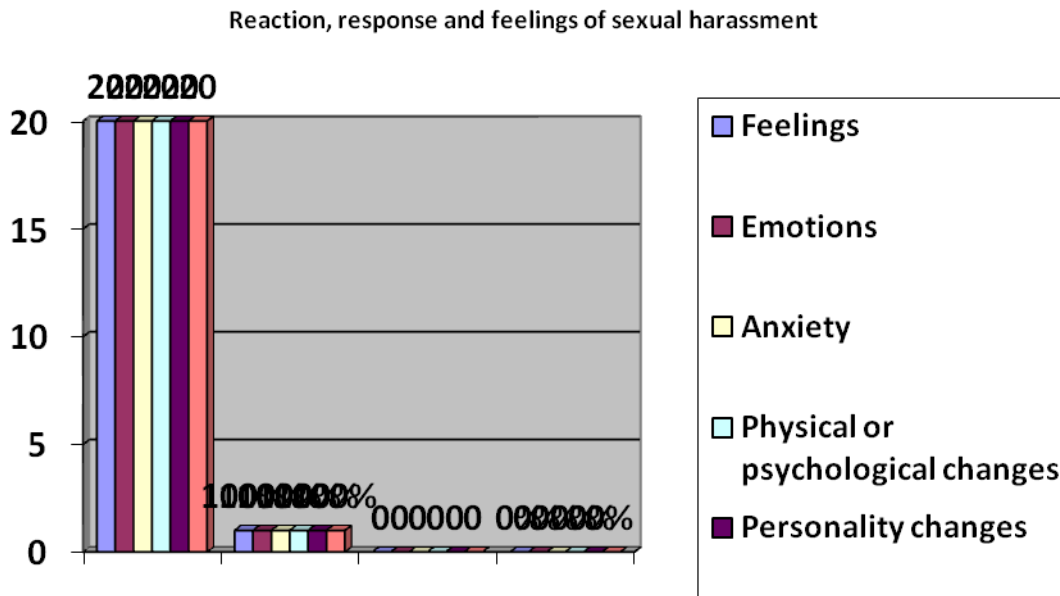
The above table and graph signifies that 5% believe the threat would occur because the harasser is a parental figure who is known and respected as a family friend. 30% believes threat would be carried out because they were threatened academic non progress. 45% believed in the threat being carried out because of the arrogant behavioural patterns that were displayed by their harassers. 5% were left clueless while 15% did not respond on this aspect. In conclusion, aggressive behaviour is mostly believed and perceived as a major, central and common theme in conforming to sexual activity.

4.7 Response, reaction and feelings towards harassment

Table 4.7.1 Responses according to reaction, response, feelings towards harassment (Percentage form)

Variables	Yes	Percentage	No	Percentage
Feelings	20	100%	0	0%
Emotions	20	100%	0	0%
Anxiety	20	100%	0	0%
Physical or psychological changes	20	100%	0	0%
Personality changes	20	100%	0	0%
First person to report	20	100%	0	0%

Graph 4.7.1 Responses according to reactions, response and feelings towards harassment (Graphic form)



The above table and graph shows that 100% of the respondents’ feelings were affected. This might possible mean that during the course and process of harassment victims respond at the level of feelings. The graph indicates that 100% of the respondents reacted emotionally. This is indicative of that victims’ emotions were affected as they responded or reacted to the harassment. The graph suggests that

100% of the respondents experienced a degree of anxiety. This could possible indicate that at the reaction level, sexual harassment increases the levels of anxiousness. The respondents (100%) as indicated by the graph experienced psychological as well physical reactions or changes during their encounters as well as personality changes.

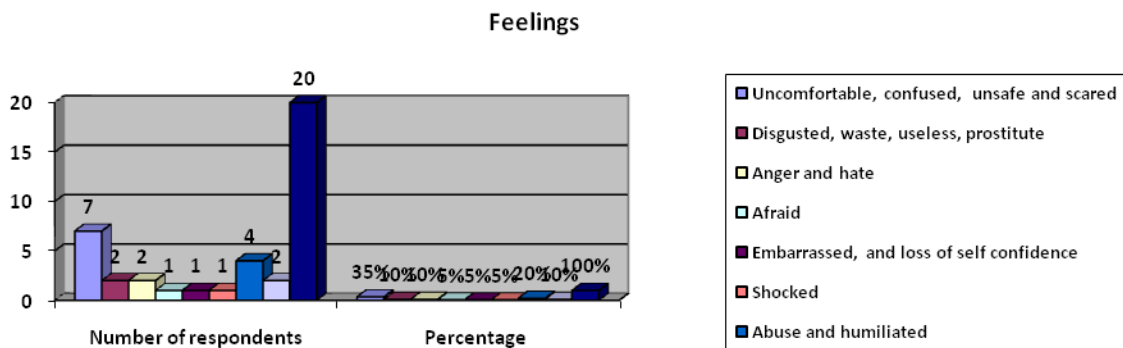
This clearly shows the psychological well being as well as physical detrimental effects associated with being the victim of sexual harassment.

