

An investigation of students' attitudes towards sexual harassment at the
University of KwaZulu-Natal: Howard Campus Residences.

TSEPO GOODMAN MULAULI

SUPEVISOR: DR JACKIE DE WET

JANUARY 20017

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and foremost I would like to acknowledge my Mulauli Family, especially my grandparents Ntate and Me Maphomolo who adopted and raise me to become the person I am today. Without their teachings and guidance, I would not be where I am today. I am indebted to them until the end of time. My gratitude also goes to aunt Matumelo, Malponiso, Mapho and the late aunt Monde.

Secondly, I would like to thank my thesis advisor Dr Jackie De Wet of the Criminology and Forensic Studies under the School of Human Applied Science. You have been more than a teacher to me, thank you.

Thirdly, I would also like to thank certain individuals from the discipline of Psychology who were supportive, welcoming and positive to me. To name but the few, I am forever indebted to; Dr Magojo, Prof Anna Meyer-Weitz, Dr Olagoke Akintole and Dr Oppong Asante Kwaku.

To my follow students, finally we did !!!.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter One

1.1	Introduction.....	6
1.2	Research Problem.....	8
1.3	Aims and Objectives of the study.....	9
1.3.1	Aim of the Study.....	9
1.3.2	Research Objectives.....	9
1.4	Key Research Questions.....	9
1.5	Significance and Rationale of the Study.....	9
1.6	Definition of Concepts.....	10
1.7	Types of Sexual Harassment.....	12
1.8	Chapter Outline.....	12
1.9	Conclusion.....	13
	Chapter Two.....	14
	Literature Review.....	14
2.1	Introduction.....	14
2.2	Theoretical framework.....	15
2.3	Literature Review.....	16

2.4 Conclusion.....	33
Chapter Three.....	34
Research Methodology.....	34
3.1 Introduction.....	34
3.2 Research Design.....	34
3.3 Study Setting.....	35
3.4 Sampling Framework.....	35
3.5 Data Collection Instruments.....	36
3.6 Validity and Reliability.....	37
3.7 Data Collection Procedures.....	38
3.8 Data Analysis.....	38
3.9 Conclusion.....	39
Chapter Four.....	40
Data Analysis.....	40
4.1 Introduction.....	40
4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample.....	41
4.3 Experiences of Sexual Harassment.....	45
4.4 Cross-tabulation of Responses.....	47

4.5 Cross-tabulation of attitudes by Gender.....	48
4.6 Discussion of the Results.....	76
4.7 Conclusion.....	78
Chapter Five.....	79
Conclusions and Recommendations.....	79
5.1 Introduction.....	79
5.2 Conclusions.....	79
5.3 Recommendations.....	80
5.4 Limitations of the study.....	82
Bibliography.....	83
Appendix 1:.....	96
Appendix 2: Study Information Sheet.....	100
Appendix 4: Ethical Clearance/Gatekeepers' letter.....	103

Chapter One

1.1 Introduction

Sexual harassment is an ever-growing problem that is on the rise, especially within university settings. South African universities are not immune to sexual harassment; it has become a widespread problem (Prinsloo, 2006; Steenkamp, 2010). This study was informed by the ever-growing number of cases of sexual harassment in South African Universities (Bhana & McKay, 2007; Bennett, 2002; Hoffman, 2002; Nene, 2010; Prinsloo, 2006; Steenkamp, 2010). The methods of conducting sexual harassment studies are widely complex and challenging as there is no official single definition of sexual harassment that is acceptable by everyone.

The methodology of previous sexual harassment studies has been characterised by a variety of flaws and limitations. For instance, the sample of most studies that have been conducted in South Africa does not truly represent the demographic of South Africa. Naidoo and Rajab's (1992) study was conducted in the pre-democratic era where the majority of the students and the lecturers in the then University of Natal, Durban Campus (currently known as University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus) were predominantly White. Nene's (2010) study on sexual harassment at the University of Zululand had only 20 participants all of whom happened to be black South Africans. Steenkamp's (2010) study at the University of Stellenbosch was overrepresented by White middle class females. The results were also based on speculation because out of 23765 registered students, only seven percent participated. There were no follow up studies to investigate the views of the students who did not participate in the first study.

In light of the on-going media publicity of sexual harassment activities taking place in our education institutions, it is evident that schools and universities are also not immune to gender based violence (Smit & Du Plessis, 2011). It is, in this context, therefore, that this study sought to investigate the attitudes of university students towards sexual harassment with the view of

understanding such attitudes within their context and thus be in a position to propose what could possibly be done to address the situation at hand. It is in this light therefore that this study was conducted at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus where incidences of sexual harassment have continually been reported (UKZN Risk Management Report, 2010-2013).

Research conducted in the United States of America has shown that approximately two thirds of all university students experience some form of sexual harassment during their study and that female students are primarily the victims (Cortina, Swan, Fitzgerald & Waldo, 1998). Another report on the extent of sexual harassment at United Kingdom (UK) universities had been published (The Guardian, September 15, 2014). According to the article, an online survey conducted by the National Union of Students in 2013 revealed that 37% of female and 12% of male students were facing sexual harassment in UK universities. These reports prompted me to conduct a study on sexual harassment at the University of KwaZulu-Natal. In South Africa, thirty per cent of girls are raped in schools and male learners and male educators are the main culprits (Smith & Du Plessis, 2011). After finishing high school, the majority of the female learners further their studies at Universities across the country where they also experience gender based crimes such as sexual harassment. The above paints a tepid picture of society in that it tolerates the existence of gender-based crimes, characterised by attitudes that do not prioritise the protection of women against gender-based crimes.

Remarking on the 'first university sexual harassment policy in the context of Ghana, Du & Kamakura (2008) avers "the general consensus is that sexual harassment on campus should be seriously addressed because it negatively affects students' well-being and the university reputation. Similar sentiments have been expressed in the Ministerial report (2008) in its argument that "sexism [...] is pernicious and must be rooted out if higher education institutions are to be true to the value of the Constitution." In this regard, the report asserts that "it is not an exaggeration to suggest that no institution can confidently indicate that the principle of [...] non-sexism ... has been achieved, despite the fact that all institutions have a range of policies in place to address equity and transformation". Thus, it is contended that the issues of gender, especially in relation to sexual harassment, tend to be mute and downplayed. Both educational institutions and the

workplace are contexts especially conducive to sexual harassment as they present real possibilities for people to abuse their power (Smit & Du Plessis, 2011).

1.2 Research Problem

In an article entitled: *Rethinking Universities – “Gender is Over”*: Researching the implementation of Sexual Harassment Policies in Southern African Higher Education, Bennet et al (2007:85) assert that bearing witness to the complexity of day-to-day gender dynamics within higher education has for them [...] been an engagement with issues of sexual harassment and sexual violence on campus. It is thus notable that sexual harassment in the education sector has become a burning issue, not only in South Africa but also in foreign jurisdictions (Smit & Du Plessis, 2011). This is best exemplified by the fact that in schools sexual harassment has become a way of expressing and confirming masculinity within a heterosexual racial and gender order (Smit & Du Plessis, 2011). It is further argued that the reinforcement of male heterosexuality and the authentication of male masculinity are often the cause of females becoming victims of the harassment in an education environment (Smit & Du Plessis, 2011). It is thus argued that tertiary institutions and schools are no longer the ivory towers of the past, as they have become a breeding ground for unfair discrimination and victimisation on sexual grounds (Smit & Du Plessis, 2011).

As argued by Stone and Couch (2004), sexual harassment as a major educational equity issue creates an intrusive educational environment, which largely interferes with learning and has the potential of escalating when ignored. It is also asserted that when incidents of sexual harassment occur, the target of such conduct feels threatened, depressed and even suicidal. Additionally, victims of sexual harassment might also dread going to school and if they happen to be at school, they have difficulty paying attention and are reluctant to participate in class resulting in them experiencing falling grades. Ultimately, these victims might consider changing schools against their wishes. Notably, therefore, victims of sexual harassment have their mental and social well-being seriously compromised. In spite of the having a sexual harassment policy, students at UKZN continue to be susceptible to different types of sexual harassments including physical, verbal and non-verbal (UKZN Sexual harassment policy & procedures, 2016) giving rise to this study.

1.3 Aims and Objectives of the study

1.3.1 Aim of the Study

The aim of this study was to investigate students' attitudes with regard to sexual harassment within a university setting. The research engaged with both male and female students' attitudes and explored the difference exhibited in the conceptualisation of these attitudes.

1.3.2 Research Objectives

The objectives of the study were:

- To understand student' perceptions of sexual harassment at Howard College campus in UKZN.
- To determine the nature of sexual harassment within at Howard College campus in UKZN.
- To determine student' attitudes towards sexual harassment at Howard College campus in UKZN.

1.4 Key Research Questions

- How do students perceive sexual harassment at Howard College campus in UKZN?
- What is the nature of sexual harassment at Howard College campus in UKZN?
- What are student's attitudes towards sexual harassment at Howard College campus in UKZN?

1.5 Significance and Rationale of the Study

The findings of this study will assist the University community to understand the dynamics of sexual harassment on campus and will assist in developing more amenable procedures that encourage victims of sexual harassment to come forward. This could be achieved through awareness campaigns and cooperation between students and the University management. There is a need to educate students and staff to report sexual harassment and the fact that sexual harassment is both illegal and serious. Students can benefit from educational programs that are aimed at

creating awareness on the issue and understanding the political, legal and psychological issues surrounding sexual harassment. An understanding of individuals' disposition towards sexual harassment will pave the way for more effective preventative programs which will promote positive attitudes towards sexual differences and thus help to reduce the incidences of sexual harassment on the university campus and by extension to the victims of such.

Sexual harassment is a widespread problem in social, working and educational environments (MacKinnon, 1979). As such, it creates an intrusive educational environment, which is capable of interfering with learning, and escalates when ignored. It is thus necessary to engage in an investigative enquiry through research in an exploration of possibilities to have gender equality an essential ingredient of the institutional culture since as of now it has become a major educational equity issue affecting the mental and social well-being of many a student irrespective of one's gender.

1.6 Definition of Concepts

- **Sexual Harassment**

The majority of South African students do not know what constitutes sexual harassment (Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997). This is further complicated by the fact that there is no precise or concise definition of sexual harassment. Mayekiso and Bhana (1997) assert that the majority of students have no clarity on what constitutes sexual harassment. The following definitions are worth considering:

- MacKinnon (1979) defined sexual harassment as the unwanted imposition of sexual requirements in the context of a relationship of unequal power. This definition is inadequate in recognising that sexual harassment can occur even in the absence of such unequal power. For example, instances when sexual harassment occurs between students of the same age, race and same levels of qualifications or education.
- Sexual harassment is defined by the UNZA HIV and AIDS policy (2006) as unwelcome sexual advances, demands sexual favours from the victims that can be verbal or physical

in nature, perpetrator refuse to accept rejection from the victim and creates an intimidating, hostile or offensive learning environment for the victims.

- The Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (1996) defines sexual harassment as “unwelcome conducts of a sexual nature that violates the rights of an employee and constitutes a barrier to equity in the workplace, taking into account all of the following factors”.
- According to the Employment Equity Act sexual harassment is “unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature, including instances where such favours or conduct are implicitly or explicitly made a condition of employment, continued employment or promotion”. However, this definition is only confined to sexual harassment that occurs in the working environment, it fails to recognize its scope outside the world of work (Labour Relations Act, Act 66 of 1995).
- As per South African legislation, sexual harassment is “unwelcome conducts of a sexual nature that violates the rights of an employee and constitutes a barrier to equity in the workplace, taking into account all of the following factors” (Department of Justice and Constitutional Development, 1996).
- According the Employment Equity Act sexual harassment is “unwelcome sexual advances, requests for sexual favours, verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature, including instances where such favours or conduct are implicitly or explicitly made a condition of employment, continued employment or promotion”. However, this definition is only confined to sexual harassment that occurs in the working environment, it fails to recognize its scope outside the world of work (Labour Relations Act, Act 66 of 1995).
- The UKZN management concurs with this when they state that there are three forms of sexual harassment: physical, verbal and non-verbal (UKZN Sexual harassment policy & procedures, 2004).

For the purpose of this study an operational definition of sexual harassment has been developed. In this definition, sexual harassment is construed as an abuse of power, which is unwelcome,

offensive, emotional or physical sexual advances that are abusive and intimidating in nature, whereby the offender creates a hostile or offensive learning environment by failing to accept rejection and continue to sexually harass the victim. Sexual harassment may be physical, such as kissing, hugging, pinching, patting, grabbing, blocking the victim's path, leering or staring, or standing very close to the victim. It may also be verbal which may be oral or written and could include requests.

1.7 Types of Sexual Harassment

There are different types of sexual harassments that female students are exposed to in the University campus and these range from gender harassment to sexual assault. In the United States, Till (1980) came up with five types of sexual harassment:

- Gender harassment is similar to racial harassment and is characterized by sexist attitudes towards female students and is degrading and insulting;
- Seductive behaviour is construed as being inappropriate and offensive but essentially sanction-free sexual advances (although such behaviour is unwanted or offensive, there is no penalty attached to the woman's negative response);
- Sexual bribery entails requesting for sexual favours in exchange for some type of educational participation or benefit, for example, marks and exam papers;
- Sexual coercion consists of behaviour which employs or implies punishment and physical threats which lead to coerced sexual activity;
- Sexual assault entails sexual crimes and misbehaviours, including rape.

Some researchers such as Gelfand et al. (1995) further reduced these types of sexual harassment into three dimensions, namely: gender harassment, unwanted sexual attention and sexual coercion. Other researchers such as Bennett (2002) further classify sexual harassment into two dimensions, namely: hostile working and learning environment and quid pro quo (sexual bribery).

1.8 Chapter Outline

Chapter One is the introductory section which outlines the background, research questions, and the objectives of the study. Chapter Two is on the literature review engaged. Chapter Three is on the Research Methodology. Chapter Four is on Data analysis, interpretation and discussion of results. Lastly, Chapter Five is on conclusion and recommendations of the study.

1.9 Conclusion

This chapter presents the background of the study and research problem. This is followed by research questions and the research objectives. Then, the aim and significance of the study. The last part of the chapter deals with definitions of terms, outline of the chapters, and summary of the chapter.

Chapter Two

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

This chapter serves to outline the theoretical framework and the conceptual frame of the discourse of sexual harassment. It looks at the types and categories of sexual harassment and attitudes towards sexual harassments. The study will not overlook the University responses to sexual harassment and the prevailing extent of sexual harassment tendencies within the institution. Coupled with that, research on African, international university campuses, and student residences will be the central point of focus. It is in this context that the effects of sexual harassment, factors influencing perceptions of sexual harassment, and the gender differences will be analysed in detail. Issues such as same-sex sexual harassment and perceptions of men as victims of sexual harassment will be scrutinized.

Sexual harassment refers to a variety of unwelcome gender-related nonverbal and verbal behaviours, including sexual assault and gender harassment. It has been defined as both a psychological and a legal phenomenon as it does not only have legal implications on the two parties involved but also has negative psychological effects on its victims. There are a variety of causes of sexual harassment, including social and cultural factors, behavioural and people's attitude towards women, victims of gender related crimes and sexual harassment in general. To date, sexual harassment research has largely excluded the attitudes towards sexual harassment; however, there a number of studies that have touched on the topic but not with sufficient detail. The following section provides a theoretical explanation of sexual harassment and a literature review.

2.2 Theoretical framework

This study is underpinned by sexism and the objectification theory as theoretical frameworks informing the investigatory enquiry of the issues as reflected in the aims and objectives of the study. To start with, it is worth recognising that gender stereotyping is one of the main reasons for the high number of sexual harassment cases reported in the education sector in South Africa and in other jurisdictions (Smit & Du Plessis, 2011). Thus, as a result of this stereotyping, women are defined in relation to the prevailing masculine standard of normality particularly manifested in the gendered use of language (Smit & Du Plessis, 2011). Arguably, sexist terms can and do act coercively in signalling what is viewed as ‘acceptable’ behaviour in contrast to femininity which is seen as not conforming to the prevailing cultural code regarding ‘normal’ behaviour. Notably, sexist behaviour is more than linguistically couched since harassment can be ‘either verbal or physical conduct that denigrates or shows hostility towards an individual because of their [...] sexuality. Thus, “gender inequality, mostly as it relates to women, in South African society is a contributor to sexual violence to which many a woman and man are subjected (Smit and Du Plessis, 2011). In South Africa, as in other countries throughout the world, patriarchal systems exist in which men hold “most or all of the power and control” (Smit & Du Plessis, 2011).

It is thus inferred from the above explication that gender operates at the levels of culture, sexuality and epistemology, zones in which access to “being a human being” is negotiated through life-long engagement with constructions of “manhood” and “womanhood” upon which the possibilities of society itself are predicated (Bennet et al, 2002 quoted from Maass et al. (2003). These constructions as explicated above thus account for the many different forms of sexual abusive interactions which are found simultaneously within higher education institutions (Bennet et al, 2002).

The objectification theory provides valuable insights as to why more women are victims of sexual harassment than males. The proponents of the objectification theory such as Fredrickson and Roberts (1997) raised pertinent questions as to why female bodies are treated as objects of pleasure for males. The theory normalises gender role stereotypes that men are muscular by nature and females are passive, dependent and fragile (Bennet et al, 2002). This theory suggests that sexual

harassment separates the body of the victim from their identity. What objectification theory further suggests is that society does not value female independence from males and that females that possess so-called male attributes are discouraged or punished so that they can know their place. In this study this theory is utilised to understand the attitudes around sexual harassment and this involves the why and the how components. Additionally, this theory provides a framework from which to understand sexual harassment occurrences especially as it occurs to female students on campus residences. Furthermore, the theory helps to explain why more women victims of sexual harassment are as compared to men. Most importantly, the theory answers questions relating to why males treat females as sex objects and not as human beings with needs and feelings (Vohlidalova, 2011).

2.3 Literature Review

This chapter will review the literature, which is pertinent to the issues of sexual harassment under investigation in this study. Notably, three types of sexual harassment have over the years been identified as being in existence and these are firstly, gender harassment which involves forms of harassment such as offences, comments, inappropriate gestures, use of lewd teaching materials, unwelcome sexual attention which entails not only making efforts to establish an intimate relationship but also talking about sexual or intimate topics, invitation on a date and sexual coercion which is suggestive of a forced sexual encounter for reward or under threat coupled with unwelcome physical touching and physical assault (Vohlidalova, 2011).

In an article entitled *Gender Based Violence: A Study of Three Universities in Afghanistan*, it is argued that “*Gender Based Violence* which manifests in the form of sexual harassment is a pervasive problem in educational institutions and that it can have a devastating impact on those affected” (UNPD & UNESCO, 2010). The effects emanating from such violence are said to range “from absenteeism, severe mental and physical health issues, drop outs, and in the most cases can also result in suicide” (UNPD & UNESCO, 2010). Notably, it is argued that the prevalence of *Gender Based Violence* in the three premier academic institutions namely, Kabul University, Balk University and Herat University, which were investigated in the Afghanistan context, is deemed to be “due to the social and cultural prism through which this issue is viewed” (UNPD & UNESCO,

2010). It can then be inferred that viewing gender relations through the social and cultural prism “has serious implications for achieving gender equality in Afghanistan” (UNDP & UNESCO, 2010).

Notably, the literature on sexual harassment shows a consistent gendered order of society and organisations, patriarchal relations, power inequalities and gender socialisation (Vohlidalova, 2011). The Afghanistan context attests to the fact that sexual harassment, as a world phenomenon is characteristically a social construct. It is thus arguable that the prevalence of gender-based violence throughout Afghanistan derives from power inequalities and asymmetries in Afghan society. Notably, therefore, “the root causes of gender-based violence most often lie within the attitudes of a society towards practices of gender discrimination which, more often than not place women in a subordinate position in relation to men (UNDP & UNESCO, 2010). As noted by (UNDP & UNESCO, 2010), gender disparities in Afghanistan are also reflected in the education system (UNDP & UNESCO, 2010).

There is cynicism and lack of trust in the authorities that any action would be taken. There is a strong belief that the persons in positions of authority are under the influence of the socio-politically powerful, and hence are afraid to take any action (UNDP & UNESCO, 2010). In the study conducted by Vohlidalova (2011) it is argued that “although students do not label their experience of sexist and sexualised behaviour as sexual harassment, the analysis reveals certain factors which result in the labelling of certain behaviour as sexual harassment and that these factors relate more specifically to the violation of individual boundaries (Vohlidalova, 2011).

In order to clear uncertainty on the identity of the victims of sexual harassment it is to be noted from the onset that sexual harassment affects male and females indiscriminately. However, empirical studies highlight only female victims of sexual harassment. This is supported by MacKinnon, (1979); Smit and du Plessis, (2011) and Steenkamp, (2010) whose studies report that females are more likely to be sexually harassed than males. Unlike men, women are less tolerant of to sexual harassment than men and view gender harassment more seriously. Many people mistakenly believe that harassment is limited to females because many studies constantly report that females are the primary victims. For example, Leskinen, Cortina, and Kabat’s (2011) study

conducted in the United States established, discovered shocking levels of sexual harassment on women working in the military and the legal profession.

Several studies argue that the number of sexually harassed men is probably much higher than was previously thought. This is supported by Buchanan et al. (2012) study, which asserts that show that about 35% of military men experience some type of sexual harassment. There is a high probability for men not to report sexual harassment incidences due to fear of being subjected to a biased questioner, faulty measures, incompetent or feminist oriented researchers and a patriarchy system that does not consider males as victims. Most studies acknowledge that sexual harassment affects everyone but tends to ignore that fact. According to the researcher's knowledge, the only study in South Africa that acknowledges other victims of sexual harassment besides females is Smit and du Plessis's (2011). Their study reports that lesbian, gay, bisexual and trans-sexual are most likely to be targeted than heterosexual male students and female students. The present study intends to confirm that women are not the only ones affected by sexual harassment in university Campuses with specific reference to Howard College Campus, University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Thus, in dealing with the literature pertinent to the issue of students' attitudes towards sexual harassment at institutions of higher learning, it is worth noting that sexual harassment constitutes itself as one instance of gender-based violence meted out by one gender group to another group of a different gender. Such violence has serious implications for the attempts made towards achieving gender equality of all sexes in society.

