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FACULTY OF HUMANITIES AND SOCIAL SCIENCES**

**AN EXAMINATION OF THE SOCIAL CONTEXT OF SEXUAL VICTIMISATION
OF FEMALE STUDENTS IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING IN
KWAZULU-NATAL (DURBAN)**

By

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Declaration

I, Mandisa S. Makhaye, hereby declare that:

- (i) The research reported in this dissertation is my own unaided work.
- (ii) This research has not been submitted for any degree or examination at any other university.
- (iii) The sources have been properly referenced both in text, and in the reference section.

Signature:

Date:

Dedication

This work is dedicated to students who enter university hoping for a better future but leave tormented by the detrimental effects of sexual victimisation.

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To God be the glory. Nkulunkulu kaShembe, Nyazilwezulu! I was blessed with good health, safety, courage, and support in all dimensions throughout the journey. I am grateful to the Lord for fulfilling his promises in Jeremiah 29:11.

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List of Abbreviations and Acronyms

CCTV	Closed-Circuit Television
CIAC	Crime Information Analysis Centre
CSA	Campus Sexual Assault
DHET	Department of Higher Education
DoJ & CD	Department of Justice and Constitutional Development
DVA	Domestic Violence Act
GBV	Gender-Based Violence
HBCU	Historically Black College and University
HEIs	Higher Education Institutions
HIV	Human Immunodeficiency Virus
HoD	Head of Department
IPV	Intimate Partner Violence
ITSO	Integrated Theory of Sexual Offending
KZN	KwaZulu-Natal
NCS	National Crime Survey
NCVS	National Crime Victimization Survey
NPA	National Prosecuting Authority
PSET	Post-School Education and Training
PTSD	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder

RA	Residence Assistant
RAT	Routine Activity Theory
RMS	Risk Management Services
SA	South Africa
SADC	Southern African Development Community
SAPS	South African Police Service
SES	Sexual Expression Survey
SRC	Student Representative Council
STD	Sexually Transmitted Disease
STI	Sexually Transmitted Infection
TVET	Technical and Vocational Education and Training
UKZN	University of KwaZulu-Natal
UNAIDS	United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS
VIVA	Value Inertia Visibility Access
VOCS	Victims of Crime Survey
WHO	World Health Organization

List of Tables

Table 1: Total sexual offences recorded in South Africa in 2019/20.

Table 2: Policy and legislation summary table.

List of Figures

Figure 1: Sexual offences: Worst Precincts in 2016 (Provincial)

Figure 2: Sivertsen et al. (2019) study in Norway University.

Figure 3: Campaign Tweets by relative gender distribution.

Figure 4: Institution A's reporting protocol as outlined in the GBV policy.

Figure 5: Schematic illustration of the ITSO, as adapted in Ward and Beech (2006).

Abstract

Sexual victimisation is a serious violation of human rights, as well as a safety and public health concern. It does not only occur in one dimension or among a specific race group, but it affects all classes, races, settings, and circumstances. The aim of the study is to uncover the social context of the phenomenon of sexual victimisation in three selected institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal (Durban). The study's objectives are to investigate the nature of sexual victimisation against female students in Durban's selected universities; to determine the contributing factors to sexual victimisation against female students; to investigate the effects of sexual victimisation on female students; to investigate the lack of reporting of sexual victimisation by female students; and to evaluate the usefulness of current strategies for policing sexual offences in the selected universities. The Routines Activities Theory and the Integrated Theory of Sexual Offending guide the research. Both theories explain sexual victimisation in terms of the victim and the perpetrator, highlighting the explicit factors that contribute to the prevalence of sexual victimisation. A total of 46 participants were purposively sampled from three universities in Durban, and data was collected through interviews and thematically analysed. According to this study, incapacitated sexual victimisation is more common on campus than forcible rape, in which perpetrators use threats or physical force. This could be attributed to both the victim's and the perpetrator's excessive alcohol consumption and drug use. Victimisation can lead to social withdrawal, trauma, depression, and poor academic performance. Furthermore, some victims are infected with sexually transmitted infections (STIs) and sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), while others become pregnant. Furthermore, the study discovers that Student Representative Council (SRC) and lecturers abuse their power by requesting sexual favours from female students in exchange for securing a residence or grades. Statistics on sexual victimisation are unreliable because young female students are reluctant to report sexual victimisation to authorities. Some of the reasons for non-reporting include a fear of secondary victimisation and a lack of trust in institutions. According to the study's recommendations, the curriculum should include sex education to instil an understanding of consent and to foster dialogue and consistent awareness of sexual victimisation within the institution. Additionally, policies should be efficiently implemented according to the stipulated objectives. Furthermore, the study recommends upgrading security measures, establishing a gender-based violence (GBV) centre, capacitating security personnel to deal with cases of sexual victimisation, and forming a partnership with the South African Police Service (SAPS) to encourage a transparent and efficient investigation process. Finally, institutions should implement an online reporting portal to create a safe space for victims to report.

Keywords: Institutions of higher learning, female student, sexual victimisation, perpetrator, underreporting.

Table of Contents

Declaration.....	i
Dedication.....	ii
Acknowledgements.....	iii
List of Abbreviations and Acronyms.....	v
List of Tables.....	vii
List of Figures.....	vii
Abstract.....	viii
CHAPTER ONE.....	1
GENERAL ORIENTATION AND INTRODUCTION.....	1
1. Introduction.....	1
2. Preliminary Literature and Topic Choice.....	5
2.1. Conceptualisation of terms.....	7
3. Research Objectives and Questions.....	9
3.1. Research Objectives.....	9
3.2. Research Questions.....	9
3.3. Originality/New Knowledge.....	10
4. Theoretical Framework.....	10
4.1. The Routines Activities Theory (RAT).....	11
4.2. Integrated Theory of Sexual Offending.....	11
5. Research Methodology and Methods.....	12
5.1. Sampling.....	13
5.2. Data collection.....	14
5.3. Data Analysis.....	15
6. Ethical Considerations.....	15
7. Structure of Dissertation.....	16
CHAPTER TWO.....	18
LITERATURE REVIEW.....	18
2.1. Introduction.....	18

2.2.	International developments on sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning	19
2.3.	United States of America	20
2.4.	China	21
2.5.	Chile.....	23
2.6.	Norway.....	24
2.7.	Sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning in Africa	25
2.8.	Malawi	26
2.9.	Nigeria.....	28
2.10.	Ethiopia	28
2.11.	Ghana	29
2.12.	Sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning in South Africa.....	30
2.13.	Sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal	33
2.14.	Contributory risk factors associated with the sexual victimisation of female students	34
2.14.1.	Drug and alcohol abuse.....	35
2.14.2.	Personality and lifestyle	36
2.14.3.	Intimate relationships.....	37
2.14.4.	Safety and security measures of the institution.....	38
2.14.5.	Childhood sexual victimisation.....	40
2.14.6.	Gender norms/roles and ideology	41
2.14.7.	Sexual orientation	43
2.14.8.	Culture of violence.....	44
2.14.9.	Perpetrators of female sexual victimisation.	46
2.15.	The effects of sexual victimisation.....	48
2.16.	Underreporting of female sexual victimisation	50
2.17.	Monitoring of sexual victimisation	53
2.18.	The media and sexual victimisation	55
2.19.	Chapter Summary.....	57
	CHAPTER 3	58

POLICY AND LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK GUIDING SEXUAL VICTIMISATION..	58
3.1. Introduction.....	58
Table 3: Summary of legislation and policy	58
3.2. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa	59
3.3. Domestic Violence Act No. 116 OF 1998	61
3.4. Criminal Law (Sexual Assault and Related Matters) Amendment Act NO.32 Of 2007 61	
3.5. National sexual assault policy.....	62
3.6. Policy framework to address Gender-Based Violence in the post-school education and training system.....	64
3.7. Institutional policies for the three selected institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu- Natal (Durban)	65
3.7.1. Institution A’s policy on sexual harassment	65
Forms of sexual harassment.....	66
3.7.2. Institution A’s Gender-Based Violence Policy	67
3.7.3. Institution B’s Harassment, Gender-Based Violence and Bullying policy	69
3.7.4. Institutions C policy	70
3.8. Chapter summary	70
CHAPTER FOUR.....	72
THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS FOR UNDERSTANDING SEXUAL VICTIMISATION	72
4.1. Introduction.....	72
4.2. Routine Activity Theory	73
4.3. Motivated Offender.....	74
4.4. Suitable Target.....	75
4.5. Lack of Guardianship.....	77
4.6. Integrated Theory of Sexual Offending	79
4.7. Biological Functioning.....	81
4.8. The Ecological Niche.....	82
4.9. The Psychological System	83

4.10.	Clinical symptoms.....	86
4.11.	Personal Agency.....	86
4.12.	Chapter Summary.....	88
CHAPTER FIVE		89
RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY		89
5.1.	Introduction.....	89
5.2.	Research Design.....	89
5.3.	Exploratory Research Design	90
5.4.	Research Approach	90
5.5.	Study Sites	91
5.5.1.	Institution A	91
5.5.2.	Institution B	91
5.5.3.	Institution C	92
5.6.	Access.	92
5.7.	Study Population.....	93
5.7.1.	Key informant	94
5.7.2.	Sampling Procedure	94
5.7.3.	Non-Probability.....	94
5.7.4.	Purposive sampling.....	95
5.7.5.	Snowball sampling.....	95
5.7.6.	Recruitment of participants.....	96
5.7.7.	Inclusion criteria	97
5.7.8.	Exclusion criteria	98
5.8.	Data collection	98
5.8.1.	Interviews.....	98
5.8.1.1.	<i>Semi-Structured interviews</i>	99
5.8.1.2.	<i>Open-ended questions</i>	100
5.8.2.	Interview schedule	100
5.8.3.	Audio recording	101
5.8.4.	Active listening	102
5.9.	Data analysis	103

5.9.1.	Transcription of interview recording	103
5.9.2.	Inductive data analysis	104
5.9.3.	Thematic data analysis	104
5.9.4.	Coding	105
5.9.5.	Themes	106
5.9.6.	Patterns.....	106
5.9.7.	Analytic memos	107
5.9.8.	Generalisability of findings.....	108
5.9.9.	Limitations	108
5.9.9.1.	<i>Student protests in February 2020</i>	108
5.9.9.2.	<i>Breakout of the COVID-19 pandemic in March 2020</i>	109
5.9.9.3.	<i>Unavailable participants</i>	109
5.9.10.	Rigour in qualitative research: Ensuring Trustworthiness	109
5.9.11.	Confirmability	109
5.9.12.	Credibility	110
5.9.13.	Reliability.....	111
5.9.14.	Transferability	111
5.9.15.	Ethical Consideration.....	111
5.9.16.	Bias	112
5.9.17.	Gatekeepers.....	112
5.9.18.	Informed Consent and Voluntary Participation	112
5.9.19.	Privacy, Confidentiality and Anonymity	113
5.9.20.	The use of Pseudonyms.....	114
5.9.21.	Protection from Harm	114
5.9.22.	Documentation and Storage of Data	115
5.9.23.	Debriefing the Gatekeepers and participants after results have been documented	115
5.9.24.	Accountability.....	116
5.9.25.	Audience	116
5.9.26.	Chapter Summary	117
CHAPTER 6		118
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION.....		118
6.1.	Introduction.....	118
6.2.	Understanding sexual victimisation and providing examples of sexual victimisation	

6.3.	Social context of sexual victimisation	121
6.3.1.	Nature and seriousness.....	121
6.3.2.	Common times of occurrence	122
6.3.3.	Common locations at the institution	123
6.4.	Perceived perpetrators of sexual victimisation	124
6.5.	Contributory factors to sexual victimisation.....	129
6.5.1.	Alcohol consumption and drug use/abuse.....	129
6.5.2.	Lack of education about consent and sexual victimisation	131
6.5.3.	Background and socialization of students.....	132
6.5.4.	Intimate partner violence	135
6.5.5.	Continued abuse of power dynamics by senior students and staff members	137
6.6.	Effects of sexual victimisation on the victim.....	141
6.6.1.	Social withdrawal from family, friends and university activities	142
6.6.2.	Experiencing trauma, stress and depression.....	143
6.6.3.	Poor academic performance.....	145
6.6.4.	Contracting STIs, STDs and unwanted pregnancy.	145
6.7.	Effects of sexual victimisation on the staff and student community of the institution	146
6.8.	Reasons for underreporting of sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning	147
6.8.1.	Lack of knowledge of what constitutes sexual victimisation.....	148
6.8.2.	Self-blame, shame and fear of perpetrator	149
6.8.3.	Fear of secondary victimisation	150
6.8.4.	Lack of trust in university support structures.....	151
6.9.	Usefulness of existing strategies for policing sexual victimisation.	153
6.10.	Chapter Summary.....	157
CHAPTER 7		158
CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS		158
7.1.	Introduction.....	158
7.2.	Understanding the social context of sexual victimisation.....	158
7.3.	Situating Perpetrators of sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning.....	159
7.4.	Causes of sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning	160

7.5.	Effects of sexual victimisation on the female students	161
7.6.	The underreporting of sexual victimisation	163
7.7.	Recommendations.....	164
7.7.1.	Improvement in institutional policies pertaining to sexual victimisation	164
7.7.2.	Embedding of sex education in the curriculum at entry level modules	164
7.7.3.	Creation of dialogue with students to build awareness and promote information sharing 165	
7.7.4.	Employing permanent visible awareness	166
7.7.5.	Upgrading security system in residences and access gates of the institution.....	167
7.7.6.	Creating an anonymous reporting online portal for victims	167
7.7.7.	Expanding student counselling divisions to accommodate greater number of students .	168
7.7.8.	Capacitating and training protective staff members.....	169
7.7.9.	Enacting of a Gender-Based Violence office that specialises in cases of sexual victimisation.....	169
7.7.10.	Forming a partnership with the South African Police Service community policing division. 170	
7.8.	Recommendations for future research	171
7.9.	Chapter Summary	171
	References.....	173
	Appendix A: UKZN Ethical Clearance	195
	Appendix B: UKZN Recertification Ethical Approval.....	196
	Appendix C: Informed Consent Form	197
	Appendix D: Interview Schedule.....	199
	Appendix E: Acknowledgment of Editing.....	201

CHAPTER ONE

GENERAL ORIENTATION AND INTRODUCTION

1. Introduction

Among the many other crimes that plague university campuses, sexual violence/ rape remains one of the many problematic yet overlooked crimes. According to studies, women and girls are far more likely to be victims, and in most cases, the perpetrator is known to the victim. Sexual victimisation is defined as any unwanted sexual contact induced by coercion, intimidation, incapacity, threat of force, or force, ranging from fondling to full-fledged intercourse (National Institute of Justice, 2017; Rape, Abuse & Incest National Network, 2019). Furthermore, Krebs, Lindquist, Berzofsky, Shook-Sa, Peterson, Planty, Langton and Stroop (2016) define sexual violence as “any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed against a person’s sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work’, sexual violence is negatively skewed against girls and women.” As explained by South Africa's very broad legal definition of rape, these definitions result in different classifications of sexual violence. In December 2007, the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act 32 of 2007 went into effect, creating a number of "new" sexual offences. In addition, it broadened the definition of rape. According to the Act, "any person ('A') who unlawfully and intentionally commits an act of sexual penetration with a complainant ('B') without B's consent is guilty of rape" (Stats SA, 2015/16). This includes oral, anal, or vaginal penetration of a person with a genital organ, anal or vaginal penetration with any object, and oral, anal, or vaginal penetration of a person with an animal's genital organs.

Since the terms sexual violence, sexual assault, sexual harassment, nonconsensual sex, and rape have been used interchangeably in the literature, they will be used interchangeably in this study. This study acknowledges that sexual acts in higher education institutions have a negative impact on female students. By focusing on one act, the prevalence of many others that are problematic in nature is undermined. Using a variety of sexual behaviours, on the other hand, broadens the definition and prevalence. As a result, the term "victimisation" was chosen for this study. Victimization in this study encompasses a wide range of invasive verbal and

physical sexual acts on the recipient, including sexual comments, sexual advances, fondling, touching, sharing pornographic material, attempted rape, and completed rape. It is imperative to have an understanding of this term as Hamblin (2018) argues that, our collective inability to distinguish between types of sexual violence may result in a misunderstanding of the significance of the problem.

This emphasis on women does not negate the fact that men are victims of sexual violence as well, but for the purposes of this study, much attention will be paid to only female students. According to Dartnall (2013), historically, much of our knowledge about sexual violence has been based on research conducted in high-income countries. This is changing, however, with the emergence of high-quality studies from other settings, particularly Africa. Bonnie Fisher conducted a survey of thousands of college women and discovered that coeds are at a higher risk of sexual assault than women in the general population (Fisher, 2001). Improved research is critical, with the goal of uncovering the actual social context and explaining the pattern of sexual victimisation, as well as discovering why victims frequently choose to remain silent about it. In South Africa, for example, one in every 25 women who have been raped has ever reported it to the police (Jewkes & Abraham, 2002). This is clearly a problem, and action is required.

Given (2008) defines social context as the specific setting in which social interaction occurs. Furthermore, social context includes specific, often one-of-a-kind meanings and interpretations assigned by members of the given group. In South Africa, as elsewhere in the world, there is a growing awareness that, as microcosms of society, universities reflect broader societal experiences of Gender-Based Violence (Finchilescu and Dugard, 2021). The purpose of this research is to investigate the social context of student sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning. Understanding the social context of a specific setting necessitates that researchers seek to understand and interpret meaning through the eyes of those in the setting, rather than meaning through the eyes of the researcher. The correct information is obtained as a result of this, which influences successful future interventions that target the main discussed problems that the participants share with the researcher.

To contextualise the problem of sexual victimisation in higher education institutions, a final year University of KwaZulu Natal Medical School student, completing her medical degree was found raped and murdered in her room at the St Hillier Court student residence in Umbilo

(Madlala, 2013). Moreover, an alleged gang rape of a University of Zululand (UNIZULU) student has raised concerns that universities are not doing enough to prevent campus attacks on women. On Monday, March 23, 2015, three men were arrested for the rape of a 20-year-old student in one of the institution's residences (Mkhabela, 2015). According to the findings of a previous study conducted by Makhaye (2016), sexual victimisation against predominantly women at university institutions is a serious problem, owing to the fact that universities lack effective ways to curb or deal with such situations. The seriousness of this problem was assessed based on participant responses, which indicated that they were concerned about the ever-increasing rates and needed an intervention because they were affected by it in some way as students.

The National Crime Victimization Survey (NCVS) results have consistently shown that rape and sexual assault are the most commonly underreported violent crimes. Relying on official estimates, which omit many incidents of sexual victimisation, leads to an incorrect emphasis on just the rates, disregarding the actual social context of the phenomenon, which has a negative impact on policy planning. However, in-depth research on the actual perpetration, victimisation, and trend is required to determine the true root of the problem and develop necessary preventative measures. Students are groomed at universities to be activists for change, to foster an attitude that allows for effective development; however, if they are sexually victimised during their university experience, their bright future is tainted and crippled.

Higher education institutions are located in larger communities with high rates of sexual victimisation. The spread of these rates into the university community has an impact on the safety and security of female students. While over 40,000 rapes are reported to police in South Africa each year, it is estimated that only 14 percent of perpetrators face prosecution (Kapps, 2006). According to the South African Police (SAPS), 40,035 cases of rape were reported in 2017/18 (Africa Check 2018). Furthermore, the FACTSHEET (2019/20) depicts the rising rate of sexual offences in South Africa.

FACTSHEET: South Africa's crime statistics for 2019/20

The rate of sexual offences decreased slightly from 2019 per 100,000 in 2019/20 to 50.6 in 2019/20.

Crime	Number
Rape	42,289
Sexual assault	7,749
Attempted sexual offences	2,076
Contact sexual offences	1,179
Total	53,293

Table: africacheck.org | @africacheck • Source: South African Police Service • Created with Datawrapper

Table 1: africacheck.org/ @africacheck. Source:South African Police Service.

Rape cases are at an all-time high, indicating that South Africa remains the world's rape capital. In his July report, Police Minister Bheki Cele stated that rape incidents had increased by 706 cases when compared to the same period last year. Rape cases increased by 1.7 percent in 2020, with over 53,000 cases reported. In addition, police discovered 1,638 more sexual offences than the previous year (Modise, 2020). The following is a list of the province's top ten precincts for sexual offences. KwaZulu-Natal has been identified as having the highest rate of sexual offences. These are the locations of some institutions of higher learning.

Figure 1

Sexual Offences: Worst ten precincts in 2016 (Provincial)

Precinct	Province	Crimes
Umlazi	Kwazulu-Natal	319
Inanda	Kwazulu-Natal	316
Plessislaer	Kwazulu-Natal	281
Empangeni	Kwazulu-Natal	219
Kwadukuza	Kwazulu-Natal	171

Osizweni	Kwazulu-Natal	163
Ntuzuma	Kwazulu-Natal	162
Esikhawini	Kwazulu-Natal	155
Mountain Rise	Kwazulu-Natal	147
Kwa Mashu E	Kwazulu-Natal	137
Total		2070

2. Preliminary Literature and Topic Choice

Sexual victimisation is a serious violation of human rights and a public health concern. It does not only occur in one dimension or among a specific race group, but it affects all classes, races, settings, and circumstances. Violence against women is defined by the United Nations Declaration on the Elimination of Violence Against Women (1993) as "any act of gender-based violence that results in, or is likely to result in, physical, sexual or psychological harm or suffering to women. Sexual violence against women, particularly in its many forms is prevalent across many societies." However, for the purposes of this study, sexual victimisation is examined in a university setting, with female students as the primary focus. According to the Victims of Crime Survey (VOCS) thematic reports under Stats SA (2016), victims of sexual offence are most likely to be single (83,1 percent), young people (aged 20–34 years), and in the intermediate Living Standard Measure (73,7), which is representative of the majority of female university students. It is worth noting that a large number of these female students come into contact with young men in a variety of public and private settings on the facilities of the institutions at various times.

Previous research indicates that these women are more likely to be raped or sexually assaulted than the general population or a comparable age group (DeKeseredy & Kelly, 1993). This alone calls for more advocacy research to be conducted. A study of this topic and context differs from others in that it examines not only statistical representations in literature, but also the social

context of the phenomenon in order to gain an authentic insight into the problematic nature of sexual violence among university students.

Female student sexual exploitation is directly related to the prevalence of trafficking, forced prostitution, exploitation labour, and debt bondage. It is a complex problem that has frequently been studied from only one perspective. According to Stats SA's (2016) VOCS data report, more females (71%) than males (28,7%) experienced sexual offence. This is critical information for students, faculty, administrators, and parents to understand, not only in order to customise the right safety plan for each college, but also to design targeted awareness programmes for their specific student body based on their university's unique risk level. Sexual victimisation on university campuses may be more or less likely depending on the school's institutional characteristics such as size, type (public or private), sex ratio, selectivity, and percentage of students involved in community programmes surrounding the university.

According to Tjaden and Thoennes (2000), despite the prevalence of sexual offences, a significant proportion of victims do not report their sexual victimisation to the police or other authorities. This is relevant in the context of sexual victimisation of university students. According to studies, the demographic characteristics of victims are related to the likelihood of reporting victimisation incidence (Bachman,1998; Gartner & Macmillan, 1995; Lizotte, 1985; Pino & Meier,1990). For example, older women were more likely than younger women victims to report their sexual abuse to the police (Gartner & Macmillan,1995). The current reality of sexual victimisation in university institutions is that statistics on sexual violence are unreliable due to young female students' reluctance to report sexual victimisation. This trend of non-reporting also applies to female students; according to research, only 25% of all incidents of victimisation are reported to authorities (Sloan et al., 1997). This fact validates the study in the sense that it calls into question the factors that contribute to sexual violence underreporting.

According to research, incapacitated rape is more common on college campuses than forcible rape, which involves perpetrators using threats or physical force. This could be attributed to both the victim's and perpetrator's excessive alcohol consumption and drug use. Alcohol may indirectly contribute to sexual assault by making it more difficult to recognise and respond to potential danger (Davis, Stoner, Norris, George, & Masters, 2009; Testa, Livingston, Vanzile-Tamsen & Frone, 2003), especially for women who are heavy drinkers and have a history of trauma (George et al., 2014), though most research on this topic is experimental at this time.

Relevant studies have investigated how a variety of variables, such as demographic characteristics, lifestyle, prior victimisation, and university characteristics, affected the risk of sexual victimisation. A few previous studies conducted in-depth analyses of the topic's social context (who, how, and why), yielding very ambiguous results. This is due to the topic's sensitivity being a limitation. Previous limitations on a study of this type are to be addressed by being as genuine and transparent about the study's goals as possible to the target population. Current events are trending with campaigns of violence against women, and it is clear that women have had enough and will express their perceptions, grievances, and potential solutions in this regard. The researcher will build on the shortcomings of previous studies to delve deeper into the subject at hand and create a new body of knowledge that depicts a focal point to intervene on based on data obtained on the social context of the phenomenon. Not only that, but it is clear that some women are unaware of the definition of sexual violence or when to report such incidents. As a result, this study will reinforce the critical aspects of sexual violence awareness in order to produce novel policy implications for university institutions.

Sexual victimisation is a long-standing issue that has been addressed through policies and legislation. The study discusses policies that have been put in place to help with intervention. The Department of Higher Education and Training framework for addressing GBV in the post-school system, as well as institutional policies at each university, have attempted to fill gaps in the proper implementation of interventions to reduce sexual victimisation. Furthermore, legislation has influenced sexual victimisation. It is legislation such as the Constitution, the Domestic Violence Act (DVA) No. 116 of 1998, and the Criminal Law Amendment Act (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) No. 6 of 2012. These are discussed in this study in order to lay the groundwork for a foundational legislative effort to address sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning.

2.1. Conceptualisation of terms

It is imperative that the operational concepts used in this study are explained to provide a backdrop of the issue under study. The concept of vulnerability has been a powerful analytical tool for describing states of susceptibility to harm, powerlessness, and marginality of both physical and social systems, and for guiding normative analysis of actions to enhance well-being through reduction of risk. McCarthy, Canziani, Leary, Dokken, and, White (2001) argue that vulnerability is degree to which a system is susceptible to and is unable to cope with adverse effects. Hoffmaster (2006) further provides a broad definition of vulnerability as being susceptible to something, a bad something naturally, such as a disease or infection.

Furthermore, is to be capable of being physically or emotionally wounded and to be capable of being persuaded or tempted.

Victimisation is regarded as exposure to a harmful situation or event leading to negative effects. Two assertions that have never been particularly controversial among criminologists are, first, that the amount and kinds of victimization experienced by a group of people or by a class of objects depend on the exposure of the class to crime and second, that some people or kinds of objects are more exposed to crime than are others. To understand victimisation, it is important to distinguish between the concepts of absolute and probabilistic exposure. Hindelang, Gottfredson and Garofalo (1978) state that absolute exposure consists of those characteristics of persons, objects, time, or space that are logical requisites for the occurrence of a specific form of criminal victimization. While on the contrary, probabilistic exposure requires absolute exposure. It refers to differences among people, objects, places, and times in their opportunity for victimization, given that victimization is logically possible. Sexual victimisation is better understood where explained using these two terms.

Additionally, there are different notions and definitions that frame a study of this nature. Sexual victimisation is broad in its nature, consisting of different acts. The first broad one later mentioned in the study being rape. The updated classification of rape in South Africa was passed into law in December 2007. The new definition of rape was defined in Act No. 32, 2007 Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act 2007 and prescribes that:

“Chapter 2, part 1- Rape and compelled rape,

Rape

(3) Any person (“A”) who unlawfully and intentionally commits an act of sexual penetration with a complainant (“B”), without the consent of B, is guilty of the offence of rape.”

The Act explores greater detail about what constitute rape and “expanded the definition of rape to include sodomy and penetration by objects other than a penis. The change in the definition of rape in South Africa in 2007 impacted on the way rape cases were defined and conducted through the court system (Arts & Smythe, 2007).

Diagle and Muftic (2019) classify the different types of rape with the first being forcible rape, where someone forces or threatens to use force to penetrate victim against his or her will. Drug or alcohol-facilitated rape is when a victim was deliberately given drugs or alcohol so the perpetrator could commit the act of rape. Another form of rape is incapacitated rape which occurs when a victim is violated after self-induced alcohol or drug intoxication. Furthermore,

Diagle and Muftic (2019) define statutory rape as an act that occurs when someone has sex with a person under the legal age of consent, even if that person may have consented to the act.

To further explain actions within victimisation, sexual coercion is the penetration with penis, mouth, tongue, or object. Here the perpetrator does not use force, rather uses emotional or psychological tactics to sexually victimize an individual, promising rewards and pressuring for sex. Another form is unwanted sexual contact where a person is touched in an erogenous zone, but it does not involve penetration (e.g., touching or groping). Lastly, Non-contact sexual abuse/ visual abuse is regarded as sending pornographic images to the victim whereas verbal abuse uses sounds intentionally abusive in sexual manner (Diagle and Muftic, 2019). This study explores categories of victimisation for a broader understanding of the social context of sexual victimisation.

3. Research Objectives and Questions

The study aims to uncover the social context (who, what, where and how) and trends of sexual victimisation. The objectives and research questions that will be used to achieve this goal are as follows.

3.1. Research Objectives

- To examine the nature and seriousness of sexual victimisation against female students in the selected institutions of higher learning in KZN (Durban).
- To determine the contributory factors to sexual victimisation against female students in the selected institutions of higher learning in KZN (Durban).
- To investigate the effects of sexual victimisation on female students and the entire student and staff community of the institution.
- To investigate the reasons for not reporting sexual victimisation institutions of higher learning in KZN (Durban).
- To evaluate the usefulness of current strategies on policing of sexual offences in the selected universities in KZN (Durban).

3.2. Research Questions

- What is the nature and seriousness of sexual victimisation against female students in the selected institutions of higher learning in KZN (Durban)?
- What are the contributory factors to sexual victimisation against female students in the selected institutions of higher learning in KZN (Durban)?
- What effects does sexual victimisation have on the victims and the general student and staff community?
- What reasons do female students have for not reporting sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning in KZN (Durban)?
- How useful are the current strategies on policing of sexual offences in the selected institutions of higher learning in KZN (Durban)?

3.3. Originality/New Knowledge

The study seeks to uncover contextualised information about the social context of sexual victimisation. This is information that cannot be obtained from statistics because contextual information is omitted when statistics are compiled, but can be obtained from incident reports or participants sharing their personal experiences. Statistics are not useful in addressing the root problem because they do not tell us who the perpetrator is, motivations for the perpetration and factors contributing to the victimisation. When represented qualitatively, findings may provide varying depth due to the geographical location, population and culture of the research area. Universities are a unique context to examine the issue of sexual victimisation. Although other studies have reported on sexual victimisation, social contexts provide differing or similar findings that can be attributed to the three mentioned aspects. This study's originality is shown in the three aspects mentioned particularly because the selected institutions are geographically located in broader communities of KwaZulu Natal, have a population representative of predominantly KwaZulu Natal students and KwaZulu Natal being broadly associated with a culture of patriarchy and violence. This has implications that the study makes recommendations that are context specific, considering the mentioned aspects rather than generic.

4. Theoretical Framework

The study adopted a theoretical framework that best describes the social context of sexual victimisation. The study was guided by Lawrence Cohen and Marcus Felson's (1979) "Routines

Activities Theory," as well as Ward, Polaschek and Beech's Intergrated Theory of Sexual Offending (ITSO) (2006). Both of these theories explain the naturalistic context of sexual violence, highlighting the factors that contribute to its prevalence. These theories offer an interconnected explanation for the origins and prevalence of sexual victimisation.

4.1. The Routines Activities Theory (RAT)

The RAT is based on the assumption that for a criminal act to be carried out successfully, three elements must converge in time and space. These three elements are as follows: (1) a motivated offender, (2) a suitable target, and (3) a lack of guardianship. They are all interconnected and contribute to the successful occurrence and execution of a crime. The concept of this theory is that the presence of the three contributing factors can collectively increase the likelihood of a predatory crime occurring. This theory predicts that people are more likely to be victimised if they (1) live in a high-crime area, (2) go out late at night, (3) carry valuables, (4) engage in risky behaviour such as drinking alcohol, and (5) are without friends or family to watch over or help them (Felson, 1997). The routines activities theory is crucial in explaining the sexual victimisation of female students because it identifies the main factors that predispose females to sexual victimisation. Typically, female university students reflect the five predictions shared by this theory. Young women who frequent bars for alcohol consumption may increase their risk of being raped (which is common among teenagers and young adults) because they are easy targets and their attackers can justify raping them because they are intoxicated and lack guardianship.

4.2. Integrated Theory of Sexual Offending

The ITSO identifies three causal factors (biological, ecological, and psychological) that, when combined, result in clinical issues. Level I theories identify multiple core factors related to sexual offending, whereas Level II theories propose single factors related to sexual offending aetiology. Level III theories are micro-models that specify the cognitive, behavioural, motivational, and social factors that contribute to the offender chain or relapse process (Keeling, Rose & Beech, 2009). Consideration of these factors leads us to the conclusion that sexual offending emerges from a network of relationships between individuals and their local habitats and niches, rather than being the result of individual psychopathology.

Sexual abuse, according to the ITSO, occurs as a result of a number of interacting causal factors that operate at different levels and occur in different domains of human functioning: biological (evolution, genetic variations, and neurobiology), ecological (social and cultural environment, personal circumstances, physical environment), core neuropsychological systems, and personal agency (Ward and Beech, 2016). According to this theory, four sets of factors converge to cause sexual offending and its associated problems: biological factors (influenced by genetic inheritance and brain development), ecological niche factors (i.e., social, cultural, and personal circumstances – learning), neuropsychological factors, and agency-level factors (i.e., this is the level at which a person reflects on possible reasons for acting, decides on a course of action justified by reasons, and then [intentionally] acts to change some aspects of themselves, other people or the world in accordance with their goals).

These identified theories are compatible in the sense that, while the RAT explains sexual victimisation through a victimological lense, the ITSO expands explanations to include biological and behavioural factors. This theoretical framework addresses the complexities of factors that contribute to the sexual victimisation of female students in higher education institutions as a whole. Theories of sexual offending are resources that explain the goals of intervention, the nature of therapeutic practices, and how practitioners can work with abusive people. These theories will help to shape interventions that reduce the magnitude, occurrence, and frequency of sexual harassment in institutions of higher learning.

5. Research Methodology and Methods

The study employs an exploratory research paradigm and is conducted in a qualitative approach with the goal of simply exploring the social context of the phenomenon. The emphasis of this research is on "ontological assumption." Ontology is defined by Ritchie, Lewis, McNaughton, McNaughton and Ormston (2014:4) as an assumption that is interested in the features of reality and the qualities that exist about the world. As a result, the overarching motivation is to contribute to human knowledge and understanding of the context of sexual violence, thereby resolving the sexual violence problem confronting university institutions. The research aims to identify the participants' subjective meanings and experiences using this paradigm. The nature of sexual victimisation, the contributing factors, and the strategies can be addressed

qualitatively because participants will divulge information during the interview process, emphasising their opinions and experiences with these.

Furthermore, while the researcher acknowledges that students come from a larger community, the study was only restricted to students who were registered and who lived on-campus at the selected institutions of higher learning, as well as staff members. In order to adequately address the objectives of this study, a qualitative research approach was used. The method of research is used by social scientists to adequately document the richness and diversity of meanings that people attribute to a phenomenon (Burton, 2000). The researcher gathered detailed social information about the phenomenon under investigation, which affected all members of the target population. In order to obtain data that is relevant to the study, the researcher must use qualitative techniques that reveal original and relevant information.

5.1. Sampling

According to Kuzel (1992), qualitative studies use non-probability sampling techniques such as accidental or purposeful sampling, snowball sampling, and theoretical sampling. Because the researcher is conducting exploratory research, it is best to choose samples in a non-probability manner. Sexual victimisation is a broad topic, but due to time constraints and the desire to gather as much information as possible, the research narrowed the scope of the study to three selected institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal (Durban), with the units of analysis being the institution's community (students and staff). Due to ethical concerns, these institutions will be identified as institutions A, B, and C. The criteria for selecting the sample will be that the student must be registered at the specific institution for the year in which the data will be collected and that the staff must have been permanent staff at the institution for at least a year. The researcher sampled 60 participants, depending on whether or not saturation was achieved. Two different sampling techniques were used to recruit these participants.

The first technique used by the researcher was **purposive sampling** (also known as judgemental sampling), which is a non-systematic technique in which participants are recruited based on the researcher's discretion regarding the characteristics of the representative sample. This technique was intended for staff members rather than students. The researcher did not want to end up with a cohort of student participants who were friends and shared the same knowledge. The researcher's second technique was **snowball sampling**, in which the

researcher asked one participant from the previously recruited sample (purposive sample) to recommend other people who met the criteria and were willing to participate. The researcher asked the purposively selected participants for referrals of new participants who met the criteria and would be interested in participating. This was accomplished by employing a snowball sampling technique. This strategy allows for a large sample size while also ensuring that the researcher does not end up with repetitive and thin data. The sample was a representative, as the researcher recruited participants from all three institutions. The following are the sampling compositions: 10 students, 5 support staff members (social workers/student counsellors), and 5 Risk Management Services (RMS)/ Security staff per institution (Institution A, B, and C) = 20 participants multiplied by three institutions. The researcher used students because they were the primary unit of the study and have firsthand knowledge of the phenomenon. The support staff responds to cases of sexual victimisation in which they must provide support to the victim, and the RMS department is identified as the first respondent to whom students report the case. They also have firsthand knowledge of the social context and underreporting of sexual victimisation on university campuses.

The researcher's strategy was to go to each campus and find interested and informed students, approaching staff members personally in their offices and asking them to participate, and then going to each institution's RMS department to request for their participation after thoroughly explaining the purpose of the study to them. Sexual victimisation is inherently intrusive and violates a number of constitutionally guaranteed rights of the victim, and it occurs in a variety of settings, including the victim's most private place of safety – their residences in this case. The researcher used students from residences because they spent more time on campus and were more prone to victimisation.

5.2. Data collection

Data collection is the process of gathering information relevant to the research question. One-on-one interviews were used to collect data for this study, and they took place on the university campus at a time convenient for the participants. It was scheduled after the recruitment process was completed and the participant agreed to be interviewed. The researcher facilitated the interviews. The researcher used semi-structured, open-ended interview questions to encourage participants to extend or amplify responses that were unclear or ambiguous. The reason for interviews is that the researcher cannot rely on secondhand information about this issue and

must gain a thorough understanding of the respondents' experiences and perceptions of the research topic. The wealth and quality of the data gathered are heavily dependent on the interviewer's skill and the confidence instilled in the participants.

The researcher's justification for using one-on-one interviews is to ensure that the participant is at ease and can easily divulge information to the researcher without hesitating or feeling compelled to give socially desirable answers, as in focus groups. These interviews were primarily recorded on tape. According to Pile (1990), the only way to conduct a thorough qualitative analysis is to use a verbatim transcript. "An analysis of language can only be carried out with confidence if there is an entire record of a conversation. Hastily scribbled notes... are not accurate enough to be used in this way. Tape-recorded sessions provide the only viable data for this kind of analysis" (Pile, 1990: 217). During the interview, the researcher took secondary notes on a notepad to highlight key points of the responses, making the subsequent data analysis process simple and effective.

5.3. Data Analysis

Qualitative analysis is distinguished by the fact that it deals with data presented in words and seeks to transform and interpret qualitative data in a rigorous and scholarly manner (Coffey , 1996). In this case, the researcher chooses thematic analysis as a tool for analysing the data gathered during the interviews. When analysing, the five steps of familiarisation and immersion, inducing themes, coding, elaboration, interpretation, and checking must be followed. The information shared by participants is being reconstructed and organised into themes and ideas at this stage. Because the interview process is recorded, it must be transcribed before the researcher can analyse it. The researcher codes and categorises data that is of linking value from the transcribed data and then reports its meaning.

6. Ethical Considerations

First and foremost, the research sought clearance from the UKZN Ethics Committee Reference number: HSS/1381/017D. Then an application was made to the registrar of institutions A, B, and C to obtain permission to conduct research on their premises with their students as participants. After permission was granted and before the research began, all participants were required to sign a consent letter emphasising voluntary participation and confidentiality in the

study. The informed consent form includes the project title, the project's aims and objectives, the researcher's contact information, the supervisor's contact information, a brief explanation of how the subject was chosen to participate, a clear explanation of what the participant would voluntarily be required to do during the interview, permission to tape-record, and access to the information afterwards. Because of the sensitive nature of this study, the researcher employed pseudonyms to protect the participants' identities. A counsellor from each institution's counselling division was on standby during the data collection process to assist with participants who could not handle the stress after talking about their traumatic experience. The participants' stress levels could be determined by the responses they provide and their physical reactions. In case of distress, the researcher would pause the interview and obtain consent from the participant to be referred to the counsellor. Sexual victimisation is a serious crime, and the researcher understands that some participants may have been victims before and may have had traumatic experiences, which is why a counsellor was required.

The general limitation of this study is that some people were hesitant to participate due to the sensitive nature of the study, but the population was large and the sample size was achieved.

7. Structure of Dissertation

Chapter 1: Introduction

This chapter describes the general problem area, the definition of the research question and its aims, an explanation of why the topic is important, the dissertation's research approach and key assumptions, and the contribution to be made by the research at hand. It outlines the key questions that will eventually lead to the discovery of the title as a whole.