Lastly, the graph displays that 100% of the respondents took an initiation to report the experience of sexual harassment. This could possible mean that the victims find it extremely difficult or impossible to keep quiet about the experience.

Table 4.7.2 Responses according to feelings (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of respondents	Percentage
Uncomfortable, confused, unsafe and scared	8	40%
Disgusted, waste, useless, prostitute	2	10%
Anger and hate	2	10%
Embarrassed, and loss of self confidence	1	5%
Shocked	1	5%
Abuse and humiliated	4	20%
No response	2	10%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.7.2 Responses according to feelings (Graphic form)

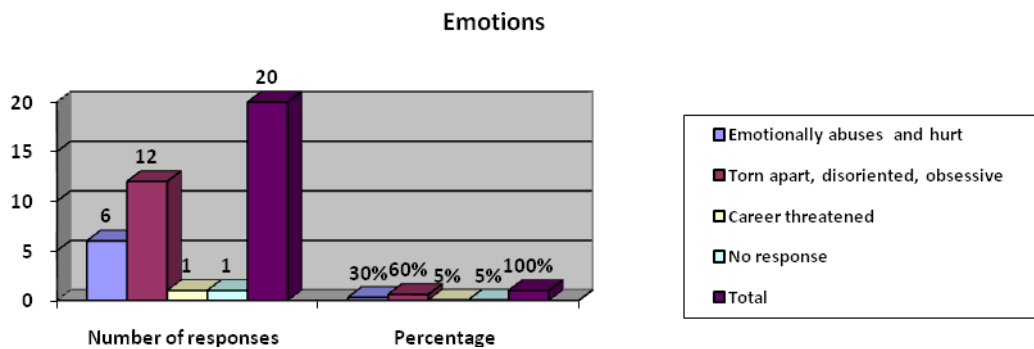


The above table and graph indicates that 40% percent of the respondents’ feelings was characterised by discomfort, confusion, feelings of unsafeness, and were eventually scared. The graph also displays that 10% felt disgusted, useless, and a waste about themselves. Some eventually felt as prostitutes by the whole experience. 10% as indicated by the graph felt angry and engaged in self-hate. 5% percent of the respondents felt embarrassed and lost confidence in themselves. 5% felt shocked about the whole encounter. 20% Of the respondents felt abused and humiliated and 10% did not respond. In conclusion, sexual harassment in terms of responding and reacting varies from one individual to another, however, the commonest theme in this regard are the feelings of discomfort, confusion, safety concerns, and fear.

Table 4.7.3 Responses according to emotions (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of responses	Percentage
Emotionally abuses and hurt	6	30%
Torn apart, disoriented, obsessive	12	60%
Career threatened	1	5%
No response	1	5%
Total	20	100%

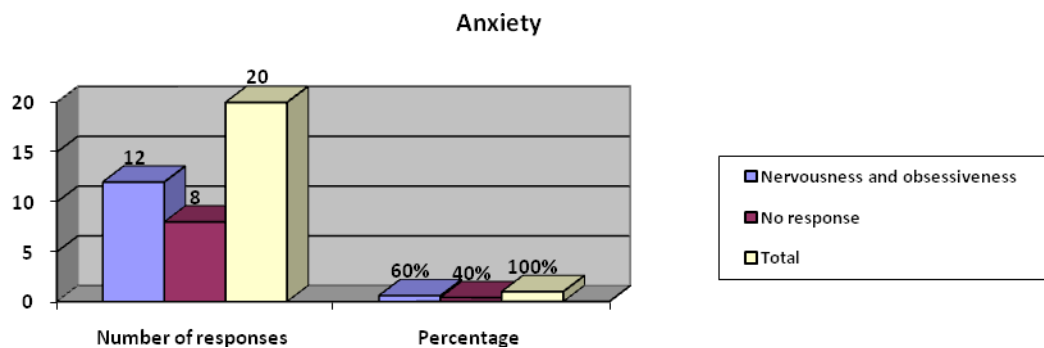
Graph 4.7.3 Responses according to emotions (Graphic form)



The above table and graph indicates that 30% were of the respondents’ emotions were abused and hurt. 60% were torn apart, disoriented, and obsessive. 5% was career threatened and 5% did not comment or respond on the emotional matter. In this regard, although individuals responded differently, but it is of concern and of common nature that individuals felt torn apart, disoriented, and obsessive.