Notably, the relationship between masculinity and sexual harassment in secondary schooling still stem from the perception that men, collectively, have power over women and that the very definitions of manhood maintain this notion (Smit & du Plessis, 2011). It is thus argued by Smit and du Plessis (2011) that sexual harassment at universities has been understood as the exercise of power by specific individuals and that it has been dealt with through insufficient policies and grievance procedures. It is against this background, therefore, that Smit and du Plessis (2011) assert that boys do not display fear of repercussion when challenging female authority and that the boys use sexual harassment of female teachers as a means to undermine the feminine and confirm their masculinity (Smit & du Plessis, 2011).

Most South African Universities started as all-male institutions and developed a culture on their respective campuses over time that undervalues and disrespects women, mirroring the power imbalance in society at large. Unless interventions persistently challenge this legacy of the past, masculine privilege will continue to be maintained covertly in apparently non-sexist ways, avoiding direct sexist discourse while safeguarding sex-based privilege. It is, therefore, crucial that universities devise creative strategies to raise critical consciousness regarding gender issues and to ensure that there is visible follow-up on transgressions in terms of any gender related issues (harassment, hate speech abuse etcetera). Universities need a clear understanding of the extent of sexual harassment [...] violence and assault on their campuses, and they must ensure that their community is kept informed of these statistics and of gendered issues more generally. If an institution aims to put an end to discriminatory practices, and draw attention to them, such transformation requires a process of ‘institutional mindfulness’ which entails paying careful attention to any sign of subtle discrimination that might affect equity (UNDP & UNESCO, 2010).

Arguably, “universities as institutions of higher learning play a major role in the process of establishing new social norms and reproducing old ones” given their being well positioned to “educate and socialise future professional and intellectual elites” and by so doing instil “in people norms and rules behaviour” as dictated to by society’s norms. Thus, it bears repeating that “the position they occupy in society makes them one of the key places where stereotypes are reproduced or, conversely, where stereotypical attitudes are changed (Vohlidalova, 2011).

A number of scholars such as Huerta et al, (2006); researching on this subject are in agreement that sexual harassment in higher education is an objectionable form of conduct which has negative effects on individuals and their mental well-being and self-confidence and which can adversely affect the study and professional paths of young people (Smit & du Plessis, 2011:2; Vohlidalova, 2011). It is further argued that “the severity of the impact of sexual harassment in higher education is amplified by the fact that formal education is a key factor in an individual’s professional and personal development and that this is even truer for women are said to face more difficult conditions for career advancement in the labour market when compared to men (Vohlidalova, 2011).

Notably, the *American Association of University Women* defines sexual harassment as a non-consensual and unwelcome sexual behaviour and has the potential of affecting the lives of the victims (American Association of University Women, 2013). Similarly, sexual harassment is unwanted behaviour which negatively impacts people's well-being and human dignity (Knapp et al, 1997). In an article entitled *The campus Sexual Assault (CSA) Study*, Krebs et al. (2007) argue that sexual assault is a public health and public safety problem with far-reaching implications and that being a victim of sexual assault is one of the most violating experiences anyone can endure as it can cause immediate as well as long-term physical and mental health consequences on the individual so violated. Likewise, in an article titled *Gender Based Violence: A Study of Three Universities in Afghanistan*, UNDP & UNESCO (2010) assert that "the strong gender stereotypes prevalent in Afghan society are detrimental to the physical and emotional well-being of Afghan women and girls".

It is worth noting that when discussing sexual harassment as an objectionable form of conduct, "expert definitions [...] do not overlap with how people label their experience" as "people do not call behaviour that they experience as unwanted, unpleasant, or sexist 'sexual harassment'" (Vohlidalova, 2011). In light of this, Kenny argues that "key to understanding sexual harassment is identifying whether the victim finds the behaviour as uninvited and disturbing". The rationale for doing so, as argued by Kenny, is that [...] "in any country which has an act on sexual harassment, the basis of the complaint would be uninvited behaviour". This is because sexual harassment is a phenomenon which is related to social-cultural, organisational and individual aspects (Vohlidalova, 2011).

It is notable that "with increasing recognition of sexual harassment as unacceptable behaviour in education and in the labour market, the definition of sexual harassment has been modified" and that [...] "there has been a shift from the notion of sexual harassment as a form of discrimination to a notion of sexual harassment as the violation of human dignity" (Vohlidalova, 2011). Sexual harassment is unwanted behaviour which negatively impacts people's well-being and human dignity (Vohlidalova, 2011).

Thus, it is argued that “sexual harassment is not a social fact in the Durkheimian sense of the word, something that exists independently of us as an objective reality” and that “like our social world [...] it “is a socially and culturally constructed phenomenon” whose [...] “social constructions and definitions have a real impact on people’s everyday lives”. This is said to be deriving from the fact that social constructions and definitions [...] “shape our worlds and our everyday realities” (Bhana & McKay, 2007; Bennett, 2002; Hoffman, 2002; Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997; Petersen et al.2005; Prinsloo, 2006; Steenkamp, 2010; Vohlidalova, 2011). As argued by Kenny (2011) sexual harassment is a phenomenon that is related to social-cultural, organisational and individual aspects. Hence, Kenny (2011) argues that in the study of sexual harassment comparisons across global societies are difficult given the differences in definition and perception of each society in the world. This derives from the fact that “our knowledge is always situated and is influenced by ideologies, values, experiences and material resources” (Vohlidalova, 2011). It is thus notable, therefore, that “the specific social and cultural context [...] plays an important role” (Roosmelan & McDaniel, 2008; Vohlidalova, 2011). It is against this background therefore that “the definitions and constructions developed by the students are created in a certain cultural and power context” (Gouws et al. 2007; Hoffman, 2002; Petersen et al.2005; Prinsloo, 2006; Steenkamp, 2010; Vohlidalova, 2011).

In an article entitled: *Study on Student’s Sexual Attitudes and Views on Sexual Harassment*, the sexual attitudes of local students were explored (Kenny (2011). The overall attitude of the victims of sexual harassment was found to be one of resignation. This view is corroborated by the fact that in the face of sexual harassment most of the students adopt passive means to address the issue themselves. Put differently, most of the students react passively by addressing the issue on their own. A typical reaction in this regard is choosing to tolerate or to leave the scene characterised as sexually harassing (Kenny, 2011). There are, however, notable exceptions to this trend in that some students brave themselves in expressing resentment against acts of sexual harassment. In general, though, the students opine that sexual harassment more often than not causes feelings of intimidation, repulsion, discomfort and anxiety in the victims (Kenny, 2011). It is notable though that there are exceptions to this in that some students do express resentment (Kenny, 2011).

In conducting research on *Cross-Cultural Reactions to Academic Sexual Harassment: Effects of Individualist vs Collectivist Culture and Gender of Participant*, the participation of male and female university students from the United States, Canada, Germany, the Netherlands, Ecuador, Pakistan, the Philippines, Taiwan and Turkey. This study investigated and compared attitudes toward sexual harassment across nine countries with widely varying geographic, political and cultural backgrounds. These countries were grouped into individualist and collectivist cultures and hypotheses about attitudes toward sexual harassment were tested on that basis (Signal, 2005). It was noted that the attitudes of the respondents from individualist countries in particular were limited to the dominant traditional culture of each country (Signal, 2005). There were notable variations in the reactions of the participants towards sexual harassment. Such variation was exemplified by the fact that the participants from individualist countries would demonstrate more hostility toward sexual harassment on a general attitude measure than would those from collectivist countries (Signal, 2005:204). This differing in the attitudes expressed is indicative of the fact that cross-cultural differences in reactions to academic sexual harassment derives from judging the cultural appropriateness of the individual's conduct by having it considered normal and acceptable (Signal, 2005).

In an article entitled: The perception and Construction of Sexual Harassment by Czech University Students, the study explored the perception and construction of sexual harassment by the local students. In this study it was established that although students do not label their experience of sexist and sexualised behaviour as sexual harassment, it transpired from the analysis of the researchers that certain factors [...] result in the labelling of certain behaviour as sexual harassment and as such constitute the violation of individual boundaries (Roosmelan & McDaniel, 2008; Smit & du Plessis, 2011; Vohlidalova, 2011). Thus, in the context of sexual harassment it is notable that masculine norms and notions of femininity and of how a woman should behave, and of how she reacts to men's comments, invitations for coffee, or unwanted compliments come into play and are constitutive of the resultant sexual harassment suffered by the victims (Bennett, 2012; Petersen et al.2005; Steenkamp, 2010; Vohlidalova, 2011). It is regrettable, as argue by Peterson,2011 that women [...]under the influence of masculine norms and masculine realities [...] have learnt not to

attribute significance to their own perceptions of situations and have a tendency to not consider their experience and experiences as ‘real’(Vohlidalova, 2011).

In general, Czech society is said to be not very gender sensitive and that there is also little sensitivity towards gender discrimination and this is exemplified by its (Czech society) tolerance of sexual harassment (Smit & du Plessis, 2011;Vohlidalova, 2011). For someone engaging in sexual harassment practices present itself as a social construct in that “*we learn to accept certain forms of behaviour as an inherent part of our femininity and masculinity [...]*” and that “*this may often lead to sexual harassment being invisible (Vohlidalova, 2011). It is against this background therefore that (UNDP & UNESCO,2010) contends that, if society at large endorses the values and goals of university education, such as meritocracy, equality in access, and the development of the talents and skills of all students, it is necessary to work towards creating a safe learning environment where power will not be abused and where discrimination will not occur, something to which higher education institutions are bound anyway by the Czech Education Act (No. 561/2004, paragraph 2). It is therefore necessary to create a safe space for students to stand up against behaviour which they consider unwanted and harassing, to foster an environment where such forms of behaviour could be labelled for what they are, publicly condemned and redressed (2010:1142).*

Thus, in an article entitled: *Sexual Harassment: Is it a Case of Gendered Perspective?* (2011), Kenny argues that the literature on sexual harassment shows a consistent pattern of gender differences, such that women perceive a broader spectrum of behaviours as sexual harassment than men do (Kennedy, 2011:298). This view is attested to by Rotundo et al. (2001) in their article entitled: *A Meta- Analytic Review of Gender Differences in Perceptions of Sexual Harassment (2001) in which it is argued that “women perceive a broader range of social-sexual behaviours as harassing” (2001:914).* This argument finds support in the view that “the reasonable woman standard relies on the assumption that men and women differ in their perceptions of which behaviours constitute sexual harassment (2001:915). Notably, “a substantial body of research has examined the extent to which men and women differ in their judgements of sexual harassment (2001:919). Hence, [...] it is not clear whether gender differences are innate or a product of

socialisation and a person's value system and that men and women may be socialised to perceive different social-sexual behaviours as appropriate or inappropriate (2001:920).

The Department of Special Education in a Study on Students' Sexual Attitudes and Views on Sexual Harassment (2013) made the following findings in a questionnaire survey:

- (a) When the students encounter sexual harassment, most of them indicate "Feeling angry", "Feeling afraid or scared" and "cannot relate well with others".
- (b) In general, the students opine that sexual harassment will cause feelings of intimidation, repulsion, discomfort and anxiety in the victims.
- (c) In the face of sexual harassment, most of the students adopt passive means to address the issue by themselves. For example, they will choose to tolerate or to leave.

It bears emphasising that "where sexual harassment occurs on campus, it has been shown to cause students to avoid certain places on campus, change their schedules, drop classes or activities or change their lives to avoid sexual harassment" (Smit & du Plessis: 2013). As evident in the study *Zero Tolerance: Experiences of, and attitudes to, sexual harassment at the University of York* (<http://www.yusu.org>), a significant number of such students are likely to "feel upset at how it (sexual harassment) had affected them and didn't necessarily know where to go next and what to do.". Most victims of sexual harassment do not report, some victims did not even tell friends or family about the incident (Roosmelan & McDaniel, 2008).

In trying to curb sexual harassment practices such as sexual assault to rape in the post-apartheid South Africa, the democratic government enacted various legislations aiming at dealing with gender based violence: Children's Act 38 of 2005; Code of Good Practice on the Handling of Sexual Harassment promulgated by Gen N 1357 in GG 27865 of 4 August 2005; Prevention of Family Violence Act 133 of 1993; Protected Disclosures Act 26 of 2000; South African Council for Educators Act 31 of 2000 and South African Schools Act 84 of 1996. Despite the various acts put in place to protect women and children against the gender based crime such as sexual harassment, incidences of gender based violence are still prevalent (Smit & du Plessis, 2011). The

failure to curb gender based violence does not mean that the laws put in place are ineffective or insufficient; it signals a need for the new act and behavioural modification.

Recently, the Protection from Harassment Act was passed in parliament to deal directly with sexual harassment. Unlike the previous act that only focuses on sexual harassment that occurs in the working environment and with several loopholes the Protection from Harassment Act provides that anyone who alleges that he/she is harassed by another person can apply for a protection order or apply on behalf of another person. Failure to comply with the final protection order is a criminal offence and the person may be liable on conviction to a fine or imprisonment for a period not exceeding five years.

Sexual harassment often begins in lower primary schools and gets extended to high schools where female learners are victimized by fellow male learners and male teachers. Later, it escalates to tertiary institutions, whereby female students are sexually harassed by male lecturers, who demanded sexual favours in exchange for marks, favours, and material things (Roosmelan & McDaniel, 2008; Smit & du Plessis, 2011). The majority of South Africa's 23 Higher education institutions, as well as other private higher education institutions such as Damelin, Midrand Graduate Institute, Monash South Africa have also established policies and awareness on sexual harassment. However, empirical studies suggest that sexual harassment is still elusive at work, schools and higher education institutions, although there are laws and policies that are in place to prevent sexual harassment (Bennett, 2002; Prinsloo, 2006; Steenkamp, 2010).

Notably, sexual harassment in South African universities is a major problem (Bhana & McKay, 2007; Bennett, 2002; Bennett et al., 2003; Bennett et al., 2012; Daniels, 2002; Gouws et al., 2007; Hoffman, 2002; Ramphela, Molteno, Simons & Sutherland, 1991; Naidoo & Rajab, 1992; Nene, 2010; Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997; Petersen et al., 2005; Prinsloo, 2006; Steenkamp, 2010). For example in 2011, a protest erupted at the University of KwaZulu-Natal after a female student was raped at the University Montclair residence. At the same campus, in 2012, a medical student was raped and murdered at her university residence. Recently, in 2013, at the University of Witwatersrand, three lecturers were suspended by the University after they were found guilty on counts of sexual harassment (Mercury, 1st edition, 2013, 28 May, p4). The above sexual

harassment incidences paint a tepid picture that female students on daily basis are likely to experience sexual violence in South African Universities. It is in this context that all Universities in South Africa have designed and implemented sexual harassment policies and procedures. Moreover, Universities must promote a culture and values which foster gender sensitiveness and gender equality.

In South Africa every six hours a woman is killed and this is the highest rate yet reported by research anywhere in the world (Mathews et al, 2004). In 1999, approximately half of all South African women killed; were murdered by their intimate partners. This form of gender based violence translates into a prevalence of sexual harassment (Hirschowitz, Worku & Orkin, 2000). Although there are many types of gender based violence (women abuse, sexual assault, rape and sexual harassment), the primary focus of this study is on sexual harassment which is a problem that affects millions of women worldwide. Universities are also not immune to gender based violence, hence this investigation will focus on sexual harassment amongst students at the University of KwaZulu-Natal residences.

Despite the fact that in South African law, sexual harassment is viewed as an *iniuriandi* which is an infringement of an individual's personality and a form of unfair discrimination. For example, any person found guilty of sexual harassment offence could be charged with criminal offence. In light of the above, sexual harassment is categorized as an unwelcome sexual advance, requests for sexual favours and verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. The European Commission (1991:16) further contextualized sexual harassment as “unwanted conduct of a sexual nature affecting the dignity of men and women at work”. It also includes unwelcome physical, verbal and non-verbal conduct. Having operationally defined the concept of sexual harassment, it is therefore imperative to provide a snapshot of various scholarly works on the discourse.

Various studies have indicated that sexual harassment against females is a major problem at every age across the life span because women are consistently likely to be targets of sexual crimes than males (MacKinnon, 1979 & and (Shepela and Levesque, 1998)). Contrary to popular belief, the majority of sexual harassment is not committed by strangers, but rather by a person who is known to a victim e.g. a relative, a friend or other trusted person (Smit & du Plessis, 2011). Kelly (2006)

opined that sexual harassment is a serious problem in societies across the world. Robertson, (1998) took it further to highlight that the majority of women have the fear of being targets of rape, sexual abused and sexual harassment by males. In this day in age, the prevalence of sexual harassment at the workplace of employment and academic settings pose a clear threat to women well-being and is an indication that women are not protected against sexual harassment. This is reflected when victims of sexual harassment do not report the incident because they do not have faith on the current justice system. Despite the fact that in South Africa there are various acts¹ in place to protects women and children against the gender based crime such as sexual harassment but seemingly they are either ineffective or insufficient (Smit & du Plessis, 2011), gender based violence is still prevalent.

Research conducted in America in 1988 showed that approximately two thirds of all university students experience some form of sexual harassment during their tuition and that female learners are primarily the victims (Cortina, Swan, Fitzgerald & Waldo, 1998). In South Africa thirty per cent of girls are raped in schools and male learners and educators are the main culprits (Smith & Du Plessis, 2011). After finishing high school, the majority of female learners further their studies in Universities across the country, where they also experienced gender based crimes such as sexual harassment. Sexual harassment in South African universities is a major problem (Bhana & McKay, 2007; Bennett, 2002; Bennett et al., 2003; Bennett et al., 2012; Daniels, 2002; Gouws at al.,2007; Hoffman, 2002; Ramphela, Molteno, Simons & Sutherland, 1991; Naidoo & Rajab, 1992; Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997; Petersen et al.2005; Prinsloo, 2006; Steenkamp, 2010). At the later stage a forth lecture was also suspended for sexual harassment conduct against female students

¹The Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act, The Employment Equity Act and the Promotion of Equality and Prevention of Unfair Discrimination Act, The Labour Relations Act, and Prevention of Family Violence Act.

(City Press, 1 November 2013). The above sexual harassment incidences paint a tepid that female students on occasionally basis experience sexual violence in South African Universities.

There are different types of sexual harassment of sexual harassment that affect female students in the university campus, ranging from gender harassment to quid pro quo. In the United States, Till (1980), conducted the study using data from a national sample of female university students. After analysing responses of female university students, he came up with five types of sexual harassment, namely: (a) gender harassment, (b) seductive behaviour, (c) sexual bribery, (d) sexual coercion: (e) sexual imposition or assault. Sexual harassment affects all women, regardless of whether they are personally victims or had witness sexual harassment. Sexual harassment is connected to a variety of behavioural, psychological and physical problems. Roosmalen & McDaniel, (2008) mentioned that females with a history of sexual harassment later developed psychological problems such as stress, somatization, depression, substance abuse, and post-traumatic stress disorder. The behavioural disorders that are normally displayed by the victims of sexual harassment: include poor concentration, restlessness, usual crying, agitation, excessive alertness. The physical symptoms of sexual harassment victim may include fatigue, tension headaches, and eating disturbances and sleep disturbances ((Shepela and Levesque, 1998)). Academic performance may also affected by sexual harassment. Kelly (2006) and Mayekiso and Bhana (1997) studies on female students reported that victims of sexual harassment reported a decrease in academic performance level after the incident. Some students avoided lectures for few days to a month/s and others deregistered certain modules or change the university.

Sexual harassment seems to be prevalent amongst students in campus residents Mayekiso and Bhana (1997); Naidoo & Rajab, 1992) but there are insufficient studies on this topic. Instead, most studies on sexual harassment focus on cases committed by lectures, and ignored sexual harassment cases committed by students (Schneider, 1987). Although sexual harassment seems to be prevalent amongst students on campus in South Africa, there are insufficient studies on sexual harassment amongst students on campus residence (Gouws at al.,2007; Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997; Naidoo & Rajab, 1992; Steenkamp, 2010). The high numbers of studies on sexual harassment were conducted in North America and Europe (Dall'Ara Maass, 1999). On the other hand most studies

on sexual harassment are conducted by Feminists who want to settle their scores against male dominated institutions or certain male lectures. Most studies that were conducted by feminist researchers suggest that sexual harassment is a tool to teach women a lesson (see; Robertson, Dyer & Campbell, 2000; Roosmalen & McDaniel, 2008; Oemerold, Collinsworth, Perry, 2008; Sadkar & Sadkar, 1986). That might be not the case because human behaviour is determined by factors within individual personality (Freud) or determined by environmental factors (Skinner). In contrast to feminist perspective on sexual harassment, this study may yield different result because the researcher happens to be a male researcher, who will look at the matter objectively and unbiased.

Further evidence confirmed the severity and scope of the issue through a comparative study that was conducted by researchers between Stellenbosch University, the University of the Western Cape and the University of Botswana that aimed to discover how sexual harassment was unique from campus to campus. It was discovered that all three institutions experienced similar problems of sexual harassment (Gouws at al.,2007). The rationale for undertaking this project is informed by the reality that negative attitude towards female students in South African Universities appears to be on the rise. This negative attitude leads to sexual harassment of female students by male students, lectures and administrators. Hence this study will analyse the attitude towards sexual harassment at the university level between students. The primary focus of the study will be on three Howard College residences. This study is informed by the ever growing number of cases of sexual harassment on South African Universities and the fact that most studies identified sexual harassment as one of the major damaging barriers to career success and women wellbeing (Lawson, Wright, Fitzgerald (2013).