Chapter 2: Literature review

This chapter contains the results of a comprehensive survey of prior research. It emphasises the research's background and context, which serves as validation for why a study of this nature is relevant. The chapter provides demographic and statistical representations of the problem of sexual violence, highlighting the need for applied research to be conducted in order to allow for possible interventions.

Chapter 3: Policy and legislative framework guiding sexual victimisation

The chapter summarises the key policies and legislation that guide sexual victimisation research. It also sheds light on the extent to which sexual victimisation is addressed at the national level through policy interventions. This chapter focuses on the Constitution as the supreme law of the land, as well as other policies and legislation.

Chapter 4: Theoretical framework for understanding sexual victimisation

This chapter goes into greater detail about the importance of theoretical explanations in this type of research. It emphasises the two theories that best explain the phenomenon of sexual victimisation and how they can be linked in the social context under consideration. These theories provide explanations for predisposing behavioural and situational factors that contribute to sexual victimisation, as well as explanations for causal factors.

Chapter 5: Description of Research methodology

The chapter explains the study's research methodology used to obtain data that adequately explains the objectives. Furthermore, it elaborates on the research design, sampling, data collection method, ethical considerations, and research limitations. This is all explained in the context of sexual victimisation.

Chapter 6: Data presentation, analysis and discussion

This chapter summarises the researcher's findings from the interview sessions. Original responses will be cited and written under themes and sub-themes to demonstrate connectivity and relevance. The chapter presents an analysis and expands on the study's findings. Thematic analysis is used to analyse the data collected through one-on-one interviews. It discusses the study's findings in relation to literature, policy, legislation, and the theoretical framework used in this study. It is classified according to the relevant themes in the data about the participants' observations or experiences, and then further subdivided into patterns that explain the phenomenon. These categories describe what the actual study discovered and whether or not there are any links or similarities in the data collected. The themes are then linked together to form a comprehensive narrative or picture of the research being conducted.

Chapter 7: Conclusions and recommendations

The chapter summarises the general conclusions drawn from the data collected and analysed. It also makes recommendations based on the findings of the study. These recommendations

will be useful in the future when institutions of higher learning amend their policies or upgrade their intervention strategies aimed at eradicating the issue of sexual victimisation on campuses.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

South Africa as a country deals with cases of sexual victimisation daily. Infants, youngsters, the elderly, males and females have become victims of the unavoidable act of sexual victimisation. The issue of sexual victimisation amongst young people is an important area of concern in public health, social sciences and criminology in particular as it is a violation of human rights. One cannot deny the fact that males also fall victims to sexual victimisation but for this research, the focus is on the sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning as statistics reveal that young women are sexually victimised more concerning males or other women in the general society.

The chapter traverses synthesis and analysis of empirical studies as well as relevant academic literature and policy on sexual victimisation of females in institutions of higher learning in South Africa and internationally. The chapter raises pertinent questions that justify the need to explore the understanding of the sexual victimisation of young females in these institutions. The chapter begins by exploring the nature of female victimisation at an international level, the chapter reviews patterns of the phenomenon under investigation in the United States of America where there has been a growing trend of victimisation. Furthermore, Norway, Chile and China have conducted studies that address sexual victimisation which formed a foundation for studies being conducted to date across the world.

Furthermore, sexual victimisation is further explored through findings of studies conducted in Africa that seek to address the rampant nature of sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning. The chapter discusses the context of sexual victimisation in Malawi, Nigeria, Ethiopia and Ghana. These studies encapsulate the context of sexual victimisation in its entirety, presented to contextualise institutions in different parts of Africa.

2.2. International developments on sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning

A term that best lists all the sexual victimisation acts is that by Jejeebhoy and Bott (2005) of Non-consensual sex (NCS). This term is interchangeably used as sexual abuse, sexual violence and sexual coercion, in general, was operationalized to encompass a range of behaviours including unwanted penetrative sex, attempted rape, unwanted touch, as well as non-contact forms of abuse such as verbal harassment or forced viewing of pornography. These acts may include any coercive situations that the victims' lack realistic choices available to prevent or redress the situation, for example, physical violence, threats, intimidation, emotional manipulation and deception. The idea of the sexual act being non-consensual may vary in different contexts due to either cultural beliefs or awareness of individual rights of people. Sexual assault is a major problem on university campuses, with 20% to 25% of women reporting sexual assault victimisation during their time in college (Cantor et al., 2015; Krebs, Lindquist, Berzofsky, Shook-Sa, & Peterson, 2016). This is a quarter of the student population that experiences sexual victimisation. To support these figures, Fisher, Cullen, and Turner (2000) have estimated that a college with 10,000 female students would see more than 350 rapes each year. Concerning completed rapes, scholars have noted that the 15% prevalence estimate has not changed over the 20 years during which research has reported findings on the sexual victimisation of college women (Roze & Koss, 2001).

Of course, prevalence rates will not always be measured around the same percentage due to factors such as reporting, sampling sizes of the different studies quoted and the instruments used to collect data. A commonly used instrument that yields much of the research results in international studies is the Sexual Experiences Survey (SES). This is a self-report instrument used to assess levels of sexual victimisation (Koss and Oros, 1982; Koss et al., 1987). Some have posed several critiques about this instrument stating that respondents in the process of self-reporting may omit some information intentionally. This puts into question the reliability of the data obtained, however, does not deny that perhaps some students will be reporting on their sexual victimisation experiences first hand. Findings from a study by Bonnie and Fisher (2001) using the SES as an instrument suggest that unwanted sexual contact appears to be the most prevalent form of sexual assault on college campuses (including sexual coercion), followed by incapacitated rape and completed or attempted forcible rape.

The widespread and weightiness of sexual victimisation prompted the initiation of sexual assault prevention and education programs which were instituted in colleges across the country,

in part due to a mandate that campuses receiving federal funding sponsor such programs (National Association of Student Personnel Administrators, 1994). These programs are necessary for the protection of students as the experience of being sexually victimized during one's academic career has lifetime negative effects. It is the role of institutions to make sure that their students are well informed and protected. However, different institutions in dissimilar geographical locations are governed by their individually enacted policies and codes of conduct. The issue of sexual victimisation may vary due to this factor causing differences in the severity of the matter. This is outlined by giving a brief picture of sexual victimisation in different parts of the world.

The selected countries provide sufficient literature that highlighted findings from studies done in a five-year period (2015- 2020), considered the most recent and pertinent amongst others. Furthermore, the specific literature includes common samples of young women in the age range of university students (16/20 -24 years). These findings demonstrate richness in statistical and contextual representations which could be compared and contrasted to articulate the broader social context of sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning internationally. It is acknowledged that sexual victimisation is an area of concern globally hence several other parts of the world could be discussed. However, for the purpose of this study, areas with dominant research reports and most pertinent findings such as the US, Chile, China and Norway are discussed.

2.3. United States of America

The high prevalence of sexual victimisation among female college students in the United States is a problem that existed from the 1980s to the 1990s until present times, spurring initiatives to address this issue. Extant research has shown that college women in the United States are sexually victimised at particularly high rates, and often these sexual assaults are perpetrated by acquaintances (Fisher et al., 2000; Gidycz et al., 1995; Koss et al., 1987). The Bureau of Justice Statistics has indicated that women between the age of sixteen and twenty-four face the greatest risk of sexual victimisation (Hart, 2003). This is identified as the age range of women in institutions of higher learning, which justifies the purpose of this study.

In the campus sexual assault study, Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher and Martin (2007) surveyed a random sample of 5,446 undergraduate women at two public universities in the United States and found much higher prevalence rates of sexual assault compared to Fisher et

al. (2000). Specifically, 12.6% of women experienced an attempted sexual assault, 13.7% experienced a completed sexual assault, and 7.2% experienced both attempted and completed sexual assault since entering college (Krebs et al., 2007). In another study, Krebs, Lindquist, and Barrick (2011) examined the prevalence of sexual assault on Historically Black College and University (HBCU) campuses using the same measures in the 2007 CSA study and found comparable, though slightly lower, prevalence rates of sexual assault on HBCU campuses. Findings suggested that approximately 8% of women enrolled in the HBCUs included in the study experienced an attempted sexual assault and 9.6% experienced a completed sexual assault since entering college (Krebs et al., 2011). Much can be attributed to the change in rates such as the type of students currently enrolled, the change in culture and the security measures that are now being used compared to the security of the past.

In September 2014, the White House Administration collaborated with numerous stakeholders to launch the national public awareness campaigns entitled “It is On Us” and “Not Alone.” The goals of this campaign are focused on the prevention and response to sexual assault on college campuses in the United States (Fedina, Holmes & Backes, 2018).

This is indeed the type of initiative that creates awareness of such a problem existing in the institutions of higher learning, further educating students on what to do to avoid being a victim or steps to take should one be victimised.

In the U.S., over 1 in 3 (36.4% or 43.6 million) women experienced contact sexual violence, physical violence, and/or stalking by an intimate partner during their lifetime (The National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey, 2015). This is noteworthy in that awareness still needs to be imparted when it comes to incidences involving an intimate partner. This literature in subsequent sections highlights findings from previously conducted studies, that some victims never classify non-consensual sex as victimisation when committed by their intimate partner. It is challenges such as these that justify the grey area of statistics where certain sexual victimisation offences go unreported.

2.4.China

According to the findings of a study conducted by Zuo, Lou, Gao, Lian and Shah (2018) on gender role attitudes, awareness, and experiences of non-consensual sex among university students in Shanghai (China), undergraduates held egalitarian attitudes toward gender roles, and girls wanted to be more equal in societal status and resource sharing overall more endorsed

the submissiveness of women in sexual interaction than boys. They had a low awareness of the risk of NCS, and this awareness was even lower among boys. Furthermore, when compared to boys, a higher proportion of girls had experienced verbal harassment, unwanted touch, fondling, and penetrative sexual intercourse (Zuo, Lou, Gao, Lian & Shah, 2018). This common result is found in relevant studies around the world and demonstrates that there is a common trend of female students being more likely targets of sexual victimisation than male students.

China, which has been deeply influenced by traditional Confucian culture for thousands of years, has initiated a slew of adolescent sexual and reproductive health research and programmes. According to Wang, Wang, Ruona and Rojewski (2007), the Confucian ideology is represented by five virtues: *ren* (humanity-benevolence), *yi* (righteousness), *li* (propriety), *zhi* (wisdom) and *xin* (trustworthiness). Among them, *ren* is the source of all virtues. It nurtures the inner character of the person and furthers his or her ethical maturation. Thus, one side of Confucianism is the conformity and acceptance of social roles, and the other side is the cultivation of conscience and character through education and reflection on one's actions, as well as a lifetime commitment to character building.

Except for rape, most of these believe that young people's sexual experiences are voluntary. Few studies, however, have addressed the issue of NCS in a fairly broad and ambiguous manner, asking questions such as "Have you ever been forced to engage in sex?" (Wu, Wang & Zhao, 2006). This statement emphasises the importance of awareness campaigns that teach young girls how to recognise when they are being victimised and how to respond to it. Unwanted touch was the most commonly reported form of NCS among university students. However, because it appears to be less intrusive, the public frequently overlooks unwanted touch.

In China, any act of rape against women or girls has been included in the law with a relatively clear definition and accountability of perpetrators. However, sending the pornographic message, indecent behaviour and intentionally exposing one's body to others, and sexual harassment against women were ambiguously included in different laws and regulations since 2005 without clear penalty regulations. Such legalization status might limit the attention of the whole society to non-physical sexual violence and restrict the provision of education and further services for victims or survivors. This could partly explain the lower awareness of non-

physical sexual violence among university students (Zuo, Lou, Gao, Lian & Shah, 2018). Lack of awareness of such victimisation allows the perpetrator to keep victimising other students with no punishment.

2.5.Chile

In Chile, approximately 46 percent of youth aged 20–24 are enrolled in a higher education institution (International Institute for Higher Education in Latin America and the Caribbean, 2006). This represents nearly half of Chile's total population. There is a great deal less known about gender-based violence against adolescent and young adult women. According to the findings of a study conducted by Lehrer, Lehrer, Lehrer and Oyarzun (2007) on sexual victimisation of female students in a Chilean institution, 31% of female respondents reported having experienced some form of sexual victimisation since the age of 14, and 17% had been victimised in the previous 12 months.

The majority of previous research has concentrated on violence against women in the context of cohabitation or marriage. There is a connection between violence against women and violence perpetrated by an intimate partner or someone close to them. Koss, Gidycz and Wisniewski (1987) shared findings from historical studies dating back to the 1980s that the perpetrators of the most severe incident reported by respondents were primarily identified as acquaintances, dating partners, or friends, which is also consistent with data on U.S. college students 36,53, as is the finding that rape is a highly underreported crime. This could be due to cultural beliefs or gender roles in Chilean society. For instance, the belief that men can demonstrate their love through violent behaviour is widespread in Chilean society, creating an environment conducive to violence against women (Ceballo, Ramirez, Castillo, Caballero, Lozoff, 2004; McWhirter, 1999). Furthermore, the victim's inability to identify a sexual victimisation act contributes to the creation of an environment conducive to sexual victimisation.

According to Lehrer, Lehrer, Lehrer and Oyarzun (2007), students who live primarily with their families while attending college have a lower risk of sexual victimisation. This may be due, in part, to higher levels of parental supervision and less opportunity for risk exposure; there may also be unobserved differences in the characteristics and risk behaviours of students who live with their parents versus those who do not. Students who live on campus have different lifestyles than those who live at home with their parents. Those who live on campus

have frequent contact with the perpetrators, whereas those who live at home have limited time spent on campus facilities where they may be victimised.

2.6.Norway

Young women in Norway are especially at high risk, a finding that is also in accordance with previous studies specifically addressing this group. The SHoT2018 study (Students' Health and Wellbeing Study) is a national student survey for higher education in Norway initiated by the three largest welfare organisations (Sammen, Bergen and surrounding areas), SiT (Trondheim and surrounding areas) and SiO (Oslo and Akershus). The SHoT2018 was collected electronically through a web-based platform (Sivertsen, Nielsen, Madsen, Knapstad, Lonning & Hysing, 2019).

The most common forms of lifetime sexual harassment were sexual expressions and suggestions, comments about your body, appearance or private life, and unwanted touching, hugging or kissing, which both were reported by 15.4% of the students. Intrusive eye or body movements were also common (11.4%), whereas viewing/sending sexual images (3.7%) and indecent exposure (1.7%) were less frequently reported. Rape and rape attempts were reported by 3.4% and 2.1%, respectively (Sivertsen, Nielsen, Madsen, Knapstad, Lonning and Hysing, 2019). These findings differ significantly from those of the study conducted in China where rape was identified as the only serious form of sexual victimisation, trivialising the seriousness of other offences such as those mentioned in these findings.

The rates of reported rape and attempted rape shows that compared to other parts of the country, Norway faces similarly a worrying rate of sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning. Although the findings reveal that much of the sexual victimisation activities are mild (unwanted eye contact, touching and verbal victimisation), there is also an indication of a disturbing rate of completed sexual victimisation. The bar graph below shows a section of results from the study conducted by Sivertsen, Nielsen, Madsen, Knapstad, Lonning and Hysing (2019) of students who have experienced sexual victimisation in one form or the other.

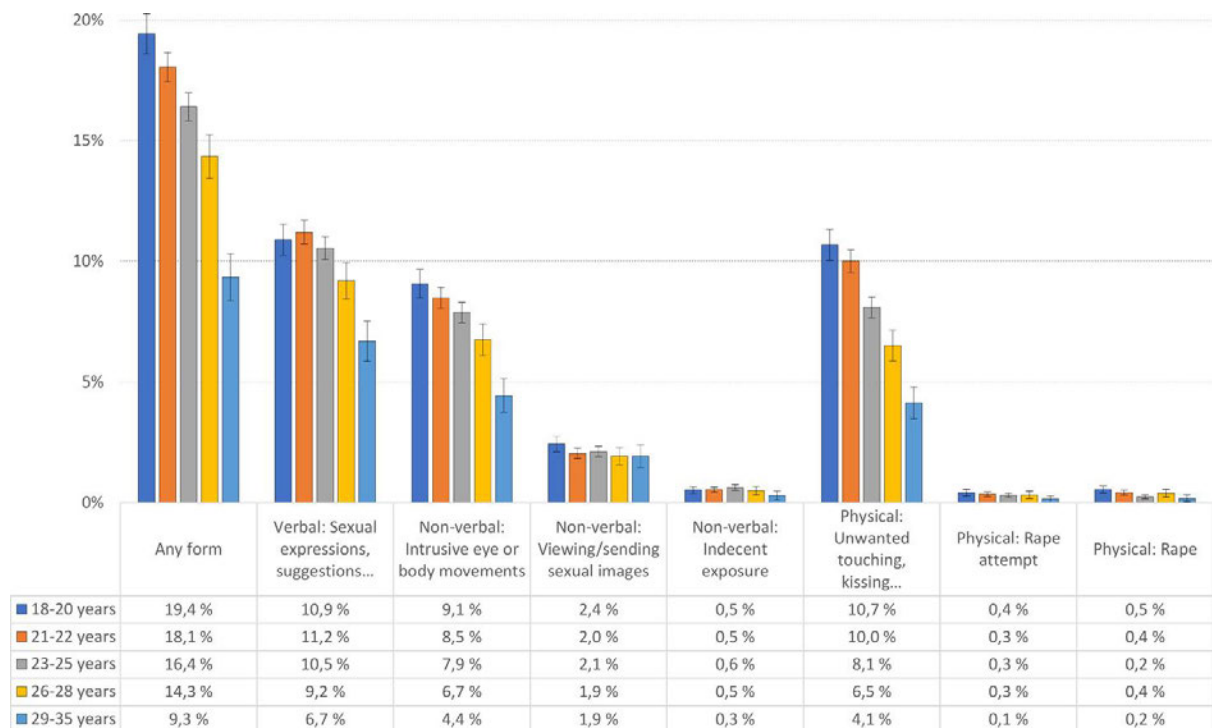


Figure 2

The proportion of students of various ages who reported sexual harassment in the previous year. The error bars represent the 95% CI (Sivertsen, Nielsen, Madsen, Knapstad, Lonning & Hysing, 2019).

The graph shows that the high rates of sexual victimisation can be attributed to any type of sexual harassment, though it does not specify which one. It is also worth noting that many of the age groups represented in the table reported higher rates of verbal sexual expression. Nonverbal; intrusive eye or body movement, as well as physical unwanted touching and kissing, are also reported to be on the rise in Norway. Physical rape: attempt and physical rape are reported to occur less frequently than the other types of sexual victimisation, despite these high rates. According to Sivertsen, Nielsen, Madsen, Knapstad, Lonning and Hysing (2019), the majority of recent harassment acts were committed by someone outside of the university setting, while a fellow student and a university staff member committed the harassment in 18%–29% and 0.6%–4.6% of the instances, respectively.

2.7. Sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning in Africa

Findings from many studies are consistent with transnational comparative studies showing that prevalence rates of sexual violence are higher in low- and middle-income countries than in

high-income countries (World Health Organization, Department of Reproductive Health and Research, London School of Hygiene and Tropical Medicine & South African Medical Research Council, 2013). Sexual victimisation among students remains a major problem confronting colleges and universities across the country (Armstrong, Hamilton & Sweeney, 2006; Banyard, Ward, Cohn, Plante, Moorhead & Walsh, 2007). Research suggests that adolescents and young adults experience forms of sexual victimisation at rates higher than any other age group, and those college students are at increased risk for some forms of victimisation compared with their same-age non-college peers (Fisher, Cullen, & Turner, 1999). This means that rates of sexual victimisation for female students are likely to be higher compared to those of females in the general community. What also tends to happen is that the “spillover” from the community in which the institution is located, may cause the rates to be high in the institution because perpetrators commit the same act of sexual victimisation.

Despite increased attention to this issue, reported rates of sexual victimisation differ significantly, which is largely due to definitional inconsistencies, including methodological and measurement used to estimate the prevalence of sexual assault. Definitional issues and inconsistency in the types of victimisation measured across studies (e.g., forcible rape, completed rape, attempted rape, sexual coercion, unwanted sexual contact, incapacitated rape, and alcohol- and drug-facilitated rape) contribute to differences in prevalence findings (Rennison & Addington, 2014). What might be considered sexual victimisation by one person might not necessarily be that way for the other, depending on the level of understanding of one’s rights and the issue of sexual victimisation. In addition, beliefs and practices in a certain area may have a different definition of what sexual victimisation is, causing differences in rates due to identifying and reporting sexual victimisation.

Non-contact sexual victimisation involves the exhibition of sexual organs by the abuser or exposing of genitals to the abuser, watching the abuser masturbate, looking at pornographic material, being filmed for pornographic use and sexual harassment (Dzimadzi, 2002: 18). Most of the abusers are likely to have an existing relationship with their victims. These results correlate with that of Miller, Monson and Norton (1995:1292), who found that persons known to the victim perpetrated higher proportions (78% and 89%) of sexual assaults.

2.8.Malawi

Sexual abuse is a growing problem among female students in Malawi, and it is linked to physical and mental health issues. The consequences are negative, and survivors are affected in a variety of ways. Sexual abuse occurs in Malawian society, and cases have been reported since the advent of press and expression freedom. Many of these cases, however, go unreported because cultural traditions in some parts of Malawi condone sexual abuse of females in the form of initiation ceremonies (Dzimadzi, 2002:21). The lack of reporting of sexual abuse in Malawi may be influenced by Malawians' lack of human rights awareness (Human Rights Needs Assessment Survey, 1999). In Malawi, for example, written information such as flyers and leaflets that could provide literate children and adolescents with sexual abuse knowledge are not available (Dzimadzi, 2002:3). As a result, because sexual abuse is considered culturally acceptable, female students may be unaware that they are being abused and that their rights are being violated (Dzimadzi & Klopper, 2007).

In a study conducted by Dzimadzi and Klopper (2007) involving 15 Malawian institutions of higher learning, 23.7 percent indicated that touching their private parts by a friend was not a sexually abusive act, and as many as 25.6 percent did not know if the act was abusive. Only 48.9 percent considered touching their breasts without permission by a lover to be an abusive act. Kissing is not a common practise in Malawi. Kissing in a sexual manner could thus be considered abuse if done without consent (Dzimadzi & Klopper; 2007). This type of explanation demonstrates that culture has a significant impact on how human problems, such as sexual victimisation, are addressed. Some Malawian study participants admitted that their sexual abuse experience was part of a cultural initiation ritual, which provides evidence that the ritual exists, though it could also be interpreted that the ritual is no longer widely practised in Malawi.

Sexual abuse has been linked to negative psychological and physical outcomes. Public health, clinical care, and human rights issues are examples of such consequences. Sexual abuse involving penetration, such as intercourse, may lead to the spread of STIs/HIV, which is already prevalent in Malawi, according to Dzimadzi and Klopper (2007). Other forms of sexual victimisation, such as unwanted touching, kissing, or attempted rape, can result in trauma, resentment of the university environment, and the use of alcohol to cope. Malawi still has a long way to go in addressing the problem of sexual victimisation because, aside from the police, where abuse is reported, there are no sexual abuse clinics, crisis centres, help lines, or other services where victims can potentially report their victimisation..

2.9.Nigeria

According to Kyoon (2004), universities and other tertiary institutions are, by definition, knowledge dissemination centres where students and teachers bring in and take out knowledge. This instils moral values that will influence positive behaviour change in the students during the training. Sexual assault on female students is a serious violent crime that has no place in any ideal society, and no one can justify its prevalence in any community that thrives on mutual trust, especially our tertiary institutions (Casteen, 2004).

Random observation in Nigeria lends credence to a higher prevalence of sexual assault in higher institutions of learning than in any other stratum of society (Nigerian Guardians Editorial Report, 2004). Furthermore, Nigeria has reported that the prevalence of sexual violence or sexual assault varies by state and location. A study in Ibadan, for example, found that 15% of young females reported forced penetrative sexual experience, while 13.8 percent of female Maiduguri students reported the same (Akinlusi, Rabi, Olawepo, Adewumni, Ottun and Akinola, 2014). In line with previous international and local studies, a study conducted in Nigeria by Kullima, Kawuwa, Audu, Mairiga and Bukar (2010) discovered that the majority of sexual assaults were committed by someone known to the victim, such as a lecturer, relation, or boyfriend.

True incidences are not accurate because most cases of sexual assault are not reported by victims for fear of stigmatisation and rejection among colleagues and society. The female victims were mostly blamed for the act, while the culprits are usually left unpunished (Kullima et al., 2010). Common factors speculated as favouring sexual assault in institutions in Nigeria are indecent dressing by the females with a resultant display of sensual body parts (like breasts, navel and buttocks) through tight and transparent wears popularly referred to as "sexual flashpoints" (Elegbeleye, 2006). This often prompted school authorities to decree against indecent dressings by formulating a code of conduct to guide female students. Other reports have implicated insecurity, decay in societal values compounded by violent tendencies among students in the form of cult activities and lacklustre attitudes of school authorities toward the culprits who perpetrate such indecent behaviours.

2.10. Ethiopia

Violence against women is a major public health and human rights agenda in Ethiopia. However, the magnitude of sexual violence among youths is not deeply recognised (Adinew & Hagos, 2017). Sexual violence in schools is one dimension of violence that creates an atmosphere of intimidation and danger in an environment (The Fourth World Conference on Women, 1995). It is a fundamental violation of the human right to liberty and freedom from fear and is now recognised as a public health priority (WHO, 2001).

Studies conducted in Ethiopia showed that violence against girls by older male students and teachers is a very common environment (WHO, 2001; Heise, 2010; Garcia-Moreno, Jansen, Ellsberg, Heise & Watts, 2002). Women's suffer physical, mental and reproductive health consequences of sexual violence like depression, loss of self-confidence, injuries, unwanted pregnancy, sexually transmitted diseases and disability up to death (Heise, Ellsberg and Gottmoeller, 2002; UN General Assembly, 2006). Most young people are not aware of their sexual rights and do not even appreciate the degree of their violations (Center for Rights, Education and Awareness, 2006).

According to Shimekaw, Megabiaw and Alamrew (2013). Sexual violence was found to be a major problem among students with a 45.4% lifetime prevalence. The finding was higher than the prevalence (37.3%) among female college students in Bahirdar. Findings from Madawalabu and Addis Ababa Universities revealed 10.9% and 12.7% rape respectively. Also, students who had a history of consuming or currently consuming alcohol and have friends who do so regularly reported higher levels of sexual violence. It is noted that institutions of higher learning are free in Ethiopia, making it accessible to a range of people from different backgrounds and lifestyles, alcohol and nightlife being one common one amongst the students, making them vulnerable to sexual victimisation.

2.11. Ghana

It is known that university students are among the highest risk groups for both sexual violence and dating violence victimisation (Hines & Palm Reed, 2015). However, among university students in Ghana, individual-level risk factors for sexual coercion have not been explored. Studies have reported that many women in Ghana are socialized to be submissive when it comes to sexual activity, as well as to avoid behaviour indicating they might be interested in sex (Archampong & Baidoo, 2011). Cultural socialisation that teaches women to be submissive contributes to intimate partner sexual victimisation because it puts women in a vulnerable position to accept sex against their consent.

In such a setting, men who have been accused of forcing sex, or raping, women have been acquitted on the grounds that the women did not resist strongly enough (Archampong & Baidoo, 2011). It can be argued that this contributes to a culture where sexual violence is tacitly permitted. A study about the experience of sexual violence amongst residential students at the University of Cape Coast (Ghana) in 2016 found that the perpetrator of this non-consensual sex was, for the most part, someone the person knew; their boyfriend/girlfriend, an acquaintance, or a family member. For almost 10% of the females who experienced forced or coerced sex, it was with a stranger.

Under Ghana's penal code, rape attempted rape, and other non-consensual sex crimes are punishable by imprisonment. In practice, however, perpetrators of rape or coercion are rarely punished, and it is the burden of the victim to demonstrate a lack of consent by, among other things, showing scratches or bites on the perpetrator, providing witnesses who heard the victim screaming and protesting, and immediate reporting of the act (Archampong & Baidoo, 2011). This contributes to the general lack of reporting of sexual violence among victims in Ghana. Programs that are explicitly directed at reducing sexual violence are sorely needed for this population, including primary prevention strategies. Primary prevention refers to educating everyone about sexual violence including cultural factors, risk factors, and post-assault care in an effort to educate them before they experience an episode of sexual violence (Centers for Disease Control and Prevention, 2004). These programs are especially important in contexts such as that of Ghana, where violence is deeply entrenched in tradition and culture and serves to keep women subservient and compliant, creating and perpetuating a culture that is supportive of sexual violence.

2.12. Sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning in South Africa

There are approximately 76 higher education institutions in South Africa, with around two million students and staff across 420 campuses (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2016) While there is no data to confirm the true extent of sexual violence in these institutions, a retrospective study on rape justice conducted by the South African Medical Research Council (SAMRC) provides some important insights (Mercilene, Jina, Labuschagne, Vetten, Loots, Swemmers, Meyersfeld & Jewkes, 2017). The sample for the SAMRC study consisted of 3952

cases of rape reported at 170 police stations across the country in 2012. In these cases, 94.1% of complainants were female, 46% were children (under 18), 4.9% were disabled, and 10.3% of the adult victims were studying at the time (Mercilene et al., 2017). The report does not detail where these reported student rapes occurred or who the perpetrators were. Yet, if one considers the overall sample, one finds that in 69% of the cases, the perpetrator was known to the victim either as an acquaintance (30.4%), a current or ex-partner (13.9%), a relative (10.8%), or in another capacity, such as a teacher, a fellow employee, or a prospective employer (9%) (Mercilene et al., 2017). These findings prove to be up to date, showing no decrease in statistics and a huge concern in institutions currently.

The #MeToo Twitter movement of 2017 brought international attention to the prevalence of sexual violence in private and public spaces throughout the world. Sexual violence as defined by Krebs, Lindquist, Berzofsky, Shook-Sa, Peterson, Planty, Langton and Stroop (2016) is ‘any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed against a person’s sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work’, sexual violence is negatively skewed against girls and women. This does not deny the fact that males also fall victims to sexual victimisation, but women are at a higher rate than men are.

The #MeToo movement and subsequent campaigns on college and university campuses across the world have brought the pervasiveness of sexual violence against women to the fore in a context where voices against such violence are often silenced. It is argued that in South Africa, sexual violence is rife and women and girls experience rape and other forms of gender-based violence on a ‘large and seemingly uncontrollable scale’. For example, while over 40,000 rapes are reported to the police per annum (Africa Check-Fact sheet (2015/16), it is estimated that only 14% of perpetrators face conviction in South Africa (Kapps, 2006).

In 2018, Former Higher Education and Training Minister Naledi Pandor organised an emergency crisis meeting with universities after close to 50 rape cases were reported on campuses across the country. Statistics handed to her office by universities and public colleges have revealed that a shocking 47 students were raped in the 2017 academic year. Pandor disclosed the scary data to Parliament, as a written reply to questions by the EFF’s Nontando Nolutshungu. The University of Cape Town told Pandor it recorded nine rape incidents in the year 2017, making it the institution with the highest number. It was followed by Walter Sisulu

University with seven. Other cases highlighting the incidence are as reported by Nkosi (2018) in the IOL News are as follows:

- In 2016, Mthunzi Patrick Hlomane was jailed for nine life terms for robbing and raping five UCT students.
- The Tshwane University of Technology (TUT) reported six rapes; there were five at the Nelson Mandela University (NMU) and four at the University of Johannesburg.
- Rape on campuses again dominated headlines recently when Rhodes University's Khensani Maseko committed suicide after allegedly being raped on campus in 2018.
- In 2018, a 29-year-old Kwanele Kilana was handed three life sentences on charges that included raping two students at NMU.
- Moses Modisane, a 21-year-old Wits University student, was charged with raping a fellow student on campus this year and appeared in the Johannesburg Magistrate's Court and
- Stellenbosch female student was beaten into submission, before being forced to drive with her attackers, who would eventually rape and murder her. She was then killed (Rogers, 2017).

The problem of sexual victimisation among university students has been highlighted by studies from different countries around the world (D'Abreu & Krahe, 2014). UNAIDS reported at the macro level that sexual violence against women appears to be more common in settings where gender roles are rigidly enforced and where masculinity is associated with toughness and dominance while femininity with submissiveness (UNAIDS, 2016). The South African context is still dominated by ideas of patriarchy, masculinity and unequal practice of gender roles. This creates an environment where women are prone to be victimised in many ways including sexually. As much as there are laws put in place to regulate such factors, women's sexual victimisation is yet to be properly addressed and curbed.

In general, female students are not safe within institutions of higher learning as they fall victim to sexual victimisation daily. Some research links on-campus living to increased risk of sexual assault victimisation among university students (Armstrong et al., 2006; Banyard et al., 2007; Cass, 2007; Fisher et al., 1998). This is because universities become zones, where there are frequent interactions between people of almost the same age, within these people, are vulnerable females and hungry perpetrators. In April 2016, the #Endrapeculture protests spread across South African university campuses. These protests raised awareness of university

policies regarding rape and sexual assault cases on campus (Orth, Van Wyk and Andipatin, 2020).

For example, Fisher et al. (1998) found that on-campus crime rates are higher than off-campus crime rates including sexual assault. It is known that most reported rapes take place within living quarters, but it remains unclear if on-campus students are at higher risk (Fisher et al., 2000). This serves to be true because students who reside in on-campus residences of the university are the ones that spend the most time in the institution compared to those who attend and leave. This then places the on-campus residing students at a greater risk of victimisation because the bulk of offenders may be within the institution as perpetrators can be intimate partners, other students or people from the outside who have access to the institution.

2.13. Sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal

Sexual assault is a common occurrence among college women, and victims are frequently met with negative social reactions (e.g., culpability attributions) that cause additional harm to the victim. The problem of sexual victimisation in higher education institutions is not unique to KwaZulu-Natal. To name a few examples:

- The alleged gang rape of a University of Zululand student raised concerns that universities are not doing enough to prevent campus attacks on women. Three men were arrested on Monday 23rd of March 2015 for the rape of a 20-year-old student in one of the institution's residences (Ramsamy, 2015).
- In a separate incident, where a case of sexual assault is being investigated by the police, two police officers are being investigated for arresting a student - who had been walking to her residence from a supermarket - and for touching her and fondling her private parts (Mlambo, 2016).
- The alleged off-campus rape of a University of KwaZulu-Natal student, allegedly by a fellow student two months ago, led to a violent rampage at the Pietermaritzburg campus on Wednesday (Naidu, 2018).
- At the University of KwaZulu-Natal, an academic has been outed on social media as having made unwanted sexual advances toward students (Pillay, 2019).
- Aubrey Manaka, 28, who allegedly raped and murdered student Precious Ramabulana will appear in the Polokwane high court to be tried for the rape of a five-year-old boy (Ramothwala, 2020).

- The Mangosuthu University of Technology is meant to conclude on disciplinary action against an engineering lecturer, who was suspended for accusations of soliciting nude photographs and asking for sex from female students in exchange for good marks (Makwakwa, 2021).

The aforementioned cases demonstrate that sexual victimisation is a serious concern for institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal.

2.14. Contributory risk factors associated with the sexual victimisation of female students

There is an array of factors that contribute to the prevalence of sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning. Zuo, Lou, Gao, Lian and Shah (2018) refer to sexual victimisation as non-consensual sex. Furthermore, they explain that it is influenced by multiple risk factors existing at different levels, from the individual to the community and societal level. Research has identified numerous risk factors and contributing factors to sexual victimisation. These factors may sometimes contribute independently or sometimes overlap with other factors that allow for the act of sexual victimisation to occur.

A great body of literature has sought to give an understanding of the factors that escalate the risk of sexual victimisation among university students, mainly by focusing on the characteristics of victims or perpetrators. The factors highlighted here are those that could affect both the victim and the perpetrator leading to the act of sexual victimisation. The experience of violence in the family, early sexual debut, and a higher number of sexual partners are associated with a higher probability of sexual victimisation among women only. However, it is pivotal to stress that no single factor can explain the occurrence of sexual violence, which is believed to stem from complex interactions between factors on different levels that are individual, relationship, community and societal risk factors, respectively (NCIPC, 2000).

The emphasis placed on low socioeconomic status as a risk factor may divert attention away from the fact that sexual victimisation is also widely prevalent among the socially privileged group of university students, as shown in research from the United States (Fisher, Daigle & Cullen, 2010). In addition, sexual victimisation is driven by different motives from the perpetrator's side, being sometimes for power, control or just mere sexual gratification. The factors vary from situation to situation. The common factors that contribute to the prevalence of sexual victimisation cases are outlined below in no particular order or seriousness of contribution.

2.14.1. Drug and alcohol abuse

Most studies indicate that alcohol exacerbates the potential for sexual victimisation. Ullman and Najdowski (2010) estimate that as many as 42% of college students regularly binge drink. Research shows that about half of victims and perpetrators, report using alcohol during the time of a rape or sexual assault (Abbey, Zawacki, Buck, Clinton & McAuslan, 2004), including cases of “acquaintance” and “date” rapes (Griffin, Umstadd & Usdan, 2010; Lannutti & Monahan, 2002). These findings reveal that victim and perpetrator alcohol consumption is also predicted to play a role in sexual victimisation. Furthermore, alcohol use by the victim was also noted to occur alongside unwanted sexual experiences within this context, as defined by participants reporting that either their judgment was impaired alcohol or drugs or they were taken advantage of because they were “wasted” (Fedina, Holmes & Backes, 2018)

In a quantitative study conducted by Lehrer, Lehrer, Lehrer and Oyarzun (2007) on the prevalence of and risk factors for sexual victimisation in college women in Chile, results revealed that both the victim and the perpetrator had used alcohol or other drugs. This should be concerning for institutions of higher learning because they enforce stringent rules that prohibit the consumption of alcohol, yet students continuously access alcohol. It was also found that in 56% of rapes or attempted rapes and 24% of other incidents of unwanted sexual contact); the victim, but not the perpetrator, had used alcohol or other drugs. An explanation for this would be that the perpetrator orchestrates the rape by providing alcohol to the victim or takes advantage after the victim is intoxicated. Also, in 6% of rapes or attempted rapes and 2% of other incidents of unwanted sexual contact, and the perpetrator, but not the victim, had used alcohol or other drugs in 9% of rapes or attempted rapes and 18% of other incidents Lehrer et al. (2007).

Regarding physiological effects, alcohol alters perception and judgment, decreases reaction time, and impairs decision-making capabilities. These cognitive impairments can lead to misinterpretation of sexual advances, ineffective refusal strategies, and inability to protect oneself, all of which increase the likelihood of victimisation (Abbey, McAuslan, Zawacki, Clinton and Buck, 2001; Davis, George & Norris, 2004; Pope & Shouldice, 2001; Sochting et al., 2004). When the victim is intoxicated, they are likely unable to recognise danger and defend themselves. Likewise, when the perpetrator is under the influence of alcohol, they engage in risky and irresponsible behaviour, particularly forcing themselves on a female. When both the

victim and the offender are under the influence of alcohol, consent is not requested by the perpetrator and consent is not given by the victim.

In a study in Poland, evidence suggested that increased sexual activity and other risky behaviours, such as drug use, were associated with higher rates of self-reported sexual aggression victimisations (Izdebski, 2012). Drugs, just like the use of alcohol distort the cognition of an individual and get them to do things they would perhaps not do when not under the influence. A common act amongst the youth is that of spiking females' drinks at entertainment events to get them to have sex with them. This practice is common amongst youth and contributes significantly towards the high rates of sexual victimisation of female students.

2.14.2. Personality and lifestyle

Certain behaviours or activities that place females in close association or proximity to potential offenders are important for understanding females increased risk for initial sexual victimisation from peers. Flack and Colleagues (2007) examined both unwanted sexual intercourse and wanted within the context of the college "hook-up" culture. According to Flack et al. (2007), hook-ups were "casual encounters with no expectation of future commitment in which there was pressure to engage in unwanted sexual behaviour". The authors found that 78% of the unwanted intercourse (vaginal, anal, and oral) in their study occurred in the context of a student-defined hookup. Engaging in casual sexual contact is associated with sexual aggression perpetration (Abbey, Parkhill, BeShears, Clinton-Sherrod & Zawacki, 2006) and victimisation (de Bruijn, Burrie & van Wel, 2006). This is the general lifestyle of some of the students in institutions of higher learning which can somewhat be very dangerous. The danger comes in when females meet up with people they are not familiar with who could be perpetrators of sexual victimisation habitually or by chance.

Furthermore, the related concept of psychopathy has also been found to be associated with sexual coercion (Hare et al., 2000; Knight et al., 2006). These studies leave little doubt that antisocial traits and behaviours are associated with sexual coercion by men. Some of the antisocial traits that a person may possess often leave them alone and isolated from the general community, which can somehow be a factor that makes them a suitable target for offenders. When an individual is seen as an outcast in the community, they are at a greater risk of being victimised.

One of the most commonly recognised aspects of students' lifestyles is their sexual scripts. Frith (2009) ascertains that sexual scripts reflect an individual's cognitive representation of "what counts as sex, how to recognize sexual situations, and what to do during sexual encounters". Scripts in general and sexual scripts, in particular, contain descriptive elements, referring to the characteristics or typical events or behaviours in a particular situation, and normative elements, referring to the evaluation of these characteristics and events as acceptable and associated with positive feelings (Huesmann, 1998). It is noted that female students in institutions of higher learning have cognitively developed to a phase where they should be able to associate with sexual scripts. Tomaszewska and Krahe (2016) propose that scripts for consensual sexual interactions that contains elements linked to an increased risk of sexual aggression, such as engaging in sex with casual partners or drinking alcohol when having sex, may make the perpetration of, and victimisation by, sexual aggression more likely. Perhaps the prevalence of sexual victimisation of female students reveals the type of sexual scripts that students believe in. Engaging in casual sex and alcohol consumption are among the contributing factors to the sexual victimisation of female students. Through this, it can be concluded that students adopt sexual scripts that reflect an increased risk.