Table 4.7.4 Responses according to anxiety (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of responses	Percentage
Nervousness and obsessiveness	12	60%
No response	8	40%
Total	20	100%

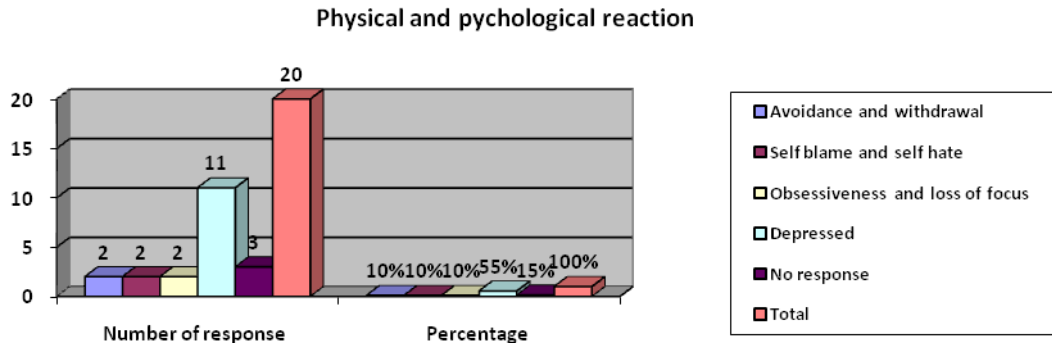
Graph 4.7.4 Responses according to anxiety (Graphic form)

The above table and graph displays that 60% were nervous and obsessive about the encounter and 40% did not respond. In this regard it became evident that individuals shared a common variable that is being nervous and obsessive. Those who did not comment could be due to the nature and sensitivity of the study.

Table 4.7.5 Responses according to physical and psychological reaction (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of response	Percentage
Avoidance and withdrawal	2	10%
Self blame and self hate	2	10%
Obsessiveness and loss of focus	2	10%
Depressed	11	55%
No response	3	15%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.7.5 Responses according to physical and psychological reaction (Graphic form)

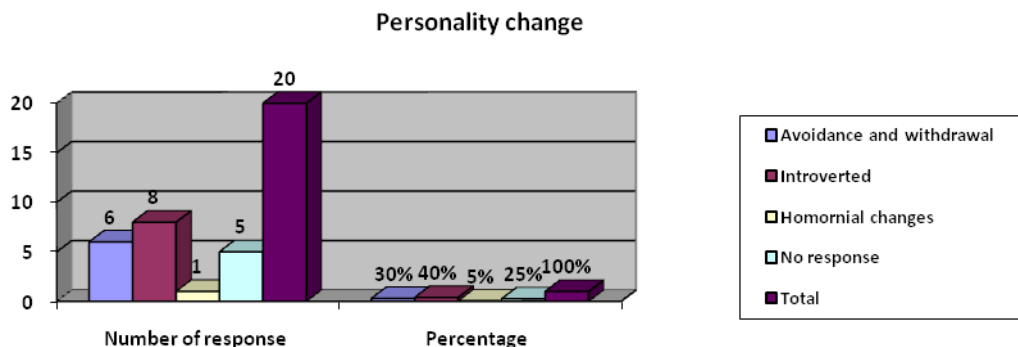


The above table and graph signifies that 10% of the respondents reacted with avoidance and withdrawal. 10% reacted with self-blame and self-hate. 10% of responded reacted with obsessions and loss of focus. 55% respondent with depression or symptoms of depression and 15% did not respond. In summary, it is evident that depression plays a major common role in victims of sexual harassment.

Table 4.7.6 Responses according to personality changes (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of response	Percentage
Avoidance and withdrawal	6	30%
Introverted	8	40%
Hormonal changes	1	5%
No response	5	25%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.7.6 Responses according to personality change (Graphic form)



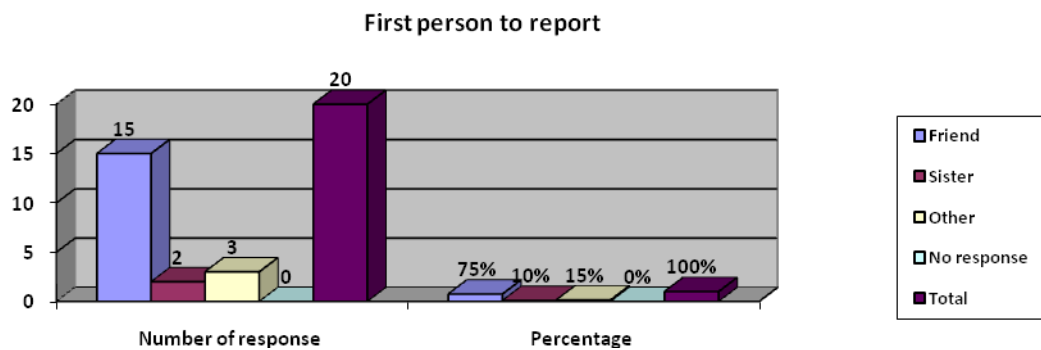
The above table and graph indicates that 30% of the respondents displayed avoidance and withdrawal personality changes. 40% of the respondents become introverted or more reserved to themselves. Only 5% reported to be hormonal affected and 25% did not respond on the issue in discussion respectively.