Due to the extensive nature of sexual violence that is invading the present day South African society, the social relevance of this study of the attitude towards sexual harassment among university students cannot be overestimated. This is evident if one considers the recent increasing number of research studies on sexual harassment undertaken in the well-developed countries. South Africa, the African continent is not immune to sexual harassment because it affects everyone indiscriminately. The vast number of studies conducted indicated the gross presence of sexual harassment on campuses of higher education that is ranging from unwanted flattery to rape (Bhana

& McKay; Bennett, 2002; Bennett et al., 2003; Bennett et al., 2012; Daniels, 2002; Gouws, 2010; Hoffman, 2002; Naidoo & Rajab, 1992; Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997; Petersen et al.2005; Prinsloo, 2006; Ramphele, Molteno, Simons & Sutherland, 1991; Steenkamp, 2010). However, the effect of gender role on attitudes to sexual harassment has received less attention (Foulis & McCabe, 1997).

An attitude is an expression of favour or disfavour toward a person, place, thing, or event. An individual attitude is determined by varieties of external factors (society, cultural, organization, gender, pressure) and factors within an individual (personality, self-esteem, moral, behaviour). Malovich and Stoke (1990) study showed that gender roles between male and females determine attitudes towards SH. Their study revealed that females and males attitudes and reaction towards sexual harassment is not the same. In contrast to men, women tend to have negative attitudes towards SH. Studies pointed out that women are affected, regardless of whether they are personally victims or witnesses ((Smit & du Plessis, 2011). This was supported by incidence studies that note that females use broader definition of sexual harassment and are less tolerant to it when compared to males. Often, women don't tolerate sexual harassment as they view it as the major problem that only affects them at every age across the life span. Robertson, (1998) took it further and highlighted that the majority of women have the fear of being targets of rape, sexual abused and sexual harassment by males.

The patriarchal system tolerates sexual harassment as it regarded SH as the problem that only affects women. This view has resulted to male tolerating behaviours that constitute sexual harassment and tend to blame the victim by suggesting that the victim contributed to their harassment by not handling the advances made by men towards them (Hirschowitz, Worku & Orkin, 2000). However, one must note that not all men hold this negative attitude towards women and sexual harassment victims. Until of recently, males attitudes towards sexual harassment are steadily changing. According to U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) reports that "sexual harassments filings by men have consistently increased, doubling over the past 15 years." This study intends to investigate the impact of gender roles in attitude towards SH by comparing the attitude of both female students and male students.

Sexual harassment is a sensitive issue and is underreported, especially by male students for known and unknown reason. Although, many studies on SH reported that female victims outnumbered male's victims. However, new studies need to be conducted with standardized measures to confirm the previous research findings for validity. The male victim viewpoint and motives of not reporting is understudied or misunderstood. It is evident when researchers on sexual harassment less consider the importance of studying male victims of sexual harassment. For example, Bennett, 2012; Smit and du Plessis, (2011) and Steenkamp (2010) findings are biased towards against male victims.

The above study's findings revealed women voices were silenced, lack of knowledge regarding how to report, fear of not being believed or accused of provocation, ineffective disciplinary hearing, and most victims did not trust the system and try to avoid second traumatisation. All of the above discourages the victims to come forward and report the crime. However, these studies fail to address the issue of why and what cause the male victims not to report. These studies also fail to address the issue of not reporting when the above is addressed. Bennett et al.,2012, Heath (2001); Smit and du Plessis (2011) and Steenkamp (2010) studies paid more attention to female victims and male victims were ignored. Prinsloo, (2006) and Steenkamp (2010) studies reported that most victims' prefer the rehabilitative route and reporting to a friend, sister, parents or relatives. Studies have found that victims who perceive the sexual harassment to be more severe are likely to report their victimisation experiences to an authority figure. Taking that into consideration the present study finding will educate student that sexual harassment is both serious and illegal, and need to be reported.

Sexual harassment affects both men and women, but women are affected regardless of whether they are personally victims or had witness sexual harassment. Sexual harassment is connected to a variety of behavioural, psychological and physical problems. Roosmalen & McDaniel, 2008) mentioned that females with a history of sexual harassment immediately or later developed psychological problems such as stress, somatization, depression, substance abuse, and post-traumatic stress disorder. The behavioural disorders that is normally associated with victims of sexual harassment: include poor concentration, restlessness, usual crying, agitation, excessive

alertness. The physical symptoms that are normally displayed by the victims of sexual harassment may include fatigue, tension headaches, eating disturbances and sleep disturbances ((Shepela and Levesque, 1998)). Kelly (2006) and Mayekiso & Bhana (1997) studies on female students reported that victims of sexual harassment reported a decrease in academic performance level after the incident. Some students avoided lectures for few days to a month/s and others deregistered certain modules or change the university. It is in this context that this study seeks to evaluate the attitudes of students towards sexual harassment at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus.

The scopes of behaviours that constitute sexual harassment are vast and range on a continuum from offensive gestures to rape. The results indicated that the majority of women experiences sexual harassment characterized by unwanted sexual advances. Early studies and recent ones further show that sexual harassment is prevalent in most countries at the military, police service and universities². Several studies further revealed that besides the widespread of sexual harassment, there is a difference in gender attitudes towards sexual harassment. Shapela (1998) study suggested that “women and men have different attitudes towards sexual harassment”. The findings were replicated by Busik (1992) study that supported that male and females have different attitude towards sexual harassment. In contrast to male attitudes, empirical studies reveal that women are less tolerant to sexual harassment but surprisingly the majority of victims do not report the crime to proper channels.

Furthermore, studies have revealed that there are number of factors that lead to victims of sexual harassment to file or not to file reports to proper channels. According to Bennett, (2011); Heath, (2001); MacKinnon, (1979); Smit and du Plessis, (2011); Steenkamp, (2010) these factors are: fear

²Empirical studies conducted in different countries across the world on gender attitude towards sexual harassment have shown that male and female shares different attitude towards sexual harassment. In addition, most research revealed that men view female victims of sexual harassment as the one who are responsible for their victimization. On the other hand women turn to blame themselves: responsibility for the crime- as if she invited it.

of retaliation; severity of the act; the improper procedures of reporting; unsympathetic attitude of individuals who deal with it; women voices are silenced; lack of knowledge regarding how to report; inconsiderate policies; fear of not being believed; most institutions do not encourage reporting; fear of being accused of provocation; biased and unfair ways; ineffective disciplinary hearing; and most victims did not trust the system and try to avoid second victimisation. All of the above discourages the victims to come forward and report the crime. In contrast, Prinsloo, (2006) study discovered that most victims prefer the rehabilitative route to sexual harassment and or reporting to a friend, sister, parents or relatives. Notwithstanding the above, this study seeks to evaluate the attitudes of students towards sexual harassment at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus.

2.4 Conclusion

In this chapter the focus fell on the overview was given of objectification theoretical model. Literature review and overview was given of the definition and concept description of sexual harassment. The categories of sexual harassment were outlined as well as the types of sexual harassment, the extent of sexual harassment on university campuses, the responses to sexual harassment, the effects of sexual harassment, the risk factors for sexual harassment, factors influencing perceptions of sexual harassment, gender differences in sexual harassment, men as targets of sexual harassment, university residences as focal points for sexual harassment, same sex sexual harassment, and lastly, an overview was given of previous research on sexual harassment. In the next chapter we turn our attention to a methodology of this study.

Chapter Three

Research Methodology

3.1 Introduction

This chapter deals with the research design, the identification of participants, the measurement instruments used, the research procedure, and finally the data analysis and ethical considerations.

3.2 Research Design

In order to reach the objective of this research study, a quantitative search design was used. The specific design that was utilised was cross-sectional in nature. A cross-sectional design typically consists of different subjects, who are examined in terms of more than one variable at approximately the same point in time (Shaughnessy & Zechmeister, 2012). The research aims were to investigate the perceptions and attitudes of university students and also explore the prevalence, and the nature of sexual harassment from the sample, thus according to Creswell (2014) a cross sectional design was appropriate for this research due to the fact that this type of design is ideally suited for descriptive functions.

3.3 Research Methodology

The study will use quantitative research methodology that employs strategies of inquiry such as experiments and surveys and collects data on predetermined instruments that yield statistical data. The findings from quantitative research can be predictive, explanatory, and confirming. Fripp et al., (2010) states that quantitative research involves the collection of data so that information can be quantified and subjected to statistical treatment in order to support or refute alternate knowledge claims. Quantitative research techniques are used to gather data/information from different reliable sources. The data is presented as numbers, statistics, charts, and graphs. Quantitative is used to quantify attitudes, opinions, behaviours, and other defined variables and generalise results to a larger sample population. Quantitative research uses measurable data to formulate facts and

uncover patterns in research. In agreement, Yin (1994) says that quantitative methodology emphasises the objective measurement of a phenomenon using statistical, mathematical or numerical analysis of data generated through questionnaires. Quantitative methodology is suitable for determining relationships between independent variables and dependent or outcome variables within the target population (Du and Kamakura, 2012). Using quantitative methodology, a study is able to collect data to assess relationships, and it is suitable for ascertaining causality among variables (Morgan et al., 2005). This study therefore used quantitative research methodology to conduct a statistical analysis, to organise and interpret data, and to ascertain the factors that determine students' attitudes towards sexual harassment at UKZN.

3.3 Study Setting

The study was conducted at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Durban, South Africa. The University of KwaZulu-Natal (UKZN) comprises five campuses namely: Edgewood, Howard College, Medical School, Pietermaritzburg and Westville campus. Each campus is differently constituted in terms of its geographical, institutional and political location and the demographics of its student population. In light of this, Howard College Campus was chosen as a representative campus. As it has 22 residences: 12 owned by UKZN & 10 leased. The choice of Howard College Campus for purposes of researching the issues in question has been informed by the high incidences of sexual harassment cases were lodged by students in the past 5 years (UKZN Risk Management Report). These residences are stratified across Manor Gardens which is located 1km away from the campus.

3.4 Sampling Framework

The study population was the students at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College Campus. The sample size consisted of 151 students who were selected from the halls of residence using three (3) random sampling technique based on the type of residence, the number of rooms and the number of students in each hall of residence. Three halls of residence were randomly selected from the total number of halls, and the number of participants to be recruited for each sex was determined by the number of students in each of the 3 selected halls of residence. Simple

balloting procedure was used to select a participant if there were more than one student in the room at the time of visit by the researcher. This sampling approach was chosen as it will allow each participant the chance of been selected to participate in the study.

3.5 Data Collection Instruments

According to Greene et al. (2002), questionnaires are most suitable for a quantitative study and, as a result, the researcher in the study decided to use a questionnaire. A questionnaire is a quantitative research instrument made up of a series of questions and sometimes other prompts to effectively collect the information needed from respondents. The questionnaire was chosen largely because it is practical; it deals with large tracts of information; and data can be collected within a short period of time. A questionnaire can be administered by anyone. It can be analysed scientifically and objectively, and the results can be compared with and contrasted to other results. Lastly, the results of a questionnaire can be used to create a model, theory or conceptual framework. All of these advantages are important characteristics of the study. The questionnaire was also used because respondents were able to remain anonymous and could complete the questionnaire without fear of identification. Patten and Newhart (2017) said that a questionnaire is a good method for data collection because it has a standard format for all subjects and is independent of the respondent's mood. The questionnaire consisted of the following four sections:

Demographic Characteristics: Demographic information that was collected from participants included their gender, age, race, type of secondary school attended prior to entering into university, first language spoken, year of study, type of degree enrolled for in the university and sexual orientation.

Attitudes towards Sexual Harassment: The Sexual Harassment Questionnaire, (Appendix A) (Stake & Malovich, 1990) was used to measure attitudes towards sexual harassment in this study. This measure assesses the psychological factors associated with sexual harassment in educational settings. The questionnaire measures respondents' attitudes regarding (a) responsibility for harassment behaviours, (b) appropriate responses to sexual harassment, and (c) effects of sexual harassment on victims. Respondents first read two scenarios that depict clear-cut incidents of

sexual harassment in a college setting. After each scenario, they indicate to whom they attribute responsibility for the incident. Two questions pertain to victim blame, two to perpetrator blame, and two to no blame. A second set of six questions taps respondents' attitudes about appropriate responses to sexual harassment. Two questions refer to confronting the harassing behaviour, two to complying with the harasser, and two to ignoring the harassment. Finally, a set of eight questions measures expectations of the effects of the harassment. Two questions refer to educational effects and six to emotional effects. All questions have 6-point Likert-type scales except for the questions regarding emotional effects, which have 7-point Likert-type scales.

Experiences of Sexual Harassment: Experiences of sexual harassment was measured using 5 different set of questions. These include whether a participant had ever experienced sexual harassment (yes =1; No =0), the frequency of sexual harassment (once = 1; 2-5 times = 2; 6-9 times = 3; 10 times or more =4), who the perpetrator was (that is whether it is a lecturer, male friend, female friend, class and or course mate or others, an where the sexual actually took place (whether in the classroom, hall of residence, somewhere around campus other places). Participants in this study were asked 16 set of questions to indicate which type of sexual harassment cases have they experiences ad students in the university. Participants were informed to select as many options that may apply to them. Some of the questions asked included “sexual looks that made you feel uncomfortable”, “asking you for a sexual relationship”, and “exposing some of his/her body to you”

3.6 Validity and Reliability

As the instrument was designed specifically to assess the attitudes of individuals towards sexual harassment the instrument was ideally suited for the purposes of the proposed study. A pilot study on twenty students who resides at Anglo Hall residence was conducted to ensure the reliability of the proposed research instrument as it was originally developed in a different setting. After the pilot study, minor mistakes such as language and phraseology of the statements were corrected.

3.7 Data Collection Procedures

The researcher applied for permission from the gate keepers (University of KwaZulu-Natal) to conduct this study by drafting a letter, explaining the research objectives (Appendix 2). Once permission was granted, student's residence administration was contacted by the researcher to facilitate the process of distribution and collecting the survey from students, with this primary relation established between residence administrators and the researcher, data collection process was more effective and efficient with less confusion for all participants involved. Each student was told about the aim of the research and given a letter describing what is required of them, after which they were asked if they were willing to participate. Those students, who agreed to participate, were required to sign consent form (see Appendix 3). The participants were then asked to complete self-administered questionnaire consisting of socio-demographic characteristics (gender, age, race, and years of study) and questions from on sexual harassment issues within an educational setting. Participants were then given the questionnaire for them to answer the questions. Administration of the questionnaire to each participant was expected to last for 60 minutes, and data collection was completed in 60 days.

3.8 Data Analysis

Data was entered into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 23.0 for data analysis and later transferred to Microsoft Excel 2013 spread sheet for graph and tables construction. Standard descriptive statistics were used to describe some of the findings. Specifically, descriptive statistics were used to determine the nature and the extent of sexual harassment on Howard College campus of UKZN. Also an independent t-test was used to examine the difference between male and female on attitudes towards sexual harassment, with particular reference to the six sub-scales namely (victim blame, perpetrator blame, no blame, complain, ignore and confront). The One-Way Between groups ANOVA was used to determine whether there were any differences between the 4 categories of schools attended prior to university and attitudes towards sexual harassment with reference to each of the 6 sub-scales. Finally, the Pearson product moment correlation coefficient was used to examine the relationship between the

6 sub-scales of attitudes towards sexual harassment. All statistical tests were performed using two-tailed, and a $p < 0.05$ would be considered significant.

3.9 Conclusion

The chapter explained the study design employed in this study, research design followed the study setting, and the sampling strategy followed by the researcher in conducting the research, and the methodology in selecting the participants for participation in the study. The research procedure overview was given, and was followed by an explanation of the research instruments applied by the researcher and the aspects of validity and reliability. In this chapter, attention was also given to the ethics that confronted the researcher as well as the procedures applied to analyse the data collected throughout the research.

Chapter Four

Data Analysis

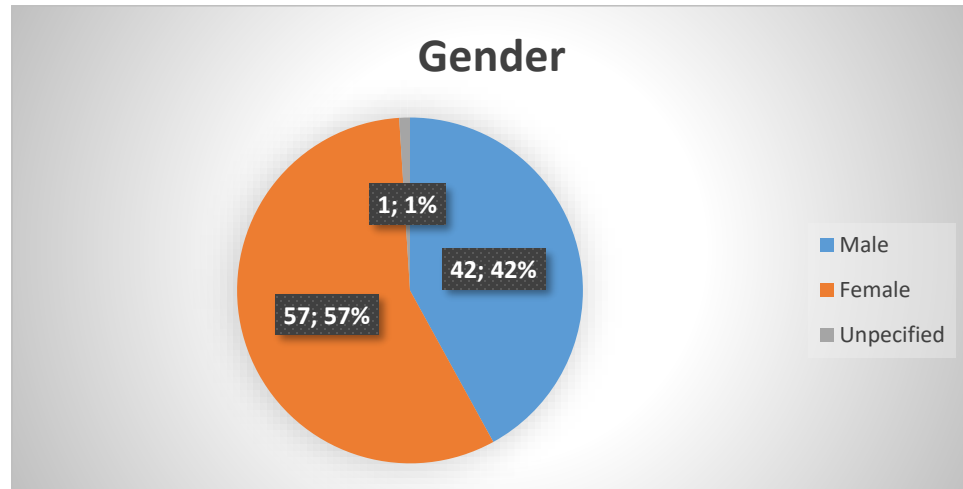
4.1 Introduction

As indicated in the previous chapters, this study sought firstly, to explore students' perceptions and attitudes towards sexual harassment within a university setting and secondly, to compare and contrast the male and female students' attitudes towards sexual harassment. In this chapter, therefore, in presenting and analysing the data collected from the sampled population of the students at the Howard College Campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal, South Africa, descriptive statistics were employed before employing inferential statistics in the next chapter, which focuses on the implications of the study. By using descriptive statistics, we sought to summarise the information from the data with the view of detecting notable patterns and tendencies.

The descriptive results focus on the demographic characteristics, experiences of sexual harassment and attitudes towards sexual harassment, as well as the relationships among the sub-scales of attitudes towards sexual harassment. Descriptive statistics are used to describe the nature of the data as well as the extent of the prevalence of sexual harassment. An Independent test and one-way ANOVA were used to examine the differences among demographic variables (gender, previous school attended) with respect to the six subscales of attitudes toward sexual harassment. The Pearson product-moment correlation co-efficient was used to examine the relationships among the six subscales of sexual harassment. Furthermore, the cross-tabulation of responses was also undertaken to gain intensive insights into student's perception of the phenomenon under investigation.

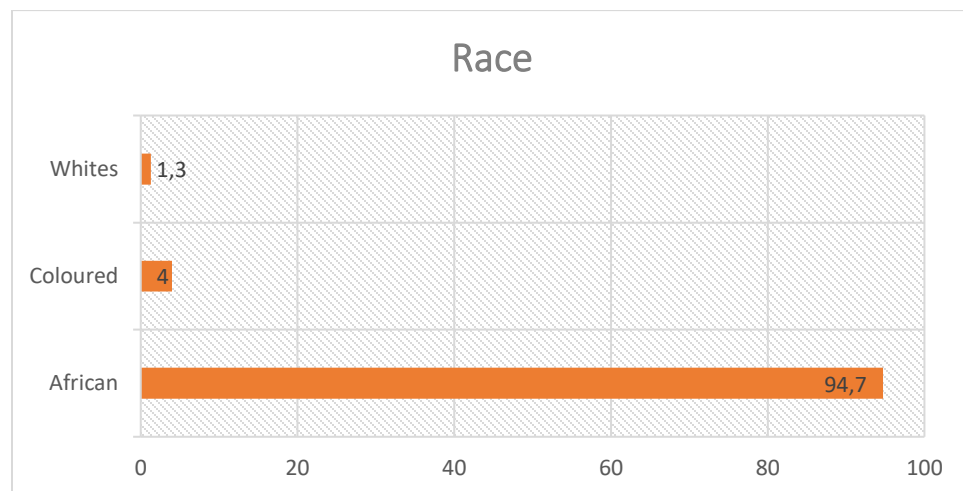
4.2 Demographic Characteristics of the Sample

Figure 1: Gender of the Respondents



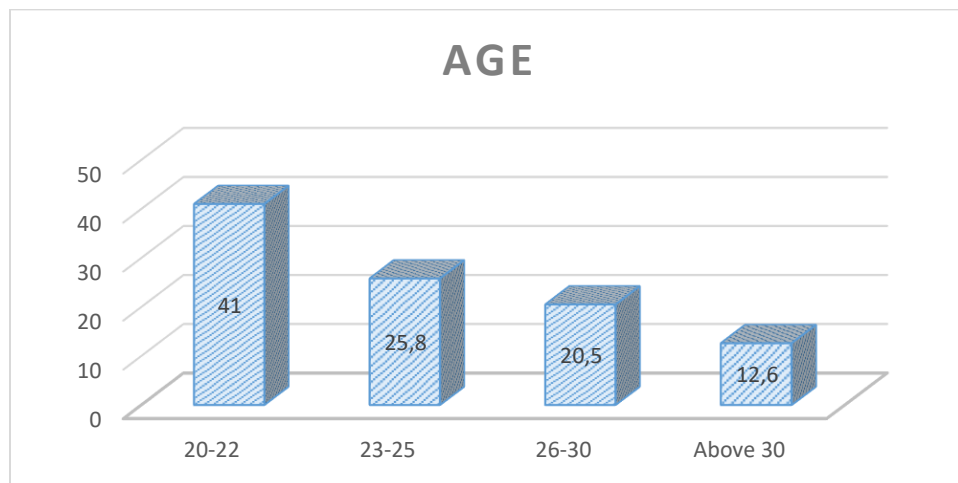
In terms of the demographic characteristics of the sample, 63 (42%) of the respondents were male 84 (57%) of the respondents were female and unspecified 4 (1%).