2.14.3. Intimate relationships

For decades, research has documented the robust impact on women's mental health of intimate partner violence, stalking, rape, and psychological aggression; and in fact, most forms of major non-organic mental distress and disorder have been associated with these forms of intimate victimisation (Briere & Jordan, 2004). Much of the sexual victimisation that female students also face is perpetrated by their intimate partners. This supports the earlier statement made about hook-ups, because some voluntarily meet men and agree to participate in certain activities, later escalating to sexual victimisation. Wilson and Miller (2015) conducted a meta-analysis on the prevalence of unacknowledged rape among survivors of sexual assault. Wilson and Miller found that the prevalence of unacknowledged rape appears to be highest among college students and explained that sexual victimisation experiences are often cognitively labelled among victims as "bad sex" or "miscommunications." This is the reason why some sexual victimisation cases are not reported to authorities.

The National Intimate Partner and Sexual Violence Survey (2015). The majority of women who were victims of contact sexual violence, physical violence, and/or stalking by an intimate partner first experienced these or other forms of violence by that partner before age 25 (71.1%

or nearly 31.0 million victims). Furthermore, 1 in 4 female victims (25.8% or about 11.3 million victims) first experienced intimate partner violence before age 18. Young people's interpretation of non-consensual sex could be influenced by the sociocultural context and legal framework that young people live in. In some settings, early marriage is encouraged, and young women are socialised to believe it is their duty to accept the sex from their husbands even if they are not willing to do so (Amado, 2004). This type of conditioning encourages sexual victimisation because women's consent is nullified in the process.

Initiating sexual activity at a young age and having multiple sex partners have each been associated with a heightened risk of sexual victimisation, results that have been interpreted within a situational vulnerability framework. Some ideologies may also suppress the decision making of females. An example would be that men are expected to be the initiators, while women are supposed to be the gatekeepers in sexual encounters (Franiuk, Seefelt, Cepress & Vandello, 2008). This can cause an increased risk of sexual victimisation among women in institutions of higher learning when the females are not strong in their gatekeeping abilities or are insufficiently informed of their rights to say no to sexual advances made by a man.

2.14.4. Safety and security measures of the institution

Some higher education institutions in South Africa have been developing policies to combat sexual violence since the late 1980s (Hames, Beja & Kgosimmele, 2005). Yet, many still lack a relevant policy framework, and others have failed to implement their policies consistently (Mercilene et al., 2017; Hames et al., 2005). Consequently, sexual violence remains a key challenge to the post-schooling system' and female students continue to be plagued by patriarchal practices and sexual violence (Department of Higher Education and Training, 2017). In 2019, DHET enacted a policy Framework to address Gender-Based Violence (GBV) in the Post-School Education and Training System. This framework seeks to guide institutions of higher learning in the development and amendment of policies as well as interventions to address GBV.

Safety is a very important element when it comes to rates of victimisation in institutions of higher learning. Forbes-Mewett, McCulloch and Nyland (2015) state that university students are particularly vulnerable to opportunistic crime simply because they tend to have many items of value that are attractive to thieves, such as laptops, mobile phones, Pods and wallets. This makes a university space a hotspot for criminal activities that might also lead to sexual victimisation. Once perpetrators gain access to the institution for these previously mentioned

crimes, inevitably sexual victimisation becomes one of the criminal activities that occur. Just like a case of a house break-in that escalated to a completed rape case because the victim was a female alone in a house, students get victimised through access to the institution by motivated perpetrators.

A study conducted by Ross and Rasool (2019) in a South African institution yielded recommendations that addressed the issue of security as it was apparent that security played a huge role in students being victims. Students' recommendations for enhancing safety included universities increasing security or guardianship measures through increased patrols and CCTV surveillance cameras. With the ever-evolving environment and technology, perpetrators adopt modes of operation that are designed to override security measures. It is therefore imperative that security is updated to fit institutional needs so that students are protected.

Contrary to safety being an issue, some studies prove that the more students feel unsafe in the institution the more they are going to protect themselves from any sort of victimisation. Dobbs, Waid & Shelley (2009) to support the previous statement, state that, perception of safety is shown to strongly effect one's potential victimisation. College students who feel unsafe on campus or in the surrounding community are more likely to be aware of their surroundings and practise protective behaviours, such as participating in self-defence courses and carrying pepper spray, and avoidance behaviours such as not going out alone at night (Day, 1994; Dobbs et al., 2009). One can conclude that fear can motivate individuals to take reasonable precautions against becoming a victim of a crime, thereby reducing risk.

Additionally, in a place regarded as safe, one might fall victim by chance. This would imply that the criminal act happened because the perpetrator saw a chance presenting itself, not that they had planned it. An example of this would be a student being sexually victimized by a person they often hang around with when drinking or a stranger who encountered them drunk at a time when they lacked guardianship. This is well explained by the Alcohol Myopia Theory (AMT), which is a common framework describing how alcohol affects attention to cues in the environment. The AMT suggests that as people consume alcohol, they become prone to missing or ignoring peripheral cues in the social environment, and thus may fail to identify cues suggesting potential danger (Monks, Tomaka, Palacios & Thompson, 2010). This places them in a position of not being able to identify spaces with adequate security and safety. This further elaborates that poor/adequate security alone cannot be an explanation enough for why sexual victimisation occurs but is a factor that permits sexual victimisation to a certain extent.

The literature fails to ascertain exactly where sexual assaults take place, and there is debate about protective elements attached to on-campus living (Cass, 2007). The university space cannot be seen as a private space because people come in for different purposes at different times of the day or night. The security measures that are put in place to regulate students and visitors are of paramount importance as they determine the safety of the institution. Supporting the effectiveness of an 'anti-harassment' culture, research findings show that a strong climate for conflict management in organisations is associated with a lower prevalence of harassment, while also protecting against the effects of harassment when it occurs (Sivertsen, Nielsen, Madsen, Knapstad, Lonning & Hysing, 2019). A strong climate for conflict management assumes that anything that is against the law is dealt with effectively, criminal behaviour being one of the most heavily dealt with issues.

Many campuses are virtually autonomous cities, consisting of multiple buildings, sports venues and research facilities, all of which will require security procedures and protection (Fox & Burstein, 2010). All these venues are utilised by staff, students and other academic visitors who are allowed to access them. However, there is often conflict between the need for security to protect students, personnel and property and maintaining an open environment (Perotti, 2007). It may be argued that this conflict is generated by the crime rates that most institutions face. The extent to which advanced new technological systems are used as aids in the provision of all-encompassing 24/7 safety and security at selected higher education campuses must be evaluated. For a campus security system to be effective, Gover et al. (2008) illustrate that it must meet the following requirements:

- Early detection of incidents and immediate assessment of the magnitude of the threat/crime;
- Provision of fast and effective intervention measures;
- Engendering a sense of safety and protection among students;
- Serve as a deterrent to potential perpetrators of crime and threat; and
- Allow free movement of and a non-threatening environment for legitimate visitors and those with a vested interest in the institution.

2.14.5. Childhood sexual victimisation

With South Africa being a low-income country, cases of child and women sexual abuse are still very prevalent. There is some evidence that witnessing domestic violence during childhood may increase vulnerability to subsequent sexual victimisation (Koss & Dinero, 1989).

Expanding on this notion, Krahe and Berber (2016) state that sexual abuse in childhood has been established as a risk factor for both sexual aggression victimisation and perpetration in later life. Children who grew up in a dysfunctional environment where they were exposed to sexual abuse, are likely to possess abusive characteristics when they are adults. These abusive characteristics reveal themselves through negative behaviours, such as perpetrating sexual victimisation.

Research also strongly suggests that women with histories of sexual assault, including college women with childhood or prior histories of victimisation, are at increased risk of victimisation in adulthood (Classen, Palesh & Aggarwal, 2005; Desai, Arias, Thompson & Basile, 2002). In studies where participants reported higher rates of childhood sexual assault, the higher likelihood of victimisation as an adult might explain the higher college prevalence rates found (Fedina, Holmes & Backes, 2018). For example, Krebs et al. (2007) found that one in five college women experienced college-based sexual assault at two universities and among participants in the study, 35% experienced moderate childhood sexual victimisation, 6.4% experienced severe childhood sexual victimisation, 26% experienced moderate adolescent sexual assaults, and 13.5% experienced severe adolescent sexual assaults. These findings show that there is a direct link between prior childhood sexual victimisation and sexual victimisation in early adulthood, particularly while in an institution of higher learning. In a study on female sexual victimisation, Fite (2006) found statistically significant associations between childhood victimisation and past semester (during the 13-week follow-up period) adult sexual victimisation and significant associations between adolescent victimisation and past semester adult victimisation.

According to Ullman, Najdowski and Filipas (2009) having a history of child sexual abuse (CSA) is related to more severe PTSD and problem drinking in women as survivors. This is of serious concern as sexual victimisation has detrimental effects; a person suffers double the effect after being victimised for the second and sometimes third time. The link between early childhood sexual abuse and adulthood is important to uncover as it would inform preventative measures for people who were abused at a young age to not experience abuse again when they are older. Further research on this link is imperative.

2.14.6. Gender norms/roles and ideology

Scholarly efforts have emphasised the importance of gender norms. Gender norms, as defined by the World Health Organization (2011), are beliefs about men and women, boys and girls

that are passed down through socialisation from generation to generation. They evolve over time and differ across cultures and populations. Gender norms promote inequality by reinforcing mistreatment of one group or sex over another, as well as disparities in power and opportunity (World Health Organisation, 2011). Sexual abuse has been linked to a wide range of problematic behaviours, according to research. These are the behaviours that can be adopted as a result of gender conditioning or gender ideologies that exist in our cultures and communities. Societal attitudes or behaviours towards gender and sexuality that normalise sexual violence, are constructed and reproduced in society through modelling and social learning.

In a study conducted by Zuo, Lou, Gao, Lian and Shah (2018), it was discovered that boys who adhered to traditional gender norms were less likely to be aware of the nature of non-consensual sex, while girls who held more traditional gender-role attitudes were more vulnerable to physical non-consensual sex. Findings of this nature redirect the focus to the development of gender-specific interventions with regards to sexual victimisation. The same study by Zuo, Lou, Gao, Lian and Shah (2018) revealed that men who held dominant masculine norms were more inclined to justify sexual violence, especially when the violence toward women and girls. One can deduce that perhaps some women who are sexually victimized due to their vulnerability cannot identify it as victimisation due to the cognitive conditioning of gender roles imbalances and beliefs.

Scholarly investigations have yielded results on the impact of traditional gender roles and adherence to rape myths by victims as potentially contributing to the increase in sexual victimisation among university female students. Robust predictors of culpability attributions toward sexual assault victims identified in the literature include gender, perceived similarity to a victim, empathy, and rape myth acceptance (Miller, Amacker & King, 2010). For example, some beliefs make women feel that whenever a man initiates sex, they need to follow suit. This type of belief accounts for the high rates of intimate partner sexual victimisation and indirectly takes away the rights of the woman to say no, making victims of sexual victimisation repeatedly and intentionally by their partners. This contributes to a rape culture that goes beyond the physical act of rape or sexual abuse. It is a mindset, created and enabled by patriarchy that serves to empower men at the expense of women, keeping women and men within 'certain boundaries and categories' (Moffat, 2006).

Poor sexual knowledge has been identified as an individual risk factor that increases people's vulnerability to sexual victimisation (McCabe, 1993:379). Other factors include a lack of sex education (Fenwick, 1994:54) and a lack of knowledge about sexual abuse prevention skills (Haseltine & Miltensberger, 1990:188). Studies make clear that women who attend academic institutions in states across the country are at substantial risk of experiencing sexual assault, and are at greater risk for forms of assault than are women in the general population or a comparable age group (Jordan, Combs & Smith, 2014). There is therefore a need for initiatives that aim to create awareness of women's rights, the definition of sexual victimisation and identification of sexual victimisation scenarios. Such initiatives will empower women in and outside of institutions of higher learning, ensuring that negative gender roles and beliefs are weakened until non-existence, and ultimately decreasing the rates of sexual victimisation of female students.

2.14.7. Sexual orientation

Many terms and explanations have been coined to explain the difference in behaviour or lifestyle that contributes to sexual victimisation. One of the key factors put forth in Johnson and Grove's (2017) model is biphobia, occurring across all levels of the social ecology. 'Biphobia' refers to negative attitudes and behaviours directed at people who identify as bisexual and can manifest as denying bisexuality as an identity, ignoring the unique experiences of people who identify as bisexual, and holding negative stereotypes about people who identify as bisexual (Mulick & Wright, 2002). Biphobic stereotypes leave bisexuals at heightened risk of sexual violence. Bisexual women are stereotyped as promiscuous, indecisive, and unwilling to be monogamous (Barker et al., 2012; Ochs, 2011). This type of labelling places bisexual women in vulnerable positions with a heightened risk of being sexually victimised.

Johnson and Grove (2017) suggest three factors that may contribute to the increased vulnerability of bisexual students to sexual violence, including substance use, perceived hyperactive sexuality, and biphobic harassment. At an individual and relationship level, the stereotype that bisexual women are promiscuous may provoke sexually violent behaviour from perpetrators (Johnson & Grove, 2017).. Lesbians demonstrated the lowest rates of sexual assault victimisation, at 11.4% (Ford & Soto- Marquez, 2016). Similarly, Johnson et al. (2016) found that bisexual students were about three times more likely to experience sexual assault victimisation than heterosexual students were, whereas there was no difference in sexual

assault victimisation rates between lesbians and heterosexual students. However, Mahoney, Davies and Scurlock-Evens (2014) find using 2007–2010 British Crime Survey data that sexual minorities are more likely than heterosexuals to report sexual assault victimisation, but bisexuals rather than lesbians or gay men are more consistently victimized. These findings are a representation of the slight differences that might show in different populations consisting of students with a different sexual orientation. What they commonly reveal is that bisexual students are more likely to be victimised than heterosexuals. It is unclear why that is the case and what the gay and lesbian population experiences in comparison to heterosexual students.

In a qualitative study of 15 openly bisexual girls in the United Kingdom, participants reported that two groups of peers most often perpetuated biphobic stereotypes: (1) those with strongly held religious beliefs and (2) those who identified as gay/lesbian (Anderson, McCormack & Ripley, 2016). Moreover, Sigurvinsdottir and Ullman (2016) surveyed 905 heterosexual and bisexual women survivors of sexual assault. They found that bisexual women received less social support than heterosexual women and that social support decreased over time for bisexual women but not for heterosexual women. This is one of the reasons why there is a grey area in statistics, lack of support to victims means that there will be cases of sexual victimisation that go by unreported. Sexual victimisation is a serious experience and once victims are not supported efficiently, future victims of such offences will not take the time to report it.

2.14.8. Culture of violence

South Africa, being a country with a history of violence is somewhat still influenced by that culture up to date. 27 years into democracy yet the culture of violence still exists. Violence against women often remains unquestioned, as argued by Wood (1994), as rooted in the patriarchal ideology that is largely controlled by those in power and legitimises the acceptance of rigid gender roles; this ideology is epitomised by dominant discourses that ‘create subject positions that encourage men to harass women sexually and women to tolerate abuse’ (Wood 1994:23). Sexual coercion appears to be a manifestation of a more serious violent orientation. Women face victimisation from strangers, family members and even their intimate partners. Sadly, so, it is all grounded-on violence being the commonly used force against women.

The current debate revolves around the discipline of children and how that continues the culture of violence. Frequent spanking and slapping a young child were found to be an important risk factor for sexual coercion, primarily through increasing the probability of Antisocial Traits and

Behaviour (ATB) (Gamez-Guadix, Straus & Hershberger, 2011). Given the consistency of the research showing that corporal punishment is related to aggression and crime, it is not surprising that it has been also found to be related to sexual coercion against women. Based on both theory and these empirical results it is hypothesised that corporal punishment as a child is associated with an increased probability of perpetration of sexual coercion (Gamez-Guadix, Straus & Hershberger, 2011).

Sexual victimisation, in most cases, requires a certain degree of violence to be exerted onto the victim and hence the act of physical discipline conceiving a culture of violence which in the end is exerted onto a victim of sexual violence. This is an element of the culture of violence that contributes to the sexual victimisation of female students across the country. Young boys and men have been conditioned to use violence on young girls and women and have been made to believe that women are commodities that they can control. In a very firm expression amplifying this notion, Mathabo (2013) stated:

“The endemic violence has become sexualised because when men are threatened with the loss of their culturally constructed maleness, they express their fear through violence. Further, when men are unable to express their fears and emotions, it causes them to enact violent outbursts of such suppressed emotions. This is because men whose masculine identity and sense of self are predicated on exerting dominance and control over others express these characteristics even in their sexual interactions” (Mathabo, 2013).

Some sexual victimisation acts are for sexual gratification, while others are for control and purposeful exertion of pain. For example, in 2017, a sexual violence awareness group from another university campus released a statement about the way that their university had responded to two recent incidents of sexual violence. They argued that the university’s official email focused more on ‘condemning the release of the perpetrators’ names’ than providing practical information on how to respond to sexual violence on campus (UCT Survivors, 2017). These responses illustrate how rape and violent culture can undermine justice. This is a serious area of concern because until this culture of violence is demolished, only will there be an evident decrease in the rates of sexual victimisation of female students and women in the general community.

2.14.9. Perpetrators of female sexual victimisation.

There is still no standard classification of whether sexual victimisation is a planned or opportunistic crime. By virtue of this, the profile and motives of the perpetrators differ tremendously from case to case. It has long been argued that rape is a sexual act of aggression, rather than an aggressive act of sexuality (Weiner, Zahn & Sagi, 1990).

Crime statistics across the world reveal that the vast majority of perpetrators of rape and sexual assault are men (D'Abreu & Krahe, 2014). Historically, Foubert and Newberry (2006) in their research on sexual victimisation focused on heterosexual women, showing that most victims are female and most perpetrators are male. According to Reaves (2006), 33 percent of convicted rapists are under the age of twenty-five, and 18 percent are between the ages of eighteen and twenty-one-one. The ages highlighted in these statistics are a reflection of the ages of male students in institutions of higher learning. Moreover, these are the same males that come into contact daily with female students in institutions of higher learning.

Loh and Gidycz (2006) found that men with a history of childhood sexual victimisation were over six times more likely to perpetrate sexual assault as adolescents and adults. This can be identified as a factor that makes males the frequent perpetrators. If a large number of these males who have been victimised in their childhood are left unhealed from their experiences, they turn out to displace their negative experience of being victimised by the females around them. This can be classified as either a form of sexual gratification, power infliction or anger displacement. From a theoretical perspective, differences in gender role socialisation concerning sexual behaviour suggest that male and female campus sexual assault survivors might respond differently to the undermining effect of the abuse experienced on their sexual self-esteem. According to the predominant sexual script, men are socialized into taking the role of initiators of sexual inter-actions (Morrison, Masters, Wells, Casey, Beadnell & Hoppe, 2015). Lowered sexual self-esteem may lead them to pursue their sexual interest using aggressive tactics to achieve sexual gratification, suggesting a significant path from lowered sexual self-esteem to sexual aggression perpetration.

By contrast, women are socialized to be gatekeepers of male sexual initiatives (Jozkowski & Peterson, 2013), and lowered sexual self-esteem may weaken their ability to reject unwanted sexual advances, suggesting a path from lowered sexual self-esteem to sexual assault victimisation. In the study conducted by Dzimadzi and Klopper (2007) in Malawian institutions of higher learning, it was reported that eighty-nine respondents (98.9%) reported that their

abusers were males and one respondent (1.1%) reported a female abuser. As many as 26.7% of the abusers were lovers, 33.3% were friends and 20% were relatives. This better explains that victimisation happens in a pool of connectedness where sometimes the woman might fall victim to someone she knows or even trusts. Many women who lack a true understanding of sexual victimisation do not see themselves as victims of sexual abuse if a romantic partner committed it. For instance, young people who submit to the pressure of a partner's demands for sex as an expression of commitment may not respond affirmatively to a general question on "forced" sex. In dealing with such confusions in the USA, an undergraduate student-led peer advocacy program by the name of Campus Peer Advocates was enacted in 2011, with the mission of creating a survivor-supportive campus (Krause, Miedema, Woofter & Yount, 2017). This is a radical program that provides training and discussions for peers about sexual consent, gender inequitable relational power, institutional policy, and support services for survivors of sexual assault. By doing so, Campus Peer Advocates was serving as an informal conduit between the institution and undergraduate students to address sexual assault. This can be adopted in local contexts as it not only creates awareness and empowers students, but also gives support to those that have been victimized. This goes a long way in the fight against sexual assault.

A small percentage of the reported sexual harassment were from university staff members. Imperatively so, the study by Sivertsen, Nielsen, Madsen, Knapstad, Lonning and Hysing (2019) shows that there are still many students who experience some form of sexual harassment from a person in power or a trusted position. This is evident in previously conducted studies that highlight that the perpetrators of sexual victimisation are sometimes lecturers and support staff that are employed to protect these students. There is inadequate literature and reports that explain the victimisation by general staff members and the reason for this could be because most cases that involve staff members go unreported, and when reported, are made to disappear to protect the reputation of the institution.

In a 2016 review of 300 international studies on transactional sex, three basic paradigms were identified, including 'sex for basic needs,' which positions women as victims in transactional sexual relationships; 'sex for improved social status', which positions women as sexual agents who engage in transactional sex to attain middle-class status; and 'sex and material expressions of love, which draws attention to the connections between love and money, and the central role of men as providers in relationships' (Stoebenau, Heise, Wamoyi & Bobrova, 2016). Echoing available literature, the study by Treffry et al. (2018) suggested that, many women students

find themselves abused not only by their student boyfriends but also by men in power who force them to exchange sex for a particular service, including a residence place or marks/grades. This kind of transactional sex can be aligned with the 'sex for basic needs' paradigm. The university can address this form of victimisation by warning students and staff, equipping them with the skills and knowledge needed to respond effectively to these situations and punishing perpetrators who demand sex for what women students are entitled to, such as a place in residence (Butler-Kisber, 2010; Jones-Sanpei, Day and Holmes (2009). Furthermore, students need to be educated on their rights as students so that they are not taken advantage of by people who promise them things.

2.15. The effects of sexual victimisation

Rape culture effectively undermines the citizenship of women and girls, demoting them to 'second class citizens' and serving to control their behaviour through a culture of silence, fear, and shame. The effects of such experiences are long-lasting and life-threatening. Research has gone as far as to suggest that perhaps the impact of rape exceeds that of other crimes. The same can be said for any other form of sexual victimisation. This is a concern, as previous research has shown that experiencing sexual victimisation during late adolescence or young adulthood can have far-reaching consequences, including unwanted pregnancy and increased risk of psychological, sexual and reproductive health problems (Rickert, Vaughan & Wiemann, 2002). The health consequences of sexual violence are well documented and include both short-term and long-term health problems such as depression, eating disorders, post-traumatic stress disorder, and suicidal ideation (Black et al., 2011; Campbell, Dworkin & Cabral, 2009; Gidycz, Orchowski, King & Rich, 2008; Kaura & Lohman, 2007) as well as injury, sexually transmitted infections, and chronic illness (Campbell, Sefl & Ahrens, 2003; Fisher, Cullen & Turner, 2000). All these effects mentioned have a detrimental effect on the progress of the student's career and wellbeing.

In the area of rape, research has identified shock, confusion, fear, agitation, and social withdrawal in the immediate aftermath of sexual violence (e.g. Herman, 1992) and posttraumatic stress disorder, depression, acute fear and anxiety, generalised anxiety, and suicidality among the long-term effects (Campbell, Dworkin & Cabral, 2009; Jordan, Campbell & Follingstad, 2010). The psychological and somatic sequelae of rape have been found to include negatively altered self-schemas, disordered eating, chronic pain, anxiety, depression,

and posttraumatic stress disorder as well as impairment in social, work, and family domains (e.g. Amar & Gennaro, 2005; Kaura & Lohman, 2007). These negative effects are those that are projected by victims of any other form of sexual victimisation. They are not limited to completed rape only but apply through a range of victimisations, of course differing on the severity. The more serious the victimisation, the more extreme the effect is and vice versa.

Additionally, college students who have been assaulted are more likely to engage in risky behaviours, such as binge drinking and drug use, have lowered academic performance and may be at greater risk for re-victimisation (Combs, Jordan, & Smith, 2014; Fisher et al., 2000; Gidycz, Hanson & Layman, 1995; Jordan, Combs & Smith, 2014). It has been shown that sexual victimisation affects victims' academic performance. Victims' reports of violence and associated changes in routines and behaviours may lead to decreased class attendance and, ultimately, to college failure (Amar & Gennaro, 2005). Analysis conducted in developing countries has found that experiences of sexual violence can limit young women's ability to achieve their educational potential (Mirsky, 2002). The level of negative academic impact on a woman's academic performance is positively related to the severity of her victimisation: Higher rates of GPAs under 2.5 were seen among women for those whose assault experience was rape as compared to other forms of sexual assault (Jordan, Combs & Smith, 2014). This describes that the more severe the victimisation is, the higher the impact of negative effects after the incidence. This necessitates the objective of the study which is the evaluation of currently existing strategies used in institutions of higher learning in policing sexual victimisation to curb it. The effort needs to be exerted on the part of dealing with victims to avoid such life-hindering effects.

College women who report a history of sexual assault before college are more likely to drink alcohol, binge drink alcohol, and have negative consequences from their drinking (Combs, Jordan & Smith, 2014; Ross et al., 2011). Some researchers have suggested that increased alcohol use and alcohol expectancies reflect a maladaptive or avoidant coping mechanism for dealing with the effects of past sexual victimisation. Consistent with this argument, 50%–75% of women who experienced sexual victimisation engage in addictive behaviours suggesting that these behaviours may serve as a way of self-medicating to relieve embarrassment, anxiety, guilt, etc. (Jansinski et al., 2000; Kaukinen & DeMaris, 2005; Wekerle & Hall, 2002). Corbin, Bernat, Calhoun, McNair and Seals (2001) suggested that victimised women drink because they anticipate the relaxing properties of alcohol and that they drink as a means of coping with the effects of past trauma. However, the use of alcohol becomes a re-victimisation factor as

Monks, Tomaka, Palacios and Thompson (2010) suggest that a negative element to drinking alcohol to cope is that the known physiological effects of alcohol, including impaired perception and judgment, misinterpretation of sexual advances, and inability to protect oneself. This interpretation illustrates that a victim that does not receive adequate support after victimisation is likely to adopt avoidant behaviours that also have negative repercussions and may lead to re-victimisation.

Contrary to findings, that sexual victimisation leads to a heightened propensity to consume alcohol, Testa, Livingston and Hoffmanet (2007) in their longitudinal study found that sexual victimisation, over two years, failed to predict increased use of alcohol. Instead, alcohol use tended to remain consistent over time and did not increase in response to recent victimisation experiences. The differences in findings could be attributed to the different methods used in different studies, the social context of each study and the difference in cultural dynamics of the studied institutions. It is evident that further research on these associations is needed.

Overall, Artz and Smythe (2007) argue that rape survivors require better services, protection, and assistance with the criminal justice system. The following areas require support:

- Crisis care: counselling, personal safety and well-being, emotional support for trauma;
- Health intervention: treatment for physical injuries, pregnancy risk, HIV and other sexually transmitted infections;
- Forensic/medico-legal examination;
- Criminal justice process support;
- Long-term treatment and support: psychosocial treatment, referrals.

The significance of the various types of support that a victim may require should not be underestimated. Every type of support mentioned above is critical for the victim in order for them to heal, forgive, and not become another victim of sexual violence in the future. The importance of properly implementing such help and support cannot be overstated.

2.16. Underreporting of female sexual victimisation

Evidence suggests that statistics are much higher, since fear, shame, re-traumatisation, and a lack of trust in the criminal justice system discourage women and girls from reporting sexual violence (Naidoo, 2013). Consequently, just one in nine cases of sexual violence ever reached police records (Naidoo, 2013; Knox & Monaghan, 2003; Jewkes & Abraham, 2002).

Sexual victimisation is a type of crime that is sometimes less reported compared to other criminal acts. Indeed, some have called sexual victimisation a “silent epidemic” due to a lack of reporting incidents of victimisation (Abbey, Ross, McDuffie & McAuslan, 1996). An underreporting of such a criminal act leads to the unreliability of statistics as a grey area accumulates, leaving this issue undealt with and prone to continuing. As Sinozich and Langton (2014) substantiate, widespread underreporting of sexual assault limits the utility and accuracy of estimating prevalence from reports of sexual assault to campus or law enforcement. To evaluate why sexual victimisation goes unreported the term “connectedness” was adopted to explain the environment of an institution that might promote or discourage reporting. It refers to a subjective perception that “reflects a sense of closeness” to others (Whitlock, Wyman & Barreira, 2012:5). Connectedness as a way to promote reporting, lack of connectedness births lack of reporting and communication.

Connectedness is a concept used in psychology to understand students’ experiences in educational settings (Jorgenson, Farrell, Fudge & Pritchard, 2018; Samuolis, Griffin, Mason & Dekraker, 2017). This concept explains that in institutions where students feel a sense of community and belonging as well as protection, reporting sexual victimisation becomes easy. This is so because the victim knows that they will get the necessary support when they do a report. Unlike in campuses with a decayed sense of community and no support structures. Victims in this setting are less likely to report their victimisation, as they do not feel protected and know they will not get the support they need. Unfortunately, victims experience being judged, stigmatised and their victimisation experience is invalidated.

In support of the notion of connectedness Garcia, Lechner, Frerich, Lust and Eisenberg (2012) highlight that there is a common belief that students are less likely to seek assistance on campuses where they do not feel a sense of trust in the institution’s ability to respond. These students may also be more likely to experience a sense of “institutional betrayal” (Smith & Freyd, 2014). For example, in 2016, a police officer sexually assaulted a student during a protest at a large South African university. However, rather than taking decisive action against the perpetrator and responding to the victim’s trauma, university spokespeople became preoccupied with the wording of their response in the media: ‘Was it a case of rape, or [merely] a case of sexual assault? Did it occur on campus or off campus?’ (The Daily Vox Team, 2016). Three academics from this university argue that the university’s failure to take decisive action effectively ‘entrenches rape culture and dismisses the gravity of the incident and the lasting impact of sexual violence on women’ (The Daily Vox Team, 2016). As a result of this, there

is non-reporting of sexual victimisation cases, and isolation by the victim that exacerbates negative effects. This can also be related to issues of sexual orientation as bisexual women who disclosed their sexual assault reported more negative reactions to disclosure than heterosexual women. According to Smith, Cunningham and Freyd (2016), sexual minorities report less confidence in the university's handling of sexual assault.

In a study conducted by Edwards, Littleton, Sylaska, Crossman and Craig (2016) among 202 LGBTQ undergraduates, it was discovered that between one third and one half did not know what services were available to survivors of intimate partner violence, and between 20% and 25% reported there were no resources in place. Among sexual minorities in general, those who are sexual assault survivors report fear of further marginalization, difficulty navigating heteronormative services, and fear of portraying their community negatively as barriers to help-seeking in the wake of sexual assault victimisation (Dworkin & Yi, 2003; Ollen, Ameral, Palm Reed & Hines, 2017). These findings contribute greatly to the underreporting of sexual victimisation because some victims do not report due to a lack of information of where they can report.

Negative reactions to disclosure have been associated with posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), problem drinking, depression, self-blame, and social withdrawal (Hakimi, Bryant-Davis, Ullman, & Gobin, 2018; Relyea & Ullman, 2015). Furthermore, Worthen and Wallace (2017) surveyed 1,899 undergraduate students and found that bisexual students were more likely than heterosexual students to say that most sexual assaults are not reported on their campus. Because of all the stereotypes such as those that bisexual women are promiscuous and disease-prone, bisexual students may be less likely to disclose and seek support after experiencing sexual violence.

Campuses should attempt to identify incidents of sexual victimisation by promoting and supporting disclosure in a variety of manners, reducing victim blaming throughout disclosure, investigation, and adjudication processes, and providing real-time intervention and services to students troubled by experiencing or witnessing sexual victimisation (Fedina, Holmes & Backes, 2018). Some research has suggested that victims of acquaintance sexual assault may be particularly vulnerable to being blamed or held responsible for their victimisations (Miller et al., 2010b). Similarly, so, some of the reasons stated in the Dzimadzi and Klopper (2007) study were that some victims did not report sexual abuse due to the victims' fear of consequences and lack of knowledge that they were being abused. Such information from

previous studies confirms that institutions still have a lot of work to do in creating awareness of the sexual victimisation problem as well as providing adequate support to all victims of sexual victimisation regardless of their sexual orientation. Sexual victimisation is an issue that affects all victims negatively; hence, they all need to be adequately supported.

2.17. Monitoring of sexual victimisation

Prevention of gender-based violence among adolescents is increasing interest of practitioners and researchers, although the vast majority of existing studies are focused on adults, are on intimate partner violence, and/or focus on high-income settings (Ellsberg, Arango, Morton, Gennari, Kiplesund, Contreras and Watts, 2014). The pervasiveness of rape and other forms of sexual violence against women and girls in South Africa, and the inadequacy of the state's response, have fostered a 'rape culture' in which sexual violence has become normalised (Treffry-Goatley, de Lange, Moletsane, Mkhize & Masinga, 2018). Although there has been a development of the Policy and Strategy Framework by DHET to address gender-based violence (GBV), there are still too many loopholes in interventions that are implemented towards the eradication of sexual victimisation. For this policy framework to succeed, however, the underlying patriarchal rape culture as argued by Treffry-Goatley et al. (2018) needs to be challenged since it often undermines the implementation of policies designed to protect students from sexual violence

Many studies have measured lifetime victimisation among students and not sexual violence experienced since entering college. Therefore, these types of studies do not accurately represent the extent to which sexual assault occurs on college and university campuses (Vanderwoerd, 2009). The extent of this phenomenon is of paramount importance as it allows for an evaluation of preventative measures against the decrease or increase of rates, informing the amount of monitoring this issue requires. Sexual victimisation, just like any other criminal act is governed by the legal bodies of the particular institution along with those of the state. The authority that has judicial rights over the institution has a role to implement monitoring services that will help curb the issue. The South African police services just to name one, has an objective to keep society safe from any harm. The efficiency and capacity of the South African Police Service (SAPS) must receive ongoing assessment and scrutiny within the Department's oversight agenda. In particular, enhancing SAPS competence in investigating rape cases and treating rape

survivors with due sensitivity must be closely monitored (KZN Department of Community Safety and Liaison Report, 2010).

Research on campus sexual assault largely treats students as objects of study as survivors, perpetrators, and bystanders of sexual assault overlooking students' prevention and intervention ideas and efforts on their campuses (Krause, Miedema, Woofter & Yount, 2017: 211). Student-led initiatives, such as Know Your IX (2016), End Rape on Campus (2016), SurvJustice (2016), and Survivors Eradicating Rape Culture (2016), exemplify existing student efforts to redress sexual assault and to empower peers to change norms around consent, sex, and relationships, as well as to hold institutions accountable for inadequate responses to incidents of sexual assault (Krause, Miedema, Woofter & Yount, 2017). Efforts to prevent sexual violence before it occurs (i.e. primary prevention) are increasingly recognized as a critical and necessary complement to strategies aimed at preventing re-victimisation or recidivism and ameliorating the adverse effects of sexual violence on victims (DeGue, Valle, Holt, Massetti, Matjasko & Tharp, 2014). Comprehensive strategies should include multiple intervention components and affect multiple settings to address a range of risk and protective factors for sexual violence (Nation et al., 2003). However, the vast majority of interventions evaluated for sexual violence prevention have been one-dimensional, implemented in a single setting, typically a school or college, and often utilizing a narrow set of strategies to address individual attitudes and knowledge related to sexual violence.

A minority of programs included content to address individual-level risk factors other than attitudes and knowledge (e.g. relevant skills and behaviours). Fewer than 10% included content to address factors beyond the individual level, such as peer attitudes, social norms, or organizational climate and policies, despite evidence that relationship and contextual factors are also important in shaping risk for sexual violence perpetration. To deal with the problem of sexual victimisation, a more comprehensive approach that is geared towards multiple populations has to be adopted. A recent review by Paul and Gray (2011) concluded that sexual violence prevention strategies often lack a strong theoretical framework and fail to utilize established social psychological and behaviour change research to inform program development. Further research needs to be done on sexual victimisation to uncover the reality, this will assist the South African Police Service (SAPS), National Prosecuting Authority (NPA) and Department of Justice and Constitutional Development (DoJ & CD) in coming up with tailor-made interventions to fit the institutions and eradicate sexual victimisation.

2.18. The media and sexual victimisation

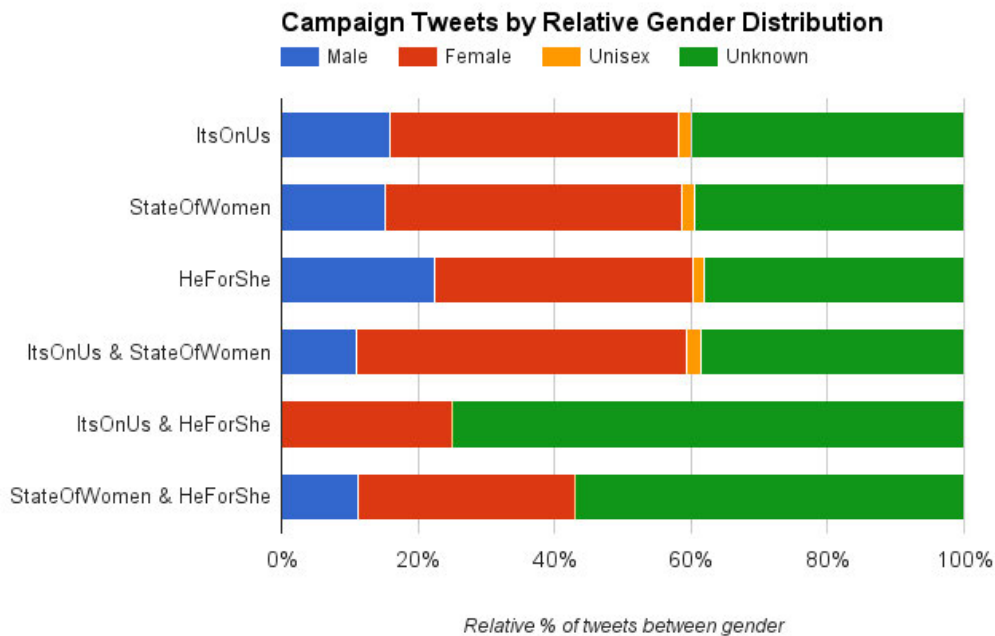
The culture, power and influence of social media are widely recognised as enabling new forms of communication concerning gender and sexual violence (Rentschler, 2015). Prior literature on computational social science efforts to study the Gender-Based Violence domain on social media presents different explorations of the dimensions of forms, language use, and content analysis. Mendes, Keller and Ringrose (2019) contend that social or digital media presents a generative activist space that allows for the expression of affective commonalities and solidarities, including fear, anger and disgust at GBV; and for the exposure of societal and institutional practices, which feed into sexual discrimination and GBV. While most of the prior research has focused largely on forms of cyberbullying and online harassment/trolling (Coles & West, 2016; Hosseinmardi, Mattson, Rafiq, Han, Ly and Mishra, 2015). Few studies have been performed to examine the connection between public attitudes and GBV issues employing sharing voices and engaging on social media.

In the social media context, Karuna, Purohit, Stabile and Hattery (2017) investigated the impact of following three anti-GBV campaign communities (a campaign community consists of social media users, who use the campaign's identity hashtag, in the shared messages):

1. (College-centric) The US White House #ItsOnUs initiative to combat sexual assault on college campuses in the US;
2. (Nation-centric) The US White House #StateOfWomen initiative, one facet of which focuses on Violence against Women in the US; and
3. (Globe-centric) The UN #HeForShe initiative which seeks to involve men and boys in the cause of establishing gender equality for women, including ensuring that women and girls can live in environments free from the threat of violence (Karuna et al., 2017)

A consistent pattern of higher female engagement has been observed in the literature, the higher proportions of male engagement in the #HeForShe campaign cause by the very nature of the campaign cause. This, in turn, provides insight into how campaigns could benefit from collaborating to cross-reference content strategies for increasing engagement in specific demographics.

Fig.3 Gender-wise relative distribution of tweets in the three campaign communities, and their intersections.



Adapted from Karuna et al. (2017).

In the later-twentieth-century Violence Against Women movement, activist partners "learned a strategic lesson 'Let's look for more allies'"; this was accomplished, in part, by linking the call for women's rights to the broader issue of human rights in general (Keck, Margaret and Sikkink, 1998).

#StateOfWomen has a broader scope of women's rights than GBV, which could be used to design campaign outreach for engaging a more diverse set of stakeholders, and other campaign communities, such as college-centric #ItsOnUs, could benefit from coordinating with the broader scope campaign community in spreading awareness through cross-referencing.