In this aspect, it seems that becoming more introverted is the common response among victims of sexual harassment.

Table 4.7.7 Responses according to first person to report the experience (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of response	Percentage
Friend	15	75%
Sister	2	10%
Other	3	15%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.7.7 Responses according to first person to report the experience (Graphic form)

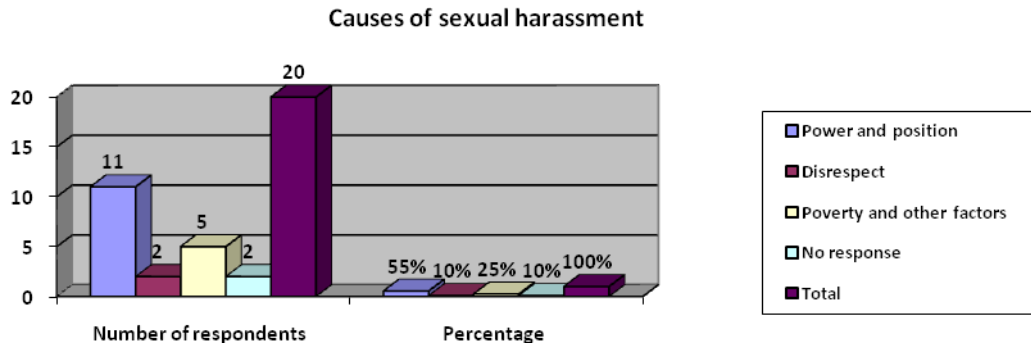


The above table and graph shows that 75% of the respondents reported the sexual experience encounter on their close or best friends. Only 10% of the respondents, as indicated by the graph, reported on a family member (sister). A further 15% engaged in other forms of reporting such as a girlfriend, boyfriend, or another third person either not a close or friend nor a family member. The central theme in this topic is that victim relies on close friends for support of any nature regarding the experience.

Table 4.7.8 Responses according to causes of sexual harassment (Percentage form)

Variables	Number of respondents	Percentage
Power and position	11	55%
Disrespect	2	10%
Poverty and other factors	5	25%
No response	2	10%
Total	20	100%

Graph 4.7.8 Responses according to causes of sexual harassment (Graphic form)



The above table and graph indicates that 55% of the respondents based on their experiences believe, observed, and think that power and position of the harasser is the cause of sexual harassment in case the harasser is a lecture or somebody who occupies a certain respectable or professional portfolio and has power over the victim. Only 10% of the respondents argue that disrespect of human dignity is the cause of sexual harassment. 25% of the respondents maintain that environmental circumstances such as poverty are the main cause of sexual harassment. 10% did not respond on the issue under discussion. In conclusion, it seems that power and authority plays a major, common, and central role in the cause of sexual harassment.

In Summary, this chapter dealt with results of the study and the following chapter will cover the discussion of the results.

Chapter 5: Discussion of findings

5.1. Introduction

This section focuses on the analysis and discussion of the above presented data. Since determining the consequences and contributing factors of sexual harassment is stated in chapter 1, as the aims of the study, the researcher will provide a discussion on such issues. In analysing the cases of sexual harassment, various themes were extracted from the research participants' stories. These are discussed according to the questions asked in the intake questionnaire.

5.2 Sexual harassment

Research participants (all of them) were exposed to incidents of sexual harassment. In this section, attention will be given to the biographical details, the nature of harassment as well as the consequences and possible perpetuating factors of sexual harassment.

5.2.1 Biographical details

Biographical details in this section relate to age, gender, race/ethnicity, and level of study.

- **Age**

The research participants fell within the common age group of between 18 to 25 years of age when they were subjected to sexual harassment on campus. This finding confirms the findings by Sandler and Shoop (1997) whereby they came to the conclusion or finding that tertiary institutions host students who are usually between the age groups of 18 and 25 years. These researchers highlight that fact that this could place them at greater risk of victimisation. Also, in the exposure model conducted by Dastilee (2004) the researcher founded that, age could influence a person's lifestyle. Therefore, individuals in this age group are vulnerable to victimisations because of their lifestyle and their association with others outside of the immediate family. As a child, for example, more time is spent in the home or at school but by late adolescent, the activities of the child are no longer within the institutional control of the family. Researcher Dastilee (2004) further confirms that these adolescents are usually more likely to be victimised, as they tend to go out and as such interact with strangers. Lastly, this age group is also characterised by formation of new relationships which could lead to victimisation.

- **Level of study**

The research participants sample was dominated by a common ground that they were post-graduate students (70%). This discrepancy in level of education is highlighted by Shoop and Heyhow (1994)

whereby these researchers point out that, post graduate students are also vulnerable to sexual harassment due to more frequent contact with lecturers.