Figure 2: Race of the Respondents



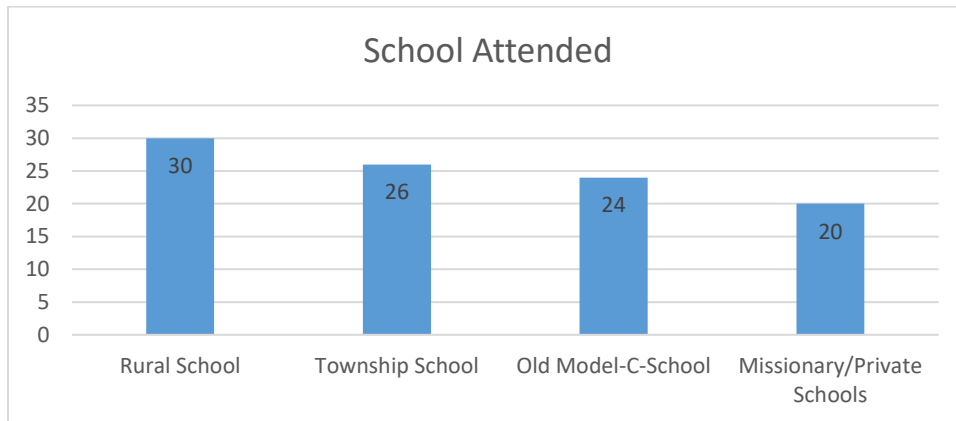
The race distribution of the respondents (Figure 2) revealed that the majority totalling 143 (95%) were Black South Africans, while the Coloured respondents totalled 6 (4%) and the White respondents were in the minority with only 2 (1%). The striking feature of the race distribution of the respondents revealed that Indian students at UKZN prefer to stay at home and be transported on a daily basis to the campus by their parents.

Figure 3: Age of Respondents



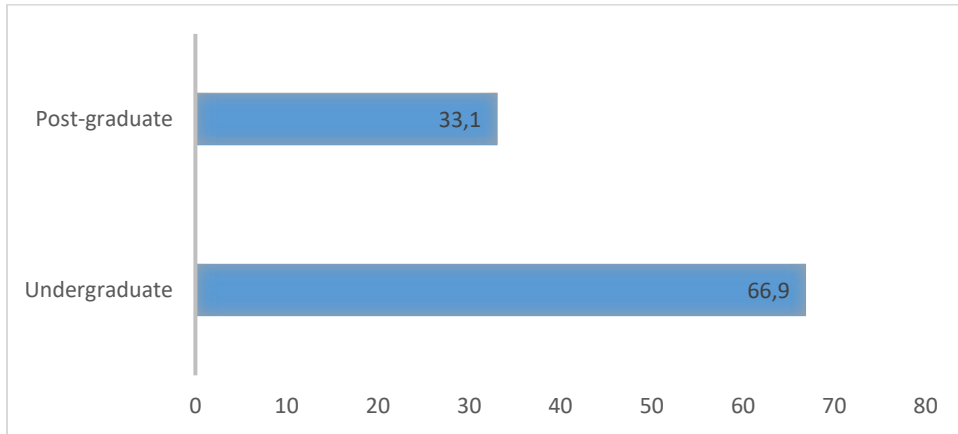
The age distribution of the respondents (Figure 3) revealed that the age distribution 20 to 22 totalled 62 (41%), 23 to 25 totalled 39 (25.8 %), ages 26 to 30 age totalled 31 (20.5 %), and 31 and above totalled 19 (12.6 %) of the sample.

Figure 4: School attended



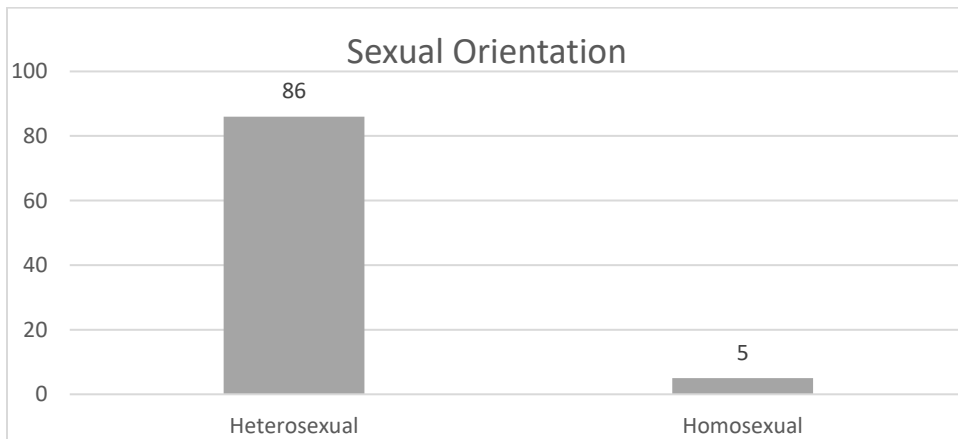
There is wide-held notion that the upbringing of a child, especially the school that he/she attended has a significant bearing on sexual orientation and lifestyle because of the cultural values instilled in schools as well as the gender roles children are exposed to (Van Jaarsveld et al. (2007). For example, studies conducted in many countries have revealed that learners who attended boarding schools tend to behave differently in terms of their sexual orientation. This is because of socialisation in particular the way in which they are brought up to see themselves and others this strongly influences their sexual behaviour. Power games in particular social and political changes are changing power relationships, moral values, divorce and cultural differences specifically moral laxity influence learners' sexual behaviour (Tharp et al., 2013). In this study, the school that the learners attended prior to coming to the University was used to compare and understand the attitudes held towards sexual harassment. A total of 45 (30%) of the participants attended rural schools, 39 (26%) went to township schools, 36 (24) attended former model-C schools, while the 31 (20) attended missionary/private schools (Figure 4). Based on the above, one would expect a degree of varying responses linked to rural and urban schooling as the schooling history has some bearings on perceptions on sexual harassment.

Figure 5: Level of Education



A majority of the participants were undergraduate students 66.9%, whilst, the remaining 33.1% being postgraduate students (Figure 5). The researcher was able to tap into students who have resided in residences over a number of years. These types of students had in-depth knowledge of resident life and were thus able to provide sufficient information and insights on the discourse under investigation.

Figure 6: Sexual Orientation



Among the participants in the study, 86% were heterosexual, homosexual (5%) and the remaining 9% did not specify their gender orientation. The combination of both heterosexuals and homosexuals in this study gave a researcher an opportunity to study attitudes of both groupings in relation sexual harassment. This is important, as there has been an observable increase of sexual harassment incidents towards homosexuals in South Africa over the past few years (Jewkes et al., 2012).

4.3 Experiences of Sexual Harassment

Students' experiences of sexual harassment was one of the core objectives of this study. With respect to the prevalence of sexual harassment, 42.9% of the participants had experienced some form of sexual harassment, and the remaining 57.1% had not experienced any form of harassment. The majority of the perpetrators were male friends 17 (25.8%) and 9 (13.6%) of the perpetrators were female friends. Unwanted sexual behavior by peers primarily occurs in residences, classrooms, corridors, campus, and other public places. When asked where the sexual harassment took place, many students 72 (26.4%), reported having received offensive sexual looks and attention that made them feel uncomfortable around campus while 18 (8.4%) indicated that it occurred in the residences and 26 (12.9%) indicated that it happened at other places such as library and restaurants. Only 4 (0.6%) indicated that sexual harassment took place in the classroom. The above result shows that the majority of perpetrators were males, and that sexual harassment shows no boundaries and could occur at anywhere.

Table 1: The types of sexual harassments experienced by university students

Variables	N	%
1 Sexual looks that made you feel uncomfortable	40	25.8
2 Offensive sexual remarks	32	20.6
3 Comments on your attractiveness in public	33	21.3
4 Asking you for sexual relationship	21	13.5
5 Given sexual attention that you did not want	24	15.5
6 Sexually offensive gestures towards you	19	12.3
7 Pressure on you to go out with him	16	10.3
8 Touches or grabs that was sexually offensive	22	14.2
9 Engagement in sexual conversation all the time	15	9.7
10 Attempted to kiss you or forced you to kiss	17	11.0
11 Spreading sexual rumours about you	14	9.0
12 Displaying offensive pornographic materials	7	4.5
13 Writing sexual messages about you	5	3.9
14 Exposing parts of the body to you	6	3.9
15 Calling you names: lesbian, prostitute, tomboy	4	2.6
16 Attempted rape	7	4.5

The results of specific sexual harassment experienced by participants are presented in Table 1. The results as presented in Table 1 revealed that sexual looks 40 (25.8%) that made students feel uncomfortable followed by comments on their attractiveness in public 33 (21.3%), and receiving offensive sexual remarks which are offensive in nature 32 (20.6%) were the most experienced forms of sexual harassments on campuses. This finding is in agreement with Jewkes et al., 2002 and Mutinta (2015)'s study that reported that unwarranted sexual behaviour experienced by students in South African universities were non-physical in nature such as sexual looks that made students feel uncomfortable and offensive sexual remarks.

The table 1 shows that sexual harassment involving someone attempting to forcibly kiss another person to be at (11.0%), and pressuring the potential victim to go out with him or her to be 16 (10.3%). This was further followed by sexual harassment that include the engagement in sexual conversation all the time at 15 (9.7%), and spreading sexual ramous 14 (9.0%). However, seven (4.5%) indicated that both displaying offensive pornographic materials and attempted rape had also occurred. Additionally both variables involving writing sexual messages about someone and exposing one's body parts had the sample prevalence of 6 (3.9%). Furthermore, a minority of the participants indicated that they have experiences the type of sexual harassment that involve someone calling you names: lesbian, prostitute, tomboy 5 (2.6%). Deducing from the findings above, the study is justifiable to argue that physical sexual overtures such as forcibly kissing or grabbing the victim were the less employed sexual harassment practices than verbal interactions.

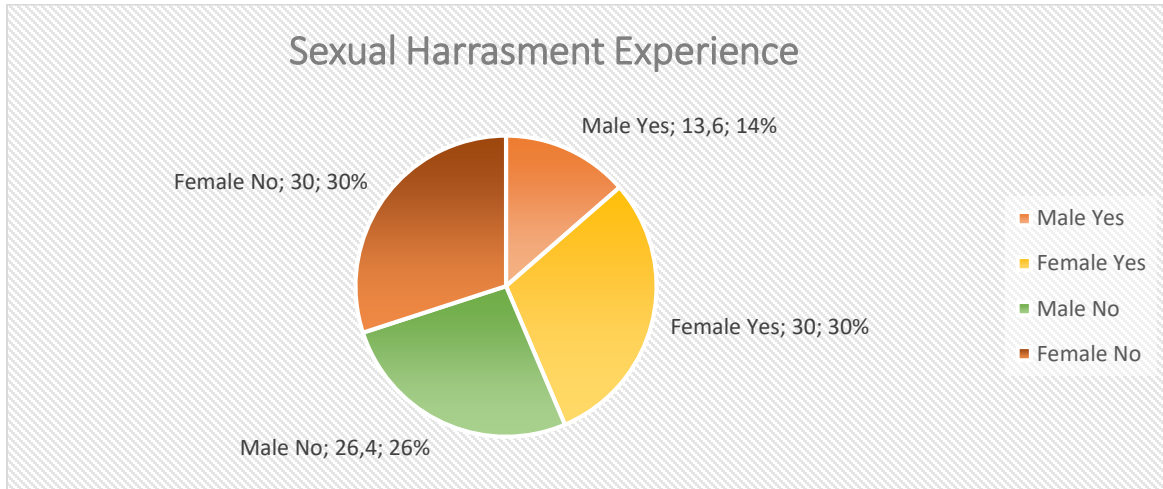
4.4 Cross-tabulation of Responses

In an attempt to get an in-depth understanding of the respondent's experiences of sexual harassment, the researcher utilised the cross-tabulation approach. The biographical information, **gender, race, academic year of study and sexual orientation** were cross-tabulated against the following questions:

- Have you ever experienced harassment?
- How often did this occur?
- Who was the perpetrator

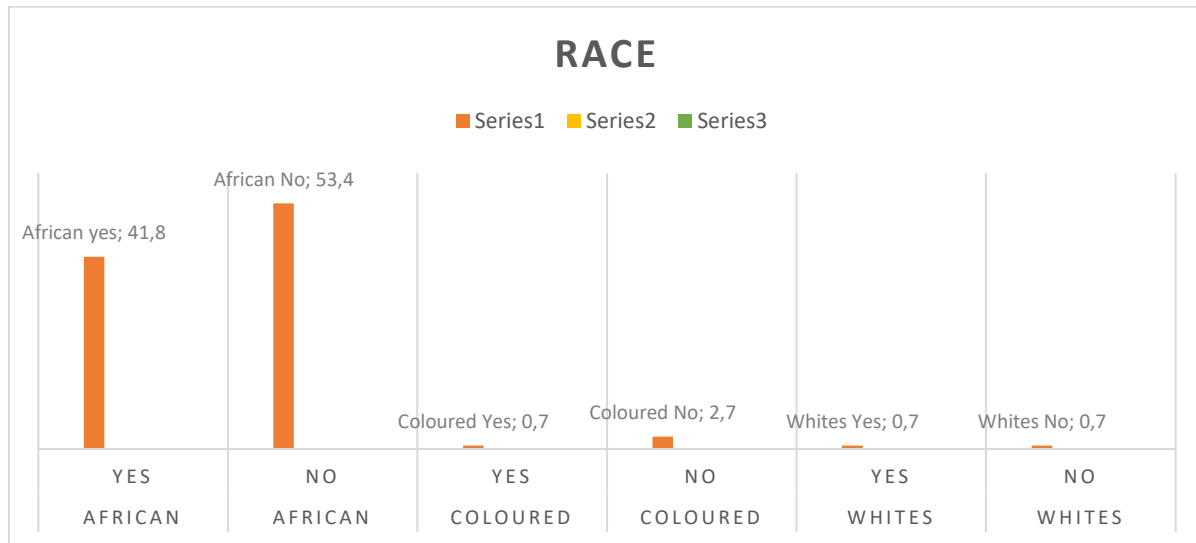
The information generated from the cross-tabulation is presented through tables and figures below and further engaged thoroughly.

Figure 7: Experiences of Sexual Harassment by Gender



The gender cross-tabulation in terms of sexual harassment experience reveals that 19 (13.6%) male and 42 (30%) female respondents indicated that they experienced some form of sexual harassment, as opposed to 37 (26.4%) male and 42 (30%) female respondents who did not. The findings reveal that 79 (56.4%) of the students have never been victims of sexual harassment. This might be attributed to the strong punitive sentences imposed by the University of KwaZulu-Natal on those found guilty of sexual harassment offences. A quick synopsis of the University of KwaZulu-Natal statistics supplied by the Campus Protection Services also pinpoint that the conviction rate of student sexual harassment offences stood at 99% for the period 2005-2014. This is close to the notion of zero tolerance towards such behaviour.

Figure 8: Experiences of Sexual Harassment by Race



The race cross-tabulation (figure 8) reveals that the majority of African respondents in the data sample 78 (53.4%) have never experienced sexual harassment as opposed to 61 (41.8%) who have experienced it before. A total of 4 (2.7%) of the Coloured respondents have never experienced sexual harassment and only 1 (0.7%) has experienced it. Mutinta (2015) argues that the reserved personal nature of the coloured student population at the University due to strict upbringing might be the reason why there are not easily targets of sexual harassment. Lastly, of the two White respondents who were interviewed 1 (0.7%) had experienced it and the other 1 (0.7%) never experienced it. The statistics drawn from White students does not provide an average for the researcher to scientifically engage with the statistics. The sample size of the respondents is a serious limitation on its own. The striking feature of the cross tabulation is that the African respondents presented with a marginal difference between those who have experienced sexual harassment and those who have not 14 (11,6%). As the majority of students, residing in university housing is African students this highlights that much work is still needed in combating sexual harassment prevalence at the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

Table 2: Experiences of sexual harassment by Academic Year

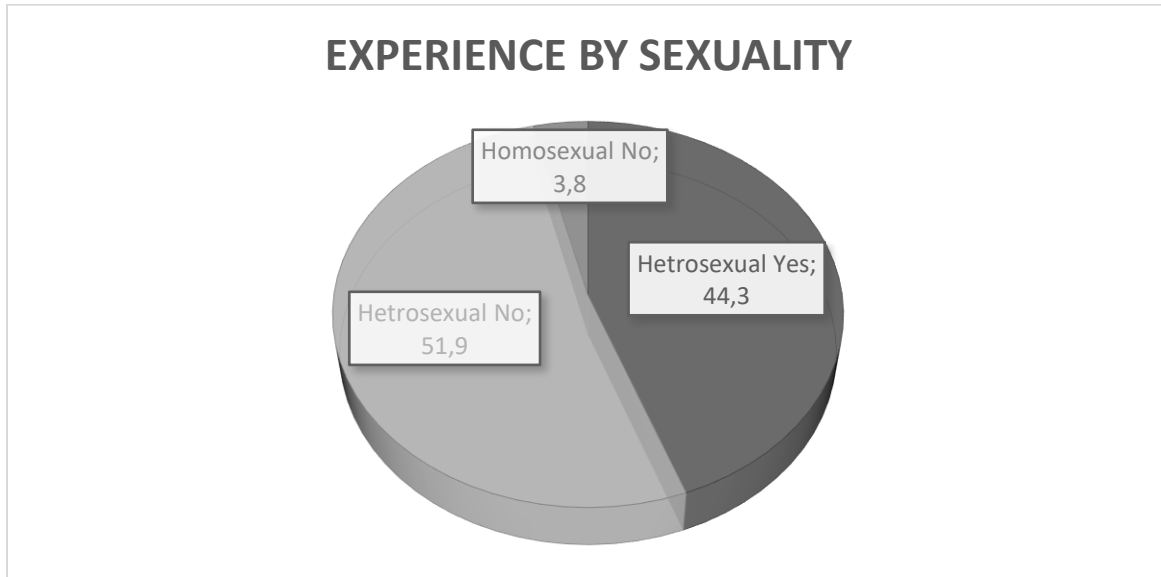
Academic year						
			Have you ever experience harassment?		Total	
			yes	no		
		% within Academic year	52.9%	47.1%	100.0%	
		% of Total	12.9%	11.4%	24.3%	
		Residual	3.7	-3.7		
	Second year	Count	6	15	21	
		% within Academic year	28.6%	71.4%	100.0%	
		% of Total	4.3%	10.7%	15.0%	
	Third year	Count	14	25	39	
		% within Academic year	35.9%	64.1%	100.0%	
		% of Total	10.0%	17.9%	27.9%	
	Fourth year	Count	17	22	39	
		% within Academic year	43.6%	56.4%	100.0%	
		% of Total	12.1%	15.7%	27.9%	
	Fifth year	Count	3	3	6	
		% within Academic year	50.0%	50.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	2.1%	2.1%	4.3%	
	Sixth year	Count	1	0	1	
		% within Academic year	100.0%	0.0%	100.0%	
		% of Total	0.7%	0.0%	0.7%	
	Total		Count	59	81	140

	% within Academic year	42.1%	57.9%	100.0%
	% of Total	42.1%	57.9%	100.0%

The cross-tabulation of respondent’s sexual harassment experiences by academic year (table 2) reveals that students who have never experienced sexual harassment in their academic years account for 81 (57.9%) of the sample and those who have experienced it 59 (42.1%) of the sample. Furthermore, the cross-tabulation of respondent’s sexual harassment experiences by academic year reveals that the first year students with 18 (12.9%), followed by 4th year students with 17 (12.1%) and third year 14 (10%), experienced higher rates of sexual harassment. A lower prevalence of sexual harassment is concentrated amongst the 2nd year students with 6 (4.3%) fifth year students with 3 (2%) and sixth year students with 1 (0.7%).

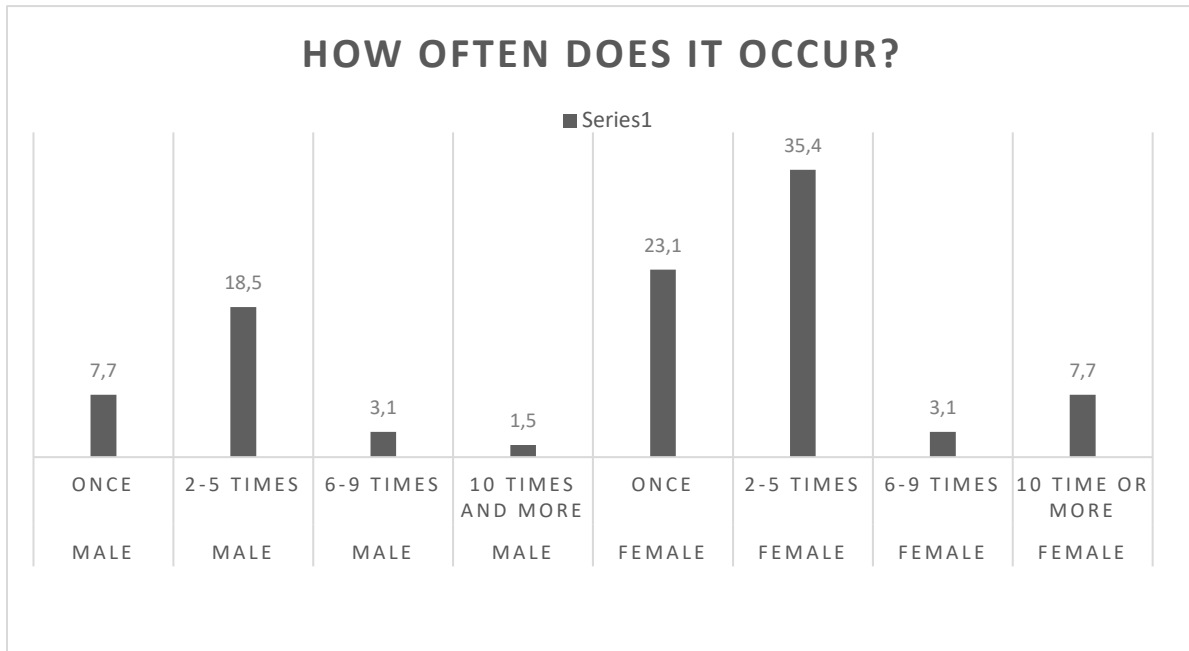
Lastly, these statics reveal that the first year experienced the highest rates of sexual harassment making them the most vulnerable population. There is a significant drop from first to second year 35(12.9%) to 22(4.3%), which could be attributed to the orientation programmes and university zero tolerance policy to sexual harassment.