Students serve as change agents, advocating against campus sexual assault and changing campus norms regarding consent, prevention, and support for survivors, as well as institutional response (Dick & Ziering, 2015; Jackson, 2014). In recent years, student-led movements have gotten a lot of attention in the national media (N. Anderson & Svrluga, 2015; Zimmerman, 2016). This encourages a level of dialogue about the problem and potential interventions.

The #ItsOnUs website includes a section highlighting groups and organisations that work with it to address the issue of sexual assault, an explicit acknowledgement of the importance of coalition building in advancing social and cultural change. Public figures identified as "policy entrepreneurs", who are prominent public figures invested in raising awareness of issues by

parlaying their fame into effective spokesman ship for a cause, can also provide impetus for stakeholders to reject the status quo and advocate for policy and social change.

A research survey reported in the Huffington Post (Huffington, 2012) reveals that though men and women both use various forms of social media, women comprise 62% of Twitter users. Not surprisingly, younger people are far more likely to use Twitter than middle-aged and older adults. Thus, when we consider men's and women's involvement in anti-GBV social activism, it is not surprising that women are significantly more likely to be involved, at every level from social media campaigns, to activism, to advocacy than are men (Messner, Michael, Max, Greenberg & Tal Peretz, 2015). Much attention has focused recently on programs designed to encourage men's engagement in anti-GBV activism, specifically sexual assault, including initiatives such as Coaching Men Into Boys, and "Take the Pledge Violence Against Women: We Can Stop It" a program developed by the US Attorney General's Office (National Resource Centre on Domestic Violence, 2011). These are all efforts aimed at drawing attention to a problem that requires serious and immediate interventions.

2.19. Chapter Summary

Throughout the discussion of the current state of sexual victimisation, it is clear that it is a source of concern for both local and international institutions of higher learning. The findings from various studies may show a correspondence or, in some cases, a difference. This can be attributed to the study's type, design, and the characteristics of the population from which the sample was drawn. The variety of findings highlighted in this section is also influenced by methodological designs and research instruments. In order to address the issue and protect students from further victimisation, the literature advocates for more research on the social context of sexual victimisation of female students. According to the literature, South African institutions have not conducted adequate research on the issues that contribute to the prevalence of sexual victimisation. The study aims to investigate the problematic nature of sexual victimisation in the context of institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal in order to contribute to the implementation of future interventions that are problem-oriented rather than universal. The following chapter discusses the policy and legislative frameworks that govern sexual victimisation.

CHAPTER 3

POLICY AND LEGISLATIVE FRAMEWORK GUIDING SEXUAL VICTIMISATION

3.1. Introduction

The study recognises that there is existing South African legislation, acts, and policies in place to combat sexual victimisation. The Constitution, as well as relevant legislation and policies enacted in South Africa, reflect a collective national commitment to protecting and upholding human and sexual rights. These laws and policies are primarily intended to protect women from all forms of violence and victimisation.

The synergy between the Constitution as the foundation of laws, legislation, and policies will be discussed in this chapter. National, local, and institution-based policies are presented in order to provide an understanding of the current efforts to address the problematic nature of sexual victimisation of young women, particularly students in institutions of higher learning. There is currently no independent effort, but rather a network of interconnected efforts to address the issue of sexual victimisation. The legislation and policies discussed in this chapter are summarised in the table below.

National legislation	<ul style="list-style-type: none">-Constitution-Domestic Violence Act No. 116 of 1998-Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act No.32 of 2007
National Policies	<ul style="list-style-type: none">-National Sexual Assault Policy- Policy Framework to address Gender-Based Violence in the Post-School Education and Training System.
Institutional Policies	<ul style="list-style-type: none">-Institution A-Institution B-Institution C

Table 3: Summary of legislation and policy

This chapter also recognises the significance of international efforts such as the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, the Human Rights Charter, and the Jeanne Clery Disclosure of Campus Security Policy and Crime Statistics Act, as well as the Campus Sexual Violence Elimination Act of 2013. The goal of this study is also in line with addressing Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) 4: Quality Education, 5: Gender Equality, and 16: Peace and Justice Strong Institutions. However, for the purposes of this study, only South African legislation and policies will be discussed in this chapter. Importantly, three policies from the three institutions sampled will be discussed.

3.2. The Constitution of the Republic of South Africa

The Republic of South Africa Constitution of 1996 (Act No. 108 of 1996) went into effect on February 4, 1997. (Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, 1996). The Constitution is the supreme law of the land; no other law or action of the government can override its provisions. The Constitution is adopted as the Republic's supreme law in order to:

“Heal the divisions of the past and establish a society based on democratic values, social justice and fundamental human rights;

Lay the foundations for a democratic and open society in which government is based on the will of the people and every citizen is equally protected by law;

Improve the quality of life of all citizens and free the potential of each person; and

Build a united and democratic South Africa able to take its rightful place as a sovereign state in the family of nations.”

According to the statements above, South Africa is idealised as a country that prioritises human rights, dignity, protection, and the provision of justice for its people. This is justified by the Constitution's progressiveness, which serves as the foundation for various laws. The Bill of Rights, Chapter 2 of the Constitution, serves as the foundation for all legislation in South Africa. According to the Bill of Rights, the Bill of Rights is a cornerstone of South African democracy. It enshrines all people's rights and upholds the democratic values of human dignity, equality, and freedom. The state must respect, protect, promote, and carry out the rights enshrined in the Bill of Rights. According to Section 9(1), everyone is equal before the law and has the right to equal protection and benefit from the law. Equality entails having full and equal access to all rights and freedoms. To promote equality, legislative and other measures designed

to protect or advance individuals or groups of individuals who have been disadvantaged by unfair discrimination may be implemented.

Section 10 of the Constitution enshrines that everyone has inherent dignity and the right to have their dignity respected and protected. This is translated to treating people with respect and not discriminating against any race, ethnicity, gender, culture or religion. Extensively, Section 12(1) of the Constitution outlines the right to freedom and security of the person. It emphasises that:

12. (1) Everyone has the right to freedom and security of the person, which includes the right—

(a) not to be deprived of freedom arbitrarily or without just cause;

(b) not to be detained without trial;

(c) to be free from all forms of violence from either public or private sources;

(d) not to be tortured in any way; and

(e) not to be treated or punished in a cruel, inhuman or degrading way.

(2) Everyone has the right to bodily and psychological integrity, which includes the right—

(a) to make decisions concerning reproduction;

(b) to security in and control over their body; and

(c) not to be subjected to medical or scientific experiments without their informed consent.

It is these rights that serve as guidelines to any legislation that is enacted to protect citizens. Laws that serve to protect, prevent and police Gender-Based Violence, particularly sexual victimisation stem from the provision made in the Bill of Rights such as section 12(1)(c) to be free from all forms of violence from their public or private sources and (d) not to be tortured on any way. It is further extended in section 12(2)(a) to security in and control over their body.

3.3. Domestic Violence Act No. 116 OF 1998

Domestic abuse is classified under this Act as physical, sexual, emotional, verbal, or psychological abuse. It also includes intimidation, harassment, stalking, property damage, and unwelcome entry into the complainant's home when the parties do not live together.

A domestic relationship can exist between individuals who share a residence but have no sexual or romantic relationship, according to this Act. It brings both housemates and students in residences under the protection of the Act. According to the Act, a "domestic relationship" is defined as "any relationship between a complainant and a respondent in any of the following ways."

(a) they are or were married to each other, including marriage according to any law, custom or religion;

(b) they (whether they are of the same or of the opposite sex) live or lived together in a relationship in the nature of marriage, although they are not, or were not, married to each other, or are not able to be married to each other;

(c) they are the parents of a child or are persons who have or had parental responsibility for that child (whether or not at the same time ;

(d) they are family members related by consanguinity, affinity or adoption;

(e) they are or were in an engagement, dating or customary relationship, including an actual or perceived romantic, intimate or sexual relationship of any duration; or

(f) they share or recently shared the same residence.

This Act is relevant in addressing issues of sexual victimisation of female students in higher education institutions. It emphasises the South African Police Service's obligation to assist and inform the complainant of their rights. According to the Act, a peace officer may arrest, without a warrant, any respondent at the scene of a domestic violence incident who he or she reasonably suspects of committing an offence involving an element of violence against a complainant. Section 4(1) states that any complainant may apply to the court for a protection order in the prescribed manner. The provisions of this Act are intended to protect and support victims of domestic violence throughout the Criminal Justice System.

3.4. Criminal Law (Sexual Assault and Related Matters) Amendment Act NO.32 Of 2007

The Sexual Assault and Related Matters Amendment Act No.32 of 2007 as approved by the presidency for publication for general information serves as legislation directed at dealing with issues of sexual assault and related matters. Section 11 of the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act, 2007 (hereinafter referred to as the Principal Act):

"Engaging sexual services of persons 18 years or older

11. A person ('A') who unlawfully and intentionally engages the services of a person 18 years or older ('B'), for financial or other reward, favour or compensation to B or to a third person ('C')- 10

(a) for the purpose of engaging in a sexual act with B, irrespective of whether the sexual act is committed or not; or

(b) by committing a sexual act with B.

is guilty of the offence of engaging the sexual services of a person 18 years or older."

This Act stipulates that a sentence for such an offence as mentioned above, as provided for in section 276 of the Criminal Procedure Act, 1997(Act No. 51 of 1977), which that court considers appropriate and which is within that court's penal jurisdiction. This Act is of importance in defining what constitutes sexual assault and victimisation. It also provides guidelines to the criminal justice system is approaching and prosecuting offences of this nature.

3.5. National sexual assault policy

The development of this policy was informed by research on the magnitude of the problem of sexual assault, recognition of barriers to reporting cases, and the need to increase the likelihood of sexual assault perpetrators being punished. The National Sexual Assault Policy Guidelines were developed in the context of human and health rights rationales, and are consistent with the country's current political and health service reforms. This policy's vision is to provide a high-quality, coordinated, and holistic sexual assault service that meets the health needs of rape survivors, the needs of the criminal justice system for well-presented medico-legal evidence, and the needs of the community in contributing to community protection and justice. Sexual crimes in South Africa are prosecuted under both common law and statutory law, according to

the National Sexual Assault Policy (2005). South African common law is founded on Roman-Dutch principles, which have been significantly modified by English law, legislation, and European influences. According to this policy, common law sexual crimes include rape, sodomy, bestiality, incest, public indecency, and indecent assault, whereas sexual intercourse with minors is prosecuted under the Sexual Offences Act (23 of 1957, as amended).

In this policy, the term "sexual assault" refers to a variety of acts involving unlawful sexual penetration or attempts at penetration. Sexual assault health concerns refer to situations in which there is sexual penetration to any extent whatsoever by one person's genital organ into the anus, mouth, or genital organs of another person, or by any object or part of one person's body into the anus, mouth, or genital organs of another person. Because teenagers and young women are at the highest risk of sexual assault, according to the Crime Information Analysis Centre (2002), this policy was enacted to address the issue. The policy was progressive in that it provided strategic approaches to dealing with factors that make women vulnerable to victimisation, as well as the consequences and policing of sexual assault. It also emphasises critical service providers such as healthcare workers, medico-legal services, and victims' justice administration. National government, Departments of Safety and Security, Justice and Constitutional Development, Education, Social Development, Correctional Services, and the Office on the Status of Women are all actively involved in this policy. Their functions are clearly defined, giving victims a clear understanding of where to seek assistance.

This policy derives its authority from historical efforts to eradicate the problem of violence against women. According to this policy, SADC heads of state or government signed an addendum to the 1997 Declaration on Gender and Development on the Prevention and Eradication of Violence Against Women and Children in September 1998.

The addendum called for laws such as sexual offences and domestic violence legislation to clearly define various forms of violence against women, as well as appropriate measures to impose penalties, punishment, and other enforcement mechanisms for the prevention and eradication of violence against women and children. These historical efforts demonstrate that the fight against violence against women has been initiated and implemented, with varying degrees of success and flaws.

3.6. Policy framework to address Gender-Based Violence in the post-school education and training system

This framework specifies strategies to be implemented in order to eliminate the scourge of GBV in the Post-School Education and Training (PSET) System. PSET institutions, according to this policy framework, have a duty to respect, protect, promote, and fulfil the rights of students, staff, and any other people within the space in which they operate. PSET institutions are confined spaces where people from various socioeconomic backgrounds meet and interact at various levels and on a variety of topics, emphasising the importance of affirming and promoting democratic values such as human dignity, equality, and freedom. The policy acknowledges that GBV has long been a problem in the PSET system. In recent years, there have been more reports of rapes and murders of female students. As a result, the Department of Higher Education (DHET) enacted this policy in order to implement measures not only to address the increased occurrence of GBV on campuses, but also to prevent GBV from occurring in the first place. It also emphasises proper and systematic monitoring and reporting procedures.

Following the policy directives presented in Chapter 2 of the 2014 White Paper for Post-School Education and Training, this Policy Framework outlines the DHET's strategic intent to combat GBV in PSET institutions. This Policy Framework applies to the entire national PSET system – institutions and organisations such as universities, Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) colleges, community education and training (CET) colleges, and skills providers, but not the schooling sector.

The Policy Framework also applies to all students, whether full-time or part-time, residential or online, as well as all institutional and organisational staff. In terms of technical guidance and support, the United Nations Population Fund (UNFPA) and the United Nations (UN) Women provided financial assistance to the Policy Framework's development by funding a technical assistant as well as funding for the consultative process.

3.7. Institutional policies for the three selected institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal (Durban)

3.7.1. Institution A's policy on sexual harassment

Institution A implemented a sexual harassment policy on October 1, 2017, which will be reviewed at least every three (3) years from that date. The goal of this policy is to establish a framework and broad principles for dealing with sexual harassment in the workplace. The policy statement emphasises that all staff and students are responsible for adhering to the University's Sexual Harassment Policy. Line managers have a special responsibility to ensure that sexual harassment does not occur in areas under their jurisdiction. According to the policy, complaints of victimisation will be taken seriously and investigated by the appropriate authority.

Sexual harassment is an unacceptable form of behaviour that undermines morale and has a negative impact on staff and students' ability to reach their full potential at the university. Because sexual harassment is a serious issue, the university is committed to taking action to deter it and to ensure that complaints are handled fairly and efficiently.

Institution A adopted the definition of Sexual harassment as defined in South African legislation as "unwanted conduct of a sexual nature". The distinguishing characteristics of sexual harassment are that it is conduct with a sexual component, which is unwelcome, unsolicited and unreciprocated.

Sexual attention becomes sexual harassment if:

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

The issue is not only the alleged harasser's intention, but also the complainant's reasonable perception and experience of the alleged harasser's behaviour. All staff, students, visitors, and third-party contractors at institution A, as well as interactions between staff, visitors, and third-party contractors and students.

This institution would not have jurisdiction over external parties involved; however, if their employees and/or students are involved, the University would make every effort to provide assistance.

Forms of sexual harassment

Sexual harassment may include physical, verbal and non-verbal conduct, which includes, but is not limited to:

Physical

- unwanted and deliberate physical contact

Verbal

- unwelcome verbal comments of a sexual nature
- subtle or explicit demands for, or offers of, sexual favours
- verbal sexual harassment such as unwelcome innuendos, suggestions and hints
- comments with sexual overtones; sex-related jokes or insults or unwelcome graphic comments about a person's body made in his/her presence or directed to him/ her
- unwelcome and inappropriate enquiries about a person's sex life; and unwelcome whistling directed at a person or group of persons

Non-verbal

- gratuitous display of sexually explicit written or audio-visual materials
- transmission or display of offensive email, screen savers or pornographic computer images
- offensive gestures or actions of a sexual nature including indecent exposure or "flashing"
- persistent unwanted attention: following or stalking behaviour

Sexual favouritism occurs when a person in a position of authority favours those who respond to his/her sexual advances, while other deserving employees and students who do not respond to sexual advances are disadvantaged or denied opportunities, such as promotion, nominations for merit awards, training opportunities, assignment and practical grading, and so on.

3.7.2. Institution A's Gender-Based Violence Policy

Gender-based violence (GBV) and sexual harassment are not tolerated at Institution A. Gender-based violence is an affront to human dignity and fundamentally contradicts the ethos and values of the South African Constitution, to which institution A is a signatory. According to the policy, this institution is committed to providing a safe place to work, study, and socialise that is free of violence/abuse, unfair discrimination, and harassment. No member of the institution's community will be tolerated committing violence on the basis of gender, sex, marital status, or sexual orientation.

GBV is defined by Institution A as any act of violence, whether persistent or isolated, directed against any person based on their gender, sex, marital status, or sexual orientation that causes or is likely to cause physical, sexual, or psychological harm or suffering. In a university setting, GBV refers to any form of violence (as defined in the definition) perpetrated on or off campus, such as in off-campus residences or during field trips, by a student, staff member, or external service provider to the University, against a student or staff member of this university.

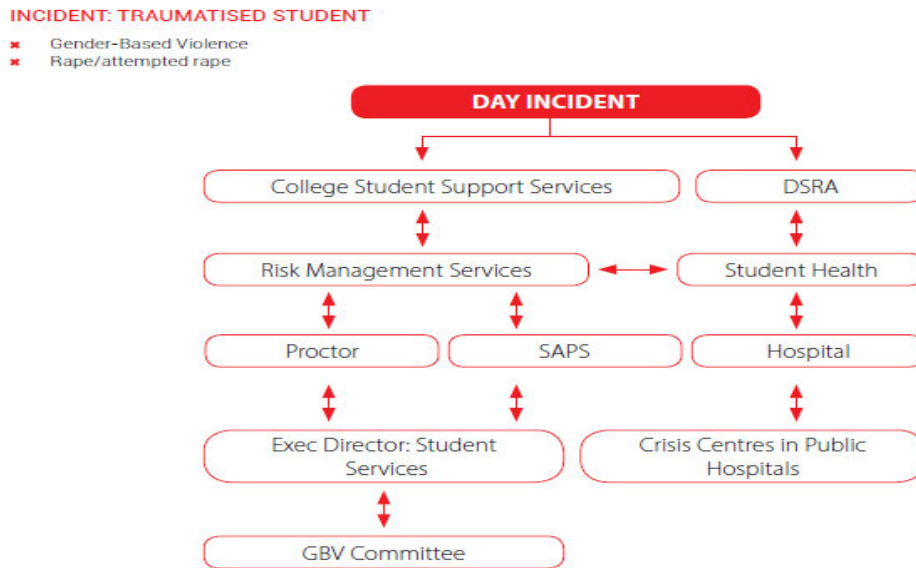
It includes, but is not limited to:

- Domestic violence
- Sexual harassment
- Sexual assault
- Rape
- Coercive sexual practices
- Harmful customary or traditional practices such as female genital mutilation and honour crimes
- Corrective rape

This policy aims to establish a comprehensive framework for preventing incidents of GBV, managing the University's response to such incidents, creating a GBV-free environment, and ensuring an expeditious and just response to incidents of GBV. One of the many terms defined in this policy is consent, which refers to the parties' informed, voluntary, and explicit communication of agreement. Physical force, compelling threats, intimidation, coercion, or any other controlling behaviour cannot be used to obtain consent. Silence does not imply consent. It is also explicit in defining intimate partner violence as any act of violence committed between

people in a domestic relationship, including (a) physical abuse; (b) sexual abuse; (c) emotional, verbal, and psychological abuse; (d) economic abuse; (e) intimidation; (f) harassment; (g) stalking; (h) property damage; I entry into the complainant's residence without consent, where the parties do not share the same residence; or (j) any other controlling or abusive behaviour..

Figure 4: Institution A’s reporting protocol as outlined in the GBV policy



This protocol represents a clear direction from the relevant departments and stakeholders who play a critical role in combating any form of GBV or sexual assault in this institution. This protocol is guided by the sexual harassment and GBV policy, psychiatric emergency management, and after-hours emergency protocol. A section titled "Keep safe" advises the university community on four (4) precautionary measures to take in order to avoid becoming a victim of any of the types of violent acts classified as GBV. They are listed below:

• Know your rights! No means ‘No’

You have the right to have your feelings and thoughts respected. It is a crime to refuse to have sex with someone and then try to persuade or force you to do so!

- **Stay alert, Be aware**

Do not drink from a punch bowl. Do not drink anything you did not open yourself. Keep your drink in your possession. Date rape drugs can be put in drinks without you knowing, rendering you unable to escape a perpetrator. Avoid excessive drinking as this can impair your ability to stay in control.

- **Safety in numbers**

Avoid going out with people you do not know well. Avoid dark, desolate areas. Have someone walk you back to your house if you use the library. There is strength in numbers. If a friend appears to be intoxicated or under the influence of drugs, do not leave his/her side or allow him/her to leave with someone/anyone you do not know or trust.

- **RMS escort services available**

Are you studying or working late? On campus, security escort is available. Please contact the appropriate RMS campus office using the information listed under "Internal institution A's Numbers." RMS will then request that you be assisted by a guard.

3.7.3. Institution B's Harassment, Gender-Based Violence and Bullying policy

The Harassment, Gender-Based Violence, and Bullying policy was implemented by Institution B in order to commit to providing a safe and secure environment free of all forms of harassment, Gender-Based Violence, and bullying. This policy prioritises the well-being of its staff and students, and it seeks to instil in students and staff members a culture of mutual respect, integrity, dignity, privacy, and the right to equity. The policy's scope extends beyond staff and students, stating that "abuse may also be perpetrated by third parties such as visitors to campus or on-site contractors and service providers." The scope of the policy includes any incident that occurs on the institution's premises.

According to Institution B's policy on harassment, GBV, and bullying, harassment is defined as unwanted or unsolicited attention based on one or more of the prohibited grounds, such as any conduct of a sexual nature that is physical, verbal, or nonverbal. It diminishes the dignity of the victim or creates a hostile working or learning environment. Harassment includes acts of victimisation without consent, and persistence may also be a factor.

The following are the objectives of this policy:

- To establish procedures for the reporting, investigation and resolution of complaints of harassment, gender-based violence (GBV) and bullying;
- To provide comprehensive medical, psycho-social and counselling support to complainants of Harassment, GBV and Bullyingl
- To promote the safety of students and staff by implementing prevention programmes designed to raise awareness of policies and assistance addressing Harassment, GBV and Bullying;
- To ensure sufficient implementation of policy and programmes through training of significant stakeholders;
- To maintain the right to confidentiality of the complainant unless permission is granted in writing; and
- To monitor and evaluate the implementation and efficacy of the policy.

The policy defines consent explicitly and states that consent is undermined by the alleged perpetrator's use of force or intimidation against the complainant, another person, or their property; a threat of harm, real or perceived, by the alleged perpetrator against the complainant, another person, or their property; or an abuse of power or authority such that the complainant is prevented from expressing her/his resistance or unwillingness. This policy emphasises reporting and investigation procedures, as well as relevant support services for victims of harassment, GBV, and bullying.

3.7.4. Institutions C policy

Attempts to gain access to Institution C's policy on sexual harassment and GBV proved futile until the study was completed.

3.8. Chapter summary

The chapter summarised current legislation and policies that serve as guidelines for addressing sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning. One of the objectives of the research is to study the usefulness of current strategies for sexual offences in Durban's selected universities, which are based on the legislation and policies discussed. The guidelines provided

in the discussed legislation and policies guide the direction of interventions such as support, reporting, and investigation. It is clear that considerable effort is being expended to address the issue of sexual victimisation and to create safe teaching and learning environments for students and staff members. Various departments and stakeholders are actively involved in attempting to provide problem-specific interventions for sexual victimisation. The success of existing intervention strategies will be determined by the correct and effective implementation of these efforts.

CHAPTER FOUR

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORKS FOR UNDERSTANDING SEXUAL VICTIMISATION

4.1. Introduction

Theories aid in the creation of a better understanding of a phenomenon while also giving birth to the possibility of providing adequate solutions to the problem under study. Theories, according to Strauss (1995), provide a model or map of why the world is the way it is, arguing that while they are a simplification of the world, they are aimed at clarifying and explaining aspects of how the world functions. McMillan and Schumacher (2001) outline some requirements for a theory to be useful in the advancement of scientific knowledge:

- A theory should provide a simple explanation of the observed relations relevant to a phenomenon;
- Be consistent with both the observed relations and an already established body of knowledge;
- Considered a tentative explanation and should provide means of verification and revision; and
- Stimulate further research in areas that need investigation.

Though limited in number and scope, rape/sexual assault theories clarify the role of human sexual aggression in offending as well as social and individual attitudes toward the actual offence, the offender, and victims. Given the gravity of sexual victimisation and its devastating impact on victims, it is critical to recognise these theories for both academic and practical purposes. This study considers the complexities of the problem of sexual victimisation, as well as the variety of the causal factors presented. As a result, two theories were used to explain and comprehend sexual victimisation.

The Routine Activity Theory and the Integrated Theory of Sexual Offending were used in this study to understand and explain sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning. A convincing explanation of sexual abuse is likely to be multifactorial in nature, incorporating a number of aetiological pathways leading to the onset and maintenance of sexual offending, according to research. The first theory is more of a victimological explanation for sexual victimisation, whereas the second takes a multidimensional and multidisciplinary

approach to explaining the problem of sexual victimisation. These theories, when combined, provide a comprehensive explanation for sexual victimisation.

4.2. Routine Activity Theory

Routine Activity Theory, developed by Felson after it was first proposed by Lawrence E. Cohen and Marcus Felson (1979), is one of the most widely cited and influential theoretical constructs in the field of victimology and crime science more broadly. Routine Activity Theory explains criminal events by focusing on three key elements that intersect in space and time during daily activities:

- a) A potential offender with the capacity to commit a crime;
- b) A suitable target or victim; and
- c) The absence of guardians capable of protecting targets and victims.

According to Cohen and Felson (1979), the dispersion of activity away from the household and new manufacturing technologies (e.g., decreases in the size and weight of durable consumer goods) correspond to temporal changes in criminal victimisation rates. Victimization on property or against a person is the specific victimisation. In this case, the criminal activity of sexual victimisation is a crime against a person. This theory has been used to forecast victimisation as well as victim characteristics and behaviour. This theory has been widely used to study a variety of crimes, including sexual crimes (e.g., Tewksbury & Mustaine, 2001).

Routine Activity Theory is, in a nutshell, an attempt to identify criminal activities and patterns at a macro-level by explaining changes in crime rate trends (Cohen & Felson, 1979). It is based on criminal events, on the distribution and grouping in space and time of the minimal elements that make them up, rather than on the search for offenders' motives, and thus provides a frame of reference for concrete and individualised crime analysis and facilitates the application of real policies and practises aimed at changing the necessary elements that make a crime possible and thus preventing it (Tilley, 2009). This study aims to contribute to sexual victimisation policy and legislation, which can only be accomplished by precisely understanding the root causes and dynamics of sexual victimisation of female students in KwaZulu-Natal institutions of higher learning.

Cohen and Felson (1980) investigated the relationship between trends in crime rates and... changes in "routine activities" of daily life. Changes in routine activity patterns can have an

impact on crime rates by affecting the convergence in time and space of the three minimal elements of direct-contact predatory violations. In the case of university institutions, structural changes have a significant impact on the convergence of the three elements. This theory focused on changes in structural patterns of people's daily activity and how the new configuration provided more criminal opportunities, potentially influencing trends in rates of certain types of crime, particularly crimes against a person or property (Cohen & Felson, 1980). A university campus accommodates individuals from various backgrounds, has facilities with varying environmental aspects, and a security system that must be updated on a regular basis to keep up with the ever-changing dynamics of student and staff lives. All of these are structural changes, and any of them could lead to an increase in sexual victimisation. A change in a security company's strategy (patrols, searches, and visibility, for example) may reduce the rates at which students are victimised while on campus.

The theory has seen numerous applications and developments over the years. Given its strong pragmatic bent, it is primarily concerned with preventing crime by reducing opportunities. Routine Activity Theory emerged as a purposefully simple explanation for changes in violent crime trends, which are encouraged by differences in patterns of daily activity, which may contribute to enjoyment of modern life but may also encourage crime. Simply put, when attempting to implement problem-specific interventions, universities can greatly benefit from adopting such a theoretical framework. This means that a study based on the Routine Activity Theory would reveal that students are sexually abused as a result of a lack of guardianship (security). A relevant intervention would then be to increase the visibility of campus security.

Cohen and Felson (1979) emphasised the importance of victimisation as a function of the social, even ecological convergence between opportunistic potential offenders and insufficiently guarded potential targets of crime in their seminal "routine-activities" approach to conceptualising crime victimisation. In addition, Cohen and Felson's (1979: 589) discussion of the convergence of motivated offenders, suitable targets, and the absence of capable guardians asserts that the absence of any one of these elements is sufficient to prevent the successful completion of a direct-contact predatory crime. The three components of the theory are explained in detail below, with the application to sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning contextualised.

4.3.Motivated Offender

A motivated offender is someone who leaves home in the morning with the mindset that if given the opportunity to commit a specific crime, he or she will. At times, the motivated offender has already weighed the costs and benefits of sexually victimising someone, or it may simply be an opportunistic type of victimisation. Anyone with a desire to commit a crime and the ability to do so is a likely offender (Felson & Cohen, 1980). On a daily basis, people come and go from a university campus, and among these people are perpetrators of sexual victimisation.

The assumption of the Routine Activity Theory is that anyone can become sufficiently motivated to break the law if the conditions are favourable. However, Gottfredson and Hirschi (1990) assert that such individuals are most likely to be young men without stable employment, who have failed in school, and who have a history of traffic accidents and emergency room visits. Fourbert and Newberry (2006) found that the majority of victims are females and the majority of perpetrators are males, supporting the notion that the male is the motivated offender. Because studies have shown that offenders or perpetrators of sexual victimisation can be both students and outsiders, this is a very versatile profile. This is not to say that females cannot be motivated offenders; however, for the purposes of this study, males are considered the primary motivated offenders for sexual victimisation of female students.

The Routine Activity Theory has received the harshest criticism in terms of moral legitimacy. Its critics claim that the emphasis on routine activities has demonstrated a complete lack of interest in or has directly avoided the offender, thus disregarding the aetiology of the problem. In this sense, the theory, while beginning with the premise of the existence of a "motivated offender," has not defined its meaning and thus cannot answer the questions "Who are motivated offenders?" "What characteristics do they have?" and "Why are some people more motivated to commit crimes than others?" (Akers, 1998). These factors should include identifying cultural and biologically inheritable traits that increase the likelihood of individuals violating important social norms (Ward & Durrant, 2011).

To address the criticism, this study supplements the Routine Activity Theory with a much more multidimensional theory (ITSO) to fill the gaps that have been identified as causing a lack of understanding of the motivated offender.

4.4. Suitable Target

A suitable target is a person or property that an offender may threaten. One of the most powerful ideas in Routine Activity Theory is that opportunities in society are neither uniformly distributed nor infinite. Instead, the criminal has a limited number of available targets that he or she may find appealing (Tillyer & Eck, 2009). A suitable target does not have to be a specific type of female or a specific race/age range of female when explaining sexual victimisation of female students. Any female who comes into contact with a motivated offender in a university facility that lacks appropriate guardianship of the student under threat is a suitable target. The student is then victimised as a result of the convergence in time and space with the motivated offender, in which they are not adequately protected.

The likelihood that a target will be more or less suitable is influenced by four attributes, which are defined by the acronym VIVA (value, inertia, visibility, and access) from the perspective of the offender (Cohen & Felson, 1979; Felson & Clarke, 1998):

- **Value:** real or symbolic, from the perspective of the offender;
- **Inertia:** size, weight, and shape, or the physical aspects of the person or good that act as obstacles or impediments to the offender seeing it as suitable;
- **Visibility:** exposure of targets to offenders, the attribute that marks the person or the good for the attack; and
- **Access:** the design of the site and the placement of the object that increases the risk of attack or makes it easier to carry out.

This section deconstructs the factors that may make a person a suitable target. Suzuki (2014), for example, contends that an intoxicated victim who accepts a ride from someone she has just met and is raped by that person may be seen as culpable, because she could have avoided being raped by refusing to accept a ride from someone she barely knew. While the term "blameworthy" may not be appropriate, Suzuki has a point because the victim made herself visible and accessible to the motivated offender, allowing her to be sexually victimised. Similarly, a victim who walks alone late at night in a remote area and is raped by a stranger may be blamed for not taking adequate precautions (Suzuki, 2014). Such statements may be referred to as "rape myths," but studies have shown that student lifestyles, particularly at night, make them attractive targets for sexual exploitation.

Since it is provided by the motivated offender, this type of attribution becomes extremely useful in intervention strategies. Institutions can take such attributions into account when launching offender-specific awareness campaigns or prevention strategies. Because precipitating factors

will be removed from the elements that converge, having these attributes unpacked will undoubtedly contribute to a decrease in sexual offending.

In an extension to understanding the dynamics of a suitable target, Pratt, Turanovic, Fox and Wright (2014: 104) state:

It is not simply going outside of the house that matters, but it is instead the differential risks associated with what one is actually doing outside, such as planting flowers in a garden versus selling drugs on a street. Sparks (1981) describes how potential victims may precipitate, or more commonly facilitate, predation by routinely failing to take certain prener, that influence one's susceptibility to victimisation.

Similarly, Cohen and Felson (1980) discovered that dispersing activities away from the home and family could increase the possibility of becoming a suitable target while decreasing the presence of capable guardians, that target suitability influenced predatory contacts, and that solitary life away from the family environment could increase victimisation rates. They used Hindelang's victimisation surveys (1976), for example, to confirm that activities performed away from home posed greater risks than those performed at home. People provide varying levels of opportunity for victimisation by inadvertently failing to recognise or ignoring the threat of crime in the course of their daily activities. Students leave their homes on a daily basis to attend classes, sports, and even social events at various times of the day and night. Unfortunately, this contributes to these students becoming suitable targets of sexual victimisation in higher education institutions.

4.5. Lack of Guardianship

The absence of a capable guardian, someone who can intervene to stop or impede a crime, is the theory's third and final component (Cohen & Felson, 1979). A guardian capable of preventing crime is one whose presence prevents crime from occurring and whose absence makes it more likely (Felson, 1995). This definition includes anyone who moves through an area or acts as a guardian of people or property, but the concept of guardian should not be limited to or confused with police or security guards. They are clearly capable guardians, and they are frequently absent when a crime occurs (Felson & Boba, 2010). While on campus, students are protected by their primary guardians. Academic staff, support staff, cleaners, and

other students, on the other hand, may provide adequate guardianship in the prevention of sexual victimisation.

In a review of the literature on the guardian figure in Routine Activity Theory, have defined guardianship as "the physical or symbolic presence of an individual (or group of individuals) that acts (either intentionally or unintentionally) to deter a potential criminal event" (Hollis-Peel, Reynald, van Bavel, Elffers, & Welsh, 2011: 54). To put it simply, the victim must be alone with the offender and have no one to help or protect them in order for the act of sexual victimisation to be carried out (lack of guardianship). In an effort to link his theory to Hirschi's social control theory (1969), Felson refines the figure of the guardian, distinguishing between the "intimate handler" and the "place manager" (Felson, 1995). The first could be a parent or friend who, by disapproving of the potential offender's behaviour, tries to prevent them from breaking the rules. In terms of female students, there may be a lack of intimate handling because the majority of them live alone in their residences and live their lives isolated from other students, making them easy targets. In contrast, a female who belongs to a group of friends and spends the majority of her time with the friends is less vulnerable to victimisation because her friends act as guardians.

The second aspect of the guardian is the place manager, which refers to individuals who have supervisory responsibility in specific spaces, such as doormen, bus drivers, and so on. Thus, in developing the concept of guardian, Felson condenses four elements of Hirschi's Theory (1969), attachment, commitment, involvement, and belief, into a single concept, "handle." Felson is consistent with the idea of social control and drives home the idea that control is a critical element in crime rate trends by probing the idea that someone could dissuade an offender by his presence in a place, or that a person could discourage a possible offender because of his relationship with him (Cohen & Felson, 1979). In support of this idea, Miro' (2014) claims that the structure of routine legal activities determines how crime is organised in society and where it occurs most frequently, with significant preventative consequences. Security personnel are the place managers who are in charge of the students' safety for female students. The visibility and protective powers of security reduce the chances of students being victims of sexual assault while on university grounds. Security personnel are responsible for emphasising the importance of student safety and environmental monitoring.

This theory is closely related to crime analysis and prevention, and it has been successfully applied to strategies such as situational prevention, problem-oriented policing, and problem

analysis. The routine activity viewpoint, on the other hand, is a notable exception to the theory-policy gap. Routine Activity Theory concepts have influenced policing policy and situational crime prevention efforts (Braga et al., 1999; Clarke, 1995; Weisburd, Telep & Lawton, 2014). This is a radical theory that will be used in the implementation phase of the recommendations produced by this study. Cohen and Felson not only identified the socio-environmental aspect of the sexual victimisation event, but also provided a model with great expressive power to explain the "ecological" nature of the act and demonstrate how elements seemingly unrelated to the illegal activity can shape and determine it (or its absence). The following theory considers the presence of numerous other factors in the unlawful act of sexual victimisation of female students.

4.6. Integrated Theory of Sexual Offending

Theoretical advances in the field of sexual offending have been notable in the last 20 years or so, and researchers have developed a number of rich accounts of sexual offending (Ward, Polaschek, & Beech, 2006). According to the findings of a comprehensive victimisation analysis, there are several types of causes that can be linked to sexual crimes. This theory aims to provide a comprehensive explanation of the aetiology and persistence of sexual offending. The process of integrating the best parts of existing theories into a new framework in order to propose a more comprehensive overarching theory is known as 'theory knitting.' A comprehensive theory of sexual offending should be able to describe not only the aetiology of sexual offending, but also the mechanisms involved in offending and the process of sexual offending as it unfolds over time. This theory was chosen to explain the factors that contribute to female students' sexual victimisation.

The ITSO (Ward & Beech, 2006) is a more recent development of the unified theory (Ward, Polaschek & Beech, 2005) and is a multifactorial theory of sexual offending that integrates a number of level I, II, and III theories. The ITSO (shown in Figure 1) identifies three causal factors (biological, ecological, and psychological) that, when combined, result in clinical issues. Level I theories identify multiple core factors related to sexual offending, whereas Level II theories propose single factors related to sexual offending aetiology. Level III theories are micro-models that specify the cognitive, behavioural, motivational, and social factors that contribute to the offender chain or relapse process (Keeling, Rose & Beech, 2009). Consideration of these factors leads us to the conclusion that sexual offending emerges from a

network of relationships between individuals and their local habitats and niches, rather than being the result of individual psychopathology.

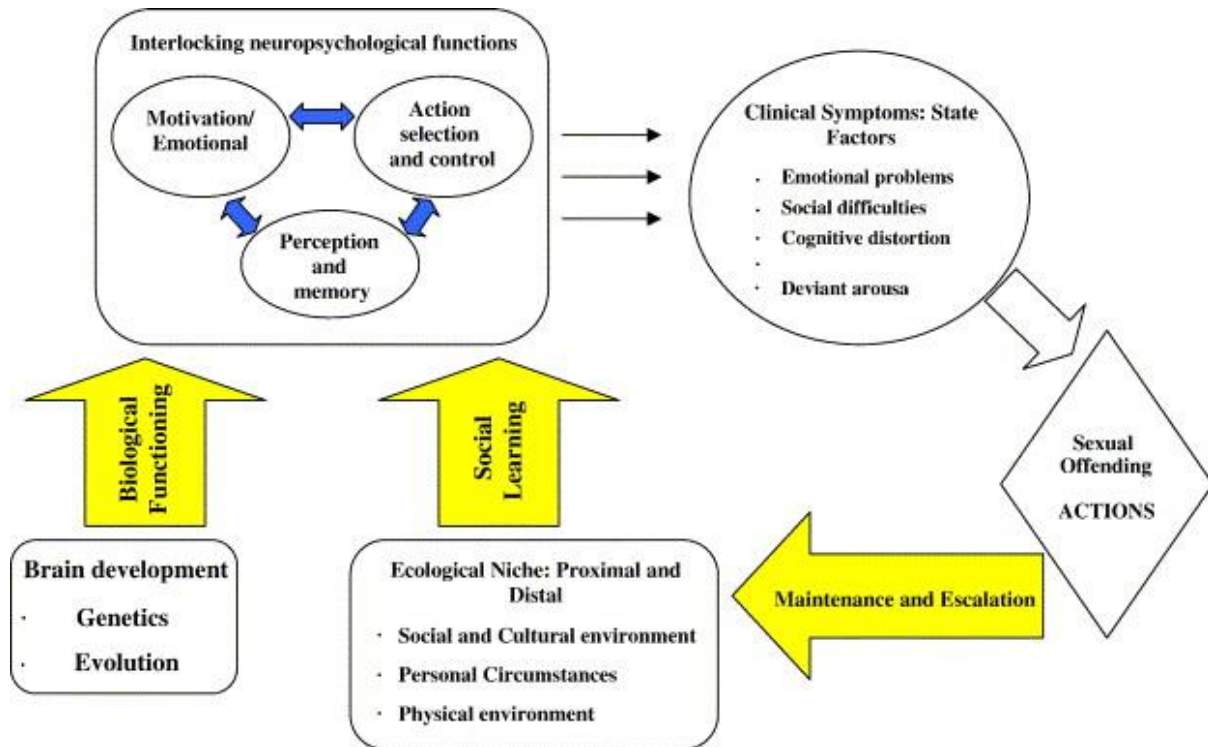


Figure 5. Schematic illustration of the ITSO, as adapted in Ward and Beech (2006)

According to the ITSO, sexual abuse occurs as a consequence of several interacting causal factors, operating at different levels and occurring in distinct domains of human functioning: biological (evolution, genetic variations, and neurobiology), ecological (social and cultural environment, personal circumstances, physical environment), core neuropsychological systems, and personal agency. This theory suggests that four sets of factors converge to cause sexual offending and its associated problems: biological factors (influenced by genetic inheritance and brain development), ecological niche factors (i.e., social, cultural, and personal circumstances – learning), neuropsychological factors, and agency-level factors (i.e., this is the level at which a person reflects on possible reasons for acting, decides on a course of action justified by reasons, and then [intentionally] acts to change some aspects of themselves, other people or the world in accordance with their goals). The integrated theory of sexual offending (ITSO; Ward & Beech 2006) is discussed, which combines theories from all three levels to provide an integrated framework to explain the aetiology and maintenance of sexual offending.