- **Race/ethnicity**

Research participants sample was dominated by respondents that were black (100%). Although other races were not included in the study to make further comparisons, however, due to the nature of snowball sampling, the results suggest that black students are vulnerable to sexual victimisation. This is confirmed by a study addressing the relationship Braine, Bless and Brownell (1995) where a comparison between White, Coloured, and African population was made. The researchers concluded that African/Black students are more likely to be subjected to sexual harassment.

- **Gender**

The research participants dominating the sample were females (75%). These findings reveal that female students are at the highest risk as compared to male students. In a study conducted at Zimbabwe's various institutions of higher learning by Zindi (1994), the researcher concluded or found that, almost all students in a sample of (2 749-99%) meant that almost all female students, including married ones, felt unsafe in colleges to the presence and extent of sexual harassment.

5.3 Nature of harassment

The type of harassment experienced by the research participants is discussed below. The incident related factors as well as central themes that emerged will also be elaborated upon this section. Only the type of harassment will receive attention in this section.

5.3.1 Type or nature of harassment

Research participants were subjected to various types of sexual harassment. In this study, the common theme is that, respondents were subjected to sexually offensive remarks of verbalisation from the harassers. This included the commonest theme being vulgar language (65%) associated with verbalisations such as slut and bitch. This finding is in contrast to what Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009) where the researchers argue that sexual remarks characterised by sexual jokes and gestures are more prevalent and are the most frequent experiences.

The study revealed that respondents were subjected to comments on the physical attributes. The commonest theme included remarks on the overall physical body or figure (35%). This is in association with the finding that the most frequently encountered verbal type was remarks about bodily figure and Berlin (2006) stating that sexual harassment can be verbal such as comments about one's body.

The study suggested that respondents were subjected to sexual advances or propositions such as offering of gifts, money (35%) or promotion/academic security (15%) in their phases of harassment. This finding not only corresponds with the definition of sexual harassment (see 2.1) but also with the findings of Berlin (2006).

The study further revealed that respondents were subjected to spanking (75%), staring (80%), unwanted physical touching (60%), and assault during the phase of harassment. This is in line with the finding that among the most frequently encountered forms of sexual harassment, non-verbal forms of harassment like staring and whistling. With regards to physical forms, the most commonly experienced is unsolicited physical contact and touching. The most severe of the physical forms of sexual harassment is sexual assault/rape and genital touching was reported in the study (Pina, Gannon and Saunders, 2009).

The study further revealed that respondents were subjected to invasion of privacy (65%) during phase of harassment and some were required to wear sexually revealing or provocation clothing or outfits. Furthermore, the study indicate that that 55% experienced genital touching while 75% believed that the harasser would really carry out the threat of sexually engaging with the victims. Sander and Shoop (1997) support the above and found that, more specifically, female students could be subjected to all these forms of harassment. Also, a study by Timmerman and Bajema (1999) concluded that sexual harassment of male was evident. Their review of the research studying the sexual harassment of men shows that the same measurement instrument are used for men's and women's sexual experiences pointed out that what women may experience as sexually harassing behaviour may more often be experienced by men as non-threatening behaviour.

In summary, the nature of harassment entailed subjection to unwelcome sexual advances; request for sexual favours and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature (see definition of sexual harassment in 2.2).

The research participants were harassed by their lectures. This type of harassment is what is known as quid pro quo sexual harassment. The perpetrators had power and control over the victims' educational progress. Even if participants did not want to go along but they were promised security that is handing out of assessment questions in advance.

In these incidents research participants were subjected to sexual harassment. The harassers had power over their victims by virtue of being lecturers. The research participants depended on the perpetrators for benefits such as financial assistance, opportunity to get high marks as well as academic progress in general (passing or failing the course). For the research participant to obtain such benefits, they had to submit to the sexual advances imposed on them by the perpetrators. Failure to adhere to the advances had adverse effects on the victims. All the research participants who were victims of sexual harassment were not only subjected to sexual harassment on one occasion.

5.4 Response, reaction, and feelings towards sexual harassment

The study revealed that research participants experienced the following response, reactions, and feelings towards the harassment.

All the respondents (100%) reacted, responded at the level of feelings.

All the respondents (100%) responded or reacted at the emotional level.

All the respondents (100%) experienced a degree of increased anxiety.

All the respondents (100%) experienced psychological as well physical reactions or changes during their encounters.

The entire sample (100%) experienced personality changes.

Lastly, all respondents (100%) took an initiation to report the experience of sexual harassment.

The study revealed that 40% of respondents during the phase of harassment their feelings were characterised by feelings of discomfort, confusion, feelings of unsafeness, and were eventually scared. A further 10% felt disgusted, useless, and a waste about themselves. Some eventually felt as prostitutes by the whole experience. 10% felt angry and engaged in self-hate. 5% percent of the respondents felt embarrassed and lost confidence in themselves. 5% felt shocked about the whole encounter. 20% of the respondents felt abused.

The study also revealed that 30% of the respondents felt emotionally abused and hurt. The commonest 60% were responded by stating that they were torn apart, disoriented, and obsessive. 5% were career threatened.