Figure 9: Experience by sexuality



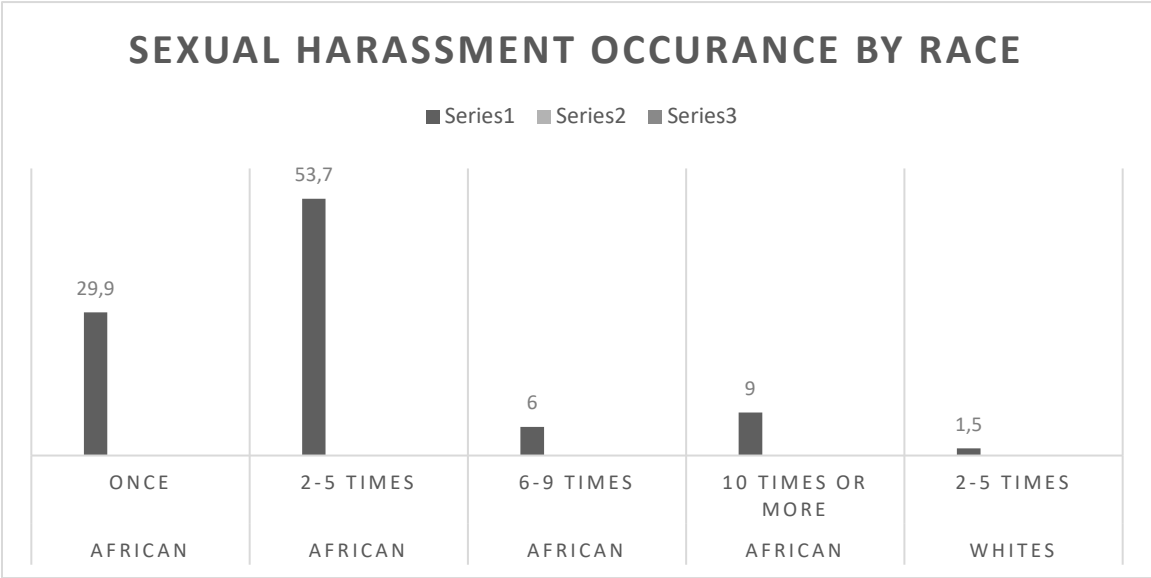
The cross-tabulation of the respondents by sexual orientation (figure 9) reveals that 58 (43.3%) heterosexuals and 70 (53.9%) of homosexuals have experienced sexual harassment whereas 68 (51.9%) heterosexuals and 5 (3.8%) homosexuals have never experienced sexual harassment. Those who have never experienced sexual harassment are marginally higher than those who have experienced it. However, the difference between those who have experienced it and those who have never is not significant as it only 15 (11.4%). These statistics pose a challenge to the University authorities to try to reduce the incidences of sexual harassment through other means. The findings of this study downplay the ongoing and sensitive debate on homosexual harassment in South Africa.

Figure 10: Occurrence by Gender



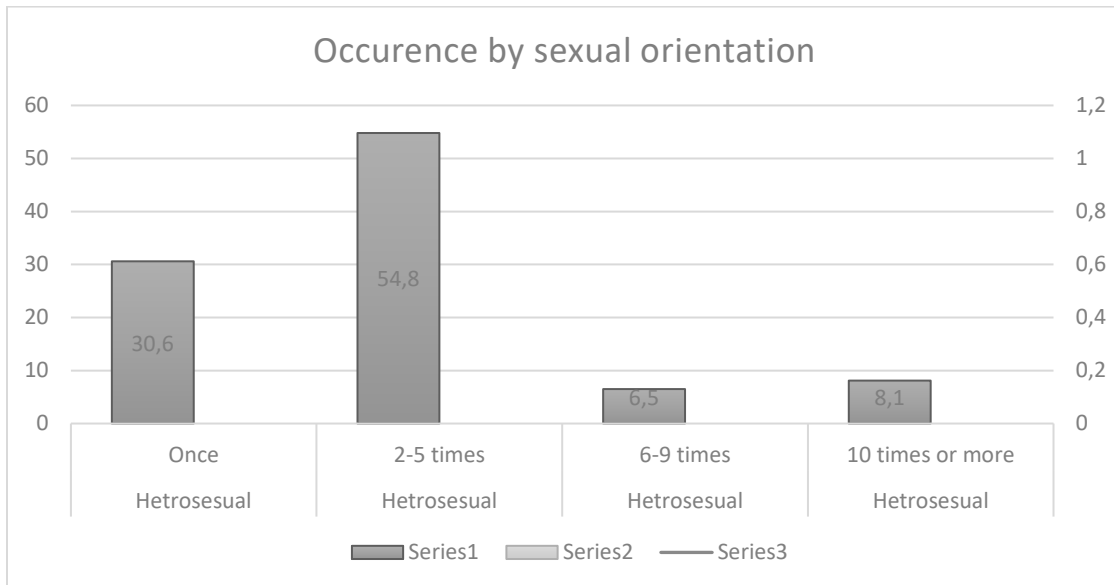
The gender cross-tabulation on sexual harassment occurrence highlights that a total of 15 (23.1%) female students and 5 (7.7%) males have experienced sexual harassment once. The respondents who have experienced the occurrence of sexual harassment 2-5 times are 23 (35.4%) females and 12 (18.5%) males. Those who have experienced sexual harassment 6-9 times are 2 (3.1%) females and males, respectively and those who have experienced the occurrence of sexual harassment more than 10 times or more account for 5 (7.7%) females and 1 (1.5%) male. The high and low sexual harassment rates among students may be an indication that as students become more familiar with what constitutes sexual harassment, the less they are subjected to incidences of sexual harassment or are in positions where they might be exposed to forms of sexual harassment (see Jewkes et al., 2002).

Figure 11: Sexual Harassment Occurrence by Race



Sexual harassment occurrence by race amongst Africans is 36 (53.7%) occurrence of 2-5 times, 20 (29.9%) once, 6 (9%) with more than 10 times and 4 (6%) with 6-9 times more. From the Whites, only 1 (1.5%) has ever experienced sexual harassment on 2-5 times. The sample size, which was skewed towards African, can be argued as having a significant effect on the results.

Figure 12: Occurrence by Sexual Orientation



The cross-tabulation of occurrence responses by sexual orientation reveals that heterosexuals 34 (54.8%) has the highest occurrence rate of 2-5 times. This is followed by the occurrence rate of 19 (30.6%) where it happened once amongst heterosexuals. The least occurrence amongst heterosexuals is on 10 times and more 5 (8.1%) and 6-9 times 4 (6.5%). No cases of occurrence were recorded amongst homosexuals. This is an important finding against the wide cry for the protection of homosexuals in South Africa. This sends a strong message that other institutions need to promote sexual tolerance as to avoid negative publicity generated by homosexual dislike.

Table 3: Perpetrator by Gender

The table below presents findings on the perpetrators of sexual harassment by gender.

			Who was the perpetrator					Total
			Lecturer	Male friend	Female friend	Classmate	Other	
Gender	Male	Count	0	3	8	1	8	20
		% within Gender	0.0%	15.0%	40.0%	5.0%	40.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	4.7%	12.5%	1.6%	12.5%	31.3%
		Residual	-.6	-2.3	5.2	-2.1	-.1	
	Female	Count	2	14	1	9	18	44
		% within Gender	4.5%	31.8%	2.3%	20.5%	40.9%	100.0%
		% of Total	3.1%	21.9%	1.6%	14.1%	28.1%	68.8%
		Residual	.6	2.3	-5.2	2.1	.1	
Total		Count	2	17	9	10	26	64
		% within Gender	3.1%	26.6%	14.1%	15.6%	40.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	3.1%	26.6%	14.1%	15.6%	40.6%	100.0%

The gender cross-tabulation of the perpetrators reveals that the majority of the perpetrators is confined in the ‘other’, which might include boyfriends, “sugar daddies”, sugar mommies etc. The ‘other’ for both male and females constitutes 26 (40.6%) which is by far the highest. From the ‘other’, 18 (28.1%) are females and 8 (12.5%) are males. Forty percent of the respondents reported that most perpetrators are people who they previously considered friends. This suggests that victims of sexual harassment are more likely to be victimised by people they know than strangers. This indicates that most victims knew the person who sexually victimized them. Classmates who perpetrate sexual harassment are higher with female students 9 (14.1%), as opposed to males 1

(1.6%). However, it is not clear as to which gender is responsible for such acts. In the absence of such information, the researcher can only postulate that males are responsible for the act against female based on previous research findings of gender distribution. Only 2 (3.1%) of lecturers were cited by female students for being responsible for perpetuation of sexual harassment and the gender of the perpetrators are unknown.

Since the majority of the respondents were Africans, the gender cross-tabulation on perpetration by race does not have a significant bearing in this regard. One White response has no impact in doing a comparison of scientific magnitude.

Table 4: Perpetrator by Academic Year

			Who was the perpetrator					Total
			lecturer	male friend	female friend	Class -mate	other	
Academic year	First year	Count	1	3	3	3	6	16
		% within Academic year	6.3%	18.8%	18.8%	18.8%	37.5%	100.0%
		% of Total	1.6%	4.9%	4.9%	4.9%	9.8%	26.2%
		Residual	.5	-1.5	1.2	.1	-.3	
	Second year	Count	0	4	0	2	1	7
		% within Academic year	0.0%	57.1%	0.0%	28.6%	14.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	6.6%	0.0%	3.3%	1.6%	11.5%
		Residual	-.2	2.0	-.8	.7	-1.8	
	Third year	Count	0	3	2	3	10	18
		% within Academic year	0.0%	16.7%	11.1%	16.7%	55.6%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	4.9%	3.3%	4.9%	16.4%	29.5%
		Residual	-.6	-2.0	-.1	-.2	2.9	

	Fourth year	Count	1	4	2	3	5	15
		% within Academic year	6.7%	26.7%	13.3%	20.0%	33.3%	100.0%
		% of Total	1.6%	6.6%	3.3%	4.9%	8.2%	24.6%
		Residual	.5	-.2	.3	.3	-.9	
	Fifth	Count	0	3	0	0	1	4
		% within Academic year	0.0%	75.0%	0.0%	0.0%	25.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	4.9%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	6.6%
		Residual	-.1	1.9	-.5	-.7	-.6	
	Sixth	Count	0	0	0	0	1	1
		% within Academic year	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	100.0%	100.0%
		% of Total	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	0.0%	1.6%	1.6%
		Residual	.0	-.3	-.1	-.2	.6	
Total	Count	2	17	7	11	24	61	
	% within Academic year	3.3%	27.9%	11.5%	18.0%	39.3%	100.0%	
	% of Total	3.3%	27.9%	11.5%	18.0%	39.3%	100.0%	

The cross-tabulation of the respondents by academic year as to who is the perpetrator reveals that the other constitutes 39.3% (24), followed by male friend with 27.9% (17), class mate with 18% (11), female friends with 11.5% (7) and lecturers with 3.3% (2). The researcher opted not to interrogate these statistics further as the research objectives are linked to establish as to who is responsible for such acts. What these statistics do illustrate, is that they corroborate the cross-tabulation findings generated by cross-tabulation from race and gender.

Table 5: Sexual Orientation of Perpetrators

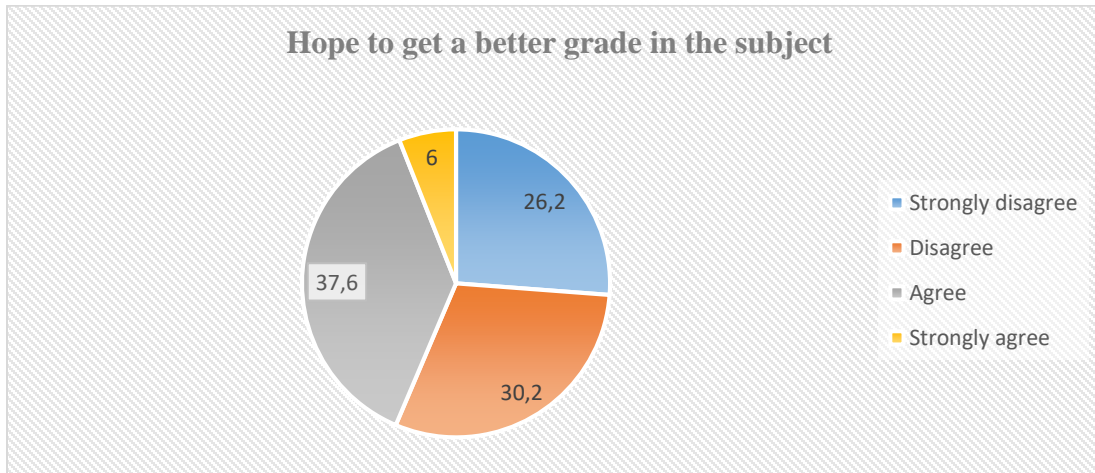
			Who was the perpetrator					Total
			lecturer	male friend	female friend	class/course mate	Other	
Sexual orientation	Heterosexual	Count	2	17	8	12	22	61
		% within Sexual orientation	3.3%	27.9%	13.1%	19.7%	36.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	3.3%	27.9%	13.1%	19.7%	36.1%	100.0%
		Residual	.0	.0	.0	.0	.0	
Total		Count	2	17	8	12	22	61
		% within Sexual orientation	3.3%	27.9%	13.1%	19.7%	36.1%	100.0%
		% of Total	3.3%	27.9%	13.1%	19.7%	36.1%	100.0%

Table 5 reflects that the other constitutes 22 (36.1%), followed by 17 (27.9%) male friend, 12 (19.7%) classmate, 8 (13.1%) female friend and 2 (3.3%) lecturer. The striking feature of these statistics is that there is an upward trend in females who are perpetrating such activities targeting males. This would likely indicate that females are just as likely to engage in sexual harassment as their male counter parts.

4.5 Cross-tabulation of attitudes by Gender

The aim of this study was to investigate the attitudes of students concerning sexual harassment within a university setting (See Chapter 1). This section presents both male and female students' attitudes and difference exhibited in the conceptualisation of sexual harassment. The aim of the section is to get an in-depth understanding of male and females' experiences of sexual harassment, findings are presented using the cross-tabulation approach.

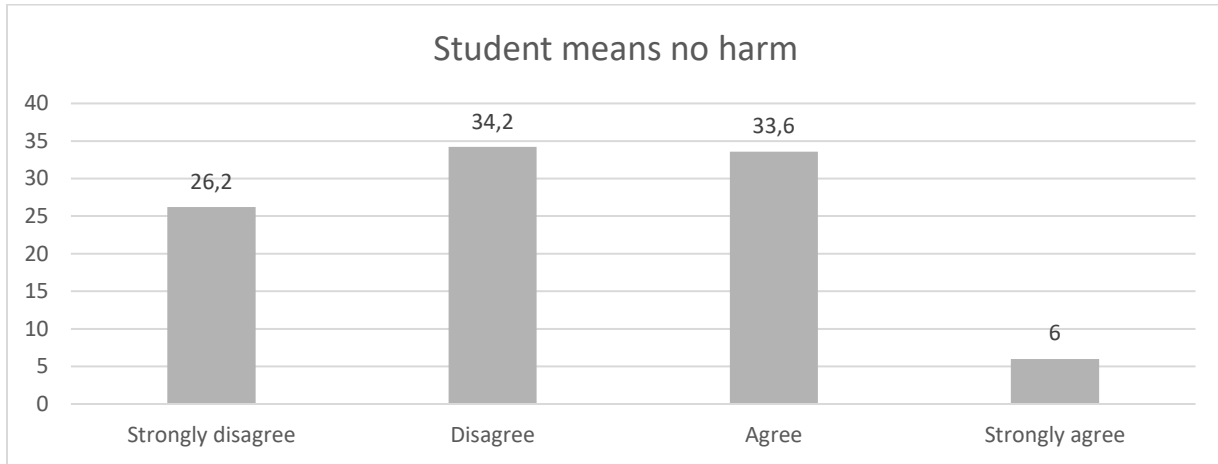
Figure 13: Perceptions if the invitation to the room is premised on the hope to get a better grade or sexual harassment



A total of 56 (37.6%) of the respondents indicated that they were of the belief that if a close male/female student friend attending classes with them, asks him/her to come to his or her room to discuss their grade/work, the intention is to assist the student to get better grades not to solicit sexual favours. A significant proportion of students 45 (30.2%) disagree and 39 (26.2%) strongly disagree that the invited student will be assisted to get a better grade in the course. Contrastingly, 9 of the respondents (6%) strongly agree that the invitation to the room is premised on the hope to get a better grade. The negative responses to the above statement at 65 (56.4%) outweighs the positive responses at 84 (43.6%). In essence, the findings are an indication that the majority of the students believe that invitation to the room is a strategy used by potential perpetrators to sexually harass potential victims.

The cross-tabulation of the responses based on gender highlights that the majority of the respondents 19 (13.4%) male and 33 (13.4%) female agree that the intention of the potential perpetrator is to assist potential victims with their academic assignments to have better grades not to sexually harass them.

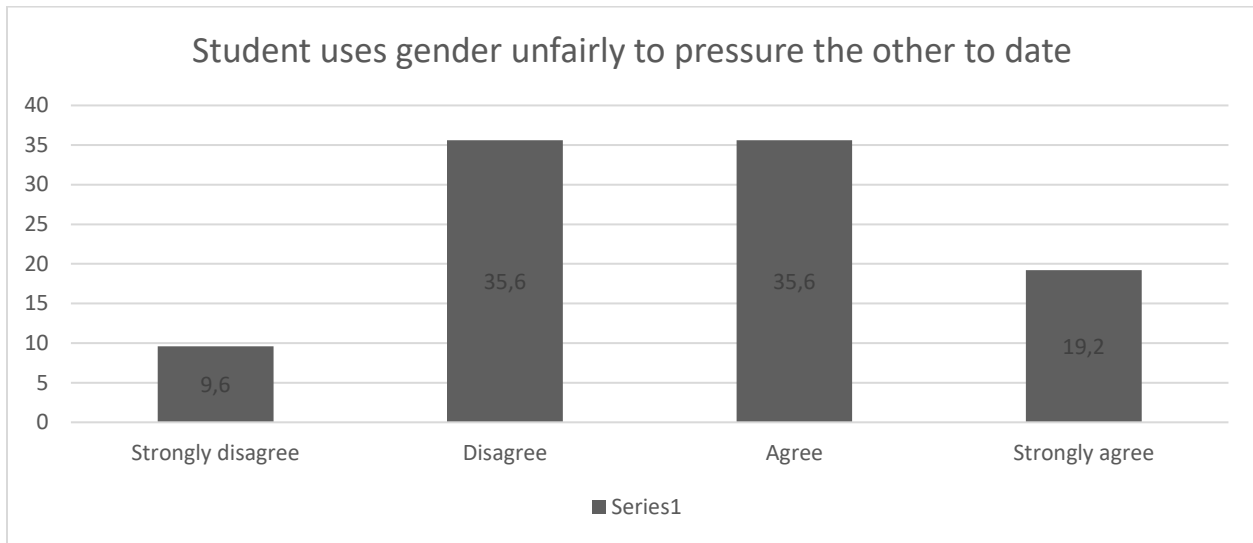
Figure 14: Student meaning no harm



The percentage distribution of the respondents revealed that 51 (34.2%) disagree that the student invite to her room does not mean no harm, followed by 50 (33.6%) who agree; 39 (26.2%) who strongly disagree and 9 (6 %) who strongly agree. The responses indicate that the majority of the respondents 90 (60.4%) believe that an invitation to his/her room has the potential for harm rather than for good. Such and invitation is a pretence for something other than discussing work, which is an indication that the invite to another student room has potential harm attached to it.

Females account for 51 (35.9%) of strongly disagree and disagree as opposed to 34 (23.9%) of males. These statistics highlight that male and female students have different attitudes towards the underlying motivations of such invitations.

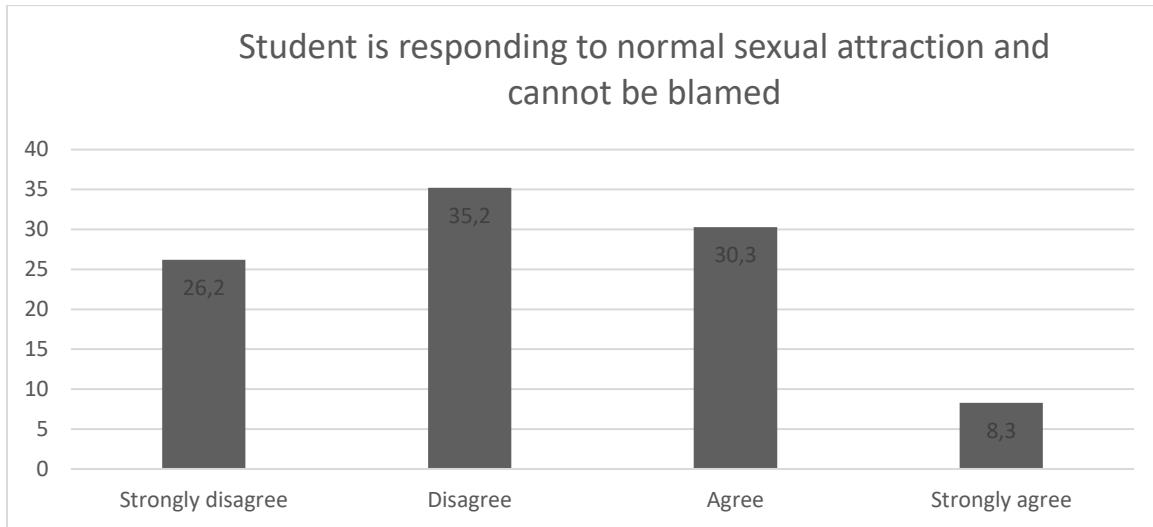
Figure 15: Student uses gender unfairly to exert pressure



There was a balanced opinion of the respondents with 52 (35.6%) of the respondents who agree and disagree, respectively that students use gender unfairly to pressure another student to date or engage in a romantic relationship. The percentage distribution of respondents who strongly agree constituted 28 (19.2%), and those strongly disagree accounted for 14 (9.6%) of the total sample.