To think of these systems in common sense psychological terms as resulting in desire, belief, and action is a simple way to conceptualise them. Students come from a diverse population

with a variety of cultures and teachings. Their family backgrounds, societal relationships, and past experiences are vastly different. This allows for inappropriate behaviour, such as sexual aggression, and manifests itself by victimising fellow students. Others have been sexual victims in their lives prior to registering, putting them in a position to either offend or be victimised again. This theory explains how this occurs by utilising the factors listed below.

4.7. Biological Functioning

The biological factor in brain development includes genetics and evolution; an individual will enter the world with various genetic advantages and disadvantages (Ward et al., 2005). Ward and Beech (2006) expand on this by defining biological functioning as including genetic determinants as well as neurobiological brain functioning. Ward and Beech discuss genetic factors in the context of the gene-culture theory (Odling-Smee et al., 2003), which states that these factors may result in a proclivity to seek fundamental goods. Ward and Beech propose that sexual offending behaviour has a genetic basis that, when combined with dysfunctional motivation and cognitive processes, leads an individual to meet their sexual needs in socially unacceptable ways. As an example, consider a male student who was sexually victimised as a child and has developed the desire to vent his frustration by victimising his female classmates. For the male student, raping someone becomes a way to relieve his sexual frustrations, and raping someone is the only way they can satisfy their sexual gratification.

The physical processes of the brain that may underpin human behaviour are referred to as neurobiological functioning. Ward and Beech describe a number of possible processes that may influence sexual offending behaviour; for example, high levels of stress hormones may cause an individual to act impulsively (Sapolsky, 1997). Having said that, university environments are generally stressful due to the transition from a home environment to a university environment, the nature of the environment, and possibly academic pressure. The change process is gradual, consisting of small, incremental changes in existing organs or characteristics that can result in the emergence of new characteristics or even a new species (Ward & Beech, 2016). This is applicable to university students because they go through certain changes when they arrive at the institution. This has a significant impact on their new life, causing dysfunctional offending behaviour in some. Cognitive distortions in the treatment of mainstream sexual offenders have been consistently identified and addressed (Marshall,

Anderson & Fernandez, 1999). This demonstrates that cognition has a significant impact on an individual's behaviour.

Genetic predispositions, developmental processes, and social learning all have a significant impact on brain development, resulting in the formation of three interlocking neuropsychological systems (described by Pennington, 2002), each with distinct functions and brain structures: motivation/emotional, perception and memory, and action selection and control (from Luria, 1966). When it comes to sexual offences, these neuropsychological systems play a critical role in determining the students' position. University students' motivations and emotions may be altered as a result of interactions or exposure to substance abuse.

A large body of research has established a link between alcohol and sexual victimisation of female students. There are also genetic predispositions that may foster an environment conducive to sexual victimisation of female students. Some of these genetically based predispositions may be linked to the individual's gender, resulting in gender-linked vulnerabilities. For example, the proclivity of males to engage in impersonal sex (Brennan & Shaver, 1995) or to rape if they are unable to attract a sexual partner may reflect such a proclivity (Thornhill & Palmer, 2000). Some female students are sexually abused by their intimate partners, while others are abused by male friends. The reality is that females are more vulnerable to sexual victimisation as a result of the patriarchal society from which most male students come.

4.8. The Ecological Niche

The term "ecological niche" refers to the set of potentially adverse social and cultural circumstances, personal circumstances, and physical environments that each person faces as he or she develops throughout his or her life (Ward & Beech, 2016). A person's psychological system's content and functional integrity are determined by a combination of biological inheritance and social learning. Once acquired, psychological vulnerabilities are thought to act as a diathesis, increasing the likelihood that an individual will struggle to meet specific environmental challenges effectively, increasing the likelihood that he or she will commit a sexual offence at some point in the future. In the case of university students, sexual victimisation becomes opportunistic, and can occur only when they are presented with the

opportunity to sexually victimise a fellow student. When attempting to address the problem of sexual victimisation of female students, such vulnerabilities must be addressed.

According to Ward and Beech (2016), these circumstances can be viewed as a more distal dimension of risk. The current ecology or physical environment of an individual is also an important contributor to the aetiology of sexual offending by making potential victims available and by creating the specific circumstances that trigger the psychological deficits involved; this is a proximal or current dimension of risk. According to Ward et al. (2005), ecological factors include a combination of social, cultural, and personal circumstances, as well as the physical environment. Both early developmental experiences (distal factors) and personal circumstances are valued by the ecological system (proximal factors).

Ward and Beech (2006) speculate that the major causal factors leading to sexual offending may reside within the ecological niche rather than with the individual. University students come from a variety of personal development experiences; some were raised in abusive homes, while others struggled as children. The same students have all been victims of violence in their previous environments. According to this theory, all of this can be a predisposition to sexual victimisation. This type of reasoning is based on the positivistic lens, which holds that forces beyond one's control determine behaviour and, as a result, the commission of criminal acts.

According to the ITSO (Ward & Beech, 2006), factors such as poor parenting, sexual and physical abuse, and a lack of social supports may be important distal factors in the development of sexual offending behaviour. Lindsay (2005) discusses control theory in relation to proximal factors (Hirschi, 1969). This theory is concerned with the development of self-control through appropriate learning and the learning of criminal behaviour through positive associations with negative influences. Students are encouraged to associate and interact in university settings. This allows for social support, but it will never fill the void left by a person's past experiences. If such voids are not filled, an individual may exhibit unusual or unacceptable behaviour, such as sexual offending.

4.9. The Psychological System

Ward et al. (2005) proposed that dysfunction in both the biological and ecological systems could have a significant impact on an individual's psychological system. This could be due to a variety of personal or social issues that students face. Ward and Beech (2006) proposed this system as neuropsychological functioning, which is comprised of three interlocking

neuropsychological systems (Pennington, 2002) that underpin psychological functioning and are analogous to stable dynamic risk factors (Hanson & Harris, 2002). Many risk factors exist as a result of changes in a person's psychological functioning.

A wide range of biological variables are associated with abnormal brain development, including the presence of biologically inherited mating strategies that malfunction (i.e., the acquisition of aggressive or problematic strategies; Ward & Durrant, 2011), the modulation of sexual behaviour by hormonal activity in normal and abnormal contexts, and, for example, the biological processes associated with attachment (Nelson & Panksepp, 1998). The following are the three interconnected neuropsychological systems:

- ***Motivation/ emotional system*** is contained in the mid-brain limbic systems. It is the neuropsychological manifestation of maladaptive motivations and emotions, which are the product of an individual's genetics, culture and personal experiences. Ward et al. (2005) proposed that early developmental experiences significantly affect the likelihood of forming maladaptive motivation and emotions, which create a vulnerability to seeking emotional gratification in inappropriate ways. Ward and Beech (2006) describe emotional problems as including impulsive acts and emotional dyscontrol. These characteristics can produce negative affective states which, when combined with sexual desire, can lead to sexual offending.

For example, a student who was born in a mentally impoverished environment may find it difficult to identify and deal with their emotions causing them confusion and anger when confronted with emotionally charged interpersonal situations. This theory suggests that emotional problems occur as a result of exposure to sexual activities such as compulsive masturbation during early adolescence and the absence of alternative means of increasing self-esteem or mood, which can create a strong link between sex and emotional well-being (Cortoni & Marshall, 2001). A person who has this challenge may be prone to victimizing others as a way to survive the negative urges. Hence, intimate partners end up sexually abusing the other party.

- ***Perceptual and memory system***, which is where schemas or implicit theories (Ward & Hudson 2000) are stored. Implicit theories develop over time as a result of sexual offending and may be particularly relevant to offenders who follow the approach automatic pathway of the self-regulation model. Some neurobiological research studies

reveal that structural brain damage and/or neurotransmitter malfunction can impact adversely upon sexual behaviour. According to Pennington (2002), a major function of this system is ‘to allow goals and values to influence both perception and action selection rapidly and to adjust motivational state to fit changing environmental circumstances’ (p. 79). Where students are concerned, maladaptive sexual behaviour by a person places other people at risk of being sexually victimized.

Problems in an individual’s genetic inheritance, cultural upbringing, or negative individual experiences may lead to defects in the motivational/emotional system. Problems that might arise from malfunctions in the action control and selection system essentially span self-regulation problems such as impulsivity, failure to inhibit negative emotions, inability to adjust plans to changing circumstances and poor problem-solving skills. Again, these deficits in self-management/general self-regulation are exactly the kinds of problems that in the sexual offending literature have been described as a stable dynamic risk factor (Mann, Hanson & Thornton, 2010). Literature also asserts that self-regulation problems, impulsivity and poor problem management skills often results in behaviour that is uncalled for such as sexual harassment and even rape.

A major function of this system is to process incoming sensory information and to construct representations of objects and events, and make them available to the other two systems. Problems in the perceptual and memory system can lead to maladaptive beliefs, attitudes, and problematic interpretations of social encounters. Ward and Beech (2016) state that a consequence of any impairment in this system is that the person’s experience of the world will be distorted in some way, and the evaluation of reasons for action, and subsequent action plans would be more likely to result in suffering for the self and others. A university campus may accommodate individuals with such problems, this ultimately means that others will be at a greater risk of being sexually victimised.

- ***Action selection and control system***, which relates to an individual’s ability to formulate an action plan and achieve the related goals. A major function of this system is to underpin individuals’ capacity to plan, implement, and evaluate action plans, and to control behaviour, thoughts, and emotions in service of higher level goals (Ward & Beech, 2016). This system is influenced by the motivation/ emotional and perceptual

and memory systems. Problems in this area relate to self-regulation difficulties, such as impulsivity and poor problem-solving, and represent a vulnerability to sexual offending (Ward & Beech, 2006). If there are problems in the action selection and control system, it will make it more difficult for an individual to regulate their mood adequately. Exposure to antisocial models is also likely to teach individuals maladaptive ways of solving personal and interpersonal problems and result in problematic values and attitudes. Difficulties in self-control by an individual, allow for the successful execution of the act of sexual victimisation.

4.10. Clinical symptoms

Ward and Beech (2006) proposed in the ITSO that the emergence of trait factors leads to the emergence of state factors (similar to acute dynamic risk factors), which are referred to as clinical symptoms. They hypothesised that various dysfunctions in the three major systems would result in a wide range of clinical presentations involving various aspects of emotional problems, social difficulties, deviant arousal, and cognitive distortions. It is widely acknowledged that deviant arousal plays a significant role in the aetiology of sexual offending in mainstream offenders (Lalumiere & Quinsey, 1994; Laws & Marshall, 1990), and Ward and Beech (2006) propose that this symptom is a function of disturbances in all three systems. Perpetrators of sexual victimisation of female students may have a combination of these problematic representations, which eventually overwhelms them and drives them to sexually victimise females.

As a clinical symptom, social difficulties include emotional loneliness, inadequacy, low self-esteem, a passive victim stance, and suspiciousness, and they represent a dysfunction in the motivational emotional system (Ward & Beech, 2006). These are symptoms that impair a person's ability to make sound decisions. Ward and Beech (2016) contend that genes, social learning, and neuropsychological systems collaborate to produce the four sets of clinical problems that are consistently detected in sexual offenders as a group: deviant arousal, offence-related thoughts and fantasies, negative/positive emotional states, and social difficulties (Mann, Hanson & Thornton, 2010).

4.11. Personal Agency

The ITSO assumes that human functioning has multiple explanatory levels and, while naturalistic in orientation, contends that personal agency plays an important role in the initiation and maintenance of offending. The four sets of state factors seen in sex offenders are constituents of agency level problems and, as such, have a distinctly experiential or phenomenological nature: deviant sexual preferences, distorted beliefs and attitudes. The addition of the personal agency level is a modification to the original ITSO model (Ward & Beech, 2016). In terms of the personal agency level of explanation, such shifts may be entrenched by changes in personal values, attitudes, and beliefs. Reducing negative mood states, for example, is likely to negatively reinforce the maladaptive emotional regulation strategies used, whereas improving mood serves as a positive reinforce. Individuals' sense of personal effectiveness and meaning (i.e., the valence of their attitudes and values) are expected to causally mediate such changes (Ward & Beech, 2016). This adaptation is applicable to the daily transformations that occur in higher education institutions. Some of these create an inductive environment for sexual victimisation, which, if left unchecked, leads to the development of a sexual victimisation culture.

It is critical to include the level of agency explicitly in a theoretical framework; otherwise, the four sets of problems – or risk factors – appear to be disconnected psychological fragments when, in fact, they are linked components of a person's psychological life. The addition of the personal agency level is a modification to our original ITSO model (Ward & Beech, 2006). These state factors, which are mediated by the fourth causal factor, personal agency (i.e. intentional mental states), increase the likelihood of someone acting sexually abusively. As a result, a person's genetic proclivity for depression, combined with abusive and/or neglectful parenting, may result in emotional regulation (neuropsychological system) impairment (Ward & Beech, 2016). An impairment of this nature, caused by a variety of factors, may lead to the institution housing habitual sexual offenders who have been conditioned to believe that sexual offending is acceptable.

The long-term consequences of childhood sexual abuse include disturbed adult sexual functioning, poor social adjustment, confusion over sexual identity, inappropriate attempts to reassert masculinity, and recapitulation of the abuse. Each of these issues is associated with impaired psychological skills and competencies, and they all point to core commitments and beliefs that can lead to antisocial personal choices. Because of their impact on the individual's capacity for agency, powerful emotions, needs for intimacy/control, offence-supportive cognitions (deviant thoughts and fantasies), and deviant sexual arousal, according to the

modified ITSO (2016), are likely to lead the individual concerned to commit a sexual offence. At the level of personal agency, a person may experience loneliness or even social anxiety and choose to engage in sexually abusive behaviours that, while appearing to resolve these issues, either fail or create even more difficulties.

4.12. Chapter Summary

The study of crime as an event, emphasising its relation to space and time, and emphasising its ecological nature and the implications thereof, is the focus of routine activity. The Integrated theory of sexual offending, on the other hand, focuses on a plethora of risk factors for sexual victimisation of female students. The ITSO establishes a clinically useful framework for assessing and treating sexual offenders. Its ability to account for multiple offender trajectories and varying clinical presentations means that it will assist clinicians and policymakers in formulating cases that focus on the unique problems of offenders. Due to their ability to integrate diverse approaches in studying sexual victimisation of female students, the two selected theories were of equal importance. The Routine Activity Theory, on the other hand, only explains sexual victimisation on a micro level, focusing on the victim and their activities as a result of the victimisation. To address this gap in the theory, the ITSO elaborates on a variety of factors such as biological, ecological, psychological, and clinical factors that contribute to sexual victimisation of female students. The ITSO is compatible with the RAT because they can explain victimisation collectively by taking into account both the victim and the perpetrator of sexual victimisation.

The following chapter will unpack the methodology supported by such a theoretical framework and apply it to the study in order to answer the research questions.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

5.1. Introduction

In order to unpack the social context of the phenomenon under study, a solid research methodology must be used. Research methodology is critical in providing the researcher with the appropriate design and tools to conduct the research, resulting in the acquisition of strong and reliable data and research findings. To achieve the study's goals and objectives, it was critical to use a methodological approach that allowed for a clear research process. The assumptions, postulates, rules, and methods that comprise research methodology form the blueprint or roadmap of a research study. This enables researchers to make their work available for analysis, critique, replication, repetition, and/or adaptation, as well as to select research methods. This study used a methodology that allows the questions posed to be effectively answered.

5.2. Research Design

Both investigative strategies and approaches to communicating research findings are incorporated into research design. Qualitative researchers place a high value on words. Not only are the general ideas prominent, but so are the variety of word choices, metaphors, and even slang. According to (Padgett, 2016), qualitative studies seek to represent the complex worlds of respondents in a holistic, on-the-ground manner, emphasizing subjective meanings and questioning the existence of a single objective reality. The process of creating a research design combines three broadly related and interdependent components: theoretical, methodological, and ethical considerations pertinent to the specific project (Cheek, 2008). It was then critical that the researcher structure the research design in accordance with the study's goal in order to achieve the goal and obtain quality findings.

This study follows the phenomenological tradition of studying the lifeworld as it is experienced by participants. According to Given (2008), phenomenological research is the study of lived or experiential meaning, with the goal of describing and interpreting these meanings as they emerge and are shaped by consciousness, language, our cognitive and noncognitive sensibilities, and our preconceptions and presuppositions (Given, 2008). This study of female students' sexual victimisation allows participants to reflect on their immediate surroundings through their experiences and perceptions. This was an appropriate design to use because it

addresses the primary goal of the study, which is to investigate the phenomenon of sexual victimisation in its entirety. Furthermore, the study used exploratory research to answer research questions about the social context of sexual victimisation.

5.3. Exploratory Research Design

According to Bryman (2004), exploratory research is conducted to determine the nature of a problem. It is not intended to provide conclusive evidence, but rather to aid in the understanding of the problem. The researcher used this paradigm to thoroughly address the study's key research questions, allowing for a better understanding of the social context of sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning. When investigating sexual victimisation, there is a wide range of experiences and perceptions, which leads the researcher to look for the complexities of these experiences and perceptions rather than narrowing meanings into a few categories or ideas. The problematic nature of sexual victimisation precludes a narrow approach and necessitates a robust and complex mode of engagement. The questions become broad and general in order for the participants to construct the meaning of the situation, which is typically formed through discussion or interactions with other people. In this case, the researcher becomes the "other" person because the study participants collaborate with the researcher to answer questions about the social context of student sexual victimisation.

5.4. Research Approach

The qualitative research method was used in this study. According to Badenhost (2010:92), qualitative research relies on data in the form of words, and researchers rely on descriptions to express themes that emerge from those data. Furthermore, qualitative research often provides an unparalleled understanding of the motivations underlying human desires, behaviours, and needs. According to Bryman (2004:26), qualitative research is a "research strategy that typically emphasises words rather than quantification in data collection and analysis." The need for this particular research to be qualitative was to allow the researcher to extract knowledge of sexual victimisation through words, expressions, and event narration. The researcher chose this method because it allowed participants to reveal information that statistics would misrepresent or not represent at all.

5.5. Study Sites

The number of participants and sites used varies from one qualitative study to the next. The goal of qualitative research is not to generalise to a population, but rather to develop an in-depth exploration and description of a fundamental phenomenon. Thus, in order to gain a better understanding of this phenomenon, the qualitative researcher deliberately or unintentionally selects individuals and sites (Creswell, 2012). It is critical to choose sites that will best assist the researcher in understanding the central phenomenon. Three sites were chosen for the purposes of this study. To comply with ethical procedures, these locations are designated as institutions A, B, and C. The selection of these institutions was based on the fact that they are the only three government-sponsored, contact-learning universities in the Durban area where the study is being conducted. TVET colleges and private long-distance learning colleges are the other institutions.

5.5.1. Institution A

Durban is a thriving coastal city known for its beaches, resorts, and the Moses Mabhida Stadium. In addition, the city serves as a major South African port. Maputaland's magnificent game reserves and estuaries, north of Durban, are a popular weekend getaway for both staff and students. The campus is located on the Berea and offers breathtaking views of Durban's harbour (Institution A Webpage).

This university has four campuses, only two of which are in Durban. For the purposes of this study, the largest campus in Durban with the most students is used. According to institution A's student webpage, their main goal is to create an environment that allows all students to pursue their studies. This means that the university is committed to collaborating with all students to ensure their personal intellectual development while also preparing them for the responsibilities and challenges they will face in a world marked by competition, change, and diversity. Access to information is a critical component of a conducive learning environment.

5.5.2. Institution B

The Institution B is the first choice for higher education in KwaZulu-Natal, with approximately 30 000 students. This institution has five Durban campuses and two in Pietermaritzburg. This institution had approximately 33 932 students enrolled in July 2019. The university is one of

only five technical institutions in Africa that offers doctoral degrees. This university shares a geographical location with Institution A, both of which are located within larger communities and thus cannot be treated separately from them.

5.5.3. Institution C

Institution C is located on the outskirts of Durban, South Africa, with a view of the Indian Ocean. It is located in the academic hub of the eThekweni metropole, a dynamic growing economy with a strong focus on the future. Furthermore, it is a residential university that primarily serves previously disadvantaged communities with the goal of educating and empowering students and communities while also addressing pressing transformation and multicultural issues confronting South Africa (Institution C webpage).

These three institutions share some characteristics and all serve as residences for students pursuing academic careers. They were selected as study sites, and the participants were drawn from the general population of each campus. This population was not known because of its erratic nature, as a result of registration year in and year out. Participants in the study came from the three institutions that were chosen.

5.6. Access.

Since qualitative research typically entails working with human subjects through face-to-face interviews, on-site observations, and written communications, it is critical that the researcher understand how to gain appropriate access to research participants. According to Given (2008), access is the appropriate ethical and academic practices used to gain entry into a given community for the purposes of conducting formal research. Furthermore, Creswell (2012) explains that gaining access to the site or individuals in qualitative research necessitates obtaining permissions at various levels, including the organisation, the site, the individuals, and the campus institutional review boards. This study adhered to the protocol for obtaining ethical clearance, which aided in obtaining the necessary gatekeepers' permission.

Individuals who serve as a point of entry into a specific community are known as gatekeepers. They are basically structures that a researcher must go through in order to gain access to the intended site or study participants. Gatekeepers can also assist the researcher in gaining access to the community by making introductions and creating a relaxed or appropriate environment for the research process (Given, 2008). In the case of the current study, the gatekeepers of the selected institutions were the Registrars of each institution, who evaluated the proposal to

conduct research, as well as the institution's research committee. It was decided to allow the researcher access to the site and conduct research. It was communicated in writing in order to be able to produce written approval when entering the institution's actual gates during the data collection phase.

Other steps were taken by the researcher upon his arrival at the institution. Another process involved in gaining access to some participants, according to Given (2008), is going through proper community or organisational lines of authority. The sample included both students and staff members, who were both represented. The researcher approached the line managers (Head of Departments for Security Unit and Student Counselling) to request participants from the staff. This facilitated the process because some of the line managers assisted the researcher by encouraging their employees to participate in the research. Concerning students, the researcher approached them briefly to introduce them to the study and ensure that students serve as key informants in a study that aims to address a problem that affects the entire student population. The researcher's actions made the data collection phase as efficient as possible.

5.7. Study Population

The institutions and communities to which or to whom the researcher's findings are to be applied or generalised comprise the researcher's target population. It refers to a group or groups of people who are of interest to the researcher in relation to the study question. Qualitative research is conducted on a specific population. This refers to the use of participants who find themselves in a context, in this case university students and staff members who were asked to participate in a study aimed at providing information about a phenomenon that affects the entire population. That is, the population's representativeness must be able to provide sufficient information to the phenomenon being studied.

According to Vandebosch (2008), methodological issues associated with working with such populations include non-representative convenience and purposive samples, as well as difficulties gaining access to the research setting (e.g., the institution) and the actors of interest. This was not a problem for the researcher because gaining access to the site was simple, and the findings can be attributed to all of the other institutions studied. While there are bound to be differences and similarities, the overall goal of the study was to provide a clear description of the phenomenon.

5.7.1. Key informant

The researcher selects only a few participants from a defined population who will contribute to the study in accordance with the study's methodological requirements. These individuals are referred to as key informants. Individuals who are articulate and knowledgeable about their community are key informants or key actors (Fetterman, 2008). Key informants aid in the establishment of a connection between the researcher and the community. Key informants typically provide comprehensive, albeit meandering, responses to questions about the group. Key informants share not only their personal feelings or opinions, but also their observations of larger social patterns.

Key informants in this study were students and staff members from each institution. The reason for this is that they are the primary people who are knowledgeable about the social aspects of sexual violence because they are the primary people who occupy and live in the institutional environment. In most cases, key informants provide information through interviews and informal conversations. Through formal interviews, key informants in this study provided insights on the studied phenomenon.

5.7.2. Sampling Procedure

Prospectively, key informants must be carefully chosen to ensure that they can easily provide the necessary information. This is a sampling procedure used in research. The process of selecting actual data sources from a larger set of possibilities is known as sampling. Samples can be studied faster than the entire population and are less expensive to put together. Defining a sampling frame is the process of stating the eligibility criteria that determine whether a given data source is included in the total population. This study chose a sample that is representative of informants who have firsthand knowledge of the problem of sexual victimisation.

5.7.3. Non-Probability

Since statistical generalisation is not a goal of qualitative research, probabilistic sampling is not required or even justifiable in qualitative research. As a result, non-probability sampling is the method of choice for the majority of qualitative research (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Non-probability sampling can also be useful when researchers are interested in studying the characteristics of a specific group but are not concerned with extending the results to the larger population. The participants in this study were recruited using a non-probability sampling

method. In total, 46 people were sampled for the study. There were a total of twenty participants from the three selected campuses. Each campus' sample was made up of ten students, five risk management services staff members, and five support staff members. These people were chosen as key informants because they have first-hand knowledge of the issue under investigation. Two methods were used to sample these participants. Unfortunately, the initial sample size was not met due to the inaccessibility of the ten (10) identifies participants of institution C (security personnel and student counsellors, as well as insufficient student counsellors for Institution A).

5.7.4. Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling was the first sampling technique used in the study. Purposive sampling is a process in which participants are chosen because they meet the criteria that the researcher has predetermined as relevant to answering the research question (Saumure & Given, 2008). Some members of the population have a chance of being chosen in this type of sampling, while others do not, even if they meet the inclusion criteria. This is not a limitation, but rather a result of purposive sampling that has no bearing on the study.

The "information richness" of participants and sites is used as a criterion for selection (Patton, 1990: 169). The sample was purposefully chosen by the researcher to ensure that only participants who could provide useful information were used. In order to avoid the process becoming tedious and costly, the researcher devised a simple inclusion and exclusion criteria that allowed for the purposeful selection of the sample. Other participants were sampled using a different technique to support this one.

5.7.5. Snowball sampling

Snowball sampling was the second effective sampling technique used in this study. With snowball sampling, new study participants are recruited when current study participants refer other potential study participants to the researcher because they belong to the same group or have similar interests that are relevant to the project at hand (Saumure & Given, 2008). Snowball sampling employs a small pool of initial informants to nominate additional participants who meet the study's eligibility criteria. The name alludes to a snowball growing in size as it rolls downhill.

A typical snowball sample process begins with interviewing an initial group of research participants who serve as informants not only about the research topic but also about other potential participants (Morgan, 2008). In this study, the researcher asked those who had already been interviewed to recommend someone else. On one campus, for example, the Head of Department for the Student Counselling Division nominated four other psychologists, arranging a full scheduled time and date for each one and providing this information to the researcher. It was not necessary to use this technique with students because the researcher needed to avoid using a group of friends who would give the same information. Both of these techniques were extremely beneficial in providing the researcher with knowledgeable participants on the subject of sexual victimisation of female students. When one technique had recruited a certain number of participants, the other served to extend or increase that number to the required number of participants. The effectiveness of these techniques provided the researcher with dependable and informative participants who addressed the study's questions, providing a clear description of the phenomenon under investigation.

5.7.6. Recruitment of participants

Recruitment in qualitative research refers to the process by which the researcher identifies and invites participants to participate in the study. Qualitative researchers make every effort to include participants who meet the study criteria and represent the richest and most complex source of information (data) relevant to the phenomenon being studied. The specific research questions will guide the selection of the best research design to address the study objectives. According to Given (2008), issues in recruitment may involve dealing with gatekeepers, those who have influence or power over potential participants and can either facilitate contact or prevent participation. Because of the COVID-19 pandemic that broke out in March 2020, the researcher changed the sampling and recruitment of participants in this study. Due to restrictions, some participants were recruited by the researcher contacting the HoD via email or phone to request access to their staff. Because the HoDs shared contact information for staff members willing to participate, and the researcher communicated with the staff members to explain the purpose of the study and arrange an interview on ZOOM, this technique proved to be extremely effective.

"Inclusion" and "exclusion" criteria address who will be approached, including age group, diagnosis, geographic location, and ethnic background, as well as when they will be approached on occasion. When dealing with such a sensitive subject, there are numerous

factors to consider. When it came to selecting participants, the researcher had to be extremely cautious.

This study employed strict inclusion and exclusion criteria to direct the researcher to the appropriate participants. This was used as a guide to ensure that not everyone could participate, with the understanding that not everyone would have the information that the researcher required.

5.7.7. Inclusion criteria

The rationale for having an inclusion criterion was to ensure that the selected participants could provide the necessary information in detail. The competency of key informants is frequently measured by the length of time they have lived in the community, their knowledge of the community and neighbouring communities or organisations, their knowledge of a specific topic, and the type and degree of interaction they have with community members (Fetterman, 2008). This approach was found to be valid and effective in the study. Only students in their second year through postgraduate studies were eligible to participate. This was done to ensure that they had spent enough time on campus to be aware of the problem of female students being sexually victimised.

In addition, the students had to live in on-campus housing. The reason for this is that students who live on campus spend more time using campus facilities than those who come in during the day and leave after classes. Residents of residences are more exposed to the social context and have valuable information to share. This is not to say that those who do not live on university grounds are never victimised.

There were no criteria for students that determined whether or not a student had previously been a victim. This was done to ensure that anyone with information, not just victims, could participate. Furthermore, identifying victims would only change the study's design, making it appear to be a narrative study. As a result, the entire population, victim or not, was employed. Of course, there were ethical safeguards in place in the event that a participant was a victim who was triggered to retell an incident.

The inclusion criteria for staff members (security unit and student support staff) were that they had been on the job for at least one year. This was done to ensure that the staff member participating had enough time to learn about, deal with, or attend to students who had been

victims. This validated the information they provided, ensuring that it was not based on hearsay but on what they knew.

The researcher relied on the HoD to nominate security staff members who had been exposed to working with cases of sexual victimisation or who are stationed at residences where they interact with students more. This is because they have first-hand information, as opposed to security guards who patrol parking lots during the day or those who assist in signing people in when they enter institutions. The researcher also considered that these security personnel were given different instructions and sites to work on, so the majority of them had all of the information needed for the study.

5.7.8. Exclusion criteria

During the recruitment process, the researcher decided that some participants from the general population would not be considered for participation. Academics, management, and cleaners were not included in the study. The reason for this is that security services and student counselling deal with cases on a daily basis. The researcher was aware that some students may report to their lecturers, but lecturers are unable to deal with these students. They refer the students to the appropriate office for an escalation of the situation. Although professors may have some knowledge of the social context, security and support staff have a broader perspective on the issue of sexual victimisation of female students. There were many factors to consider, but the exclusion criteria for both students and staff were that they had not been in the institution for at least a year. Furthermore, if the student did not live in a university residence, they would be disqualified from participating.

5.8. Data collection

For this study, data was gathered in a systematic and strategic manner. The use of interviews, which allow for dialogue between the researcher and the participants, was recommended by the research design. The data collection process is the most important part of the study because it provides information to answer the study's questions. The researcher took great care to carry out this phase as efficiently and professionally as possible.

5.8.1. Interviews

Contemporary qualitative researchers recognise the interview not only as a means of gathering data from another person, but also as an active, participatory, and frequently unpredictable event in which both the interviewer and the participant are constructing versions of what can

be told within the contexts of their interactions, as well as representations of self and other. An interview, according to the Centre for Civil Society (2003:73), is "any person-to-person interaction between two or more individuals with a specific purpose in mind." For this study, one-on-one interviews will be used. Because the researcher recognised the topic's sensitivity, he chose interviews as a data collection tool. In contrast to focus groups, where participants tend to give socially desirable responses, interviews provide a comfortable environment for participants to divulge any information they know about the phenomenon being studied.

The interviews took place on each campus's university grounds. This was done to make the environment more comfortable for the participants. Many of the interviews with staff members took place in the participant's office or in the departmental boardroom. Interviews for students took place in empty closed lecture halls and quiet spaces in other university facilities. To protect the participants, the researcher made certain that no one else could enter that location during the interview.

Due to the COVID-19 pandemic's emergence in March 2020, some interviews had to be conducted online due to the restrictions. These were carried out on the ZOOM online platform. The researcher scheduled the meeting according to the time agreed upon with the participant. Since the session could be recorded, it was simple to transcribe and analyse data from this type of interview. It was also very useful for storing data after the study was completed. The researcher was aware of the potential data costs incurred by participants, but addressed this concern by scheduling sessions during times when the staff member was in the office and connected to the university internet.

5.8.1.1. Semi-Structured interviews

Many different types of open-ended questions are used in semi-structured interviews. Some questions may request relatively concrete information, while others may request more narrative information. According to Ayres (2008), semi-structured interviews use a variety of probes to elicit additional information or build rapport through the researcher's use of active listening skills. Semi-structured interviews were used in this study to allow for probing from the researcher's side as well as extensive explanation from the participant. Semi-structured interviews allowed the participant to interact with the researcher in a more active manner.

5.8.1.2. Open-ended questions

Open-ended questions, also known as nondirective questions, allow participants in research interviews or written surveys to choose the terms with which to construct their descriptions and highlight the topics that are important to them (Roulston, 2008). In response to open-ended questions, research participants have the freedom to elaborate on self-selected aspects related to the researcher's topic of investigation, as opposed to the type of responses required by closed questions, which provide possible answers in the question and structure the format in which interviewees should respond. This study employed open-ended questions that guided the entire interview process. This had the advantage of allowing the researcher to extend or rephrase questions based on the information provided by the participant. This is a useful skill because it encourages participants to share all of the information they have about the study.

5.8.2. Interview schedule

Researchers who use semi-structured interviews create a written interview guide ahead of time. The interview guide could be very specific, with carefully worded questions, or it could just be a list of topics to cover. The interview guide is a tool that the researcher can use to direct the interview in the right direction. Miller (2008) contends that, even within the framework provided by structured or semi-structured interviews, in which the researcher constructs a list or series of questions with appropriate probes or follow-up questions, qualitative researchers must pay attention to how their own perspectives, assumptions, expectations, and biases influence both the direction and tenor of the interview.

The researcher maintained objectivity in this research study by carefully crafting the interview questions. This meant that no personal biases, expressions, or experiences could ever influence the interview. The schedule (APPENDIX D) provided a structure and order to follow in order to obtain accurate and informative answers to the questions posed. The schedule's strength was that the questions were formulated in a way that did not make it obvious that it was a formal interview. The questions created an environment in which the researcher and participants appeared to be conversing about the issue of sexual victimisation of female students. This environment allows the participant to respond to each and every question to the best of his or her ability.

5.8.3. Audio recording

Data recording is an important step in qualitative research (Lofland & Lofland, 1995). This process entails recording information using research protocols, administering data collection so that potential problems in data collection can be anticipated, and being sensitive to ethical issues that may affect the quality of the data. Audio recording is the process of capturing conversations, interactions, and interviews using analogue or digital recording equipment. The most obvious benefit of audio recording is that it provides an accurate summary of what was said, which is especially useful for in-depth interviews and focus groups.

Audio recording provides additional detail by capturing tonality and emphasis. For this reason, the researcher chose to audio-record interviews. In a qualitative interview, the tone of the responses tells a story. According to Firmin (2008), recording participants' words ensures the data's integrity. According to social psychologists, when information is lacking, they tend to fill in the gaps. Researchers can be more confident that they are capturing the true essence of interviewees' intentions by audio recording their interviews. The primary goal of audio recording is to capture information for data analysis and reporting. For ethical consideration, the researchers provided participants an informed consent letter that allowed them to consent to being audio recorded (APPENDIX C). No participant's free will or consent was violated. Online interviews were also taped and downloaded for data analysis.

The researcher did not rely solely on the recordings for data. However, the researcher also used note taking, which is a data collection method used in face-to-face interviews. According to Morgan and Guevara (2008), taking notes, in particular, will almost always reduce eye contact with research participants. This was not the case in this case because the researcher had mastered the process of interviewing participants. Participants may become sensitive to whether or not the researcher takes notes, especially if long stretches of their conversation go unnoticed. This explains why a recorder was used for this study. Most interviewees quickly adjust to the presence of audio recording equipment, leading to the claim that audio recording is less intrusive than note taking in terms of its effects on interviewing dynamics.

The audios were used by the researcher to analyse the research findings. After the analysis is completed, transcribed audio recordings are especially useful as a source for direct quotes to use in results presentations. This illustrative material is frequently used to connect the audience with the original participants. Furthermore, audio recordings aid in the preservation of the audit

trail, which extends from data collection to analysis and finally to the presentation of the researcher's conclusions based on the original material.

5.8.4. Active listening

Active listening describes a set of techniques designed to focus the attention of the interviewer or observer on the speaker. The goal of active listening is to attend entirely to the speaker, not to oneself or one's inner dialogue, to accurately hear and interpret the speaker's verbal and nonverbal communication (Given, 2008). The researcher was careful to actively listen to the participant to keep them focused on the interview and comfortable sharing important information.

Ayres (2008) stated that active listening strategies use both verbal and nonverbal communication channels. Nonverbal active listening strategies establish and maintain rapport and also serve to focus the attention of the interviewer or observer. Nonverbal strategies that foster rapport include focusing the face and orienting the body toward the speaker, maintaining an attentive demeanour with an open posture, and staying relaxed. Strategies that focus the listener take place within the mind of the researcher. In this study, the researcher attended purposefully to the speaker with attention focused on the communication being sent, not on the researcher's responses to that communication. Active listening demands a neutral open attitude toward the speaker so that even remarks that are shocking or distressing are understood, not judged, by the listener. The goal of the active listener is to receive information, not to give it, and to be a witness, not a critic. This is very essential in a qualitative research inquiry.

Another listening strategy adopted in this study was verbal active listening. Verbal active listening strategies familiar to qualitative researchers include paraphrasing, reflecting, interpreting, summarising, and checking perceptions. In paraphrasing, the interviewer restates the content of the communication in slightly different words, in the form of asking the question using the answer. Reflecting, in contrast, identifies content perceived through nonverbal channels. In this study, the researcher had a few cases of this due to the sensitivity of the research topic. Summarising provides an opportunity for transitions in interviews between one topic and the next and is a useful way to check perceptions. Both interpreting and checking perceptions can be used to test developing analytic insights. All of these strategies demonstrate that the interviewer not only has paid close attention to the speaker but also has been actively processing the speaker's remarks, and these two characteristics are the hallmark of active

listening. This type of facilitation yields very rich data because the participant is encouraged to contribute to the study.

A final active listening strategy is the use of silence. Although silence is by definition a nonverbal strategy, it is used as a part of the interview. When used carefully, silence can communicate respect, empathy, and interest to the speaker while at the same time demonstrating the interviewer's own calm and patience. Also, silence allowed for the participant to share their responses without being disturbed. This strategy encouraged full contribution from the participant.

5.9.Data analysis

An intense stage of the study was data analysis when the researcher had to analyse and make meaning of the contributions made by participants. Initial preparation of the data for analysis requires organising the vast amount of information, transferring it from spoken or written words to a typed file and making decisions about whether to analyse the data by hand or by computer (Creswell, 2012). This process is very important, as when done efficiently, it ensures the extraction of the richest findings from the data collected. It is a segmented, yet cyclic process.

5.9.1. Transcription of interview recording

During qualitative data collection, a researcher collects text or words through interviewing participants or by writing field notes during observations. This necessitates a need to convert these words to a computer document for analysis. Creswell (2012) defines transcription as, the process of converting audio tape recordings or field notes into text data. From notes that were taken during the interview and the audio recordings, the researcher compiled transcriptions of the data. The audio recorded data had to be transcribed into a verbatim report that could be analysed. In line with transcription as a skill for exploring the general sense of the data, Agar (1980) suggested that “you must read the transcripts in their entirety several times. Immerse yourself in the details, trying to get a sense of the interview as a whole before breaking it into parts” (p. 103). The researcher followed this prescription to analyse the data correctly.

5.9.2. Inductive data analysis

Qualitative researchers build their patterns, categories, and themes from the bottom up, by organising the data into increasingly more abstract units of information (Creswell, 2009). This inductive process illustrates working back and forth between themes and the database until the researchers have established a comprehensive set of themes. These are known as inductive approaches to research study. The researcher adopted this approach in this particular study. In this study, the researcher identified the themes that emerged and further abstracted sub-themes. The data was then further analysed to make a connection between themes and discuss the significance of each theme in answering the research question it seeks to address.

Creswell (2009) noted that in the entire qualitative research process, the researcher keeps a focus on learning the meaning that the participants hold about the problem or issue, not the meaning that the researchers bring to the research or writers express in the literature. This is a method of eliminating subjectivity to allow participants views, experiences and information to be the main data. The meaning emerged from an inductive approach to the study at hand.

5.9.3. Thematic data analysis

Thematic analysis is a data reduction and analysis strategy that segments, categorises, summarises, and reconstructs qualitative data in order to capture the important concepts within the data set. Braun and Clarke (2006) defined thematic analysis as a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data by organising and detailing data. Thematic analysis is primarily a descriptive strategy that aids in the search for patterns of experience within a qualitative data set; the product of thematic analysis is a description of those patterns as well as the overarching design that connects them. When semi-structured interviews are used to collect data for thematic analysis, some themes will be expected in the data set because those concepts were explicitly included in data collection.