The study further revealed that 60% of the respondents were nervous and obsessive about the encounter. The study suggested that 10% of the respondents reacted with avoidance and withdrawal.

10% reacted with self-blame, anger and self-hate. 10% of respondents reacted with obsessions and loss of focus. 55% respondents reported that experienced depression or symptoms of depression.

The study lastly revealed that 30% of the respondents displayed avoidance and withdrawal personality changes. 40% of the respondents becoming introverted or more reserved to themselves. Only 5% reported to be hormonal affected.

In summary, sexual harassment as revealed by the study involved a variety of consequences such as cognitive, behavioural, physical, and psychological. Such consequences are discussed below.

5.4.1 Consequences of victimization

The above indicates the cognitive and behavioural consequences as well as subjective, physical and psychological health of victims of sexual harassment.

The effects sexual harassment had on the victims who participated in the study ranged from stress related symptoms such as confusion to self-blame, lack of trust and concentration in class, anger, self hate. Changes in their personality and lifestyle such as avoiding certain situation, objects, and settings were also revealed. The consequences will be discussed in this section.

5.4.2 Emotional consequences

The research participants who participated in the study expressed a wide range of feelings as they began to deal with the effects of the harassment.

- **Anger**

Feelings of anger are all typical of the acute phase of the post-traumatic stress disorder. According to anger is usually a central feature of a survivor's response to trauma. This anger according to Dastile (2004: 203) "could provide victims with an increased energy to persist when dealing with the fact that they had been subjected to sexual harassment. This phase may last for weeks or months following the incidents."

- **Self-blame**

Research participants felt guilty and responsible for the harassment, thus leading to self blame. According to Dastile (2004) despite the varying circumstances of the harassment as well as the humiliation the victims could be subjected to, the researcher emphasises that during sexual harassment, victims often feel as if they are the property of the perpetrator. They feel stripped off their dignity and

tend to hate themselves thereby developing self-hate and blame. The victims also feel that they could or should have handled the situation differently.

The lack of support from parents or friends could become an additional stressing factor which may result in the victims blaming themselves. The lack of support from the victims' family could increase the emotional consequences of sexual victimisation (Sandler & Shoop, 1997).

- **Low self esteem**

This finding corresponds with the research conducted by Shoop and Heyhow (1994) whereby the researchers argue that victims of sexual harassment often think that they should be able to handle the situation they find themselves in. Furthermore, Dastile (2004) points out that, individuals judge themselves in terms of their own worthiness or non-worthiness thereof. Thus, the author maintains that victims of sexual harassment often feel that they are important, unlikeable, and unworthy of respect. This is in association with the feeling that there is something wrong with them which may have contributed them to be subjected to sexual harassment.

- **Lack of concentration**

According to Burgers and Holstrom (1988) and Dastile (2004) victims of sexual harassment may have problems in class. This might be suggestive of the trauma associated with the sexual harassment and the effect it has on the general functioning of the victim.

- **Lack of trust**

In the current study, it is evident that lack of trust characterises the victim's life and functioning. Dastile (2004) attribute this to the fact that in most sexual harassment incidents, the victim and the perpetrator are usually acquainted with each other. This could lead to the lack of trust because the victim often depends on the perpetrators and might have seen them as their role models.

- **Avoidance of specific situations, stimuli or places**

Research responded reported that after the harassment they avoided certain places or situations which triggered or reminded them of the harassment.

These findings according to Dastile (2004) are in line with the findings of Sadler and Shoop (1997) who state that a particular place or event may suddenly recreate aspects of the harassment thus resulting in anxiety, panic or an emotional reaction. This is indicative of the recovery phase of PTSD.

- **Social consequences**

Exposure to sexual harassment also resulted in the victims changing their lifestyles and personality patterns, thus depriving them the freedom to engage in activities they are used to. According to Dastile (2004) this is done primarily to avoid further victimisation and may also be a strategy employed by victims to gain control of their lives again. This is also characteristic of the recovery phase of the PTSD. As victims try to change their lifestyle and functioning, they may minimise the development of any learner- teacher relationship because they fear they might be victimised (Sandler & Shoop, 1997). A further depressive state may follow with victims resorting to cancelling the registration or not attending classes, which could have long term or future financial implications for the victim.

- **Financial implications**

The changes in lifestyle in order to avoid further victimisation resulted in the victim's educational performance being affected. This was primarily because of the non-attendance of classes, thus leading to failure. Dastile (2004) found that, a victim's career development, financial independence and advancement could be affected by sexual harassment. The fact that research participants failed courses means that they have to repeat the course. This has a financial implication hence reregistering the course implies paying again. This also minimise victims in terms of career advancement which means that students have to consider alternative means in order to complete their degrees.

- **Cognitive consequences**

The cognitive effects experienced by sexual harassment victims could include the following; poor performance, low productivity, inability to make sound judgement and decision, poor performance and mental fatigue, poor concentration, anxiety panic attacks nervousness and short attention span, reduced academic commitment (Neethling, 2005).