The gender cross-tabulation highlighted the fact that male respondents account for 26 (18.7%) of disagreeing that the student uses gender unfairly to pressure the other to date as compared to 23 (16.5%) of female respondents. A total of 26 (18.7%) male and 23 (16.5%) female respondents agree that students use gender unfairly to pressure the other to date. A significant proportion 22 (15.8%) of female and a tiny fraction of 5 (5%) of male respondents strongly agree that students use gender unfairly to pressure the other to date. Lastly, a small fraction of male 4 (2.9%) and 10 (7.2%) females strongly disagree that students uses gender unfairly to pressure the other to date. The responses presented was slightly contradictory to what was expected i.e. females affirming the perception that gender is used as an excuse and means to pressure compliance in comparison to males who see nothing wrong with the practice. This perception could have further implications and underlying motivations and should be further explored and studied.

Figure 16: Student responding to normal sexual attraction and cannot be blamed

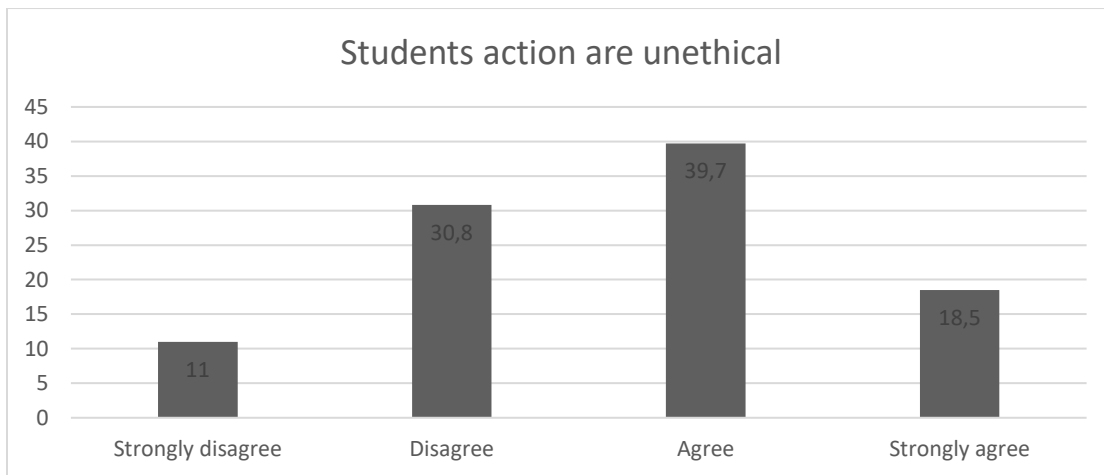


In figure 16, the percentage distribution of the respondents depicts that that 71.4% of the respondents believe that sexual attraction is a normal phenomenon and should not be used as a scapegoat for sexual harassment; 51 (35.2%) disagree and 38 (26.2%) strongly disagree that the student is responding to normal sexual attraction and, therefore, they cannot be blame for their actions. A total of 44 (30.3%) agree and 12 (8.3%) strongly agree, this in turn signals a significant difference of 22.8% in the attitude towards sexual harassment of respondents as to whether the student is responding to normal sexual attraction and cannot be blamed.

The gender cross-tabulation on attitudes towards sexual harassment on the statement reveals that a total of 29 (21%) of female and 5 (3.6%) male students, strongly disagree that the student is responding to normal sexual attraction and cannot be blamed. A significant proportion 26 (18.8%) of male and 25 (18.1%) female students disagree that this might be the case. Overall 85 (90.7%) of the total sample do not support this assumption. A total of 24 (17.4%) male and 20 (14.5%) female respondents agree that the student is responding to normal attraction and this is supported by 4 (2.9%) male and 5 (3.6%) female respondents who strongly agree. A significant difference

(52.3%) of attitudes was noted between the positives and negatives. The attitude towards sexual harassment is different amongst male and female students with more male students agreeing to the statement that sexual attraction is normal and can be used to justify sexual harassment and more females disagreeing to the same. This could be attributed to patriarchal belief systems which would excuse males saying that they are simply acting on sexual urges and females are subject to concede and accept it.

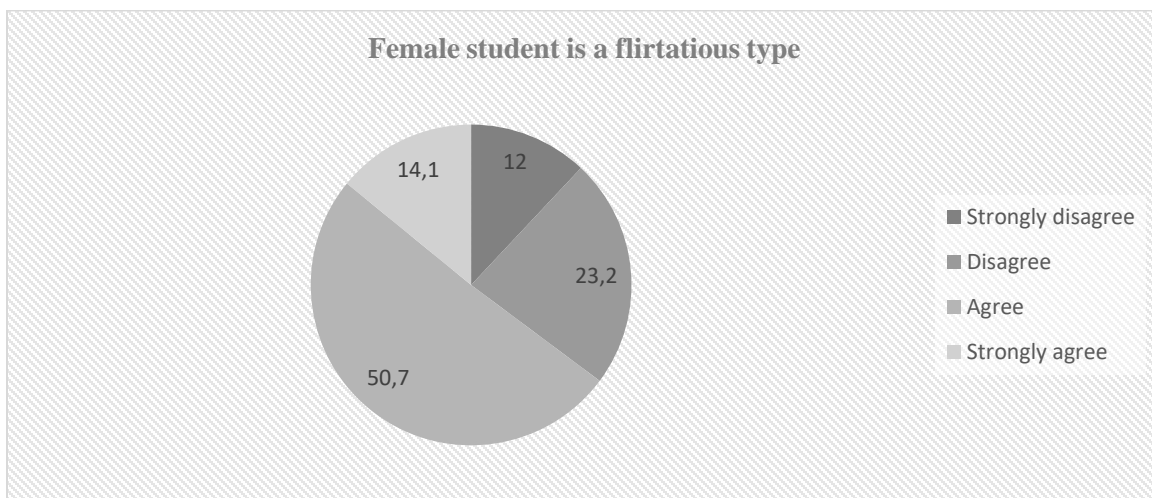
Figure 17: Student’s action is unethical



The findings show that the majority of the respondents (58.2%) indicate that the actions of sexual harassment are unethical; 58 (39.7%) agree and 27 (18.5%) strongly agree that students’ unwanted sexual advances are unethical and could be harmful to other students. A total of 89 (41.8%) see nothing wrong; 45 (30.8%) disagree and 16 (11%) strongly disagree that the student's actions are unethical and could be harmful to other students. From the above statistics, it is evident that the would-be potential perpetrator’s actions (unwanted sexual advances) are perceived as unethical and could be harmful to his/her fellow student.

The findings on the attitude cross-tabulation based on gender indicates that (23.7%) of females agree and 23 (16.5%) females strongly agree that the student’s action could be harmful to his fellow student. A significant proportion of males (again overall stats then give a breakdown) 23 (16.5%) also agree and a small fraction 4 (2.9%) strongly agree that the action has a potential for harm. The female respondents account for 24 (17.2%) and the male respondents are 32 (23%) of those who strongly agree with the statement that the would-be potential perpetrator actions student actions which is unwanted sexual advances, are unethical and could be harmful to his fellow student

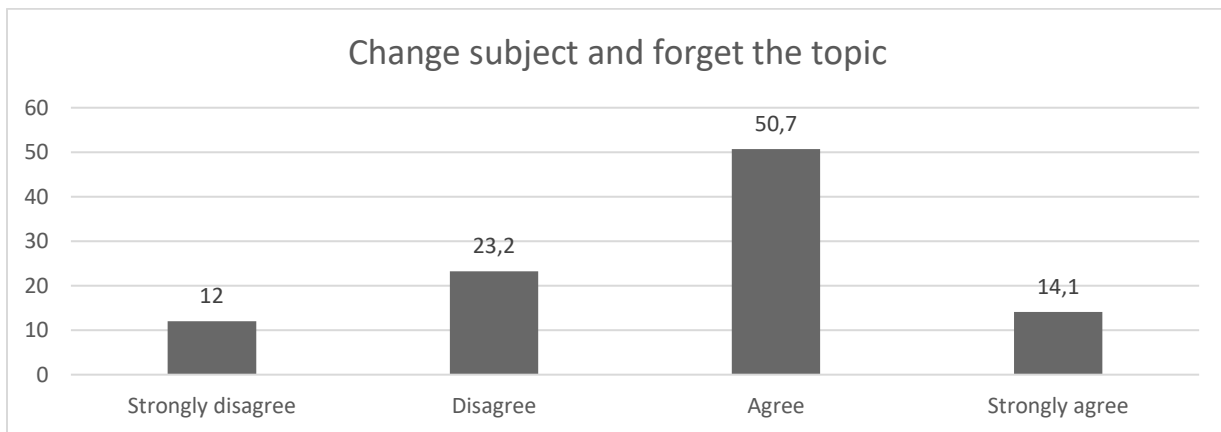
Figure 18: Female student is a flirtatious type who enjoys attention



The findings suggest that potential victim’s actions could possibly contribute to the unwarranted actions. The study found that 92 (65.2%) of the respondents believe that flirtations of the student contribute to the harassment with a total of 72 (50.7%) agree and 20 (14.1%) strongly agree to the statement. In addition, 50 (44.2%) of the respondents; with a total of 33 (23.2%) disagree and 17 (12%) also strongly disagree with the above statement.

The above statistics tells us that females live in a culture that does not only blame sexual assault victims but also tells potential victims, especially females, that it is not society’s duty to protect them but it is their duty to make sure they are not sexually harassed. This further reveals the negative attitude towards sexual harassment victims, especially women that they should blame themselves not the perpetrators if they become the victims of sexual harassment. The gender cross-tabulation reveals that 51 (37%) of women and 33 (23.9%) men do not believe that the victim is overly flirtatious and thus deserving of the harassment. Furthermore, 29 (21%) female and 25 (17.8%) male respondents affirm that the student is a flirtatious type who enjoys getting attention from male students. The findings show a perception that the victim is generally blamed for the actions directed towards them.

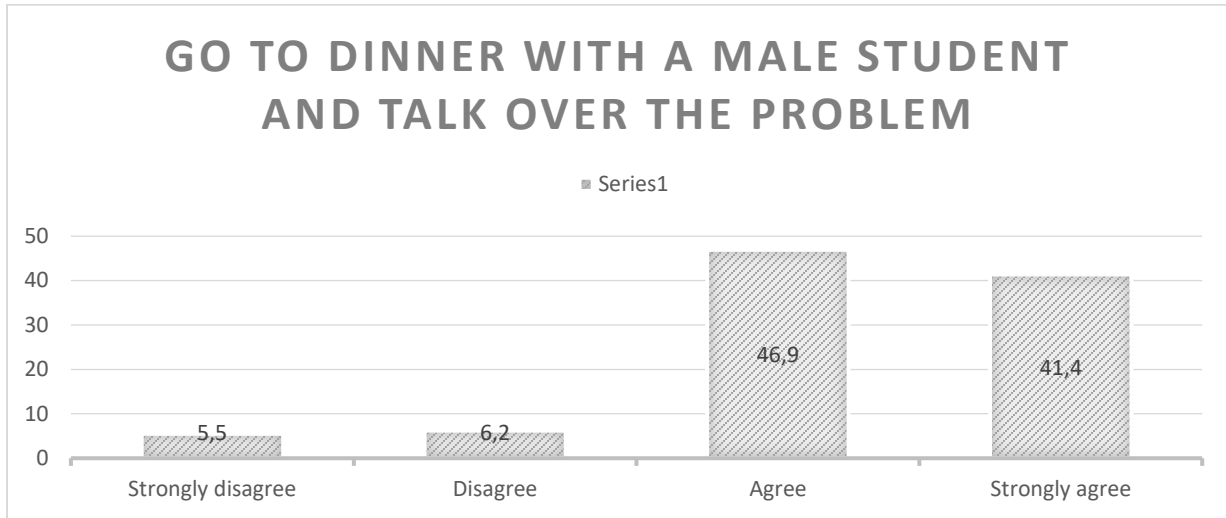
Figure 19: Change the subject and forget the topic



The figure above presents the percentage distribution of attitudes towards sexual harassment in relation to the statement whether the student (potential victim) should change the subject and try to forget about the conversation she had with the potential perpetrator. The findings reveal that 50.7% of the respondents agree, 33 (23.2%) disagree, 20 (4.1%) strongly agree and 17 (12% strongly disagree with the statement. The cross-tabulation of respondents revealed that 24 (17.8%) male and 22 (16.3%) female respondents do not agree, whereas, 34 (25.1%) male and 55 (40.8%) female do agree that whenever a student is confronted with such a sexual harassment situation, the

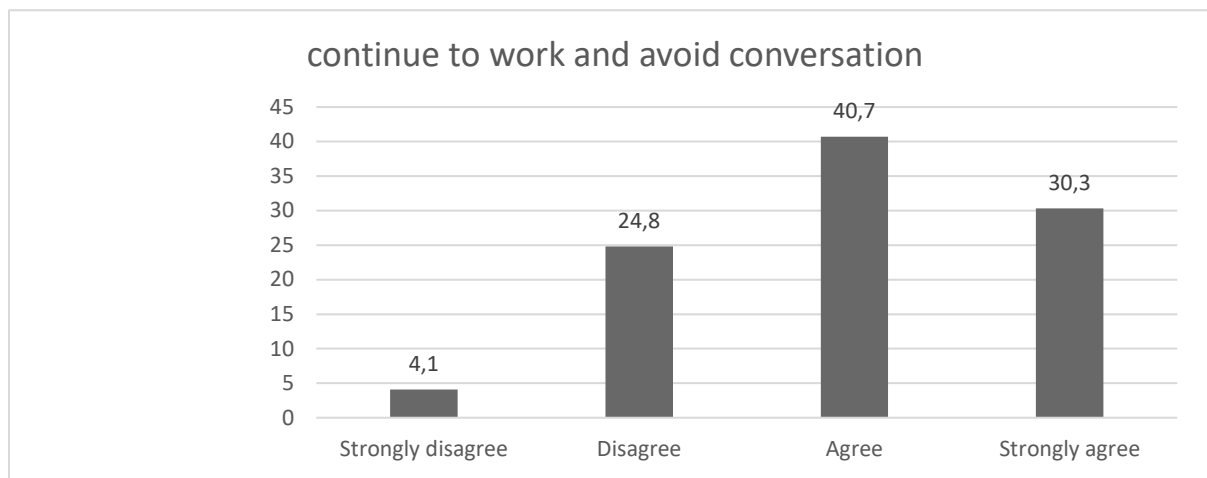
best way out of it is to change the subject and try and forget about the conversation. . The above statistics reveal that most victims will try to forget about the incident instead of dealing with the situation. Most of the victims would be too embarrassed or ashamed of the incident to admit it or report it, or they might convince themselves that they are in control of their destinies.

Figure 20: Go to dinner with a student (potential perpetrator)



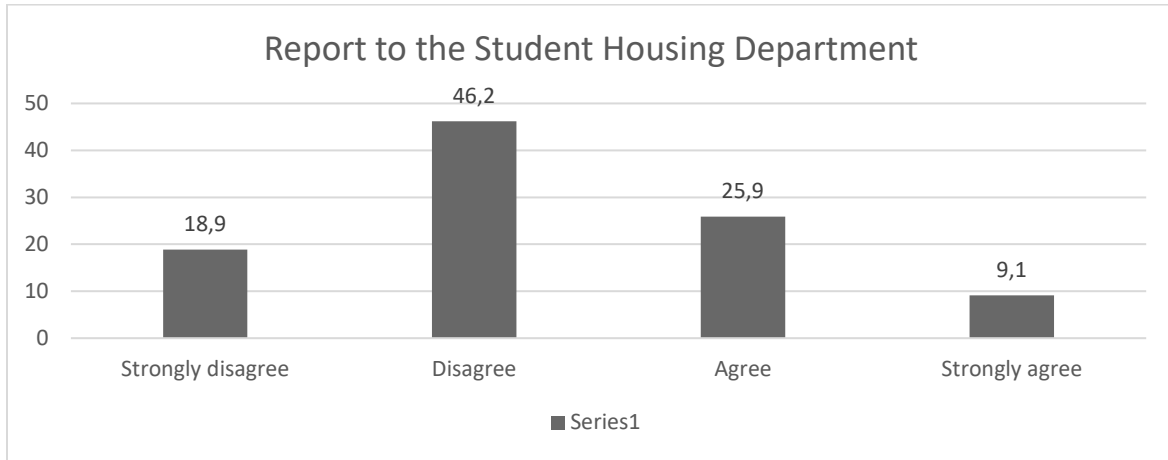
This section deals with how going out to dinner with a student (potential perpetrator) leads to sexual harassment. The findings in figure 20 indicate that 88% of the respondents agree with the statement that the female student must go to dinner with the male students as there is nothing wrong and 60 (41%) strongly agree with the statement. This indicates that most participants do not see anything wrong when one student asks another student to go out for dinner. This suggest that majority of student in UKZN (Howard College) do not regard asking someone to go out for dinner or lunch as a sexual harassment risk factor. Notwithstanding that, 17 (12%) of students; 9 (6%) students disagree and 8 (6%) strongly agree, respectively, on the dinner statement.

Figure 21: Focusing on work



Overall, findings indicate that 103 (81.0%) of the respondents agreed that engaging in sex related conversations lead to sexual harassment while 42 (28.9%) disagreed to the same statement. In particular, a total of 59 (40.7%) students agree and 44 (30.3%) students strongly agree that engaging in sex related conversations leads to sexual harassment. On the contrary, 36 (24.8%) disagreed and 6 (4.1%) strongly disagreed that engaging in sex related conversation does not lead to sexual harassment. Thus, the study shows that talking about sex related issues with friends could be considered one of the factors that potentially lead to sexual harassment.

Figure 22: Report to the Student Housing Department



In general, the study indicates that 66 (46.2%) of the respondents are for the idea of reporting perpetrators of sexual harassment 37(25.9%) agree, 27 (18.7%) strongly agreed and 9.1% strongly agreed) while 46.2% disagreed to reporting perpetrators to the Student Housing Department. The gender cross-tabulation indicates that 52 (38.2%) females and 39 male respondents (28.7%) do not agree to reporting perpetrators to the Student Housing Department. A total of 28 (20.6%) female and 17 (12.5%) male students would report the student to the Housing Department. This reveals that students especially females would rather keep quiet when they are sexually harassed than report the matter to the relevant university authority.

Table 6: Pearson Product Correlation Matrix

The correlation statistics was conducted to establish the correlation between variables underpinning the study.

		Correlations					
		Vic_Blame	Perp_Blame	No_Blame	Ignore	Complain	Confront
Vic_Blame	Pearson Correlation	1	.132	.271**	-.091	.278**	-.266**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.120	.001	.292	.001	.002
	N	144	140	141	136	136	138
Perp_Blame	Pearson Correlation	.132	1	-.219**	.156	-.211*	.139
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.120		.010	.071	.014	.108
	N	140	143	139	134	134	136
No_Blame	Pearson Correlation	.271**	-.219**	1	-.233**	.333**	-.195*
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.010		.006	.000	.021
	N	141	139	145	137	138	139
Ignore	Pearson Correlation	-.091	.156	-.233**	1	-.270**	.452**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.292	.071	.006		.002	.000
	N	136	134	137	140	136	137
Complain	Pearson Correlation	.278**	-.211*	.333**	-.270**	1	-.225**
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	.014	.000	.002		.008
	N	136	134	138	136	140	138
Confront	Pearson Correlation	-.266**	.139	-.195*	.452**	-.225**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.002	.108	.021	.000	.008	
	N	138	136	139	137	138	142
**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).							
*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).							

The Pearson's Correlation Matrix correlation statistics was conducted to establish the correlation between the variables (such as no blame, ignore, complain, confront, and others) by computing a Product Moment Correlation Coefficient. The principles behind the correlation can be established as follows:

(a) **Positive correlation** – the other variable has a tendency to also increase;

(b) **Negative correlation** – the other variable has a tendency to decrease; and

(c) **No correlation** – the other variable does not tend to either increase or decrease.

The above Pearson's Correlation Matrix correlation statistics depicts that there is no significant positive correlation between victim blame and the perpetrator, $r=.132 > 0.05$. In essence, both the victim and the perpetrator have the tendency of apportioning blame to the other party rather than sharing the blame for the occurrence of the sexual harassment incident. This is in line with earlier findings outlined in the literature review, which also revealed that it is common that when a sexual harassment incident has occurred, the victim will blame the perpetrator and the latter will apportion the blame to the victim.

There is also no significant correlation $r=.271 > 0.05$ between the victim blame and no blame. This statistical finding reveals that whenever a sexual harassment incident has happened, the victim will not apportion blame to herself or himself for what has occurred. For example, a male student might request a female student to visit him in his room and the female student might oblige. The male student might take that as an acceptance of a relationship and start making sexual advances towards the female student. However, if the unwanted sexual advance is reported, whoever is receiving the complaint might think that the female student invited the sexual harassment.

There is a significant positive correlation $r = -.091 < 0.05$ between victim blame and having the conduct ignored. In essence, whenever a sexual harassment incidence has happened the possibilities are high that the victim who blames herself or himself will ignore the sexual harassment incidence. This might be attributed to the fact that the victim apportioned the blame of the incident to herself or himself. In such circumstances, there is a probability of the victim choosing to forget or ignore that the incident has ever happened.

There is no significant positive correlation $r = .278 > 0.05$ between victim blame and complaint. Such finding reflects that a sexual harassment victim who blames herself or himself for the incidence is highly likely not to complain. The victim might be of the view that the sexual harassment incidence would have not occurred if the victim were cautious. It is for this reason, that the victim potentially believes that complaining will be an effectively futile exercise. A typical scenario that best exemplifies this is the invitation by a female student to a male student to come to her room to discuss possibilities of helping with her academic assignment to raise grades.