In thematic coding, the analyst frequently starts with a list of themes that are known (or, at the very least, expected) to be present in the data. The data was analysed using thematic analysis by the researcher. The reason given is that the information was provided in the form of words, phrases, and verbal expressions. All of which fall into well-known categories or explanation themes. This was the best data analysis technique for ensuring that the study's findings were as accurate as possible.

5.9.4. Coding

When analysing data, the researcher forms codes and categories that sort our findings into themes. These themes are called codes. A code in qualitative inquiry is most often a word or short phrase that symbolically assigns a summative, salient, essence-capturing, and/or evocative attribute for a portion of language-based or visual data (Saldana, 2009). In qualitative research, coding is the process of generating ideas and concepts from raw data such as interview transcripts, field notes, archival materials, reports, newspaper articles, and art (Benaquisto, 2008). Describing and developing themes from the data consists of answering the major research questions and forming an in-depth understanding of the central phenomenon through the description and thematic development.

A researcher's level of personal involvement as a participant-observer, as a peripheral, active, or complete member during fieldwork, filters how you perceive, document, and thus code your data (Adler & Adler, 1987). Ideally, Benaquisto (2008) stated that many researchers keep notes on insights, ideas, patterns, and connections that occur to them as they read and reread the data. This activity, known as memoing, occurs throughout the coding process. For many, coding starts with attention to very fine details and evolves into emergent categories that are applicable at much higher degrees of abstraction. Code notes help the researcher to keep track of the emergent definitions of codes and their distinctive criteria. In this study the researcher found code notes to be very useful and made the data collection process an effective and efficient one.

The researcher adopted descriptive coding, also referred to as “topic coding”. Descriptive Coding is just one approach to analysing the data’s basic topics to assist with answering types of questions. Turner (1994:199) calls this cycle the development of a “basic vocabulary” of data to form “bread and butter” categories for further analytic work. The description is the foundation for qualitative inquiry, and its primary goal is to assist the reader to see what you saw and to hear what you heard (Wolcott, 1994: 412).

The coding process refers to the steps the researcher takes to identify, arrange, and systematize the ideas, concepts, and categories uncovered in the data. Coding consists of identifying potentially interesting events, features, phrases, behaviours, or stages of a process and distinguishing them with labels. These are then further differentiated or integrated for them to be reworked into a smaller number of categories, relationships, and patterns to store or

communicate conclusions drawn from the data. Themes emerged from the codes of the data being analysed.

5.9.5. Themes

Like codes, themes have labels that typically consist of no more than two to four words. Rossman and Rallis (2003) explain the differences: “think of a category as a word or phrase describing some segment of your data that is explicit, whereas a theme is a phrase or sentence describing subtler and tacit processes” (p.282). There are several types of themes, and authors typically identify them as follows: Ordinary themes: themes that a researcher might expect to find (e.g. exposure to tobacco at school).

Unexpected themes: themes that are surprises and not expected to surface during a study (e.g., “unenforced school tobacco use policies”). **Hard-to-classify themes:** themes that contain ideas that do not easily fit into one theme or that overlap with several themes (e.g. students gather in the park).

Major and minor themes: themes that represent the major ideas and the minor, secondary ideas in a database. For example, a major theme might be “attempts to quit smoking.” Minor themes might be “physical reaction,” “peer pressure to continue smoking,” or “starts and stops.” In this study, the researcher came across all the mentioned types of themes while analysing data. This was indeed interesting and very informative because it promotes engagement with all themes that emerge in the study. This type of emergence of different themes provided the researcher with rich findings that were extracted from different forms of responses. These were further analysed into patterns that had explanations attached to them.

5.9.6. Patterns

Patterns are “explanatory or inferential codes, ones that identify an emergent theme, configuration, or explanation. They pull together a lot of material into a more meaningful and parsimonious unit of analysis. Pattern Coding is a way of grouping those summaries into a smaller number of sets, themes, or constructs” (Miles & Huberman, 1994:69). To extend on this notion, Bernard (2006) succinctly states that analysis “is the search for patterns in data and for ideas that help explain why those patterns are there in the first place” (p. 452). The patterns allowed the researcher to make interpretations from the data that were then clearly depicted in segments and patterns.

Hatch (2002) proposes viewing patterns as varying forms rather than stable regularities. A pattern can be identified by:

- similarity (things happen the same way)
- difference (they happen in predictably different ways)
- frequency (they happen often or seldom)
- sequence (they happen in a certain order)
- correspondence (they happen in relation to other activities or events)
- causation (one appears to cause another) (p.155)

Hatch's highlighted characteristics were present in the codes and patterns that emerged from the data analysis process. The data analysis process yielded solid and reliable results. The categorised data findings explained the social context of female student sexual victimisation. The researcher's ability to create analytic memos was another skill that proved useful in this study.

5.9.7. Analytic memos

“Memos are sites of conversation with ourselves about our data” (Clarke, 2005:202). These are codes not just as a significant word or phrase, that researchers applied to a dataset, but as a prompt or trigger for written reflection on the deeper and complex meanings it evokes. The purpose is researcher reflexivity on the data corpus, “thinking critically about what you are doing and why, confronting and often challenging your assumptions, and recognizing the extent to which your thoughts, actions and decisions shape how you research and what you see” (Mason, 2002: 5). Coding and analytic memo writing are concurrent qualitative data analytic activities, for there is “a reciprocal relationship between the development of a coding system and the evolution of understanding a phenomenon” (Weston et al., 2001: 397).

Virtually every qualitative research methodologist agrees: Whenever anything related to and significant about the coding or analysis of the data comes to mind, stop whatever you're doing and write a memo about it immediately (Saldana, 2009). Future directions, unanswered questions, frustrations with the analysis, insightful connections, and anything about the researched and the researcher are acceptable content for memos. Analytic memo writing serves as an additional code- and category-generating method. Analytic memos played a crucial role in this study. The researcher spent time making notes that contributed to how the findings could be structured. Analytic memos make data analysis an efficient process. Also, there were

important ideas, themes and explanations that needed reflection on. This was done and analytic memos assisted the research in removing subjectivity from the findings of the study. The findings comprised only of what participants shared during the one-on-one interview.

5.9.8. Generalisability of findings

The value of qualitative research lies in the particular description and themes developed in the context of a specific site. Particularity rather than generalizability (Greene & Caracelli, 1997) is the hallmark of qualitative research. The researcher adopted a qualitative research approach to answer questions about areas of interest. The findings can be noted to explain the context of the selected institutions but the researcher had no aim to generalise to other institutions as different factors play a role for each institution. The findings of this study are sufficient to provide solutions for the sites, and perhaps direction for further research on other institutions of higher learning that are affected by the problem of sexual victimisation of female students.

5.9.9. Limitations

There were some difficulties in the research process while conducting the study. Some events were expected, while others occurred unexpectedly. These difficulties are referred to as limitations because they presented difficulties to the researcher. However, a good quality in a researcher is the ability to face and overcome challenges. The researcher in this study addressed the challenges as best as she could in order for the research process to be completed successfully. These are discussed and unpacked respectively.

5.9.9.1. Student protests in February 2020

While data collection was wrapping up, there were student protests in two of the selected institutions, where students felt their needs were not being met. This hampered the data collection phase and disrupted interviews scheduled for that time. The researcher dealt with this by arranging with the recruited participants to reschedule the interviews at a more convenient time. After the protests were over, the interviews resumed smoothly.

5.9.9.2. Breakout of the COVID-19 pandemic in March 2020

The researcher's work schedule was thrown off by the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic. When the country was put on lockdown, not all interviews had been completed. Other strategies, such as email and phone recruitment of participants and conducting interviews on an online platform, ZOOM, had to be used by the researcher. This strategy took time to implement because the researcher had to reapply to the ethics committee to change the methodology, allowing for online recruitment and participant interviews. Following approval, the researcher completed data collection successfully.

5.9.9.3. Unavailable participants.

Throughout the study, the researcher attempted several times to gain access to student support services and security services for institution C in order to participate. Unfortunately, these two cohorts were inaccessible, and all efforts to engage them were futile. As a result, the sample size was reduced by ten (10) people. The researcher believed in voluntary participation and thus understood that if participants showed no interest in participating, they could not be included in the study.

The sample was further reduced by four (4) participants because Institution A only had one (1) student counsellor on campus who worked with victims of sexual abuse. For this study, the researcher used one (1) student counsellor.

5.9.10. Rigour in qualitative research: Ensuring Trustworthiness

Many of the strategies used in qualitative research in general are considered in ensuring the study's trustworthiness. These may include data triangulation, extended engagement in the community or study setting, member verification, and the preservation of an audit trail. Although rigour strategies are time-consuming and not always feasible, their implementation improves the study's credibility (Padgett, 2008). The researcher primarily relied on participants to determine whether the findings accurately reflected the data. The data presented in this study is comprehensive and extensive, and it serves as the foundation for how the researcher reached the conclusions.

5.9.11. Confirmability

In qualitative research, participants' actions and perceptions are examined for expressions of meaning within a given context. The researcher then interprets the participant expressions through a coding or meaning-making process, in accordance with the practices of the chosen qualitative methodology (Jensen, 2008). Processes that verify the truthfulness or meaning asserted in the study must be incorporated into the research design. This is known as confirmability.

Jensen (2008) denotes that confirmability is an accurate means through which to verify the two basic goals of qualitative research: (1) to understand a phenomenon from the perspective of the research participants and (2) to understand the meanings people give to their experiences. Confirmability is concerned with providing evidence that the researcher's interpretations of participants' constructions are rooted in the participants' constructions and also that data analysis and the resulting findings and conclusions can be verified as reflective of and grounded in the participants' perceptions. The researcher proved to achieve this by using analytic memos, as discussed earlier. These memos played a role in demarcating the findings to exactly what the participants contributed, not the biases and subjectivities of the researcher.

5.9.12. Credibility

According to Jensen (2008), readers and research participants should understand why a specific research model was used and why the participants were chosen for the study. The data analysis process should also reveal a convincing link between what participants said and the themes and codes that emerge. The accuracy of this process for both readers and participants lends credence to the research project. As such, credibility can be defined as the methodological procedures and sources used to achieve a high level of harmony between the expressions of the participants and the researcher's interpretations of them.

The basic idea behind credibility is that both readers and participants must be able to look at the research design and understand it. This study's researcher provided detailed explanations of the methods, design, and processes used in this research study. The goal was to discover the steps taken to arrive at the study's findings. This allowed readers to follow a sequential and strategic representation of the problem, the study's goals, objectives, theory, tools, and processes that contributed to the research. The solid and strong research process that was followed contributed to the credibility of the findings.

5.9.13. Reliability

In the field of research, reliability is defined broadly as the dependability, consistency, and/or repeatability of a project's data collection, interpretation, and/or analysis. Gibbs (2007) suggests several reliability procedures:

- Check transcripts to make sure that they do not contain obvious mistakes made during transcription.
- Make sure there is not a drift in the definition of codes, a shift in the meaning of the codes during the process of coding. This can be accomplished by constantly comparing data with the codes and by writing memos about the codes and their definitions.

The researcher carefully considered the foregoing in order to confirm the study's reliability. A study of this type must be as reliable as possible because the findings may address a serious issue that populations have been dealing with. The findings must be an accurate representation of the social context. The findings of this study are a true reflection of the participants' observations, experiences, expressions, and feelings about sexual victimisation of female students in Durban institutions of higher learning.

5.9.14. Transferability

Since this study was qualitative in nature and focused on a phenomenon that was problematic in the three sites chosen, transferability was not a major concern. The aim of the study strictly emphasised the need to address the problem in the selected institutions. Since qualitative research does not always seek to generalise or transfer findings to another location, this study focused on particularity rather than generalisability. Findings can be transferred through the researcher's extension of the research or the citation of the study findings by other researchers when studying the same phenomenon in a different context using the same research process.

5.9.15. Ethical Consideration

Patton (2002) provided a checklist of general ethical issues to think about, including reciprocity, risk assessment, confidentiality, informed consent, and data access and ownership. Whether or not the study is overseen by a human subjects' committee, ethical concerns are paramount. When producing and disseminating the findings, ethical concerns arise. These and

other issues were taken into account by the researcher while conducting this study. When conducting such a sensitive study, it is critical to adhere to ethical considerations and protocol.

5.9.16. Bias

Bias refers to a predisposition or partiality. In qualitative research, bias involves influences that compromise accurate sampling, data collection, data interpretation, and the reporting of findings (Odgen, 2008). Researchers may show bias when they reach conclusions that ignore contradictory data or when the collection and analysis of data are designed to lead to predetermined conclusions. The potential for bias enters the research enterprise the moment a researcher chooses one topic over another, one research question to the exclusion of another, and one particular theory over another. Researchers, like everyone else, are products of the social world and therefore have values that will be more or less apparent in their research. Decisions around research methods, population sampling, and other design issues can introduce bias. In circumstances where researchers repeatedly follow the methodology of previous studies, they run the risk of reproducing similar findings that are method dependent. In this study, the researcher avoided imposing biases by focusing on the actual data that was analysed. Also, the researcher included the process of analytic memos to deal with any predispositions that might have emerged while collecting data.

5.9.17. Gatekeepers

A gatekeeper is a person who, in an official or unofficial capacity, provides access to a site, assists researchers in locating people, and aids in the identification of study locations (Hammersley & Atkinson, 1995). The registrars of each university granted the appropriate gatekeeper's approval to the researcher of this study. The research was permitted to be conducted at all three selected institutions, with access to the study site granted to all three (APPENDIX C, D and E). As gatekeepers, the researcher also considered the heads of departments for security services and student counselling services. They were critical in granting the researcher access to their departments and staff members. The researcher also noticed that when the department head asked them to participate, they were more enthusiastic. As a result, the process was extremely effective and efficient.

5.9.18. Informed Consent and Voluntary Participation

Recruitment, sampling, and data collection all necessitate careful consideration for ensuring voluntary informed consent while also protecting the confidentiality and privacy of all parties involved. Before the interview, participants in this study were given an informed consent form (APPENDIX C). The informed consent highlighted the aims of the study, the rights of the participants of the study and an option to give consent to audio recording of the interview. Each participant signed the informed consent form to confirm that their participation was voluntary and that they were aware of the study's objectives and rights. The informed consent also made the participants aware of the significance of such a study and how it contributed to addressing a troubling phenomenon of sexual victimisation of female students.

5.9.19. Privacy, Confidentiality and Anonymity

Respecting privacy and confidentiality protections is critical for the integrity of each and every study conducted. Qualitative data and findings pose a special risk because they include descriptive details that individuals may regard as too revealing, even if their identities are concealed. The researcher emphasised informed consent as well as the level of protection provided to participants verbally. Their privacy was respected both during and after data collection, and the researcher ensured that their contributions would have no negative impact on the participants.

Confidentiality is a fundamental principle enshrined in research ethics codes and professional codes of conduct (Odgen, 2008). This means that information shared with researchers should not be disclosed in a way that allows a participant or source to be identified publicly. The interview process is strictly confidential, and nothing said during the interviews should be linked to a specific participant. The researcher maintained confidentiality by storing collected data in a secure location and using pseudonyms to represent participants in data presentations. This can also be referred to as anonymity.

Anonymity can facilitate candid disclosure of sensitive information in qualitative research while also protecting participants' privacy and safety interests. Anonymity refers to the inability of a research participant's identity and responses to be identified (Odgen, 2008). The majority of ethical and professional codes of conduct require researchers to protect participant privacy by employing strategies that ensure anonymity and confidentiality. The researcher used partial anonymity in this study, which occurs when participants' identities are disguised with pseudonyms but their true identities can still be discovered by the researcher alone. Anonymity

is preferable because it protects participants from harm caused by the disclosure of their identities.

5.9.20. The use of Pseudonyms

According to Ogden (2008), a pseudonym is a fictitious name given to a person, group, or location in order to provide anonymity. Pseudonyms are extremely useful for research on sensitive topics, particularly deviant or criminal behaviour. Pseudonyms can be useful for maintaining confidentiality and anonymity. The participants were given names that were not their real names at random by the researcher. This procedure was very effective in protecting the participants' identities and removing any evidence that they had taken part in the study. Sexual exploitation is a serious and sensitive subject, and participants needed to be protected in every way.

Furthermore, due to the sensitive nature of this study, the selected institutions were anonymised in accordance with the instructions of the UKZN's ethics committee, which approved the study's conduct. The chosen institutions are then designated as institution A, B, and C. To further maintain the anonymity, gatekeepers' letters for the three institutions of higher learning are also not attached in the appendices section.

5.9.21. Protection from Harm

The first and most important consideration in gaining access to qualitative research participants is to avoid causing harm. Any intended qualitative research must obtain formal research ethics clearance from the researcher's home institutional review board or research ethics board (Given, 2008). This study was ethically cleared as well as approved by the gatekeepers. The researcher ensured that they left the sites without causing any harm to anyone. In addition, the researcher had a trained counsellor on standby in case a victim was interviewed and experienced emotional distress. In such a case, debriefing would be arranged. There was no emotional harm done to any of the participants by the end of this research process because none of the participants reported being victims.

5.9.22. Documentation and Storage of Data

All data must be kept secured under lock and key and preferably retained without identifying information. Comprehensive and accurate documentation is essential for the informed use of data. Key documentation describes how the data were created, prepared for analysis, and subsequently collated and processed. The content of each file, such as an interview, should be documented and should include information about who was being interviewed, when, where, and so on. Restricted access to rooms holding data (digital or non-digital) should be considered. Rooms should be locked when staff members are absent, and doors should be equipped with key entry or a code-protected keypad, preferably linked to an on-site alarm system and security office. A record should be kept of who has access or who holds keys/keycodes (Corti, 2008). This is for accountability should an unwarranted behaviour take place.

For this study, the researcher stored the data in the institutional archives of all research that is done in the institution. The data will be stored there for five years, thereafter destroyed by the people authorised to do. Much criticism has been shared on the storage of data. Researchers assert that the storage of qualitative data raises issues of confidentiality. Risks of identifying information that was agreed to be kept confidential at the time of consent negotiation are typically maintained through anonymization of data and provision of access through a robust rights management framework. This is true, however, the main aim of storing data is to account for the study being done and sometimes for future research endeavours in the same study.

5.9.23. Debriefing the Gatekeepers and participants after results have been documented

Debriefing at the conclusion of the study can help to clear the air. Sharing the findings at the end of a study demonstrates appreciation for the time and effort that the participants put into the study. The qualitative researcher should debrief (i.e., outline findings to) the gatekeeper, who is the person from whom the researcher must obtain permission to enter a group or cultural site. This type of debriefing should persuade the gatekeeper to grant the researcher future access to the participants. Following the presentation of the findings, the researcher of this particular study intends to adhere to the process of debriefing. This serves to educate the gatekeepers about sexual victimisation of their students, as well as to express gratitude to the gatekeepers for allowing this type of research to take place. Making the findings known to the gatekeepers and, in some cases, participants is an ethical practice that also raises awareness of the problem under study.

5.9.24. Accountability

Accountability refers to the researcher's obligations to the various stakeholders in the research process, including research participants, funding bodies, and the researcher's employing organisation (Jensen, 2008). Accountability is an important concept in qualitative research because, when addressed and made explicit, it can suggest standards of research practice against which the researcher can be judged to determine whether or not he or she acted appropriately and ethically. The researcher followed all relevant qualitative research protocols to ensure that the study makes a significant contribution to the situation at hand. There are various types of accountability, which are discussed further below:

To research participants- in the informed consent sheet, an explanation of how they were identified and why they were approached about participating in the research project; clarification of the nature and scope of participation so that potential participants can provide informed consent; assurance that withdrawal from a research study will not have a negative impact on participants. The researcher made a point of addressing these concerns both in the informed consent sheet and verbally prior to the start of each interview.

To funding bodies- completion of the research project with research findings deliverables. The National Institute for Humanities and Social Sciences is funding the researcher. As a result, the researcher was required to follow the ethical regulations of this funding body as well as maintain appropriate research practices.

To employing organizations- Conducting research in accordance with governance arrangements. This necessitates familiarity with governance policies as well as possible liaison with organisation officers. The researcher is a registered student at the University of KwaZulu-Natal and a staff member at the University of Zululand. Both of these affiliations must be ethically represented. The researcher became acquainted with what each institution's policies considered to be good research practice. The research was carried out in an ethical and acceptable manner.

5.9.25. Audience

Throughout the long history of qualitative research and evaluation, inquiry and writing processes have been undertaken with a single primary audience in mind: researchers and academics in specific fields of study. Secondary audiences have included the participants/informants who are the focus of the research and, in the case of research with a cathartic or self-therapeutic goal, the participants/informants who are the focus of the research (Barone, 2008). The study's findings are relevant to a wide range of university stakeholders.

Others have rarely considered the possibility of broadening the accessibility of their work, whereas qualitative researchers are committed to making research results available to readers outside of academia. While conducting the study, the researcher had a breakdown of the audience. This study disseminates the findings to students, staff, administration, policymakers, administrators, the Department of Higher Education and Training, and other university stakeholders. Students made up the majority of the audience. They are the primary units of this research. The findings provided students with important and useful information, raised awareness, and encouraged self-protection. The study also evaluated policies, which provided direction to policy gaps, insight into what other countries/institutions are doing (for benchmarking purposes), and a representation of the actual nature of the problem as well as problem-specific recommendations.

5.9.26. Chapter Summary

According to the preceding discussion, this study used appropriate and problem-specific research methods while adhering to important ethical considerations. This ensured that accurate and reliable results were obtained. The research process was followed to ensure that the study's aim and objectives were met. Furthermore, the tools ensured that all research questions were answered to the researcher's satisfaction. This chapter explained and justified the methodology that was used. The data extracted using this methodology is presented, interpreted, and analysed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 6

DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS AND DISCUSSION

6.1. Introduction

The chapter presents, analyses, and discusses findings in relation to the study's objectives. The purpose of this study was to investigate the social context of sexual victimisation of female students in selected KZN institutions of higher learning. The objectives for addressing this goal were to examine the nature of sexual victimisation against female students in selected Durban universities; determine the contributory factors to sexual victimisation against female students in selected Durban universities; investigate the effects of sexual victimisation on female students and the entire student and staff community of the institution; investigate the reasons for not reporting sexual victimisation and to elucidate. The information was gathered from a sample cohort of students, security personnel, and student counsellors from three (3) institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal (Durban).

Data is presented in themes and sub-themes, which include participant verbatim narratives. These themes go into detail about how students and staff understand sexual victimisation, the causes of sexual victimisation, the effects of sexual victimisation, and why victims do not report sexual victimisation. Furthermore, the institution's strategies for policing sexual victimisation. However, due to the sensitive nature of the research, institutions have been anonymised. The three institutions are denoted by the letters A, B, and C. Participants are then identified based on their institution, category of participation (Student, Student Counsellor, or Security Services), and position on the list of interviews for each category. This will be written in the form of an alphabet, a colon, an abbreviation, and a number. For example, student participant 1 of Institution A is designated as A: S1, student counsellor 1 of Institution B is designated as B: SC1, and security service staff 1 of Institution C is designated as C: SS1.

6.2. Understanding sexual victimisation and providing examples of sexual victimisation

The broad aim of the study was to examine the social context of sexual victimisation among female students. The aim can be achieved by first learning how participants perceive the phenomenon and what they consider to be sexual victimisation.

Several understandings emerged from the narratives, including behaviours and acts that were both physical and verbal, as noted below:

The phenomenon was described by student participants (S) as follows:

“Sexual victimisation is whereby someone wants to engage with you in sexual activity without your consent” (A: S2)

Participant S explained a range of victimisation:

“It starts from sexual harassment; the comments people make that are sexual. It also goes to the extent where someone forces someone to have sex with them against their will. It starts from minor sexual moves all the way to completed rape” (A: S4).

Furthermore, participant S states that:

“I would describe it as males using their position of power to take something that does not belong to them in order to violate another person sexually” (B: S3).

The use of power is also mentioned as participant S stated that:

“... is when someone who has power manipulates people who are inferior to them for sexual gratification” (C: S1).

In addition student counsellors (SC) described sexual victimisation as:

“It is when a person is put in a vulnerable position just because of the other person trying to make sexual advances on that individual that is not willing to take part in those sexual advances” (A: SC1).

“It is unwanted, unsolicited sexual behaviour that is also unwarranted by the recipient. It is sexual victimisation when no consent is given” (B: SC3).

Security service (SS) participants offered:

“It is a violation of someone else sexually without their consent” (A: SS1)

“It is whereby an individual force themselves on another individual without consent being given. This is normally for sexual gratification or humiliation of the other individual” (B: SS4).

The above definitions include elements considered in the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act 32 of 2007, which states that "any person ('A') who unlawfully and intentionally commits an act of sexual penetration with a complainant ('B')

without B's consent is guilty of rape." In its policy on sexual harassment, Institution A adopted the definition of sexual harassment as defined in South African legislation as "unwanted conduct of a sexual nature". Sexual harassment is distinguished by the fact that it is unwelcome, unsolicited, and unreciprocated conduct with a sexual component. According to Krebs, Lindquist, Berzofsky, Shook-Sa, Peterson, Planty, Langton and Strop (2016), sexual violence is defined as "any sexual act, attempt to obtain a sexual act, unwanted sexual comments or advances, or acts to traffic, or otherwise directed against a person's sexuality using coercion, by any person regardless of their relationship to the victim, in any setting, including but not limited to home and work." As can be seen from the three narrative categories listed above, participants defined and described sexual victimisation in similar ways.

In order to provide understanding, student participants (S) provided examples of sexual victimisation, as noted below:

“When a student is looking for accommodation, I have witnessed and observed that the SRC member will make sexual advances at the female student in return for sexual intercourse. That is sexual victimisation and corruption. Then the female is desperate so she gives in to the sexual advances. Sexual victimisation can also be verbal for example when a woman is wearing a short dress and miniskirts in summer and men make remarks that are sexual. It is most prevalent in this institution is one of sexual favours, students have to date certain people to get access to certain things and this is wrong” (A: S1).

“Touching someone’s breasts, bums and private part, it is also making unwelcomed sexual advances at someone” (A: S6).

“It could be a lecturer telling you that for you to pass the class or get a mark you will have to do something for them sexually. It could also be another student imposing their sexual desires on another and manipulating them to agree to them. For example, offering to help another student but for a sexual favour” (B: S3).

“ It could be first-year students who are looking for space to study, they victimised them and offer them help in return for sex. We also often hear of cases of first-year female students who approach SRC for assistance and are victimised by the SRC after being assisted” (C: S1).

In addition, a SC extended the examples:

“It can be sexual advances, sexual harassment, verbal and vulgar comments that make the other student feel uncomfortable and unconsented touching and fondling” (B: SC 2).

To provide more examples, an SS stated:

“It could be verbal harassment like saying inappropriate things to someone, there’s physical which is often the touching without consent and then rape” (A: SS4).

S participants referred to a variety of behaviours, ranging from verbal to physical, based on their observations. Consistent with previous research (Dastile, 2004), this study identifies verbal comments, body shaming, unwanted touching, fondling, unwanted sexual advances and gestures, attempted rape, and rape as forms of victimisation experienced by female students. The main difference between these examples is that there is no consent and the act is not welcomed by the victim. These acts are a violation of an individual's right to freedom and security, as outlined in Chapter 2, Section 12(1) of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa.

6.3. Social context of sexual victimisation

Responses that explained the social context of sexual victimisation revealed three themes. These themes provided specific information on the occurrence of key questions pertaining to the occurrence of sexual victimisation. The themes listed below emerged:

6.3.1. Nature and seriousness

The S, SC, and SS participants shared similar accounts of the gravity of sexual victimisation incidents in the chosen institutions. The narratives that follow are reflective of nature:

“It’s quite serious on our campus. Just that it’s a pity that the office that is responsible for publishing the nature of such cases does not do it. They don’t inform the student on the nature and seriousness. Like the rate at which these kinds of cases are escalating in our everyday life. It’s quite serious if you are on the ground and are exposed to everything that students go through in their everyday life. I am a residence assistant so I am confronted with these cases often. But for an outsider, you think that this university doesn’t have such cases since we don’t hear often where students are arrested because of offences” (A: S2).

The seriousness is extended to rape:

“ It is very serious because we often hear cases being reported. These cases are not just minor harassment but we hear of rape cases which is very serious. Just that the institution tries to keep these cases private to protect their reputation” (C: S3)

The seriousness also reflects the broader societal context.:

“They are very serious, what is happening outside in our societies is exactly what is happening in our institutions of higher learning. As a university community, we fall under society and we know that in the country and world the problem of Gender-Based Violence is huge so it impacts greatly in the universities too”(A: SS1).

The seriousness is explained in the detrimental effects as stated by participant SS that:

“They are very serious because it results in sex without consent and we have to intervene with counselling. Sometimes these victims are infected with HIV and face trauma ” (A: SS2).

The long-term ramifications are also acknowledged:

“These incidences are very serious. In every case where consent was not given the nature of it is treated with seriousness. It is very invasive and has long term effects on the victim ” (B: SC2).

According to the preceding discussion, sexual victimisation is widespread in institutions of higher learning. According to the participants, this (sexual victimisation) is invasive and has negative consequences for both the victim and the university community as a whole. The seriousness of sexual victimisation of female students threatens academic excellence as well as the institution's safety and security.

6.3.2. Common times of occurrence

As the primary point of contact following incidents, the SS was able to identify the most common times when female students are more likely to be victimised, as reported below:

“ During the night. Most of the cases I have attended happened at night. However, it is very important to note that these incidences have certain times or I can say seasons where they are on the rise and occur often. I know that the time for us to be alert that we are going to receive reports is during registration. This is the time where new students come in and they are not familiar with the place, they want assistance with registration and securing residences. The old students will then take advantage of them and ask for sexual favours in exchange for assistance. Mostly though it is during the night” (A: SS1)

The SS below captures a well executed planning process:

“The planning occurs during the day where people plan their plots, I would call it fishing for victims. But it is heightened at night when people execute their plans and actually victimise female students” (A: SS3).

“These incidences normally happen during the night, sometimes in social gatherings and parties” (B: SS3).

Social spaces is also identified by another SS as a conducive space:

“It happens commonly during the night. I can attribute this to the fact that some students leave campus late and go to their residences, some are walking alone to campus at night and some attend parties during the night. This becomes an opportunity for perpetrators to victimise female students” (B: SS5).

The narratives above reveal that opportunities to victimise occur at all hours of the day and night, but primarily at night. The Routine Activities Theory validates that for any crime to occur, three elements must be present: (1) a motivated offender, (2) a suitable target, and (3) a lack of guardianship. During the day, the perpetrator takes advantage of an opportunity to victimise the victim, whereas at night, the issue of lack of guardianship is raised. The S Participants confirmed that there was a lack of security, which exposed female students to danger, particularly at night. These participants felt victimised as a result of ineffective security measures, security personnel who are not visible, and residences that are not well guarded. When most female students are victimised in residences at night, the lack of guardianship is highlighted. This could be attributed to the institution's lack of financial resources or a misunderstanding of the seriousness of sexual victimisation.

6.3.3. Common locations at the institution

In particular, SS participants identified the location where they frequently attended to student victims when cases were reported. The narratives that follow identify residences as hotspots for sexual victimisation.

“From the cases, I have dealt with the incidences often occur at residences by a person that is not a stranger to the female student” (B: SC1)

Residences appear to be a prime location due to a lack of security measures:

“It mostly happens at some residences and this is because they don’t have sufficient security such as cameras or security and there are some blind spots where students can be taken advantage of” (B: S9).

Participant SS further elaborates on residences being hot spots:

“Most of the incidences reported to our offices happen in residences. This is because full-time students spend most of their time in residences when they are not attending classes or during weekends. Residences are student homes away from home and that is where they find themselves victimised” (A: SS2)

Offices are also identified:

“From my experience, these incidences happen predominantly in university offices and then in residences. These are the two places where perpetrators take the opportunity to victimise students. You also find that students will consult or go into certain offices for assistance and that is when they fall victim to sexual victimisation” (A: S1).

From the foregoing, it is clear that sexual victimisation is widespread and serious in higher education institutions. To emphasise the gravity of the situation, former Higher Education and Training Minister Naledi Pandor convened an emergency crisis meeting with universities in 2018 after approximately 50 rape cases were reported across the country. To address this issue, each institution was mandated to form task forces to address issues of sexual violence. The national task team currently oversees this mandate, hosting dialogues and developing strategic plans to assist institutions in eliminating sexual victimisation on their campuses. This confirms the participants' earlier observation that sexual victimisation requires immediate attention.

6.4. Perceived perpetrators of sexual victimisation

Perpetrators of sexual victimisation are defined in the study as individuals who are responsible for the victimisation of female students. Male students and staff members were mentioned as the primary perpetrators by participants. The narratives that follow provide insight into who the perpetrators are.

The S participants, stated:

“Most of the time it is the employees, they are very problematic. Especially the SRC, I have always heard of complaints regarding the SRC. They victimise students and demand sexual favours in return for assisting students which are uncalled for. I know of a staff member who was taken out of employment due to cases of sexual victimisation reported against him” (A: S1).

The SRC seems to be mentioned by yet another S participant:

“Usually, it is the registered male students. These incidences are also very prevalent in the SRC because they come across as helping students especially first years get residences and they offer even their rooms. Later on, they sexually exploit these vulnerable students since they know that they are in need. I feel like when someone is desperate for shelter they end up agreeing to have sex with the helper although it is not really consented. It is males who take advantage of female students” (A: S3).

The power dynamic is extended into other areas of interaction:

“More often than not, it's people who are academic staff such as tutors and lecturers because they use their powers on students because they have something to offer them so they ask for sexual intercourse in return. I would say it's an abuse of power in this case” (B: S1).

The transactional nature is further explained:

“It is male students but also predominantly staff members that have frequent interaction with female students” (C: S7).

A more descriptive account is detailed by the S participants, of what transpired:

“One of the incidents that took place was when I and my friends got back late from clubbing and we came back due to load shedding, it was around 2 am and very dark. As we arrived on campus it was dark. Our transport dropped us off at the main gate of the university as we lived in on-campus residences. While my friend and I were walking to our residences we met a female student walking alone and using her cellphone flashlight to see her way. She greeted and asked for directions to a certain residence and that is how I concluded that she was new in the university. We agreed that we would show her as our path was heading in the same direction. On our way, we met a student standing in the dark and asked that he shows her the residence. He agreed and we left the female with him. However, my spirit was unsettled and I kept asking

myself why that male student was standing in the dark. Through consciousness, I insisted that my friend and I go back and see if the guy is helping her find her way. You will not believe that when we followed them the guy was leading her to the wrong place as they had long passed the gate entering her residences. I stopped them and asked the guy where he was intending on taking her and he could not give me a clear answer. What annoyed me the most is that he even could call me by my name which means he knew me and he is a student of the university. I concluded on that night that clearly perpetrators are people we know and trust. To this day I ask myself where he was taking her” (A: S7).

The same participant A: S7 also witnessed:

“A girl reported that a lecturer wanted to take advantage and she’s been trying to get assistance as he held her marks and wanted her to re-write her tests on Saturdays alone with him. Reportedly he had tried on numerous occasions to make moves on her in his office and she refused...as her parents called asking for assistance and one of the SRC members intervened and the matter was resolved” (A: S7)

In residences, the narrative below is an example of how students are victimised.

“My friend was victimised and she told me months after it happened. My friend lived at a residence during the time of registration when there were few students. There was this guy who was friends with my friend’s boyfriend and asked my friend if he can take a nap in her room since his roommate left with the key. My friend did not have a problem since she trusted this guy and knew him through her boyfriend. He slept for a night and then left the next morning. The next day he asked again and my friend thought that since he used her room the night before nothing happened then he could sleep again. Unfortunately, on that night the guy used the opportunity and raped my friend. She says she woke up to the guy on top of her undressing her and she just froze and did nothing. She did not report because she was scared of being judged and asked why she did not scream and be told that she is the one who let the guy in her room. She was in denial also because she only told me months after. The first step she took was reporting it to the student support services. She was scared to report the guy to the police because the guy comes from a rich family and she knew he would get away with it. Luckily she was supported by the institution and received counselling and received justice. The guy was expelled from the institution as the institution took the matter seriously. Although he was not arrested but being expelled was justice for my friend” (B: S2).

The perpetrator's identity was verified by the SC and SS participants based on their prior experience attending to cases of sexual victimisation:

“It is usually student on student or an elder person outside. It is usually someone that is very close to the victim. Most of the time it is an intimate partner that the victim is in a relationship with” (A: SC1).

Both students and staff are mentioned as perpetrators:

“It is both students and staff. Lecturers take advantage of students and sleep with them for marks. It is also staff members that are in authority who victimise students” (B: SC4).

To amplify that the perpetrators are both students and staff, participant SS adds:

“Students are perpetrators but in the cases I have dealt with it is commonly staff members, lecturers in particular. If you can recall, there was a campaign in Durban in 2019 that exposed staff members who sexually harass students. There was a long list of lecturers, some of which were dismissed from employment and others resigned because students were speaking out and calling the perpetrators out. It was very unfortunate because it is people you know and trust” (A: SS1).

Yet another identified staff member:

“Students victimise other students. Although there have been several reports of staff members who sexually victimise students too” (B: SS4).

According to Murphy and Van Brunt (2017), a perpetrator is the person or persons who are the subject of a complaint filed with student conduct or law enforcement. Both students and staff were identified as perpetrators in the above narratives, and sexual victimisation of female students is consistent with Oni, Tshitangano (2019) study. According to their findings, sexual harassment perpetrators could be a coworker, supervisor, management personnel, or a student. In his work, Joseph (2015) confirms this by stating that it is critical to understand that perpetrators can be students, lecturers, teachers, or administrative staff. Due to the nature of their duties, student counsellors and security staff members were more definitive of who the perpetrators were in this study, whereas students presented narratives from their experiences within the student community. Higher education sexual harassment includes sex in exchange for good grades or leaked exam questions. In some cases, it may improve one's chances of admission to a desired institution. A recent article written on the 21st of September 2021 of an

academic staff that has been accused of sexual harassment can substantiate the above responses from S, SC, and SS participants. The suspended engineering lecturer is accused of soliciting nude photographs and requesting sex from female students in exchange for good grades. The institution responded that, while the lecturer was presumed innocent until proven guilty, he was still barred from participating in any university activities until the matter was resolved (Makwakwa, 2021). This is just one of many examples of academics taking advantage of students.

Noting that there are always two sides to every story, some discussions have brought up the fact that some students make sexual advances during lectures in order to advance academically. To shed light, The Nigerian Daily Post Newsletter (2018) provided a case in which a professor named Richard Akindele of Obafemi Awolowo University (OAU) was implicated in a sex-for-marks saga. The lecturer was accused of demanding five sessions of sex from Monica Osagie, a postgraduate student at the university, in order to award her a pass mark in a course she had failed. The sex scandal was described as having caused significant damage to the academic community. In a statement, the Lecturer in question stated, "I have evidence and proof that she naked herself and sexually harassed me, and I have a naked picture she sent to my WhatsApp contact, insisting on having sexual intercourse with me." I have known this lady to be a bad-tempered lady who behaves as if she is a psychotic." The Professor went into hiding shortly after sexual impropriety allegations were levelled against him. Following requests from university stakeholders, an investigation into the scandal was launched, and the alleged lecturer was fired on June 20, 2018. (The Nigerian Daily Post Newsletter, 2018). Cases like this one add complexities to the victimisation of female students and necessitate careful consideration when cases are reported to authorities.

The findings also show that SRC members were identified as potentially helpful in registering for and obtaining residences. According to the findings of a study conducted by Treffry-Goatley, de Lange, Moletsane, Mkhize and Masinga (2018), many female students are abused not only by their student boyfriends, but also by men in power who force them to exchange sex for a specific service, such as a place in residence or marks/grades. These men were identified as members of the SRC or academic staff. This is in direct opposition to the primary function of any institution's Student Representative Council. Section 6 of the SRC Constitution of Institution A (2018) states:

“6.1. To represent and serve students in all University matters affecting them as individuals and as a student body.

6.2. To advocate for students’ rights, striving for the general welfare of the student body regardless of race, colour, creed, sexual orientation or any other listed ground in terms of Section 9 of the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa”.

Furthermore, the Constitution of the SRC for Institution B (2012), states that no member of the SRC shall:

“3.7 disrespect and offend the dignity of a fellow student or member of staff in any way and 3. 15 harass other members, fellow students and staff members, sexually or otherwise”.

If students are sexually abused by members of the SRC who are supposed to serve students and protect their rights, the SRC's constitution is violated. According to the Routines Activities Theory, the student is an appropriate target for the SRC and lecturer because they provide them with a place to stay or good grades in exchange for sexual favours. The SRC member and lecturer is then the motivated offender who takes advantage of the situation to assert their power over the female students. According to Tampah-Naah (2020), sexual harassment in higher education entails sex in exchange for good grades or leaked exam questions. In some cases, it may improve one's chances of admission to a desired institution. According to the Routines Activities Theory, the appropriate target is the victimised student. According to Leach (2013), "the price of resistance is likely to be failure or exclusion" for the student. Because of the unequal power dynamics, the student who is inferior frequently submits to demands out of fear of compromising their chances of securing residence or academic performance.