- **Behavioural consequences**

The behavioural effects experienced by victim of sexual harassment could possible include a short attention span and impulse behaviour, increased absenteeism, late coming, neck pains and nervous laughter, and de-motivation (Neethling, 2005).

- **Physical, subjective and psychological health**

The physical, subjective and psychological health of victims of sexual harassment could be the following; anxiety, panic attacks, nervousness, deteriorating relationships, demotion, inability to make sound judgements, aggression and loss of temper, depression, mental blocks, forgetfulness, poor

performance, low productivity, mental fatigue and poor concentration, short attention span, insomnia and emotional outbursts (Neethling, 2005).

5.4.3 Reporting the incident

After the incident, the research participant had to decide whether to report the incident to officials or to friends. These are often the people they choose to confide in after the incident.

The study revealed that the respondents reported the sexual experience encounter on their close or best friends (75%). Only 10% of the respondents reported on a family member (sister). A further 15% engaged in other forms of reporting such as a girlfriend, boyfriend, or another third person either not a close or friend nor a family member.

5.4.4 Possible perpetuating factors of sexual harassment

- **Power and Poverty**

As per this study, it was revealed that 55% of the respondents based on their experiences believe, observed, and think that power and position of the harasser is main the cause of sexual harassment in case the harasser is a lecture or somebody who occupies a certain respectable or professional portfolio and has power over the victim.

According to Pina, Gannon and Saunders (2009) there are two types of sexual harassers. There is either a public or private harassers. The public harasser is typically articulate and approachable, and usually engages in overt, deliberate behaviors intended to intimidate or control the victim. The private harasser, on the other hand, behaves in a more conservative manner, avoids notoriety, and uses power to covertly control and gain access to students for sexual contact.

The findings of the study suggest that victims in the sample were subjected to the private harasser. Only 10% of the respondents argue that disrespect of human dignity is the cause of sexual harassment. Another 25% of the respondents maintain that environmental circumstances such as poverty are the main cause of sexual harassment. This needs further exploration.

- **Incident related myths**

In analysing the sexual harassment cases, the researcher found that the acceptance of myths to be the one incident related factor that surfaced throughout the research participants' description of the incident. The ways the victims neutralise or justify the harassment (the reason provided for victimisation) are as follows):

Research participants believed that they were responsible for their own victimisation as a result of the clothes they were wearing. The above research finding occurs with that of Dziech and Weiner (1990) who state that female students often blame themselves and could become victims of sexual harassment because of the acceptance and internalisation of certain myths. According to Shoop and Heyhow (1994), women who wear low cut tops, tight jeans or short skirts may be misinterpreted as inviting a sexual reaction. Therefore, victims are characterised by the notion that the victim provoked the perpetrator by wearing seductive clothing and is thus responsible for his or her own victimisation. The acceptance of these myths, range from physical appearance, dress code and beauty to the belief that the victims asked for it.

By accepting these justifications, victims contribute to the denial of responsibility on the part of the perpetrator, thereby shifting the blame to the victim (Sutherland, 1991). This seems also to be a major factor perpetuating sexual harassment.

5.5 Possible prevention or reduction of future incidents

One of the aims of the current study is to recommend measures or strategies that could be undertaken to prevent or reduce sexual harassment on campuses. The following recommendations are put to the fore:

- **Orientation**

It is recommended that more information be incorporated and addressed during the orientation of new students. Therefore, a need for guidance on issues such as financial assistance information and where to get such information on campus is advised as a measure on preventing future victimisation.

- **Victim support services**

A need of workshops on certain issues on campus is suggested where students could discuss matters affecting them thus enabling them to share ideas and formulate solutions based on shared experiences. An establishment of a centre to offer support to victims' of crime on campus is essential in order to help victims deal with their challenges (Destile, 2004). Such centre could provide education in terms of awareness programmes, counselling and also to sensitise the university community about the incidents of specific crimes on campus.

- **Ending the acceptance of sexual harassment**

Destile (2004) state that educational as well as awareness programmes could be essential to address the issues which make the university community to accept sexual harassment as normal behaviour. Thus,

according to Dastile (2004) the first step could be to publicise the statistics of harassment on campus and also stress the effects sexual harassment has on the victims.

- **Empowerment of students or victims**

It appears that a need exist to make students aware of the power they have within themselves. Dastile (2004) state that female students should be empowered to enable them to stand up without fear of harassment. When they are educated in this factor, female students on campuses could learn to ascertain their power and be able to say “no” to any unwelcome sexual propositions.

- **Need for financial aid and assistance**

A further recommendation is that provision should be made for students who might need financial assistance. This is due to the fact that students are easily subjected to sexual harassment when they are in need for financial aid.

- **Adequate security**

A recommendation for a proper security measure on the entire campus is suggested.