There is a significant positive correlation $r = -.266 < 0.05$ between victim blame and the adoption of a confrontational response to the incidence of sexual harassment. The victims of sexual harassment are highly likely to confront the perpetrator of such practice. Most often, it does happen that when a perpetrator is approached, the perpetrator apologises. This might be the reason why most cases of sexual harassment remain unreported. As indicated earlier on, a victim might ignore the incidence if the perpetrator is remorseful and willing to apologise.

There is a significant positive correlation $r = -.219 < 0.05$ between perpetrator blame and no blame. The statistics reveal that the chances are high for the perpetrator who has apportioned blame for the incidence to herself or himself to blame no one for the incidence. It is normal for perpetrators who are convinced that they are responsible for the incident to be remorseful. If the perpetrator is not convinced that he or she is responsible for the sexual harassment, the perpetrator view will be that the victim of sexual harassment invited the incident.

There is no significant positive correlation $r = .156 > 0.05$ between perpetrator blame and victim blame. If the perpetrator apportioned the blame to him or herself, it is unlikely that the perpetrator will blame the victim. If the victim also believes that the incidence was because of the victim negligence, the victim is unlikely to blame the perpetrator.

There is significant positive correlation $r = -.211 < 0.05$ between perpetrator blame and complaining. The perpetrator is highly likely to complain if he or she is of the view that the sexual harassment incident was because of the victim's actions. For example, the victim was the one that invited the perpetrator to the room to assist the victim in getting better grades and then the sexual harassment incidence happened. The perpetrator will complain that he or she went to the room on invitation, which the perpetrator construed as an invitation to sexual relationship.

There is a significant positive correlation $r = -.233 < 0.05$ between no blame and ignore. In cases where neither the victim nor the perpetrator assigns blame for the incident to either one it is highly likely that the incident will be ignored and no further actions will be initiated.

There is no significant positive correlation $r = .333 > 0.05$ between no blame and complain. It is highly unlikely that the victims of sexual harassment who apportioned the blame to themselves would complain about the alleged sexual harassment incidence. This is likely the reason why some cases of sexual harassment are not reported.

There is a significant positive correlation $r = -.195 < 0.05$ between no blame and confront. If the victim of sexual harassment does not feel that he or she is responsible for the sexual harassment incidence, it is highly likely that the victim will confront the perpetrator.

There is a significant positive correlation $r = -.270 < 0.05$ between ignore and complain. Some victims of sexual harassment who decided to ignore the sexual advances by the perpetrator but complain to relevant authorities. For example, a female student who was invited by a male student to be helped with academic assignments in order to boost her grades and fell a victim of sexual harassment might ignore the incidence when it occurred but later lay a complain to the Department of Student Housing.

There is no significant positive correlation $r = .452 > 0.05$ between ignore and confront. It is highly unlikely that a victim of sexual harassment ignores the sexual harassment when it took place would confront the perpetrator. This finding has serious implication on the perpetrator changing his behavioural patterns.

There is a significant positive correlation $r = -.225 < 0.05$ between complain and confront. The victims of sexual harassment who have complained about alleged sexual harassment are highly likely to confront the perpetrators. Such confrontation might not happen if there is a court order that prevents the victim from confronting the perpetrator.

Table 8: Means and standard deviations of attitudes towards sexual harassment for the male and female respondents

Variable	Male		Female		<i>t</i> – value	<i>p</i> values
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>		
Victim blame	4.76	1.27	4.42	1.43	1.44	0.151
Perpetrator blame	4.93	1.24	5.61	1.57	2.72	0.007**
No blame	4.75	1.15	4.14	1.48	2.61	0.010*
Ignore	5.30	1.25	5.92	1.44	2.63	0.010*
Complain	4.92	1.21	4.52	1.29	1.81	0.072
Confront	5.36	1.27	5.60	1.21	1.16	0.249

Note: t-test values * $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

The sub-scales of attitudes towards sexual harassment and how they vary according to gender are presented in Table 8. The results show that the female respondents showed more endorsement of perpetrator blame ($M = 5.61, SD = 1.57$) than the male respondents ($M = 4.76, SD = 1.27$); [$t = 2.72, p < 0.01$]. No blame as a sub-scale of attitudes towards sexual harassment was significantly higher among the males ($M = 4.75, SD = 1.15$) than the females ($M = 4.18, SD = 1.48$), [$t = 2.61, p < 0.05$]. The results also revealed a statistical significant difference in the ignoring of sexual

harassment tendencies, [$t = 2.63$ $p < 0.05$]. The females ($M = 5.92$, $SD = 1.44$) were found to be more likely to ignore sexual harassment issues than the males ($M = 4.30$, $SD = 1.25$). The results as presented in Table 8 did not yield any statistical gender differences on three dimensions of attitudes towards sexual harassment. These are victim blame, complain and confront. Even though the male respondents ($M = 4.92$, $SD = 1.21$) had higher values on complain than the females ($M = 4.52$, $SD = 2.92$), this difference was not strong enough to yield any statistical significance, [$t = 1.81$, $p > 0.05$].

Table 9: Attitudes towards sexual harassment among students according to type of secondary school attended

Variable	Rural		Township		Model C		Missionary		F Values
	[1]		[2]		[3]		[4]		
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	
Victim blame	4.62	1.28	4.50	1.33	4.14	1.33	5.17	1.38	2.76*
Perpetrator blame	5.22	1.58	5.03	1.44	5.43	1.26	5.62	1.56	0.92
No blame	4.41	1.31	4.54	1.56	4.26	1.44	4.33	1.34	0.26
Ignore	5.24	1.33	5.86	1.38	5.52	1.36	6.32	1.39	3.55*
Complain	5.20	1.01	4.36	1.44	4.42	1.17	4.70	1.29	4.00**
Confront	5.20	1.60	5.65	1.60	5.62	1.13	5.50	1.67	1.25

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$; *** $p < .001$

The One-Way Between groups ANOVA was used to determine whether there were any differences between the 4 categories of schools and attitudes towards sexual harassment. The results show that there is a statistical significant difference in victim blame among the 4 categories of schools attended prior to university, [$F = 2.67$, $p < 0.05$]. Multiple comparisons, using Turkey HSD indicated that the mean score for students from missionary schools ($M = 5.17$, $SD = 1.38$) were significantly different from students who attended previously Model-C schools ($M = 4.14$, $SD =$

1.33), $p < 0.05$. There was a significant difference in ignoring sexual harassment [$F = 3.55$, $p < 0.05$] and complaining of sexual harassment conduct [$F = 4.00$, $p < 0.01$] among the 4 categories of schools attended by the respondents prior to them going to university.

Furthermore, the multiple comparison analysis on ignoring sexual harassment showed that the mean score for students from Missionary schools ($M = 6.32$, $SD = 1.39$) was different from the mean score of students who previously attended rural schools ($M = 5.24$, $SD = 1.33$). This mean difference was found to be statistical significant, as it was $p < 0.05$. With regards to the complaints brought forward in respect of sexual harassment conduct, the multiple comparison results showed that the mean score for students who previously attended rural schools ($M = 5.20$, $SD = 1.01$) was significantly different from the mean score of those students who previously attended Township schools ($M = 4.36$, $SD = 1.44$), $p < 0.05$; and those students who previously attended Model-C schools ($M = 4.42$, $SD = 1.17$), $p > 0.05$. There was, however, no difference in the mean scores of students who attended other schools.

4.6 Discussion of the Results

The findings of this study revealed the existence of significant differences in the attitude and behaviors of males and females towards sexual harassment. Women have been found to be less tolerant of sexual harassment regardless of the victim's sex. Notably, less tolerant attitudes toward sexual harassment predicted a stronger perception of behaviors as manifesting sexual harassment. In addition, women tended to perceive male harasser's behaviors as constituting sexual harassment more than men.

When probing the issue of sexual harassment, it is evident that it is a complex issue that is very strongly tied to each individual's perception of the situation. Each situation is different and seemingly identical facts in separate situations do lead to totally different attitudes and interpretations by the parties involved. For example, an individual is likely to perceive and have a different attitude towards sexual advances if those advances come from someone they see as a potential mate. On the other hand, if those same advances come from someone they dislike, their attitude will change and will be more likely to perceive the approach as sexual harassment. Due to

the respective genders of the individuals involved, the relative power differentials between those individuals and the relative severity of the behaviors involved, the issue of sexual harassment becomes increasingly more complex and difficult to interpret.

The attitudinal results indicate that female students generally perceive and interpret many instances of male behavior as potentially harassing in nature and more often than not, can be construed as sexually oriented. Contrary to the less tolerant stance displayed by females towards behavior which is potentially harassing in its orientation, men often construe behavior that women characterize as harassment simply as good fun or even complimentary. It is thus evident that a difference exists in the attitudes and perceptions of sexual harassment between male and female students at the Howard College campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal.

This finding is in agreement with previous research on attitudes that indicates that women are more likely to label various behaviors as constituting sexual harassment contrary to men's construal of the same behavior which women would have negatively evaluated. For instance, women are more likely than men to consider sexual teasing, jokes, looks (Mayekiso & Bhana, 1997) gestures, as well as remarks from co-workers, to be sexual harassment. MacKinnon (1979) found that male's attitudes relating to specific types of behaviours are that – people should not be so quick to take offense when a person expresses sexual interest in them.

In their study, men were also more likely than women to believe that sexual harassment is overblown in today's society and that it takes place in business settings more often than in school settings (Mazer and Percival (2009)). Although research tends to focus on harassment where the perpetrator is male and the victim is female, some attitude studies have reported that males are also frequent victims of sexual harassment. Mazer and Percival (2009) also found that 89% of women and 85.1% of men reported at least one incident of sexual harassment. In addition, males reported an average of 5.6 incidents of sexual harassment in college, and females reported an average of 6.2 incidents of sexual harassment in the College.

Nevertheless, sexual harassment complaints filed by men comprised only a small proportion of the total cases of sexual harassment complaints filed each year. Although sexual harassment is

experienced by men, the laws and rules are often written as if sexual harassment were a crime perpetrated solely by men toward women (Clay, 1993) – largely because in South Africa this has historically been understood to be the nature of the problem, and has continued to be a daily problem. This calls for further investigation regarding male and female victimization in sexual harassment, especially in South Africa.

4.7 Conclusion

The purpose of this chapter was to analyze the data generated through the questionnaire that was administered to the respondents. The descriptive and inferential statistics were utilized in analyzing the data. Tables and graphs were used to present the data and further elaborate on the statistical findings. The Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was used to correlate independent variables on the perceptions and attitudes. Lastly, the discussion of the results was undertaken with specific reference to other studies conducted in the field of sexual harassment.

Chapter Five

Conclusions and Recommendations

5.1 Introduction

This chapter concludes the study by drawing on the arguments advanced in the literature reviewed in chapter two and analysis of the collected data from the sampled population in chapter four. Having rendered the conclusion, we then make recommendations based on the discussion of the implications of the study.

5.2 Conclusions

The study has confirmed and agreed with the statement that “there is an association between gender attitudes and sexual behaviour. Sexual behaviour is greatly influenced by social determinants, including gender norms which are among the major social structural determinants” (Global Health: 1). Research on developmental attitudes suggests that as cognitive abilities increase in late childhood, rigid gender perspectives formed in early childhood become more flexible; however, gender attitudes become less egalitarian again during adolescence (Global Health, 2). Men who have adversarial attitudes towards women have been consistently more involved in sexually aggressive actions towards women than those with egalitarian attitudes (Sabitha, 2008: Sabitha & Khadijah, 2004).

The project of challenging sexual harassment will be frustrated and our understanding distorted unless we interrogate the hegemonic, patriarchal forms of masculinity and the practices by which they are (re) produced. We must continue to research the processes by which sexual harassment is produced and the gendered identities and subjectivities on which it poaches. – A more process-oriented understanding of sexual harassment, the ways the social meanings of harassment are constructed, and ultimately, the potential success of anti-harassment training programs (Quinn, 2004).

Thus, in accounting for the differing in the attitudes expressed by both the male and female students, we can assert in no uncertain terms that these are occasioned by the judging of the cultural appropriateness of the individual's conduct by having it considered normal and acceptable. It is evident from the findings that most of the males' behaviour and attitudes are reflective of the privileging of masculinity norms, which tend to denigrate feminine norms. The content of the sampled data in chapter four bear resemblance to the content obtained in chapter two of the literature. The said resemblance is largely on the definitions and constructions which are created by the students in a certain cultural and power context (Gouws et al, 2010). Thus, in establishing this resemblance referred to above, one crucial step was to tabulate the frequency of each characteristic found in the material being studied.

5.3 Recommendations

(a) There is a need for the adoption and implementation of a comprehensive approach whereby not only legal enforcement of policy provisions and grievance but also attitude-changing interventions for the realisation of egalitarian gender attitudes are equally important as tools for changing trends of gender attitudes. Proactive engagement towards the prevention of sexual harassment through engendering egalitarian gender attitudes should be espoused as the most viable pragmatic interventionist strategy in dealing with the issue of sexual harassment.

(b) Changing gender attitudes using gender consciousness as a vehicle.

(c) Training as a way to curb sexual harassment through changing attitudes

(d) Efforts to overcome sexual harassment cannot be based on legal rights only

(e) Strong correlation or relationship between gender attitudes and components of sexual behaviour. Many males are socialised to act in gender stereotypic manners which effectively shape the perception, attitudes and actions they have towards women in particular.

(f) An attitude of striving for gender equality – vs – traditional attitude

(g) Changing attitudes about gender roles – changing trends of gender attitudes.

(h) More egalitarian gender attitudes might have a positive impact on males' and females' sexual behaviour.

(i) The results of this study suggest many opportunities for future research. Subsequent inquiries should consider expanding and replicating the present study outside the Republic of South Africa to include students of all races in all areas of the country, students in other parts of the world, as well as adults in the workforce to determine whether their perceptions are consistent with those established in the present study. Given that cultural differences exist between countries, future research should assess student perceptions worldwide to determine what, if any, impact this has on their view of sexual harassment. Additionally, measures should be included to assess whether or not the survey respondents have any experience (direct or indirect) of sexual harassment or other forms of discrimination as that could affect their perceptions and ratings.

Also, it is our contention that education on the realities of sexual harassment would benefit University students as they prepare to enter the workplace. Subsequent inquiries should be directed at how this type of education could be designed and delivered. Further, Universities should continue to make conscious efforts to address sexual harassment and strive for learning environments that is not tolerant of sexual harassment behaviours.

(j) Sexual harassment must be addressed not only in the legal system but also at home and in the schools. Parents and teachers must teach children about sexual harassment, core values, and mutual respect.

(k) Given the fact that the majority of SADC higher education institutions are still in the process of developing a sufficiently rigorous gender consciousness to fuel and sustain activism, including policy activism against sexual abuse.

(m) In the case of policies on sexual harassment and sexual abuse, issues of masculinity, 'womanhood', normative heterosexuality and the roles of custom and policy interlock to create difficult terrain in which to make strategic intervention against abuse.

(n) Activism and training around challenging sexual harassment – there is need for a deep understanding of gender equity. The development of institutional literacy around policy implementation should be advocated as a capacity-building need.

5.4 Limitations of the study

The absence of a significant proportion of other racial groupings was a serious limitation on the study. Furthermore, the research would have also benefited if homosexuals were represented in greater numbers in the sampled students groupings. Essentially, we can assert emphatically that one of the most conspicuous implications of the study is that since “universities as institutions of higher learning play a major role in the process of establishing new social norms and reproducing old ones”, they are well-positioned “to educate and socialise future professional and intellectual elites” and by so doing instil “in people norms and rules of behaviour” as dictated to by society’s norms. It is thus sensible to view universities as key places where stereotypes are reproduced or, conversely, where stereotypical attitudes are changed” (Vohlidalova, 2011:10).

We thus, argue that the high-frequency level of the students’ association of sexual harassment attitudes as social constructs indicates that there is an urgent need for radical change in attitudes and practices that cause harm and suffering to women ensuing from the wider repercussions embedded in patriarchal norms and practices. Such radical change will largely be made manifest in the curbing of the patriarchal paradigm that tends to devaluation the feminine. Notably, the difference in the attitudes between male students and the female students is crucial in the sense that it exemplifies the differing socialisation of males when compared to the socialisation of females.

Bibliography

- Agyepong, F., Opare, J.A., Owusu-Banahene, N.O., Yarquah, J.A. (2011). The Typology and Magnitude of Sexual Harassment of Female Students in Ghanaian Senior High Schools. 86-1
- American Association of University Women Educational Foundation. (1993). *Hostile Hallways: The AAUW On sexual harassment in America's schools*. Washington, DC: MacMillan Publishers
- Bedward, D. (1999). *Quantitative Methods: A Business Perspective*. Butterworth: Butterworth Heinemann Limited
- Bennett, J. (2002). Sexual violence/sexual harassment: A Handbook of resources. University of Cape Town: African Gender Institute.
- Bennet, S., Farrington, D. P., & Rowell Huesmann, L. (2003). Explaining gender differences in crime and violence: The importance of social cognitive skills. *Aggression & Violent Behaviour*, 10(3), 263-288.
- Bennett, J., Gouws, A., Kritzinger, A., Hames, M., & Tidimane, C. (2007). Hate crimes and homophobia in the lives of black lesbian
- Brace N., Kemp, R. and Snelgar, R. (2003). *SPSS for Psychologist, A guide to Data analyses Using SPSS for Windows Second Edition*. London: Palgrave MacMillan.
- Boyatzis, R. E. (1998). *Transforming Qualitative Information: Thematic Analysis and Code Development*. Thousand Oaks: SAGE Publications.
- Bryman, A. and Cramer, D. (1994). *Quantitative Data Analysis for Social Scientists*. Social Science, London: Chapman & Hall, Incorporated.
- Buchanan, B., Kilby, J.D., Huckell, B.B., O'Brien, M.J., Collard, M. (2012). A morphometric assessment of the intended function of cached Clovis points. 7-2

- Bursik, K. (1992). Perceptions of sexual harassment in an academic context. *Sex Roles*, 27, 410-412.
- Busha, C.H. and Harter, S.P. (1980). *Research Methods in Librarianship: Techniques and Interpretation*. Orlando, FL: Academic Press, Inc.
- Campbell, Donald T., Stanley and Julian C. (2008). *Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Designs for Research*. Chicago, IL: Rand McNally.
- Caputi, P. (2001). Introduction to Quantitative Research Methods: An Investigative Approach (Google Book) in SAGE. CIET Africa. 2000. Beyond victims and villains. The culture of sexual violence in south Johannesburg. Johannesburg: CIET Africa.
- Christensen, L.B. (1997). *Experimental methodology*. USA: Allyn and Bacon.
- City Press, 1 November (2013). Fourth Wits lecturer resigns after sexual harassment case.
- Cortina, L. M., Swan, S., Fitzgerald, L. F., and Waldo, C. (1998). Sexual harassment and assault: Chilling the climate for women in academia. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, (22): 419–441.
- Cortina, M. C., Fitzgerald, L. F. and Drasgow, F. (2002). Contextualizing Latina Experiences Of Sexual Harassment: Preliminary Tests of a Structural Model, *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 24, 295-311.
- Cortina, L. M., & Berdahl, J. (2008). Sexual harassment in organizations: A decade of research in review. In L. Cooper & J. Barling (Eds.) *Handbook of organizational behavior*. (469–97). Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

- Cresswell, J. (1994). *Research design: Qualitative and quantitative approaches*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage publications.
- Crime Information Analysis Centre (CIAC). (2003). *Rape and attempted rape in the RSA for the period January to December 1994- 2002*. Pretoria: South African Police Services Crime Statistics:
- Dall'Ara, E., & Maass, A. (1999). Studying sexual harassment in the laboratory: Are egalitarian women at higher risk? *Sex Roles*, 41, 681-704.
- Daniels, P. I. (2002). *Perceptions of sexual harassment amongst University students: A case of the South African military academy*. Unpublished Masters' Dissertation, University of Stellenbosch, South Africa.
- Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (1995). *Labour Relations Act, Act 66 of 1995*. Pretoria. (Government Gazette, Vol. 378, No. 17678).
- Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (1996). *Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Act 108 of 1996*. Pretoria. (Government Gazette, Vol. 458, No. 25346).
- Dionisi, A.M., Barling, J. and Dupré, K.E. (2012). Revisiting the Comparative Outcomes of Workplace Aggression and Sexual Harassment. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology American Psychological Association*. Vol. 17 (4): 398–408.
- Du, R., & Kamakura, W. (2008). Where did all that money go? Understanding how consumers allocate their consumption budget. *Journal of Marketing*, 72(6), 109-131.
- Duffy, J., Wareham, S., Walsh. (2004). Psychological Consequences for High School Students of Having Been Sexually Harassed, *Behavioural Science*, (50): 811-821

- Dunkle, K. L., Jewkes, R., Nduna, M., Jama, .N. Levin, J., Skweyiya, Y. and Koss, M. P. (2007). Transactional sex with casual and main partners among young South African men in the rural Eastern Cape: Prevalence, predictors and associations with gender- based violence. *Social science and Medicine*. Article in Press. Retrieved May 7, 2007 from <http://www.sciencedirect.com>
- Dyer, C. (1995). *Beginning Research in Psychology. A Practical Guide to Research Methods and Statistics*. United States of America: Blackwell Publishers Ltd.
- European Commission. (1991). Recommendation of 27 November 1991 on the protection of the dignity of women and men at work, including the code of practice to combat sexual harassment. *Office Journal*. (49): 1-8.
- Fitzgerald, L. F., Gelfand, M. J., & Drasgow, F. (1995). Measuring sexual harassment: Theoretical and psychometric advances. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 17, 425–445.
- Fitzgerald, L. F., Swan, S., and Magley, V. (1997). But was it really sexual harassment? Legal behavioral and psychological definitions of the workplace victimization of women. In W. O'Donohue (Ed.), *Sexual harassment: Theory, research and treatment*. (5–28). New York: Allyn & Bacon.
- Finn, (2004). A Survey of Online Harassment at a University Campus, *Journal Of Interpersonal Violence*. (19): 468-483.
- Foulis, D., & McCabe, M. P. (1997). Sexual harassment: Factors affecting attitudes and perceptions. *Sex Roles*, 37, 773–798.