6.5. Contributory factors to sexual victimisation

There are several factors that contribute to sexual victimisation. These are either at the micro (individual behaviour and factors) or macro (societal factors) level, and they all result in victimisation. Participants shared their perspectives on the following key factors:

6.5.1. Alcohol consumption and drug use/abuse

Alcohol has been linked to at least half of the incidents of sexual victimisation mentioned by participants: the student culture of alcohol consumption creates vulnerability, as participant S confirmed:

“The information that young girls go out drinking and sometimes with strangers is a cause of vulnerability. I would say that alcohol consumption is the biggest factor that causes a female student to be victimised. They have this culture in residences of inviting each other for movies or parties where there is alcohol with intentions to sleep with these females. At the end of the day, it is sexual victimisation because the female does not consent to this and was not there for sexual intercourse from the beginning. Alcohol plays a huge role in these incidences happening” (A: S3).

Another concomitant factor is drugs:

“I have stayed in campus residences for quite some time now and many of them are victimised when they are either high on a certain drug or intoxicated with alcohol. I would say they become vulnerable and easy targets when they are under the influence of alcohol. There have however been cases of sober victims and perpetrators it could be those in intimate relationships” (C: S6).

SS verifies the conducive situation for victimisation to occur:

“Alcohol consumption is the main contributing factor. It's very unfortunate because we don't allow students to bring alcohol onto campuses or residences but they will go and drink it then come and cause trouble. Students also participate heavily in night lifestyles where they invite each other to attend parties where alcohol is involved. We then get reports after those parties that a certain student was victimised” (B: SS1).

Another SS brought up the issue of both the victim and the perpetrator being intoxicated:

“Definitely alcohol consumption. Students always have money from NSFAS so they will always afford alcohol. They drink and then victimise each other. Males will take advantage of a drunk female or sometimes a male will drink alcohol and then can't control themselves resulting in inappropriate behaviours to other students. Sometimes both the victim and perpetrator are drunk during the time of the incidence” (B: SS5)

According to the narratives above, even though institutions of higher learning have strict rules prohibiting alcohol consumption on campus facilities, students' culture to access substances persists. According to studies, roughly half of college students binge drink (National Institute on Alcohol and Alcoholism, 2014). These statements are consistent with the findings of studies such as Umana, Fawole and Adeoye (2014), which found that alcohol use in the context of sexual activity may impair one's ability to avoid violence. Alcohol, according to Monks,

Tomako, Palacios and Thompson (2014), may increase the risk of assault by interfering with higher-order cognitive processes. Alcohol distorts perception, slows reaction time, and impairs decision making. Langton and Sinnozich (2014) discovered that most incidents of sexual misconduct on campus begin with contact because the individuals involved know each other and have been drinking, but that consensual contact eventually turns nonconsensual. Since alcohol alters an individual's cognition and autonomy, students perpetrate and become victims of sexual victimisation after consuming alcohol.

This study's theoretical framework confirms that certain behaviours are the result of neurobiological functions. According to the Intergrated Theory of Sexual Offending (Ward and Beech, 2006), neurobiological functioning refers to physical brain processes that may underpin human behaviour. When a person is under the influence of alcohol, the brain suffers, resulting in poor decision making and inappropriate behaviour.

6.5.2. Lack of education about consent and sexual victimisation

One of the most prominent themes among the factors contributing to sexual victimisation was a lack of education about consent and sexual victimisation. S and SC participants explained this as follows:

“The huge one is not being educated on what is sexual victimisation. Maybe if we grasp that and we get educated about the real definition of sexual victimisation then even the perpetrator or the victim will know that they are being victimised or they are crossing a line they are not supposed to cross” (A: S2).

Both the victim's and the perpetrator's lack of education, as well as the socialisation factor, are mentioned:

“Apart from alcohol consumption, it is a lack of education because some may victimise someone else unaware that they are victimising that person. It is also the background of the person, how they have been taught and raised to treat women” (C: S8).

An S participant mentioned a lack of understanding of both genders' rights and consent:

“It is a lack of knowledge about individual rights. If a person knows that they have a right to say no, then they will not allow their intimate partners or people they are familiar with to take advantage of them sexually. Also if men were taught how to respect and treat women they

would not be victimizing them. Not being educated on this is a great contributing factor for both males and females” (B: SC2).

The findings reinforced important knowledge about what constitutes sexual assault, the potential consequences of sexual assault for the survivor, why it is important to report sexual assault, and how to do so. It was also clear that students lacked information and education about their rights, as well as the ability to give or withhold consent. The GBV policy at Institution A is explicit in defining consent and reiterates that consent cannot be obtained through the use of physical force, compelling threats, intimidation, coercion, or any other controlling behaviour. Silence does not imply agreement. According to the policy, consent cannot be obtained through the use of physical force, compelling threats, intimidation, coercion, or any other controlling behaviour. Silence does not imply agreement. Clearly, some female students did not have a good understanding of what sexual victimisation is, and as a result, they were victimised but were unable to recognise it as victimisation.

6.5.3. Background and socialization of students

University spaces accommodate a diverse range of students from various backgrounds. This emerged as a contributing factor to the rates of sexual victimisation in higher education institutions.

Participant S elaborated on being socialised on the hegemony of the male gender scripts:

“It is the upbringing of an individual. And I’m saying this because we are raised in a society where girls and boys are raised differently and taught different things. So for instance, our families have taught us to always bow down to men, to always be submissive to their needs because that’s how you keep a man. Without thinking if a woman is okay with submitting to a man even when they don’t feel like it due to our culture and society. That is what we are expected to do. That has a negative impact on who were taught that when growing up, it teaches them that certain behaviour is okay because that’s how their uncles, neighbours and fathers taught them and behaved every day as a boy child. Those are factors that play a role in this issue of sexual victimisation” (A: S2).

In addition, socialisation of male superiority is reasserted as some pertinent questions are posed:

“Sometimes as a society we tend to think that it’s the victim who goes wrong but we never regard the person who is the perpetrator. We are always asking what was she wearing, why was she out at night but it’s never how was he taught? How was he trained to treat females?”

It's never about the victim but the perpetrator. The contributing factors is the upbringing of the perpetrator and how they have been taught. It's the mentality that the perpetrator and if they have been conditioned to always get what they want then when someone says no to them for the first time they use force because they are used to getting what they want all the time" (B: S3).

Participant S extended on the dysfunctional upbringing and added:

"Firstly, it is a lack of respect for one another. You can say things to a female because you know she's defenceless. This is a reflection of a bad upbringing and the environment the person comes from. For example, if a boy comes from a background where it is a norm to disrespect women by making comments when they walk by then that behaviour will be taken into the institution and perpetrated further. That is the biggest factor" (B: S5).

Furthermore, psychological factors associated with the family environment that may not be favourable are mentioned:

"It is a psychological factor within an individual. For example, if a male student grew up in a family experiencing domestic violence, they are most likely to possess violent behaviour" (C: S2).

Universities are microcosms of society, and the culture of society is always expressed on university campuses. These influential factors, which are reflective of an individual's family socialisation and background, see such behaviour replicated as they enter HEIs. When students interact with one another, gender stereotypes are reinforced. This allows for inappropriate behaviours such as sexual aggression and manifests as victimisation. According to Dietz (1998), the process of socialisation encourages boys and girls to adopt and develop certain personality traits that are commonly referred to as masculine and feminine. This is known as gender stereotyping. Sexual stereotypes, according to Ward, Hansbrough and Walker (2005), reflect beliefs about masculinity and femininity that are acted out in romantic courtship rituals. They add that it includes beliefs that men or women must use coercion, deception, or manipulation to obtain or maintain a romantic relationship. They go on to say that women's attractiveness is required for a relationship; that men want sex but women want relationships and will go to any length to "gain" a man; and that men who are masculine in appearance and use flattery are the most successful at picking up women. Women are also portrayed in

stereotypical roles, usually related to sexuality, in which the woman focuses on beauty or physical attractiveness, or on traditional family roles (Milkie, 1994). Due to the sheer submissive treatment women receive, they find it difficult to object to sexual advances, resulting in victimisation. Men are socialised to dominate, particularly in South Africa, while women are taught to be submissive. This has a significant impact on the power imbalance between men and women, contributing to behaviour that subjects women to victimisation at the hands of men.

These are gender stereotypes that exist in some cultural contexts and condition and prescribe gender roles. Hence given that the study's sample was primarily composed of African women and men from similar ethnic and cultural backgrounds, there has been a representation of gender stereotyping and cultural conditioning on the way students think and behave. African cultural practices such as ukuthwala, virginity testing, and lobola are frequently cited as examples of traditions that promote women's ownership, control, and subjugation (Kheswa & Hoho, 2014). These practices instil a culture that deprives women of their autonomy. Similarly, Davids (2019) contends that socialisation into male authority and female submissiveness is as prevalent in the Abrahamic faiths (Judaism, Christianity, and Islam) as it is in other faiths and traditions. This study's population is diverse in terms of the aforementioned cultural beliefs. It is possible to conclude that these practices and cultural beliefs infiltrate university spaces and encourage male dominance and power abuse. Furthermore, it is noted that religious and cultural traditions are somewhat intertwined, making differentiation between cultural and religious practices difficult.

According to Warren, Swan and Allen (2015), adherence to traditional gender roles negatively predicts comprehension of sexual consent among heterosexual college men. The social construction of a rape culture is one component of this. Rape culture is defined by Stubbs-Richardson, Rader and Cosby (2018: 91) as "when societal attitudes or behaviours toward gender and sexuality that normalise sexual violence are constructed and reproduced in society through modelling and social learning." Rape is perpetuated in a rape culture by socialising boys and men to be sexual aggressors and girls and women to be sexually passive.

It is known that men in the university community are also part of the larger community taught to believe that to be a man automatically means to be sexually assertive. Such a perspective would justify why sexual crimes are rampant on campus. To mention other elements of the concept of background and upbringing, Galdi, Maass and Cadinu (2014) argue that mere

exposure to media content that objectifies women was positively associated with men's intentions to sexually coerce and harass women, whereas media content that did not objectify women was unrelated to intentions to sexually coerce and harass. According to Hust and Brown (2008), gendered attitudes are informed by sexual scripts that are performed, normalised, and disseminated to young adults via the mass media. Tomazewska and Krahe (2016) propose that scripts for consensual sexual interactions that contains elements linked to an increased risk of sexual aggression, such as engaging in sex with casual partners or drinking alcohol when having sex, may make the perpetration of, and victimisation by, sexual aggression more likely.

To support the findings of this study that an individual's background and upbringing is a factor, the Integrated Theory of Sexual Offending (ITSO; Ward & Beech, 2006) suggest that four sets of factors converge to cause sexual offending and its associated problems: biological factors (influenced by genetic inheritance and brain development), ecological niche factors (i.e., social, cultural, and personal circumstances: learning), neuropsychological factors, and agency-level factors (i.e., this is the level at which a person reflects on possible reasons for acting, decides on a course of action justified by reasons, and then [intentionally] acts to change some aspects of themselves, other people or the world in accordance with their goals).

This theory extensively unpacks elements of an individual's background and upbringing which can later influence their behaviour. According to the ITSO (Ward & Beech, 2006), factors that may lead to poor developmental experiences, such as poor parenting, sexual and physical abuse, and limited social support, may be important distal factors in the development of sexual offending behaviour. They also stated that ecological factors are a combination of social, cultural and personal circumstances, as well as the physical environment. This assumption is further supported by Leach (2013) which demonstrates that sexual harassment in education manifests strongly in countries with weak educational systems, low levels of accountability, high levels of poverty, and gender inequality.

South African universities fall under Leach's description and the narratives provided in this section are in line with these findings and are noted to have a great impact on the nature and seriousness of sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning.

6.5.4. Intimate partner violence

Participants from the SC and SS who directly attend to sexual victimisation cases confirmed that many incidents involve an intimate partner. Female students are frequently sexually abused by their boyfriends, ex-boyfriends, and, on rare occasions, males with whom they are in a relationship. The narratives go into greater detail:

In particular, when the victim and perpetrator had previous sexual intercourse, consent is disregarded as SC participant confirms below:

“From my observation mostly for both parties, it would be a lack of understanding of boundaries for when two individuals meet. I do find that males do become in a position when they are faced with such cases and for them, it becomes very confusing especially if they have had sex before. They feel that the female was not strong in their no and wonder why they would say no since they have been intimate before. They find themselves in this position because they lack the knowledge or understanding that you cannot manipulate a person into having sexual intercourse with you and you cannot force yourself in any way” (A: SC1).

The SS participants also expand on victimisation by a boyfriend:

“You find that these young female students are victimized by their boyfriend or someone that just exited a relationship with without setting the boundaries. When they have to report they will say that they are sexually active with that person but maybe they had a fight and they did not consent on that particular day. In most cases, you also find that the perpetrator is someone who has been making relationship advances and spending time with the victim” (A: SS2).

According to the World Health Organization (2013), intimate partner violence (IPV) includes any behaviour that causes physical, psychological or sexual harm within an intimate relationship. It has been noted in the findings of this study that most incidents involve students that know each other or have an intimate relationship before the victimisation. Consistent with these findings, a study conducted in 21 countries found that from 14% to 19% of female university students reported being the victim of a physical assault within their romantic relationships (Chan, Straus, Brownridge, Tiwari & Leung, 2008).

Agardh, Tumwine, Asamoah and Cantor-Graae (2012) also note that IPV is an increasing health concern of male and female university students. Another associated study conducted by Pengpid and Peltzer (2016) of intimate partner violence victimisation among male and female university students in 22 countries in Africa, Asia and America, revealed that by the age 21 years, 16,3% of sexually active students reported ever having experienced intimate partner

violence or sexual partner violence. The high prevalence of intimate partners can be attributed to the misconception that consent is guaranteed in an intimate relationship where the couple has participated in sexual intercourse before. As Phipps, Ringrose, Renold and Jackson (2018) argue that, in other words, it is inconceivable that husbands and boyfriends can rape their wives, girlfriends or female partners. Phipps et al. (2018:1) explain further that these cultural norms produce prevalent ‘rape myths’ such as that women enjoy being raped, and give credence to the idea that there are ‘blurred’ lines around consent. Furthermore, it is these rape myths that result in low reporting rates and hinder the administration of justice for victims of IPV.

The power dynamic is pervasive when negotiation between the two occurs.

6.5.5. Continued abuse of power dynamics by senior students and staff members

The narratives also allude to perpetrators, who are frequently people in positions of power who take advantage of female students in exchange for benefits. The role that power dynamics and abuse of power play in sexual victimisation is concerning. Participants S, SC, and SS attested to this by providing evidence:

“The contributing factors are firstly the lack of morals and integrity. Most employees of the institution do not have integrity and they take advantage of people because they are in a position of power. The institution also does not take sexual victimisation seriously. I say this because there lack services and facilities to address the issue” (A: S1).

“Power dynamics is a crucial factor where lecturers take advantage of students because they are in a position of power. They tell students that if they do this and that I will give them marks and they will pass the course. For example, if a student fails the lecturer will say if you sleep with I will give you a chance to pass. Those are all power dynamics” (A: SS1).

Participant S describes an incident that validates the complexities of the power dynamic:

“A girl reported that a lecturer wanted to take advantage and she’s been trying to get assistance as he held her marks and wanted her to re-write her tests on Saturdays alone with him. Reportedly he had tried on numerous occasions to make moves on her in his office and she refused. She later informed her parents and they called asking for assistance and one of the SRC members intervened and the matter was resolved. This is one of the incidences that show how academic staff abuse their power to take advantage of students” (A: S7).

As previously stated, the SRC is critical to the process. Particularly when securing residences that are more vulnerable to victimisation, as explained by S participant:

“I have noted that in residences it is quite serious. The SRC males have a trend, a cycle that is ongoing because I remember even when I came as a first-year my eldest family members who had been in varsity warned me about SRC boys which shows that they have a history and culture of victimizing young women. This is caused by the first that when one enters university they need assistance with registration and residence. These young SRC boys take advantage of these young female students because they know that they are desperate first-year students and not familiar with the institution. They offer to assist them with residences because they are vulnerable, others even fall pregnant and the same boys force the female student to do an abortion. The female is a first-year, vulnerable and confused and then they are taken advantage of. In my institution, it’s a culture and I would say in most institutions” (A: S9).

The sustaining of such an abusive culture is extended to staff members within leadership roles:

“I would also say that management play a huge role because they hire people without evaluating their character. That is how you end up having reports of lecturers who victimize students. A person must be cross-analyzed before being given a position of power because some people abuse power. They need to hire people who are passionate about their work who will not abuse power and take advantage of students” (C: S1).

Evidently, S1 above offers a solution to the process of screening before employment, which may be laborious for institutions. Undoubtedly, research has demonstrated that to be in a position of power implies control; which is either by the subjugation or uniting people. According to Tampah-Naah (2020) sexual harassment, could include sexual favours in exchange for good grades or preferential treatment in class. In an educational setting quid pro quo, sexual harassment is maintained to occur when a superior (supervisor/lecturer) conditions the granting of an economic/academic reward upon receipt of sexual favours from a subordinate/student or effuse fear by threatening the subordinate/student if he/she refuses to submit to his request (Dhlomo, Mugweni, Shoniwa, Maunganidze & Sodi, 2012).

Legislation on this issue is well captured. According to Section 11 of the Criminal Law (Sexual Offences and Related Matters) Amendment Act, 2007:

"Engaging sexual services of persons 18 years or older

11. A person ('A') who unlawfully and intentionally engages the services

of a person 18 years or older ('B'), for financial or other reward, favour or compensation to B or to a third person ('C')- 10

(a) for the purpose of engaging in a sexual act with B, irrespective of whether the sexual act is committed or not; or

(b) by committing a sexual act with B.

is guilty of the offence of engaging the sexual services of a person 18 years or older."

This Act specifies that unlawfully initiating sexual intercourse with a person 18 years or older for financial or other rewards, favour or compensation is sexual assault. Being aware of this legislation should prove to be a deterrent for those who occupy this abusive, powerful and abusive space. This is not adequate to halt such practices.

Feminist theorists also acknowledge that gender is created and enacted through social interactions, and the structures of power create contexts in which violence is tolerated and perpetuated in expressions of masculinity and femininity (Hust, Rodgers & Bayly, 2017). Sexual consent negotiation that follows such scripts exemplifies an imbalance of power between men and women. In the context of institutions of higher learning, the lecturer assumes a position of power by virtue of being a staff member, it is then amplified when he is a man in conversation with a woman making sexual advances and negotiating with the reward of marks etc.

Zoneziwoh Mbongulo Wondieh (2011) expanded on this idea by confirming the complication of power relationships:

"Another critical aspect is power relations. Already, between a teacher and the student, there exists a power relationship and that by itself creates some sort of tension besides other social norms that prevail such as class and age. Just for the basic fact that in some situations the teacher is superior in position to the student is already a constraint and an influence the teacher would have over the student. This is reinforced by the attributes of maleness which signifies authority. In such conditions were to be a man implies power, therefore to be a man and a teacher at the same time is more advantageous."

There is a strong socio-cultural ideology that manhood means power and authority, which contributes to female students succumbing to sexual advances from their lecturers. Sexual consent negotiation, according to Hust, Rodgers, and Bayly (2017), can be viewed as a gender interaction in which male violence and female submission are enacted gender scripts. According to Cortina, Lonsway, Magley, Freeman, Collinsworth, Hunter and Fitzgerald (2002), women enter academia expecting to be challenged, accepted, and respected, but instead find a climate of indifference, hostility, exploitation, and other worse situations. They find themselves in oppressive and vulnerable situations, unsure of the consequences of not giving consent and thus being sexually victimised. According to Gluckman, Read and Mangan (2017), the #MeToo movement, which aimed to publicise allegations of sexual harassment spreading through academia, was successful in forcing organisations to confront widespread sexual harassment and assault in their workplaces.

To further clarify the lecturer/senior student perpetration of sexual victimisation on female students, Routine Activity Theory provides an assumption that anyone can become sufficiently motivated to break the law if the conditions are good enough. The motivated offender at times has already taken his time to weigh out the cost and benefits of sexually victimizing someone or it might just be an opportunistic type of victimisation. At HEI, lecturers identify students (suitable targets) who they can promise good marks in return for a sexual favour. The suitable target can be any female who comes into contact with a motivated offender, in a university facility that lacks the appropriate guardianship of the student under threat. This guardianship is pivotal to the process of protection. In addition, participants in this study, affirm that often poor-performing students are victimised because the lecturer promises them better marks if they engage in sexual intercourse. The reward and the cost benefits are negotiated without equal power is evident in such a process.

Again, sexual harassment is seen to be more prevalent in institutions where educators are poorly trained, underpaid, and severely under-sourced (Beninger, 2013). Other arguments claim that socio-economic insecurity has also played a significant role in female students' vulnerability to sexual violence. Prevalent in other settings is that lecturers victimise students in return for financial benefits to the victim. In this particular study, the emerging theme was that of sex for marks.

The government has implemented a series of policies that are putatively designed to lessen sexual assault but that impose heavy costs on colleges and potentially undermine due process

(Beaver, 2017). These policies such as institution B's harassment, Gender-Based Violence and Bullying policy exist. However, shortfalls are noted as academic staff continue to sexually victimise students. As a long-term solution, the University or workplace can take up the responsibility of creating a healthy organisational culture of good manners and leadership for all members of the institution (Dougherty, 2017). This could eliminate the abuse of power and eliminate the problem of sexual victimisation of female students by academic staff.

6.6. Effects of sexual victimisation on the victim

Sexual victimisation is a violation of an individual's human rights and has negative consequences for the victim as well as the institution's general student and staff community. These effects can be addressed and minimised; however, some are long-term and have a long-term impact on the victims. As a victimised participant shares, the negative effects of sexual victimisation have numerous ramifications:

“This is from experience, it's not a nice feeling. You see yourself as an object, that a person felt that they can do as they please and they don't care if you were crying and begging but they do as they please. The flashbacks cause trauma and at some point, I struggled to complete a simple task related to my school work because I was so hurt that someone could do this to me. The perpetrator just wants sexual gratification and does not care that they are damaging the victim. It also becomes very hard to report especially for young black women because of the stigma and judgements that society will have towards them. For example, it becomes so difficult when a victim has to go report at a police station because firstly she's a woman, she also gets there to a man and she has to retell her story over and over and respond to invasive questions in front of other people. That is secondary victimisation and others are forced to privately deal with the victimisation until they heal. The trauma after being victimised also has a long term effect on intimate relationships. Victims will have trust issues and not feel safe around a man. They have the perception that every man will hurt them. That's why many women end up not being in intimate relationships others hate men to the extent that they become lesbian” (A: S9).

The personal reflection shared above delves into the complexities of trauma. Similar to the negative effects described in the preceding experience, the University for Development Studies (UDS, 2018) abhors and clearly states that "sexual harassment is unlawful and distasteful" and "violates the affected person's rights to self-determination and bodily integrity" (s). This research uncovered four sub-themes of effect.

6.6.1. Social withdrawal from family, friends and university activities

Female students who have been sexually victimised withdraw socially from their immediate environment and avoid routine activities, according to S6:

“Someone who has been victimised withdraws from social activity. As a residence assistant, I have dealt with a few cases where the victim will lock themselves in their room and not engage in any social activities. They do not talk to anyone and are always crying. This most probably affects their academic performance since they don’t attend classes and don’t submit their assessments” (A: S6).

Upon reflection about a victimised friend, an S participant elaborated that:

“I noted when my friend was victimised that she developed mood swings, she no longer spent time with me or any of our friends. Before she told us we thought she just changed on us but after she disclosed the incidence we began to understand why she was moody and emotional. It also affected her academic performance as her grades dropped in that academic year until she attended counselling and it helped her a lot” (B: S2).

Participant below also observed that:

“I play netball. I know of a female who was in our team, after being victimised and she never played with us. I did not know why she stopped coming to practice until months later I hear of her sexual harassment case. I think this affects a person so much that they stop doing things they like or just withdraw from activities associated with the institution” (C: S8).

The SS participant also confirmed that:

“It affects them so negatively. You can physically see it in their demeanour, you see the fear they exhibit. It affects them emotionally and affects the way that they function in and around campus. They operate in fear that they still have to see the perpetrator on campus which is why many choose to lock themselves up in their rooms. It is very traumatic for quite a lot of them” (A: SS4).

It has been documented that the majority of victims of sexual harassment exhibit cognitive, behavioural, emotional, and physical symptoms following the harassment, which may last for a long time and even change the course of their lives (Christofides, Webster, Jewkes & Penn-

Kekana, 2003). The possibility of encountering the alleged perpetrator within the university setting exists, especially if reporting to formal structures has not occurred.

As highlighted in an earlier chapter, the Constitution of the Republic of South Africa, Section 12(1) outlines the right to freedom and security of the person. It emphasises that:

12. (1) Everyone has the right to freedom and security of the person.

Despite the fact that constitutional rights are guaranteed, the reality of safety and security is not. The result of their withdrawal from the university community is a further violation of her right to continue to move freely.

6.6.2. Experiencing trauma, stress and depression

The concomitant effect of trauma is stress and depression, which S participants explained:

“It alters the person’s self-confidence because one starts to see themselves the way that the perpetrator has put it. For example, if something is said about one’s dress code or appearance then the victim will develop negative feelings about themselves. It also evokes feelings of trauma and lack of trust towards men. They fall into a phase of depression” (B: S5).

The reality of depression and its effects on the wellbeing is further shared:

“Sexual victimisation impacts very negatively on a victim regardless of gender. It puts the victim in a mental disequilibrium because now they are put at a crossroad whereby they need something but they also have to give up something in return. Sometimes our needs take the better of us and then we find ourselves succumbing to those demands. It is a very difficult and uncomfortable situation and I have seen people go through it. It impacts their self-esteem because now they have this baggage of experience knowing that someone victimised you. After all, you were in need. I have been exposed to it but fortunately enough I was able to identify the signs and take my stand against them. However sexual victimisation is highly prevalent in our institutions and I’m so grateful that you came up with this research because I believe that this is the starting point of addressing this issue” (A: S1).

Depression is a pervasive aspect and has been reiterated:

“It affects the victim in so many ways. I would say that it hinders the way a person thinks. I can imagine one trusting someone only for that person to victimize you. It distorts the trust not just to that one person but to the entire humanity. They don’t know who to trust. The victim

becomes paranoid and starts blaming herself and falling into depression. It can damage the victim physically and mentally; some will even try harming themselves just trying to forget what happened. It damages the person's health" (B: S3).

As previously stated, depression and self-harm are possibilities, both of which have long-term consequences:

"It is something that leaves long-term trauma to the extent that some victims end up having hatred towards men. Some will even have problems in their romantic relationships because the victim will not trust any man. This requires a lot of therapeutic support" (C: S1).

To elaborate further traumatization can recur when encountering similar scenarios:

"It evokes trauma. They are always reminded of what they went through" (A: SC1).

Psychological effects and the power-dynamic becomes salient:

"There is a lot of psychological effects and often the self-esteem of the victim is damaged. The victim experiences feelings of guilt, shame and powerlessness which causes stress. Many victims that I have spoken to are ver traumatised and mention that they keep getting flashbacks of the incident. They exhibit symptoms of depression which also affects their academic performance" (B: SC5)

The long-term trauma has further implications. Often remembering the event and healing physically without any form of therapeutic support creates further complexities. The historically black university study found that sexual assault survivors had significantly more symptoms of depression and were more likely to screen positive for posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) than were no victims (Lindquist, Barrick, Krebs, Crosby, Lockard & Sanders-Phillips, 2013). To amplify this argument, Belluck (2018) tells us that "there is no evidence to suggest that current policies, procedures, and approaches have resulted in a significant reduction in sexual harassment," and therefore argues that it "undermines work and well-being in a whole host of ways, triggering symptoms like depression, sleep disruption, cardiac stress, and post-traumatic stress disorder". HEI's are expected to provide adequate support to victims of sexual acts. As highlighted in the harassment, GBV and bullying policy for Institution B, the institution commits to provide comprehensive medical, psycho-social and counselling support to complainants of Harassment, GBV and Bullying. However, it has been noted in research that victims often do not report victimisation incidences. According to Ahrens, Stansell and Jennings (2010), survivors who do not seek help report greater psychological

distress and symptoms of depression and PTSD. Considering this finding, it has furthermore been established in this study that the selected institutions of higher learning have student support services. These services are, however, reported by the participants of this study to be unknown to some, offering inadequate services or unapproachable.

6.6.3. Poor academic performance

Another direct effect is poor academic performance as captured below:

“This attacks a person’s self-esteem and impacts their entire identity resulting in a loss of identity. The stigma attached to being sexually victimised causes a lot of damage to a person’s social life and wellbeing. The results of this also affect academic performance” (C: S2).

The immediate effects on their academic performance is further justified as participant SC elaborated:

“The cases I have attended to have resulted in the victim performing poorly in their academics. They are sent to us for counselling but sometimes the damage is so deep that it causes students to not perform well academically” (B: SC4).

Failure becomes a reality as participant SS stated:

“It affects the person badly. You find that the victim performs poorly and even fails exams. It has long-term effects; a person will suffer for a long time” (A: SS1).

According to Holland and Cortina (2017), sexual assault can have a devastating impact on survivors' psychological and educational well-being, which can worsen if survivors do not receive adequate care. This study confirms that sexual abuse has an impact on a victim's academic performance. According to Murphy and van Brant (2017), students who have experienced sexual violence, particularly when the perpetrator is another student, are no longer able to access the educational environment in the same way. Similarly, if the perpetrator is a lecturer, as validated by the study's findings. If a lecturer promises a female student sex marks, the lecturer may eventually fail them as punishment if the student does not consent to the lecturer's sexual advances. As Dranzoa (2018) points out, sexual harassment in higher education is a sign of institutional failure, and victims' academic careers may be compromised.

6.6.4. Contracting STIs, STDs and unwanted pregnancy.

There are health implications of sexual victimisation. Young females who are victimised experience infections and unwanted pregnancies as confirmed by participant SC:

“It has a range of effects as it is very invasive in nature. The victim suffers physical, psychological and medical effects such as STIs and HIV. Some victims even fall pregnant after being raped” (B: SC2).

Perpetrators rarely use protection:

“It has very bad effects. You find that a perpetrator is a person who normally engages in unsafe sex so the victim often contracts sexually transmitted infections. You also find that the victim becomes stressed because they fall pregnant as a result of the victimisation. All of this affects their academic performance” (A: SS3).

The reality of an unwanted pregnancy is also mentioned by SS participant:

“It is a sad reality that some victims are impregnated by the perpetrator in the process of their victimisation” (B” SS5).

According to the findings of this study, some females are victimised by their intimate partners and others close to them. The consequences are much more severe in intimate relationships, particularly because victims rarely report due to fear or intimidation. As a result, there is no access to help, which perpetuates the negative effects. Decker, Latimore, Yasutake, Haviland, Ahmed, Blum, Sonenstein and Astone (2015) highlight the negative health consequences, which include sexually transmitted infections, injury, unintended pregnancy, poor mental health, and addiction.

According to a study conducted by Pengpid and Peltzer (2016), male students who had impregnated female students were more likely to be victimised by intimate partners. This finding is consistent with the current study's findings that unwanted pregnancy is a result of sexual victimisation, particularly within intimate relationships.

6.7. Effects of sexual victimisation on the staff and student community of the institution

The pervasiveness of the problem, which not only negatively affects the victim but also has a negative impact on the entire university community. These are expanded on by participants:

“It basically instils a sense of fear. We often feel sympathy for the victims. It creates an atmosphere that is not conducive for learning and socializing as everyone becomes scared of being a victim” (A: S6).

The unconducive teaching and learning environment is further exacerbated by a lack of trust:

“It puts everyone into a state of unease and paranoia. You start questioning who you can trust and doubting people around you. You become more careful and being strategic with your moves for example who you keep around you and who you associate with. It really creates a lack of security” (A: S3).

Reiterating the lack security creates further hypervigilance:

“I would say it makes us feel scared and we wonder who is next. The security is compromised and the institutions become a scary place to be instead of a conducive place for teaching and learning” (C: S10).

The narrative attests to a general sense of fear and unease among the student and faculty population. Clearly, the primary goal of the institutions' sexual harassment policies was to create a safe teaching and learning environment. For example, according to Institution A's Gender-Based Violence policy, they declared a commitment to a work, study, and social environment free of violence/abuse, unfair discrimination, or harassment. No member of the institution's community will be tolerated committing violence on the basis of gender, sex, marital status, or sexual orientation. However, if sexual victimisation continues at an alarming rate, this policy is laudable in intent but deficient in execution. Sexual harassment and gender-based violence in higher education, according to Dranzoa (2018), are indicators of institutional failure. This failure to provide a safe and secure learning environment is contradictory and reflects poorly on institutions' efforts.

6.8. Reasons for underreporting of sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning

According to Beaver (2017), the vast majority of campus sexual assaults are not reported to enforcement or to security officials, which makes it difficult to accurately gauge how many did occur. This study found that most students do not report that they have been sexually victimised for numerous interactional reasons. According to Fisher, Daigle, Cullen and Turner (2003)

disclosure to law enforcement is more likely when the perpetrator is a stranger when the incident is more severe (i.e., use of weapons, survivor considering the incident to be rape), and when incidents take place on campus. Similarly, findings from a study conducted by Lindquist, Crosby, Barrick, Krebs and Settles-Reaves (2016) revealed that the survivors who did not disclose their sexual assault experiences to victims, crisis, or health care centres reported that they made this decision because they did not want to talk about it, did not need assistance, felt that it was not serious enough to report, did not want anyone to know about it, felt embarrassed, and felt that they were partially or fully responsible for what occurred.

This current study produced findings that were similar to those of the previous studies mentioned above. Participants provided reasons for underreporting, which are categorised into four sub-themes, which are listed and explained below:

6.8.1. Lack of knowledge of what constitutes sexual victimisation

The S participant offered a realistic perspective:

“The main reason that comes to my mind is the fact that most of the victims are raped by their boyfriends. So, because they are not well educated about what constitutes rape, they will not consider forceful sex as rape and will not report it. The justice system also plays a role because most of the stories that are reported in our communities of intimate partner sexual victimisation, the police will be the first people to ask questions such as ‘why did she go to his house if she did not want sex’. Hence the victim never reports because the victim will blame themselves and think it is their fault” (A: S8).

According to Lorenz and Ullman (2016), following sexual assault, the first interpretation of the event as a crime or assault, called “rape acknowledgement,” occurs, before they can self-identify as a victim or survivor and be acknowledged and labelled a victim or survivor by others. Acknowledgement and labelling are also linked to being able to disclose an assault and receive social reactions or support from others and begin to cope in adaptive ways with the aftermath. This study reveals that when a student is victimised by their intimate partner or someone they have consented to sexual intercourse before, it is unlikely that the victim will identify the incident as sexual victimisation. This is indicative that female students are not yet well educated about their rights and giving consent. They are victimised, sometimes repeatedly but do not know that they are being victimised.

In a campus sexual assault investigation by the Centre for Public Integrity (2010), it was reported that most victims of sexual assault did not report it, particularly if drugs and alcohol were involved, and many females did not consider the incident in question a sexual assault. In cases where alcohol was involved, the incident is labelled as “bad sex” or “a hookup” when by its nature, it is sexual victimisation. This study support this noting that little research has been conducted among college students suggesting that the main reasons for non-reporting are survivors’ perceptions that the incident was not serious enough. While Fisher, Daigle, Cullen and Turner (2003) and Krebs, Lindquist, Warner, Fisher and Martin (2007) argue that lack of certainty that crime or harm was intended, and desire to avoid other people finding of the victimisation. Most female students who have been victimised will conclude that the perpetrator did not intend to harm them due to not knowing their rights, hence not reporting the incident to formal structures.

6.8.2. Self-blame, shame and fear of perpetrator

Self-blame and shame prevents victims from speaking out or reporting the perpetrator to legal authorities as validated by participants S:

“It is because most people are faced with shame. Victims also think that people will say they are lying. Also when the victimisation happens by an intimate partner or a friend, people will often say that the victim is spiteful for something and not believe them” (C: S1).

Shame can be a debilitating emotion and fear discourages reporting as participant S elaborates:

“Too many victims do report because they are scared of the perpetrator because of their power and status. They are also threatened by the perpetrator. They also don’t report because of fear of what people will say and that people will talk about them and blame them for the victimisation by saying that they asked for it. The stigma attached to the victimisation is too deep so most victims run away from that” (B: S2).

According to the study, victims will also choose to remain silent because they do not want to reveal their identities to their families. In explaining this finding, Wolitzky-Taylor, Resnick, McCauley, Amstadter, Kilpatrick and Ruggiero (2011) state that fear of family members or others learning about the victimisation, as well as fear of reprisal by the offender and fear of being blamed for the assault, has been identified as a barrier to reporting to law enforcement among the general population. According to Tampah-Naah (2020), the fear of failing exams, stigmatisation or ridicule, or even the belief that nothing will be done to the perpetrators all contribute to the perpetuation of sexual harassment. When the perpetrator is a lecturer, the

victim will not report because he or she is afraid of failing the course if the lecturer is not held accountable for the victimisation.

6.8.3. Fear of secondary victimisation

Secondary victimisation is one of the barriers to reporting sexual offences. As S participant shared, the inquiry process is often lengthy and requires the victim to retell their story, which causes additional secondary trauma:

“The reason would be that we all know how the criminal justice system lets us down. Many victims would rather not report the incidence because it will be a long process but in the end, justice won’t be served. It will only just be secondary victimisation but no justice for the victim hence many victims would rather not report. If justice is served, there is no additional assistance that is given to the victim to help them heal from the trauma, they are just left to deal with the aftermath of being drilled with a million questions during the process” (C: S6).

Concurring with sentiments of an unreliable criminal justice system that revictimises, Participant B: S9 elaborated:

“It is definitely our justice system; it has failed many victims before so each time a victim wants to report they first think that even if they come out about it in the end justice won’t be served. Instead people will blame them and make matters worse. They are running away from the secondary victimisation because on top of the turmoil that the victim is already faced with, after reporting they now have to deal with people blaming them for being victimised” (B: S9).

The deterrent of reporting can also cause secondary victimisation by fellow students as S participant offered that:

“As I mentioned earlier, most of them don’t report because they are in denial and don’t want to be labelled as a rape victim. They are avoiding the lengthy process of opening a case and at times they are further victimised because these incidences are sometimes circulated amongst students and their identity is revealed. This causes a stigma that nobody wants to bear. I feel like some of them face the shame that comes with victimisation and they are in denial and don’t want to become part of the statistics” (A: S3).

Participant SS expands on secondary victimisation:

“In my experience of heading the department, I can say that I have observed cases where a student approaches the security for assistance. This industry of security is male-dominated so you find that a student is coming to report a case and the security will start asking funny questions such as what was she wearing or if she was drinking. They start judging the student. This is what we call secondary victimisation. So students will talk and share that they were not assisted or not happy with the outcome of reporting. Others will have that perception that the support structures don’t take students seriously hence they will not report” (A: SS1).

Those who have gone through the processes have described the secondary victimisation of rape survivors by the justice system as traumatic (Swemmer, 2019). Victims will only gain trust in reporting if the environment provides a safe space for disclosure without fear of being judged or blamed. According to Tampah-Naah (2020), a university as an institution must develop alternative reporting channels in addition to those established by the institution. More trusted, respected, and high-ranking individuals, particularly female lecturers who are well-informed, can serve as the first point of contact in the event of a sexual harassment allegation. Females would undoubtedly feel more at ease reporting to another female than having a male ask them sensitive questions about their victimisation. Entis (2018) suggests that department heads be empowered (as bystanders) to report sexual harassment allegations to the appropriate authorities so that appropriate action can be taken. This would also create a space where female students have access to support within departments with whom they may already have a trusting relationship, making reporting of sexual victimisation simple.

6.8.4. Lack of trust in university support structures

The lack of supportive institutional structures for sexual victimisation is one of the most common reasons for non-reporting. The participant listed below elaborates on this:

“There goes a young woman who was actually failed by all structures of the institution I believe she attempted twice to commit suicide as she didn’t perform well academically and the last time I met her she was having difficulties with registration. She was on the verge of academic exclusion, furthermore one would imagine the psychological impact it would have on her and the negative effects it will have on her reputation” (A: S7).

Institutions of higher learning are renowned to protect the perpetrator as the S participant clarified:

“Most students don’t report sexual victimisation because these kinds of incidences are normally swept under the carpet. For example, when an employee victimizes a student they are only just dismissed and students are not warned that something like this happened within the institution just to raise awareness. They often protect perpetrators when the perpetrators victimise students. A follow-up and debriefing should be done so that it is brought to our attention and we are made aware of what is happened and whether justice is served. Students don’t report because they do not observe any commitment from the institution to deal with these issues of sexual victimisation of female students” (A: S1).

Considering that most of these females are entering higher institutions for the first time are vulnerable, innocent and unexposed and naïve and eager to adventure into their newly gained freedom, many encounter sexual predators, counselling is therefore essential (Dranzoa, 2018). Formal support includes survivor assistance resources such as health care, counselling, and crisis support, as well as criminal justice system resources, such as law enforcement agencies and courts (Lindquist, Crosby, Barrick, Krebs & Settles-Reaves, 2016). This study identified that the selected institutions of higher learning have facilities known as student support services, health care Centre and security services that has the main functions to handle reports of sexual victimisation as well as offer counselling and medical assistance to the victim. Since school administrators want to minimise the evidence produced out of their internal investigations-in hopes that the problem would disappear, they do not help the victim get justice, and they do not afford the person accused the possibility of a fair defence. This study found that institutions suspend or expel perpetrators of sexual victimisation in an attempt to serve justice. However, the criminal justice system does not render a punishment since it is handled internally. This results in disappointment to the victim causing a lack of trust in the support offered by the institution.