5.6 Conclusion

The findings of this study reaffirm the results of other studies on sexual harassment conducted at South African universities that sexual harassment is a serious problem on university campuses (Braine et al., 1995; Naidoo & Rajab, 1992; Sutherland, 1991). The findings of the present study revealed that students need more clarity on what constitutes sexual harassment. Significant gender-related differences were found in the perceptions and experiences of sexual harassment. Females, being the primary victims, were found to be more sensitive to sexual harassment and they perceived more behaviors to constitute sexual harassment than did males. The University of Zululand has a responsibility to discourage sexual harassment and unethical intimacy as a matter of explicit policy. that the University Management, in consultation with students and staff, develop and issue a policy statement which expressly states that all students and staff have a right to be treated with dignity; that sexual harassment at University of Zululand will not be permitted or condoned and that both students and staff have a right to complain about it should it occur. The policy statement should include, with the aid of examples, what is understood by sexual harassment at University of Zululand. It is recommended that the policy statement give clear guidelines on the reporting procedures following sexual harassment as well as an undertaking that allegations of sexual harassment will be dealt with seriously, expeditiously and confidentially. Provision should be made to protect victims from further victimization and retaliation. Disciplinary measures to be taken against individuals found guilty of sexual harassment should be

specified. Having a clear policy to deal with the problem can be the most effective preventative measure against sexual harassment (Collier, 1995). Attempts should be made to communicate the policy effectively to the whole University of Zululand community through discussion groups, leaflets, posters and articles published.

Information about the university's policy on sexual harassment and procedures for dealing with it could be included as part of the Orientation programme for first-year students. The Student Representative Council, with the support of the university management and staff, could make it their responsibility to increase the awareness of students about what constitutes sexual harassment and why it is unacceptable.

The students could be made aware of behaviours and situations that make them susceptible to sexual harassment. They could also be given information pertaining to groups more likely to be exposed to sexual harassment based on their perceived vulnerability, such as female students, individuals under the influence of alcohol and students. Students can 'do much to discourage sexual harassment by making it clear that they find such behaviour unacceptable and by offering support to fellow students who are recipients of sexual harassment. Future research needs to be conducted to get information about the sexual harassment prevention programmes/strategies adopted at University of Zululand and also to ascertain their effectiveness in the sphere of sexual harassment. There is therefore a need to legislate against such harassment as well as adopting a set of guidelines which raise the consciousness of both lecturers and their trainees about the issue. This way, it is hoped that those with power over students will in future give this issue a great thought before they act (Zindi, 1994).

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Appendix A

Questionnaire - Sexual Harassment Experiences

The following is a questionnaire to assess your experience about sexual harassment. You do not need to put your name on this questionnaire and participation is voluntary. Please answer the following questions to the best of your ability and as honestly as possible.

Age:

Gender:

Race/ethnicity:

Level of study:

1. DESCRIPTION OF HARRASSMENT

Description of any threats, statements, or circumstances indicating that your harasser was forcing you to engage in what you thought were inappropriate sexual acts/harassment (for example did you feel that it was implied that if you did not participate or tolerate the inappropriate actions that you would be, demoted, fail courses etc...). In your answer please pay attention to the following:

Offensive language_____

Comments on your physical attributes or sexual desirability_____

Sexual advances or propositions_____

Unwanted touching_____

Sexual assault_____

Spanking_____

Invasion of privacy_____

Following or staring_____

Requiring you to wear revealing or sexually provocative clothing_____

Involvement of genital touching_____

Did you believe the harasser would carry out the threat? Please explain

Additional information that you feel, believe, or think is important concerning the nature of your harassment

2. YOUR RESPONSE, REACTION AND FEELINGS TOWARDS THE HARASSMENT

Describe your feelings or subjective responses to the harassment.

In your answer please pay attention to the following:

Feelings_____

Emotions_____

Anxiety concerning any possibility that the harassment will recur_____

Physical or psychological reaction

Any personality changes_____

Who was the first person you spoke to about the harassment [discrimination]?

What do you think, believe, or observed as the main cause of sexual harassment in the institution?

Explain_____

Additional information that you feel, believe, or think is important concerning your response, reaction and feelings towards your harassment_____

Signature_____

Thank you for your participation!

Appendix B

P.O. Box 1995

Newcastle

2940

10 June 2009

The Research Committee

University of Zululand

Private Bag X1001

Kwa-Dlangezwa

3886

Dear Sir/Madam

REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

I am writing to request permission to conduct a research study within the University of Zululand campus. The research study is entitled *A narrative investigation on the experiences of sexual harassment at the university of Zululand.*

I am currently enrolled with the University of Zululand studying for a Masters Degree in Counseling Psychology, in the department of Psychology. This study will benefit the institutions' community with special reference in retaining a good relationship amongst students and staff of the University of Zululand.

Thank you as you take this request into serious consideration.

Yours Faithfully

Mfundo Nene