- Fredrickson, B. L. and Roberts, T.A. (1997). "Objectification Theory: Toward understanding women's lived . *Psychology of Women Quarterly* 21 (2): 172–206.
- Fripp,J.,Crozier,S.,Warfield.(2010).Automatic segmentation and quantitative analyses of the articular cartilages from magnetic resonance images of the knee. *IEEE transactions on medical imaging* .29 (1), 55-64.
- Gelfand, M. J., Fitzgerald, L. F., & Drasgow, F. (1995). The structure of sexual harassment: A confirmatory analysis across cultures and settings. *Journal of Vocational Behaviour*, 9, 251-266.
- Gouws, A., & Kritzinger, A. (2007). Dealing with sexual harassment at institutions of higher learning: Policy implementation at a South African university. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 21(1), 68-84.
- Green, B. L., Goodman, L. A., Krupnick, J. L., Corcoran,C. B., Petty, R. M., Stockton, P., & Stern, N. M. (2000). Outcomes of single versus multiple trauma exposure in a screening sample. *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, 13, 271–286.
- Hoffrnan, A. W. (2002). The incidence of traumatic events and trauma-associated symptoms/ experiences amongst tertiary students. *South African Journal of Psychology*. (32): 48-54.
- Huerta,M., Cortina, L. M., Pang, J. S., Torges, C. M.,&Maglev. J. (2006). Sex and power in the academy: Modeling sexual harassment in the lives of college women. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 32, 616–628.
- Huerta, M., Cortina, L.M., Torges, C.M. and Magley, V.J. (2006). Sex and Power in the Academy: *Modeling Sexual Harassment in the Lives of College Women PSPB*, Volume 32 (5): 616-628.

- Human Rights Watch. (2008). www.hrw.org Human Rights Watch 2008 Universal Periodic Review Of South Africa.
- Huysamen, G.K. (1994). *Methodology for the Social and Behavioural Science*. Pretoria: Southern Book Publishers.
- Ishmael Tongai. (2013). Scandal highlights sexual abuse at universities Issue No: 267.
- Jewkes R., Sen, P., & Garcia-Moreno, C. (2002). In E. Krug, L. L. Dahlberg, J. A. Mercy, A. BZwi, & R. Lozano (Eds.), *World report on violence and health* (pp. 213-239) Geneva: World Health Organization Report.
- Labour Relations Act, Act 66 of 1995.
- Lawson, A. K.; Wright, C.V., Fitzgerald, L. F. (2013). The evaluation of sexual harassment litigants: Reducing discrepancies in the diagnosis of posttraumatic stress disorder. *Law and Human Behavior*, 37(5): 337-347.
- Lichty, L.F., Torres, J.M.C., Valenti, M.T., Buchanan, N.T. (2008). Sexual Harassment, Prevention, Citation: *Sexual Harassment Policies in K-12 schools*, (78): 607-614.
- Kenig, S. and Ryan. (1986). Sex Differences in Level Tolerance and Attribution of Blame of Sexual Harassment on University Campus: *Sex Roles* 15 (9/10), 535-546.
- Kelley, M. L., Parsons. (2000). Sexual Harassment in the 1990s: A University-Wide Survey of Female Faculty, Administrators, Staff, and Students, *the Journal of Higher Education*, (71): 548-568
- Knapp, D. E., Faley, R. H., Ekeberg, S. E., & Dubois, C. L. Z.(1997). Determinants of target responses to sexual harassment: A conceptual framework. *Academy of Management Review*, 22: 687-729.

- Konrad, A.M., and Gutek, B.A. (1986). Impact of Work Experience on Attitude towards Sexual Harassment. (424-431).
- Kottler, Amanda, Long, Carol. (1997). Discourses, videos and talk about sexual violence: A multi-disciplinary enterprise. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 00812463, 19970601,(27): 2
- Krebs CP, Lindquist CH, Warner TD, Fisher BS, Martin SL. (2007).The campus sexual assault (CSA)study (Final report submitted to the National Institute of Justice) Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Justice, Office of Justice Programs, National Institute of Justice; 2007.
- Kreuger, R. A. (1988). Focus groups: A practical guide for applied research. London.
- Sigal, J., Gibbs, M. S., Goodrich, C., Rashid, T., Anjum, A., Hsu, D., et al. (2005). Cross-cultural reactions to academic sexual harassment: Effect of individualist vs. collectivist culture and gender of participants. *Sex Roles*, 52, 201–215.
- Street, A. E., Gradus, J. L., Stafford, J., & Kelly, K. (2007). Gender differences in experiences of sexual harassment: Data from a male dominated environment. *Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology*,75, 464–474. doi:10.1037/0022-006X.75.3.464
- Leskinen,E.A.,Cortina,L.M.,Kabat,D.B.(2010).Gender harassment :Broadening Our Understanding of Sex-based Harassment at Work.
- Maass, A., Cadinu, M., Guarnieri, G., & Grasselli, A.(2003). Sexual harassment under social identity threat: The computer harassment paradigm. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 85, 853–870.
- MacKinnon, C. A. (1979). Sexual harassment of working women: A case of sex discrimination. New Haven, CT: Yale University Press.

- Malovich, N.J. & Stake, J.E. (1990). Sexual harassment on campus: Individual differences in attitudes and beliefs. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*. (14) 63-81.
- Mathews, S, Abrahams, N, Martin, LJ, Vetten, L, van der Merwe, L and Jewkes, R. (2004). "Every six hours a woman is killed by her intimate partner": A National Study of Female Homicide in South Africa. MRC Policy brief no. 5, June 2004.
- Mayekiso, T.V., & Bhana, K. (1997). Sexual harassment: Perceptions and experiences of the University of Transkei. *South African Journal of Psychology*, 24(4), 230-235.
- Mazer, D.B. and Percival, E.F. (1989). The Relationships among Perceptions, Attitudes, and Experiences of Sexual Harassment in University Students, *Sex Roles* (20): 135- 147.
- McKinney, K. (1990). Sexual Harassment of University Faculty by Colleagues and Students, *Sex Roles*. (23): 397-411.
- McDermut, J.F., Haaga, D.A.F. and Lirk, L. (2000). An Evaluation of Stress Symptoms Associated with Academic Sexual Harassment, *Journal of Traumatic Stress*, (13): 397-411.
- McKinney. (1992). Contra power Sexual Harassment: The Effects of Student Sex and Type of Behaviour on Faculty Perceptions, *Sex Roles*, (27): 627-643.
- Michael, J, A. and C, W, R Hedges, V, L. (2012). *Research Methods and Methodologies in Education*, SAGE Publisher. Morgan, D. L. 1988. Focus groups as qualitative research. Beverly Hills: SAGE Publications. Myers, M.D. (1997, May 20). Qualitative research in information systems. *MISQ*.
- Morgan, P., & Gruber, J. (2005). *In the company of men: Re-discovering the links between sexual harassment and male domination*. Boston: Northeastern University Press.

- Mutinta, G. (2015). An Exploratory Study of the Relationship between Alcohol Use and Sexual Risk Behaviour among Students at the University of Kwazulu-Natal, *Journal of AIDS and Clinical Research*, 6:1
- Naidoo, L. R., Rajab, D.R. (1992). A survey of sexual harassment and related issues Among University Student at university of Natal, Durban campus, *Student Counselling*, 1-26.
- Nantais, C., and Lee, M.F. (1999). Women in the United States Military: Protectors or protected? *Journal of Gender Studies* (8): 181-191.
- Nene, M.S.S. (2010). A study on a narrative investigation into personal experiences of sexually harassed students at the University of Zululand.
- Oemerold, A, J., Collinsworth, L.L. and Perry, L.A. (2008). Critical Climate Relations Among Sexual harassment, Climate, and Outcomes for High School Girls and Boys, *American Psychology Association*. (32):113-125.
- Patten, M.L. and Newhart. (2017). *Understanding research methods: An overview of the essentials: Tenth Edition*. New York and London.
- Peirce, E. R., Rosen, B., and Hiller, T. B. (1997). Breaking the silence: Creating user-friendly sexual harassment policies. *Employee Responsibilities and Rights Journal*. (10): 225–242.
- Petersen, I. Bhana, A., & McKay, M. (2005). Sexual Violence and Youth in SA: The need for Community-based prevention interventions. *Child Abuse & Neglect*, (29): 1233-1248.
- Prinsloo, S. (2006). Sexual Harassment and Violence in South African Schools, *South African Journal of education*. (26): 305-318.
- Pryor, J.B. (1987). Sex Roles: Sexual Harassment Proclivities in Men, *17(5/6)*: 269-274.

- Quinn, D. M., Kallen, R. W., Twenge, J. M., & Fredrickson, B. L. (2006). The disruptive effect of self-objectification on performance. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 30, 59 – 64.
doi:10.1111/j.1471-6402.2006.00262.
- Ragins, B. R. and Scandura, T. A. (1996). Antecedents of work-related correlates of reported sexual harassment: An empirical investigation of competing hypotheses. *Sex Roles*. (32): 429–455.
- Ramphele, M., Molteno, F., Simons, M. and Sutherland, C. (1991). Final Report: Committee of Enquiry into sexual harassment. University of Cape Town: South Africa.
- Reilly, M. E., Loth, B. and Gallogly, (1986). Sexual harassment of University Student, *Sex Roles*. (15): 333-358.
- Roark, M.L. (1987). Preventing Violence on College Campuses: *Journal of Counselling Development*. (65): 367-369.
- Robinson, S. L., & Bennett, R. J. (1995). A typology of deviant workplace behaviors: A multidimensional scaling study. *Academy of Management Journal*, 38, 555–572.
doi:10.2307/256693
- Ross, J. (1999). Ways to approaching research. Available: <http://fortunecity.com/greenfield/grizzly432/rra3.htm> last accessed: 03 March 2013.
- Roosmalen, E. and McDaniel, S.A. (2008). Sexual Harassment in Academia: a Hazard to Women's Health, *Women and Health*. (28): 33-54.
- Rotundo, M., Nguyen, D. H., & Sackett, P. R. (2001). A meta-analytic review of gender differences in perceptions of sexual harassment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86, 914–922.

- Sabitha, M & Khadijah, M. (2004). Understanding and Managing Sexual Harassment At Higher Learning Institutions: A Malaysian Case. Proceeding Management Education Excellence: The New Frontiers, Universiti Utara Malaysia.
- Sabitha, M. (2008). Sexual harassment awareness and training at workplace: Can it effect administrators' perception? JOAAG, Vol. 3. No.2
- Sadkar, M. and Sadkar, D. (1986). Sexism in the Classroom: From Grade School to Graduate School, *Women in Education*, (67): 512-515.
- Santock, J.W. (2006). Life-Span Development. New York: McGraw –International Edition.
- Schneider, K.T., Fitzgerald, L.F., &Swan, S. (1997). Job Related and Psychological Effects Of Sexual Harassment. Empirical Evidence: *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 82(3): 401-415.
- Sexual Harassment Fact Sheet 14. (2005). Retrieved 11 March 2008 from http://www.genderlinks.org.za/attachment_view.php?pa_id=123.
- Shepela, S.T. and Levesque, L.L. (1998). Poison Waters Sexual Harassment and the College Climate: *Sex Roles*, (38): 589-611.
- Smith, E. and Du Blessis, V. (2011). Sexual Harassment in the Educational Sector, *Educational Psychology*. (14): 173-217.
- Snydera, J, A., Schererb, H, L., Bonnie S. and Fisherc, B, S. (2012). Work 42. 137–150 DOI 10.3233/WOR- 2012-1325 IOS Press. Accessed on Source: Sapa /san/tk/clh. Date: 22 Apr 2013 08:58. Workplace Student Guidance and Counselling Unit. 1993. Sexual harassment: an ignored reality of Unitra campus. (October-December). Reprographics: University of Transkei.

- Steenkamp, F, R. (2010). The prevalence of sexual harassment within a student sample of Stellenbosch University.
- Stone, M. and Couch. (2004). Peer Sexual Harassment among High School Students: Teachers' Attitudes, Perceptions, and Responses. (88)1-13.
- Till, F. 1980. Sexual harassment: A report on the sexual harassment of students. Washington, D.C. National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- UNDP & UNESCO. (2010). Educational for all. Reaching the marginalised. <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0018/001866/186606E>. 2013.03.15
- U.S. Department of Defense. (2004). Task force report on care for victims of sexual assault.
- Waldo, C.R. (1998). Out on Campus: Sexual Orientation and Academic Climate in a University Context, *American Journal of Community Psychology*. (26): 745-774.
- Walsh, Margaret, Duffy, Jim, Gallagher-Duffy, Joanne. (2007). A more accurate Approach To measuring the prevalence of sexual harassment among high school Students, *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science* (39): 110-118.
- Washington, DC: Author. (2005). U.S. Department of Defense Inspector General. Report on sexual harassment and assault at the U.S. Air Force Academy. Washington, DC: Author.
- Van Jaarsveld, D., Frost, A. C., & Walker, D. (2007). The Canadian contact centre industry: Strategy, work organization, and human resource management. Vancouver, BC: University of British Columbia.
- Vogt, D., Bruce, A.E., Street, A.E. and Stafford. (1995). Attitudes Towards women and Tolerance for Sexual Harassment among Reservist. (13): 879-900.

Vohlidalova, M. (2011). *The Perception and Construction of Sexual Harassment*. Wellesley Centers for Women, Wellesely College Stone Center.

Wright, W. and Fitzburg. (2008). Angry and Afraid: Women's Appraisal of Sexual Harassment during Litigation, *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, (32) 113–125.

Yin, R.K. (1994). *Case Study Research: Design and Methods* (2nd. Ed.) Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage Publications Inc.

Ziyane, I. S. (2006). Gender- based violence against Swazi women. *Africa Journal of Nursing and Midwifery*, 8 (1): 43- 54.

Appendix 1



Understanding sexual harassment attitudes Questionnaire

Section A: Demographic Questions

Gender

Male	
Female	

Age

20-22 years	
23-25 years	
26-29 years	
30+	

Race

African		White	
Coloured		Other	
Asian			

School matriculated

Rural school	
Township school	
Old Model C-school (mixed race)	
Missionary school	

Private school	
----------------	--

Academic year

1 st year	
2 nd year	
3 rd year	
4 th year	
5 th year	
6 th year	

Age	
Campus	
Gender	
Religion	
Sexual Orientation	

Section B: Attitudes

The purpose of this questionnaire is to examine relationships between male student and female students. You will read two scenarios involving male student and female students. Each will follow a set of questions consisting of statements about the scenario presented. There are no rights or wrong answers, only opinions. If u is unsure about the answer, just indicate the response that fit your opinion.

Scenario 1

Suppose that you or a close women friend of yours is attending classes on this campus. After a class one day, a male student asks you to come to his room to discuss your grade with him. When you get there he notes that you barely passed and in danger of failing the course. He then tell u how in length much he how much he enjoys attending with u classes, leading up to dinner invitation. He states if you “get to know each other better, “he might be able to work something out so that you can get better grades.

The following are a number of statements about the situation that might help to explain why the above incidence occurred. Rate your agreement with each of the following comments. Mark your answer on the answer sheet that best describe your feelings. Use the following key:

0 = strongly disagree 1 =Moderate disagree 2 =somewhat disagree

4 =somewhat agree 5 =Moderate agree

1. The female student is probably hoping that getting to know the male student personally will help her get a better grade in the course.
2. The male student probably means no harm so it should not be taken seriously.
3. The male student uses his gender unfairly to pressure the student in to dating him.
4. The male student is responding to normal sexual attraction and cannot be blamed for his action in a situation.
5. The male student's actions were unethical and could be harmful to his fellow student.
6. The female student is most likely to flirtatious type who enjoys getting attention from male students.

The following are a number of statements describing possible ways that you could deal with the situation. Mark the number on your answer sheet that best describe your feelings.

Use the following key:

0 = strongly disagree 1 = Moderate disagree 2 = somewhat disagree

4 = somewhat agree 5 = Moderate agree

7. Change the subject and try to forget about the conversation.
8. Go to dinner with a male student and talk over problem that you have in class.
9. Continue to work hard and in class and avoid any individual conversation with that male student.

10. Tell the male student that you are not interested in a personal relationship and this should have nothing to do with your grade in the course.
11. See the male student on social basis if he interested in helping you.
12. Go to the department student housing and tell him/her about male student actions.

Below is a set of word pairs that describe how you or close women friend might feel about this experience. The two feeling in each pair are separated by 7-point scale, with one word on each side of the scale. For each word pair, mark the number on your answer sheet what is closest to how you think you, your friend might feel.

- | | | |
|-----------------|---------------|---------------|
| 13. Insulted | 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 | Flattered |
| 14. Pleased | 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 | Angry |
| 15. Comfortable | 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 | Uncomfortable |
| 16. Relaxed | 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 | Nervous |
| 17. Intimidated | 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 | Powerful |
| 18. Embarrassed | 0 1 2 3 4 5 6 | Proud |

Scenario 2

Suppose that you or a close female friend of yours is attending classes in this campus. Through the course of the semester you noticed that one male student is staring at you. When talking to him after a class one day about upcoming exam, a male student put his arm around you (or other female friend) and touches your hair. He suggests that you come to his room so that the exam can be discussed further.

Appendix 2

Study Information Sheet

The Research Study

We are asking you to participate in a research study aim is to investigate attitudes towards sexual harassment amongst University students in Campus Residence. The study will be conducted by researchers from the School of Criminology and Forensic Studies.

What are we trying to learn?

Examine student's attitudes towards sexual harassment on campus residence.

The nature and types of sexual harassment existing at the Campus Residences

Understand the reason behind why the majority of cases of sexual harassment are not reported to authorities (Campus Control or SAPS).

Why is it important?

This study is important because it will provide the knowledge of what constitutes sexual harassment amongst Campus residence students, determine the levels of sexual harassment at the Howard College Campus Residences, establish the nature and types of sexual harassment existing at the Campus Residences, if perpetrators of these sexual harassment offences are ever brought to justice, establish whether there are support structures for the victims of sexual harassment. Lastly, make recommendations in an attempt to ameliorate problems identified in relation to sexual harassment at Campuses.

Who will be involved and how long will it last?

The students from University of KwaZulu-Natal (Howard Campus residence).The interviews will be conducted at the University.

What will it mean if you participate in the study?

If you agree to participate in this study you will be asked to answer a number of questions about your attitudes towards sexual harassment and related questions. If you are thought to suffer psychological you will sit for an hour long interview during which a research assistant will ask questions on attitudes towards sexual harassment. This information will be used to inform the development of appropriate counselling interventions and development of measures in dealing with sexual harassment.

Is there any disadvantage from participating in this study?

There is the possibility that you may be depressed yourself or that participation in the study may remind you of a time that you were depressed. If you get distressed by this, there is psychological help in place for participants of this study.

What if I change my mind later?

You are free to withdraw at any stage from participating in the study and your decision will not disadvantage you in any way.

Who will see the information that we collected?

All records will be kept completely confidential. Your identity will be anonymous and following analysis of the data, the tapes and transcripts will be destroyed. The data will only be seen by the researchers and investigators.

This research interview schedule is voluntary and taking part to answering the questions provided does not enable one to get any kind of rewards. Any person who is taking part in answering the

questions of this interview should feel free to withdraw when they feel that they cannot continue with the program. All the information that is going to be obtained by this interview will be treated confidential and by no means would anyone be forced to enter their legitimate names.

Investigator's Name: Tsepo Goodman Mulauli

For further information you may use you may contact me or my supervisor on the following numbers: **0723507901 and 031 2607617**

Yours Faithfully Tsepo Mulauli



SCHOOL OF APPLIED HUMAN SCIENCES

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

Criminology Masters Research Project

Researcher's Name : Tsepo Goodman Mulauli
Telephone number : 0723507901/ 0782199105
Supervisor's Name : Dr. De Wet
Office Telephone number : 0722256626

Dear Respondent

I, _____ agree to participate in the research study on attitudes toward sexual harassment of female students by male students in a University campus reside. I have received and understood the study information sheet. I have discussed the advantages and disadvantages of participating in the study and I agree to participate in the interviews as stated in the information sheet.

If you have any questions or concerns about this interview or about participating in this study, you may contact me or my supervisor at the numbers listed above.

The interview should take you about ten minutes to complete. I hope you will take the time to complete this interview.

Yours Sincerely

Investigator's Signature.....

Consent to participate.....

You may keep one copy of this form. The other copy will remain in our study files.

Consent letter to Department of Housing (UKZN) Howard College Campus.



SCHOOL OF APPLIED HUMAN SCIENCES

Letter Requesting Permission to Conduct a Study at (UKZN) Howard College Campus

Criminology Masters Research Project

Researcher's Name : Tsepo Goodman Mulauli

Telephone number : 0723507901

Supervisor's Name : Dr. DeWet

Office Telephone number : 0722256626

To whom it may concern

My name is Tsepo Goodman Mulauli. I'm a student in the School of Criminology and Forensic Studies, at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, currently registered for a Masters in Criminology. As part of the degree requirement I'm conducting a research on the investigation into attitudes toward sexual harassment of female students by male students in a University campus. Further investigate psychological factors associated with sexual harassment in educational settings. To achieve this, the study will also investigate attitudes regarding sexual behaviours, responses to sexual harassment once it has been reported, and effects of sexual harassment on its victim. I hereby request your permission to allow students to participate in a survey that will be conducted at Howard College campus.

If you allow students to participate they will be required to fill out a questionnaire. The information that will be given by students will be anonymous and confidential. The information given by

students will be used for research purposes only. The information obtained from the study may help the university to develop interventions on sexual harassment.

Yours Faithfully

Tsepo Mulauli (Mr)