The policy on harassment, Gender-Based Violence, and bullying for Institution B states in its objectives that the institution's role is to:

“To establish procedures for the reporting, investigation and resolution of complaints of harassment, gender-based violence (GBV) and bullying and

“To provide comprehensive medical, psycho-social and counselling support to complainants of Harassment, GBV and Bullying.”

The policy reflects that the institution is committed to providing students who fall victim to sexual victimisation with all the necessary support. However, the reality is that support is not

adequate because participants state that some staff members are not adequately trained and the facilities are not conducive to the support. According to Tampah-Naah (2020), just as with most sexual harassment policies, especially for HEI's there is always a determination to promote equity and safety intended to enhance the welfare and progression of all staff and students. However, when students do not trust the institution, the merits of reporting are questionable. Lack of trust in the institution is often a result of a situation when objectives such as the ones stated are not implemented in reality. Hence, there is no true measure of whether these objectives are efficiently implemented or not.

Furthermore, the SAPS is mandated to respond to cases of sexual victimisation, as stated in their Code of Conduct:

*“We, as Police Officials of the South African Police Service commit ourselves to the creation of a safe and secure environment for all people in South Africa by –
participating in endeavors to address the root causes of crime in the community;
preventing action which may threaten the safety or security of any community; and
investigating criminal conduct which has endangered the safety or security of the community and bringing the perpetrators thereof to justice” (SAPS webpage).*

Victims of sexual victimisation have a right to report their victimisation to SAPS for justice to be served. Participants in this study share that the institution does not support victims in terms of ensuring that a case is registered with SAPS and to follow up on the case. It further eliminates the element of trust between students and the institution.

6.9. Usefulness of existing strategies for policing sexual victimisation.

The study also had a research objective to evaluate the effectiveness of strategies adopted in policing sexual victimisation. The responses below addressed the question of whether or not these strategies exist and whether or not they are effective. The responses are divided into three categories: student participants who believe the strategies are effective, student participants who believe the strategies are ineffective, and staff members who believe the institution has implemented effective strategies to police and monitor sexual victimisation.

Student participants who found strategies adopted by the institution effective, said:

“I don’t know if everyone does this but I was in a situation where I was faced with someone who tried to sexually victimise me and what I did is I told my residence assistant who then wrote a report because that perpetrator lived in the same residence. That report was taken to the investigation department of the university of which steps were taken. I was very impressed with the steps they took and they forwarded it to the police. It was a moment of surprise for me when I saw how seriously my case was taken. The process I followed was never a result of aware but I had to think for myself and see who I could approach. I feel like the tools of reporting victimisation needs revising and the university can better communicate strategies if they do exist” (A: S10).

Expulsion is an effective deterring strategy as S participant stated:

“I don’t know any but there’s a male student who beat up their girlfriend and he was expelled from the university. There was an announcement at our residence that this type of behaviour will not be tolerated and expulsion will be the solution. I think this is a harsh form of punishment that is effective in deterring sexual victimisation of female students” (B: S9).

Student participants who found strategies adopted by the institution ineffective shared:

“There are fundamental questions that one must put into account regarding your question:

Are the structures put into place well equipped enough to deal with these matters?

Do we have enough preventative measures to curb such behavior?

Do we have qualified practitioners in place to handle these matters?

Unfortunately, I would respond no to all these questions which is a sign that our university still has a long way to go with regards to dealing with sexual victimisation” (A: S7).

The issue of resources emerged in the response below:

“The university has the resources but they do not utilise the resources that they have. For instance, there are counsellors in our institution, there are trained social workers who are lecturers and they are registered with the board to counsel people and are legally allowed to offer counselling services. There are also RMS who are trained to investigate cases but as much as we have those services that don’t do follow-ups, and if you don’t pester them then your case will become a cold case. They will tell you that they have 250 cases and make you feel as if your case is not special. I feel like if they allocate services accordingly it will show how they

treat sexual victimisation seriously. I am not saying cases of theft are not important but sexual victimisation must be of top priority. But you find that I attend a counselling session online, on ZOOM on our days and the counsellor won't do a follow-up or recommend an available counsellor for whenever I might be triggered I can talk to them. They treat counselling as a side job, not a priority so that's why I say they have the resources but don't use them efficiently" (C: S6).

As mentioned by S participant below, the institution appears to be getting it wrong:

"I know that at our campus there are cameras at residences and libraries. However, when something happens there seems to be no footage which is very strange. I would like to think that they do have the safety idea in mind but they don't put it into place effectively" (B: S1).

Student councillors and security personnel claim that the interventions currently in place for policing sexual victimisation are effective. The responses from SC and SS participants are as follows:

There has been noted improvements as stated below:

"Honestly, it was never too good but recently the university has upped its approach The university has hired a private company to assist the institution with strategies to deal with sexual harassment. Security has been beefed up and there has been an enactment of very influential committees. Partnerships are formed with different institutions to create a system of support. There is a GBV satellite that the institution is coming up with. Those hubs are where students can report and access assistance 24 hours. These spaces will be conducive for students to open up in a comfortable space with trained staff members" (A: SS1).

Both proactive and reactive interventions are implemented:

"I am aware that we have policies that promote Zero Tolerance for GBV. We also hold dialogues and seminars. Students who report victimisation are supported and the perpetrator is expelled and faces criminal charges" (B: SS1).

Security measures have been upgraded:

"There has been an installation of CCTV cameras in campus facilities. There are also patrols. The institution emphasizes the code of conduct especially to regulate students in residences and ensuring that visitors are not staying during odd hours when they are not allowed" (B: SS2).

“Security has been upgraded for access into the campus. There are also campaigns to create awareness and dialogue” (B: SC4).

From accessing institutional policies, it is evident that institutions of higher learning adhered to the instruction by the Minister of Higher Education that each institution devises a policy to address issues of Gender-Based Violence, particularly sexual harassment. This study was guided by policies from two of the selected institutions which highlight the role of the institution in coming up with interventions and strategies to curb sexual harassment and victimisation. The institutions have comprehensive policies, however, participants argue that these policies are not efficiently implemented either due to insufficient resources or by a misunderstanding of the seriousness of the problem by the institution. Dougherty (2017) underscores the complicated nature of a policy for sexual harassment but states that it is only a first step that needs to be followed by persistent training, a willingness to listen to victims and a readiness to take drastic action without fear or favour. Institutions of higher learning need to adopt an approach that will ensure the correct implementation of strategies to police or prevent sexual victimisation as highlighted in policy documents.

Responses from students and staff members depicted somewhat differing opinions as to whether the strategies that are being adopted are proving to be effective. The majority of the student participants were not aware of strategies put in place by the institution. To some point stating that the institution is failing to deal with the issue. Those that have been exposed to cases of sexual victimisation either by witnessing or being a victim, stated their disappointment towards the institution and how it is handling the issue. Similar findings from a study by Lindquist et al. (2016) revealed that several students expressed dissatisfaction with the current environments at campus police offices, which were perceived as intimidating, and counselling centres, which were perceived as embarrassing or clinic-like. This study expanded on this in previous sections where participants shared that lack of reporting is due to such environments mentioned. Lindquist et al. (2016), many students emphasised the need for more comprehensive and free services such as crisis centres, 24/7 hotlines, women’s centres, departments specifically focused on sexual assault, more counsellors, and health centres that are open on weekends and do not require appointments. There is a need for a comprehensive approach in dealing with the problematic nature of the sexual victimisation of female students. Other student participants commended the institution for an effective effort that has been noted.

Moreover, staff members mentioned strategies that proved to be effective. These are strategies such as upgrading security capacity, installing CCTVs and developing hubs that accommodate victims of sexual victimisation. These hubs illuminate the “embarrassing and clinic-like” description, described by students in Lindquist et al. (2016) study. A conclusion drawn from this is that there are effective strategies, however, there is still a lot of room for improvement. Sexual violence is a multi-layered issue, and no single prevention approach will create the change needed to reduce or eliminate sexual violence. One can fully commend the effectiveness of strategies only when the rates of sexual victimisation cases decrease and the safety of female students is endorsed.

6.10. Chapter Summary

The chapter presented data gleaned from the interview sessions. The research questions to which participants responded stemmed from the study's objectives. Furthermore, the study's findings were discussed in light of the legislative, policy, and theoretical framework used in this study. Participants offered broad definitions of sexual victimisation while also explaining the causes of sexual victimisation in higher education institutions. The effects of sexual victimisation on the victim, as well as the general student and staff community, were discussed, illuminating why these cases go unreported to university authorities. The findings of this study revealed that policies exist that guide the approach institutions must take to implement interventions; however, a lack of knowledge and resources prevents these policies from being implemented effectively.

The study also discovered that some strategies are being implemented to address issues of sexual victimisation of female students at higher education institutions. Following the discussion of these strategies, recommendations emerged, which will be discussed in the following chapter.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1. Introduction

The chapter provides conclusions and recommendations based on the study's objectives. The recommendations are interconnected in three ways: awareness, prevention, and response. Furthermore, the implementation of these three aspects in tandem will contribute to a reduction in sexual victimisation in HEIs.

7.2. Understanding the social context of sexual victimisation.

The participants' narratives provided a comprehensive understanding of what constitutes sexual victimisation. The sensitive issue of consent was thoroughly investigated because it contributed to ambiguity in the victimisation process. There were identified categories ranging from verbal, physical, and violent acts. Unwanted derogatory sexual comments, sexual advances, sending inappropriate content to someone, touching of breast and buttocks, fondling, attempted rape, and the transactional nature of sex for marks were all examples given by participants. It has been established that either verbal or physical victimisation has a number of negative consequences for the victim. This is similar to previous studies on sexual victimisation in South Africa, as discussed in the analysis section..

Furthermore, student housing has been identified as a common location for such incidents. Females are more likely to be victimised in student residences. Furthermore, social events such as fresher's braai, where students, particularly first-year students, gather, have been identified as environments where female students are victimised. These occurrences frequently occur at night, as revealed by a study that sexual victimisation is prevalent at night where there is a lack of guardianship. They are victimised by senior students, who either take advantage of their inexperience or introduce them to alcohol, increasing their chances of victimisation significantly.

7.3. Situating Perpetrators of sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning

Female students were victimised by male students, SRC members, and academic staff members, according to the study. The majority of female students are victimised by their male boyfriends or men with whom they have hookups. Furthermore, the "hook up" culture, in which students gather and consume alcohol, has contributed to a high number of sexual victimisation offences at these institutions. Consent has a significant impact on the high rates of intimate partner sexual violence. According to the findings of this study, some male perpetrators were unaware that they had victimised a female student because they had previously obtained consent when engaging in sexual intercourse. Furthermore, the female students knew the majority of the male perpetrators.

SRC members, in particular, were identified as perpetrators. These SRC members are frequently senior students who are tasked with orienting the new student cohort entering the university system. Their authority and power are enhanced by exploiting the vulnerability of these female students. As a result of their need for assistance with registration and securing accommodation, these new students foster interpersonal interaction. Nonetheless, despite their honourable facilitative mandate, SRC members violate this social contract and prey on these female students who are unable to exercise their agency by refusing to engage sexually. This is a violation of the SRC's constitution because they are supposed to help students, not victimise them. Furthermore, it runs counter to the institutional mandate of providing a safe teaching and learning environment for students and staff.

Finally, this study reveals that male lecturers use their position of leadership to negotiate sex for marks from female students. They are manipulated into sexual intercourse or other sexual acts in exchange for academic advancement. The transactional nature includes, for example, access to a question paper prior to the assessment date, improved mark allocation, or even non-participation in the examination but still receiving marks. The study also stated that female students who are victimised by their male lecturers are unlikely to report because they are afraid of failing. Another concomitant aspect is the lecturer's system protection. The pervasiveness of institutional structures' lack of protection ironically protects the lecturer rather than the vulnerable student. Furthermore, the reason advanced for failing to report was fear of reprisal not only from the lecturer but also from the university's appropriate response, which could impede their academic career at the university.

7.4. Causes of sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning

There is a range of factors that contribute to the victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning. These factors may be discussed on a micro level which is those such as alcohol consumption, drug abuse and intimate partner violence. Moreover, they can be macro-level factors such as lack of education, power dynamics and background and socialisation. Much of the victimisation is attributed to these factors and on certain occasions an interplay of more than one factor.

This study finds that alcohol consumption and drug abuse are dominant contributors to sexual victimisation. Security staff members suggested this finding because they stated that after weekends they get many reports of victimisation that happened at a certain party where students were drinking or using substances. Alcohol alters the cognition of a human being, promotes poor decision making and encourages risky behaviour. It is discussed that cases of sexual victimisation either involve an intoxicated perpetrator, an intoxicated victim or in many cases both the victim and the perpetrator are intoxicated. It was argued in this study that institutions of higher learning do not allow the consumption of alcohol within the campus, however still harbour a culture of alcohol because students find ways to access alcohol.

Much of the incidences discussed in this study are related to intimate partner violence. This is one of the contributing factors to the sexual victimisation of female students. The violence that exists in intimate relationships escalates to sexual victimisation. Female students are forced into sexual intercourse by their male partners, consent is not given and sometimes these cases are not even identified as sexual victimisation because the female student labels it as 'bad sex' when in actual fact they are victimised. This leads the discussion to another contributing factor which is the lack of education about consent and sexual victimisation. This study finds that female students are sexually victimised due to not possessing adequate knowledge of giving and receiving consent. Lack of sex education negatively impacts the sexual decisions of both the victim and the perpetrator. This study finds that some perpetrators do not know that they are sexually victimising a female student because they do not identify their behaviour as victimisation. An example of this is that culturally men are conditioned to be initiators of sexual intercourse and women receivers. When a female does not consent, the male gets a signal to pursue further due to the 'hunter' conditioning, not realising that it is now sexual victimisation.

Another factor that contributed to high incidences of female students, discussed in line with the perpetration of sexual victimisation by SRC and lecturers, was an abuse of power. This

study discusses how abuse of power contributes to victimisation. Cultural, social and gender dynamics come into play where female students are in vulnerable positions of being taken advantage of by senior SRC students and lecturers. When students are at university, they have goals and aspirations that they are working towards. Perpetrators such as lecturers take advantage of that because they are aware that students will do whatever it takes to achieve academic excellence. The “sex for marks” phenomenon is a result of power abuse. Students are capable of being professionally guided into academic excellence but some lecturers will suppress and violate students for sexual gratification.

Finally, a contributing factor that was discussed in this study was the background and socialisation of students. The university accommodates students from diverse cultural, religious and social backgrounds. In the context of this study, the cultural conditioning of the population of the selected institutions is predominantly from African cultural teachings. Men are groomed into dominance and women into submission. Men are also socialised to be masculine often translated as hard and rough, while women are socialised to be feminine, maintaining a soft and gentle demeanour. It is from this conditioning, which gender stereotypes and sexual scripts emerge. These put women in situations where they are susceptible to victimisation because they are objectified and promote men to be perpetrators because they possess power over women.

7.5. Effects of sexual victimisation on the female students

Sexual victimisation is a violation of one's human rights and an affront to one's dignity. According to the findings of this study, victims of sexual victimisation face long-term consequences that necessitate the assistance of trained counsellors. Consistent with previous studies discussed in the previous chapter, the findings of this study show that victims of sexual victimisation have been observed to withdraw from their academic and social environments. Shame, fear of judgement, and avoiding contact with the perpetrator are all reasons for this withdrawal. Victims frequently lock themselves in their rooms, refuse to attend classes or complete assessments, and refuse to participate in any institution activity.

After withdrawal, the victim experiences trauma, stress and depression. Flashbacks from the victimisation incidence may cause trauma where the victim undergoes a mental breakdown while trying to deal with the aftermath of the victimisation. If not professionally attended to, trauma leads to stress which ultimately causes depression. It was found that victims who do report victimisation suffer these extreme effects due to lack of support.

Additionally, this study reveals that victims of sexual victimisation are in most cases infected with STIs, STDs, HIV and deal with an unwanted pregnancy. Perpetrators of sexual victimisation were described as individuals who often undertake risky behaviour and are likely to engage in unsafe sex. Their victims are affected by this as infections and diseases are transmitted through rape where a condom is not used. Moreover, unsafe sex results in an unwanted pregnancy. If the victim does not get rapid health attention after the incident, she will likely have to deal with one or all of these effects.

Students are at university to work towards their academic and career goals. It is heart-breaking that those who become victims face the consequence of poor academic performance. The health and psychological effects of sexual victimisation negatively impact the ability of the student to perform well in their academics. This could be attributed to the initial withdrawal that victims go through where they no longer attend classes or complete assessments. The outcome is academic delay and sometimes dropping out. This study finds that victims who report victimisation receive support that may minimise the negative effects of sexual victimisation. However, when the victim does not report, they deal with the aftermath alone causing all effects to be experienced greatly and affecting negatively the academic efficiency of the student.

The study also finds through discussions, that sexual victimisation not only affects the victim but also affects the general student and staff community. It was revealed that sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning compromises the safety and security of the institution. Participants shared that when they learn of cases where someone was sexually victimised, they feel unsafe and scared. Furthermore, students and staff members develop paranoia because they wonder if they are next. It was also eminent in responses that participants gave that sexual victimisation on institutions of higher learning translates into institutional failure. Therefore, high reports of sexual victimisation in on-campus facilities or residences diminish the reputation of the institution and cause mistrust between the student body and the leadership of the university.

Students who are victimised within the university feel institutional betrayal because they expect to feel safe and be protected from harm while undertaking academic activities on the university premises. The betrayal worsens if the student is victimised by a staff member and when justice is not served.

7.6. The underreporting of sexual victimisation

The study confirmed what previous studies have confirmed, as discussed in the analysis section, that sexual victimisation of female students is underreported. It has been discovered that statistics do not accurately reflect what is going on in institutions. However, there are far more cases of female student sexual exploitation than what is reported. This study sought to discover the reasons for non-reporting and discovered that victims do not report because they are ashamed, blame themselves, or are afraid of the perpetrator. When they are victimised by someone they know or their intimate partners, victims frequently experience shame and self-blame. They also feel shame and self-blame in situations involving alcohol and drug use/abuse. They may be afraid of the perpetrator if the perpetrator is a staff member with the authority to suppress the victim academically or harm the victim.

The study also found that fear of experiencing secondary victimisation was one of the greatest reasons for the non-reporting of sexual victimisation. It is a challenge for female victims who have been victimised by a male perpetrator to approach another male for assistance. This is why some victims will opt to not report the incidence. Furthermore, it has been revealed that victims are asked invasive questions that require them to retell the tragedy, how these questions are asked has also played a role in secondary victimisation. Victims would rather handle victimisation on their own instead of being asked many questions that revoke further trauma. Moreover, it was discussed that the reporting environment does not make reporting easy. The security offices in institutions of higher learning are public and busy places. Victims do not report because they are afraid of approaching those offices and the stigma attached to reporting a case in the presence of several officers and possibly students who are there for other things.

Lastly, victims do not report because they lack trust in university support structures. This is a result of cases that might have previously been reported but not handled appropriately. Students share information on campus, if one was victimised and did not get assistance, they will talk about it causing others to not approach the university for support in the future. Lack of trust may also be due to investigation processes that are not transparent and often do not lead to justice being served. When victims of sexual victimisation do not get justice by means of the perpetrator being punished, this causes disappointment and lack of trust and sometimes even a decline in other support that the institution may offer.

7.7.Recommendations

The main findings reflect on the various interactional factors that require attention. This section offers related recommendations.

7.7.1. Improvement in institutional policies pertaining to sexual victimisation

The existing institutional policies unquestionably address sexual victimisation. It should be noted, however, that institutions aim for compliance in adhering to DHET's request, rather than necessarily prioritising efforts. It is suggested that institutional policies be improved in order to have a comprehensive approach to addressing sexual victimisation both proactively and reactively. Specific sections of the policies must be implemented exactly as written. Currently, implementation difficulties predominate. Furthermore, adequate resource allocation by DHE&T to HEIs, particularly their intervention strategies, will facilitate this process of comprehensive implementation.

7.7.2. Embedding of sex education in the curriculum at entry level modules

As discussed in the analysis section, male and female socialisation differ significantly, with males conditioned to be dominant and females conditioned to be submissive. Sexual stereotyping and sexual scripts play a significant role in student engagement. HEIs are uniquely positioned to challenge such assumptions. Perhaps incorporating such components into the curriculum and hosting dialogues on mutual respect culture. Such open interaction will conscientise students, especially given the analysis's mention of a knowledge gap among males. Furthermore, security staff members should give presentations during orientation while introducing this course to familiarise students with the details of the institutional policies and security protocols.

University administration frequently assumes that students are well-informed, when studies of this type reveal that students are not well-informed. Higher education institutions must bridge the knowledge gap by developing and implementing a mandatory sex education module for all first-time entering students. This study acknowledges that one of the selected institutions under study has implemented a sex education programme for all first-year students. Other institutions can use this as a model to ensure that this module covers a wide range of critical topics such as gender, sexuality, sexual intercourse, consent, lifestyle, alcohol consumption, substance use,

and basic human rights. This will contribute to the development of a student's identity that is founded on information rather than experience. Unfortunately, many students form an identity as a result of the consequences of poor decisions that are aided by a lack of information. Students will be in a better position to make informed decisions if the institution commits to developing their students at the entry level, such as not participating in a nightlife associated with alcohol consumption because this increases their chances of victimisation.

Furthermore, this will teach students that avoiding having multiple sexual partners lowers the risk of sexual victimisation. This study also finds that some perpetrators are not aware that they are victimising a student. This calls for extensive education on acceptable human behaviour and respecting human rights as outlined in Chapter 2 of the Constitution. Male students who in this study have been identified as perpetrators need to be exposed to sex education that teaches them what is acceptable behaviour and what is not. The concept of consent is a crucial one for male students because it is a lack of understanding of this concept that results in sexual victimisation incidents in intimate partner relationships. As revealed in other studies, if males understand consent, they will be in a greater position to immediately stop sexual advances if the female does not give consent. This important information will contribute to a safe campus and residence climate where students will be positively informed of their lifestyles and decision making.

7.7.3. Creation of dialogue with students to build awareness and promote information sharing

Participants expressed dissatisfaction with the level of disengagement adopted by institutions of higher learning. According to the findings of this study, the student body is not actively involved in issues of sexual victimisation in their institutions. As a result, there is a schism between the student body and the leadership of the institution, which is in charge of raising awareness and devising interventions. In interviews, participants argue that addressing the issue of sexual victimisation requires a collaborative effort. At the policy level, the institution must involve the student body in ensuring that policy objectives address the student's safety needs. This can be accomplished through a series of dialogues to gather information from students about the location of the problem and how it can be addressed. In terms of awareness, this study suggests that using students as primary facilitators of awareness is the best way to achieve it. Tutors and residence assistants must be at the forefront of awareness campaigns and

programmes, as it will create a greater impact compared to a seminar held by members of staff that students cannot relate to.

Student participation in policymaking and inclusion in interventions will increase trust and reliability. Input from students, who are the university's primary clients, will ensure that both proactive and reactive interventions are problem-specific rather than generic. Victims will no longer have a "them vs. us" mentality and will be able to approach university structures to report victimisation and seek assistance. Victims' primary points of contact will be the same tutors and residence assistance. One participant argued that it is easier to report victimisation to a fellow student rather than an old security personnel.

In line with the recommendation to initiate dialogue, an extension of this recommendation is to use emails to raise awareness by informing the student community of any report of sexual victimisation on the university's campus. This initiative will keep students informed about what is going on in their institution, as well as raise awareness and caution. Students are vulnerable to victimisation when they are unaware that their safety is jeopardised, perhaps at night or in their residences, due to an identified perpetrator. Keeping them up to date on safety and security issues will benefit their safety.

7.7.4. Employing permanent visible awareness

In addressing issues of sexual victimisation of female students, awareness plays both a proactive and a reactive role. Awareness is critical in both preventing students from being victimised and directing students to available support structures if they are victimised. According to the findings of this study, higher education institutions are making adequate efforts to raise awareness. There is, however, room for improvement. Most participants were unaware of where they could report if they became victims, and they were also unaware of how to contact their student counselling division. This creates a significant gap in the provision of assistance to students who become victims. It was also discovered that awareness efforts are ineffective because they occur infrequently. This study suggests that permanent visible awareness be implemented. Every day, posters, banners, and stations must be visible to all students.

The use of a technique to raise awareness for COVID-19 was successful because information was available at all times. A study participant stated that when you open your laptop for work, there are COVID-19 tips on TV, office walls, and shop walls. The participant went on to say

that no matter how ignorant one is, this level of disease awareness forced citizens to learn about it and provided information on how to prevent infections and treat it. This approach should be taken in the case of sexual assaults in institutions of higher learning. Sexual assault is a pandemic in higher education institutions; therefore, strategic and robust interventions with long-term effects are required.

7.7.5. Upgrading security system in residences and access gates of the institution

Institutions of higher learning are structurally open access, allowing students, staff, and the general public to use facilities such as the library, lecture halls, computer labs, and residences. Institutional security measures necessitate signing in if you are not a registered student or staff member. This is untrustworthy because it cannot be guaranteed that proper identification and justification for access information is always used. This study recommends that security at university entrance points be upgraded so that everyone who enters the institution can be identified, as well as that all activities within the university be monitored in order to detect any unusual or dangerous behaviour within facilities.

Residences are also high on the priority list, as many students are victimised in their dorms. Security guards must be visible and accessible to students on residences 24/7. Upgraded security measures include the installation of emergency buttons in residences, the installation of CCTV cameras, and the stationing of security guards at each entrance to the residence. According to the theoretical framework used in this study, guardianship, which is regarded as security, is a critical component in the execution of a criminal activity, in this case sexual victimisation. A lack of it creates a favourable environment for sexual exploitation. Higher education institutions must eliminate the element of lack of guardianship by implementing effective security measures.

7.7.6. Creating an anonymous reporting online portal for victims

Underreporting of sexual victimisation is the reason perpetrators get away with it and continue to victimise other students. The purpose of this study was to elucidate the reasons why victims do not report sexual victimisation to university authorities. These factors include, but are not limited to, self-blame, fear of the perpetrator, and fear of secondary victimisation. This study's recommendation for addressing these reasons is the establishment of an anonymous reporting portal where victims can openly share their victimisation and have the option to choose how

they want to be supported. This portal can then be used to send a trained investigator and a student counsellor to the victim, who can be in the comfort of their campus residence or private accommodation. This will eliminate the element of secondary victimisation because the victim will receive support in a location that they prefer rather than having to go to a station crowded with security guards or a counselling centre with students walking in and out. Furthermore, secondary victimisation will be eliminated because the victim will be able to work with the deployed trained staff members rather than being passed from one member to the next while seeking assistance.

An online portal will also ensure that students can report incidents as soon as they occur. If it happens in the middle of the night, for example, the student does not have to wait until the next morning to report it to campus security. They will be able to report the victimisation by using their cell phone or laptop to access the reporting portal. Having an online reporting portal also eliminates factors like feelings of shame because the student will communicate what happened before meeting the investigator or student counsellor in person.

7.7.7. Expanding student counselling divisions to accommodate greater number of students

Victims of sexual victimisation face long-term consequences that necessitate the assistance of a trained counsellor. This study discussed how institutions of higher learning cater to the needs of victims by offering free counselling services. However, this study also revealed that there are flaws in the assistance provided. During the data collection process, it was discovered that one of the three selected institutions only had one (1) trained student counsellor on campus. Furthermore, participants stated that all of the selected institutions of higher learning lacked sufficient student counsellor capacity. It was discussed that these counsellors were not available without an appointment and that there were no after-hours counsellors. To address this shortfall, it was suggested that institutions of higher learning commit to training more student counsellors to accommodate large populations of university students.

It is recommended that the university hire female lecturers, RAs, and staff members from departments such as social work and psychology. Because of the power dynamics discussed in the analysis chapter that exist between males and females, this recommendation specifies the use of females only, which would discourage a student victim who has been victimised by a male from approaching another male for assistance and support. Some of these employees already have the necessary skills to counsel students and are registered with the appropriate

boards to provide such services. These employees can work in any of the institution's faculties or departments. The university will not have to go out and find people; instead, they will be able to use their current staff members. This approach also addresses the issue of non-reporting because there is already a trusting relationship between female academics and RAs, which provides a safe reporting space for a victimised student.

7.7.8. Capacitating and training protective staff members

One of the most widely discussed causes of sexual victimisation non-reporting is victims' fear of secondary victimisation. In interviews, it was discussed that victims frequently face secondary victimisation because they report to security personnel who are not adequately trained to deal with cases of sexual victimisation. According to a security company, the university hires security personnel with general security qualifications and skills. Not all security personnel have the knowledge and expertise to assist victims or perpetrators of sexual victimisation. General campus criminal activity differs significantly from sexual offences. As a result, attending to and investigating these cases necessitates critical skills. It is the responsibility of higher education institutions to train their security personnel to deal with sexual victimisation cases effectively and efficiently. Capacitating security personnel will also ensure a smooth investigation process in which the evidence is not tainted and the victim is not discouraged from continuing with the case until justice is served.

Furthermore, issues of mistrust between the student body and the university can be eliminated if students can approach professionally trained security staff members and be assisted efficiently. Students will also encourage other victims to report if they have faith in the security services provided by the institution and believe that their case will be handled properly.

7.7.9. Enacting of a Gender-Based Violence office that specialises in cases of sexual victimisation

In one of the discussions, a student participant described security services as "unwelcoming cold rooms" that filtered the victim's comfort to open up and feel safe after the invasive incidence of sexual victimisation. According to other studies cited in the analysis chapter, security reporting offices are "clinic-like and embarrassing." This helps to explain why victims prefer not to report. Institutions can put more effort into creating safe and comfortable spaces where victims can physically go to report on their experiences and seek additional assistance.

This study recommends the establishment of Gender-Based Violence hubs that specialise in sexual victimisation cases. These could be similar to the rooms used by the new model of sexual offences court. These private rooms are designed to be victim-friendly and to provide a safe environment for the victim.

Trained security and student counsellors should be stationed in these hubs to champion this division of the institution's security services. Implementing these hubs will also improve reporting because victims will be aware of a safe location to which they can go if they are victimised. Because they are designed specifically for GBV, these hubs will be less crowded than a typical security office. They will also be less crowded than the general student counselling centre. This type of environment will encourage victims to talk about their victimisation and seek help.

7.7.10. Forming a partnership with the South African Police Service community policing division.

Community policing forums aim to ensure police accountability, transparency and effectiveness in the community. It is a proactive strategy that allows for the SAPS and the community to have a partnership in tackling crime. It is discussed in this study findings that the selected institutions lack policing strategies for sexual victimisation within the institution. The study makes mention of security services and CCTV installation as the only primary policing mechanisms which limits the exploration of the usefulness of strategies used in policing sexual victimisation. This shortfall in policing strategies can be strengthened by the formation of a partnership with the South African Police Service community policing division. Considering that these institutions of higher learning are geographically located within communities, the presence of the CPF in prioritising safety in the institution will be beneficial. Community policing being an adopted crime prevention strategy has proven to address criminal activity in the general KwaZulu Natal communities, therefore would be a useful strategy contributing to the successful policing of sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning.

Where accountability, transparency and effectiveness is concerned, the relationship will encourage a commitment to the investigation of cases escalated to the SAPS by the institutions. The investigation of cases of sexual victimisation is a critical process. Victim healing is closely associated with the investigation process because when justice is served, the victim becomes at ease to receive further support from the institution in overcoming the trauma left by the incident. However, if the perpetrator gets away with it, feelings of betrayal and anger are

developed by the victim. The institution bears the onus of ensuring that justice is served when the perpetrator is found guilty.

Furthermore, programmes and interventions used by CPF can be included in those adopted by the institution regarding the issue of sexual victimisation. This will provide a multidimensional approach to tackling the issue of sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu Natal. The university should have posters all over the campus containing emergency telephonic numbers to call when in danger or experiencing sexual victimisation of all sorts. This will prevent the reoccurring of on-campus sexual victimisation and make the campus a better place for young ladies. Additionally, there is a need to increase the number of security guards mostly the number during the night should be doubled compared to the day on duty number of security guards. Lastly, the institution should provide females students with chemical mace, pepper spray, or alarm system tools that can provide physical guardianship. When people lack social guardianship and physical guardianship, they are more likely to be victimized.

Recommendations for future research

The following are suggested areas for further examination with regards to sexual victimisation:

- Research on the “sex for marks” phenomenon needs to be conducted in order to ascertain the contributory factors of this type of victimisation.
- Further research must be done on the adequacy of resources that DHET makes available to institutions of higher learning for the correct implementation of policies and intervention strategies.
- The concept of “stealththing” which emerged in one interview session of the current study must be further researched. It is prevalent amongst the youth, particularly university students and is a serious form of victimisation.
- Research needs to also be done on the competency of security staff members in dealing with victims and cases of sexual victimisation.

7.8. Chapter Summary

The study examined the social context of the sexual victimisation of female students in institutions of higher learning in KwaZulu-Natal. Several conclusions about sexual victimisation were implicitly and explicitly inferred from this study as discussed in sections of

this chapter. The use of literature, theoretical framework; and a policy and legislative framework to substantiate the findings of this study contributes to the body of knowledge on the problematic nature of sexual victimisation of female students. The emerging themes discussed reveal that sexual victimisation is widespread and urgently needs to be addressed. It is not enough for institutions of higher learning to have sexual harassment and Gender-Based Violence policies; the institution must also vigorously and comprehensively implement problem-oriented rather than generic interventions. In order to eradicate the "silent pandemic", the DHET, institutional leadership, student body, and other stakeholders must work together. This study offers both proactive and reactive recommendations that will make a significant contribution to addressing sexual victimisation issues.

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Appendix A: UKZN Ethical Clearance



3 November 2017

Ms Mandisa Samukelisiwe Makhaye 212550451
School of Applied Human Sciences
Howard College Campus

Dear Ms Makhaye

Protocol reference number: HSS/1381/017D

Project Title: An examination of the social context of sexual victimization of female students on institutions of higher learning at KwaZulu-Natal (Durban)

Full Approval – Full Committee Reviewed Protocol

In response to your application received 4 August 2017, the Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee has considered the abovementioned application and the protocol has been granted **FULL APPROVAL**.

Any alteration/s to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study, Research Approach and Methods must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. In case you have further queries, please quote the above reference number.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the discipline/department for a period of 5 years.

The ethical clearance certificate is only valid for a period of 3 years from the date of issue. Thereafter Recertification must be applied for on an annual basis.

I take this opportunity of wishing you everything of the best with your study.

Yours faithfully



.....
Dr Shamlia Naidoo (Deputy Chair)
Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

/pm

Cc Supervisor: Dr Sazelo Mkhize
Cc Academic Leader Research: Dr Jean Steyn
Cc School Administrator: Ms Ayanda Ntuli

Humanities & Social Sciences Research Ethics Committee

Dr Shenuka Singh (Chair)

Westville Campus, Govan Mbeki Building

Postal Address: Private Bag X54001, Durban 4000

Telephone: +27 (0) 31 260 3587/8350/4557 Facsimile: +27 (0) 31 260 4609 Email: simbard@ukzn.ac.za / soymann@ukzn.ac.za / mohunep@ukzn.ac.za

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Appendix B: UKZN Recertification Ethical Approval



15 September 2021

Ms Mandisa Samukelisiwe Makhaye (212550451)
School of Applied Human Sciences – Criminology & Forensic Studies
Howard College Campus

Dear Ms Makhaye,

Protocol reference number : HSS/1381/017D

Project title: An examination of the social context of sexual victimization of female students on institutions of higher learning at KwaZulu-Natal (Durban)

Approval Notification – Recertification Application

Your request for Recertification dated 13 September 2021 was received.

This letter confirms that you have been granted Recertification Approval for a period of one year from the date of this letter. This approval is based strictly on the research protocol submitted and approved in 2017.

Any alterations to the approved research protocol i.e. Questionnaire/Interview Schedule, Informed Consent Form, Title of the Project, Location of the Study must be reviewed and approved through the amendment /modification prior to its implementation. Please quote the above reference number for all queries relating to this study.

PLEASE NOTE: Research data should be securely stored in the school/department for a period of 5 years

All research conducted during the COVID-19 period must adhere to the national and UKZN guidelines.

HSSREC is registered with the South African National Research Ethics Council (REC-040414-040).

Yours sincerely,

Professor Dipane Hlalele (Chair)

/dd

Appendix C: Informed Consent Form

School of Applied Human Sciences,
University of KwaZulu-Natal,
Howard College Campus,

Dear Participant

INFORMED CONSENT LETTER

My name is Ms. Mandisa Makhaye. I am a PhD candidate studying at the University of KwaZulu-Natal, Howard College campus, South Africa. I am currently conducting a research study titled: *An examination of the social context of sexual victimisation of female students on institutions of higher learning at KwaZulu-Natal (Durban)*. Your institution was purposively selected to be one of the institutions to participate in the study and you have also been selected to be one of the students to participate.

To gather the information, I am interested in asking you some questions.
Please note that:

- Your confidentiality is guaranteed as your inputs will not be attributed to you in person, but reported only as a population member opinion.
- The interview may last for about 1 hour and may be split depending on your preference.
- Any information given by you cannot be used against you, and the collected data will be used for purposes of this research only.
- Data will be stored in secure storage and destroyed after 5 years.
- You have a choice to participate, not participate or stop participating in the research. You will not be judged for taking such an action.
- The purpose of this study is to get a crystal clear understanding of the social context of female sexual victimisation in institutions of higher learning.
- Your involvement is purely for academic purposes only, and there are no financial benefits involved.
- If you are willing to be interviewed, please indicate (by ticking as applicable) whether or not you are willing to allow the interview to be recorded by the following equipment:

	willing	Not willing
Audio equipment		
Photographic equipment		
Video equipment		

I can be contacted at:

Email: mandisa23.enactusukzn@gmail.com or Makhayem@ukzn.ac.za

Cell: 0823633071

My supervisor is Dr. S Mkhize who is located at the School of Applied Human Sciences, Criminology Department, Howard College campus of the University of KwaZulu-Natal. Contact details: email: mkhizes1@ukzn.ac.za Phone number: 0312601773.

You may also contact the Research Office through:
P. Mohun
HSSREC Research Office,
Tel: 031 260 4557 E-mail: mohunp@ukzn.ac.za

Thank you for your contribution to this research.

Participant's signature _____ Date _____

Researcher's signature _____ Date _____

Appendix D: Interview Schedule



Interview schedule

1. How long have you been a student/staff member at this institution?

Nature:

2. How would you define sexual victimisation of female students in this context?
3. Please highlight a few examples of what constitutes as sexual victimisation in your institution?
4. What is the nature and seriousness of sexual victimisation incidences on this institution?
5. Does it frequently occur at night or during the day?
6. These incidences. Where on the parts of the institutions do they happen?

Contributing factors:

7. What would you say are the contributing factors to female student sexual victimisation?
8. Do these factors vary between male and female students?
9. Would you consider the geographical location of the institution to be a contributing factor? If yes, how so?
10. Who, in your opinion are the perpetrators of sexual victimisation in your institution?

Effects:

11. How does sexual victimisation affect the victim?
12. What effect does it have on the general student and staff community of this institution?
13. Does the institution have adequate support for the victims of sexual victimisation?

Underreporting:

14. Are you aware of where you/ your students can report a sexual victimisation incidence should you/they become a victim while on campus?
15. Studies have revealed that most victims don't report sexual victimisation incidences. Why do you think this is the case?

16. Does the institution create awareness on the steps to take should you/your students be a victim or witness of a sexual victimisation act?

Current strategies:

17. Do you know of any current strategies adopted by this institution for policing sexual victimisation of female students? If yes, please elaborate.

18. In your opinion are these strategies useful in addressing sexual victimisation?

19. What recommendations would you give with regards to dealing with this sexual victimisation of female student's problem?

Thank you.

Appendix E: Acknowledgment of Editing



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TO: WHOM IT MAY CONCERN
SUBJECT: Language Editing
DATE: Tuesday, 07 December 2021

ACKNOWLEDGMENT OF LANGUAGE EDITING

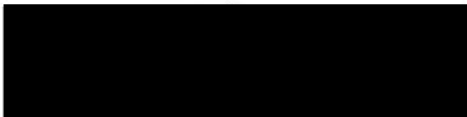
We hereby confirm the language editing of the following research project using the Windows 'tracking' system to reflect our comments and suggested corrections for the writer to action.

Project Title: *"AN EXAMINATION OF THE SOCIAL CONTEXT OF SEXUAL VICTIMISATION OF FEMALE STUDENTS IN INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING IN KWAZULU-NATAL (DURBAN)"* submitted to us by MANDISA SAMUKELISIWE MAKHAYE has been duly edited for language by Information Giants (Pty) Ltd. It is hoped that if all the editorial aspects suggested therein were considered, the target readers of the work would find the document decipherable.

For any enquiries relating to the above, please contact the office during working hours at 015 004 1101/072 097 3791 or info@informationgiants.co.za.

Kind Regards,

Moses Moreroa
Language Editor



Disclaimer:

Although we have made comments and suggested corrections, the responsibility for the quality of the final document lies with the writer in the first instance and not with our organisation as the editors.

Appendix F: Turnitin Similarity Index Report

Document Viewer

Turnitin Originality Report

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Doctor of Philosophy Thesis By Mandisa Makhaye

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